CHAPTER – 2

LITRATURE REVIEW

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2.1 Celebrity

A person who enjoys public recognition from a large share of a certain group of people and uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in advertisements is known as a celebrity. (McCraken 1989). They are usually known to the public for their accomplishments in areas other than the product endorsed by them. (Friedman & Friedman 1979). Further “celebrity” refers to “an individual who is known to the public, such as actors, sport figures, entertainers, etc. for his or her achievement in areas other than that of the product class endorsed” (Friedman and Freidman, 1979). According to Miciak and Shanklin (1994), a celebrity can be an animated character like Fred Flintstone, or an animal.

According to Boorstin (1961) defines celebrity as someone “who is well-known for their well-known-ness”. Marshall (1997), celebrities are celebrated individuals that are unique, in some way, from the average citizen. According to Fredman, Termini and Washington, “a celebrity is sometimes a sports figure, actor, comedian or other type of entertainer”. However, unlike heroic figures, the modern celebrity may not have achieved anything exceptional except, merely, public attention and a product of media representation (Tuner, 2004). According to Tuner (2004) fame is developed, not by the achievement of great things, but, by differentiating one’s personality from those of their competitors. Consequently entertainers lead the ranks of celebrity “because they are skilled in the marginal differentiation of their personalities” (Boorstin, 1961). One of the “know all” resources that keep our society up-to-date about the latest celebrity news is the tabloid press. As noted by Marshall (1997), the tabloid press gives us an outrageous twist on the connotation of the celebrity because it presents the general public a possibility that these “unique talents,” that makes one a celebrity, are vulnerable. As a result, these public individuals are subject to ups and downs in their career, and ultimately their life. As a result, these ups and downs can influence the brand or product that has been endorsed by a particular celebrity. According to McCracken (1989), the success of a celebrity endorsement has to do with the cultural meaning of the celebrity endorser. These meanings vary across status, class, gender and age. In addition, unique celebrity personalities and lifestyles can influence the success of an endorser depending on cultural norms. (McCraken, 1989). These and other source characteristics are significant to advertising research and more specifically, research that focuses on the
effect of celebrity endorsements. In the view of (Phalanging, Fumitaka Furuoka, 2007) the word “celebrities” promises excitement, amusement and fun. They are constantly the focus of attention of thousands of people. People are curious about their lifestyles, secrets, and personalities. They even want to know what products the celebrities usually consume. For marketers, it offers a potential to make profit.

According to literature, various researcher defined celebrity as...

**Cambridge Dictionary.** “Someone who is famous, especially in the entertainment business or the state of being famous”

**Daniel Joseph Boorstin.** (1961) “Celebrity as a person who is well-known for his well-knowingness.”

**Hershey H. Friedman and Linda Friedman** (1979) “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.”

**McCracken** (1989) “A celebrity endorser is an individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement (marketing communication)”

**Hamish Pringle.** (2004) “Celebrity is anyone who is familiar enough to the people a brand wishes to communicate with to add values to that communication by association with their image and reputation.”

**Kurzman et.al.** (2007) “Celebrity is an omnipresent feature of society, blazing lasting impressions in the memories of all who cross its path.”
2.2 Non-celebrity

When an organization cannot find a celebrity that is in unison with the organisation’s brand image, they can create their own “celebrity” endorser, i.e. a created spokesperson. There are two types of created spokespersons an organisation can create; either real people acting out a role or animated/imaginary roles. A created spokesperson has some of the following advantages (Erdogan, 1999 and Tom et al, 1992). Created spokespersons have a higher degree of control and are less costly than celebrities and marketers have the possibility to create a better fit between the product and the endorser. The endorser’s prolonged existence will be for as long as the method is successful for the organisation, whereas “real” celebrities have limited longevity. The same created spokesperson can be used indefinitely and adapted to changing circumstances. According to Tom, Clark, Elmer, Grech, Masetti and Sandhar (1992) the created spokesperson’s effectiveness is in establishing a lifelong link with the product. Tom et al (1992) suggest that marketing professionals should make use of created endorsers when the advertising objective is to create a long-term link between the endorser and the organisation. It should also be noted that celebrities would be the better choice when the organisation is interested only in establishing a short-term memorable link.

For Indian context, Very few of the participants have actually bought products endorsed by celebrities. Every advertisement does not require a celebrity to endorse it. There are many advertisements which have never felt the need of doing so. For example Fevicol, Vim, Lifebuoy, Amul, Fair and Lovely. Rather, there are a few noted ads where the owner is seen endorsing their own commodity. Such as Mahashay Dharampal of MDH Masala and Rajeev Reddy of Country Club. Although companies may spend plenty time and energy finding a celebrity whose image corresponds well with their brands, endorser concerns often do not end there. Problems can arise when the famous person is involved in incidents that change, or even damage, his or her reputation. These circumstances, referred to here as "negative events," can range widely from accidents that hinder a celebrity’s ability to perform to exposure for substance abuse. In a set of laboratory studies, Till and Shimp (1998) find that negative information about a celebrity can damage product evaluations through the associative link between brand and celebrity. In 2000 Revlon Inc. hired a new outside agency, Kirshenbaum Bond & Partners, to modernize its image and
parented company with celebrity super model Cindy Crawford, its prime 'face' for 11 years. Apparently their market research had reviled that their customers were tired of celebrity and wanted a more normal or everyday version of beauty portrayed in Revlon advertising. (Hamish, 2004)

The researchers are defined non-celebrity as...

Menon Mohan K. (2001). “A non-celebrity is a person who, prior to placement in the campaign, has no public notority but appears in an advertisement for the product”

Shimp A. Terence (2003). “A typical-person endorser – A frequent advertising approach is to show regular people – that is, non celebrities-using or endorsing product.”

Roozen Irene (2008). “An anonymous model or person influences the attitude of consumers and used for the purpose of advertisement.”

2.3 Endorsement

According to the Federal Trade Commission (1980), an endorsement is defined as: Any advertising message (including verbal statements, demonstrations, or depictions of the name, signature, likeness or other identifying personal characteristics of an individual or the name or seal of an organization) which message consumers are likely to believe reflects the opinions, beliefs, findings, or expertise of a party other than the sponsoring advertiser. The party whose opinions, beliefs, findings, or expertise the message appears to reflect will be called the endorser and may be an individual, group or institution. Endorsements have shown to be successful in advertisements. Additionally, a celebrity can be used as an endorser only when the advertiser has good reason to believe that the endorser continues to promise to the opinions presented. The endorser must have been a true user of the product at the time the endorsement was given and the advertisement can only be run for as long as the advertiser believes that the endorser still remains a user. According to Friedman, Termini, and Washington (1976), there are four major different endorsers: The typical consumer, professional expert, company president and celebrity. The typical consumer is a real person, not an actor, and a true user of the product. In fact, the only
knowledge of the product is the result of the typical consumer’s use of the product. The company president is leader of the company’s product in which is being promoted and the professional expert is recognized based on their expertise within the product class that is being endorsed. This person’s special understanding or training of the product is more advanced than that gained by average people. The celebrity is a recognized individual who is known for their accomplishments in areas that are not associated to the product class that is being endorsed (Fredman, Termini &Washington, 1976).

2.4 Celebrity endorsement

Celebrity endorsement is a ubiquitous characteristic of modern marketing (McCracken 1989). 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. 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; Kamins, et al. 1989; Ohanian 1991; O’Mahony and Meenaghan 1997). Furthermore, Dyer (1986) 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 approach appears to be on the increase across all media types. In addition, Shimp (2000) suggests that dependence on celebrity endorsements has grown. With the considerable amount of money companies invest in celebrity endorsement in order to promote the company, their products/brand by creating a certain image, it is vital
for the industry to be interested in the actual effect of brands using celebrity endorsement. Furthermore, in line with McCracken (1989) the term ‘celebrity’ is also meant in this study to cover a variety of endorsements, including those in 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).

The use of celebrities in marketing communication is not a recent phenomenon (Kaikati 1987). Celebrities have been endorsing products since the late nineteenth century. Such an example from the early days of utilisation involves Queen Victoria in association with Cadbury's Cocoa (Shennan 1985). The emergence of cinema was to extend the scope of endorsement as an advertising technique, even though its present day popularity owes much to the growth of commercial radio in the 1930s and to commercial television in the 1950s (McDonough 1995). In those days, supply of 'stars' (i.e. potential endorsers) was limited (Kaikati 1987), as it was viewed doubfully that 'stars' should invest their prestige on the flickering cathode ray tube (CRT) as mere 'brand presenters'. Notably, as the number of film and television roles has expanded, any perceived shame in commercial exploitation has faded, which, allows advertisers greater choice in the celebrity selection process. In 1979, celebrity endorsers' use in commercials was estimated as one in every six advertisements (Howard 1979). By 1988, estimates were one in five (Motavalli 1988). Shimp (1997) claimed that around 25% of all US-based commercials utilise celebrities.

Celebrity endorsement research has gone through several phases of discovery since its beginnings. Prior to 1980, celebrity endorsements were examined in a favourable light. Much of the celebrity research conducted was concentrated on how well the celebrity advertisement performed against other forms of advertising (Wheeler, 2002). Freeman’s study based on Starch readership studies, which measure readership, reader interest and reader reactions to advertising content, examined the number of celebrity advertisements consumers view versus other types of advertisements.
During this period there was also a focus on the quantity of celebrity advertisements and the effectiveness of those advertisements. Diether (1966) studied purchases that resulted from word of mouth as a direct result of celebrity advertisement, and Aaker and Myers (1975) concentrated on the effectiveness of celebrities in low risk purchases. Freidman and Freidman (1979) found that celebrities and experts produced more favourable attitudes toward products than other types of endorsers.

In the early 1980s the research on the effectiveness of celebrity advertising that had been built-up prior to 1980 was questioned (Wheeler, 2002). While some studies indicated that there was a measurable value in using a celebrity, other researchers demonstrated that only a small percentage of celebrity advertisements measured higher on recall. Other researchers found that the celebrities were likable, but did not generate the believability required to affect an attitude change and motivate the consumer toward intention to purchase (Atkin & Block 1983; Freiden, 1984).

The last major period of discovery in the field of celebrity endorser advertising occurred from the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s. This period was highlighted with many studies focusing on celebrity endorser persuasion and advertising effectiveness. Kahle and Homer’s (1985) social adaptation perspective on physical attractiveness and celebrity advertising suggested that participants exposed to an attractive celebrity liked the product more than participants exposed to an unattractive celebrity. Kamins’ (1990) match-up hypothesis established that celebrity image and product message should be congruent for effective advertising. Ohanian’s (1991) celebrity endorser source credibility work found that a celebrity who is seen as an expert has been found to be more persuasive and generates more intentions to buy the brand. During this period, the concept of source attractiveness and match-up between the celebrity endorser and the product emerged as major theory in the area of persuasion and advertising effectiveness (Wheeler, 2002).
2.5 Celebrity endorsement for the brand

Research indicates when consumers make brand choices about products, including destinations; they are making lifestyle statements since they are buying into not only an image but also an emotional relationship (Urde 1999; Williams 2002). According to de Chernatony (1993), consumers have their own ‘brand wardrobes’ from which they make selections to communicate, reflect and reinforce associations, statements and memberships; in effect, ‘consumers enrobe themselves with brands, partly for what they do, but more for what they help express about their emotions, personalities and roles’. Clarke (2000) suggests as style and status indicators, destinations can offer the same consumer benefits as other more highly branded lifestyle accoutrements such as cars, perfumes, watches and clothes. In addition, the author indicates that destinations are used to communicate, reflect and reinforce associations, statements and group memberships and, in the same way, tourists use their trips as expressive devices to communicate messages about themselves to peers and observers. Therefore, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) suggest that brand managers should differentiate their product by stressing attributes they claim will match their target markets’ needs more closely than other brands and then they create a product image consistent with the perceived self-image of the targeted consumer segment.

It is essential for a company to create a brand identity in order for them to build a relationship with the consumers and also create an image of the product or brand (de Chernatony 1992; Fill 2002; Kapferer 1997). On the other hand, Erdogan (1999) suggests that if a product image has been damaged; hiring a popular celebrity is one potential solution. Walker et al. (1992) suggest that is may be easier to establish a product image with an initial celebrity endorsement than it is to change a product image that is already associated with a celebrity or is well-established through some other means. In a similar Dickenson (1996) notes that, celebrity endorsers tended in particular, to pass on their images to product that had somewhat undefined images. In other words, companies can hire celebrities who have necessary meanings to establish new positioning for existing products (Erdogan 1999). In addition, Ratneshwar and Chaiken (1991) put forward that a credible source can be particularly persuasive when the consumer has not yet learned much about a product or formed an opinion of it. (Reynolds 2000 in Rajni Surana 2008) takes the view that celebrity endorsement can even give a brand a touch of glamour. On the other hand, if a celebrity’s image ties in
with many brands, impact and identity with each product may lessen since the relationship between the celebrity and a particular brand is not distinctive (Mowen and Brown 1981 in Erdogan 1999). Moreover, Tripp et al. (1994) believe it can make consumers overly aware of the true nature of endorsement, which has less to do with brand/product attributes, and more to do with generous compensation for the celebrity, leading consumers to overt scepticism about their motives. Hence, when a brand lacks a well-defined image it may have one created for it through use of an endorser whose image reflects the image an advertiser wants for the brand. This is important because customers may perceive a brand as a representation of what the whole brand or destination stands for. However, the celebrity should not tie in with too many brands, because it will lessen his or her credibility.

2.6 Models and Theories of Celebrity Endorsement

2.6.1 The Source Credibility Model

The Source Credibility Model and Source Attractiveness Model are categorized under the generic name of Source Models since these two models basically inform and reflect research of the Social Influence Theory/Source Effect Theory which argues that various characteristics of a perceived communication source may have a beneficial effect on message receptivity (Kelman 1961; Meenaghan 1995). These two models have been applied to the celebrity endorsement process although they were originally developed for the study of communication.

A source/celebrity that is more expert has been found to be more persuasive (Aaker and Myers 1987) and to generate more intentions to buy the brand (Ohanian 1991). On the other hand, Speck, Schumann and Thompson (1988) found that expert celebrities produced higher recall of product information than non-expert celebrities; but, the difference was not statistically significant A possible exception to the belief that the more credible a source is, the more persuasive the source is likely to be, has been pointed out by Karlins and Abelson (1970) in terms of the cognitive response theory which claims that a message recipients initial opinion is an important determinant of influence. This theory advocates that if individuals have a positive predisposition toward the message issue, a source who lacks
credibility can be more persuasive than a high credibility source, since those favouring the advocacy will feel a greater need to ensure that a position with which they agree is being adequately represented (Aaker and Myers 1987). On the other hand, if individuals have a negative disposition, a high credibility source is more persuasive than a less credible source since the highly credible source is thought to inhibit individuals' own thought activation and facilitate acceptance of message thoughts.

The cognitive response theory has been reinforced through two empirical studies (Harmon and Coney 1982; Stemthal, et al. 1978). What factors construct source credibility and what factors are more important than others in certain situations is still ambivalent as source credibility research regards the celebrity endorsement process as uni-dimensional, it is unable to provide a well-grounded explanation of important factors. Although source credibility is an important factor for advertisers in selecting endorsers, since credibility has been proved to have a significant and direct effect on attitudes and behavioural intentions, it is not the only factor that should be considered in selecting celebrity endorsers.

2.6.2 Measuring Source Credibility

It is reasonable to think that a source's credibility is totally subjective, but research shows that in spite of individual preferences, a high degree of agreement exists among individuals (Berscheid, et al. 1971). Truth of Consensus method is used in order to assess a source's credibility and attractiveness. The method is based on the premise that individual's judgments' of attractiveness and credibility are naturally subjective, but these judgments’ are shaped through Gestalt principles of person perception rather than single characteristics (Patzer 1983). If a statistically significant number of individuals rate an endorser as low or high in attractiveness or credibility, then, the endorser is interpreted to represent the rated level of attractiveness or credibility, at least for research purposes.

After extensive literature review and statistical tests, Ohanian (1990) constructed a tri-component celebrity endorser credibility scale presented in Table 2.1
## Table 2.1: Source Credibility Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRUSTWORTHINESS</th>
<th>EXPERTISE</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthy - Untrustworthy</td>
<td>Expert - Not Expert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependable - Undependable</td>
<td>Experienced - Inexperienced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honest - Dishonest</td>
<td>Knowledgeable - Unknowledgeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliable - Unreliable</td>
<td>Qualified - Unqualified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sincere - Insincere</td>
<td>Skilled - Unskilled</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This scale assumes that credibility and consequently the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers is bound with given characteristic dimensions, but it is argued that the celebrity world consists of much more than just attractive and credible individuals (McCracken 1989).

### 2.6.3 The Source Attractiveness Model

The source-attractiveness model has its origin in social psychological research and is a component of the “source valence” model of McGuire (McGuire, 1985). The attractiveness model contends that the effectiveness of a message conveyed by a celebrity depends on source’s “familiarity”, “likeability”, “similarity”, and “attractiveness” to the respondent (Ohanian, 1990).

Advertisers have chosen celebrity endorsers on the basis of their attractiveness to gain from dual effects of celebrity status and physical appeal (Singer 1983). In order to discern the importance of attractiveness, one only has to watch television or look at print advertisements. Most advertisements portray attractive people. Consumers tend to form positive stereotypes about such people and, in addition, research has shown physically attractive are more successful at changing beliefs (Baker and Churchill 1977; Chaiken 1979; Debevec and Kernan 1984) and generating purchase intentions (Friedman et al. 1976) than their unattractive counterparts. It is contended that the effectiveness of a message depends on similarity, familiarity and liking for an endorser (McGuire 1985). 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 likability as affection for the source as a result of the source's physical appearance and behaviour. Attractiveness does not mean simply physical attractiveness, but includes any
number of virtuous characteristics that consumers might perceive in a
celebrity endorser. Petty and Cacioppo (1980) manipulated attractiveness of
endorsers of a shampoo advertisement in order to test the Elaboration
Likelihood Model (ELM) for comprehending effectiveness of advertising
message types. The ELM perspective, which argues that persuasion under
high and low involvement conditions varies. For instance, the quality of
arguments contained in a message has a greater impact on persuasion under
high involvement conditions, whereas under low involvement conditions
peripheral cues source attractiveness, credibility has greater impact on
persuasion (Petty, Cacioppo and Goldman 1981). Contrary to Pettyan
Cacioppo's (1980) expectations, endorser attractiveness was equally important
under both high and low involvement conditions. The authors argued that in
addition to serving as a peripheral cue, the physical appearance of endorsers
(especially their hair) might have served as a persuasive visual testimony for
product effectiveness under low involvement conditions. Under high
involvement conditions, the physical attractiveness of endorsers may have
served as a persuasive product-related cue. In 1983, Petty, Cacioppo and
Schumann replicated the earlier study (1980), but they employed an
experimental peripheral cue that could not be constructed as a product-
related cue; Edge disposable razors. Findings revealed an interaction
between involvement level and endorser type. Under low-involvement
conditions, the endorser type had a significant impact on attitudes towards the
product though no impact was found on behavioural intentions. Regarding
recall and recognition measures, findings indicated that exposure to celebrity
endorsers increased recall of the product category under low-involvement
conditions, but it did not affect recall measures under high involvement the
endorser type manipulation revealed that celebrities had marginally significant
impact on brand name recall over typical citizens. Use of celebrity endorsers
reduced brand name recognition under low-involvement conditions but not
under high involvement Petty, et al. (1983) reasoned that this rather awkward
finding occurred as people are more interested in the product category
under high involvement situations and may be more motivated to assess
what the brands, rather than the personalities, are offering. Kahle and Homer
(1985) manipulated celebrity physical attractiveness, and likability, and then
measured attitude and purchase intentions on the same product; Edge razors. Findings showed that participants exposed to an attractive celebrity liked the product more than participants exposed to an unattractive celebrity. The same interaction was not statistically significant for likeable endorsers. Recall for the brand was greater both in attractive and likeable celebrity conditions. Surprisingly, unlikable celebrities’ personnel better on recognition measures than likeable and attractive celebrities. Caballero, et al.(1989) and Till and Busler's (1998) studies present evidence that positive feelings towards advertising and products do not necessarily translate into actual behaviour or purchase intentions. A possible reason for the lack of celebrity endorsers’ effect on intentions to purchase is that celebrity endorsement seems to work on the cognitive and affective components of attitudes rather than the behavioural components (Baker and Churchill 1977). In researching gender interactions attractive female models generated more enhanced attitudes than attractive male models across both genders, but particularly among males. Inversely, Caballero, et al. (1989) found that males showed greater intentions to buy from male endorsers and females hold greater intentions to purchase from female endorsers. Baker and Churchill (1977) found a rather unexpected interaction amongst female models, product type and intentions to purchase products among male subjects. When the product endorsed was coffee, an unattractive female model created more intentions to buy the product than her attractive counterpart among male subjects whereas when it was perfume/aftershave, male subjects reacted more positively to an attractive female model. On the other hand, Petroshius and Crocker (1989) found that spokesperson gender had no impact on attitudes towards advertisements and no major impact on intentions to buy products. It is apparent that academic findings regarding gender or cross gender interactions between endorsers and target audiences are mixed and unable to provide any direction to practitioners. Patzer (1985) asserted that "physical attractiveness is an informational cue; involves effects that are subtle, pervasive, and inescapable; produces a definite pattern of verifiable differences; and transcends culture in its effects. A well known quotation from Aristotle (Ohanian 1991), 'Beauty is a greater recommendation than any letter of introduction,' is suitable in this context for the sake of appreciating the effectiveness of attractiveness since
most Western societies place a high premium on physical attractiveness. People tend to assume that people who are good looking are smarter, more 'with it' and so on. This is termed the 'halo effect': which occurs when people who rank high on one dimension are assumed to excel on other dimensions as well. This effect can be explained in terms of 'consistency theory', which states that people are more comfortable when all of their judgements about a person go together (Solomon 1996). In sum, there is no doubt that attractive celebrity endorsers enhance attitudes towards advertising and brands, but whether they are able to create purchase intentions is ambiguous since the majority of studies found that attractive celebrity endorsers are not able to initiate behavioural intent while other studies found that celebrities are able to create purchase intentions.

2.6.4. The Meaning Transfer Model

McCracken (1989) argues that celebrity endorsement, as a marketing strategy has not inspired especially illuminating theoretical accounts. In a similar vein, DeSarbo and Harshman (1985 in Erdogan 1999) contend that neither the source-credibility and attractiveness nor the match-up theory is adequate in providing appraisal technique for selecting the appropriate celebrity endorser. According to McCracken (1989), the models are not capable to grab hold of the success factors of the endorsement process. McCracken (1989) suggests using a ‘meaning transfer’ perspective; the attributes of the celebrity are understood and move from celebrity to consumer good and from good to consumer. Figure 2 illustrates McCracken’s model of meaning movement from celebrities to consumers.
**Stage one:** Because of endorsement, advertisements have access to a group of persons from the culturally constituted world that is different from ordinary people. Endorsement also makes this group of people in charge of detailed and important meanings. As celebrities enjoy a popular social recognition and a unique reputation, they are able to deliver more comprehensive and depth meaning compared to unknown endorsers. Celebrities are powerful in media, though the meanings delivered are not difficult to find. Because of their special and unique persona, outstanding from anonymous actors, they exert the meaning with unforgettable impression. Due to their career specialty, every point of acting in a show, movie, or musical gives them the possibility in contrast to a different group of objects, persons and context. All of this is also a process of meaning transfer, that new properties will be resided within the celebrities. Hence, when they appear in an advertisement, these properties will be transferred to that specific product (McCracken, 1989).

**Stage two:** Theoretically, a celebrity endorser is chosen based on a desired meaning decided by the marketers. The symbolic properties of the meaning and a product must be matched. Ideally, marketing or advertising companies can decide what type of symbolic properties consumers are looking for. They can then find a perfect-matched celebrity to represent this. However, this in fact, is impossible. Marketers can only rely on a “very general rendering” of “what meanings are available to them” (McCracken, 1989, p. 316).
Advertising agents should make identifications and deliver these meanings to a specific product when the selection is finished. The advertisement should then comprise all the meanings needed to be obtained from the celebrity, especially the salient meanings. Only the meaning intended to be delivered should be captured. Unwanted meanings should be kept out of the evoked set by adding it into advertisements with people, objects and contents which have the same meanings as the celebrity. All these are salient message cues that help the target consumers to get whatever meanings they expect from the celebrity in question. Advertisements mostly only transfer celebrities to a new role instead of purely transferring meaning of the celebrities. Important to notice, there must be a connection between the product and the celebrity endorser in order to have a high similarity. This will ensure consumers can transfer the meaning delivered into their reality because of existing similarities.

**Stage three:** Explains the process of how celebrity endorsement makes the properties of a product become the properties of consumers. It is the most complicated and difficult stage compared to the previous two. In this material world, individuals are trying to explore and search for products with practical meanings. Those meanings certainly are useful in helping the individuals to furnish aspects of the self and the world. As the meanings existing everywhere in this world, the individuals have constantly been putting effort on searching the meanings they need. However, it is not enough for consumers to understand the meaning of an object by simply owning it and the meaning cannot “enter” the consumers’ mind and self automatically. They must claim, exchange, care for, and use the consumer good in order to possess the meaning. McCracken (1989) mentioned that “celebrities play a role in the final stage of meaning transfer because they have created the self”. Through different characteristics and contexts in their acting career, celebrities have earned a lot of attention and reputations in the first stage of the meaning transfer. The self created by celebrities is also attractive in the eyes of the consumers. They have set an exemplary, desirable role model for consumers. Consumers build up their aspects of the world and the self by moving the symbolic properties of consumer goods into their lives, because those
consumer goods are associated with the celebrities they desire. But this does not mean that consumers only want to follow what celebrities have done today. However, celebrities certainly give the consumer goods some sort of personality traits in the meaning transfer process. Consumers therefore also want to process the personalities attached to the products, because they appreciate for meaning and are keen to build up their own aspects of the world and the self by having celebrities as references. In this object world, celebrities are just a small group compared to everything else. They are outstanding from the rest and therefore are super consumers of a kind.

However, the meaning transfer would not happen automatically. It needs cooperation from the celebrity to the advertisement director, as well as from the other people involved. If the ideas in advertisements cannot be understood by consumers, the use of celebrities is useless. As consumers are the final act of the transfer process, they should be able to find the connection between the celebrity endorser and the product in order to complete the transfer process (McCracken, 1989). The meaning transfer model of celebrity endorsement depicted how the transformation begins from a celebrity, to a consumer as the final destination. This model not only explained what functions a celebrity endorser holds in the endorsement practice, but it also compromises the deficits of “source credibility and source attractiveness” models (McCracken, 1989), which is highly relevant to this study due to the purpose of the study.
2.6.5 Reference Group Theory

A reference group is defined by C.Whan & V.Parker, (1977) “An actual or imaginary individual or group conceived of having significant relevance upon an individual’s evaluations, aspirations or behaviour”

In Association with the definition, three important motivational influences of a reference group need to be mention, these being:

1. Informational,
2. Value expressive,
3. Utilitarian.

**Informational reference group influence:** Each individual tends to search products proven to have positive credibility by independent expertise or professionals, which help to confirm their existing knowledge or familiar environment. The individual searches product information from groups or people who have sufficient knowledge about these products, such as people working with the product or people who use the product. Through observing, the individuals learn from others whom might confront the same situations or have previous experience (C.Whan & V.Parker, 1977). Furthermore, according to the attribution theory, the purchasing decision of the individual is influenced by another individuals or reference groups, such as experts, authorities or celebrities (Valins, & Weiner, 1972).

**Utilitarian influence:** the individual needs certain conformity in a purchasing situation, otherwise “it is dangerous not to conform”. Seeking a match to what another individual or reference group prefers or satisfies is important when making a purchase decision, as social interactions exist. Utilitarian influence also emphasizes explicit rewards and punishments because of the individual having a desire to be more affirmed or accepted by social involvement, such as a community, brand tribe or fan club. Therefore, an attempt to satisfy others’ expectations is performed (C.Whan & V.Parker, 1977).

**Value expressive influence:** individual seek consistency between themselves and a reference group by sharing something in common, like buying products
used, or those recommended by the reference group. A positive self-image is important, since an individual is more willing to be associated with positive referents instead of negative ones. Liking a person or a reference group in a product advertisement can lead an individual to purchase it, regardless whether the product fits the individuals’ need or not.

2.6.6 The Social Adaptation Theory

According to the social adaptation theory, subjective self-esteem only closes to interpersonal relations and acts in a specific way, though it determines the pattern of multi-interpersonal relationships and behaviours (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980, p. 496). Individuals are more likely to receive selective information which they are interested, in rather than all of it, because memory retrieving is limited at each time (John G & Thomas K, 1982). This does not imply that the information will influence the individual, as it highly depends on the usefulness of that information to their social adaption strategy. The individual will re-process new information if the one received was not suitable. The impact of information, however, is dependent on the meaning of the adaptation to an individual (Kahle & Homer, 1985). The match-up hypothesis of the celebrity endorser selection corresponds to the social adaption theory. The image of a celebrity endorser and product information should be matched at an intersection in an effective advertisement to attract target audiences because of their social adaptation need. The hypothesis brings up the suggestion that an advertisement is more efficient than verbal communication through the image “match-up” communication (Rossiter & Percy, 1980). Aristotle said that “Personal beauty is a greater recommendation than any letter of introduction”. Kahle and Homer (1985) conducted an experiment by using three elements: celebrity-source physical attractiveness, celebrity-source likability and participant product involvement to measure attitude and purchase intention. The elaboration likelihood model theory depicted attitudes change will be received in two ways, which highly depends on to which extent consumers are involved with a brand in an advertisement. The theory can be used in predicting whether “a personality characteristic will show causal
predominance over some elements of an action sphere”. However, those elements are yet to be unidentified (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980).

The “social adaptation theory” is popularly used in latter research studies in finding the connection between product types and endorsers. Kahle and Homer (1985) developed the match-up hypotheses which further proved that brand attitudes would change when the product was related to attractive endorsers.

2.7 Celebrity’s characteristics and measuring celebrity performance

The term “celebrity” refers to “an individual who is known to the public, such as actors, sport figures, entertainers, and etc. for his or her achievement in areas other than that of the product class endorsed” (Friedman and Freidman, 1979). According to Miciak and Shanklin (1994), a celebrity can be an animated character like Fred Flintstone, or an animal. Frieden (1984) tested four types of endorsers (celebrity, CEO, expert and typical consumer) and determined that in comparison to other endorser types, the celebrity endorser scored particularly well on dimensions such as trustworthiness, believability, persuasiveness and likeability. The source characteristics of a spokesperson, more specifically a celebrity spokesperson, have been studied by researchers for years since each characteristic influences audiences in their own unique ways (Marshall, 1997). “Who is shown in an advertisement can say much to the consumer about the intended users of a product and about the benefits resulting from product use” (Lynch & Schuler, 1994). Therefore, these characteristics are important to briefly touch upon in order to entirely comprehend the impact of a celebrity endorser. In the context of this study, celebrity performance refers to the level of achievement a celebrity attains at any given time in their chosen profession. Performance could refer to the level of athletic performance, acting success, musical success, etc. of any given celebrity. When a celebrity fails to perform acceptably, as defined by consumers, a celebrity endorser’s effectiveness tends to decline (Agrawal & Kamakura 1995).
2.7.1 Celebrity credibility

Source credibility refers to a source’s perceived expertise, objectivity or trustworthiness (Ratneshwar and Chaiken 1991). Research conducted by social psychologists over the past 30 years demonstrates that a source in the products, which it endorses, consumers are likely to purchase the product (Daneshvary and Schwer 2000; Friedman and Friedman 1979; Goldsmith et al. 2000; Holloway and Robinson 1995; Lafferty and Goldsmith 1999; Till and Busler 1998). In a similar Ohanian (1991) investigated the relationship of attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise to intention to purchase and found that only the perceived expertise of a celebrity was a significant factor in generating more intentions to buy the brand. The author suggests that for spokespersons to be truly effective, they should be knowledgeable, experienced and qualified to talk about the product. In addition, Till and Busler (1998) showed that an endorser's expertise is more important than physical attractiveness in affecting attitude toward an endorsed brand.

Moreover, Friedman and Friedman (1979), using the internalization process, suggest that consumers are more likely to purchase complex and/or expensive products which are endorsed by experts rather than by typical consumers. Holloway and Robinson (1995) refer to travel writers, who commend on a destination in the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) programme ‘Holiday’ which are immensely credible both because of their perceived expertise and objectivity, because the message is delivered by the BBC itself. Furthermore, Evans (1998) contends that, someone who is seen to be unconnected with the company and its products, coming from an impartial objective source, is likely to be believed. Thus, the independency and the expertise of the celebrity endorser can be considered more important than the trustworthiness of the celebrity spokesperson in changing consumer attitudes. This brings us to another issue, nearly two decades before major stars were perceived trustworthy, because they did not really work for the endorsement fee, but were motivated by a genuine affection for the product (Kamen et al. 1975), however times have changed. As indicated earlier, nowadays celebrities receive very generous compensations, leading consumers to overt distrust about their motives. Furthermore, Solomon et al. (1999) refers to the
‘credibility gap’, the lack of credibility is aggravated by incidences where celebrities endorse products that they do not really believe in, or in some cases do not use. Ohanian (1991) believes it does not really matter whether an endorser is an expert; all that matters is how the target audience perceives the endorser.

Hence, when the message is delivered by a perceived expert and independent source it will greatly add to the credibility of the message and it may influence purchase behaviour. In addition, trustworthiness, which is a component of credibility, can be achieved by using someone closely associated with the product. Moreover, when a trustful individual has a well-known personality and a permanent link with the destination, it can be of enormous benefit in the promotion of a destination. However, it has been proven that trustworthiness does not influence purchase behaviour and this is not corresponding to the promotion objectives and according to Pender (1999), they will often involve changes in mind-set, such as attitude, opinion and knowledge. Even though the source credibility is an important factor for marketing managers in selecting endorsers, since expertise has been proved to have a significant and direct effect on attitudes and behavioural intentions, it is not the only factor that should be considered in selecting celebrity endorsers. The next section will describe the importance of match up theory.


2.7.2 Celebrity Matchup

According to Kamins (1990), there has to be a meaningful relationship, or match up, between the celebrity, the audience and the product. Furthermore, research points out that advertising a product via a celebrity who has a relatively high product congruent image leads to a greater advertiser and celebrity believability relative to an advertisement with a less congruent product/spokesperson image (Kamins and Gupta 1994 in Erdogan 1999; Kotler 1997). The Product Match-Up Hypothesis, which maintains that messages conveyed by celebrity image and the product message should be congruent of effective advertisement (Kamins 1990). An expected fit or congruency should exist between an association and a product, Basil (1996) illustrates this with an example, a top model endorsing make-up is good, but a football player endorsing soap powder less good. In addition, Evans (1988) gives notice that without a distinct and specific relationship between the celebrity and the product there is the danger of the ‘vampire effect’. In addition, there should also be a relationship between the audience and the celebrity, Basil (1996) also found that identification also plays a significant role in determining message effects. Research suggests that identification occurs when an individual adopts an attitude or behaviour from another person when that attitude or behaviour is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship with that person (Kelman 1961 in Basil 1996). It suggests that a spokesperson with which the audience identifies insures the greatest likelihood of achieving lasting attitude or behaviour change. Thus, a consumer who identifies with a famous spokesperson is more likely to copy behaviours that are represented by the celebrity. Moreover, Basil (1996) suggests that the greater the identification, the more likely the viewer will see important attributes in the celebrity. Williams and Qualls (1989 in Basil 1996), for example, found that black consumers have high levels of identification with black celebrities. Additionally, Desphande and Stayman (1994 in Basil 1996) hypothesis confirmed that the endorser’s ethnic status would affect endorser trustworthiness and as a result brand attitudes. Moreover, Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) suggest that the respondents' identification with the endorser and their perception of its credibility will positively affect purchase intention.
Basil (1996) takes the view that when targeting particular ethnic groups, the ethnic background should be carefully evaluated, because consumers assess celebrities according to their own cultural meanings. Furthermore, (Solomon et al. 1999) believe consumers who tend to be sensitive about social acceptance and the opinions of others. For example, Daneshvary and Schwer (2000) refer to individuals with higher levels of education might be less influenced by any form of advertising than those with less education, because education provides individuals with analytical skills allowing them to decipher information from several sources prior to making a purchasing decision, making them less likely to purchase a product based on one source. From these findings, one can infer that celebrity endorsement is most effective when consumers have the chance to interrelate with the celebrity.

According to Erdogan (1999), the emphasis of product match-up research has been on the proper match between a celebrity and a product based on celebrity physical attractiveness. Specifically, the match-up hypothesis predicts that attractive celebrities are more effective when endorsing products used to enhance one’s attractiveness (Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990).

### 2.7.3 Celebrity attractiveness

Research point out that consumers tend to form positive stereotypes about attractive individuals and found that physically attractive communicators are more successful at changing beliefs (Baker and Churchill 1977) and generating purchase intentions (Friedman et al. 1976; Kahle and Homer 1985) than their unattractive counterparts. According to Erdogan (1999), attractiveness does not mean simply physical attractiveness, but includes any number of attributes that consumers might perceive in a celebrity endorser: for example, intellectual skill, personality properties, lifestyles, or athletic prowess. Along with respondents in Kahle and Homer's study (1985), they were more likely to buy an Edge razor after seeing an attractive celebrity in a magazine advertisement than an unattractive celebrity. However, as indicated earlier by both Till and Busler (1998) and Ohanian (1991) the endorser's expertise is more important than physical attractiveness in affecting attitude toward an endorsed brand. Moreover, Shimp (2000) believes that
attractiveness alone is subordinate in importance to credibility and matches up with the audience and brand. Till and Busler (1998) refer to Michael Jordan (basketball player), who is an attractive endorser, but his effectiveness is likely to be greater when endorsing products related to his athletic prowess such as Nike or Gatorade, rather than products that are unrelated to athletic performance such as WorldCom communications. Johnson and Harrington (1998) point out those without doubt attractive celebrity endorsers positively improve attitudes towards advertising and brands, but whether they are able to create purchase intentions is uncertain. McCracken (1989) suggests that a celebrity brings its own symbolic meanings to the endorsement process and proposes an alternative model.

2.7.4 Celebrity Familiarity and Likeability

Celebrity likeability refers to the positive or negative feelings that consumers have toward a celebrity (Mowen and Minor, 1998). It can also be defined as the extent to which the source is viewed as behaving in a way that matches the desires of those who observe him or her. Thus celebrities are likeable because they act or adopt beliefs that are similar to those of the audience (Mowen and Minor, 1998). Numerous studies suggest that ad liking is one of the most important forecasters of brand liking, second only to in-going, or prior, brand attitude (Thorson, 1991). Brand liking is affected by a spokesperson’s likeability. Respondents tend to like brands that are associated with the characters that they admire (Callcott and Philips, 1996). Meanwhile, Urde (1999) states that likable spokespersons increase attention toward a brand enhance brand liking and thus create a considerable impact on the consumers’ purchase behaviour and their loyalty towards the brand.

In some studies, celebrity familiarity and likeability are treated as if each were analogous to attractiveness (Kahle & Homer 1985). Each celebrity attribute may, in fact, be subsumed within the attractiveness construct. But other studies address familiarity and likeability separately, investigating each construct’s effect on effectiveness as if each were distinct from endorser attractiveness (O’Mahoney & Meenaghan 1998). In the celebrity endorsement context, familiarity has been defined as ‘knowledge of the source through exposure’ (Erdogan 1999). Likeability is defined as
‘affection for the source as a result of the source’s physical appearance and behaviour’ (Erdogan 1999).

2.7.5 Celebrity Meaningfulness

Celebrity is a cultural symbol. As such, celebrity embodies a host of meanings in people’s minds. By connecting celebrities with brands, advertisers can transfer those meanings to products. To sum up, when a celebrity endorses a product in an ad, the audience forms associations, and thus the cultural meaning of the celebrity is transferred to the product. Eventually, in the consumption phase, the cultural meaning is transferred from the product to the consumers (Mowen and Minor, 1998). Findings of a number of studies support the view that credibility and attractiveness dimensions can make independent contributions to source effectiveness (Weiner and Mowen, 1985). Freidman and Friedman (1979) believe that trustworthiness is probably the major dimension underlying source credibility. Without trustworthiness, any other quality possessed by the communicator would not be effective in attempting the attitude change. Thus, an endorser aiming to induce attitude change should project a trustworthy image.

However, Ohanian (1991) disputes this claim. Though she agrees that such dimensions as attractiveness and trustworthiness are important factors in persuasive communication, they appear to have minimal impact in the source credibility studies. Since most celebrities are attractive, consumers do not have a mind-set in which attractiveness is a determining factor. Furthermore, with the widespread use of celebrities in paid commercials, the audience does not associate a high level of trustworthiness with individuals who get paid handsomely to promote a product. Therefore, trustworthiness is not an important determinant of the consumers’ likelihood to purchase a product. A number of theories have been put forward to explain why and how the perceptions of the characteristics possessed by a celebrity are formed in consumers’ minds.
2.7.6 Celebrity expertise

Erdogan (1999) defines celebrity endorsers’ expertise as ‘the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions’. The literature investigating source credibility in settings involving persuasive communication generally indicates that a receiver’s perception of the source’s expertise positively influences source effectiveness (Ohanian 1990). Respondents’ actions in response to the source’s recommendations seem to vary directly with the source’s perceived level of expertise and the target person’s level of agreement with those recommendations. Subjects exposed to a source perceived as highly expert exhibit more agreement with the source’s recommendation than did those exposed to a source with low expertise (Ohanian 1990). The level of perceived celebrity expertise should predict celebrity endorser effectiveness.

2.7.7 Celebrity Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is the degree of confidence consumers place in a communicator’s intent to convey the assertions s/he considers most valid (Ohanian 1990). Giffin (1967) describes favourable disposition, acceptance, psychological safety, and perceived supportive climate as favourable consequences of trust. Much of the literature supports the positive effect of trustworthiness on effectiveness. Miller and Baseheart (1969) found that a highly opinionated message from a highly trustworthy communicator produces an effective attitude change, while non-trusted communicators’ impact proved immaterial. Perceived communicator trustworthiness has also been shown to produce a greater attitude change than perceived expertise (McGinnies & Ward 1980). The extant literature on celebrity endorsers suggests that trustworthiness is an important predictor of celebrity endorsement effectiveness.
2.8 Celebrity endorsers versus non-celebrity endorsers and its effectiveness in advertisements

When selecting an endorser to represent a product, marketers can either choose a celebrity or create spokespersons (Tom et al, 1992). A marketer who creates spokespersons can have greater control on their development through giving them characteristics that are both effective with the target audience and congruent with desirable characteristics of the endorsed product. Conversely, marketers who use a celebrity as a spokesperson have limited such control, instead, marketers have to select celebrities whose characteristics make them effective with the target audience and whose public persona matches with advertised product. (Tom et al, 1992) Consequently, they proved that created endorsers were more effective in congruity with the endorsed product than celebrity endorsers. Tom et al (1992) explained their results by the classical conditioning paradigm.

Consumers learn the association between the unconditioned stimulus (e.g. song or endorser) and the conditioned stimulus (e.g. the product) through repeated exposure. This association is much stronger with original material (created spokesperson) than with popular material (celebrity endorser) is not just linked to a promoted product, but with many other things. In other words, linkage is weak between the popular material and the product because of these other associations, whereas the linkage in terms of original material is stronger due to the unique linkage. In the meanwhile, Mehta (1994) found that there were no statistically significant difference in attitudes towards advertising brand and intentions to purchase endorsed brand between celebrity and non-celebrity endorsement situations, however, there are differences in cognitive responses between receivers. In the non-celebrity conditions, receivers more concentrated on the brand and its features whereas in the celebrity condition receivers focused on the celebrity in the advertising. In contrast, Atkin and Block (1983) and Petty, et al (1983) found that celebrity endorsers produced more positive attitudes towards advertising and greater purchase intentions than a non-celebrity endorser. Furthermore, both studies conducted by Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) and Mathur et al (1997) demonstrated the effectiveness of use of celebrity endorsers in terms of economic worth perspective. Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) analyze the market value effects associated with the announcements of 100 celebrity endorsement contracts. Their results suggest that celebrity endorsement contracts are
generally viewed as a worthwhile investment in advertising. In addition, in their research, a related issue is the potential source for the positive value that the endorser creates for his or her client firm. For products endorsed at the early stages of their life cycles, the source of positive value may simply reflect and acceleration in establishing the products. However, for products endorsed in mature markets, positive value will likely be created by gaining market share from competitors. Thus, creation of positive value by an endorser for his or her client firm in this environment implies that some loss of value will occur for firms with completion products. Meanwhile, Mathur et al (1997) attempted to evaluate the impact of celebrity endorsement contracts on the expected profitability of a firm by using Event study methodology, which is used in order to identify the valuation effects of marketing decisions, and provided compelling evidence that a major celebrity endorser has the potential to profoundly influence the profitability of endorsed products. Consequently, Erdogan (1999) concluded that celebrity endorsers are more effective than non-celebrity endorsers in generating all desirable outcomes including attitudes towards advertising and endorsed brand, intentions to purchase, and in fact actual sales, when companies utilise celebrities whose public persona match with the products and target audiences and who have not endorsed products previously.

Research on the possible effects of negative information about celebrities on consumers’ evaluations of endorsed brands is still lacking. Among more recent studies, two have touched on the issue. The presence of the same ubiquitous celebrity in various advertisement campaigns for a multitude of products might confuse consumers, diminish the brand’s impact and undermine the success of the advertisement campaign. Vampirism would be another unwanted impact of using a highly exposed celebrity. Despite the popularity of celebrity pitchmen, many commercials using such endorsers do not live up to the advertisers’ expectations (Miciak and Shanklin, 1994). Negative information about a celebrity will be stored in consumers’ memory and to a certain degree, transferred to the endorsed brand. Past research has examined whether or not celebrity endorsers are more effective at improving advertising attitudes, brand attitudes, and purchase intent than non-celebrity endorsers.

On the one hand, celebrities create attention and bring prestige to brands, and may encourage higher recall (Erdogan, 1999; Tom et al., 1992). On the other hand, non-celebrity endorsers’ images are created and fine-tuned by the brand’s company,
and therefore, their images, personalities, and actions can be ensured to fit with the brand’s image. Additionally, because these live or animated non-celebrity endorsers are “owned” by the brand, it is nearly impossible for them to endorse other brands. In other words, both celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers have benefits, which probably explain the inconclusive findings in academic research. Specifically, some research finds that celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers’ effect on advertising attitudes, brand attitudes and purchase intent are not different (Mehta, 1994), while other research finds that non-celebrity endorsers or “created” endorsers are more effective than celebrity endorsers (Tom et al., 1992), and still other research finds that celebrities are more effective than non-celebrities at generating positive advertising attitudes and increasing purchase intent (Atkin & Block, 1983; Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). In a current scenario brand endorsers have been taken on for visibility and non-credibility. If nude women would have been permitted under advertising standards they would easily have replaced the current lot of endorsers. Kalim Khan (2010).

2.9 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”. 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, Older athletes’ long-term behaviours ensure their future behaviours, 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’ perceptions of celebrity credibility, celebrity likeability and attitude toward the ad become less favourable” (Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994). 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 off track, it can prove disastrous”.

At last "Celebrities are a lazy alternative for brand-building," Kalim Khan (2010). He argues that celebrities offer nothing but instant gratification. "More than a
fourth of these celebrity associations don't add value to the business. In most situations, the brand managers don't have an answer as to why they are spending a fortune." According to (Hamish, 2004, p 182) there are many pitfalls surrounding the use of celebrities by brands and these seem to fall into four main categories.

1. Poor celebrity choice.
2. Video vampires.
3. Unlawful use of celebrities.
4. Scandal involving the celebrity

2.10 Purchase Intentions

Purchase intentions are used to pretest advertising and evaluate proposed promotions for both new and existing products (Bird and Ehrenberg, 1966). Purchase intentions are also extensively used by academic researchers as proxy measures for purchase behavior (e.g. Schlosser, 2003). When managers and academic researchers rely on purchase intentions they hope and implicitly assume that these measures will be predictive of subsequent purchase. This notion is a cornerstone of many theoretical models of consumer behavior. For example, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p. 368-369) wrote, "if one wants to know whether or not an individual will perform a given behavior, the simplest and probably most efficient thing one can do is to ask the individual whether he intends to perform that behavior." According to Bagozzi (1983, p. 145) “intentions constitute a willful state of choice where one makes a self-implicated statement as to a future course of action.”
2.11 Literature Gap

From reviewing of literature, there has been lots of research focusing on effectiveness of celebrity. Friedman and Friedman (1979) concluded that the better the celebrity/product fit, as perceived by consumers, the higher the level of endorsement effectiveness. Whereas Varsha Jain et al. (2009) concluded in their research for cerebral products like books and healthcare products, they would not prefer celebrities. The scale for celebrity’s effectiveness was developed by Ohanian (1991); she reported that there were no significant main effects of gender in her study of the impact of gender on consumers’ perceptions of a celebrity’s attractiveness, trustworthiness, or expertise, or on the likelihood of purchasing a product that was endorsed by a celebrity.

None of the researcher focused on direct comparison between celebrity and non-celebrity endorsement and its effectiveness. Because of it has been observed both types of endorsements in to various categories of products. In Indian context one research conducted by Versha Jain et.al. (2010) on ‘Differential effect of national vs. regional celebrities on consumer attitudes’ and found that national celebrities are better than regional celebrities in creating positive consumer attitudes.
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