3.1. Defining a Celebrity Endorser

The celebrity has been defined by Friedman, Termini and Washington (1976) as someone who is “...known to the public for his accomplishment in areas unrelated to the product class endorsed” (p. 22). And the celebrity endorser has been defined as “any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement” (McCracken, 1989, p. 310). The use of celebrities in marketing communication is not a recent phenomenon, and could be dated back to the late nineteenth century (Sherman, 1985). Since then, the use of celebrities in advertisements has seen a very steep increment. In the 1970s, celebrity endorsers were being used in one-sixth of all US advertisements (Howard, 1979) and during the 1980s, it reached one-fifth of all US advertisements (Motavalli, 1988). Shimp (2010) estimated that advertisements using celebrities accounted for about one-sixth of ads globally. This communication strategy has benefitted the firms in several ways. Researchers have found that, celebrity endorsements to help marketers by positively changing consumers’ attitude towards brands; increasing the believability and credibility of ads; influencing the purchase intentions of consumers (Atkin and Block, 1983; Erdogan, 1999; Amos, Homes and Strutton, 2008); and increasing brand recall and recognition (Misra and Beatty, 1990). Studies in this area have tried to derive a path for selection of the appropriate celebrity and the means of the effective transfer of the desired attributes from the celebrity to the brands and from brands to the consumers. For example, researchers such as McGuire (1985), McCracken (1989) and Kamins (1990) have proposed models and theories
linked to effective image transfer for the selection and proper use of the celebrity. There are three important streams of studies in celebrity endorsement literature, which are briefly discussed in next three sections.

3.2. Endorsement Models: Source Credibility Model

The first set of studies is based on source credibility. The source credibility model is based on 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 (Erdogan, 1999). The source credibility model was first developed in the 1950s by Hovland and his colleagues (Hovland and Weiss, 1951). According to this model, credibility refers to the extent to which the source is perceived as possessing expertise relevant to the communication topic and can be trusted to provide an objective opinion on the topic (Ohanian, 1990). In the case of celebrity endorsement, the effectiveness of a message depends on the perceived level of attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness of an endorser (Ohanian, 1991).

Expertise refers to the extent to which the endorser is perceived as a valid source of information (Erdogan, 1999). It is important to know whether the target audience perceives the endorser as having a certain level of experience and knowledge that makes his/her endorsement of a product and/or brand credible. Information from a credible source (here celebrity) can influence beliefs, attitudes, and/or behavior through a process called internalization, which occurs when receivers accept a source influence on the bases of the source’s personal attitude and value structures (Erdogan, Baker and Tagg, 2001). Erdogan's (1999) review of literature on celebrity endorsements indicates that a source perceived as highly credible is more effective and persuasive than a less credible one. Credibility leads to a positive change of attitude towards the
brand or product and in turns affects behavior in a favorable manner. Trustworthiness refers to the endorser's honesty, credibility, believability and integrity, as perceived by the target audience or consumers. Friedman and Friedman (1978) found trustworthiness to be major element of source credibility, but Ohanian (1991) found trustworthiness not to affect purchase intentions.

McGuire (1985) added a third component, attractiveness, to the source credibility research. Despite various studies on attractiveness, there is still no clarity about the definition of this construct. The attractiveness construct has been defined in terms of facial and physical attractiveness, sexiness and likeability (Ohanian, 1990). In celebrity endorsement literature, the attractiveness trait has been found to play a very important role. Many researchers such as Kamins (1990), Kamins and Gupta (1994), Till and Busler (1998, 2000), and Liu, Huang and Minghua (2007) have found effects of attractiveness on consumer attitude variables such as attitude toward ad, advertiser believability and credibility, purchase intention etc. Celebrity spokesperson's physical attractiveness was also found to have positive impact on brand recall and attitude towards the brand (Kahle and Homer, 1985). Positive influence of endorser’s physical attractiveness on the target consumers’ attitude towards advertising takes place due to the phenomenon of identification, which is assumed to occur when information from an attractive source is accepted as a result of desire to identify or align with such a source (Erdogan et al., 2001). The components of attractiveness according to the literature are similarity, familiarity, and likeability of an endorser (McGuire, 1985). Although it is widely accepted that the physical attractiveness of a celebrity endorser may have a positive effect on attitude toward the ad (Kamins, 1990), there are some findings that cast doubts on its positive impact on purchase intentions (Ohanian, 1991; Till and Busler, 1998).
Ohanian (1990) developed a scale to measure source credibility. This scale has fifteen (15) items, which describe three components of source credibility (attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness). Her study was conducted in seven steps. First step identified 139 adjectives/traits associated with a credible source. In second step, 104 traits were obtained on the basis of familiarity. Final editing of the traits was conducted in the next step wherein the respondents were provided the definitions of the credibility dimensions (expertise, trustworthiness and attractiveness). In this pre-test, 72 traits were obtained for further steps. Fourth step was conducted to find out the familiar celebrities on the basis of frequency of mention, categorized by gender and by their earlier participation in a paid commercial. This step provided four celebrities. Fifth step was conducted to confirm the familiarity of the celebrities and to find out the products having image fit with the celebrities. Main study was conducted in next two steps. Sixth step (exploratory study) was conducted among 250 students and Seventh step was conducted among 240 students. EFA was used for the sixth step which provided 15 traits significantly loading on 3 factors. Objective of the seventh step (confirmatory) was to check the reliability, validity & genralizability of the final scale (15 items and 3 factors) and to see its impacts on the purchase intention. CFA was used for this stage which confirmed the reliability and validity of the scale. All three purchase intention items were found to be significantly correlated with the all three dimensions of source credibility.

Another pioneering study by Ohanian (1991) had three research objectives. This study investigated (1) the impact of the components of source credibility (attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness) on a respondent’s purchase intention; (2) variance in this impact because of the intended use of product (self-consumption vs. gift-giving); (3) variance in this impact because of respondent’s gender. Endorser’s credibility was measured with Ohanian’s (1990) 15-items
source credibility scale. The pre-tests provided four pairs of familiar celebrities and matching products. 542 respondents from different age groups participated in this study. Four separate ANCOVA were used with age as covariate. A 4×2 random experimental design with four celebrities and two levels of respondents’ gender (male and female) gave eight experimental conditions. The results did not find significant effects of respondents’ gender and respondents’ age on the evaluations of the celebrities’ attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise or on likelihood to purchase a product promoted by the celebrity. However celebrities were perceived significantly different from each other with respect to their attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, and with respect to respondents’ intention to purchase. To determine the impact of each dimension of source credibility on respondents’ intention to purchase, path analysis was used. Physical attractiveness and trustworthiness of celebrities were not found to be significantly related to the purchase intention. However in each case, celebrities’ perceived expertise was found to be significantly related to the respondents’ purchase intention.

A study by Liu, Huang and Minghua (2007) investigated the impact of physical attractiveness of athlete endorsers and endorser-product match on consumers’ purchase intention. The study investigated the varying effects of pairing high versus normal attractive athlete endorsers against different types of attractiveness-related products. To collect data, a 3×2×2 experimental design was used having manipulations as endorser’s attractiveness (High/Middle/Low), endorser-product match-up (High/Low) and product type (high match products-sports drinks and sports shoes; low match products-toilet and plugs). Participants’ responses about endorser-product match, endorser’s attractiveness and purchase intention were taken on 7-point semantic differential scales. ANOVA was used to analyze the collected data. The physical attractiveness of the athlete endorser was found to be affecting consumers’
purchase intention more than the endorser-product match. The main effects of attractiveness and match on purchase intention were found to be significant but their interaction was found to be insignificant. This research showed that the physical attractiveness is more important than match-up; and high attractive endorser has significant effects on purchase intention in both the match-up cases (congruent and incongruent).

Another study by Eisend and Langner (2010) investigated the immediate and delayed advertising effects of the source credibility characteristics such as attractiveness and expertise on attitude toward brands and on purchase intention. This study applied the Affective-Cognitive framework. The study focused on two prominent traits of the celebrity endorsers’ i.e. affective stimulus/physical attractiveness and the cognitive stimulus/expertise. Authors’ logic was that the buying decisions of the consumers take time therefore it was necessary to see the delayed effects of the stimuli also. This study also discussed the moderating role of ‘transformational products’ (chocolate bars, designer jeans etc.). Based on the past studies, authors assumed that, the expertise would not have significant impact on the brand attitude and purchase intention for the transformational products, while the attractiveness would have higher effects on brand attitude and purchase intention in case of transformational products. Transformational products such as champagne and brandy were used. An experiment with 2 (low vs. High expertise of the product) ×2 (low vs. High attractiveness of the celebrity) ×2 (immediate vs. delayed measure) design was used to collect data. Total sample size was 80 of undergraduate and graduate students of a German university. Participants’ responses about cognition-based attitude toward brand, affect-based attitude toward brand, endorser’s attractiveness, endorser’s expertise and respondents’ involvement with the product category were obtained on 7-point semantic differential scales. ANOVA and path analysis were used to analyze the collected data. Attractiveness was found to
have significant direct effect on affect-based brand attitude and on purchase intention in the immediate condition as well as in the delayed condition. Attractiveness was found to be significantly impacting cognition-based brand attitude indirectly mediating through affect-based brand attitude in both the conditions. Endorser’s expertise had significant effect on affect-based brand attitude in the delayed condition but not in the immediate condition. It had both direct and indirect significant effect on cognition-based brand attitude in the delayed condition only. Only the impact of the expertise of a high-attractive celebrity was found to be increasing over time, whereas the influence of expertise of a low-attractive celebrity was not.

Spry, Pappu and Cornwell (2011) investigated the impact of endorser’s credibility on consumer-based brand equity of the endorsed brand. The role of brand credibility as the mediating variable and the role of the type of branding (parent versus sub-brand) as the moderating variable were also investigated. The associative learning principles were used to develop endorser credibility-brand equity relationship whereas the brand signaling theory was used to investigate the mediating role of brand credibility. A conceptual framework was developed and tested using a field experiment. Respondents’ opinion about endorser credibility, consumer-based brand equity, and brand credibility were obtained. The scales to measure these constructs were adopted from the past literature. Data was collected using a mall-intercept approach in a metropolitan Australian city. The data was analyzed using SEM. The results suggested that the endorser’s credibility was having an indirect impact on consumer-based equity of the endorsed brand. The endorsed brand’s credibility was found to be mediating this relationship. This relationship was also found to be moderated by the type of branding. Though, the endorser credibility-brand credibility and endorser credibility-brand equity relationships were not found to be changing across the two types of branding used.
The source model has been criticized on several bases (Erdogan, 1999; Bower and Landreth, 2001). This model explains source effects on the bases of source characteristics (expertise, trustworthiness, and physical attractiveness) only. It does not take into consideration the other characteristics of the celebrity endorsement such as the role of match or mismatch of the celebrity personality with the product’s/brand’s personality and the role of endorser as the message medium (McCracken, 1989). Observing these limitations of the source model, it is necessary to study the personality-based congruence between brand and celebrity.

### 3.3. Endorsement Models: Meaning Transfer Model

The second stream of studies in celebrity endorsement literature is based on McCracken's meaning transfer theory (1989). It incorporates the cultural connotations of a celebrity and explains the endorsement process from a more comprehensive perspective. According to McCracken (1989), celebrity endorsements are specific examples of a more general process of meaning transfer. In this process, there is a conventional path for the movement of cultural meaning from the culturally-constituted world to consumer societies. This process involves three stages: (a) the creation of celebrity image, (b) transfer of meaning from celebrity to product, and (c) transfer of meaning from product to consumers (McCracken, 1989). The meaning transfer model describes the way in which celebrities transfer an extensive set of associations to the brands they endorse. Two early studies in the area of meaning transfer related to the celebrity endorsements were conducted by Langmeyer and Walker (1991) and Walker, Langmeyer and Langmeyer (1992). Langmeyer and Walker’s (1991) study used a celebrity endorser (Cher), a celebrity endorsed product (Scandinavian Health Spa), and a non-endorsed product (bath towel), as stimuli to identify the meaning transfer from endorser to product. Fifty-one graduate students participated in the main study where participants provided their responses on their understanding
on what was communicated through the advertisements; and variables indicating celebrity-product associations such as attractiveness, fitness, hard work, credibility, confidence etc. The authors found that the celebrities do stand for a set of meanings and the celebrity in the study (Cher) represented different themes in the ad which included her physical appearance, personality and lifestyle. The endorsed product (Scandinavian Health Spa) was found having animate and human associations linked with the celebrity. On the other hand the unendorsed product (bath towel) generated mostly inanimate associations which were more related to the product functions only. Walker et al. (1992) used a survey-based research to find out the nature of meaning transfer. They used two celebrities and three products for the study. The multiple-item semantic differential scales were used to measure the responses of participants on celebrity’s image, brand’s image and brand quality. They found that the perceived quality and the image of the brand endorsed were more similar to the celebrity who endorsed it. Byrne et al. (2003) carried out a case study of a celebrity endorsement by UK’s leading supermarket to explain the meaning transfer process. Some of the later studies used the source dimensions to explain meaning transfer such as expertise (Peetz, Parks and Spencer, 2004), attractiveness and trustworthiness (Charbonneau and Garland, 2007).

Recent studies by Ang, Dubelaar & Kamakura (2007) and Roy & Moorthi (2012) have focused on transfer of personality from celebrity to the brand. Both researchers found the possibilities of transfer of personality traits from celebrity to a brand in case of celebrity-brand fit. Furthermore, brands with strong personality created reverse transfer of personality from the brand to the celebrity (Roy and Moorthi, 2012) and there was a possibility of no transfer of personality (Ang et al., 2007).
Ang et al. (2007) investigated the transfer of personality traits from a celebrity to the product. Effect of bad and good fit of celebrity and product on this transfer was also analyzed. A 2×2 experimental design with two real celebrities (Bruce Willis and Orlando Bloom) and two real watch brands (Breitling and Swatch) created four experimental conditions. Two controlled conditions were also created. 192 male respondents participated in this experiment. Participants’ responses about the personality of watch, brand familiarity, celebrity-brand fit and owning the brand were obtained on 7-point scales. MANOVA was used to see if there were significant differences among experimental groups in terms of impact on 15 personality facets, which revealed a significant multivariate effect. But univariate F-tests showed that 4 of 15 facets were not significant. Therefore only 11 personality facets were used for further analysis. Breitling was rated significantly higher than Swatch on all 11 personality facets. Breitling endorsed by Willis, perceived more tough, masculine, daring and down-to-earth than endorsed by Bloom. Swatch endorsed by Bloom, perceived more charming, daring and wholesome than endorsed by Willis. This result indicated that personality of same watch brand was perceived differently when endorsed by different celebrities. Willis–Breitling and Bloom–Swatch were found having better image-fit. T-tests were conducted for the comparison of cells having good/bad fit of celebrities and brands with respect to the control cells. For Swatch brand, when endorsed by Bloom (good fit) perceived significantly more charming, daring and wholesome than the control. But when endorsed by Willis (bad fit), no significant difference was found with control group. For Breitling, when endorsed by Willis (good fit), the brand personality of Breitling did not significantly improve over that of control. But when this brand was endorsed by Bloom (bad fit), personality of this brand even become worse as 10 out of 11 personality traits were significantly lowered than the control. As Breitling was significantly higher than Swatch on all 11 personality
facets, this result indicates that in case of strong brand, celebrity won’t be able to shift its personality any higher.

Roy and Moorthy (2012) investigated the transfer process of personality traits from the celebrity to the endorsed brand. After the pre-tests, cricketer Sachin Tendulkar was selected among the celebrities and Pepsi as the endorsed brand. Aaker’s (1997) brand personality scale was used to measure the celebrity’s and brand’s personalities. Two different groups of 196 students and 198 students evaluated the personality of celebrity and brand. EFA and SEM were used to analyze the data. The conceptual model showing impact of celebrity personality on brand’s personality was found to be fit. The study had two major findings. First, the brand personality scale developed by Aaker (1997) was found reliable and valid for both the celebrity and the brand. Second, the study found the evidences of the personality transfer from celebrity to brand. However when the reverse causal model showing the impact of brand’s personality on celebrity personality was also tested which was also found to be fit. Therefore, the study suggested the reverse transfer of personality from brand to celebrity may take place if the brand has strong personality.

These studies indicate the moderating role of celebrity-brand fit and selected brand’s personality in effective meaning transfer. Therefore there is a need to study the impact of celebrity personality-brand personality congruence on advertising effectiveness measures to ensure positive meaning transfer from celebrity endorser to the brand.

3.4. Endorsement Models: Match-Up Hypothesis

The third stream of the studies is based on match-up hypothesis. The term match-up or congruence has been used in several research domains such as brand extension, co-branding,
sponsoring, and celebrity endorsements. In all cases, congruence is related to the fit between a brand and another entity, whichever may be a new product category, another brand, an event, or an individual (Fleck and Quester, 2007). In the area of celebrity endorsements, congruence was first defined by Misra and Beatty (1990). They defined the celebrity-brand congruence as the condition in which “the highly relevant characteristics of the spokesperson are consistent with the highly relevant attributes of the brand” (p. 161).

The literature on congruence in celebrity endorsement domain can be classified into three groups based on the stimuli of match-up. These are (1) attractiveness-based: it has been found that attractive endorsers are more effective in cases of endorsing products that are used to enhance attractiveness (Kamins 1990, Kamins and Gupta 1994, Lynch and Schuler, 1994; Liu et al. 2007; and Fleck, Korchia and Roy, 2012); (2) expertise-based: it has been found that celebrities are more effective when endorsing products that are related to their professions because those celebrities are perceived as experts by consumers. For instance, the match-up hypothesis suggests that sportspersons should be used to endorse sports-related products (Till and Busler 1998, 2000; Lee and Thorson, 2008); and (3) image-based: endorsements tend to be effective when there is a match-up between highly accessible celebrity associations and highly accessible brand/product associations (Misra and Beatty 1990; Kirmani and Shiv, 1998). Following sections discuss some of the important studies in this area in detail.

3.4.1. Match-Up on the basis of attractiveness

Kamins (1990) investigated the role of celebrity attractiveness on the impact of celebrity-product congruence on ad and spokesperson believability, and consumer attitudes. Major premise of this paper was that, use of the physically attractive celebrity is good for attractive product only but there is no difference on consumer attitudes for attractive unrelated products. This study was
based on the social adaptation theory. Through pre-tests, the author identified two celebrities, one who was physically attractive and one who was physically unattractive. Both celebrities were equivalent on familiarity. The author also identified one attractive enhancing product (luxury car) and one attractiveness unrelated product (home PC). A 2×2 experimental design with two celebrities and two selected products gave four experimental conditions. A group of 89 graduate students randomly assigned to four experimental groups, with approximately of equal size. The participants’ responses about advertisement believability and credibility; spokesperson believability and credibility; brand attitude; attitude toward advertisement; and purchase intention were collected on 7-point scales. The data was analyzed using ANOVA. For the attractiveness related product (luxury car), the mean ratings for both spokesperson credibility and attitudes toward advertisements were found significantly higher for physically attractive celebrity than physically unattractive celebrity. For attractiveness unrelated product (home PC), no significant difference was observed in response variables between physically attractive celebrity and physically unattractive celebrity. Hence, author postulated that the use of attractive celebrity depends on the product type.

Lynch and Schuler (1994) used another form of physical attractiveness (muscularity) as the match-up stimuli between endorser and product. The researchers used schema theory to understand the effect of muscularity based congruence on spokesperson schema and on product schema. Two experiments were reported. First experiment analyzed the effect of congruence on spokesperson schema, while second experiment analyzed the effect of congruence on product schema. The study had used a wide variety of 28 products for experiments. For these experiments, ‘muscularity’ was selected as the characteristic to be manipulated. Therefore, the pictures of male model were used. Spokesperson expertise was selected as the dependent
variable to check the source credibility. A single model/spokesperson was used to represent the three treatments or three stages of the muscularity (low, medium and high). For experiment 1, a total of 177 usable sample sizes were obtained from three universities. For experiment 2, a total of 200 usable sample sizes were obtained from two universities. MANOVA, using gender of respondents as covariate was conducted to determine the effects of the treatments on the perceptions of product attributes. The results of first experiment showed that a match between spokesperson muscularity and products related to muscularity or masculinity (male-targeted products, exercise equipments and shaving products) appeared to facilitate the transfer to the schema of spokesperson of the information that the ‘spokesperson knew about the product’. In the second experiment, the point of experiment was not the ‘strength’ dimension of the product. In this case spokesperson-muscularity/product-type interaction was not significant i.e. there was no significant effect of match on product schemas.

Fleck, Korchia and Roy (2012) compared the celebrity-product congruence and celebrity likeability in terms of impact on advertising effectiveness measures. A conceptual model was developed and tested by an experiment with before/after measures (three weeks in between) and control groups. The experiment manipulated the combinations of brands and celebrities to make the congruence between the celebrity and the brand and the likability of the celebrities vary. Participants’ responses on brand beliefs, brand attitude, purchase intention and congruence were collected. CFA and SEM were used to analyze the collected data. The results showed that the congruence between celebrity and brand was as important as the celebrity likeability. Attitude toward the celebrity was found to have significant direct and indirect effects on the predisposition toward the advertisement. The indirect effect was mediated by the congruence components (expectancy and relevancy) between celebrity and product. Further, congruence and
attitude toward celebrity had almost identical effect on predisposition toward the advertisement, brand attitude and purchase intention.

3.4.2. Match-Up on the basis of expertise

Till and Busler (1998) investigated the role of physical attractiveness versus expertise as match-up factors in the endorsement process. They evaluated the effect of congruence between endorser and product on attitude toward brand and purchase intention. This study was divided in two parts. Study 1 focused on the role of attractiveness as the match-up stimuli between endorser and product. Authors selected two products on the basis of attractiveness enhancing attributes. Men’s Cologne (attractiveness enhancing product) and pen (not used to enhance attractiveness) were selected. A 2×2 experimental design with two celebrities (physically attractive vs. physically unattractive) and two products (attractive enhancing vs. attractive non-enhancing) created four experimental conditions. 135 undergraduate students were randomly assigned to each experimental condition. They provided their responses on endorser-product congruence, brand attitude and on purchase intention. The results indicated that both, the respondents’ attitude toward the endorsed brand and purchase intention were significantly higher in the attractive endorser condition, irrespective of product types, than in the unattractive endorser condition. Therefore this study did not find any match-up based on the attractiveness. Study 2 explored the use of expertise as a match-up base between endorser and product. Two products (candy bars and energy bars) were selected on the basis of similarity in product form and pricing. A 2×2 experimental design with two endorsers (actor vs. athlete) and two products (candy bar vs. energy bar) created four experimental conditions. 141 undergraduate students were randomly assigned to one of four experimental conditions. The actor/candy bar combination was found having significantly higher mean ratings for both brand attitude and purchase intention, than
actor/energy bar combination. Athlete/energy bar combination was found having significantly higher mean ratings for both brand attitude and purchase intention, than athlete/candy bar combination. Therefore in this part of study “match-up effect” on the basis of ‘expertise’ was found significant effective on brand attitude and purchase intention.

A similar study was conducted by Lee and Thorson (2008). This study was based on the Schema-Congruity Theory. It examined the impact of varying degrees of celebrity-product congruence on purchase intention, attitude toward brand and attitude toward advertisement. It discussed three conditions of congruence – extreme incongruence, extreme congruence and moderate incongruence. Congruence was analyzed on the bases of physical attractiveness and expertise. The study also discussed the effect of individual’s own levels of involvement with a product category (High and Low). The research was divided in two parts. First part dealt with the study of schema congruity theory on the basis of match-up factor physical attractiveness and second part dealt with the schema congruity theory on the basis of expertise. A 3×2 Factorial design was used with the three levels celebrity-product congruence and two levels of product category involvement. Degree of celebrity-product congruence was the manipulated variable and the product involvement was the measured variable. A series of MANCOVA was used on dependent variables with familiarity as covariate. Same process was followed for second study, when effect of degree of congruence on the basis of match-up factor ‘expertise’ was checked on the same dependent variables. Overall, the results suggested that when there is a moderate incongruence between endorser and product, the celebrity endorsements were found more effective on purchase intention than when there was either an extreme congruence or an extreme incongruence. Extreme congruence condition was found to be more effective than extreme incongruent condition in case of purchase intention, but it was milder than moderate
incongruence condition. However, insignificant difference was found between moderate incongruent and extreme congruent conditions for attitude toward brand and attitude toward advertisement. Extreme congruence was not found to be more effective than the moderate incongruence across both parts of study. Effects of celebrity-product congruence were found more persuasive among high involvement products than low involvement products for purchase intention only.

3.4.3. Match-Up on the basis of image

Misra and Beatty (1990) examined the congruence between endorser and product from a schema-based expectancy theory perspective. The authors investigated the effect of congruence on recall (both immediate and delayed) and on affect. Delayed recall was calculated after one week. Through pre-tests, four celebrities and their commonly perceived attributes were selected. Celebrities were selected on the basis of high familiarity. Against these selected celebrities, six product categories were chosen. A 3×2 randomized experimental design with three brands (congruent/incongruent/irrelevant) and two celebrities created six experimental conditions. For two sets of celebrity-brand pair, 121 students and 124 students were selected respectively. These subjects were randomly assigned to one of the experimental conditions. Two-way repeated measures MANOVA method with time between the first and second (delayed) measure providing the within subject factor, was used to analyze the collected data. Recall was found significantly higher, when the celebrity spokesperson and brand were congruent for both immediate as well as delayed conditions, and for both the sets, than incongruent and irrelevant conditions. Least-squares regression was used to assess the level of correlation between affect toward the spokesperson and the brand affect. Results have shown that the correlation between
spokesperson and brand affects were significantly high in case of congruent condition but were not significant in case of incongruent and irrelevant conditions.

Kirmani and Shiv (1998) too used image as the match-up stimuli between celebrity and product. This study examined the conditions under which the endorser associations and the brand associations interact to influence brand beliefs and attitudes. The researchers used source congruity to refer this interaction between endorser and brand associations. They found that the source congruity enhances brand attitudes only in case of high level of issue-relevant elaboration (factors that affect issue relevant elaboration are personal relevance, consumers’ processing goal, judgmental confidence, and an individual accountability). When issue-relevant elaboration was low, source congruity was not found to be affecting attitudes. In case of low issue-relevant elaboration, consumers’ brand attitudes were based on cues not directly related to the advertised brand, such as endorser attractiveness, liking, or trustworthiness. The study discussed two conceptual frameworks namely Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM). Three laboratory studies were conducted to test the impact of source congruity on consumers’ brand attitudes and belief. Most studies based on ELM considered celebrity endorsers as peripheral cues, but as proposed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) and Petty et al. (1983), this study too suggested congruent source as the persuasive agreement. The study argued that when the source provides information that is central to the product/brand evaluation then the source may be construed as the central route in ELM.

Overall, the celebrity endorsement literature has discussed the role of source characteristics (such as trustworthiness, expertise, familiarity, likeability, and attractiveness), meaning transfer from celebrity to the endorsed product/brand and the effect of celebrity-product congruence (on the bases of attractiveness, expertise and image) on advertising effectiveness (in
terms of consumers’ attitude and behavior - brand recall, brand recognition, attitude towards brands and advertisements, and purchase intention).

3.5. Brand Personality

The concept of brand personality was formally introduced in the marketing in late 1990s by the pioneering work of Aaker (1997). Brand personality is defined as “the set of human characteristics associated with the brand” (p. 347, Aaker 1997). The concept of human personality in psychology has been the basis of research in brand personality.

Allport (1937) wrote an entire chapter on defining human personality. Allport (1937) reviewed 49 definitions before giving one of his own. He defined personality as the set of relatively stable and general dynamic, emotional and affective characteristics of an individual’s way of being, in his/her way to react to the situations in which he or she is. In fact, psychologists have defined personality as “genetically controlled dispositions that determine the fundamental pace and mood of a person's actions and the interpersonal strategies that people have developed to deal with others and find their way in the world” (p.469; Hogan, Hogan and Roberts, 1996). These factors inside people are responsible for their social behavior.

But, it was Sullivan’s (1953) definition of personality that proposed the trait theory. Sullivan (1953) argued that personality could be defined only in terms of the reactions of an individual towards other people in recurrent interpersonal situations in life. He named the smallest unit of the mentioned recurrent reactions as dynamism. He used this word to describe certain patterns of feeling and behavior. Among many theories to define personality, trait theory is most crucial as it enables the practical application of personality theory, construction of personality scales, and the identification of the corpus of words that define personality (Azoulay
This theory suggests that human personality could be described on the basis of some traits such as kind, outgoing, adventurous, and so on. A trait can be thought of as a relatively stable characteristic that causes individuals to behave in certain ways (Azoulay and Kapferer, 2003).

Goldberg (1981) proposed five broad factors describing personality, which are called the ‘Big Five’. Aaker (1997) proposed the brand personality scale based on this ‘Big Five’ scale, which is used to measure human personality. This scale has five (5) dimensions namely sincerity, competence, excitement, ruggedness and sophistication. These five dimensions have fifteen (15) facets and forty-two (42) items. In the first stage, 309 personality traits were generated through picking traits from psychology, adopting from earlier research works and through free association tests. Scrutiny in second step reduced the number of personality traits to 114. For the main study, 37 brands out of 23 product categories were selected. A total of 631 participants responded on the questions whether the attributes describe the selected brands. The data was analyzed through EFA which provided 42 items loading on five factors namely sincerity, competence, excitement, sophistication and ruggedness. For the confirmation of the five factors, CFA was used. The results of CFA confirmed the reliability and validity of the scale.

But subsequently, after conducting studies about brand personality in Japan and Spain Aaker, Benet-Martinez and Garolera (2001) found that this scale may need some modifications, depending upon the culture in which it is used. They found, for example, culture-specific dimensions of ‘peacefulness’ in Japan and ‘passion’ in Spain should be included in the scale. In the Indian context too, Mishra (2011); and Mishra & Pradhan (2011) have found problems with this scale. They found only 32 items of Aaker’s (1997) 42 item brand personality scale relevant to Indian condition. Like other researchers, Mishra (2011) and Mishra & Pradhan (2011) too
suggested to include culture specific traits in the Aaker’s (1997) brand personality scale to make it more relevant.

Though human and brand personalities might share same conceptualization, but the difference on the basis of the formation of their personalities may be the reason behind variability of brand personality components across industries and countries. Perceptions of human personality traits are derived on the basis of an individual’s behavior, physical characteristics, attitudes and beliefs, and demographic characteristics (Park, 1986), while perceptions of brand personality traits can be derived and affected from any human or non-human contact that the consumer has with the brand (Plummer, 1985). Personality traits can get attached with the brand in a human way through the people associated with the brand such as the brand’s user imagery, the company’s employees and CEO; and the brand’s endorsers. Personality traits can get associated with the brand in non-human ways through product related attributes, product category associations, brand name, symbol or logo, advertising style, price and distribution channel (Batra, Lehmann and Singh, 1993). Therefore components of brand personality may differ across different industries and different countries (Wang, Yang and Liu, 2009).