Chapter 3

Literature Review

This chapter gives a gist of the literary work done in the past and provides insight into critical aspects to be undertaken for the study. Besides this chapter also tries to identify the research gaps and provides for the base which underlies the building of conceptual framework which in turn acts as base for the study. The chapter is structured on the following bases. The entire chapter can be divided into four logical parts. First part of the chapter throws light on the past literary work done on various types of advertisement appeals and the effect of different ad appeals on consumer response to advertisements. Second part discusses the importance of media context in which the advertisement is placed and whether or not media context has any effect on response of consumers towards advertisements. Third part talks about the past and present research being done related to use of celebrity endorsers in advertisements. Lastly the chapter discusses the impact that earlier mentioned factors (advertisement appeal, media context and celebrity endorsement) have on the way consumers respond and react towards advertisements especially with respect to personal care products of FMCG sector.

3.1 Advertisement appeal

Advertisement appeals have been so far broadly classified as emotional as well as rational appeals. This study focuses on understanding the effect of both types of appeals on the response of consumer towards an advertisement especially in personal care segment of FMCG sector.

Emotional appeals relates to consumers’ social and/or psychological needs for purchasing a product or service. Many consumers’ motives for purchasing are emotional and their feelings for a product may be more important than their knowledge of the product’s features or attributes. Emotional appeals enhance the consumers’ emotional need and help in fulfilling their psychological status. Some characteristics of emotional appeals are related to personal feelings such as fear, love, joy, affection, safety, security, nostalgia, comfort, self-esteem, pride, sorrow and grief. Other characteristics of emotional appeals are related to social based feelings...
such as recognition, status, respect, involvement, embarrassment, affiliation, rejection, acceptance and approval (Belch and Belch, 2012).

Rational appeals tend to be informative and could help to resolve consumption choice conflict (Rossiter and Percy, 1987). Rational appeals place importance on the consumer’s functional, utilitarian or practical need for the product or service. It also stresses on features of the product or service and the benefit of owning or using a particular brand. Rational appeals underline the facts, logic of persuasion and learning (Belch and Belch, 2012). There are a few characteristics of rational appeals, such as product/service quality, feature, economy, dependability, efficacy, efficiency, competitive advantage, durability, performance, favourable price, convenience and popularity (Belch and Belch, 2012).

The effects of the characteristics of advertising stimuli on responses to advertisements are well documented. More particularly, the impact of (positive) emotional and non emotional (rational) appeals has been extensively studied (Weinberger and Gulas, 1992; LaTour and Henthorne, 1994; De Pelsmacker and Geuens, 1996; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). Advertisements can be classified according to their main focus (cognition or affect) (Swaminathan et al., 1996). In this respect, emotional advertisements can be defined as advertisements serving mainly to elicit affective responses (Aaker and Stayman, 1992). Most emotional advertisements contain positive emotional appeals. Non-emotional or rational messages, on the other hand, can be defined as containing features, practical details and verifiable, factually relevant cues that can serve as evaluative criteria (Puto and Wells, 1984; Belch and Belch, 1998). Most studies have indicated that positive emotional appeals lead to more positive advertisement and brand responses in general, although cognitive reactions to advertisements are more positively affected by non-emotional advertising appeals than by emotional ones (De Pelsmacker et al., 1998).

Kotler (1997) pointed out in his study that advertising appeal is the theme of an advertisement. To make the audience receive a necessary message, advertisers have to put some driving power into the message and this driving power is appeal. Every advertising appeal represents an attraction, which arouses consumers’ desires. Kotler (2003) classified advertising appeal into rational and emotional appeals. Most studies have focused on the impacts of advertising appeal on attitudes or purchase
intentions. Few of them have compared rational appeal and emotional appeal and have determined which one creates significant effects on consumer attitude towards advertisement more effectively. Many other studies have focused on the direct relationship between advertising appeal or advertising spokespersons and purchase intentions, while few of them have tried to examine the relationship among advertising appeal, advertising spokesperson, purchase intentions, and attitude simultaneously. Moreover, few researchers combined different approaches of advertising appeal with different types of advertising spokespersons to determine which combination of appeal and spokesperson is more effective in creating an impact on advertising attitudes.

Advertising appeal refers to packaging products, services, or individuals in a variety of ways that clearly deliver a certain benefit, stimulation, identification, or reason to explain what consumers are thinking about and why they buy the products that they buy (Kotler, 1991). Berkman and Gilson (1987) defined advertising appeal as an attempt at creativity that inspires consumers’ motives for purchase and affects consumers’ attitude towards a specific product, service or individual. Schiffman and Kanuk (2007) defined advertising appeal as suppliers’ application of a psychologically motivating power to arouse recipients’ desire and action for buying while sending broadcasting signals to change recipients’ concepts of the product. Hence, advertising appeal is applied to attract the attention of the consumer, to change the consumers’ concept of the product, and to affect them emotionally about a specific product or service (Belch and Belch, 1998; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2007). To meet the varying demands of their target consumers, advertisers commonly use rational appeal and emotional appeal in their advertising in order to influence consumer behavior (Chu, 1996). By rational advertising appeal, the product can be emphasized by its benefits, in which the self-benefit of consumers is the key proposition, and the function or benefit requested by consumers of the product or service is articulately presented in advertising. On the other hand, emotional advertising appeal places importance on meeting consumers’ psychological, social, or symbolic requirements, where many purchase motives come from. Kotler (1991) has defined rational appeal as rationally oriented purchase stimulated by directly giving explanations of a product’s advantages and it focuses on the benefits consumers may enjoy. On the other hand, he defined emotional appeal as the stimulation of consumers’ purchase
intentions by arousing their positive or negative emotions. Positive emotional appeal covers humor, love, happiness, etc, while negative emotional appeal involves fear, a sense of guilt, and so on.

Aaker and Norris (1982) pointed out that the advertising attitude created by rational appeal is better than that created by emotional appeal. They said that rational appeal appears to provide information explicitly and directly related to a product, which attracts consumers’ attention more easily and generates a better advertising attitude. Ray and Batra (1983) found that emotional identification comes before rational identification during a cognitive process. According to them emotional messages are more vivid and thus rational appeal works better than emotional appeal in attracting consumers’ attention.

Since the last three decades, the use of emotional advertising has substantially increased, accompanied by an increased research interest in the role emotions play in attitude formation (e.g., Allen, Machleit, Kleine and Notani, 2005; Grimm, 2005; Laros and Steenkamp, 2005; Malhotra, 2005; Poncin, Pieters and Ambaye, 2006; Yoo and MacInnis, 2005). In contrast to current theories on ad processing, academicians and advertising practitioners often assume that the effectiveness of emotional advertising appeals depends on the product category they promote. Several researchers believe that emotional ads evoke more positive responses for hedonic versus utilitarian products and for low versus high involvement products (e.g., Adaval, 2001; Batra and Stephens, 1994; Johar and Sirgy, 1991; Rossiter, Percy and Donovan, 1991). Despite the fact that both academicians and advertising professionals acknowledge that product category is an important variable for the choice of advertising strategy, most earlier research has substantially ignored the moderating influence of product type or has taken this influence into account only partially.

Chattopadhyay and Basu (1990) and Weinberger and Gulas (1992) pointed out that a particular type of emotional appeal (humour) resulted in more favourable responses in the case of existing products, while this was not the case for new brands. Thus, it can be assumed that consumers are more interested in rational, objective product information when they do not know the product. In the case of an existing brand which is also well- known, a positive emotional message might be more effective in supporting the brand. The consumer might not be so much interested in
learning about the brand and the involvement with the brand is less explicit. Therefore under these circumstances, inducing a good feeling by means of positive emotional appeals might lead to more positive responses (Alden and Hoyer, 1993; Lee and Sternthal, 1999; Lynch and Stipp, 1999). M Sims, T Langley, S Lewis, S Richardson, L Szatkowski, A McNeill, A B Gilmore (2014) deduced that exposure to both positive and negative emotive advertisements was associated with reductions in smoking prevalence and exposure to negative emotive advertisements was associated with reductions in cigarette consumption among smokers.

Mckay-Nesbitt et al. (2009) in their study explored the moderating effects of age, need for cognition and affective intensity on the effectiveness of ad appeals that are framed emotionally versus rationally. The study revealed that younger adults find emotional appeals more persuasive than rational appeals and they remember emotionally framed appeals better than rationally framed appeals. Interestingly, older adults developed more positive attitude towards the ad when exposed to rational appeals than to negative ones. Older adults’ preference for an informative ad over a negative ad is consistent with socioemotional selectivity theory (Carstensen et al., 2003) which suggests that older adults will respond more positively to rational, informational ads than to ones that evoke negative emotions. The study provided important information to help understand how these ad-evoked emotions influence individuals. It is important for marketers to understand the relationship between ad-evoked emotions and individual characteristics such as age, need for cognition, and affective intensity in order to increase their advertising message’s effectiveness.

A study by Hodge (2015) focused on examining the influence of advertising appeals on consumer perceptions of the advertisement, endorser, and brand. A secondary purpose of the study was to assess the influence of emotions on consumer perceptions of the endorser and the mediating role of emotions between advertising content and attitude toward the advertisement. The study used a 4 (appeal type: humorous vs. inspirational vs. warm vs. rational appeal) x 2 (athlete endorser vs. non-athlete endorser) between-subjects factorial design. Participants who were part of study were randomly assigned to one of eight experimental conditions and were asked to watch a television commercial produced by the Nike brand. The results revealed that athlete endorsed ads containing warm appeals proved to be more effective in general, than all other appeals. The results also suggested that marketers are capable
of augmenting an endorser’s image via advertising and other marketing related activities. In addition, the study extended the literature by testing the influence of advertising appeals on attitude toward the ad and consumer perceptions of the brand.

3.2 Media context

Today's consumer is bombarded by a huge assortment of product claims within an ever expanding array of media channels. Thus to break through from clutter and successfully compete for consumers' attention, the advertising practitioner must be acutely aware of factors influencing message effectiveness. One of the factors that has received considerable attention in the past literature is the advertising context which is the program (broadcast media) or editorial (print media) material within which the ad is embedded (Lord and Burnkrant 1993; Norris and Colman 1992). Several studies have suggested that ad context can influence the audience's perception of an advertisement, and hence its effectiveness (Singh and Churchill 1987; Soldow and Principe 1981). Research by Coulter (1998) examined the manner in which affective responses to television program content may interact with the affective tone of the ad to influence ad evaluations. The mediating effects of program cognitions and program liking, as well as the moderating effects of the ad's position within a pod were also examined and the relationships among those variables were specified and tested within the context of a structural equation model.

Soldow and Principe (1981) put forward an interesting hypothesis. They said that when an absorbing article in a magazine is read, it is unlikely that ads separating parts of that article will be noticed when the reader flips through the pages to find various points of continuation of the article. On the contrary, when a magazine is casually glanced through—e.g., in a waiting room—advertising that separates editorial parts is much more likely to be attended to. Thus it could be said that in the former situation the reader is highly involved in the editorial content, and in the latter situation the reader is uninvolved in the editorial content. An implication of the Soldow-Principe hypothesis is that, if other relevant factors are held constant then psychologically involving editorial material surrounding magazine advertisements will tend to reduce the effectiveness of those advertisements, whereas relatively uninvolving editorial material will tend to enhance the effectiveness of the advertisements. Norris and Colman (1992) argued that even though the Soldow-
Principe hypothesis had not been previously tested empirically, the literature contained indirectly relevant data from television research. In the case of television advertising, the published findings on program-induced viewer involvement were contradictory as some studies suggested that highly involving programs resulted in greater advertisement effectiveness than relatively uninvolving programs (e.g., Clancy and Kweskin 1971; Krugman 1983; Leach 1981; Menneer 1987; Siebert 1978; Television Audience Assessment 1984) and other studies suggesting a negative correlation between viewer involvement and advertising effectiveness (e.g., Bryant and Comisky 1978; Kennedy 1971; Soldow and Principe 1981; Thorson, Reeves and Schleuder 1985).

Television and print media differ in many ways, including the manner in which the information transmitted by them is processed by the recipients. One major difference is that televisual information is processed both visually and auditorily whereas printed information is processed only visually; second difference is that recipients have control over the speed of information processing only in the case of the print media. A magazine reader who is deeply involved in an article can easily skip over the accompanying advertisements and continue reading the article without any significant delay, whereas a deeply involved television viewer in a similar situation has no alternative but to wait until the commercial break is over. The television viewer however is not compelled to attend to the advertisements while waiting for the program to resume and can even turn off the signal or leave the room to avoid receiving the advertisement's message. While the deeply involved magazine reader has the option of continuing to attend to the absorbing material virtually without interruption, the television viewer, however deeply involved, is forced at least to stop viewing the program during the commercial break and may consequently be more likely to gather some of the advertising material. In this sense print media presented a slightly simpler case, and it seemed reasonable to hypothesize, as first suggested by Soldow and Principe (1981), that reader involvement will correlate negatively with subsequent recall and recognition of the accompanying advertisements and with other measures of advertisement impact. (Norris and Colman, 1992)

Researchers have tried to find out in what way might context material affect the recipients' memory for an advertisement. In the case of television advertising, a
start has already been made at examining the effects of surrounding program material on the effectiveness of the embedded advertisements. Among the aspects of program context that have been found to influence advertisement effectiveness are: program genre (Schwerin 1958; Schwerin and Newell 1981), program-induced viewer mood (Axelrod 1963; Goldberg and Gom 1987; Kamins, Marks and Skinner 1991), program-advertisement congruity (Bello, Pitts and Etzel 1983; Hansen, Barry, Reed and McGill 1976; Horn and McEwan 1977; Johnson 1981; Kamins, Marks and Skinner 1991; Lambert 1980; Murphy, Cunningham and WUcox 1978), program-induced viewer excitement (Singh, Chirichill and Hitchon 1987), and program-induced viewer involvement (Bryant and Comisky 1978; Clancy and Kweskin 1971; Kennedy 1971; Krugman 1983; Leach 1981; Menneer 1987; Soldow and Principe, 1981; Television Audience Assessment 1984; Thorson, Reeves and Schleuder 1985). The findings that have been reported so far tend to suggest that the most important context variable, as far as advertisement effectiveness is concerned, is program-induced viewer involvement. As regards with magazines and other print media, the effects of context-induced reader involvement on advertising effectiveness have not previously been investigated empirically. Thus, this study tends to investigate the effect of print media context (specifically newspapers) on the effectiveness of advertisements.

The types of advertisements and media contexts can make certain needs more salient and can also stimulate the motivation to pay attention to the product in the advertisement (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986; MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989). The link between type of advertisement and product type has been studied in some studies (Weinberger and Campbell, 1991; Alden and Hoyer, 1993). However, overall only a limited number of studies have focused upon the interaction effects between product types on the one hand and advertisement and context types on the other.

Janssens and Pelsmacker (2005) conducted an experiment by taking emotional and non-emotional advertisements for a new and existing brand of printer and the advertisements were shown in emotional and non-emotional media contexts. In the second experiment conducted by the researchers, emotional and non-emotional advertisements for a new brand of watch and a new brand of healthy drink were shown in emotional and non emotional media contexts. In this experiment however, only new brands in different product categories were studied. Through the study it
was found that context style as such and the interaction between context style and
type of advertisement did not have any significant effect on the responses to
advertisements. However, a positive emotional context was found to be more
supportive for advertisements for existing products, while a non-emotional context
improved the responses to advertisements for new products. Thus it was concluded
that a non-emotional context created the appropriate circumstances for consumers to
be motivated to pay attention and to learn something about an advertisement for an
unknown brand. On the contrary, a positive emotional context improved the responses
to advertisements for well-known brands. Therefore this emotional context appeared
to prime the feeling and knowledge structures that enabled the elaboration of
messages about brands that were already known and that did not require an extensive
cognitive elaboration. The results from the study confirmed earlier findings (Yi, 1990,
1993; Perry et al., 1997; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). However a similar effect of
media context was not found for different types of new products. The reason
attributed could be that the two products tested were not so different in terms of their
emotional and non-emotional characters and the fact that they were new brands was
more important than the fact that they were different product categories. However,
even in that case, a more positive effect of non-emotional contexts in general was
expected. Thus Experiment 2 conducted by the researcher did not support the findings
with respect to the context effect of new products that were found in experiment 1.

The hypothesized effects of non-emotional and emotional types of
advertisements were to a certain extent confirmed in both studies conducted by
Janssens and Pelsmacker. Positive emotional advertisements led to more positive
feelings towards the advertisement and non-emotional advertisements led to more
positive cognitive reactions. This confirmed earlier results (De Pelsmacker et al.,
1998). Again, this effect was more pronounced in experiment 1 than in experiment 2.
One remarkable result was that an interaction effect on the responses to
advertisements between the newness of the brand and the type of advertisement was
not found. Consequently, the most important conclusion of this study was that the
media context characteristics can be at least as important for advertising effectiveness
as the characteristics of the advertising stimulus itself.
As Lynch and Stipp (1999) have already indicated, there is relatively little known about media context effects on advertising responses and more research is needed. The results of this study are encouraging as they at least show the relevance of context effects for responses to advertisements. The managerial implications of this kind of research are also important because advertising effectiveness can be greatly improved by putting the right advertisement for the right product in the right context. This seems to be all the more relevant in the case of new versus existing products. John P. Murry, Jr. Peter A. Dacin (2002) examined how emotions elicited by television programs influence viewers' liking for the programs. An experiment using actual television programs found that positive emotions directly enhanced program liking, while negative emotions had a deleterious effect. Patrick De Pelsmacker and Maggie Geuens (2003) studies the impact of ad style/context style congruency and context appreciation on the attitude towards the ad as well as recall. Results showed that individuals who were not very involved perceived ads embedded in a congruent context as clearer and more likable, where as high involvement individuals perceived ads embedded in a contrasting context as having a higher likeability and clarity. Claire E. Norris and Andrew M. Colman (2004) tested the hypothesis that higher involvement in a magazine article is inversely related to subsequent recall and recognition of accompanying advertisements. Subjects read magazine articles interspersed with unfamiliar advertisements for common product types and the results showed that the more deeply the subjects were involved in the articles, the less they remembered about the accompanying advertisements. Tine Faseur and Maggie Geuens (2005) studied the debate about the valence-based versus the multidimensional view of feelings. The differential impact of three different positive context- and ad-induced feelings on ad effectiveness was compared.

According to Malthouse, Calder and Tamhane (2007), the effectiveness of advertising depends on both the quality of the product being advertised and the quality of the advertisement itself. A third factor which is equally obvious, but receives relatively less attention is the media context in which the ad appears. In advertising, the traditional major concern of media planning is with evaluating the size, reach, and frequency associated with a medium’s audience. The medium itself is most often viewed as a vehicle that provides exposure for an ad. Any consideration of the quality of the medium itself as something that might affect reactions to an ad, is
typically based on subjective judgments of alternative, and otherwise comparable, media buys. Their research confirmed that involvement with magazines constitutes a rich set of multidimensional experiences. It identified specific experiences and developed reliable scales for quantifying the extent to which a magazine provides each experience. Their research also demonstrated that the way a person experiences a magazine can affect the way that person reacts to advertising in the magazine. For example, people who found that the stories in a magazine absorb them also had more positive reactions to the advertising in the magazine. Thus all other things being equal, an advertisement in a magazine with absorbing stories is worth more to the advertiser than the same ad in a magazine that provides lower levels of this experience.

Past literary work points out that there have been repeated calls from advertisers, agencies, and research suppliers for research on the effects of media contexts, such as print magazine vehicles on advertising (e.g., Chook 1985; Marc 1966; Philport 1993; Schultz 1979). Many research papers have found out that media context can, of course, be construed in different ways, but according to the researcher, it is ultimately necessary to characterize “the quality of the medium” from a consumer point of view, that is, the qualitative experience of the medium. Fuchs (1964) concluded that the prestige of a magazine “rubbed off” on advertisements. Aaker and Brown (1972) examined how the “expertise” and “prestige” of a magazine affect ads. Tipps, Berger, and Weinberg (2006) studied the effect of “involvement” with newspapers and magazines on ads. Bruner and Kumar (2000) examined how the background complexity of a web page affects attitudes toward advertising. Therefore clearly there are many dimensions of “quality” that can affect reactions to advertising.

Earlier literature has focused on the impact of media context on advertising effectiveness. Context effects have been approached in terms of differences in media content. Furnham, Gunter, and Walsh (1998), compared advertising which featured in entertainment television shows versus news television shows. Generally, media context has been identified with the concept of “involvement.” Norris and Colman (1992) inserted ads in different types of magazine sections and varied the involvement of the sections, while Feltham and Arnold (1994) compared participants who were highly involved in a program with those who were not involved. These and other studies (e.g., Assmus 1978; Aylesworth and MacKenzie 1998; Danaher and
Mullarkey 2003; De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Anckaert 2002; Goldberg and Gorn 1987; Krugman 1983; Lloyd and Clancy 1991; Lord and Burnkrant 1993; Lynch and Stripp 1999; Winick 1962) point to the fact that there is existence of media context effects and there is need to understand these effects in terms of psychological reaction to the medium.

Research conducted by Dahlen Micael, Rosengren Sara, Torn Fredrik and Ohman Niclas (2008) adds to the existing research on media-context effects with two experimental studies of thematic (in)congruence (i.e., advertising placed in media with themes that are either congruent or incongruent with the advertised brands). The researchers hypothesized that by challenging expectations, placing ads in thematically incongruent media could enhance ad processing. Furthermore, employing theory on information incongruence, they hypothesized that thematic incongruence could enhance advertising evaluations and produce stronger perceptions of existing brand associations. The results of their research supported the hypotheses and suggested that effects were moderated by brand familiarity. Although there is limited research on the effects of advertising on a medium, there is a growing literature on media context effects. Basically, media context research has shown that perceptions of the same advertisement can change due to the editorial content surrounding it. For instance, effectiveness of an advertisement depends on the immediate editorial content surrounding that advertisement (e.g., Chang, 2009; De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Anckaert 2002) and the thematic overlap between that advertisement and the media vehicle (e.g., Dahlén et al., 2008; Jun et al., 2003).

John P. Murry, Jr., John L. Lastovicka and Surendra N (2007) examined how the feelings elicited by television programs as well as the liking of television programs affected viewers' evaluations of commercials. Feelings of the subjects were manipulated by viewing a positive, negative, or neutral emotion eliciting program while program liking was controlled statistically. The results showed that viewers' liking of programs positively influenced attitude toward the ad and attitude toward the brand, with the effect on the latter mediated through the former. On the other hand, feelings elicited by the programs had no effect on these same attitudes. The findings also showed that the influence of program liking on attitude toward the ad, and subsequently on attitude toward the brand, was moderated by both commercial involvement and the commercial's position in a sequence of commercials. Hans
Baumgartner (2008) investigated the role of end-states, or outcome focus, in message framing by using two positively valenced, factually equivalent message frames that are anchored by opposing end-states: the presence of gain (P/G) frame versus the absence of loss (A/L) frame. Goldberg and Gerald J. Gorn Source (2009) studied that relative to a sad TV program, a happy program induced: (1) a happier mood as viewers watched, program and commercials, (2) greater perceived commercial effectiveness, (3) more affectively positive cognitive responses, and (4) to some extent, better recall.

Englis B.G. (2014) pointed out that consumers do not encounter television advertising in a “vacuum.” Rather, television advertising is typically seen in a programming context because it competes with program material for the viewer’s limited attentional capacity. Programming contexts are the environments within which commercials are embedded and they vary enormously: news programs, comedies, dramas, soap operas, music television, educational programming and so on. It can be assumed that the content and impact of the programming environment influences whether and how embedded advertising messages are processed. The research reported in this paper is concerned with the emotional impact of program context and the effect it has on viewer responses to commercials presented in that viewing context. According to the researcher if a program environment influences the effectiveness of commercials, then it should be taken into account in media selection and also in creative and placement strategies so as to increase commercial effectiveness. Most previous work concerning the effects of program context falls into three distinct areas: firstly, some researchers have considered the degree of viewers’ cognitive involvement with the attitudes toward the program and its effects on ad processing. Second stream of research has examined the effects of program induced arousal on responses to embedded advertising. Finally, there are some studies which have examined the emotional impact of television programming and the effect it has on viewer responses to advertising.

A study by Fernandes (2015) examined the effect of ad-context congruency and the moderating role of issue involvement on consumers’ responses to banner ads on blogs. Results indicated that a banner ad that is thematically congruent with the blog’s context generated more favourable responses than an ad that is not congruent with the context. However, issue involvement moderated the effect of congruency,
that is when a banner ad was placed in a congruent context, individuals who were highly involved with the issue discussed in the blog responded more positively to the ad and when a banner ad was placed in an incongruent context, individuals who were less involved with the issue responded more favourably to the ad. Findings suggested that ad–context congruency was very important when targeting audiences who felt that the issue is very relevant to them. In contrast, ad–context incongruency was better perceived by individuals who were less involved with the issue.

3.3 Celebrity endorsement

McCracken (1989) has defined celebrity endorser as "any individual who enjoys public cognition and who uses this cognition on behalf of a consumer by appearing with in an advertisement". Moreover, celebrities are also used as testimonial, endorsement, actor or spokesperson by the firm. Research has shown that celebrity endorsement affects consumers' feelings in general and it could affect the attitude of consumers towards the advertisement and brands too. This could result in enhancing of purchase intentions and as a result increasing of sales. Properties like credibility, physical attractiveness and likeability of celebrity endorser influences the ability of one person to impact other person (Amos et al, 2008). Source credibility is referred to identification of communicator's positive properties which influences acceptance of a message by the receiver (Ohanian, 1990). This consists of two main dimensions, that is expertise and trustworthiness. Source expertise refers to the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertion (Roozen, 2008). Source trustworthiness refers to faithfulness and reliability of the spokesperson (Khatri, 2006). Source attractiveness refers to the personality, likeability and similarity of endorsers to the receiver, thus to the perceived social values of the source (Solomon, 2002). Physical attractiveness of the source includes being attractive, beautiful, elegant and charming to the receiver. According to the studies in this domain, expertise dimension is more significant than physical attractiveness for matching of a brand with a suitable endorser (Brian and Michael, 1998). Likeability is referred to the positive or negative feelings that consumers have towards the source of information. Likeability can be defined as the affection for the source because of its physical appearance and behaviour (Erdogan, 1999). Though some research results reveal effectiveness of celebrities as endorsers (Freiden, 1984), but other studies have suggested that celebrity endorsement may have different degrees of effectiveness
depending on other factors like the "fit" between the celebrity and the advertised product (Till and Shimp, 1998).

A review of past literature has revealed the following key predictors in the domain of celebrity endorsement (1) celebrity performance, (2) negative information, (3) celebrity credibility, (4) celebrity expertise, (5) celebrity trustworthiness, (6) celebrity attractiveness, (7) celebrity familiarity, (8) celebrity likeability, and (9) celebrity/product fit. Each predictor is briefly examined below (Amos et al., 2008).

- **Celebrity performance**: this 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 or musical success, etc. of any given celebrity. This perceived level of performance may be enduring or fleeting. However, no guarantee exists that any celebrity can continuously produce popular music, act in financially successful movies, or win sports championships. In fact, depending on their level of performance, celebrities rise and fall in popularity chart throughout their entire career (Agrawal & Kamakura 1995). When a celebrity fails to perform acceptably, as defined by consumers, his/her effectiveness as an endorser tends to decline (Agrawal & Kamakura 1995).

- **Negative celebrity information**: Since repeated pairings of a brand and celebrity strengthen the associative link consumers establish between brand and celebrity, negative information about the celebrity may therefore negatively impact the endorsed brand (Erdogan & Baker 2000). Till and Shimp (1998) pointed out that a strong associative link between celebrity and product must be present before negative celebrity information lowers brand evaluations. Irrespective of the strength of association consumers perceive between the celebrity endorser and the product, negative information about celebrity endorsers can put a firm’s products and image at risk.

- **Celebrity credibility**: Celebrities are generally viewed by consumers as credible sources of information about the product or service they endorse (Goldsmith et al. 2000). The literature pertaining to celebrity endorsements has generally employed one of two foundational source models: (1) the source-credibility model, and (2) the source-attractiveness model (Erdogan
Source credibility can be defined as ‘a communicator’s positive characteristics that affect the recipient’s acceptance of a message’ (Ohanian 1990, p. 41). The source-credibility model analyses the factors leading to the perceived credibility of the communicator (Hovland et al. 1953). The model stresses that the effectiveness of a message depends upon the perceived level of expertise and trustworthiness associated with an endorser or communicator (Erdogan 1999). Therefore, expertise and trustworthiness, when considered together, are presumed to embody the source credibility construct (Ohanian 1990). The source-attractiveness model says that the attractiveness of any source is determined by the receiver’s perceptions of the source’s similarity, familiarity, and likeability. Thus, if consumers perceive a celebrity endorser as similar to them and if they are familiar with and like the celebrity, they will tend to find the celebrity more attractive.

- **Celebrity expertise:** Erdogan (1999, p. 298) has defined celebrity endorsers’ expertise as ‘the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions’. The literature reviewing source credibility in settings involving persuasive communication 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 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 exhibited more agreement with the source’s recommendation than did those exposed to a source with low expertise (Ohanian 1990). Thus, the level of perceived celebrity expertise should predict celebrity endorser effectiveness.

- **Celebrity trustworthiness:** Trustworthiness can be defined as the degree of confidence consumers place in a communicator’s intent to convey the assertions he/she considers most valid (Ohanian 1990). Giffin (1967) has described favourable disposition, acceptance, psychological safety, and perceived supportive climate as favourable consequences of trust. Much of the past literature supports the positive effect of trustworthiness on effectiveness (Chao et al. 2005). Miller and Baseheart (1969) pointed out in their study that a highly opinionated message from a highly trustworthy communicator
produces an effective attitude change, while non-trusted communicators’ impact proved immaterial. Moreover, perceived communicator trustworthiness has shown to produce a greater attitude change than perceived expertise (McGinnies & Ward 1980).

- Celebrity attractiveness: Past literature on celebrity endorsement has indicated that attractiveness is an important indicator of effectiveness (Chao et al. 2005); however, the attractiveness construct is multi-dimensional in nature. Rather than just encompassing aspects of physical attractiveness, which themselves are rather arbitrary, attractiveness also entails other characteristics such as personality and athletic ability (Erdogan 1999). According to certain authors physically attractive celebrities are a predictor of advertising effectiveness (Till & Busler 2000). Generally, physically attractive celebrities are viewed more favourably on various personality traits than their less attractive counterparts (Kahle & Homer 1985; Eagly et al. 1991). Joseph (1982) studied endorsers’ attractiveness beyond the level of personality traits. He specifically studied the impact of endorser attractiveness on opinion change, product evaluation, and other measures of effectiveness and concluded that attractive endorsers have a more positive impact on the products they endorse than less attractive endorsers. Baker and Churchill (1977), pointed out that while attractiveness was effective in increasing positive advertisement evaluations, it was not effective in producing stronger purchase intentions. Similarly, Caballero et al. (1989) observed that there was no effect of endorser attractiveness on advertising effectiveness. However, within the broader context of celebrity endorsement, endorser attractiveness is definitely a relevant construct, although, the nature and scope of the attractiveness construct remains uncertain, and therefore appears worthy of additional attention.

- Celebrity familiarity and likeability: In certain studies, celebrity familiarity and likeability are treated as if both were analogous to attractiveness (Kahle & Homer 1985). Each celebrity attribute can be subsumed within the attractiveness construct. But some other studies have addressed familiarity and likeability separately, investigating each construct’s effect on effectiveness as if both were distinct from endorser attractiveness (O’Mahoney & Meenaghan
In the celebrity endorsement context, familiarity has been defined as ‘knowledge of the source through exposure’ (Erdogan 1999, p. 299) and likeability is defined as ‘affection for the source as a result of the source’s physical appearance and behaviour’ (Erdogan 1999, p. 299). On the basis of this, Amos et al. (2008) treated the two constructs as if each were distinct from attractiveness. This was done in order to determine each construct’s value as a possible predictor of celebrity endorsement effectiveness.

- Celebrity/product fit: The celebrity/product fit, also called the ‘match-up hypothesis’, refers to the harmony of the match between the celebrity endorser and the product/service being endorsed (Till & Busler 2000). This fit is thought to play a role as a key determinant of endorsement effectiveness (e.g. Friedman et al. 1978; Friedman & Friedman 1979; Kahle & Homer 1985; Kamins 1989, 1990; Kamins & Gupta 1994; Erdogan & Baker 2000; Till & Busler 2000; Erdogan et al. 2001; Batra & Homer 2004). Celebrity effectiveness varies across different product types. Friedman and Friedman (1979) concluded that the better the celebrity/product fit, as perceived by consumers, the higher is the level of endorsement effectiveness. Till and Busler (2000) pointed out that celebrity/product fit was effective only for certain measures of effectiveness such as brand attitude, but not for other measures such as purchase intention. Irrespective of the impact celebrity/product fit has on effectiveness, the absolute weight of the existing literature suggests that the phenomenon should play an important role in celebrity endorser effectiveness (Till & Busler 2000).

Marketers are generally interested in consumers’ attitudes towards advertisements and brands. Essentially, attitudes are consumers’ predispositions with regard to things and it shows whether a consumer likes something or not. Attitudes have three basic components: affective, cognitive and behavioral. Affective is related to the liking or feelings about an object. Cognitive is referred to beliefs about an object and behavioral component regards actions taken about that object (Severin and Tankard, 2001). Attitude towards advertisement can be defined as "a learned tendency to respond in a consistently desirable or undesirable approach toward advertising in general" (Haghirian, 2004). On the other hand, attitude towards the advertisement
(Aad) is whether the consumer likes an advertisement (Ad) or hates it. Aad is determined by variable which consist of attitude towards the advertiser, assessment of the Ad execution itself, the mood evoked by Ad, and the extent to which the Ad affect viewer's encouragement. Assessment of brands could be influenced by attitudes towards Ads and what causes an advertisement to be impressive will change noticeably cross-culturally (Arnold et al, 2004). In studies performed earlier, Aad is focused on as a mediator of advertiser's effects on brand attitudes and purchase intentions (Suhere and Ispir, 2009). However in recent studies, this issue has been proved that use of celebrity endorsement has a positive impact on attitudes of the consumer towards products and brands with which they are associated (Seno and Lukas, 2005). Agarwal and Malhotra (2005) in their research defined brand attitude as consumers' general evaluative judgment of a brand based on brand beliefs. Such beliefs concern product-related attributes, like practical and experimental benefits.

A successful endorser is one who is able to enhance intentions and preferences towards brands directly or indirectly. An endorser who has major source factors of credibility (like expertise, trustworthiness and effectiveness) is generally able to impress purchase intentions of the consumer considerably (Liu et al, 2007). Information from a credible source can impress ideas, attitudes and behaviour through a process called internalization which occurs when the receiver is motivated to have an issue (Belch and Belch, 1993). The receiver learns and accepts the idea of the credible spokesperson, since he perceives that information of this person represents an accurate position on the issue. Therefore, if such spokesperson who is known to be an expert endorses a product, there are greater chances that consumers will have a desirable idea about that advertisement and brand and they will consider it in their shopping list the next time they go shopping. Researchers have also used the identification process of social influence in order to explain the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers (Basil, 1996). This theory suggests that if an individual identifies with another individual, then he/she is more likely to accept an attitude or behavior of that individual or a group. The process of internalization of social influence is occurred "when an individual accepts influence because the induced behavior is congruent with his value system”. An individual accepts the influence as it provides a solution to a problem (Daneshvary and Schwer, 2000).
As pointed out by the elaboration likelihood model (ELM), individual's level of motivation to process central message arguments is represented which is one of its key factors that affects the relative impact of central and peripheral processing (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986). When applied in an advertising context, ELM suggests that since consumers’ motivation to centrally process brand-relevant aspects of an advertisement is enhanced, the impact of central processing on brand attitudes should be enhanced, the effect of peripheral processing on brand attitudes should be reduced and the effect of brand attitudes on purchase intentions should be enhanced (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 1999). In this model, the endorser serves as cue just during peripheral processing and thus the effect of the endorser should be reduced while central processing is enhanced. Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) have stated that advertiser credibility is a central processing cue more than any other thing and the credibility of the source is considered important in influence acceptance. A consumer accepts the accurate influence (information) and applies it if there the source is perceived to be credible. It is accepted because it is demanded by one’s own values. Thus, a product's endorsement by a credible source may impress purchase behaviour (Danwshvary and Schwer, 2000). As a result of which, celebrity endorsement can increase the process of recalling and consumer’s assessment of products (Khatri, 2006). On the contrary, celebrity endorsement has a severe effect on learning approach and memory. Researchers in the field of marketing and social psychology have studied the manner of impressing purchase decision by celebrity endorsements and various hypotheses have been proposed including having recall of the product by celebrity endorsement, celebrities have credibility on expertise that makes the product more desirable or increases perceptions of quality; the celebrity endorsers' image is transferred to the product so that those who use the product are associated with the image.

Experiments done in the past suggest that celebrity endorsement can increase recall and consumer assessment of the products in certain situations (Clark and Horstman, 2003). Most of the times, making connection with the brand message is occurred when consumers are not in a purchasing situation and therefore marketers use celebrity endorsement so that information will be kept in consumers' minds better and in the case of purchasing situation, they can easily retrieve it (Surana, 2008). A successful endorser strategy enhances the level of consumers' recall towards product information, reinforces consumers' recognition to endorsed brands, positively
influences consumers' attitude to low-involved products and even enhances consumers' purchase intention and preference towards brands (Liu et al, 2007)

Freiden (1984) proposed four types of advertising spokespersons: celebrities, top corporate managers, experts and typical consumers. Wang et al. (2002) also indicated that top managers, celebrities, experts, and consumers are often seen in advertisements. In his study, celebrities created the best effect according to advertising recall rates, advertising attitudes, attitude towards spokespersons, and purchase intention. Celebrities refer to public or famous figures by the use of which companies usually expect consumers to become empathic through the high popularity or attraction of a celebrity and then feel good about the products being recommended (Lin, 2008). According to the author, an expert is a person with a unique social status due to his/her profession, special training, or an extraordinary experience that allows him/her to provide consumer opinions (Lin, 2008). An expert spokesperson also has the advantage of his/her own professional field and authority. He/She may sometimes have the professional knowledge related to the products being recommended. The invitation of an expert spokesperson aims at making consumers believe that the expert’s identification with a product/service comes from professional as well as correct judgment. In the study comparing celebrities, experts, and typical consumers, Lian (1990) pointed out that celebrities create a positive effect on advertising recall, advertising attitude, product attitude, purchase intention, and so on at an extraordinarily significant level compared to experts and typical consumers.

Kamins et al. (1989) concluded that celebrities are more persuasive than non-celebrities in advertising. When negative messages become less important and appear earlier, customer trust and purchase intention increases and a spokesperson facilitates the consumers’ positive attitude towards an advertisement. However in the past empirical studies regarding advertising spokespersons, it was found that advertising spokespersons were mainly celebrities and experts. Tsai (2001) classified advertising spokespersons into celebrities and consumers to find out the effect of the advertising spokesperson and appeal on advertising effectiveness. From the study it was found that stars created the best effectiveness in advertising attitudes and purchase intentions. Peng (2000) conducted a study by combining cell phones or beverages with celebrities, experts, and consumers to examine advertising effectiveness and it was revealed in the study that celebrities have the effect of increasing opinions of
attraction and reliability on advertising attitudes regarding products with high involvement. As far as products with low involvement are concerned, spokespersons those are more attractive and professional influence advertising attitude.

One of the theories used by researchers to explain the impact of celebrity endorsements is the match-up hypothesis. According to this hypothesis there should be a good fit between the celebrity and the product; however, it is not clear what constitutes a good fit. Some researchers have focused on the attractiveness dimension and said that attractive celebrities will be more effective if they are used to promote attractiveness-related products, such as razors (e.g., Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990). Other researchers focused on the expertise, or product relatedness, dimension and they claimed that when there is congruency between the product type and the celebrity (as in the case of a sports athlete promoting sports shoes), advertising effectiveness will be enhanced (e.g., Till and Busler 2000). The congruency between celebrities and consumers has also been studied by many researchers. For instance, Boyd and Shank (2004) showed that when there is a fit between the celebrity and consumer in terms of gender, consumers perceive the celebrity as more trustworthy, regardless of the product type endorsed by the celebrity.

The research by Lars Bergkvist, Hanna Hjalmarson and Anne W. Mägi (2015) introduces attitude towards the endorsement as a mediating variable in the relationships between celebrity source and endorsement factors and brand attitude. The paper also includes perceived celebrity motive, a variable rarely studied in the previous literature, as an endorsement factor. In the study which was done through survey method, respondents evaluated four celebrity endorsement campaigns. Mediation analyses showed that attitude towards the endorsement mediates the effects of three variables on brand attitude. Those variables were celebrity expertise, celebrity–brand fit, and perceived celebrity motive. Moreover, results also showed that if consumers perceive that the celebrity was motivated to do the endorsement not only by money but also by product quality; this has a significant positive effect on attitude towards the brand.

Past literature indicates that along with the benefits of celebrity endorsements, there are certain downsides as well. The very first downside of celebrity endorsement is the term ‘Lazy Advertising’ which is used to address the extreme usage of
celebrities to endorse products, which poses a question on the validation of success of celebrity endorsement as a prevalent marketing communication activity (Kulkarni and Gaulankar, 2005). It is perceived that using celebrities can turn out to be an unnecessary risk, unless there appears to be a very logical relation between the endorser and the product (Beverage Industry 1989, USA Today, 1995) and that celebrity endorsers may now and then become a liability to the brand they endorse (Till and Shimp, 1998). Negative information and publicity regarding the celebrity is always a risk which is associated with the use of celebrity endorsers. If the celebrity is strongly associated with the brand then the impact of the negative publicity will spill over to the product (Till, 1996). Many companies have been badly affected by the negative publicity resulting from the celebrity’s misdeeds. One very prominent international example is Pepsi which suffered with three tarnished celebrities namely Mike Tyson, Madonna, and Michael Jackson (Katyal, 2007). Furthermore, firms who choose to use celebrities have no control over the celebrity’s future behaviour (Till & Shimp, 1998). Clutter in brand endorsement is also very high these days (Kulkarni and Gaulankar, 2005). This may be attributed to celebrity greed which leads to a celebrity endorsing many diverse products (Erdogan, 1999). Overexposure, thus, is a common occurrence between highly recognized and well-liked endorsers and highly competing brands and leads to making the consumer confused and unable to recall correctly which brand the celebrity stands for (Tripp et.al., 1994). Studies point out that overexposure not only compromises the value of the celebrity in the eyes of the star’s fans but also brings to the customers notice the true nature of endorsements which is more compensation inclined and not so brand or product inclined (Cooper, 1984, Tripp et al. 1994, Graham 1989). This has been referred to by Solomon et al. (2002) as the “hired gun” problem, where the spokesperson/endorser is perceived as endorsing the product only for the motive of money. An investigation by King (1989) found that especially among young people the perceived credibility of celebrity endorsers has fallen drastically, with 64% believing that celebrities appeared in the ads only for money.

Cooper (1984) said that the product, not the celebrity, must be the star. Overshadowing or better known as the ‘vampire effect’ occurs when the celebrity endorser occurs in the presence of multiple other stimuli which all competes to form a link with the celebrity endorser (Till, 1996). This is a fairly familiar problem that
tends to ‘water out’ the image and association present between the celebrity and the brand being endorsed and one that leads to lack of clarity for the consumer (Evans, 1998). A major concern here is that consumers fail to notice the brand being promoted because they are focusing their attention on the celebrity (Erdogan, 1999). Two new shortcomings can be seen what marketers call as Celebrity Trap and Celebrity Credibility. Celebrity trap is when the task to find substitutes becomes more and more difficult and thus celebrity becomes an addiction for the marketing team leading to excess of celebrities. Celebrity credibility refers to scepticism by the consumers regarding the celebrities, because of which brand is bound to be affected, especially when there is anything negative regarding the celebrity associated with the brand in the external world (Kulkarni and Gaulankar, 2005). Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) recommended that there were decreasing returns associated with celebrities in advertising. Also some consumers think of celebrities to be a ‘puppet’ used by companies implying that they perceive the celebrities to be lying, when endorsing certain products. (Temperley & Tangen, 2006)

A study by Muda et al. (2013) was undertaken to address the gap that despite being extensively reported in popular media, the role of celebrity entrepreneur-cum-endorser in advertising effectiveness literature is almost ignored. The researchers developed, tested and validated a model that could explain the effects of celebrity entrepreneur endorsement on advertising effectiveness. The research hypothesized that celebrity credibility (which comprised of attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise) and advertisement credibility positively affects three traditional measures of advertising effectiveness – attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. The findings of study revealed that both, celebrity credibility and advertisement credibility had positive impact on attitude toward the advertisement and attitude toward the brand. Moreover, the impact of consumers’ perceived credibility on purchase intention was mediated by their attitudes.

3.4 Advertising effectiveness and its measurement

The main components related to the effectiveness in the advertising activities are consumer, advertisement, product/service, medium, and environment. The advertising effectiveness can be studied from the different manifestations of these components.
• Consumers are audience of the advertisement and potential purchasers of the product or service. Many models of consumer behaviour have been developed to measure the advertising effectiveness (Brierley, 1997). For instance, in the attitude model (Wheatley, 1969), the effects of advertising on consumers is described as a sequence of stages or steps that begins with awareness of the existence of what is being advertised, through the knowledge on what the product or service has to offer, favourable attitudes, preference over all other possibilities, and the conviction that the purchase would be wise, and finally results in the actual purchase of the product or service.

• Advertisement in a traditional sense can influence the consumer behaviour. In new media advertising on the Internet, the advertisement can be influenced by the consumer behaviour as well to manifest the effectiveness. For example, click-through rates of banner advertising on the web can be used to measure its effectiveness.

• Product/service represents the reason behind the advertising. Advertising is often used in order to increase sales of a product or the use of a service, to improve the firm’s image: to persuade people that the company is benevolent and reliable, or to change people’s behaviour such as anti-smoking. So the advertising effectiveness can be also measured through the achievements of the motivation behind advertising, such as the profit and the brand value.

• Medium is the carrier of the advertising message. The principal media may be generally classified as newspapers, magazines, radio, TV, direct mail, Internet, outdoor and so on. The first criterion for effectiveness is that sufficient number or percentage of the target audience should get to see or hear the advertisement, which is mostly decided by the nature of the medium. For example, television advertising at peak-time like 6:00pm to 10:00pm, or banner advertising on a famous web page like Yahoo with millions of visitors a day, can be considered to be more effective.

• Environment includes other factors around the medium that can affect the advertising. The environment can influence the audience attention and involvement level. For example, not all the people sitting in front of a television are actually watching television, let alone television advertising.
Broadly speaking, the advertising effectiveness is achieved through the interactions of these components, and factors in consumers, advertisement, product/service, medium, and environment are all related to the advertising effectiveness. In a narrower sense, the advertising effectiveness talks only about the effectiveness of the advertisement which considers only the interaction between the consumer and advertisement excluding factors of product/service, medium and environment. Previous studies have focused on many techniques for advertising effectiveness measurement, such as test based on memory, opinion and attitude ratings, projective testing, laboratory tests and content analyses, and inquiries and sales measures (Lucas, 1963). The problems in the measurement of advertising effectiveness can be grouped into four major classifications. However, not all of these problems are explicitly identified in each of the approaches used in advertising evaluation.

- Specification of goals: Goals can be very diverse especially in different advertising research, which decide all other research processes. The specification of a goal can include issues/hypothesis, examples and possible deliverables.
- Acquisition of data: The problems of data availability are common to all approaches of evaluating advertising. Traditional methods include questionnaire, sampling, inquires, interviews, group discussions, and so on.
- Development of framework: This is the most important part to explain how to exploit the data, through analytical procedures, to achieve research goals.
- Procedures of analysis: Many analytical techniques are developed. For example, correspondence analysis (Hair, 1995) can examine the interdependence relationships among variables.

Commercial products are generally advertised in order to increase the profits of the advertiser where the goal of the advertiser can be short-term profits, e.g., as a result of an immediate sales increase, or long-term profits, e.g., by building a strong brand, or both, but arguably no firm would invest money in advertising if it did not expect a positive return. It is generally accepted that advertising is assumed to increase profits by increasing sales, but advertising can also contribute to profits by increasing the price of a brand or lowering the costs associated with it (Rossiter and
Percy, 1997). Therefore, advertising which increases the profits of an advertiser by increasing sales of the product, by increasing the consumers' willingness to pay a higher price for the product or by contributing to lower costs associated with the product, or any combination of these three things, can be regarded as effective advertising. Therefore an ad or campaign that results in a greater increase in sales than another ad or campaign, all else being equal, is more effective and the same logic also applies to ads that are relatively better at increasing the willingness to pay a higher price or at lowering costs.

The relationship between advertising and profits is complex as advertising interacts with many other factors and the effects may be distributed over time. Also, advertising is rarely thought to have a direct impact on sales, price or costs, but is presumed to work indirectly via a number of intermediate variables, e.g., by influencing brand awareness or intention to purchase. The complexity of this relationship between advertising and profits has led to changes in one or many of the intermediate variables often being referred to as advertising effectiveness (e.g., Aaker, Batra and Myers, 1992; Haugtvedt and Priester, 1997; Tellis, 1998). This is not entirely true, but if there is a direct or indirect relationship between the intermediate variables and profits, the intermediate variables can be used as indicators of advertising effectiveness. This means that advertising which causes positive changes in intermediate variables related to sales or any other outcome variables that in turn are related to profit could be regarded as effective advertising. Bergkvist (2000) in his research work has regarded advertising effectiveness as changes in intermediate variables related to the profits of the advertiser. These changes can occur in the short term or in the long term and their impact on profits can be positive or negative. The researcher has also taken the view that advertising effectiveness is not dichotomous, but continuous, i.e., that there are degrees of advertising effectiveness. The view taken on advertising effectiveness can be extended to include advertising for non-profit organizations or advertising carried out by the state.

Given the fact that intermediate measures can be used before, during and after an advertising campaign, a number of different purposes of advertising effectiveness measurement can be pointed out. One reason for measuring advertising effectiveness is to evaluate whether the investment in advertising yielded a positive financial return or not. This can only be done after a campaign has finished. Since it will not influence
the campaign in any way, the evaluation mainly serves accounting purposes. Demonstrating that advertising yields a positive financial return could also serve to justify advertising budgets to stakeholders present inside and outside the advertising company. This evaluation is generally based on sales and profit measures than on intermediate measures and measures of the latter type are normally used to estimate the long-term value of advertising. One more reason for measuring advertising effectiveness is to compare the potential effectiveness of different ads or ad executions (e.g., Bogart et al., 1970; Rossiter and Percy, 1997). Different ads do not always perform equally well in terms of effectiveness and it is preferable to eliminate ads performing less well in a pretest. Ads and advertising campaigns do not generally live forever and this decline in effectiveness of ads and campaigns has been referred to as advertising wearout (cf. Blair, 1987; Rossiter and Percy, 1997). Advertising effectiveness measurement can also be used to check whether ads or campaigns are starting to wear out and whether they should be changed. Another reason of using advertising effectiveness measurement is to improve parts of advertising campaigns to increase the total effectiveness (Lucas and Britt, 1963). Rossiter and Percy (1997), for instance, suggested that continuous tracking studies should be used to evaluate different campaign factors, e.g., the media budget and the accuracy and implementation of the media plan. This should be done while the campaign is being carried out. Yet another reason for measuring advertising effectiveness is to learn for the future since effectiveness measurement can contribute to an understanding of why a campaign works or not (Sutherland, 1993; Rossiter and Percy, 1997), and thereby makes it possible to learn what to do and what to avoid when planning future campaigns. Measurement that contributes to the learning process can be carried out before, during and after a campaign and the reasons for carrying out advertising effectiveness measurement can be compared with the actual reasons given by advertising agencies. A study of leading British agencies (Flandin et al., 1992) showed that less than half (45 %) of the agencies use advertising effectiveness research to learn for future campaigns. While a majority of the agencies (68 %) mentioned measuring the performance of the advertising as a reason, 45 percent said that demonstrating the effectiveness of the advertising to their clients was a reason for doing effectiveness research. In a comment on the extent of advertising effectiveness research, the authors said that it is far from being part of routine advertising management.
Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) gave the term intermediate effects to denote the various mental effects advertising must have on consumers before it influences their behaviour. Examples of intermediate effects caused by advertising are effects on memory and cognitive (thinking) or affective (feeling) responses. In short, intermediate effects are what happen in the minds of people following exposure to advertising. Based on this concept of intermediate advertising effects, intermediate measures of advertising effectiveness are defined as measures of the mental effects which advertising creates in consumers. There is threefold advantage of intermediate effectiveness measures compared with sales measures or any other behavioural measures. Firstly, many intermediate effects can be measured in advertising pre-tests which means that it is possible to evaluate the ability of an ad or a campaign to create certain types of intermediate effects before the campaign has started (cf. Tellis, 1998).

Secondly, there is generally less interference in the relationship between advertising and the intermediate effects than in the relationship between advertising and consumer behaviour. Sales are influenced by many factors where as fewer factors influence the intermediate effects (cf. Gronhaug, Kvitastein and Gronmo, 1991; Tellis, 1998). Also the number of other factors influencing intermediate effects and the strength of their influence is different for different types of intermediate effects. Lastly, in most cases, the delay between exposure to the advertising and the intermediate effects is shorter than between advertising and sales which makes it possible to evaluate the effectiveness of ads and advertising campaigns at a point in time close to exposure, in some cases as soon as the day after exposure.

A research by Tsiotsou (2011) pointed out that although the effect of involvement with the program context is often cited as a key element in advertising processing, there is no consistent view concerning its role and tried to clarify this point by proposing a conceptual model for the determinants of advertising effectiveness in televised sporting events that incorporated both situational as well as enduring involvement factors. Results of the study revealed that enduring involvement is directly and indirectly, through situational involvement, associated with advertising effectiveness. Overall the study suggested that involvement with the program context should be conceptualized as a function of both enduring factors and situational states. Contrary to earlier assertions advertisers need not be deterred from placing commercials in involving programs. Horng and Lin (2014) conducted a study
which explored how consumers distinguish different products and how to achieve advertising effectiveness. An experiment of \(2\text{(high/low ideal brands)} \times 2\text{(with/without comparisons)} = 4\) mixed designs was conducted to verify the advertising effect influenced by the presence of comparisons in ads with respect to high/low ideal brands. 50 subjects per design and 200 effective samples were evaluated under descriptive statistics and two-way ANOVA test. The study concluded that the presence of comparisons on ads enhances brand attitude and advertising attitude regardless of high/low ideal brand. However, purchase intention was not significantly influenced by comparisons in ads.

3.5 Conceptual framework

In the first part of the study, emotional and non-emotional advertisements for a new and an existing brand of shampoo as well as soap (since both soap and shampoo are FMCG products, hence they were considered for the study) were shown in emotional and non-emotional media contexts. As far as the main effects of advertisement and context type and newness of the brand are concerned, based on past literary work, it could be expected that advertising an existing and well-known brand would lead to a more favorable attitude towards the advertisement and the brand and a more positive purchase intention than advertising a new brand. Furthermore, emotional advertising in general could be expected to lead to more positive affective responses and less positive cognitive responses than non-emotional advertisements (De Pelsmacker and Geuens, 1996; De Pelsmacker et al., 1998). As far as media context is concerned, the expected effect is unclear. A positive emotional context could be expected to lead to more positive responses (Perry et al., 1997; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002).

Chattopadhyay and Basu (1990) and Weinberger and Gulas (1992) found that a particular type of emotional appeal (humour) resulted in more favourable responses in the case of existing products, while this was not the case for new brands. Indeed, it can be assumed that consumers are more interested in rational, objective product information when they do not know the product. In the case of an existing and well-known brand, a positive emotional message might be more effective in supporting the brand. The consumer is not so much interested in learning about the brand and the involvement with the brand is less explicit. In these circumstances, inducing a good
feeling by means of positive emotional appeals might lead to more positive responses (Alden and Hoyer, 1993; Lee and Sternthal, 1999; Lynch and Stipp, 1999). Similarly, a non-emotional media context could serve as a primer to make consumers more motivated to pay attention to information about a new brand, as a result of which an advertisement for this new brand could be processed more intensively. On the contrary, a positive emotional context might serve as a more effective peripheral cue in the case of an existing brand (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986; MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Yi, 1990, 1993).

In the second part, emotional and non-emotional advertisements with and without celebrity endorsements were shown in emotional and non-emotional media contexts. As in the first stage, positive emotional advertising could be expected to lead to more positive affective responses and less positive cognitive responses than non-emotional advertisements (De Pelsmacker and Geuens, 1996; De Pelsmacker et al., 1998). The following model represents the conceptual framework on which the current study is based. Therefore, based on past literature review, the researcher tries to bridge the gap and find out whether there is any interaction effect between emotional & rational types of ads and emotional & rational types of media in case of new as well as existing brands (personal care FMCG brands) and whether the use of celebrity has any impact on the consumer response towards advertisement.

**Figure 3.5.1: Conceptual framework**

![Conceptual framework diagram](image-url)