

CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENTS OF BRANDED APPAREL AND ITS ROLE IN
PRINTED ADVERTISING

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DECLARATION

I, Ziyu Liu, hereby declare that:

- the work in this dissertation is my own original work;
 - all sources used or referred to have been documented and recognised;
- and
- this dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfillment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other recognised education institution.

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November 2009

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ABSTRACT

Purchasing is an important concept in the life of students. The decision whether to purchase branded apparel is hence a very important one. The 21st century student is less loyal and more demanding when choosing branded apparel. Marketers should understand how students evaluate celebrity endorsers when they appear in printed advertising and respond accordingly.

The objective of the research is to find out how celebrity endorsed print advertisements affect Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) students' purchase behaviour. The results of this study could assist marketers in improving the quality of their advertising and to more accurately meet the needs of this dynamic student market.

A literature review was conducted to provide an understanding of the consumer purchasing behaviour and the role celebrity endorser played in printed advertisements. The empirical study was designed to assess the impact of the use of celebrity endorsements of printed advertisements targeted at NMMU students.

The empirical findings showed that both male and female students indicated that the use of celebrity endorsers get their attention and created interest, and make advertisements more memorable. Males were more influenced than

females. Moreover, both groups indicated that for a desired or familiar product, celebrity endorsers did not easily change their purchase decisions. It was also found that the use of pictures, colours and wording featured in the advertisements are important to students.

The study proposes that marketers should continue to focus on effective marketing communications and establish whether a celebrity should be used. The correct selection of a celebrity endorser can help to create greater consumer persuasion.

KEY WORDS:

Consumer behaviour

Branded apparel

Students

Celebrity endorser

Print advertising

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The increasing pressures of highly competitive marketing environments make it imperative that firms understand consumers and, in particular, consumer decision making. As they seek to gain competitive advantage, in a competitive economic system, the survival and growth of firms requires accurate knowledge about consumers: how they buy, why they buy and where they buy as well as just what they buy (Foxall, Goldsmith & Brown 1998:1).

Consumers' product and service preferences are constantly changing. To address this constant state of flux and create a proper marketing mix for a well-defined market, marketing managers must have a thorough knowledge of consumer behaviour. Consumer behaviour is defined as "processes a consumer uses to make purchase decisions, as well as to use and dispose of purchased goods or services; also includes factors that influence purchase decisions and product use" (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel 2004:142).

As the marketplace becomes more integrated and consumer specialists develop an international focus, developing useful scales to profile consumer buying decisions becomes important. Comparing the buying decisions of consumers from different background would thus contribute to the understanding of the effect of the marketing environment.

Contemporary consumers are barraged by an assortment of product claims within an ever expanding array of media channels. To “cut through the clutter” and successfully compete for consumers’ attention, the advertising practitioner must be acutely aware of factors influencing message effectiveness (Coulter 2002:41). Kunde (2002:55) suggests that global media such as CNN, CBC Worldwide, Eurosport, MTV and CNBC control opinion forming in the global society. Companies are consequently forced to try to get the media interested in their brands.

Messages about personalities, sport, music, business or product ideas travel around the world rapidly and have a higher credibility than advertisements. This places increased demands on the values companies communicate. In a world of very similar products, unique product advantage is short-lived. Sustainable competitive advantage, then, can only come from communicating something that transcends individual products; a unique set of brand values. A company’s brand must stand for something that differentiates all its products

from the competition – now and in the future. Values must carry unique messages. If they do, they can push through the media noise and achieve staying power in the minds of consumers (Kunde 2002:55).

Throughout most of the history of mass communication, print was the only readily accessible means of storing information and retrieving it at will. Print is the keeper of records, the vault of great literature, the storehouse of historic accomplishments. In advertising, it differs from broadcast media in several ways. For example, print media deliver messages one topic at a time and one thought at a time, whereas television and electronic media use a simultaneous approach, delivering a great deal of information in a rapid-fire manner. Furthermore, print advertising has a history and credibility unmatched by broadcast advertising. These differences have important consequences for advertisers and media planners to consider (Wells, Burnett & Moriarty 1995:327).

Premeaux (2005:34) points out that celebrity endorsements are a popular form of advertising enhancement. A celebrity endorser is any individual who enjoys public recognition and uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer product by appearing in advertisements promoting the product. The types of celebrities used range from popular sports figures to movie stars and politicians. From Babe Ruth to Ronald Reagan, celebrities have historically

been a popular method of enhancing promotions. Since approximately 25% of all commercials use celebrity endorsers, it is vitally important that advertisers select and use these individuals to maximum persuasive advantage.

As competition for consumer attention and business intensifies it is critical that advertisers develop better advertising strategies to get attention, create interest, arouse desire, and get a buying action (according to the Attention, Interest, Desire and Action (AIDA) framework). Since consumers are getting somewhat immune to advertising, celebrity endorsers, with certain source characteristics, may help advertisers and products stand out from competitors. By understanding the impact of celebrity endorsers on the AIDA framework more effective advertisements can be developed. The main AIDA influence is the celebrity endorser's ability to get and hold attention. Celebrity endorsers also appear to help products stand out from competition, and make advertisements more memorable, as well as enhancing brand awareness. Also, a better understanding of the role of celebrity/product fit, interaction effect, and negative celebrity information can help advertisers to predict consumer buying decisions (Premeaux 2005:34).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Having reviewed the literature, the researcher found no published research on the role of celebrity endorsement of branded products advertised in printed media which were targeted at a student population. Thus the purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of celebrity endorsement in print media and assess the influence they have on the NMMU students' purchase decisions. Given the aforementioned discussion, the research question that aroses was:

“Are NMMU students' purchase patterns influenced by printed advertisements using celebrity endorsed branded apparel?”

Solving the main research problem requires that the following sub-problems be addressed.

- Why are celebrity endorsers used worldwide?
- What is the relationship between celebrity endorsement and print advertising?
- How effective are celebrity endorsers at getting attention, creating interest, arousing desire, and getting action?

- What effect does the celebrity endorser/product fit have on celebrity endorsement effectiveness?
- How does celebrity endorsed print advertising affect students buying decisions on branded apparel products?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

To address the problem and sub-problems, the objectives of the research were to:

- Understand how celebrity endorsed print advertisements affect consumer perceptions;
- Establish how firms select celebrities and handle the accompanying risks involved in using celebrity endorsements in advertising;
- Investigate how effective celebrity endorsers are at getting attention, creating interest, arousing desire, and getting action;
- Determine what effects celebrity/product fit have on celebrity endorsement effectiveness;
- Examine how celebrity endorsed print advertising affect students buying decisions on branded apparel products;
- Make recommendations for further research, where appropriate.

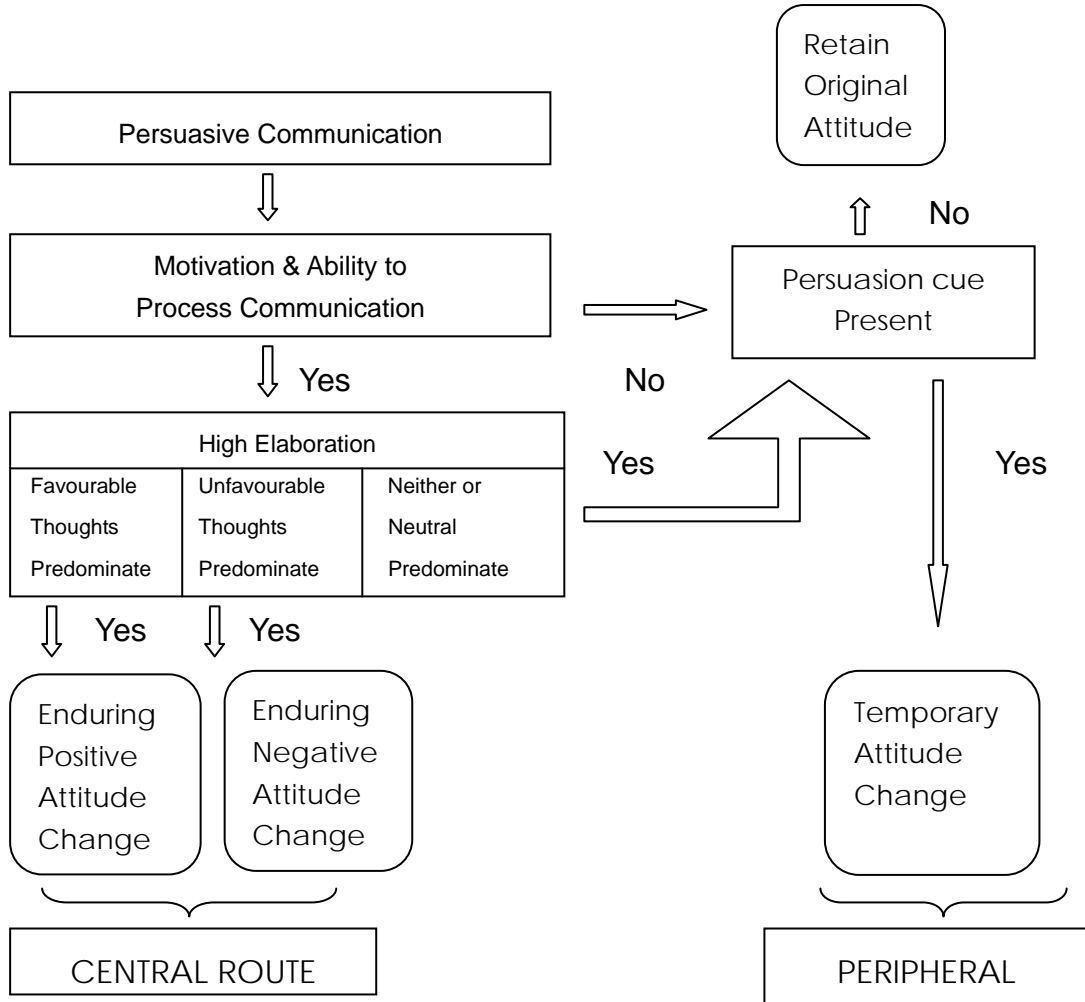
1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Priester & Petty (2003:408-409), the goal of advertising is to present information to potential customers. This information will result in customers adopting more favorable attitudes towards the advertised product or service. Contemporary theories in attitudes and persuasion have introduced the notion that persuasion can be the result of qualitatively different processes. That is, the Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion (ELM) contends that attitudes can be changed following either a careful and effortful scrutiny of a message or less cognitively effortful inference and associative processes.

According to this model, the attitude formation or change process depends on the amount and nature of elaboration, or processing, of relevant information that occurs in response to a persuasive message. High elaboration means that the receiver engages in careful consideration, thinking, and evaluation of the information or arguments contained in the message. Low elaboration occurs when the receiver does not engage in active information processing or thinking but rather makes inferences about the position being advocated in the message on the basis of simple positive or negative cues (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:15). The ELM is shown in Figure 1.1 below.

FIGURE 1.1

THE ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL



Source: Adapted from Johnsson & Sparredal 2002:16

The decision process and actions of people involved in buying and using products are termed their buying behaviour. Consumer buying behaviour is the buying behaviour of ultimate consumers – those who purchase products for personal or household use (Dibb, Simkin, Pride & Ferrell 2006:160).

There are important reasons for marketers to analyse consumer buying behaviour. The success of a company's marketing strategy will depend on how buyers react to it. The marketing concept requires companies to develop a marketing mix that meets consumers' needs. To find out what satisfies customers, marketers must examine the main influences on what, where, when and how consumers buy (Dibb et al 2006:160).

Consumers are better informed and more independent and now aspire to receive more attention and a more honest, increasingly specific sales proposition that will allow them to feel that they have been listened to and taken into account. Stars may have been the stuff of dreams for the general public back in the early glory days of the cinema; but nowadays they are being gradually supplanted by the emergence of 'personalities', some of whom are undeniably famous, but enjoy much closer links with their fans (Lehu 2006: 46).

Cohen (2006:62-63) suggests that the significant corporate investment that businesses are making in celebrity endorsements supports the finding that entertainment is the current number one growing influencer of consumer behaviour.

Premeaux (2005:33), analyzed consumer perceptions regarding the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers in relation to the AIDA framework and the match-up hypothesis on both male and female consumers. Findings showed that the main AIDA influence is the celebrity endorser's ability to get and hold attention. Celebrity endorsers also appear to help products stand out from the competition. They make advertising more memorable, as well as enhancing brand awareness-particularly for desired products. The findings indicate that celebrity endorsers influence both men and women, but men were influenced to a greater degree than women.

A quantitative study undertaken by Amos, Holmes & Strutton (2008) provided the relationship between celebrity endorser source effects and effectiveness in advertising. Negative celebrity information can be extremely detrimental to an advertising campaign. The research also revealed that the source credibility model consisted of celebrity trustworthiness, celebrity expertise, celebrity attractiveness, brand attitudes and attitudes towards the advertisements.

Phau (2007:55) undertook research on the effects of physical attractiveness in the evaluation of print advertisements. A strong influence would result from participants exposed to a print advertisement with an attractive endorser rather than one with an unattractive endorser or just the product

advertisement only. Further, the influence of a physical attractiveness is also dependent on the product involvement of the consumers, familiarity with the products and the relative establishment of the strength of the advertised brands.

Cohen (2006:63) undertook research on the power of celebrity effects. Cohen (2006:63) states that celebrity influence on apparel purchases for consumers has jumped 300 percent over a three year period. In 2001, three percent of consumers stated that celebrities had an influence on their apparel purchases. In 2004, that number jumped to nine percent. The results suggest the appeal of a celebrity, whether it is based on physical attributes, lifestyle, or accomplishments, will succeed in attracting new customers to the brand.

No studies could be found that focused on the perceptions of NMMU students' buying decisions on branded apparel and the influence of celebrity endorsers in printed advertising. The current research was expected to provide important contributions in this regard.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

To address the objectives of the research, a literature study of books, journals, the internet and electronic databases (such as Emerald, EBSCOHost and Science Direct) was conducted to provide a conceptual framework.

Attempts to solve a specific research problem, however, require that a specific methodology be followed. A description of research design and methods, sampling and data collection techniques was provided.

1.5.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2000:36-37) maintain that the research design serves as a detailed plan used to guide a research study toward its objective. Although every research problem is unique, most research objectives can be achieved by using one or a combination of three types of research designs, namely, exploratory, causal or descriptive. These types are now explained.

- The objective of exploratory research is to explore or search through a problem or situation to provide insights and understanding (Aaker, Kumar & Day 2004:75). Typically, exploratory research is significant in any situation where there is little prior knowledge to proceed with the research project (Malhotra 2004:76).
- Causal research is used to examine cause-and-effect relationships (Cant 2003:33).
- The major objective of descriptive marketing research is to describe the existing characteristics or functions of a target market (Malhotra 2004:78). Descriptive research is characterized by the prior formulation of specific hypotheses. Thus, the information needed is clearly defined. As a result, descriptive research is preplanned and structured based on large representative samples (Malhotra 2004:78).

Baines & Chansarkar (2002:5) state that descriptive research focuses on the accurate description of the variables under consideration and is often of a quantitative nature, making use of questionnaires and surveys. The perceptions of specific groups will be assessed in a preplanned and structured way. The use of descriptive research will thus be a feasible option for use in the current research study.

1.5.2 SAMPLING AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

According to McBurney (2001:412), a population is the entire collection of individuals being considered for a study. As the global marketplace becomes more integrated and consumer specialists develop an international focus, developing useful scales to profile consumer decision-making styles in other cultures becomes important. For the purpose of this study, the target population was consisting of 300 students who were enrolled at the NMMU.

According to Tustin, Ligthelm & Martins (2005:344), the alternative sampling methods can be grouped under two headings, namely probability and non-probability sampling methods. Probability sampling is an objective procedure in which the probability of selection is known in advance for each population unit. Non-probability sampling is a subjective procedure in which the probability of selection of each population unit is unknown (Parasuraman, Grewal & Krishnan 2004:360). The sampling method relevant to this study was consisting of non-probability sampling, specifically by means of a convenience sample.

1.5.3 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Data can be of a primary or secondary nature. Aaker et al (2004:106) hold that secondary data are data that have already been gathered for purposes other than the problem at hand. Such data can be located quickly and inexpensively, but the data can also be outdated or may not fit the researcher's information needs.

In contrast, primary data is collected to solve the particular problem for a particular study (Cant 2003:44). Primary data is derived from conducting exploratory, descriptive or causal research that employs the techniques of either surveys, experiments, and/or observation to collect the data. (Hair et al 2000:39).

Hair et al (2000:256) distinguish four types of survey methods, namely person-administered, telephone-administered, self-administered and computer-assisted surveys.

According to Hair et al (2000:261), a self-administered questionnaire is a data collection technique in which the respondent reads the questions and records his or her own response without the presence of trained interviewers.

A self-administered survey can be sub-typed as direct mail, mail panel and drop-off (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2003:265).

“In a drop-off survey, the survey representative approaches a prospective respondent, introduces the general purpose of the survey to the prospect, and leaves it with the respondent to fill out in his or her own time. The representative will return to pick up the questionnaire at a certain time” (Hair et al 2003:266).

For the purpose of this research study, a self-administered questionnaire was chosen as the most appropriate data collection method. 363 questionnaires will be handed to students who study at the NMMU.

1.6 DELIMITATION AND SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

This research was focused on tertiary education students who were registered at NMMU. Since these students are exposed to the same macroeconomic environment, such as the same shopping malls and the same marketing messages, it would allow for sample comparability.

The study was focused on three different demographic groups, namely, black, white and colored students, using the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

proposed by Peter & Olson (2005:438). This identifies two cognitive processes by which promotion communication such as advertising can persuade consumers: the central and peripheral routes to persuasion (Peter & Olson 2005:438).

The study was furthermore focused on the consumer buying decision as associated with the purchase of clothing. Apparel is commonly considered a high-involvement shopping item which consumers often buy for its symbolic meanings, image reinforcement or psychological satisfaction. Apparel is also a product category that is known to reflect the consumer's social life, aspirations, fantasies and affiliation (Li 2004). According to Li (2004:8), clothes can manifest the wearer's social status, self-image and other personality characteristics resulting from complex social influences. The needs thought to be met through the apparel products and apparel purchase behaviour of consumers would provide appropriate indicators to reflect the cultural, social, individual and psychological experience factors that would affect consumers.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

According to Choi & Rifon (2007:304), the positive effects of celebrity endorsers have been well established. Celebrities draw more attention to the

advertisements they appear in and brands they are aligned with when compared with advertisements that do not take advantage of an individual's celebrity status. In this way, celebrity endorsers help advertisements break through the surrounding and otherwise busy clutter. More importantly, celebrities bring their own distinctive images to an advertisements and its associated brand and can create, enhance, and change brand image.

The academic literature in advertising provides ample evidence of the positive effects of using celebrities on both advertisements and brand evaluations. A widely accepted explanation for celebrity endorser effects has been that celebrities bring credibility to advertising messages. With their high profile, wide recognition, and unique qualities, celebrities in general are perceived as more credible than non-celebrity endorsers, exerting greater influences on consumers' brand attitudes and purchase intent (Choi & Rifon 2007: 305).

No published research has been found on the evaluation of celebrity endorsement of branded apparel products targeted at NMMU students. Consequently, this study was advance the understanding of the pervasive influence of celebrities in current students' life.

1.8 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

For the purpose of this study, the following key concepts within the context of the research were explained:

- Consumer behaviour

Blackwell, Miniard & Engel (2001:6) define consumer behaviour as “activities undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services”. Peter & Olson (2005:5) also describe consumer behaviour as “the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behaviour, and the environment by which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives”.

- Celebrity endorsement

Celebrity endorsement is described by Breen (2003) 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.

- Print media

Printed, as distinguished from broadcast or electronically transmitted communications. The print media include all newspapers, newsletters, booklets, pamphlets, magazines, and other printed publications, especially those that sell advertising space as a means of raising revenue (Definition no date: ¶1).

1.9 ENVISAGED CHAPTER OUTLINE

This dissertation is divided into 6 chapters. Chapter 1 provides the introduction and orientation of the study, as well as the objective, research methodology, delimitation, key concepts and significance of the research.

Chapter 2 presents a description of the research methodology, the use of data sources, data collection methods and techniques, as well as questionnaire design.

Chapters 3 and 4 provide a detailed literature review. The major findings resulting from the empirical study was reported on Chapter 5.

Chapter 6 consists of a synopsis of the study, will list the conclusions based on both the literature and empirical findings, and conclude with recommendations based on these conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one covered the rationale and background to the research, the research objectives, a brief overview of research design and methodology, and the delimitation and significance of the study. This chapter focuses on the detailed research design and methodology. It commences with a description of the secondary data research, followed by a discussion of primary data research. The primary data research includes the various categories of research, a comparison of qualitative and quantitative research, data collection method and data gathering techniques, questionnaire design and sample selection method.

2.2 SECONDARY DATA COLLECTION

Secondary data consist of information that has already been gathered and might be relevant to the problem at hand (McDaniel & Gates 2008:72). It is highly unlikely that any marketing research problem is entirely unique or has never occurred before. Therefore, secondary data can be a cost-effective and

efficient means of obtaining information for marketing research. According to McDaniel and Gates (2008:72), marketing researchers use secondary information because it can be obtained at a fraction of the cost, time, and inconvenience associated with primary data collection. Additional advantages of using secondary information include the following:

- Secondary data may help to clarify or redefine the problem during the exploratory research process;
- Secondary data may actually provide a solution to the problem;
- Secondary data may provide primary data research method alternatives;
and
- Secondary data may alert the marketing researcher to potential problems and/or difficulties.

Despite the many advantages of secondary data, they also pose some dangers. The main disadvantages of secondary information are lack of availability, lack of relevance, inaccuracy, and insufficiency (McDaniel & Gates 2008:74). These are now briefly explained.

- Lack of availability

For some research questions, there are simply no available data (McDaniel & Gates 2008:74). The data may be limited in their suitability - by definition the data are not specific to the problem in question, they were gathered for another purpose and so may not directly or adequately address the problem (McGiven 2006:150).

- Lack of relevance

Parasuraman et al (2004:94) debate that available secondary data may not match the data needs of a given project on one or more of the following factors: (1) the units in which the data are measured, (2) the category breakdowns or definitions of variables for which the data are reported, or (3) the time period during which the data are measured. Secondary data may also be irrelevant if the categories for which data are summarized are not consistent with the categories of interest to a researcher.

- Inaccuracy

Users of secondary data should always assess the accuracy of the data. There are a number of potential sources of error when a researcher gathers,

codes, analyzes, and presents data. Any report that does not mention possible sources and ranges of error should be suspect (McDaniel & Gates 2008:75).

Secondary data are often classified according to their source as internal and external secondary data. Internal data are those generated by the organization. For example, data from previous research, financial data and, crucial to the marketing function, sales data (McGiven 2006:151). External data are data gathered by those outside the organization. For example, government sources, syndicated sources, trade associations, miscellaneous sources, abstracts, directories, and indexes (Parasuraman et al 2004:103).

In this study, secondary data was collected from both internal and external sources. In terms of internal sources, data were obtained from NMMU official staff, Charles Sheppard and Riaan Knoesen. In terms of external sources, books, journals, electronic databases (such as EBSCOHost, Direct Science and Emerald) were undertaken. Both internal and external secondary data were expected to provide a conceptual framework for the research.

In contrast, primary data is collected to solve the particular problem for a particular study (Cant 2003:44). Primary data is derived from conducting exploratory, descriptive or causal research that employs the techniques of

surveys, experiments, and/or observation to collect the data (Hair et al 2000:39). More primary research techniques will be explained in the detail which follows.

2.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a plan for addressing the research objectives or hypotheses. In essence, the researcher develops a structure or framework to answer a specific research problem/opportunity (McDaniel & Gates 2008:48). According to Hair et al (2000:36-37), although every research problem is unique, most research objectives can be achieved by using one or a combination of three types of research designs: exploratory, descriptive or causal. These are explained below.

2.3.1 Exploratory research

An exploratory research enquiry, as its name suggests, aims to explore, to allow a research to become familiar with a topic or the issues around a problem. It is particularly useful in helping to 'unpack' issues or topics, identify a problem, clarify the nature of the problem and define its scope – in other words, to reach a greater understanding (McGiven 2006: 88).

Exploratory research could be used for any of the following purposes (Cant 2003:28; Malhotra 2004:76).

- Formulate a problem or define it more precisely;
- Identify alternative courses of action;
- Develop hypotheses;
- Identify key variables and relationships for further examination;
- Gain insights for developing an approach to the problem; or
- Establish priorities for further research.

According to Tustin et al (2005:84), the research methods used in exploratory research design are highly flexible, unstructured and qualitative. Literature reviews, in-depth interviews, focus groups, and observation are typical exploratory approaches. It also uses secondary data, non-probability samples, case analysis and subjective evaluation of the resultant data. Essentially, exploratory research is undertaken to investigate the basic information of a research problem of which the organization or individual has little or no experience (Baines & Chansarkar 2002:5).

For the purpose of this study, it was desirable to begin with exploratory research to determine what NMMU students regard as important elements of their perceptions. The resulting information was used to provide input into the construction of the questionnaire.

2.3.2 Descriptive research

Descriptive studies are conducted to answer who, what, when, where and how questions (McDaniel & Gates 2008:49). Descriptive research is characterized by the prior formulation of specific hypotheses. Thus, the information needed is clearly defined. As a result, descriptive research is preplanned and structured based on large representative samples (Malhotra 2004:78). Descriptive research is typically conducted to:

- Describe the characteristics of groups, such as consumers, salespeople, organizations or market areas;
- Estimate the percentage of units in a specified population exhibiting a certain behaviour;
- Determine the perceptions of product characteristics;
- Determine the degree to which marketing variables are associated; and
- Make specific predictions.

In contrast to exploratory research, descriptive research focuses on the accurate description of the variables under consideration and is often of a quantitative nature (Baines & Chansarkar 2002:5). Personal interviews, intercept surveys, telephone interviews, and mail surveys are typical descriptive approaches (Tustin et al 2005:86). Therefore, descriptive research was a feasible option for use in the current study, as the objective was to evaluate the NMMU students' purchasing behaviour by using celebrity endorsed advertisements on branded clothing.

2.3.3 Causal research

McDaniel and Gates (2008:49) hold that in causal studies, the researchers investigate whether the value of one variable causes or determines the value of another variable, in an attempt to establish linkage between them. Cant (2003:33) suggests that causal research is appropriate for the following purposes:

- To understand which variables are the cause (independent variables) and which variables are the effect (dependent variables) of a phenomenon; and
- To determine the nature of the relationship between the causal variables and effect to be predicted.

Experiments have the greatest potential for establishing cause-and-effect relationships because they enable researchers to examine changes in one variable while manipulating other variables under controlled conditions (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2006:64). Due to the complexity of causal research and the non-compliance with the objective of the current study, this form of research design was not deemed to be a feasible option.

2.4 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

As was explained above, primary data is collected by the researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the problem at hand. Primary data may be collected using qualitative methods, quantitative methods or a combination of these (Baines & Chansarkar 2002: 23-24; Hair et al 2000: 216; Malhotra 2004: 136-137).

Quantitative research is defined as research involving the use of structured questions in which the response options have been predetermined and a large number of respondents are involved (Burns & Bush 2006:202). Quantitative research often involves a sizable representative sample of the population and a formalized procedure for gathering data. Quantitative research is used when very precise information is needed. Data format and sources are clear and well defined, and the compilation and formatting of the

data gathered follows and orderly procedure that is largely numerical in nature (Burns & Bush 2006:202). Baines and Chansarkar (2002:25) further state that a disadvantage of quantitative research is that it is usually difficult to obtain detailed, in-depth information from respondents. Often, because the answers are usually predetermined by the researcher, this means that the respondents are not allowed to express their true opinion but are forced to choose one that only approximates it.

Qualitative research collects, analyzes, and interprets data that cannot be meaningfully quantified, that is, summarized in the form of numbers. Any study using nonstructured questioning or observation techniques can be labeled qualitative research. However, qualitative research typically studies relatively few respondents or units. The nonstructured and small-sample features of qualitative research techniques have an important implication. They are intended to provide initial insights, ideas, or understanding about a problem, not to recommend a final course of action (Parasuraman et al 2004: 195).

The major characteristics of qualitative and quantitative research methods are summarized in Table 2.1.

TABLE 2.1

QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Types of questions	Probing	Limited Probing
Sample size	Small	Large
Amount of information from each respondent	Substantial	Varies
Requirements of administration	Interviewer with special skills	Interviewer with fewer special skills or no interviewer
Type of analysis	Subjective, interpretive	Statistical, summation
Hardware	Tape recorders, projection devices, video recorders, pictures, discussion guides	Questionnaires, computers, printouts
Degree of replicability	Low	High
Researcher training	Psychology, sociology, social psychology, consumer behaviour, marketing, marketing research	Statistics, decision models, decision support systems, computer programming marketing, marketing research
Type of research	Exploratory	Descriptive or causal

Source: McDaniel and Gates 2008: 108

Based on the characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative research methods, the current study only used quantitative research method methodology.

2.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The empirical study was quantitative in nature. Struwing and Stead (2001:41) list four basic data collection methods for quantitative research: the historical, survey, analytical survey and experimental methods. These are briefly explained.

- Historical. The historical method of research involves the collection of published or secondary data from research reports and dissertations.
- Survey. In this method the data are obtained from questionnaires completed by the respondents. The reliability of survey data is dependent on the care taken in selecting a sample. More specifically, the character of the data should not be adversely influenced by imbalance or bias (such as selecting only males as respondents).
- Analytical survey. In the analytical method of data gathering the emphasis falls less on a descriptive than on a statistical analysis of the data collected, so that the detection of hidden or latent trends and meanings can be attempted.

- Experimental. The experimental method of research focuses on cause-and-effect relationships between variables.

Based on the objectives of this study (explained in chapter one) and its exploratory and descriptive nature, a survey was deemed the most appropriate data collection method. It was furthermore chosen because of its unique advantages as listed in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2
FIVE ADVANTAGES OF SURVEYS

Advantages	Description
Provides standardization	All respondents react to questions worded identically and presented in the same order. Response options (scales) are the same, too.
Easy to administer	Interviewers read questions to respondents and record their answers quickly and easily. In some cases, the respondents fill out the questionnaires themselves.
Gets "beneath the surface"	It is possible to ask questions about motives, circumstances, sequences of events, or mental deliberations.
Easy to analyze	Large sample size and computer processing allows quick tallies, cross-tabulations, and other statistical analysis.
Reveals subgroup differences	Respondents can be divided into segments or subgroups for comparisons in the search for meaningful differences.

Source: Burns and Bush 2006: 235

2.6 DATA GATHING TECHNIQUES

Asking people questions are the essence of survey research. The non-internet survey alternatives are door-to-door interviews, executive interviews, mall-intercept interviews, telephone interviews, self-administrated questionnaires, and mail survey (McDaniel & Gates 2008:148).

A self-administered questionnaire was chosen as the most appropriate data collection technique. According to McDaniel and Gates (2008:152), a self-administrated questionnaire is questionnaires filled out by respondents with no interviewer present.

A self-administered questionnaire is similar to a drop-off questionnaire. The drop-off survey, is sometimes called 'drop and collect', in which the representative approaches prospective respondents, introduces the general purpose of the survey, and leaves the survey with the respondents to fill out on their own (Burns & Bush 2006:256). The advantage of drop-off survey include the availability of a person who can answer general questions, screen potential respondents and motivate interest in completing the questionnaire (Hair et al 2000:262).

2.7 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

McDaniel & Gates (2008:286) hold that every form of survey research relies on the use of a questionnaire, the common thread in almost all data-collection methods. A questionnaire is a set of questions designed to generate the data necessary to accomplish the objectives of the research projects; it is a formalized schedule for collecting information from respondents.

A questionnaire standardizes the wording and sequencing of questions and imposes uniformity on the data gathering process. Every respondent sees or hears the same words; every interviewer asks identical questions. Without such standardization, interviewers could ask whatever they wanted, and researchers would be left wondering whether respondents' answers were a consequence of interviewer influence or interpretation. A valid basis for comparing respondents' answers would not exist. The jumbled mass of data would be unmanageable from a tabulation standpoint (McDaniel & Gates 2008:286).

McDaniel and Gates (2008:286) state that the questionnaire plays a critical role in the data-collection process. An elaborate sampling plan, well-trained interviewers, proper statistical analysis techniques, and good editing and coding are all for naught if the questionnaire is poorly designed. Improper design can lead to incomplete information, inaccurate data, and, higher costs.

2.7.1 Questionnaire structure

The visual impact of questionnaire and the way questions laid out within it can influence the degree of respondent cooperation as well as the quality of the data collected (Parasuraman et al 2004:333).

The questionnaire used in the research project started off with a cover letter (see Annexure A) that briefly profiled the researcher and the purpose of the study, assured the respondent of anonymity and confidentiality, and communicated completion instructions.

Based on the study's objectives, Section A of the questionnaire containing 36 Likert-scaled questions scaled from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The aim of these questions was to understanding the students purchase behaviour and their perceptions of the usage of celebrity endorsements.

Section B of the questionnaire containing two ranking questions and one Likert-scaled question. The aim of these questions was to investigate the factors that most influence students' purchase decision.

Section C consisted of items regarding the demographic details of the respondents. Questions included gender, age, campus of study in NMMU, qualification and the race of the respondent.

Further factors were considered when the questionnaire was designed and administered. These included the question type, pre-testing, sampling and sampling design. These are described below.

2.7.2 Question type

Parasuraman et al (2004:311) contend that there are two basic forms of questions: nonstructured (open-ended) questions and structured (close-ended) questions.

2.7.2.1 Open-ended questions

Kaden (2006:136) states that open-ended questions are unstructured and do not anticipate a particular response. They allow respondents to use their own words when answering a question.

As respondents answer open-ended questions, interviewers record their comments verbatim. The main goal of open-ended questions is to allow information to surface that might not be addressed in structured questions (Kaden 2006:137).

McGiven (2006:364) points out that the main advantage of open-ended questions is that they can make respondents feel more at ease and more in control – a feeling that the interviewer or researcher wants to know exactly what they think and is not making them select a pre-formulated response. In addition, open-ended questions allow researchers to see a wide range of responses in the words used by respondents rather than the more limited ones. The open-ended format also offers the chance in personal interviews to probe for more detail.

As regards the disadvantages, open-ended questions require more of the respondent, the interviewer and the data processing provider and so are thus more time consuming and costly to use (McGiven 2006:364).

2.7.2.2 Close-ended questions

According to McDaniel and Gates (2008:297), a close-ended question requires the respondent to make a selection from a list of response. The primary advantage of closed-ended questions is simply the avoidance of many of the problems associated with open-ended questions. Reading response alternatives may jog a person's memory and generate a more realistic response. Finally, coding and data entry can be done automatically with questionnaires software programs (McDaniel & Gates 2008:297). Malhotra (2004:290) suggests that a closed question may be multiple-choice, dichotomous or a rating question. These are briefly elaborated below.

a) Multiple-choice questions

McDaniel and Gates (2008:297) define the multiple-choice questions as 'closed-ended questions that ask the respondent to choose among several answers; also called multichotomous questions'. With multiple-choice questions, replies do not have to be coded as they do with open-ended

questions, but the amount of information provided is more limited. The respondent is asked to give one alternative that correctly express his or her opinion or, in some instances, to indicate all alternatives that apply.

McDaniel and Gates (2008:299) further point out that the multiple-choice question has two additional advantages. First, the researcher must spend time generating the list of possible responses. This phase may require brainstorming or intensive analysis of focus group tapes or secondary data. Second, the researcher must settle on a range of possible answers. If the list is too long, the respondent may become confused or lose interest.

b) Dichotomous questions

A dichotomous question has only two response alternatives: yes or no, agree or disagree (Malhotra 2004:291). Often, the two alternatives of interest are supplemented by a neutral alternative, such as “no opinion”, “don’t know”, “both” or “none”. Because the respondent is limited to two fixed alternatives, dichotomous questions are easy to administer and tabulate and usually evoke a rapid response (McDaniel & Gates 2008:298).

Dichotomous questions are prone to a large amount of measurement error. Because alternatives are polarized, the wide range of possible choices

between the poles is omitted. Thus, appropriate wording is critical to obtaining accurate responses (McDaniel & Gates 2008:298). Another problem with the dichotomous question is that responses frequently fail to communicate any intensity of feeling on the part of the respondent.

c) Rating questions

Baines and Chansarkar (2002:106) believe that respondents have different attitudes towards a variety of products which result in learned behaviour. In other words, attitudes arise from emotional understanding and have an impact upon perception. Thus, measurement of attitudes is necessary and usually uses a variety of ranking and rating scales (Aaker et al 2004:284; Baines & Chansarkar 2002:106).

A scaled response form commonly used by marketing researchers is the Likert scale, in which respondents are asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement on a symmetric agree-disagree scale for each of a series of statements. The value of Likert scale should be apparent because respondents are asked how much they agree or disagree with the statement; that is, the scale captures the intensity of their feelings (Burns & Bush 2006: 281).

Likert scales are easy to conduct and administer. Respondents understand the use of the scale, making it suitable for mail, telephone or personal surveys (Malhotra 2004:259). Thus, Likert scale questions were deemed appropriate for use in the current study.

2.7.3 Pre-testing

According to Burns and Bush (2006:321), a pretest involves conducting a dry run of the survey on a small, representative set of respondents in order to reveal questionnaire errors before the survey is launched. It is very important that pretest participants are in fact representative, that is, selected from the target population under study. Cooper and Schindler (2006:417) point out the following purposes for pre-testing individual questions and questionnaires:

- Discovering problems with question content, wording and sequencing;
- Discovering ways to increase participant interest;
- Increasing the likelihood that participants will remain engaged to the completion of the survey; and
- Exploring ways to improve the overall quality of survey data.

Pretest sample size is a subjective decision that depends on a variety of factors, such as how confident the researcher is that the questionnaire is

sound and how much time and money is available. In general, it is better to pretest the questionnaire systematically by having specific objectives in mind. It is better to do extensive probing of respondents on a relatively small sample than to pretest on a relatively large sample by simply asking respondents to fill the questionnaire (Parasuraman et al 2004:334).

2.8 SAMPLE SELECTION

McDaniel and Gates (2008:328) explain sampling as “the process of obtaining information from a subset of a larger group. A user of marketing research then takes the results from the sample and makes estimates of the characteristics of the larger group”. The motivation for sampling is to be able to make these estimates more quickly and at a lower cost than would be possible by any other means. Parasuraman et al (2004:356) define the census as “drawing inferences from the entire body of units of interest”. One main advantage of a sampling study is its lower cost relative to a census study. A second advantage of a sampling study over a census study is the reduced time needed for a research project. Typical research firms or the typical researcher cannot analyze the huge amounts of data gathered by a census (Burns & Bush 2006:332). The next section explains the target population, sampling method and sample size relevant to the current study.

2.8.1 Target population

The population is the entire group of people about whom the researcher needs to obtain information. This often involves defining the target market for the product or service in question (McDaniel & Gates 2008:328). As the global marketplace becomes more integrated and consumer specialists develop an international focus, developing useful scales to profile consumer decision-making styles in other cultures becomes important (McBurney 2001: 412). For the purpose of this study, the target population consisted of students who were enrolled at NMMU. These students included White, Black, Coloured, Indian and Asian students at the South, North and 2nd Avenue campus. These students were chosen for following reasons, namely:

- To enable sample comparability. The different decision-making styles among White, Black, Coloured, Indian and Asian students were to be compared.
- Convenience because of time and budget constraints.
- To allow for quota sampling. The students who participated in this study were divided according to race and gender, as one of the purposes of the research was to differentiate between the perceptions of male and female respondents.

These students could be further divided into three segments as shown in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3
THE SEGMENTS OF THE TARGET POPULATION

CAMPUSES	STUDENTS
South	9652
North	4942
2 nd Avenue	3530
Total	18124

Source: Information supplied by Charles Sheppard and Riaan Knoesen

2.8.2 Sampling method

According to McDaniel and Gates (2008:334), to select a sampling method which will depend on the objectives of the study, the financial resources available, time limitations, and the nature of the problem under investigation. The major alternative sampling methods can be grouped under two headings: probability sampling and nonprobability sampling methods.

Probability samples are samples in which members of the population have a known chance of being selected into the sample. There are four probability sampling methods: simple random, systematic, cluster and stratified sampling (Burns & Bush 2006:332). Probability samples are usually more expensive than nonprobability samples of the same size (McDaniel & Gates 2008:336). Because of the complexity and absence of the completed sampling frame (a list of all NMMU enrolled students), the probability sampling method was not considered as an appropriate method for the current study.

Nonprobability samples are those in which specific elements from the population have been selected in a nonrandom manner (McDaniel & Gates 2008:334). There are four nonprobability sampling methods: convenience, judgement, referral and quota samples (Burns & Bush 2006:345). Burns and Bush (2006: 336) pointed out three reasons for using nonprobability sampling. These are:

- Nonprobability samples costs less than probability samples;
- Nonprobability samples ordinarily can be gathered more quickly than probability samples; and
- Nonprobability samples of the population are reasonably representative if collected in a careful, thorough manner.

A quota sampling was used to draw the needed sample for this research study. Parasuraman et al (2004:369) define quota sampling as a quota of units to be selected from each population cell based on the judgment of the researchers and/or decision makers. Quota sampling resembles stratified random sampling. Burns and Bush (2006:347) suggest that the quotas are determined through application of the research objectives and are defined by key characteristics used to identify the population. Quota sampling does not require prior knowledge about the cell to which each population unit belongs. It allows a researcher to use two or more control characteristics in defining the population cells. The benefit is that a researcher can control a quota sample's representativeness on several relevant population characteristics (Parasuraman et al 2004:369).

The sampling fraction was 1.8% (at each campus, 2.0% of students were selected on a convenience basis). This sampling fraction was determined on the basis of a series of rules of thumb explained in the next section.

2.8.3 Sample size

A sample size decision is usually a compromise between what is theoretically perfect and what is practically feasible (Burns & Bush 2006:365). The only reasonable way of determining sample size with nonprobability sampling is to

weight the benefit or value of the information obtained with that sample against the cost of gathering that information (Burns & Bush 2006: 385).

Sekaran (2003:296) lists a set of rules of thumb which can be employed to determine sample size.

- Sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research;
- Where the sample is broken into sub-samples, a minimum sample size of 30 per sub-sample is required; and
- In multivariate research, the sample size should be at least 10 times as large as the number of items to be analyzed.

A total of 363 students from the three mentioned campuses were selected by the convenience sampling method. The amount of selected samples is shown in Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.4

THE AMOUNT OF THE SAMPLE SIZE

CAMPUSES	SAMPLE SIZE
South	193
North	99
2 nd Avenue	71
Total	363

Source: Own construction

2.10 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the detailed research design and methodology followed in the study. The research was of an exploratory and descriptive research nature utilizing a quantitative method, in the form of a self-administrated survey.

The secondary data was collected from both internal and external sources. The survey method was used to collect primary data by means of self-administrated questionnaire. Planned questions containing dichotomous, multiple choice, ranking and Likert-scale questions were used in this questionnaire.

The chapter also explained the questionnaire design, taking into account the questionnaire structure, question type, sampling and sampling method. The target population consisted of all NMMU students enrolled in the Summerstrand campus geographies. The totals of 363 students were selected from these three NMMU campuses on a convenience basis.

Chapter 3 contains a literature study which focuses on the branding, advertising efficiency and the importance of using celebrity endorsements. The literature study is used to provide a conceptual framework for the empirical findings.

CHAPTER 3

ADVERTISING AND CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 described the research design and methodology, including data collection methods and data gathering techniques, questionnaire design, and sample selection method. Chapter 3 reports on a literature review on the use of celebrities in advertising, as well as theories of print advertising. This chapter also commences with a description of situation, selection theories, followed by risks theories, and finally the managerial implications for effective use of celebrity endorsers are mentioned.

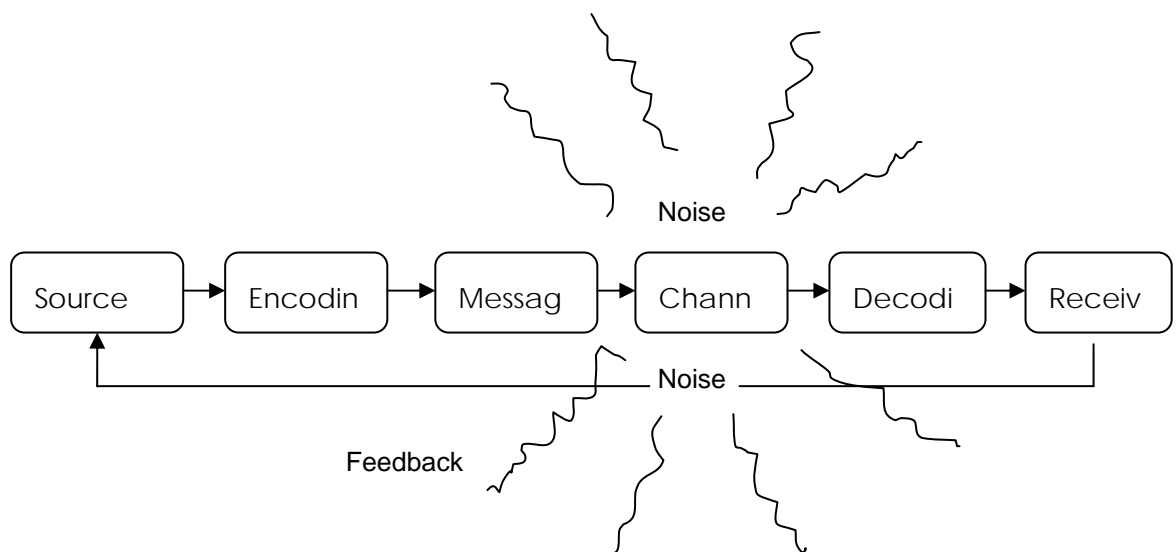
3.2 ADVERTISING

Dibb et al (2006:521) define advertising as “a paid form of non-personal communication about an organization and its products that is transmitted to a target audience through a mass medium such as television, radio, newspapers, magazines, direct mail, public transport, outdoor displays, catalogues or the internet”. Individuals and organizations use advertising to promote goods, services, ideas, issues and people. Because it is highly flexible, advertising offers the options of reaching an extremely large target audience or focusing on a small, precisely defined segment of the population.

To better understand an advertising message, the understanding of the communication process is the first step to follow. Belch and Belch (2001:139) suggest that communication has been variously defined as the passing of information, the exchange of ideas, or the process of establishing a commonness or oneness of thought between a sender and a receiver. These definitions suggest that for communication to occur there must be some common thinking between two parties and information must be passed from one person to another. A brief explanation is provided below.

FIGURE 3.1

THE HUMAN COMMUNICATION PROCESS



Source: Arens 2006:9

As shown in FIGURE 3.1, the process begins when one party, called the source, formulates an idea, encodes it as a message, and sends it via some channel to another party, called the receiver. The receiver must decode the message to understand it. To respond, the receiver formulates a new idea, encodes it, and then sends the new message back through some channel. A message that acknowledges or responds to the original message constitutes feedback, which also affects the encoding of a new message. All this takes place in an environment characterized by noise – the distracting cacophony of many other messages being sent at the same time by other sources (Arens 2006:8-9).

Lehu (2006:105) demonstrates that advertising is potentially a powerful method of communication. It acts as an amplifier, attracting the attention of consumers and in the best of cases – to win the consumer's interest, stimulate desire and ultimately prompt consumer's into action. Advertising is a way of distributing and enhancing the meanings perceived to reside in celebrities in the consumer world. When celebrities are hired as endorsers in advertising, marketers hope that consumers accept and consume the meaning celebrity endorsers represent and then link these meanings with company products (Choi and Rifon 2007:306). Print advertising for promoting products high in psychological and/or social risk featuring a celebrity were evaluated more favourably than those using an expert or a typical consumer,

and that the celebrity was more effective in getting consumers to buy the product (Daneshvary & Schwer 2000:204-205).

3.3 PRINT ADVERTISING

Shimp (2007:408) suggests that the overall value or worth of an advertising medium depends on the advertiser's specific needs in a particular situation and the overall budget available for advertising a brand. No advertising medium is best. The value or worth of a medium depends on the circumstances confronting a brand at a particular time: its advertising objective, the target market toward which this objective is aimed, and the available budget. According to the purpose of current study, only newspaper and magazine advertising will be discussed.

The term print media refers to any commercially published, printed medium – such as newspapers and magazines – that sells advertising space to variety of advertisers (Arens 2006:127). The role of magazines and newspapers in the advertiser's media plan differs from that of the broadcast media because magazines and newspapers allow the presentation of detailed information that can be processed at the reader's own space (Belch and Belch 2001:397).

3.3.1 Newspaper

Newspapers, one of the major forms of print media, are the largest of all advertising media in terms of total dollar volume. Newspapers are an especially important advertising medium to local advertisers, particularly retailers. However, newspapers are also valuable to national advertisers. Many of the advertising dollars spent by local retailers are actually provided by national advertisers through cooperative advertising programs. Newspapers vary in terms of characteristics and role as advertising medium (Belch and Belch 2001:418).

3.3.1.1 Categories of newspaper

Belch and Belch (2001:418) contend that the traditional role of newspapers has been to deliver prompt, detailed coverage of news as well as to supply other information and features that appeal to readers. The vast majority of newspapers are daily publications serving a local community. However, weekly, national, and special-audience newspapers have special characteristics that can be valuable to advertisers. These are discussed below.

- Daily newspapers, which are published each weekday, are found in cities and larger towns across the country. Newspapers provide detailed coverage of news, events, and issues concerning the local area as well as business, sports, and other relevant information and entertainment.
- Weekly newspapers. Most weekly newspapers originate in small towns or suburbs where the volume of news and advertising cannot support a daily newspaper. These papers focus primarily on news, sports, and events relevant to the local and usually ignore national and world news, sports, and financial and business news.
- National newspapers. National newspapers appeal primarily to large national advertisers and to regional advertisers that use specific geographic editions of these publications.
- Special-audience newspapers. A variety of papers offer specialized editorial content and are published for particular groups, including labour unions, professional organizations, industries, and hobbyists.

3.3.1.2 Types of newspaper advertising

The major classifications of newspaper advertising are display, classified, public notices, and preprinted inserts (Arens 2006:497). These are now briefly addressed.

- Display advertising

Display advertising includes copy, illustrations or photos, headlines, coupons, and other visual components. Display advertisements vary in size and appear in all sections of the newspaper except the first page of major sections, the editorial page, the obituary page, and the classified advertising section.

- Classified advertising

Classified advertisements provide a community marketplace for goods, services, and opportunities of every type, from real estate and new-car sales to employment and business opportunities. A newspaper's profitability often depends on a large and healthy classified section. Classified advertisements usually appear under subheads that describe the class of goods or the need the advertisements seek to satisfy.

- Public notices

For a nominal fee, newspaper carry legal public notices of changes in business and personal relationships, public governmental reports, notices by private citizens and organizations, and financial reports.

- Preprinted inserts

Like magazines, newspapers carry preprinted inserts. The advertiser prints the inserts and delivers to the newspaper plant for insertion into a specific edition. Insert size range from a typical newspaper page to a double postcard; formats include catalogs, brochures, mail-back devices, and perforated coupons.

3.3.1.3 Strengths and limitations of newspaper advertising

As with all advertising media, newspaper advertising has various strengths and limitations (Shimp 2007:410-411). These are now explored.

Strengths

- Because people read newspaper for news, they are in the right mental frame to process advertisements that present news of store openings, new products, sales, and so forth.
- Mass audience coverage, or broad reach, is a second strength of newspaper advertising. Coverage is not restricted to specific socioeconomic or demographic groups but rather extends across all strata.
- Flexibility is perhaps the greatest strength of newspapers. National advertisers can adjust copy to match the specific buying preferences and peculiarities of localized markets. A second facet of newspaper flexibility is that this medium enables advertisers to design an advertisement of a variety of sizes, as compared to all other mass media where few size or length options are possible.
- The ability to use detailed copy is another of newspaper advertising's strengths. Detailed product information and extensive editorial passages are used in newspaper advertising to an extent unparalleled by any other medium.

- Timeliness is a final significant strength of newspaper advertising. Short lead times permit advertisers to tie in advertising copy with local market developments or newsworthy events. Advertisers can develop copy or make copy changes quickly and thereby take advantage of dynamic marketplace developments.

Limitations

- Clutter is a problem in newspapers, as it is in all of the other major media. A reader perusing a newspaper is confronted with large numbers of advertisements, all of which compete for the reader's limited time and only a set of which receive the reader's attention.
- A second limitation of newspaper advertising is that newspapers are not a highly selective medium. Newspapers are able to reach broad cross sections of people but, with few exceptions, are unable to reach specific groups of consumers effectively.
- Occasional users of newspaper space pay higher rates than do heavy users and have difficulty in securing preferred positions. In fact, newspapers' price lists show higher rates for national than local advertisers

- Newspapers generally offer a mediocre reproduction quality. Newspapers are not generally known to enhance a product's perceived quality, elegance, or snob appeal, as can magazines and television.
- Buying difficulty is a particularly acute problem in the case of the national advertiser who wishes to secure newspaper space in multiple markets. On top of the high rates charged to national advertisers, is the fact that each newspaper must be contacted individually.
- A final problem with newspaper advertising involves the changing composition of newspaper readers. While almost everyone used to read a daily newspaper, readership has declined progressively during the past generation.

3.3.2 Magazine

Magazines have grown rapidly to serve the educational, informational, and entertainment needs of a wide range of readers in both the consumer and business markets. Magazines are the most specialized of all advertising media. There is a magazine designed to appeal to nearly every type of consumer in terms of demographics, lifestyles, activities, interests, or fascination. Numerous magazines are targeted toward specific businesses

and industries as well as toward individuals engaged in various professions (Belch and Belch 2001:397).

3.3.2.1 Categories of magazine

According to Arens (2006:484), one of the most dramatic developments in publishing is the emergence of magazines with special content, which has given many books good prospects for long-term growth. The broadest classifications of content are consumer magazines, farm magazines, and business magazines. Each category is explained below.

- Consumer magazines, purchased for entertainment, information, or both, are edited for consumers who buy products for their own personal consumption, examples include: Time, Sports, Illustrated, Glamour, and Good housekeeping.
- Farm publications are directed to farmers and their families or to companies that manufacture or sell agricultural equipment, supplies, and service.
- Business magazines, by far the largest category, target business readers. These include trade publications for retailers, wholesalers, and other

distributors; business and industrial magazines for businesspeople involved in manufacturing and services; and professional journals for lawyers, physicians, architects, and other professionals.

3.3.2.2 Strengths and limitations of magazine advertising

Magazine advertising too has both strengths and limitations, depending on the advertisers' needs and resources (Shimp 2007:415-416).

Strengths

- Some magazines reach very large audiences. The ability to pinpoint specific audiences is the feature that most distinguishes magazine advertising from other media. Selectivity enables advertiser to achieve effective, rather than wasted, exposure.
- Magazines are also noted for their long lifespan. Unlike other media, magazines often are used for reference and kept around the home for weeks. Magazines subscribers sometimes pass along the copies to other readers, further extending a magazine's life.

- In terms of qualitative considerations, magazines as an advertising medium, are exceptional with regard to elegance, quality, beauty, prestige, and snob appeal. These features result from the high level of reproduction quality and from the surrounding editorial content that often transfers to the advertised product.
- Magazines are also a particularly good source for providing detailed product information and for conveying this information with a sense of authority.
- A final and especially notable feature of magazine advertising is its creative ability to get consumers involved in advertisements or, in a sense, to attract readers' interest and to encourage consumer to think about the advertised brands.

Limitations

- Unlike television and radio, which by the very nature infringe on the attention of the viewer and listener, magazine advertising is not intrusive; readers control whether to be exposed to a magazine advertisement.

- A second limitation is long lead times. In newspapers and the broadcast media, it is relatively easy to change ad copy on fairly short notice and in specific markets. Magazines, by comparison, have long closing dates that require advertising materials to be on hand for weeks in advance of the actual publication date.
- As with other advertising media, clutter is a problem with magazine advertising. In certain respects clutter is a worse problem with magazines than television, because readers can become engrossed in editorial content and skip over advertisements so as not to have reading disrupted.
- Magazine advertising also provides fewer geographic options than do other media.
- A final limitation of magazine advertising is variability in circulation patterns from market to market.

3.4 CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENT

About 25 percent of US advertisements employ celebrity endorsers. These actions suggest many US firms have bought into the premise that celebrity endorsers positively impact consumer attitudes towards an advertisement and

the associated brand, consumers' purchase intention, as well as other measures of effectiveness (Amos et al 2008:209).

The widespread use of celebrity product endorsement in marketing programs is not an accident. Research has found the celebrities are more effective than other types of consumers, such as "the professional expert", "the company manager", or "the typical consumer". To capitalize on this effectiveness, in 2003, Nike spent \$US1.44 billion on celebrity endorsers, two of whom were the basketball Michael Jordan and the golfer Tiger Woods. In 2004, Gillette signed an endorsement deal with soccer celebrity David Beckham worth between \$US30 and \$US50 million (Seno and Lukas 2007:121).

3.4.1 Definition of celebrity endorsement

Choi and Rifon (2007:304) define celebrity endorsement 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."

Byrne, Whitehead and Breen (2003:288) state that a consistent theme emerging in advertising models is that both cognitive and behavioural responses under low-involvement situations can be facilitated by source cues that the consumer identifies with. Celebrity endorsement has become one of

the communication strategies employed by marketers in an attempt to build a congruent image between the brand and the consumer. There are different types of endorsers (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:2), as shown below.

TABLE 3.1
TYPES OF ENDORSER

Experts	Individuals that the target population perceives as having substantial knowledge in a particular area.
Lay endorsers (Common man)	May be real or fictitious. They are unknown individuals or characters, which are selected to closely resemble the target segment, enabling the target segment to identify with the endorser and the message.
Celebrities	See definition explained above.

Source: Own construction

3.4.2 Celebrity endorsement situation/product theories

In this section theories that deal with when a celebrity should be used as an endorser are reviewed. The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and the

Meaning Transfer Model deal with situations and circumstances involving the company's products and target audience.

3.4.2.1 The Elaboration Likelihood Model

According to Johansson and Sparredal (2002:15), differences in the ways consumers' process and respond to persuasive messages are addressed in the ELM of persuasion. The ELM model contends that attitudes can be changed following either a careful and effortful scrutiny of a message or less cognitively, effortful inference and associative processes (Priester & Petty 2003:408-409).

According to this model, the attitude formation or change process depends on the amount and nature of elaboration, or processing, or relevant information that occurs in response to a persuasive message. High elaboration means that the receiver engages in careful consideration, thinking, and evaluation of the information or arguments contained in the message. Low elaboration occurs when the receiver does not engage in active information processing or thinking but rather makes inferences about the position being advocated in the message on the basis of simple positive or negative cues (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:15).

As briefly showed earlier in chapter one, FIGURE 1.1, the ELM shows that elaboration likelihood is a function of two elements, namely motivation and the ability to process the message. Motivation to process the message depends on such factors as involvement, personal relevance, and individual's needs and arousal levels. Ability depends on the individual's knowledge, intellectual capacity, and opportunity to process the message. According to the ELM model, there are two basic routes to persuasion or attitude change. The routes are central routes to persuasion and peripheral routes to persuasion (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:15). These are now expounded.

- Central routes to persuasion

The first level, the central route, assumes that the consumer has a high motivation and consequently there is a high involvement in processing the communication message (Wright 2006:279). When central processing of an advertising message occurs, the consumer pays close attention to message content and looks deeply into the message arguments. A high level of cognitive response activity or processing occurs and the advertisement's ability to persuade the receiver depends primarily on the receiver's evaluation of quality of the arguments presented. Favourable cognitive responses lead to favourable changes in cognitive structure, which lead to positive attitude change or persuasion. Conversely,

unfavourable cognitive responses lead to counterarguments and/or source derogations, and result in a negative attitude change. Attitude change that occurs through central processing is relatively enduring and should resist subsequent efforts to change it (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:16-17).

- Peripheral route to persuasion

The second, the peripheral route, involves low-involvement purchases and here the persuasion is affected more by the overall image and excitement created by the communication methods used rather than by the message itself (Wright 2006:280). Favourable attitudes may be formed if the endorser in the advertisement is viewed as an expert or is attractive and/or likable or if the consumer likes certain aspects of the advertisements such as the way it is made, the music or the imagery. However, these favourable attitudes resulting from peripheral processing are only temporary. These favourable attitudes must be maintained by continual exposure to the peripheral cues, such as through repetitive advertising (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:17).

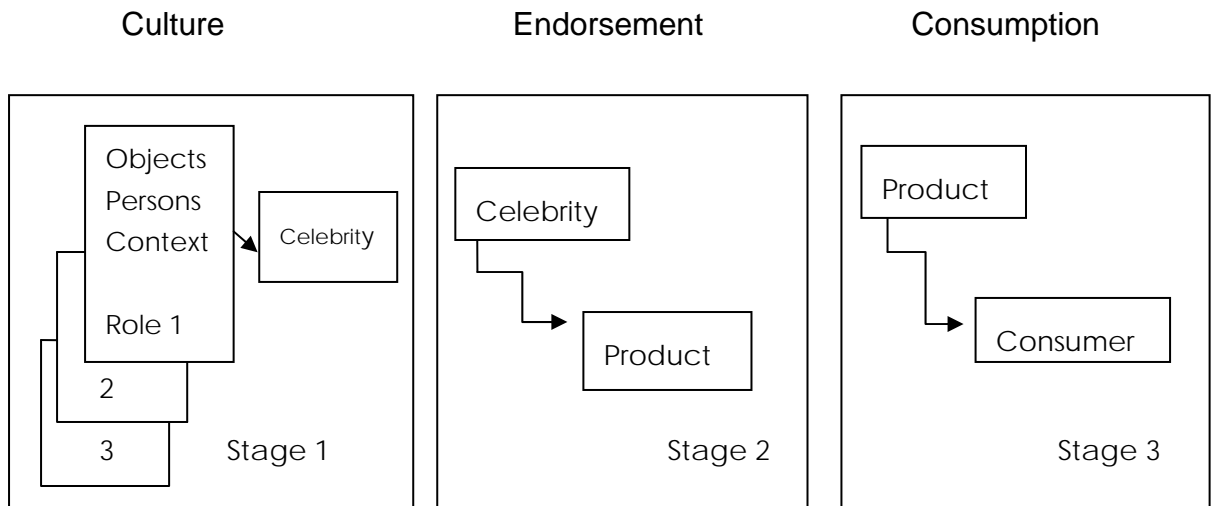
Johansson and Sparredal (2002:17) further hold that the effectiveness of a celebrity endorser in an advertisement depends on the receiver's involvement level. When involvement was low, a celebrity endorser had a significant effect on attitudes. When the receiver's involvement was high, the use of a celebrity had no effect on brand attitudes; the quality of the argument used in the advertisement was more important.

3.4.2.2 The Meaning Transfer Model

The meaning transfer model maintains that celebrity endorsers bring their own symbolic meanings to the endorsement process, and that cultural meanings attached to the celebrity such as status, class and lifestyle transfer to products. According to this model, the celebrity image developed independently transfers first from celebrity to product and then product to consumer. Advertisers hire celebrities or athletes under the assumption that people first "consume" the images of celebrities and then "consume" products associated with those celebrities (Charbonneau & Garland 2005:3). See flow in FIGURE 3.2.

FIGURE 3.2

THE MEANING TRANSFER MODEL



Source: Johansson and Sparredal 2002:12

3.4.3 Celebrity endorsement selection theories

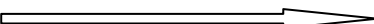


Celebrity endorsers have been found to produce more positive responses towards advertising and greater purchase intentions than a non-celebrity endorser. To understand how these celebrity endorsers are able to transfer their personality to products, it is important to understand what attitudes an endorser must exhibit to successfully influence a company or product image (Byrne et al 2003:291). American practitioners believed that, as baseline criteria for consideration, celebrities must be trustworthy, recognizable, and affordable, generate minimal controversy or risk, and be appropriately matched with target audiences (Charbonneau & Garland 2005:3).

3.4.3.1 Source attributes

Johansson and Sparredal (2002:20) developed three basic categories of source attributes: credibility, attractiveness and power. Each category influences the recipients' attitude or behaviour through different processes referred to as internalization, identification and compliance. More detailed explanations are shown below.

FIGURE 3.3

SOURCE ATTRIBUTES AND RECEIVER PROCESSING MODES

Source Attributes	Process
Credibility 	Internalization
Attractiveness 	Identification
Power 	Compliance

Source: Johansson and Sparredal 2002:21

3.4.3.1.1 Source credibility

Celebrities are generally viewed by consumers as credible sources of information about the product or firm they endorse. Source credibility can be

defined as “a communicator’s positive characteristics that affect the receiver’s acceptance of a message”. The source credibility model analyses the factors leading to the perceived credibility of the communicator. The model contends that the effectiveness of a message depends upon the perceived level of expertise and trustworthiness associated with an endorser or communicator (Amos et al 2008:214). Information from a credible source influences beliefs, opinions, attitudes, and behaviour through a process known as internalization. This occurs when the receiver adopts the opinion of a credible source since customers believe information from this source is accurate. A highly credible source is particularly important when the message recipient have a negative position toward the product, service, brand or issue being promoted. The credible source is likely to inhibit counterarguments and reduced counterarguing should result in greater message acceptance and persuasion (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:21).

- **Celebrity expertise**

Yilmaz and Ersavas (2008:418) define expertise as “the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions. It refers to the perceived level of knowledge, experience, or skills possessed by an endorser”. Celebrities with higher levels of expertise have been found to be more persuasive and can generate more intentions to buy the brand.

- Celebrity trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is the degree of confidence consumers place in a communicator's intent to convey the assertions s/he considers most valid. Favourable disposition, acceptance, psychological safety, and perceived supportive climate are as favourable consequences of trust. A highly trustworthy communicator produces an effective attitude change, while non-trusted communicators' impact proved immaterial. Perceived communicator trustworthiness has also been shown to produce a greater attitude change than perceived expertise (Amos et al 2008:215).

3.4.3.1.2 Source attractiveness

Attractiveness is the second category of source attributes. Attractiveness encompasses similarity, familiarity and likability. Similarity is the supposed resemblance between the source and the receiver; familiarity arises through knowledge of the source via repeated exposure. Likability occurs from affection for the source due to the physical appearance, behaviour or other personal characteristics (Byrne et al 2003:292). Source attractiveness leads to persuasion through a process of identification, whereby the receiver is motivated to seek some type of relationship with the source and thus adopts similar beliefs, attitudes, preferences, or behaviour (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:22).

Advertisers have chosen celebrity endorsers on the basis of endorsers' physical attractiveness to gain from the dual effects of celebrity status and physical appeal. There is no doubt that attractive celebrity endorsers enhance attitudes towards advertising and brands, but whether celebrities are able to create repeat purchases intentions is less clear (Byrne et al 2003:292).

3.4.3.1.3 Source power

The third and the final source attribute is source power. This occurs when a source has the ability to administer rewards or punishments. As a result of the power, an endorser may be able to induce another person to respond to the request or position the source is advocating. As a source characteristic, power is very difficult to apply in advertising. This attribute is most commonly used for spokespersons (Byrne et al 2003:292).

3.4.3.2 Match-up hypothesis/Product fit

Amos et al (2008:216) comment that the celebrity/product fit, also called the "match-up hypothesis", refers to the harmony of the match between the celebrity endorser and the product being endorsed. Advertisers must match the product or company's image, the characteristics of the target market, and the personality of the celebrity, to establish effective messages. The

determinant of the match between celebrity and brand depends on the degree of perceived “fit” between brand and celebrity image. Messages conveyed by the celebrity image and the product message should be congruent for effective communication. Special attention should also be paid to employ celebrities who have a direct connection with the endorsed product and who are perceived to be experts by the target audiences. If there is no congruency, then the audience remembers the celebrity and not the product (Byrne et al 2003:292). If the product is not appropriately matched to the endorser, as specified by the match-up hypothesis, then the meaning of the message that is transferred to the consumer may not be effective (Huston, Ouyville & Willis 2002:89). Some important criteria are listed below when choosing celebrity endorser.

Wheeler (2003:18) suggests that before picking an endorser, marketers must consider which traits are most important to the brand. (1) Ensure that the celebrity has qualities that fit the image suitable for the organization. (2) Find someone with a logical connection to the organization, someone who is familiar with the target group or constituency. (3) Choose someone who has a story and can tell it well. Not all celebrities can communicate a meaningful and compelling story. Good communicators make the most powerful spokespeople. (4) Consider the long-term value of the celebrity, weigh the desire to pick someone who is “hot” against the celebrity’s staying power.

3.4.4 Celebrity endorsement risk theories

According to Till (1998:400), despite well-publicized celebrity miscues such as O.J. Simpson's arraignment on murder charges, Mike Tyson's rape conviction, and Michael Jordan's gambling debt, the use of celebrity endorsers continues unabated. Although endorsers can be used for a variety of purposes such as getting attention and penetrating commercial clutter, the high cost of endorsements suggests that marketers expect to get far more value from the endorsement than simply the use of a clever executional device designed to attract consumer attention. Despite the popularity of celebrity pitchmen, many commercials using celebrity endorsers do not live up to advertisers' expectations. However, used appropriately, celebrity endorsers can serve a valuable role in developing brand equity and enhancing a brand's competitive position. In this section theories that deal with the risks connected to the use of celebrity endorsers and theories about how some of these risks can be reduced are reviewed.

3.4.4.1 Negative publicity

One risk associated with the use of celebrity endorsers is the possibility of negative information or publicity regarding the celebrity. If the celebrity is strongly associated with the brand then the occurrence of negative publicity

about the celebrity can spill over to the brand. Many companies have been badly affected by negative publicity from celebrity misdeeds, like celebrity endorsers involved in drug scandals, rape, and murder. The harm brought to the reputations of these companies may decrease the trustworthiness and credibility of the consumer (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:25).

3.4.4.2 Overshadowing

If a celebrity endorser is used, the risk of consumers focusing on the celebrity and not on the brand exists. To solve this, advertisers should use a celebrity endorser who will attract attention and enhance the sales message, yet not overshadow the brand. Overshadowing occurs when the celebrity endorser occurs in the presence of multiple other stimuli which all compete to form a link with the celebrity endorser. While the advertiser intends for an associative link to develop between the celebrity and the endorsed brand, overshadowing suggests that the celebrity endorser is most likely to build a link with the most dominating stimulus, which might not be the featured brand in the advertisement execution. Therefore, the celebrity and the brand should be the two strongest elements in the advertisement (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:22).

3.4.4.3 Overexposure

Another risk of using celebrity endorsers is that the credibility of the brand and the celebrity may suffer when the celebrity chooses to endorse several different products simultaneously and becomes overexposed. The reason is that consumers may question whether the endorser really believes in and uses all the products he or she endorses. Overexposure is a common occurrence between highly competing brands and highly recognized and well-liked endorsers. This disloyalty to a company could lead to lowered credibility and loss of trust in a brand. It can also make the consumers confused and unable to correctly recall which brands the celebrity stands for (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:25-26).

3.4.4.4 Overuse

Advertisers sometimes use many different celebrities to endorse a brand or product. One reason is that the advertiser use different celebrities to appeal to different market segments through different media and programs. Another reason is that the competition for celebrities could heat up just like competition for other resources. In that case, a company may sign up a celebrity to prevent another company from using that celebrity (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:26).

Johansson and Sparredal (2002:26) are also of the opinion that a company's use of multiple endorsers could have some undesired results. Since each endorser has a unique image, a multiplicity of endorsers might blur the image of the brand. Even if these endorsers were used in different media or programs, because of segment overlap across media, multiple endorsers could still blur the brand image. The use of multiple endorsers may lead to the reduced effectiveness of this means of persuasion. This is true for endorsers as for any other means of persuasion. Overuse of a celebrity endorser may lead to declining popularity for advertising using celebrities.

3.4.4.5 Extinction

According to Johansson and Sparredal (2002:26), the favourable responses that have been engendered to a particular brand because of its association with a celebrity may weaken over time, particularly if the brand receives significant exposure without association with the celebrity. The celebrity may be very famous and successful in the beginning of the contractual term, but then become less successful or lose their fame. For example, an athlete who wins a gold medal in the Olympics may be a very good endorser for a particular brand. If the athlete gets injured or becomes less successful due to other circumstances and disappear from the spotlight, he or she might no longer be the endorser for company was looking for. If the advertiser has

signed a contract that lasts for many years, the advertiser is stuck with a celebrity who does not have the same fame and impact on the target segment that he or she used to have.

3.4.4.6 Financial risk

A final risk associated with the use of celebrity endorsers is the financial risk. At some point in the decision to use celebrity endorsers, advertisers have to consider the cost effectiveness of the choice. The endorsers who appear to have the highest potential, tend to be the most popular and therefore the most expensive to hire as endorser. The demand for entertainment and sports celebrities has increased and these individuals are sometimes very expensive to use as endorsers. In this situation, the advertiser must decide if a celebrity endorser is worth the investment. Rather than pursuing a popular endorser, advertisers can do well by looking for a less known, less expensive endorser who nicely matches the message of the brand and appeals to the target segment (Johansson & Sparredal 2002:26).

3.4.5 Managerial implications for effective use of celebrity endorsers

According to Jahansson and Sparredal(2002:10-11), there are ten managerial implications for effective use of celebrity endorsers.

- Celebrity endorsements will be more effective when used consistently over time to increase the strength of the link between the celebrity and the endorsed brand;
- When using a celebrity endorser, keep the advertisement execution simple, clean, and free of irrelevant design elements;
- When selecting a celebrity endorser, choose a celebrity who is not already strongly associated with another product or service;
- When selecting a celebrity endorser, consider carefully the “fit”, “congruence”, or “belongingness” of the celebrity and brand;
- Test potential brand-celebrity combinations to ensure that the impression and image of the celebrity is positive for the target audience;
- Celebrity endorsers can be used to effectively reinforce and/or create an image for a product or service;
- Celebrity endorsements will be more effective for less familiar brands;
- Celebrity endorsers will be more effective for brands for which consumers have limited knowledge/facts;

- Increased value from a celebrity endorser comes from utilizing the celebrity across the marketing mix, not just in advertising; and
- Caution in choice of celebrity endorser is warranted given the potential risk of tarnishing the brand's image.

According to Moorman (2006:111), there are five criteria to bear in mind when using a celebrity in advertising.

- Statements must reflect the honest opinion, findings, beliefs, or experience of the celebrity;
- The accuracy of the celebrity's claims must be substantiated by the advertiser;
- Any efficacy claims must be substantiated, if capable of substantiation and if such claims were made by the advertiser;
- If the advertisement claims the celebrity uses the product or service, the celebrity must in fact be a bona fide user; and

- The advertiser can only use the endorsement as long as it has a good belief that the celebrity continues to hold the views expressed in the advertisement.

3.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter the terms advertising and print advertising concepts were explained, followed by a description of the categories of newspaper and magazines, and the strengths and limitations of each medium method.

Thereafter, celebrity endorsement, situation analysis, selection process, and risks theories were described. Advertisers have used endorsements as a promotional strategy to communicate product merits for a long time. Endorsements can be used to give testimony about the use of a product, to promote the product, and to simply be associated with the product. While possible product endorsers include typical consumers/current customers, professional experts, company employees or company presidents, the celebrity spokesperson remains a favourite among advertising agencies. Clearly, celebrities are a popular choice among advertisers and consistent with this popularity, researchers have generated a solid literature base to help advertisers in selecting appropriate and effective celebrity endorsers (Stafford, Spears & Hsu 2003:13).

The chapter concludes with managerial implications for the effective use of celebrity endorsers. Chapter 4 focuses on the consumers' buying behaviours when making purchase decisions.

CHAPTER 4

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR: HOW AND WHY PEOPLE BUY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Cant, Brink and Brijball (2006:4), the study of customer behaviour is 'the study of how individuals and businesses make decisions to spend their available resources (time, money, effort) on consumption-related items. It includes the study of what they buy, why they buy it, when they buy it, where they buy it, how often they buy it, and how often they use it.' By learning more about how customers behave, organizations gain a better understanding as to why customers buy what they buy or, why they response to marketing stimuli as they do. An understanding of this behaviour makes it possible for organizations to develop marketing communications that are focused on the way customers react (Cant et al 2006:5).

To deal with the marketing environment and make purchasing decisions, all consumers, regardless of age, gender, nationality or religion, engage in a decision-making process (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel 2004:142). Consumer behaviour is triggered by needs. Consumer decision-making directs needs by assessing and selecting the actions that will fulfil them. However, the process

of consumer decision-making, unlike consumer action, cannot be observed. Consumer decision-making is a cognitive process that consists of those mental activities that determine what activities are undertaken to remove a tension state caused by a need (Cant et al 2006:193).

Customer loyalty is an important concept because greater loyalty can lead to a number of benefits such as reduction in marketing costs, increased opportunities for brand extensions and an improved market share. Loyal customers are a good source for spreading positive word of mouth and the most positive are advocates. They also offer greater resistance to competitive offerings. Beyond loyalty there is the possibility of relational buying where consumers engage with brands on such emotional levels that the interaction between consumer and brands/companies involves reciprocated affective relationships (Evans, Jamal & Foxall 2006:264).

4.2 CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR CONCEPT

Consumer behaviour is the process individuals or groups go through to select, purchase, use, and dispose of goods, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy their needs and desires (Solomon, Marshall & Stuart 2006:136). Cant et al (2006:2) define consumer behaviour as the mental and physical activities undertaken by household and business customers that result in decisions and

actions to pay for, purchase, and use products and services. More specially, according to Arnould, Price and Zinkhan (2002:5), consumer behaviour is concerned with how consumers acquire, organize and use information to make consumption choice. The definition by Arnould et al (2002:5) require amplification to clarify who the consumer is, what behaviour of interest is and what the nature of the process involved in decision-making is.

The above definitions show that consumer behaviour is a study of the decision-making process in relation to the environmental factors and their effect on the purchasing decision. The next section deals with the stages in the consumer decision-making process.

4.3 STEPS IN CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

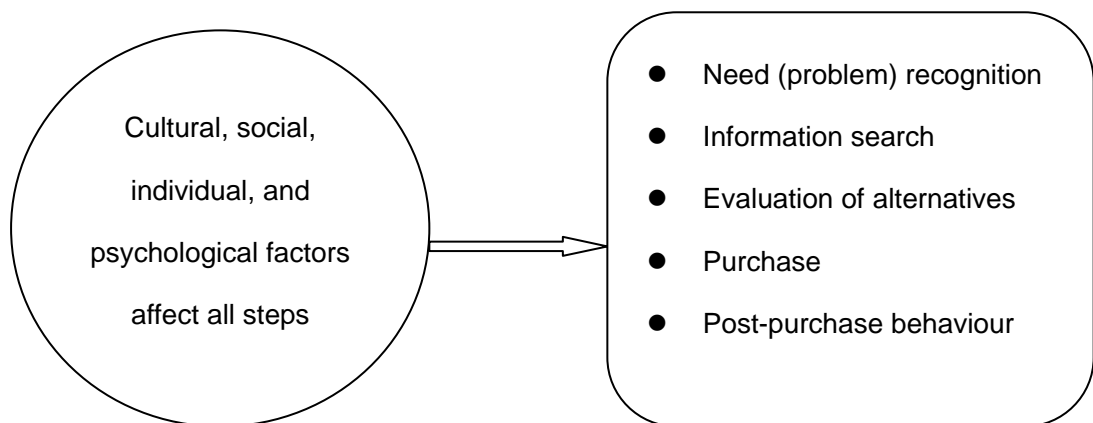
According to Cant et al (2006:192), consumers are continuously making decisions about what products and services to consume. There are two fundamental reasons why individuals must make decisions:

- They have to satisfy their needs and desires, and;
- Frequently, more than one choice or alternative will satisfy their need.

Consumer decision-making is very similar to problem-solving. A problem arises when someone seeks a goal or particular end-state, but is uncertain as to the best solution to the problem. In consumer decision-making, the unsatisfied want is the problem and the solution is the act of buying something to satisfy the want. Therefore, a decision or a solution is a course of action that provides a desired result to a perceived state of need. There are five steps in the consumer decision-making process, as shown below.

FIGURE 4.1

STEPS IN THE CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING PROCESS



Source: Lamb et al 2004:143

The five steps shown in Figure 4.1 represent a general process that moves the consumer from recognition of a product or service need to the evaluation

of a purchase. This process is a useful guideline for studying how consumers make decisions, but it does not assume that all consumers' decisions will proceed in order through all of the steps (Lamb et al 2004:142). Each of these steps is now discussed in more detail.

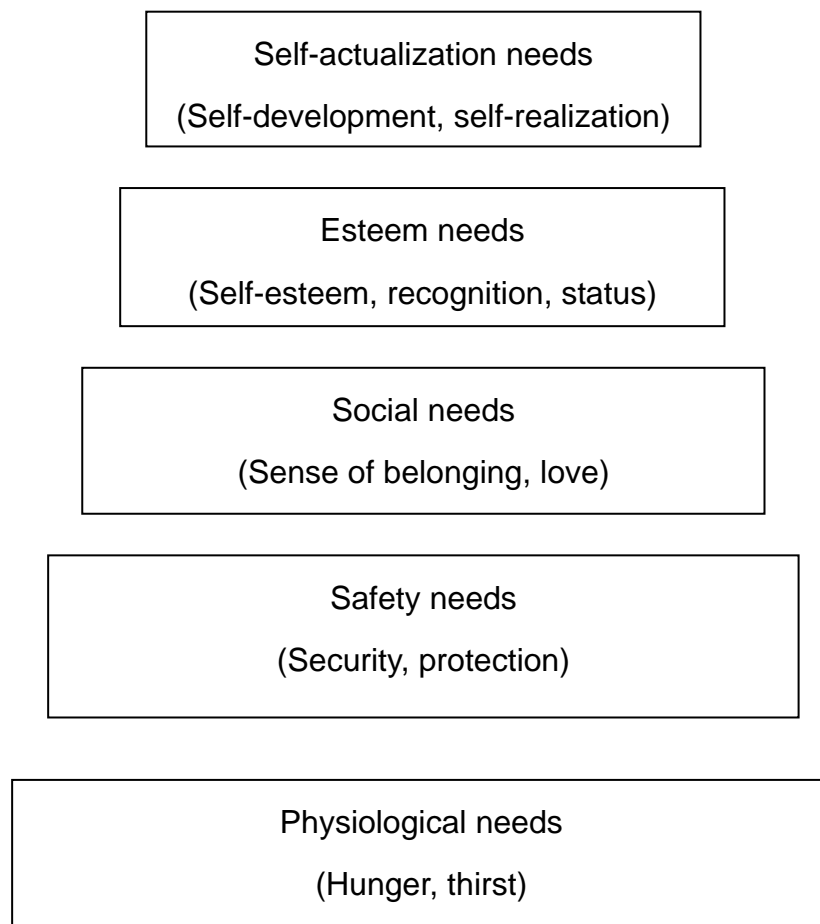
4.3.1 Need (problem) recognition

Problem recognition occurs whenever a consumer sees a significant difference between his or her current state of affairs and some desired or ideal state (Solomon et al 2006:139). Consumers buy things when they believe a product's ability to solve a problem is worth more than the cost of buying it, thereby, making recognition of an unmet need the first step in the sale of a product. Marketers must know consumers' needs – if they know where consumers “itch,” they have a better idea of where to “scratch” with new and improved products, more effective communication programs, and more user-friendly distribution channels. Firms sometimes make the mistake of developing new products based on what they are able to manufacture or sell rather than based on what consumers want to buy. Products and services that do not solve consumer problems fail, no matter how dazzling the technology or how much is spent on advertising aimed at convincing consumers to buy them (Blackwell et al 2001:72-73).

Consumers are having different levels of needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, as shown in Figure 4.2, is a method of classifying human needs and motivations into five categories in ascending order of importance: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization (Lamb et al 2004: 171).

FIGURE 4.2

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS



Source: Lamb et al 2004:172

- Physiological needs

Physiological needs are necessary for a person's biological functioning and survival, such as the need for food, water, sleep and shelter. They are the most prominent motives of all, and human behaviour will be primarily directed at the satisfaction of these needs for as long as they are not satisfied (Cant et al 2006:134).

- Safety needs

Once people have managed to satisfy their physiological needs at least partially, the next level in the hierarchy emerges and the former level becomes less important (Cant et al 2006:135). Arnould et al (2002:386) state that safety needs include order, stability, routine, familiarity and control over one's life and environment. Marketers often exploit consumers' fears and anxieties about safety to sell their products (Iamb et al 2004:171).

- Social needs

This need relates to the fundamental need for love and affiliation. The affiliation need finds expression in the buying of gifts and participating in in-group activities, such as sports and other cultural pursuits. The social

motives of belonging and love are evident when customers want to buy product that are regarded highly by others, so that their use brings the customers who buy them peer approval from other people who use the products, thus producing a sense of belonging (Cant et al 2006:135).

- Esteem needs

According to Cant et al (2006:135), esteem needs can be divided into two subgroups: the first is concerned with self-respect and self-esteem, and the second with the need for respect and approval by other. By acquiring objects (products) of various kinds, and by demanding an ever-widening range of services, customers in modern society try to express their needs for power and prestige.

- Self-actualization

Once the physiological, safety, social and esteem needs are satisfied, people begin to explore and extend the bounds of their potential, that is, to seek self-actualization (Sheth & Mittal 2004:164). Self-actualization refers to finding self-fulfillment and self-expression, reaching the point in life at which “people are what they feel they should be” (Lamb et al 2004:172).

4.3.2 Information search

The second stage is the search for and processing of information. In many buying situations, once the consumer has recognized the problem, they begin to look for information (Cant et al 2006:197). Solomon et al (2006:140) point out that information search is the step of the decision-making process in which the consumer checks his memory and surveys the environment to identify what options are out there that might solve his problem. Advertisements in newspaper, on TV or the radio, or even in the Yellow Pages or on the internet often provide valuable guidance during this step. Schiffman and Kanuk (2000:445) define that information search starts when a consumer perceives a need that might be satisfied by the purchase and consumption of a specific product or service.

Information search can occur internally, externally or both (Lamb et al 2004: 144). An internal search concerns information in consumers' memories, and they will use this to shorten an otherwise lengthy process. The information comes from their learning processes in the past. As well as such experiences with a product, internal searches based on the process of learning include such things as interaction with a salesperson and consumer advisory, store layout, availability of items and prices paid for items (Cant et al 2006: 197-198). In contrast, an external information search seeks information in the

outside environment (Lamb et al 2004:144). Cant et al (2006:198) state that this type of search is affected by individual differences and environmental influences.

- Individual differences include consumer resources, motivation and involvement, knowledge, attitudes, personality, lifestyle and demographics;
- Environmental influences include personal information sources; the business and marketing forces of advertising, in-store promotions and personal selling; neutral sources such as booklets, brochures and pamphlets; human sources such as financial consultants; and social and cultural influences.

According to Lamb et al (2004:144), there are two basic types of external information sources: nonmarketing –controlled and marketing-controlled. A nonmarketing-controlled information sources is not associated with marketers promoting a product. It includes personal experience (trying to observing a new product); personal sources (family, friends, acquaintances, and coworkers); and public sources (Underwriters Laboratories, Consumer Reports, and other rating organizations). On the other hand, a marketing-controlled information source is biased toward a specific product,

because it originates with marketers promoting that product. It includes mass-media advertising (radio, newspaper, television, and magazine advertising), sales promotion (contests, displays, premiums, and so forth), salespeople, product labels and packaging, and the internet.

The role of marketers during the information search step of the consumer decision-making process is to make the information consumers want and need about their product easily accessible (Solomon et al 2006:140). The consumer's information search should yield a group of brands, sometimes called the buyer's evoked set (or consideration set), which are the consumer's most preferable alternatives. From this set, the buyer will further evaluate the alternatives and make a choice (Lamb et al 2004:146).

4.3.3. Evaluation of alternatives

The evaluation of alternatives resolutions to a problem is the third step in the consumer decision-making process. Consumer evaluation is the act of identifying alternatives solutions to a problem and assessing the relative merits and demerits of each. When evaluating alternatives, consumers compare product features and assess them according to pre-established criteria (Cant et al 2006:201).

Evaluation criteria are the limits that consumers decide are acceptable when searching for a solution to their problems. The criteria for evaluation are the standards, characteristics or specifications used by consumers to compare products and brands. Consumers use different evaluation criteria when evaluating products and stores, and change the criteria in response to the situation or particular environment (Cant et al 2006:201).

Cant et al (2006:201) further mention that evaluation criteria are moulded and influenced by individual and environmental variables. Individual influences, such as personality and attitudes, have an impact on expected outcomes.

There are four types of individuals involved in decision-making:

- The economic individual takes a calculated, rational decision based on complete information;
- The passive individual is not knowledgeable and can be manipulated by the marketer. They react impulsively and irrationally;
- The emotional individual takes consumer decisions based entirely on personal and irrational needs; and

- The cognitive individual bases consumer decisions on information from the environment, on social influences, on personal needs, attitudes and perception, and on experience.

Following the evaluation of alternatives, the consumer decides which product to buy or decides not to buy a product at all (Lamb et al 2004:147). To sum up, evaluation brings a consumer to the point of making a decision on a specific course of action (Cant et al 2006:201).

4.3.4 Purchase

The next stage of the consumer decision-making process is purchase. A consumer decision is the outcome of evaluation, and involves the mental process of selecting the most desirable alternative from a set of options that a consumer has generated. The most suitable choice is the one that comes closest to the evaluation criteria formulated by the consumer. It is the data obtained as a result of search activity and effort that lays the foundation for the evaluation and decision. The appropriate decision is dependent upon adequate information (Cant et al 2006:202).

4.3.5 Post-purchase behaviour

In the last step of decision-making process, the consumer evaluates just how good a choice it was. Everyone has experienced regret after making a purchase, and we have all been pleased with something we have bought. The evaluation of the product results in a level of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction, which is determined by the overall feelings, or attitude, a person has about a product after purchasing it (Solomon et al 2006: 142). Satisfaction occurs when consumers' expectations are matched by perceived performance; when experiences and performance fall short of expectations, dissatisfaction occurs (Blackwell et al 2001:80).

The performance of the product or service will be compared with consumers' expectations (Schiffman & Kanuk 2000:457). There are three possible outcomes of these evaluations:

- Perceived performance meeting expectations, leading to a neutral feeling;
- Perceived performance exceeding expectations, causing what is known as positive disconfirmation of expectations and satisfaction (this experience may lead to consumer repeat purchase); and

- Perceived performance being lower than expectations, causing negative disconfirmation of expectations and disappointment.

In addition, if consumers understand their decision-making processes, it may improve further decision-making. Marketers who understand the process may be assisted in their marketing efforts by being responsive to customer decision-making imperatives (Sheth & Mittal 2004:275). Consumer decision-making is influenced by several factors. These factors will be discussed in the next section.

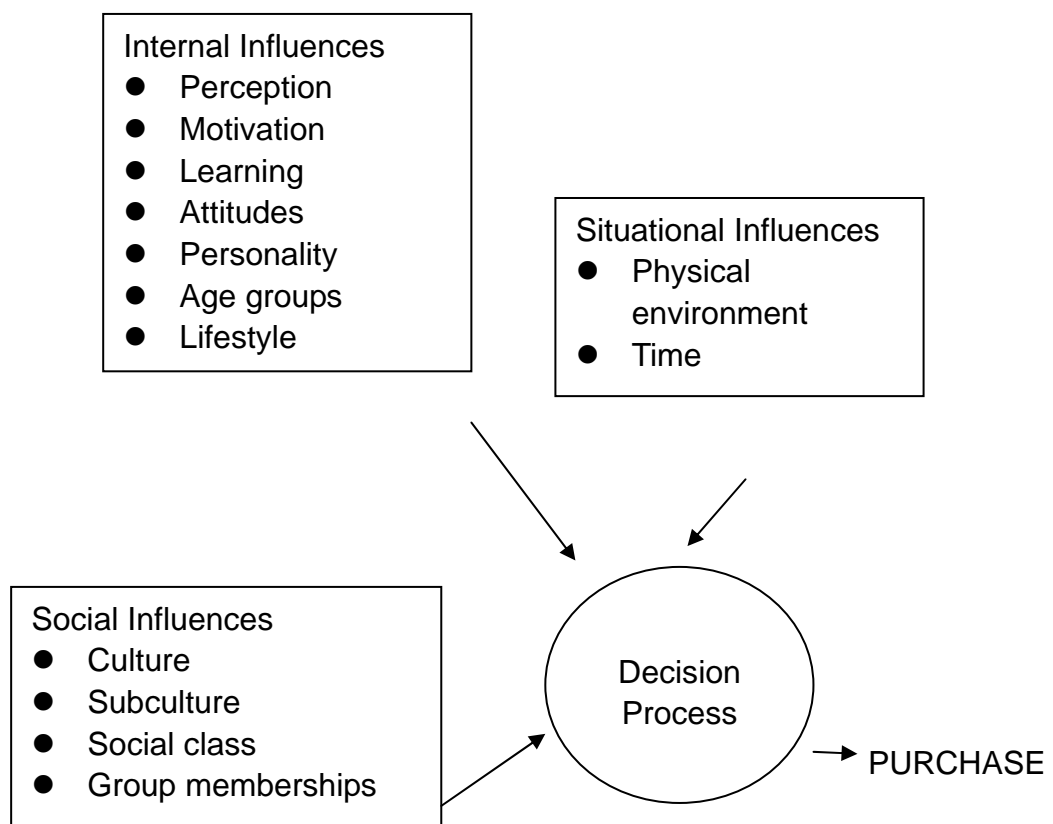
4.4 INFLUENCES ON THE BUYING DECISION

The consumer decision-making process does not occur in a vacuum (Lamb et al 2004:161). Needs and problems may be recognized through internal, situational and social factors. Internal influences include aspects such as perception, motivation, learning, attitudes, personality, age groups and lifestyle. Situational influences include aspects of physical environment and time. Social influences include aspects such as culture, subculture, social class, group memberships, opinion leader and sex roles (Solomon et al 2006: 145). A number of different factors in consumers' lives influence the consumer decision-making process. Marketers need to understand these influences and which ones are important in the purchase process to make effective marketing

decisions, as illustrated in Figure 4.3, the most important factors are subsequently discussed in more detail.

FIGURE 4.3

INFLUENCES ON CONSUMER DECISION MAKING



SOURCE: Solomon et al 2006:145

4.4.1 Internal influences on consumer decisions

Internal influences include aspects such as perception, motivation, learning, attitudes, personality, age groups and lifestyle. Each factor is now explained in more detail.

4.4.1.1 Perception

Solomon et al (2006:144) state perception as the process by which people select, organize, and interpret information from the outside world. In other words, is the way that buyers interpret or give meaning to the world around them (Cant et al 2006:115). Consumers are bombarded with information on products – thousands of advertisements, in-store displays, special offers, opinions of their friends, and on and on. The perception process has implications for marketers because, as consumer absorb and make sense of the vast quantities of information competing for their attention, the odds are that any single message will get lost in the clutter. And, if they do notice it, there is no guarantee that the meaning they give it will be the same one the marketer intended (Solomon et al 2006:144).

Copley (2004:54) divides perception into three areas. First is how consumers sense and attend to various information. Here consumers use the senses to create a representation of the stimuli but the marketer can manipulate this situation by using the senses in a particular way. For example, perfume marketers may give the sense of smell by using a strip or scratch mechanism to release a small quantity of the perfume. Second is the selection of information where the consumer's personality, needs, motives expectations and experiences are the psychological factors that explain why the consumer focuses on one thing but ignores another. The consumer will attend to a stimulus that is perceived to be a problem solver. Third, the consumer then interprets the stimulus depending upon the internal psychological factors at play but will be selective with regard to exposure, attention, comprehension and retention. The consumer therefore might either choose (or not) to be exposed to stimuli by channel flicking while watching television. Consumers are also very capable of screening out many of the stimuli that they are exposed to every day. The marketer's job is to get through this clutter and get attention. Even if this is successful the consumer may still selectively comprehend only certain stimuli depending upon their own attitudes, beliefs and so on.

The image of a product that the customer has in their mind, that is, how it is positioned, is probably more important to its ultimate success than its actual characteristics. Marketers try to position their brands so that the brands are perceived by customers to fit a distinctive niche in the marketplace by stressing the product's attributes that they claim will fulfil the customers' needs better than competing brands (Cant et al 2006:121).

4.4.1.2 Motivation

By studying motivation, marketers can analyze the major forces influencing consumers to buy or not to buy products. When people buy a product, they usually do so to fulfill some kind of need. These needs become motives when aroused sufficiently (Lamb et al 2004:171). Solomon et al (2006:145) state that motivation is an internal state that drives people to satisfy needs. Once a need is activated, a state of tension exists that drives the consumer toward some goals that reduce this tension by eliminating the need. One popular theory is Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which arranges needs in ascending order of importance: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. As a person fulfills one need, a higher level need becomes more important (Lamb et al 2004:171). Copley (2004:53-54) explains that human motives can be understood further by studying personality. The psycho-analytic theory of Freud explains much about motivation and

personality, and this has been applied to consumer behaviour situations. This is a probe for deeper-seated motives that are the basis for buying behaviour and purchase decisions but that are unclear even to the consumer. Probing the unconscious appeared to provide the answer.

4.4.1.3 Learning

Learning is highly relevant to marketing, since consumers are affected by the things they learn, and much consumer behaviour is based on the learning process. Persuading consumers to remember the information they see in advertisement is a major problem for marketers: people are often able to remember the advertisement, but not the brand being advertised (Blythe 2006:125).

Copley (2004:57) defines learning as the process by which individuals acquire the purchase and consumption knowledge and experience they apply to future related behaviour. The two basic approaches of behavioural and cognitive learning are well established in marketing literature. Behaviour learning theories assume that learning takes place as the result of connections that form between events that we perceive. In one type of behaviour learning, classic conditioning, a person perceives two stimuli at about the same time. After a while, the person transfers his response from

one stimulus to the other. Another common form of behavioural learning is called operant conditioning, which occurs when people learn that their actions result in rewards or punishments. This feedback influences how they will respond in similar situations in the future. In contrast to behavioural learning, cognitive learning theory views people as problem solvers who do more than passively react to associations between stimuli. Cognitive learning occurs when consumer make a connection between ideas or by observing things in their environment. Observational learning occurs when people watch the actions of others and note what happens to them as a result. They store these observations in memory and at some later point use the information to guide their own behaviour. Marketers often use this process to create advertising and other messages that allow consumers to observe the benefits of using their products (Solomon et al 2006:146-147).

4.4.1.4 Attitudes

Attitude is defined by Arnould et al (2002:459) as “a consumer’s overall, enduring evaluation of a concept or object, such as a person, a brand, a service”. However, Sheth and Mittal (2004:200) define attitude as “learned predispositions to respond to an object or class of objects in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way.” Therefore, attitudes can be used to predict behaviour. For instance, if one shows a favourable attitude toward a new

product concept, then marketers predict that one would tend to buy it when the new product is made available. Solomon et al (2006:147) suggest that a person's attitude has three components: affect, cognition, and behaviour.

- Affect is the feeling component of attitudes. Affect refers to the overall emotional response a person has to a product. Affect is usually dominant for expressive products such as perfume, in which simply whether or not and how much we like the product determines our attitude toward it.
- Cognition, the knowing component, is the beliefs or knowledge a person has about a product and its important characteristics. Cognition is important for complex products, such as computers, where we may develop beliefs on the basis of technical information.
- Behaviour, the doing component, involves a consumer's intention to do something, such as the intention to purchase or use a certain product.

Depending on the nature of the product, one of these three components – feeling, knowing, or doing – will be the dominant influence in creating an attitude toward a product. Marketers often need to decide which part of an attitude is the most important driver of consumers' preferences (Solomon et al 2006:148).

4.4.1.5 Personality

Personality has many meanings. In consumer studies, personality is defined as consistent responses to environmental stimuli. It is an individual's unique psychological makeup, which consistently influences how the person responds to his or her environment (Blackwell et al 2001:212). There are three major theories of personality namely: psychoanalytic, socio-psychological, and trait factor which are now explained.

- Psychoanalytic theory

Psychoanalytic theory recognizes that the human personality system consists of the id, ego, and superego. The id is the source of psychic energy and seeks immediate gratification for biological and instinctual needs. The superego represents societal or personal norms and services as an ethical constraint on behaviour. The ego mediates the hedonistic demands of the id and the moralistic prohibitions of the superego. The dynamic interaction of these elements results in unconscious motivations that are manifested in observed human behaviour (Blackwell et al 2001:212-213).

Consumer behaviour is often the result of unconscious consumer motives, which can be determined through indirect assessment methods such as projective and related psychological techniques. A consumer's personality is a result of much more than subconscious drives. A great deal of advertising is influenced by the psychoanalytic approach to personality, especially its heavy emphasis on sexual and other deep-seated biological instincts (Blackwell et al 2001:213).

- Socio-psychological theory

Socio-psychological theory recognizes the interdependence of the individual and society. The individual strives to meet the needs of society, whereas society helps the individual to attain goals. The theory is therefore a combination of sociological and psychological elements. Socio-psychological personality theory differs from psychoanalytic theory in two important respects. First, social variables rather than biological instincts are considered to be the most important determinants in shaping personality. Second, behavioural motivation is directed to meet those needs (Blackwell et al 2001:213).

- Trait-factor theory

Trait-factor theory is a quantitative approach to personality, which postulates that an individual's personality comprises predisposition attributes called traits. A trait is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another (Blackwell et al 2001:213).

Blackwell et al (2001:214) contend that brand personality is the personality consumers interpret from a specific brand. According to Evans et al (2006: 138), our perceptions of brand personality traits are formed due to our interactions with the brand. For example, consumers normally have stereotypical perceptions of brand users, those who are associated with the brand (employees working for a brand) and brand endorsers (expert spokesperson or celebrities). The images associated with those persons identified with a brand are transferred directly to the brands, leading to some distinct perceptions of brand personalities in our minds. A related approach views human personality as being the meanings constructed by an individual to describe the inner features and characteristics of another individual, based on observations of that individual's behaviour. Transferring this to brands, consumers can make attributions about the brand's personality on the basis of behaviours and actions performed by the brand.

4.4.1.6 Age group

A person's age is another internal influence on purchasing behaviour. Lamb et al (2004:166) contend that the age and family life-cycle stage of a consumer can have a significant impact on consumer behaviour. How old a consumer is generally indicates what products he or she may be interested in purchasing. The family life cycle is an orderly series of stages through which consumers' attitudes and behavioural tendencies evolve through maturity, experience, and changing income and status. Marketers often define their target markets in terms of family life cycle, such as "young singles," "young married with children," and "middle-aged married without children." Marketers should also be aware of the many nontraditional life-cycle paths that are common today and provide insights into the needs and wants of such consumers as divorced parents, lifelong singles, and childless couples.

4.4.1.7 Lifestyle

Solomon et al (2006:150) are of the view that a lifestyle is a pattern of living that determines how people choose to spend their time, money and energy and that reflects their values, tastes, and preferences. Lifestyles are expressed in a person's preferences for activities such as sports, interests such as music, and opinions on politics and religion. Consumers often choose goods, services, and activities that are associated with a certain lifestyle.

Lifestyle is important is because one can develop deeper insights into consumer behaviour by looking at how consumers spend their time and what they think of various elements of their environment. One can also get a closer idea of consumers' motives, feelings and beliefs because lifestyles are reflections of self-concept (Evans et al 2006:129). Psychographics is the analytical technique used to examine consumer lifestyles and to categorize consumers. Unlike personality characteristics, which are hard to describe and measure, lifestyle characteristics are useful in segmenting and targeting consumers. Lifestyle and psychographic analysis explicitly addresses the way consumers outwardly express their inner selves in their social and cultural environment (Lamb et al 2004:168).

4.4.2 Situational influences on consumer decisions

As discussed above, those internal factors such as how people perceive marketing messages, their motivation to acquire products, and their unique personalities influence the decisions they make. In addition, when, where, and how consumers shop – what are called situational influences – shape their purchase choices. Some important situational cues are physical surroundings and time pressures (Solomon et al 2006:151).

4.4.2.1 The physical environment

The physical environment includes all the nonhuman, physical aspects of the field in which consumer behaviour occurs. Virtually any aspects of the physical environment can affect consumer behaviour. The physical environment can be divided into spatial and nonspatial elements. Spatial elements include physical objects of all types (including product and brands), as well as countries, cities, stores, and interior design. Nonspatial elements include intangible factors such as temperature, humidity, illumination, noise level, and time. Marketers need to understand how various aspects of the physical environment influence consumers' affect, cognitions, and behaviours (Peter & Olson 2005:268).

Two dimensions, arousal and pleasure, determine whether a shopper will react positively or negatively to a store environment. In other words, the person's surroundings can be either dull or exciting (arousing) and either pleasant or unpleasant. The importance of these surroundings explains why many retailers focus on packing as much entertainment as possible into their stores. In-store displays are a marketing communication tool that attracts attention. Although most displays consist of simple racks that dispense the product or related coupons, some marketers use elaborate performances and scenery to display their products. Advertisers also are being more aggressive

about hitting consumers with their messages, wherever they may be (Solomon et al 2006:151-152).

4.4.2.1 Time

In addition to the physical environment, time is another situational factor. Time has a great effect on consumer behaviour (Peter & Olson 2005:268). Marketers know that the time of the day, the season of the year, and how much time one has to make a purchase affect decision making. Time is one of consumers' most limited resources. Indeed, many consumers believe that they are more pressed for time than ever before. This sense of time poverty makes consumers responsive to marketing innovations that allow them to save time (Solomon et al 2006:152).

4.4.3 Social influences on consumer decisions

Outside the family the individual consumer operates within a social environment dominated by groups of others. These social groups to which an individual consumer belongs impact the behaviour of its members through the determination of group norms, the development of group values and also the exchange of information (Baker & Hart 2008: 116). Families, friends, and classmates often influence our decisions, as do larger groups with which we

identify, such as ethnic groups and political parties (Solomon et al 2006:152). Social influences including culture, subculture, social class, Group memberships, Opinion leaders, and sex roles are explained in more details below.

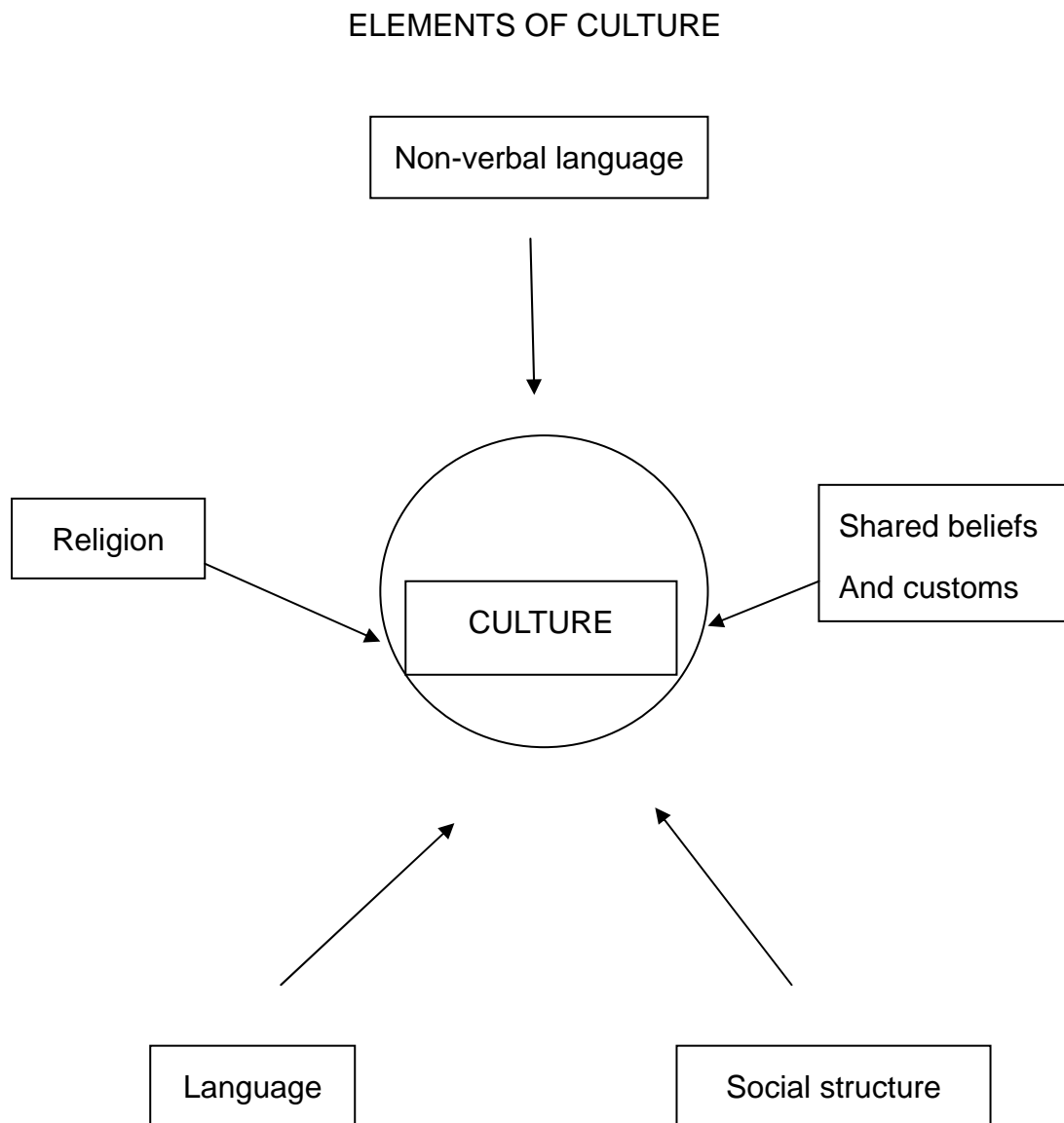
4.4.3.1 Culture

According to Mooij (2004:26), people are dependent upon the control mechanisms of culture for ordering their behaviour. In line with this, culture is defined as “the collective mental programming of the people in an environment. Culture is not a characteristic of individuals; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience”.

Culture is obviously a major consideration when crossing national boundaries: managers typically underestimate the possible impact of cultural differences, causing a “shock” effect. Culture is easier to recognize than define, but a nation’s culture represents a collective frame of reference through which a wide range of issues and problems are interpreted. It determines how symbols, sounds, pictures and behaviour are perceived and interpreted by individuals and affects socialization, friendship patterns, social institutions, aesthetics and language (Blythe 2006:308).

Culture consists of the following main elements as shown in figure 4.4:

FIGURE 4.4



SOURCE: Blythe 2006:309

- Religion. Even if the bulk of the population is non-practising, the prevailing religion permeates the culture: this is the case with Christianity in Britain, and with Islam in Turkey;
- Language. The language shapes the nation's thought, because some concepts are difficult to express in some languages, while others are easily expressed;
- Social structure. This may range from the rigid caste structure of India through to the so-called "classless society" of Australia. Social structure also includes gender roles and family patterns;
- Shared beliefs and ethics. Beliefs about what is and is not acceptable behaviour are largely cultural. Most of these beliefs are driven from religious principles; and
- Non-verbal language. This includes gestures and body language: while some gestures are universal (for example smiling) most are not. Japanese people smile less in public than they do in private, whereas Americans smile more in public than they do in private.

Advertising has been the most closely studied method of transferring cultural meaning from the physical and social environments into products (Peter & Olson 2005:296). From a cultural perspective, celebrities are cultural objects with specific cultural meanings. In developing an effective celebrity endorsements strategy, marketers must be careful to select a celebrity who has appropriate meanings consistent with the overall marketing strategy for the product.

4.4.3.2 Subculture

According to Lamb et al (2004:157), a culture can be divided into subcultures on the basis of demographic characteristics, geographic regions, national and ethnic background, political beliefs, and religious beliefs. A subculture is a homogeneous group of people who share elements of the overall culture as well as cultural elements unique to their own group. Within subcultures, people's attitudes, values, and purchase decisions are even more similar than they are within the broader culture. Subcultural differences may result in considerable variation within a culture in what, how, when, and where people buy goods and services.

Subculture is often categorized on the basis of demographics. Thus for example, we have the "teenage" subculture and the "old affluent" subculture.

While part of the overall culture, these groups often have distinguishing characteristics. Values tend to be associated with age groups because people within an age group have shared experiences. Geographic region – that is, rural, villages, towns, peri-urban and metropolitan – is a significant subcultural consumer group. In South Africa, various toiletries, food and grocery consumption patterns are evident in the more rural provinces of Limpopo and the Eastern Cape as compared to the more urbanized provinces of Gauteng and the Western Cape. Other examples of important South African subcultural groups are language communities – Afrikaans, English, Sotho, Xhosa, Zulu, etc., racial population groups – Asian, African, coloured and white, and religions – various denominations (Cant et al 2006:59-60).

4.4.3.3 Social class

A social class is a group of people in a country who are considered equal in status or community esteem, who socialize together on a regular basis formally and informally, and who share behaviour patterns (Cant et al 2006:76). However, Sheth and Mittal (2004:68) argue that social class is the relative standing of members of a society so that a higher position implies a higher status than those in a lower social class.

Identification with each social class is influenced most strongly by one's level of education and occupation (including income as a measure of work success). Social class is also affected by social skills, status aspirations, community participation, family history, cultural level, recreational habits, physical appearance, and social acceptance by a particular class. Social class and relative standing within a class are important sources of consumers' beliefs, values, and behaviours. Most of the people an individual interacts with on a day-to-day basis are likely to be members of that person's social class. Family, peer groups, and friends at work, school, and in the neighborhood are all likely to be of the same social class. These people teach the individual appropriate values for the class as well as behaviours that acceptable to it (Peter & Olson 2005:339-340).

4.4.3.4 Group memberships

Anyone who's ever "gone along with the crowd" knows that people act differently in groups than they do on their own. There are several reasons for this phenomenon. With more people in a group, it becomes less likely that any one member will be singled out for attention, and normal restraints on behaviour may be reduced. In many cases, group members show a greater willingness to consider riskier alternatives than they would if each member made the decision alone. Consumers often change their behaviour to gain

acceptance into a particular reference group. Conformity is at work when a person changes as a reaction to real or imagined group pressure. For example, a student getting dressed to go to a fraternity rush may choose to wear clothing similar to what he knows the brothers will be wearing so that he is accepted by the group (Solomon et al 2006:155-156).

4.4.3.5 Opinion leaders

Reference groups frequently include individuals known as group leaders or opinion leaders, which are those who influence others. Many products and services that are integral parts of our lives today got their initial boost from these influential opinion leaders. Opinion leaders are often the first to try new products and services out of pure curiosity. They are typically activists in their communities, on the job and in the marketplace. Furthermore, opinion leaders tend to be self-indulgent, which makes them more likely to explore new, unproven but intriguing products and services. This combination of curiosity, activism and self-indulgence makes opinion leaders trendsetters in the consumer marketplace. As a result marketers often try to create opinion leaders. They may use high school cheerleaders to model new summer fashions or civic leaders to promote insurance, new cars and other merchandise. On a national level, firms sometimes use movie stars, sports figures and other celebrities to promote products, hoping they are appropriate opinion leaders (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff & Terblanche 2004:96-97).

4.4.3.6 Sex roles

Some of the strongest pressures to conform come from our sex roles, society's expectations regarding the appropriate attitudes, behaviours, and appearance for men and women. These assumptions about the proper roles of men and women, are deeply ingrained in marketing communications. Marketers play a part in teaching us how society expects us to act as men and women. As consumers, we see women and men portrayed differently in marketing communications and in products promoted to the two groups. These influences teach us what the "proper" role of women or men is and, in addition, which products are appropriate for each gender (Solomon et al 2006:158).

4.5 CUSTOMER LOYALTY

Cant et al (2006:275) hold that customer loyalty means more than customers making repeat purchases, and being satisfied with their experiences and the products or services they purchased. It means that customers are committed to purchasing products and services from a specific organization, and will resist the activities of competitors attempting to attract their patronage. According to Li (2004:58), consumer loyalty means not only that consumers prefer to shop at one store over another, but also that they are committed to

shopping at a particular store. For example, a student may continue to shop at Nike stores even if Adidas opens up a store nearby and offers a slightly superior assortment. The foregoing definition of consumer loyalty includes both behaviour and attitude and could result in four possible situations as shown in Figure 4.5.

FIGURE 4.5

LOYALTY NEEDS BOTH ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOUR

		BEHAVIOUR	
		STRONG	WEAK
ATTITUDE	STRONG	Loyalty	Latent Loyalty
	WEAK	Spurious Loyalty	No Loyalty

Source: Adapted from Li 2004:58

Figure 4.5 show that when both attitude and behaviour are weak, no loyalty exists. Weak attitude means the consumer do not have any liking or preference for the brand and purchase of the brand is sporadic. When both liking and

preference are strong, loyalty exists. According to Solomon et al (2006:278), for brand loyalty to exist, a pattern of repeat purchase must be accompanied by an underlying positive attitude towards the brand.

When behaviour is strong but attitude is weak, the consumer has spurious loyalty, that is, loyalty that is incidental and not well founded. Sheth and Mittal (2004:401) maintain that a consumer might buy the same brand again and again or shop at the same store regularly, but feel no preferential attitude towards it. The choice of the brand or store could be due to reasons of convenience or mere inertia, since the consumer perceives all brands to be more or less the same.

Finally, in the quadrant with high attitude and low behaviour (see Figure 4.5), the consumer has latent loyalty. He or she likes the brand but has been unable to buy it; the reasons might be that the price is too high and cannot be afforded anymore, or that the consumer lacks access to the brand or the store.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2000:185) confirm that consumers can remain loyal to a brand with which they have been satisfied instead of purchasing new or untried brands and so can avoid risk. Some companies develop several different products under the same brand name to increase consumer loyalty.

For example, Woolworths stores in South Africa offer different products under the same brand. In other words, name recognition has become so valuable that many companies are completely outsourcing production to focus on nurturing the brand (Solomon et al 2006:170).

4.6 SUMMARY

Consumer behaviour describes how consumers make purchase decisions and how they use and dispose of goods or services. Factors that influence purchase decisions and product use are also included (Lamb et al 2004:142).

The consumer decision-making process occurs when consumers recognize the desired state that they want or need to be in. Thus, understanding one's own decision-making processes might improve further decision-making.

When analyzing the buying decision-making process, it is very important for marketers to understand the types of consumer decision-making and the steps followed in purchasing decisions. Understanding the process helps marketers organize marketing efforts in a fashion that is responsive to customer decision-making imperatives (Sheth & Mittal 2004:275).

The consumer decision-making process begins with need recognition, followed by information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase behaviour.

The steps in consumer purchasing behaviour are directly and indirectly influenced by internal or situational factors as well as social factors. Internal influences include factors such as perception, motivation, learning, attitude, personality, age group and lifestyle. Situational influences include factors of the physical environment and the time. Social influences include factors such as culture, subculture, social class, group membership, opinion leaders and sex roles.

Consumer loyalty is defined as “a consumer commitment to a brand, store or supplier based on a strong favourable attitude and manifested in consistent repatronage” (Sheth & Mittal 2004:400). Consumer loyalty includes behaviour and attitude split into four situations, namely, loyalty, latent loyalty, spurious loyalty and no loyalty.

In chapter 4 the details of consumer decision-making process and the factors influences on the buying decision have been discussed. Chapter 5 will focus on the empirical findings, verifying NMMU students' attitude and behaviour on the use of celebrity endorsements of printed advertisements.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS: THE NMMU STUDENTS' ATTITUDE AND
BEHAVIOUR ON THE USE OF CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENTS OF
PRINTED ADVERTISEMENTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 provided a description of the consumer behaviour concept and customer decision-making process, as well as customer loyalty. Chapter 5 reports on the findings of the empirical study. First, this chapter starts with brief discussion of the demographic information gathered from respondents. The remainder of this section reports on the findings relating to six factors of consumers' characteristics that verify NMMU students' attitude and behaviour on the use of celebrity endorsements of printed advertisements.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

The demographic data of the respondents, relating to gender, age, campus of study, qualification and race, is presented in Tables 5.1 to 5.5. The data was gathered from Section C of the questionnaire.

5.2.1 Gender

The questionnaire was completed by 170 male (48.9%) and 178 female (51.1%) students. Of these, slightly more than half of the students were female. Table 5.1 shows a comparison based on gender.

TABLE 5.1
GENDER OF STUDENTS

GENDER	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
MALE	170	48.9
FEMALE	178	51.1
TOTAL	348	100

5.2.2 Age

Table 5.2 illustrates that 60.5% of the students were in the 18 – 21 years age bracket, followed by 32.1% were in the age group 22 -25 years and 7.4% of the students were older than 25 years. The majority of students belonged to 18 – 21 years bracket.

TABLE 5.2
AGE OF STUDENTS

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
18 – 21 YEARS	211	60.5
22 – 25 YEARS	112	32.1
ABOVE 25 YEARS	26	7.4
TOTAL	349	100

5.2.3 Campus

Respondents were also requested to indicate their campus of study. The results are shown in Table 5.3. It is evident that slightly more than half (52.6%) of the students were studying at the South campus, followed by students studying at North campus (27.3%). The remaining students (20.1%) were studying at the Second Avenue campus.

TABLE 5.3

CAMPUS OF STUDY OF STUDENTS

CAMPUS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
SOUTH CAMPUS	183	52.6
NORTH CAMPUS	95	27.3
SECOND AVENUE CAMPUS	70	20.1
TOTAL	348	100

5.2.4 Qualification

Table 5.4 depicts the qualification of the respondents at three different campuses. 39.5% of students were studying towards a diploma, 52.1% of students were studying towards a degree, followed by 5.2% of students who were studying towards a masters qualification. The remaining 3.2% of students were studying towards other non-defined qualifications.

TABLE 5.4
QUALIFICATIONS OF STUDENTS

QUALIFICATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
DIPLOMA	138	39.5
DEGREE	182	52.1
MASTER	18	5.2
OTHER	11	3.2
TOTAL	349	100

5.2.5 Race

Table 5.5 shows the race distribution of students. The majority of students were Black (64.7%), the smallest proportion of students, regarding race were Indian (2.6%).

TABLE 5.5
RACE OF STUDENTS

RACE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
BLACK	225	64.7
WHITE	38	10.9
COLOURED	58	16.7
INDIAN	9	2.6
ASIAN	18	5.2
TOTAL	348	100

5.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Reliability and validity are crucial criteria in the evaluation of variables. Despite the fact that these two terms are often used interchangeably in everyday speech, they refer to different aspects of the qualities of variables (Hardy & Bryman 2004:22). These concepts are explained in more detail below.

5.3.1 Validity of research instrument

Validity is concerned with the issue of whether a variable really measures what it is supposed to measure (Hardy & Bryman 2004:23). The validation of a scale involves the collection of empirical evidence concerning its use. The main types of validity are content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Pallant 2001:6-7).

- Content validity. This refers to the adequacy with which a measure or scale has sampled from the intended universe or domain of content.
- Criterion validity. This concerns the relationship between scale scores and some specified, measurable criterion.
- Construct validity. This involves testing a scale, not against a single criterion, but in terms of theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the nature of the underlying variable or construct.

5.3.2 Reliability of research instrument

According to Hardy & Bryman (2004:22-23), reliability is concerned with the consistency of a variable. There are two identifiable aspects of the issue: external and internal reliability. If a variable is externally reliable it does not fluctuate greatly over time; in other words, it is stable. Internal reliability is an

issue which arises in connection with multiple-indicator variables. If a variable is internally reliable it is coherent. This means that all the constituent indicators are measuring the same thing. The most commonly used statistic is Cronbach's coefficient alpha. This statistic provides an indication of the average correlation among all of the items that make up the scale. Values range from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating greater reliability (Pallant 2001:6).

5.4 RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

The raw data was captured in MS Excel and subjected to analysis using the statistical program Statistica version 6. Factor analysis was performed using the principal axis method with direct quartimin rotation of factors. Direct quartimin rotation is an oblique method resulting in factors that are correlated. Based on these criteria, six factors were deemed appropriate for this study and contained a total of 34 items of Section A of the questionnaire. Two items "the most advertised brands are usually good choice" and "I am impulsive when purchasing clothing" were excluded from the analysis because they did not fit any of the resulting factors. The remaining item-loadings ranged from 0.30 to 0.75.

Cronbach's coefficient alphas were calculated to determine the reliability of the derived summated factor scale scores. The resulting values, which ranged from 0.5 to 0.9 are listed in Table 5.6. Reliability coefficients lower than 0.60 are deemed to be questionable. Those close to 0.70 acceptable, and those larger than 0.80, good (Sekaran 2003:311).

The resulting factors were termed: brand conscious, perfectionistic, high-quality conscious, recreational, hedonistic conscious, AIDA framework, source attributes and celebrity endorsement impact.

TABLE 5.6

RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR NMMU STUDENTS

Factor items	Item Loading	Cronbach alpha
Factor 1 – Brand conscious		
I have favourite brands that I buy over and over	0.56	Alpha= 0.8
Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it	0.55	
The most expensive brands are usually my choice	0.67	
I prefer buying well-known national brands	0.65	
I prefer buying the best selling brands	0.45	
My desire to purchase is influenced by the brand name	0.44	

Factor 2 – Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious		
I make repeat purchases in particular stores I like	0.30	Alpha= 0.5
I take the time to shop carefully for best buys	0.46	
I carefully watch how much I spend on clothing	0.40	
I make a special effort to choose the very best quality clothing	0.63	
Factor 3 – Recreational, hedonistic conscious		
My shopping trips are fast	0.75	Alpha= 0.6
Shopping is not a pleasant activity for me	0.62	
Factor 4 – AIDA framework		
I notice when famous people appear in a newspaper or magazine advertisement	0.53	Alpha= 0.9
A celebrity endorser in print advertisements creates enough interest to hold my attention	0.75	
I would like to own products that are advertised by famous people	0.70	
I am encouraged to buy products that are advertised by famous people	0.82	
I pay close attention to advertisements when I have high motivation/involvement with the brand/product	0.34	
A famous person in an advertisement gets my attention more than the other product/brand being advertised	0.33	
A famous person influences my adoption of a product	0.48	
Factor 5 – Source attributes		
I believe that famous people are used in print advertisements because of their expertise	0.35	
Using famous people in print advertisements makes the advertisements more believable	0.36	

Using a famous person in print advertisements makes the clothing more attractive	0.38	Alpha= 0.8
Using a famous person in the print advertisements makes a brand more likable	0.41	
A famous person is likely to know about and understand the products attributes-advantages and disadvantages	0.75	
The famous person is a credible source of information about the product	0.73	
My desire to purchase is influenced by famous persons	0.35	
Factor 6 – Celebrity endorsement impact		
Complementary pictures and wording are both necessary in an ad for me to make a purchase decision	0.35	Alpha= 0.9
For a familiar product, the famous person used in the ad influences my purchase decision	0.43	
For an unfamiliar product, the famous person used in the ad influences my purchase decision	0.61	
Because of the famous person, I continue to read the entire advertisement	0.66	
A famous person creates enough interest to hold my attention even if I have no desire for the product	0.68	
If I had no previous desire for the product, a famous person increases the possibility that I will buy the product	0.71	
A famous person makes an ad for a product that I desire more memorable	0.72	
A famous person increases my awareness of the brand name of a product that I desire	0.71	

5.5 A COMPARISON OF THE RESPONDENTS BY MALE AND FEMALE

Table 5.7 was constructed to compare the difference between NMMU male and female students' buying behaviour. To facilitate comparisons, the findings are arranged according to the six-factor grouping.

TABLE 5.7

COMPARISON OF NMMU MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS' VIEWS

Factor items	Mean scores	
	Male	Female
Factor 1 – Brand conscious	3.311458	3.097466
I have favourite brands that I buy over and over	3.700000	3.418079
Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it	3.532934	3.382022
The most expensive brands are usually my choice	2.857988	2.528409
I prefer buying well-known national brands	3.276471	3.147727
I prefer buying the best selling brands	3.139394	2.971591
My desire to purchase is influenced by the brand name	3.392857	3.120690
Factor 2 – Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious	3.693939	3.658824
I make repeat purchases in particular stores I like	3.727811	3.803468
I take the time to shop carefully for best buys	3.491124	3.630682
I carefully watch how much I spend on clothing	3.577381	3.551724
I make a special effort to choose the very best quality clothing	3.994083	3.689266

Factor 3 – Recreational, hedonistic conscious	3.110119	2.482659
My shopping trips are fast	3.416667	2.645714
Shopping is not a pleasant activity for me	2.794118	2.329545
Factor 4 – AIDA framework	2.947059	3.008306
I notice when famous people appear in a newspaper or magazine advertisement	3.082353	3.180791
A celebrity endorser in print advertisements creates enough interest to hold my attention	2.911765	2.887640
I would like to own products that are advertised by famous people	2.923529	2.910112
I am encouraged to buy products that are advertised by famous people	2.758824	2.824859
I pay close attention to advertisements when I have high motivation/involvement with the brand/product	3.405882	3.432584
A famous person in an advertisement gets my attention more than the other product/brand being advertised	2.941176	2.965714
A famous person influences my adoption of a product	2.605882	2.793103
Factor 5 – Source attributes	2.876076	2.863986
I believe that famous people are used in print advertisements because of their expertise	2.682353	2.758621
Using famous people in print advertisements makes the advertisements more believable	3.041176	2.931034
Using a famous person in print advertisements makes the clothing more attractive	3.311377	3.401163
Using a famous person in the print advertisements makes a brand more likable	3.382353	3.560000
A famous person is likely to know about and	2.676471	2.588571

understand the products attributes-advantages and disadvantages		
The famous person is a credible source of information about the product	2.570588	2.531429
My desire to purchase is influenced by famous persons	2.455621	2.281609
Factor 6 – Celebrity endorsement impact	3.044970	2.974564
Complementary pictures and wording are both necessary in an ad for me to make a purchase decision	3.282353	3.387283
For a familiar product, the famous person used in the ad influences my purchase decision	2.798817	2.772727
For an unfamiliar product, the famous person used in the ad influences my purchase decision	2.905325	2.926136
Because of the famous person, I continue to read the entire advertisement	3.017751	2.977143
A famous person creates enough interest to hold my attention even if I have no desire for the product	2.947059	2.943182
If I had no previous desire for the product, a famous person increases the possibility that I will buy the product	2.870588	2.710227
A famous person makes an ad for a product that I desire more memorable	3.065476	2.982955
A famous person increases my awareness of the brand name of a product that I desire	3.311377	3.153409

5.5.1 Brand conscious

Item loadings on this factor described well-known national brands and most expensive brands to be superior to other brands. Relatively, high scores also indicate that students believe that the best selling brands are very good. While both male and female students deemed “I have favourite brands that I buy over and over” as the most important factor.

5.5.2 Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious

This factor represents items reflecting students who sought to maximize quality, to get the best choice and value for money, who watch carefully on their spending and had high expectations for products. Male students deemed “I make a special effort to choose the very best quality clothing” as the most important item. Female students thought “I make repeat purchases in particular stores I like” as the most important factor item.

5.5.3 Recreational, hedonistic conscious

This factor had the lowest mean score of all six factors. Item loadings in this factor described enjoyment level of students. They consider shopping as an interesting activity for them and do not mind spending time on it. As shown in

Table 5.7 both male and female students seem to have fast shopping behaviour.

5.5.4 AIDA framework

The main AIDA influence is the celebrity endorser's ability to get and hold attention. Celebrity endorsers also appear to help products stand out from the competition, and make ads memorable, as well as enhancing brand awareness. Item mean scores in this factor showed that students pay close attention to advertisements when they have high motivation/involvement with the product/brand. The next factor which gets strong student attention is the use of a famous person.

5.5.5 Source attributes

Item loadings in this factor described credibility, attractiveness, and power. Each category influences the students' attitude or behaviour through different processes known as internalization, identification, and compliance. This theory is better known in advertising and mass communication. Both female and male students strongly agreed that using a famous person in the print advertisements makes a brand more likable. They also agreed that using famous people in the print advertisements makes the clothing more attractive.

5.5.6 Celebrity endorsement impact

Item loadings in this factor determined the impact of celebrity endorsements on male and female student preferences. By understanding the impact of celebrity endorsements on influencing students' selection decisions, and appreciating the importance of various celebrity source characteristics, advertisers may be able to better select and use celebrity endorsers to create more effective advertisements. As may be seen in Table 5.7, male students agreed that a famous person increases their awareness of the brand name of a product that they desire. Female students strongly agreed that complementary pictures and wording were most affect their purchase decision. Both groups agreed that because of the famous person, they continue to read the entire advertisements.

5.6 COMPARISON OF INFLUENCES ON PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

This section concentrated on the section B of the questionnaire. The most important factor corresponds with the highest value. In other words, the first ranked factor was given the highest value of three, the second ranked factor was given the value of two, and the third ranked factor was given the value of one.

5.6.1 Personal factors

TABLE 5.8
PERSONAL FACTORS

FACTOR	COUNT	PERCENTAGE
PERSONALITY	$77 \times 3 = 231$ $77 \times 2 = 154$ $51 \times 1 = 51$	$n = 436$ 42.0%
LIFESTYLE	$69 \times 3 = 207$ $60 \times 2 = 120$ $54 \times 1 = 54$	$n = 381$ 36.7%
MOTIVATION	$34 \times 3 = 102$ $35 \times 2 = 70$ $49 \times 1 = 49$	$n = 221$ 21.3%

According to Lamb et al (2004:167), personality combines psychological makeup and environmental forces. It includes people's underlying dispositions, especially their most dominant characteristics. According to these outlines, personality is one of the least useful concepts in the study of consumer behaviour. However, some marketers believe that personality influences the types and brands of products purchased. It is interesting to

note that Table 5.8 shows that the students ranked personality (42.0%) as the first factor that most influenced their purchase behaviour.

The second most ranked factor was lifestyle (36.7%). This shows that students are likely to determine how to spend their own time, money and energy. It also shows students had a high self-concept. In other words, students perceive themselves in terms of attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and self-evaluation.

Motivation (21.3%) was ranked as the third most dominant influence on students' buying behaviour. This explains that students might with high concentration on certain things that might satisfy their own needs. In the Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, as a person fulfills one need, a higher level need becomes more important.

5.6.2 Social factors

TABLE 5.9
SOCIAL FACTORS

FACTOR	COUNT	PERCENTAGE
CULTURE	$125 \times 3 = 375$ $49 \times 2 = 98$ $47 \times 1 = 47$	n=520 44.7%
SOCIAL CLASS	$55 \times 3 = 165$ $82 \times 2 = 164$ $50 \times 1 = 50$	n=379 32.6%
SEX ROLES	$41 \times 3 = 123$ $40 \times 2 = 80$ $62 \times 1 = 62$	n=265 22.8%

As shown in table 5.9, culture (44.7%) ranked as the first influence, followed by social class (32.6%). The third most ranked influence was sex roles (22.8%). Culture is explained as a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience. In the current study, there were five different races of students being investigated. Results indicate that students

with different socialization, friendship patterns, social institutions aesthetics and languages might have different patterns of buying behaviour.

Social class is affected by education, occupation, family, and community, and so on. When students come from the same institution, similar friends and peer groups, and they are likely to be of the same social class.

Sex roles are classified by gender. Students seem to have different perceptions, expectations or attitudes on ladies and men clothing buying behaviour. They believed that marketing communication messages should differentiate between men and women.

5.6.3 Shopping environment factors

Environment may influence customers' decision making, including when, where and how consumers shop. As discussed earlier in chapter 4, stores, interior design, temperature, noise level, and illumination are the physical environment that can influence consumer buying behaviour. Other situational factors such as time of the day, season of the year, and how much time one has to make a purchase affect decision making.

The results gathered from section B of the questionnaire show that the average means of all factors was 3.36, which means students perception leaned slightly towards the “agree” side. Students stated that the interior shop design, temperature, noise level, staff and time would minimally influence their buying behaviour.

5.7 COMPARISON OF FACTOR MEAN SCORES

To better illustrate the differences among those mean scores showed in Table 5.7, Figure 5.1 was constructed. This comparison shows that the mean scores of all six factors scored a similar average. The exception was factor four.

FIGURE 5.1

FACTOR MEAN SCORES: MALE STUDENTS COMPARED TO FEMALE STUDENTS

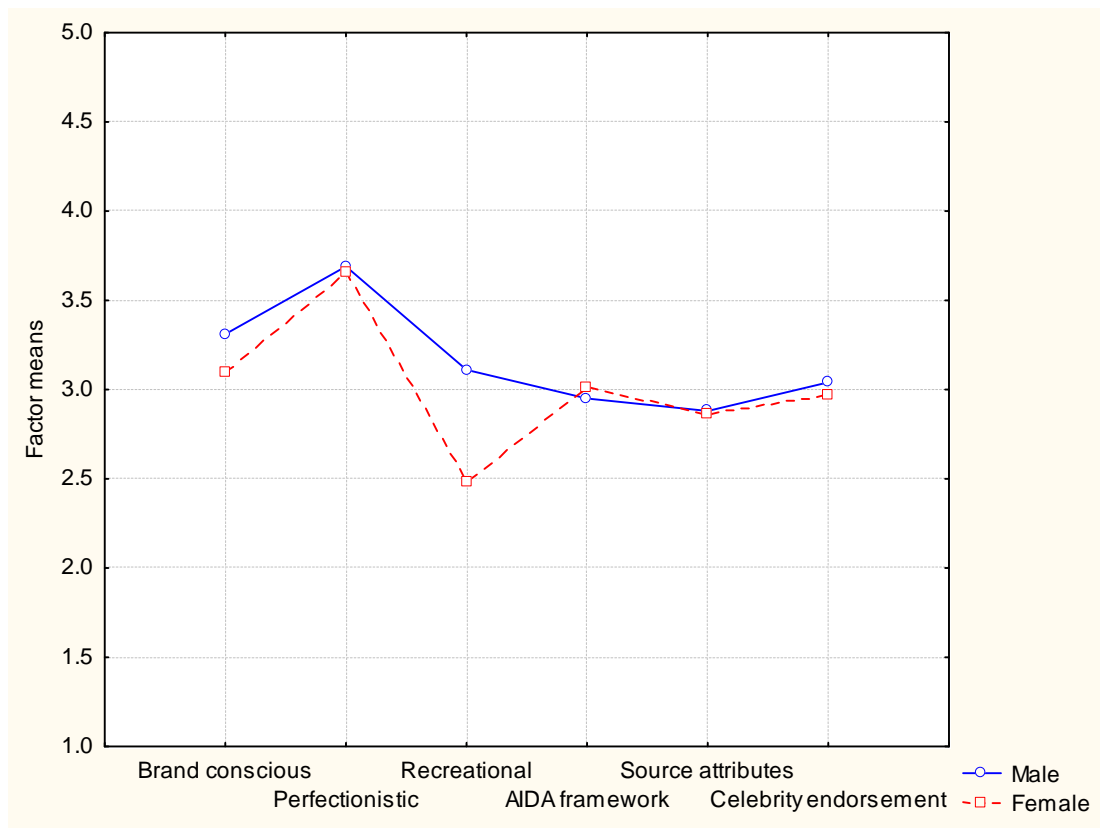


Figure 5.1 shows that perfectionistic, high-quality conscious was the most important to male and female students. Brand conscious took the second position in the case of male students, but female students thought that it would only be in the third position. A significant difference between recreational, hedonistic conscious existed between male and female students. Males scored higher than females. This shows that female students regard shopping as a more enjoyable activity than male students. In terms of the

AIDA framework the opposite existed. Female students had higher motivations than males. The remaining factors followed the same order of importance for both groups.

5.8 COMPARISONS BASED ON RESPONDENTS' DEMOGRAPHICS

Since the mean score was an important indicator of exploring the difference between male and female students, the respondents' demographic information, including gender, age, campus of study, qualification and race, was used to distinguish to this effect.

5.8.1 Comparison based on gender

To explore the impact of gender on the mean scores, the respondents were divided into two groups, namely male students and female students. Table 5.10 records the comparison of the mean scores according to gender.

TABLE 5.10

FACTOR AND DIMENSION MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO GENDER

Factor and Dimension	Mean scores	
	Male	Female
Brand conscious	3.31	3.10
Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious	3.69	3.66
Recreational, hedonistic conscious	3.11	2.48
AIDA framework	2.95	3.01
Source attributes	2.88	2.86
Celebrity endorsement impact	3.04	2.97
Average	3.16	3.01

From Table 5.10 above, it is evident that the mean scores of males were higher than females. However, males had lower score on the AIDA framework (M=2.95 and 3.01 respectively).

The significance of the differences in the means of the factors and of the dimensions was calculated by means of analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results (attached in Annexure B) showed that the two groups – male and female did differ significantly with respect to “Brand conscious” and “Recreational, hedonistic conscious”.

5.8.2 Comparison based on age

To explore the impact of age on the mean scores, the respondents were categorised into three age groups, namely 18 to 21 years, 22 to 25 years, and above 25 years. Table 5.9 records the comparison of the mean scores according to age groups.

TABLE 5.11

FACTOR AND DIMENSION MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO AGE

Factor and Dimension	Means scores		
	18-21	22-25	Above 25
Brand conscious	3.18	3.29	3.02
Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious	3.67	3.63	3.96
Recreational, hedonistic conscious	2.71	2.83	3.23
AIDA framework	2.95	3.04	2.93
Source attributes	2.87	2.85	2.95
Celebrity endorsement impact	3.00	2.97	3.27
Average	3.06	3.10	3.23

As shown in Table 5.11, the results indicated students over 25 years of age had higher scores on “Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious”, “Recreational,

hedonistic conscious”, “Source attributes”, and the dimension “Celebrity endorsement impact” than students aged 18-21 and 22-25. Students in the 22-25 years considered “Brand conscious” and “AIDA framework” more important than other group.

The significance of the differences based on age group has been calculated and is shown in Annexure C. The result showed that the three groups – 18-21, 22-25 and above 25 did not differ significantly with respect to any of the factors or the dimensions.

5.8.3 Comparison based on campus

To explore the impact of the campuses variable on the mean scores, the respondents were categorised into three groups according to their campus of study, namely South, North, and Second Avenue campuses. Table 5.12 shows the comparison of the mean scores according to campus.

TABLE 5.12

FACTOR AND DIMENSION MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO CAMPUS

Factor and Dimension	Means scores		
	South	North	2 nd Avenue
Brand conscious	3.14	3.26	3.28
Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious	3.69	3.71	3.60
Recreational, hedonistic conscious	2.87	2.91	2.44
AIDA framework	2.90	3.03	3.13
Source attributes	2.77	2.98	2.99
Celebrity endorsement impact	2.97	3.03	3.07
Average	3.06	3.15	3.09

Table 5.12 shows that the students who study at the North campus rated “Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious” and “Recreational, hedonistic conscious” higher than other groups. Students at 2nd avenue rated “Brand conscious”, “AIDA framework”, “Source attributes” and “Celebrity endorsement impact” higher than other groups. There are significant differences among South, North and 2nd Avenue campuses. See Annexure D.

5.8.4 Comparison based on qualification

To explore the impact of qualification on the mean scores, the respondents were divided into four segments according to the level of qualification they studied in NMMU. These are: Diploma, Degree, Master and Other. Table 5.13 demonstrates the comparison of the mean scores according to qualification.

TABLE 5.13
FACTOR AND DIMENSION MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO
QUALIFICATION

Factor and Dimension	Means scores			
	Diploma	Degree	Master	Other
Brand conscious	3.24	3.21	2.96	2.92
Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious	3.64	3.75	3.26	3.70
Recreational, hedonistic conscious	2.65	2.87	2.69	3.32
AIDA framework	3.03	2.96	2.85	2.92
Source attributes	2.97	2.80	2.63	3.09
Celebrity endorsement impact	3.05	2.99	2.82	3.06
Average	3.10	3.10	2.87	3.17

Table 5.13 above shows that, on average, students who had studied “other” had the highest average score (M=3.17). Students who studied toward diplomas and degrees had the same average scores (M=3.10), which means they had similar perceptions about celebrity endorsements in print advertising. Master students had the lowest average score (M=2.87), which indicates that they are not as easily influenced by advertising as the other groups.

The significance of the differences based on qualification has been calculated and is shown in Annexure E. The result showed that the four groups – Diploma, Degree, Master and other did differ significantly with respect to factor 2.

5.8.5 Comparison based on race

To explore the impact of race on the mean scores, the respondents were divided into five segments according to the race, namely Black, White, Coloured, Indian and Asian. Table 5.14 records the comparison of the mean scores according to race.

TABLE 5.14

FACTOR AND DIMENSION MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO RACE

Factor and Dimension	Mean scores				
	Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Asian
Brand conscious	3.29	2.80	3.09	3.06	3.34
Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious	3.72	3.58	3.66	3.63	3.42
Recreational, hedonistic conscious	2.70	3.05	3.02	2.28	2.97
AIDA framework	3.04	2.72	2.76	3.46	3.13
Source attributes	2.88	2.60	2.97	3.30	2.81
Celebrity endorsement impact	3.02	2.75	3.06	3.31	3.09
Average	3.11	2.92	3.10	3.17	3.13

The results from Table 5.14 indicated that the Indian scored higher on average than other groups (M=3.17). Followed by Asian (M=3.13). This implies these two groups of students are more likely to be influenced by brand or advertisements. Coloured students rated "Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious" (M=3.66) as the most important of all factors, which indicates they consider quality and self-expectations as a very important factor.

The significance of the differences based on race has been calculated and is shown in Annexure F. The result showed that the five groups – Black, White, Coloured, Indian and Asian did differ significantly with respect to factor 1 and factor 4.

5.9 SUMMARY

The result of the empirical study were presented and analysed in this chapter. The report commenced with a description of the respondents' demographics, including gender, age, campus of study, qualification and race, followed by an assessment of the reliability and validity of the research instrument. The latter consisted of the difference between NMMU male and female students' buying behaviour, as well as whether there were different perceptions of students based on gender, age, campus of study, qualification and race.

The empirical findings showed that both male female students deemed perfectionistic, high-quality conscious and brand conscious as the most important attributes. Male students rated recreational and hedonistic conscious much higher than female students, as they have different enjoyment levels of shopping behaviour.

The final chapter contains a synopsis of the study, followed by the conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 6

SYNOPSIS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 and 4 covered the literature findings of consumer behaviour and celebrity endorsement, while chapter 5 reported on the empirical findings of the buying behaviour students enrolled at the NMMU. These three chapters provided the researchers with the basis for drawing conclusions and making recommendations. These are presented in the current chapter (following a synopsis of the study).

6.2 SYNOPSIS OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 began with the background and rationale of the study. The main problem and sub-problems followed and the significance of the research was given. The objectives and the research methodology were discussed and a review given of related literature was provided. Various key concepts were further defined.

Chapter 2 provided a detailed description of the research design and methodology. Exploratory and descriptive studies were selected as a choice of design for this study. A self-administrated questionnaire was chosen as the most appropriate data collection method. Quota sampling was used to draw the needed sample for this research study. Three hundred and forty nine useable questionnaires were received.

Chapter 3 contained a literature review on print advertising and celebrity endorsement. Print advertising can be classified as newspaper and magazine. Newspapers have a distinctive advantage, namely, mass audience coverage, flexibility and timeliness. Advantages of magazine are: large audiences, long lifespan, quality, beauty, prestige, elegance and snob appeal. The celebrity endorsement concept was explained, followed by the celebrity selection model, namely, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and the Meaning Transfer Model. The final section reported on the risks involved when using celebrity endorsers and the managerial implications for the effective use of celebrity endorsers.

Chapter 4 took the form of another literature study, which started with the consumer behavior concept, followed by the steps in consumer decision-making process, these referred to need (problem) recognition,

information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase behavior. A description was also given of internal, social and situational influences that influence consumer decision making. Lastly, consumer loyalty includes behaviour and attitude which is split into four situations, namely, loyalty, latent loyalty, spurious loyalty and those who had no loyalty.

Chapter 5 contained the results and analysis of the empirical findings. The explanation of the results began with a discussion of the demographic details of the respondents. This was followed by a comparison of male and female students' perception and buying behavior on how they react when they see celebrity endorsers in a print advertisement.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study addressed a popular method of marketing communication: the use of celebrity spokespersons in print advertising to endorse brands. A brief assessment of the current market situation indicates that celebrity endorsement advertising strategies can, under the right circumstances, indeed justify the high costs associated with this form of advertising. However, as several failures show, it is essential for advertisers to be aware of the complex processes underlying celebrity endorsement. This can be done by gaining an understanding of the described concepts of source credibility and

attractiveness, meaning transfer model, AIDA framework and celebrity endorsement. While these concepts can help to answer the question if and when celebrity advertising investments pay off, it has to be the goal of further research efforts to develop an extensive, consistent and user-friendly tool to avoid arbitrary decisions and enhance the strategic character of celebrity sponsorship decisions. The conclusions and the recommendations gathered from the empirical and the literature research are discussed in the following section.

6.3.1 Brand conscious

A brand is a name, term, symbol, design, or combination thereof that identifies a seller's products and differentiates them from competitors' products. Branding has three main purposes: product identification, repeat sales, and new product sales. The most important purpose is product identification. Branding allows marketers to distinguish their products from all others. Many brand names are familiar to consumers and indicate quality (Lamb et al 2004: 297). The findings of the current study showed that students have favourite brands that they buy over and over. And they are agreed that most expensive brands are not usually their choice. This might be due to students' current social position, as their budgets cannot afford this.

The fact is that positive celebrity information and image can transfer to the product/brand. But of equal importance, negative information can also transfer to the product/brand. This implies that firms should exercise extreme caution when choosing celebrity endorsers. Firms should also develop quick response contingency plans to counteract any possible negative information/events. The likely payoff associated with adopting the right celebrity endorser, as well as the high costs associated with tapping the wrong option are emphasized.

6.3.2 Perfectionistic, high-quality conscious

This factor represents students who sought to maximize quality, to get the best choice and value for money, and who carefully watch their spending and had higher expectations for products. This research revealed that students are likely to make special efforts to buy best quality clothing. Comparison shopping was therefore important for them. This may be a suggestion for advertisers to promote their products in a comparative way.

6.3.3 Recreational, hedonistic conscious

This factor described the shopping enjoyment level of students. In the findings, males had higher enjoyment levels than females. Males consider shopping as

a pleasant activity for them and their shopping trips are slower than females. This implies that male and female students had different opinions and lifestyles. Marketers then have to be aware of the typical shopping style characteristics of students and of the differences between the various population groups as this could have an influence on the effectiveness of their marketing strategies. A pleasant shopping environment contributes towards a large proportion of the respondent students enjoying their shopping experience.

6.3.4 AIDA framework

The AIDA framework proposes that consumers respond to marketing messages in a cognitive, affective, and conative sequence. The model suggests that promotional effectiveness can be measured in terms of consumers progressing from one stage to the next, and helps marketers by suggesting which promotional strategy will be more effective (Lamb et al 2004:477-478).

Regarding the AIDA impact, both male and female perceptions of the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers indicate that they do get attention and create interest, and make advertisements more memorable. Overall, males were more influenced by celebrity endorsers than females. But in the case for

AIDA framework, females were slightly more influenced than males. Since the awareness and interest portions of the AIDA framework are positively impacted by celebrity endorsers, it may be worth the cost of using them to help products stand out from the competition, even though desire and buying actions are less affected. The influence of a recognized celebrity endorser can positively impact all aspects of the AIDA framework. They definitely get attention and hold interest. Since getting attention and holding interest are important to getting consumers to notice and relate to well-conceived ads, such deals may be worthwhile.

6.3.5 Source attributes

Source credibility, attractiveness and power are three basic categories of source attributes as discussed in Chapter 3. In the current research, the attitude towards the advertisements in which celebrities are endorsed has been evaluated and they are making it easier to remember the advertising. The study also revealed that students agreed that using celebrity endorsers in print advertisements makes the advertisements more likable, believable and attractive. This implies that a strong influence would result in an advertisement with an attractive endorser rather than one with an unattractive endorser or just the product advertisement only. Moreover, the influence of physical attractiveness is also dependent on the product involvement of the

consumers. Similarly, with the products and the relative establishment of the strength of the advertised brands is important.

6.3.6 Celebrity endorsement impact

As explained in Chapter 3, celebrity endorsement is defined as any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition to back a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement. The findings of the current study showed that students favored pictures, colours and wordings featured in the advertisement when deciding on their purchase decisions. This suggests that students who purchase low involvement products will be attracted to peripheral cues such as endorsers and the colours of advertisements. The findings of the current research also showed that for a familiar product, celebrity endorsers used in the advertisements were not easy to influence students' purchase decision. This implies that the absence of an endorser seems to be more appropriate for low involvement products. This is especially so if the brand or products are firmly established in the markets or that the target audience is very familiar with them.

To determine “what sells in an advertisement?” in effective marketing communications, marketing managers will have to explore different combinations of advertising cues. This is dependent on the advertised product and the involvement of the target audience.

From the findings, students rated the influences by celebrity endorser in printed advertisements as the lowest. It can be inferred from the findings that other marketing mix or personal factors could influence students' purchase intentions. This suggests that while advertisements can create excitement and knowledge about a product, it cannot compensate for poor product quality or any other elements of the marketing mix.

Celebrity endorsements are by no means the answer to low brand awareness, product inadequacy, or an ill-conceived marketing strategy. Marketers must first have a specific concept in mind for a sequence of advertisements. The concept must be strong enough to be effective without a celebrity endorser. If a determination is made that a celebrity could enhance the marketing campaign, marketers should determine to what extent the celebrity should be used. The correct use of the right celebrity, selected in line with these findings, can help ensure greater consumer persuasion.

6.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

This study only focused on 363 students who were enrolled in NMMU in Port Elizabeth. It is recommended that further research be conducted including a larger sample of students in any of other educational institutions. In addition, this study only targeted students. It is therefore suggested that further research be conducted on a wider audience. Furthermore, a comparison of respondents with different age and race groups regarding their buying behavior can be elicited from further research.

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ANNEXURE A

P.O.BOX 20147
HUMEWOOD
PORT ELIZABETH
6013

Dear Sir/Madam

The attached questionnaire forms part of a research project in completion of an M-Tech degree in Marketing at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out how effective the use of celebrity endorsement in print advertising is when NMMU students make purchase decisions.

The questionnaire will only take 10 minutes to complete. The information you provide will remain anonymous and confidential and only aggregate figures will be reported.

It will be highly appreciated if you would complete the questionnaire, as your opinion can help to understand the NMMU students' purchasing behaviour.

Yours sincerely

ZiYu Liu

SECTION A

NMMU STUDENTS' PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

The items below relate to your perceptions and actual purchasing behaviours while you see printed advertising. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below, where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree.

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

(Celebrity endorsement is any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement.)

		strongly disagree ↔ strongly agree				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	I have favourite brands that I buy over and over	1	2	3	4	5
2	Once I find a brand I like, I stick with it	1	2	3	4	5
3	The most expensive brands are usually my choice	1	2	3	4	5
4	I prefer buying well-known national brands	1	2	3	4	5
5	I prefer buying the best-selling brands	1	2	3	4	5
6	The most advertised brands are usually good choices	1	2	3	4	5
7	I make repeat purchases in particular stores I like	1	2	3	4	5
8	My shopping trips are fast	1	2	3	4	5
9	I take the time to shop carefully for best buys	1	2	3	4	5
10	Shopping is not a pleasant activity for me	1	2	3	4	5
11	I am impulsive when purchasing clothing	1	2	3	4	5
12	I carefully watch how much I spend on clothing	1	2	3	4	5
13	I make special effort to choose the very best quality clothing	1	2	3	4	5
14	I notice when famous people appear in a newspaper or magazine advertisement	1	2	3	4	5
15	A celebrity endorser in print advertisements creates enough interest to hold my attention	1	2	3	4	5
16	I would like to own products that are advertised by famous people	1	2	3	4	5
17	I am encouraged to buy products that are advertised by famous people	1	2	3	4	5
18	I pay close attention to advertisements when I have high motivation/involvement with the brand/product	1	2	3	4	5

19	A famous person in an advertisement gets my attention more than the other product/brand being advertised	1	2	3	4	5
20	A famous person influences my adoption of a product	1	2	3	4	5
21	I believe that famous people are used in print advertisements because of their expertise	1	2	3	4	5
22	Using famous people in print advertisements makes the advertisements more believable	1	2	3	4	5
23	Using a famous person in the print advertisements makes the clothing more attractive	1	2	3	4	5
24	Using a famous person in the print advertisements makes a brand more likable	1	2	3	4	5
25	A famous person is likely to know about and understand the products attributes-advantages and disadvantages	1	2	3	4	5
26	The famous person is a credible source of information about the product	1	2	3	4	5
27	My desire to purchase is influenced by famous persons	1	2	3	4	5
28	My desire to purchase is influenced by the brand name	1	2	3	4	5
29	Complementary pictures and wording are both necessary in an ad for me to make a purchase decision	1	2	3	4	5
30	For a familiar product, the famous person used in the ad influences my purchase decision	1	2	3	4	5
31	For an unfamiliar product, the famous person used in the ad influences my purchase decision	1	2	3	4	5
32	Because of the famous person, I continue to read the entire advertisement	1	2	3	4	5
33	A famous person creates enough interest to hold my attention even if I have no desire for the product	1	2	3	4	5
34	If I had no previous desire for the product , a famous person increases the possibility that I will buy the product,	1	2	3	4	5
35	A famous person makes an ad for a product that I desire more memorable	1	2	3	4	5
36	A famous person increases my awareness of the brand name of a product that I desire	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B
INFLUENCES ON PURCHASING BEHAVIOUR

From each of the following, namely: personal and social factors, rank three influences (by using 1st, 2nd, 3rd) that will most influence your buying decision.

PERSONAL FACTORS

Perception		Motivation		Learning		Attitude	
Lifestyle		Personality		Age groups			

SOCIAL FACTORS

Culture		Subculture		Social class	
Group membership		Opinion leaders		Sex roles	

SHOPPING ENVIRONMENT FACTORS

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements below, where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree.

		strongly disagree ↔ strongly agree				
1	Interior shop design will influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
2	Temperature will influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
3	Noise level will influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
4	Staff member will influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5
5	Time of the day, or season of the year will influence my buying decision	1	2	3	4	5

ANNEXURE B

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO GENDER

GENDER

Analysis of Variance (Data.sta)								
Marked effects are significant at $p < .05000$								
Variable	SS Effect	df Effect	MS Effect	SS Error	df Error	MS Error	F	p
Factor1	3.78517	1	3.78517	208.0490	329	0.632368	5.98570	0.014945
Factor2	0.10325	1	0.10325	171.2557	333	0.514281	0.20077	0.654393
Factor3	33.55623	1	33.55623	387.1608	339	1.142067	29.38201	0.000000
Factor4	0.32071	1	0.32071	290.5933	340	0.854686	0.37524	0.540570
Factor5	0.01217	1	0.01217	252.2184	331	0.761989	0.01597	0.899521
Factor6	0.41615	1	0.41615	262.0258	334	0.784508	0.53046	0.466926

Note: p is smaller than 0.05

ANNEXURE C

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO AGE

AGE

Analysis of Variance (Data.sta)								
Marked effects are significant at $p < .05000$								
Variable	SS Effect	df Effect	MS Effect	SS Error	df Error	MS Error	F	p
Factor1	1.614423	2	0.807212	210.2197	328	0.640914	1.259470	0.285173
Factor2	2.332309	2	1.166154	170.7741	333	0.512835	2.273936	0.104502
Factor3	6.513660	2	3.256830	414.8284	339	1.223683	2.661499	0.071303
Factor4	0.689544	2	0.344772	290.4270	340	0.854197	0.403621	0.668217
Factor5	0.204335	2	0.102168	252.0262	330	0.763716	0.133777	0.874833
Factor6	1.781270	2	0.890635	260.6607	333	0.782765	1.137806	0.321764

Note: p is smaller than 0.05

ANNEXURE D

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO CAMPUS OF
STUDY

CAMPUS OF STUDY

Analysis of Variance (Data.sta) Marked effects are significant at p < .05000								
Variable	SS Effect	df Effect	MS Effect	SS Error	df Error	MS Error	F	p
Factor1	1.28197	2	0.640983	210.5522	328	0.641927	0.998529	0.369538
Factor2	0.48211	2	0.241055	170.8768	332	0.514689	0.468351	0.626446
Factor3	11.28714	2	5.643571	409.4299	338	1.211331	4.658984	0.010093
Factor4	3.03060	2	1.515299	287.8834	339	0.849214	1.784356	0.169478
Factor5	3.82402	2	1.912011	248.4065	330	0.752747	2.540044	0.080404
Factor6	0.54703	2	0.273516	261.8949	333	0.786471	0.347777	0.706513

Duncan test; Variable: Factor3 (Data.sta) Marked differences are significant at p < .05000			
Campus	{1}	{2}	{3}
	M=2.8687	M=2.9130	M=2.4357
South campus {1}		0.778458	0.006009
North campus {2}	0.778458		0.003468
Second Ave campus {3}	0.006009	0.003468	

Note: p is smaller than 0.05

ANNEXURE E

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO
QUALIFICATION

QUALIFICATION

Analysis of Variance (Data.sta) Marked effects are significant at p < .05000								
Variable	SS Effect	df Effect	MS Effect	SS Error	df Error	MS Error	F	p
Factor1	2.066376	3	0.688792	209.7678	327	0.641492	1.073735	0.360319
Factor2	4.340358	3	1.446786	168.7660	332	0.508331	2.846147	0.037688
Factor3	6.971170	3	2.323723	414.3709	338	1.225950	1.895448	0.130086
Factor4	0.797659	3	0.265886	290.3189	339	0.856398	0.310471	0.817819
Factor5	3.737943	3	1.245981	248.4926	329	0.755297	1.649658	0.177782
Factor6	0.940786	3	0.313595	261.5012	332	0.787654	0.398138	0.754428

Duncan test; Variable: Factor2 (Data.sta) Marked differences are significant at p < .0500				
Study	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}
	M=3.6364	M=3.7543	M=3.2639	M=3.7045
Diploma {1}		0.585340	0.064538	0.735101
Degree {2}	0.585340		0.024208	0.805048
Master {3}	0.064538	0.024208		0.037412
Other {4}	0.735101	0.805048	0.037412	

Note: p is smaller than 0.05

ANNEXURE F

COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES ACCORDING TO RACE

RACE

Analysis of Variance (Data.sta) Marked effects are significant at p < .05000								
Variable	SS Effect	df Effect	MS Effect	SS Error	df Error	MS Error	F	p
Factor1	9.15093	4	2.287732	202.4657	325	0.622971	3.672292	0.006093
Factor2	2.11432	4	0.528579	170.3178	330	0.516114	1.024151	0.394798
Factor3	10.26448	4	2.566121	407.8660	336	1.213887	2.113970	0.078736
Factor4	8.42616	4	2.106539	280.1477	337	0.831299	2.534034	0.040156
Factor5	5.00458	4	1.251145	247.0526	327	0.755513	1.656022	0.159949
Factor6	3.51670	4	0.879174	258.5446	330	0.783468	1.122156	0.345899

Duncan test; Variable: Factor1 (Data.sta) Marked differences are significant at p < .05000					
Race	{1}	{2}	{3}	{4}	{5}
	M=3.2944	M=2.7973	M=3.0863	M=3.0556	M=3.3426
Black {1}		0.049079	0.370009	0.335584	0.835726
White {2}	0.049079		0.242858	0.265983	0.034151
Coloured {3}	0.370009	0.242858		0.894629	0.301189
Indian {4}	0.335584	0.265983	0.894629		0.265452
Asian {5}	0.835726	0.034151	0.301189	0.265452	

Note: p is smaller than 0.05