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EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF CELEBRITY EN-DORSEMENT AND PRODUCT CLASS INVOLVE-MENT ON ADVERTISING EFFECTIVENESS

An eye-tracking approach

Master´s Thesis
In Marketing

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Success consists of going from failure
to failure without loss of enthusiasm.

– Sir Winston Churchill –

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1 INTRODUCTION TO THESIS

1.1 007 and The Forbidden Endorsement

One Sunday evening I was doing what I often do, browsing through the biggest online forum dedicated to watches. I came across a thread were people were discussing about celebrities endorsing watch brands. Much to my surprise there were quite a few forum members saying that they had refused to purchase any Omega watches only because it uses James Bond as a product endorser. In their eyes, a celebrity product endorser had compromised the credibility of the Omega brand. The question arising was if it is a good idea in the first place to invest millions of dollars in celebrity endorsers if the result can be as extreme as total boycotting of the brand? As a side note, members of this particular forum are extremely involved with watches. They are capable of listing dozens of brands from the top of their minds and spending a whole three-hour dinner talking about a new Rolex - which looks the same than the previous one - introduced in a watch exhibition two years ago. It is understandable that they get easily upset if anything threatens their favorite brand. However, one could assume that a common breeder does not get provoked because James Bond is wearing an Omega watch. Most of them cannot tell Omega watches apart from other similar looking watches. There is even a possibility that they are impressed: if it is good enough for James Bond, it must be good enough for me.

When it comes to celebrity endorsement though, it is not only about celebrities but also about physically attractive celebrities. When visiting a department store you usually end up passing by the cosmetics section. Usually there are numerous product stands featuring beautiful famous women endorsing all sorts of cosmetic products. More than once, these advertisements have caught my attention and for a fraction of a second almost made me want to buy these items. However, I usually do not recognize the majority of the models. I am sure that female shoppers are much more familiar with them but I could hardly name any. Many markets seem to believe in beautiful people, as the use of physically attractive celebrities in advertisement seems to be more of a rule than an exception. Physical attractiveness of the endorsers is one of the most important factors for marketing decision makers when choosing suitable endorsers. It applies especially when the product marketed is attractiveness related – such as cosmetics. (Erdogan, Baker and Tagg 2001.) Clearly, in the cosmetics department for me what was beautiful was effective as well. Is the physical attractiveness of the endorser more important factor than the celebrity status of the endorser? Physically attractive non-celebrity models could offer an adequate option. Does this mean that all the money invested in expensive celebrity

endorsement deals have been in vain? I am sure not in vain but the response from highly involved consumers calls for a further research.

1.2 Celebrity endorsement and product class involvement

Celebrity endorsement is not a new phenomenon by any means, dating back to the late 19th century when Pope Leo XIII was endorsing Vin Mariani, a red wine that included cocaine (Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman & Hansen 2009, 479). Even though the phenomenon is old, the use of celebrity spokespersons exploded after the commercialization of mass media tools such as radio and TV. In addition to the available marketing communication channels, more celebrities emerged from the use of mass media as TV brought the Hollywood stars into the homes of consumers. (Erdogan 1999, 292.) To survive in the modern highly competitive business environment companies want to make sure that they get the most dynamic athletes and most charismatic actors to endorse their products. It does not come cheap though, in 2003 Adidas reportedly made a lifetime deal with ex-footballer David Beckham worth over 150 million dollars and last year Pepsi signed pop artist Beyoncé on a 50 million dollar endorsement deal. As companies are willing to spend up to hundreds of millions of dollars to get famous individuals to pose with their products, the importance of celebrity endorsement as a research topic cannot be overlooked.

Further, it seems that using celebrity endorsement as a part of a marketing communication strategy has become more of a rule than an exception. In B2C markets it is hard to think of an area that does not include celebrity endorsement: cosmetics, jewelry, food, clothes, drinks, cars, sporting equipment; you name it. Lately even B2B markets have seen celebrities endorse a product or service. Moreover, it is not only actors and athletes endorsing products in advertisements. As even Sir Winston Churchill, the former Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, legendary Martin Luther King Jr. and Dwight Eisenhower, the former President of the United States, have given their names to the most famous luxury watch brand Rolex (Rolex 2013) celebrity endorsement seems to know no boundaries. In this study, a celebrity is simply defined as an individual who enjoys wide public recognition (McCracken 1989, 310). Correspondingly, celebrity endorsement is defined simply as *famous person making a paid appearance with a product and brand in an advertisement* (c.f. Erdogan 1999).

Because of its ever-growing popularity, academic researchers have noted the importance of celebrity endorsement and plenty of research on the topic has been made. There are multiple studies showing the advantages of celebrity endorsement to justify the colossal spending (e.g. Friedman, Termini & Washington 1976; Atkin & Block 1983; Hung 2014). However, results are still controversial and it seems that the effec-

tiveness of celebrity endorsement is dependent on several different factors. For example the product type endorsed (Friedman and Friedman 1979) seems to have a significant impact on the effectiveness of the endorsement process. Further, consumers' personal involvement level might in part determine the effectiveness of advertising (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983, 142). As celebrity endorsers are elements in advertisements that consumers with different level of involvement might perceive differently, consumers involvement level might have an impact on the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement. Thus, further research on impact of celebrity endorsement and involvement on advertising effectiveness is called for.

1.3   Purpose and research gaps

The purpose of this study is to explore if consumers' product class involvement and exposure to celebrity endorsers affect consumers brand recall. First, it will be studied if exposure to celebrity endorsers affects brand recall and if a celebrity endorser gains more attention than brand and product information. Second, it is studied if consumers' product class involvement has an impact on brand recall and the way consumers view advertisements. Third, consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement are studied. Further, it is analyzed if they have an impact on the effectiveness of the advertisement.

Some authors (e.g. Rossiter & Percy 1997) *suggest* that celebrities might steal attention from the brand and product, which in turn would speak for using non-celebrity endorsers. In this study, an eye-tracking experiment will be conducted in order to evaluate how much attention consumers pay on each element of the advertisement including a celebrity endorser and brand information.

There have been some studies comparing celebrity endorsers with other endorser types (e.g. Kamins 1990). However, only one of these studies (Mehta 1994) paid any attention on the physical attractiveness of the non-celebrity endorsers. That research gap is considered in this study as the physical attractiveness of the non-celebrity endorser will be measured alongside with the physical attractiveness of the celebrity endorsers. Later in this study it is argued why the physical attractiveness of the product endorser might be a key factor in effective advertising.

Earlier research is rather unanimous when it comes to the congruence or 'fit' between the celebrity, product and brand (e.g. Jaiprakash 2008; Roy, Gammoh and Koh 2012). The empirical study by Misra and Beatty (1990) show that when there is congruence between the spokesperson and the brand, both immediate and delayed recalls are significantly higher. Due to the rare unanimity, congruence was not chosen as an independent variable for this study.

Even though a widely studied topic, there has been very little qualitative research related to celebrity endorsement. Tantiseneepong, Gorton and White (2012) used projective techniques in their qualitative study to evaluate the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement. However, the interview part did not concentrate on celebrity endorsement itself but on the usage of the product endorsed and the motivation for purchasing the product. Consumers might have conscious attitudes about celebrity endorsement because of their imminent exposure in media. For example, high skepticism consumers have less favorable attitudes towards celebrity endorsement and even the companies using celebrity endorsers than low skepticism consumers (Bailey 2007). More qualitative research is needed in order to gain deeper understanding of the phenomenon.

Most studies (e.g. Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983) concerning involvement level emphasize the involvement level of the advertisement instead of consumers' personal involvement. In general, expensive goods include a high economical risk and therefore usually require a more rational and more complex purchasing decision process. However, consumers can be involved in a particular product class in many different ways. For example, if an individual possesses a high level of knowledge on a certain product class they are likely to be more involved with that product class than the ones with a low level of knowledge (Alba 1983). As suggested by earlier research (e.g. Finn 1982; Rahtz & Moore 1989) product class involvement should be defined as consumers' difference variable rather than situational factor. Indeed, in this study, the advertisements used in the empirical part will not vary in involvement but instead the product class involvement of test subjects will be measured.

Even though product class involvement has been discussed thoroughly in earlier research, its impact on predictive tools in marketing has been hardly studied. High product class involvement has been discovered to create *consistency* in the purchasing decision process as highly involved consumers are more loyal to brands than low involvement consumers. In this study, the impact of product class involvement in brand recall will be studied.

Even though the research on advertising research is plentiful, they often fail to simulate real world situations. For example, in the experiment by Kamins (1990) participants were given three minutes time to explore the advertisement. In the real world, marketers would be grateful should they get 30 seconds exposure time for their advertisements. This issue will be considered in this study, as the participants will experience relatively short exposure time to the stimuli advertisements and the stimuli advertisements are presented among other advertisements in a slideshow.

To address the gaps the following research questions for this study are presented:

1. Does the familiarity of the product endorser have an impact on the degree of attention paid on the brand and product information and does it affect brand recall?

2. Does consumers' product class involvement have an impact on the degree of attention paid on the brand and product information and does it affect brand recall?

3. What are consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement and do they have an impact on consumers' brand recall?

In the second chapter a comprehensive framework for celebrity endorsement and advertising effectiveness is created. First, in chapter 2.1 the role of brand recall in advertising effectiveness measurement is argued for this study. Next, classical conditioning is presented in order to understand what are the fundamental processes that influence consumers behavior. In chapter 2.3, the key elements of advertising are evaluated using the balanced theory as a framework. Next, celebrity endorsement is described with the meaning transfer model in order to better understand the complex process in advertising context. Next, the elaboration likelihood model is presented and the role of involvement in advertising effectiveness is evaluated. Finally, a comprehensive theoretical framework is created in order to explain the role of each of the fore mentioned theories have in the process of advertising and celebrity endorsement.

In chapter 3 the hypothesis are formulated based on the existing research. First, based on the existing research it is examined if the physical attractiveness of people is a variable that marketers should take into consideration. In chapter 3.2, some problems and challenges related to celebrity endorsement are presented in the form of consumer skepticism and celebrity overshadowing. Last, the impact of product class involvement is evaluated.

In the fourth chapter, the methodology and research design of the study are described. First, a pre-test is conducted in order to find appropriate product endorsers for the experiment. Next, the experimental setting is described and data from the experiment is analyzed. Next, the post-experiment survey is described and test subjects' product class involvement and brand recall are measured and analyzed. Further, the quality of the study is discussed. In the fifth chapter results of the study are presented and limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, in the sixth chapter, theoretical and managerial implications are discussed and future research ideas are presented.

2   ADVERTISING AND CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENT

When Aeschines, a great Greek statesman, spoke to people, they said 'He is such a good speaker.' When Demosthenes, Ascehine's greatest political opponent spoke, they said 'Let us march against our enemy.' It is one thing to make an impressive advertisement but it is another thing to get people act upon it. Likability of an advertisement does not necessarily correlate with the performance of an advertising campaign (Bergkvist and Rossiter 2008). In this chapter, a psychological approach is implemented in order to better understand *why* people think and act the way they do. Further, the key elements of advertising effectiveness are evaluated.

The goal of advertising is always to sell more of something (Wells, Burnert and Moriarty 1995). However, selling more does not always refer to selling more products but also to selling products with higher price. Brands play a crucial role and consumers' selections are not only based on the superior product but on the superior brand (Moore & Birtwistle 2005, 268). Due to a comprehensive research foundation (e.g Aaker 1991; Keller 1993), multiple definitions for a brand exists. In this study a brand is defined as a price difference that consumers are willing to pay for branded product compared to another product with identical benefits.

2.1   Brand recall as an advertising effectiveness measure

Advertising effectiveness is a complex mechanism that can be evaluated in multiple ways. Two elements for advertising effectiveness from a branding perspective are prevalent: brand recall and brand attitudes (Beattie & Mitchell 1985). Brand recall is defined as *"A qualitative measure of how well a brand name is connected with a product type or class of products by consumer."* (Business dictionary 2015). Therefore, brand recall is not only about recalling the brand name but other brand related information as well. Therefore, from now on brand and product information is simply referred to as *brand information*. Recalling information is a complex process that is affected by many ongoing processes. For marketers it is not only about if consumers recall the information but if they accept the new information. People obviously forget information but it is also possible that people first accept the new message but after a while they go back to their original opinion. It is equally possible that at first people are reluctant to agree with new message but after time passes they accept the message. This emphasizes the importance of both immediate and delayed recall. (Kelman and Hovland 1953.)

Decision to choose brand recall as an advertising effectiveness measure for this study was three-fold. First, it was chosen because of its acknowledged importance in advertising effectiveness research (Petty et al. 1983; Higie & Murphy 1991; Rossiter, Percy &

Donovan 1991). Second, brands recall performance is recognized as an important factor in consumers' purchase decision making process (Aaker 1991). Third, brand recall is closely related to brand attitudes and can play a key role in the forming of brand attitudes (Beattie & Mitchell 1985).

There are two factors that affect consumers' abilities to identify a brand: brand's recognition and recall performance (Keller 1993, 3). Recall performance can have a major impact on consumers' behavior, as people usually prefer things that they are already familiar with (Aaker 1991, 64). Brand awareness is the first desired step in the marketing communication process. It refers to consumer's ability to identify a brand under various conditions. Brand awareness can have a significant impact on the behavior of consumers as it determines which brands are included in the consideration set during the purchasing process. (Aaker 1991, 61–62.)

Three levels of brand awareness can be categorized in addition to a consumer being unaware of the brand. First level is *brand recognition* in which the consumer can identify the brand when aided. For example, the consumer recognizes the brand when they hear the name. The second level is *brand recall*. This un-aided recognition happens when a consumer is able to name the brand when asked to name brands from a certain product class. Brand recognition happens *at* the point of purchase whereas brand recall happens prior to purchase. (Rossiter, Percy & Donovan 1991.) The third level is the *top of mind* when the brand has achieved a special position ahead of its competitors in the consumers' minds (Aaker 1991, 62).

Brand recall as an advertising effectiveness measure is not without compromises. Lichtenstein and Srull (1984) emphasize that the effectiveness of recall is dependent whether the decision to purchase is made when exposed to an advertisement or at the point of purchase. Further, a link between recall and persuasion occurs mainly under highly restrictive conditions. It seems that existing research has failed to create a link between persuasion and recall. However, it is recognized that all persuasive advertising requires recall and recall requires attention (Mitchell and Beatty 1985). *Therefore, recall can be seen as a necessity for effective advertising rather than as a factor explaining it*. In this study, an eye-tracking experiment is conducted in order to evaluate if increased attention results in increased recall. Next, three recall models originating from social cognition literature are presented: the filtering model, associative network model and schema-pointer + tag model. All three models are based on schema-based expectancy theories. In detail, they address the processes leading to immediate and delayed recall.

Schema can be defined as a cognitive structure representing a theme that stands for a person or place for example. Schemas are based on experiences and knowledge of the theme. Within celebrity endorsement, schemas play an important role as consumers have existing person schemas of well-known celebrities. These cognitive-based sets of

associations are about the appearance and characteristics of the celebrity and are used to describe the spokesperson. Schemas also create certain expectances of the source. (Misra & Beatty 1990, 162.) When celebrities are used as spokespersons consumers might compare the brand attributes that are being communicated (new information) with the existing schema of the spokesperson (existing information). When exposed to advertisements consumers might generate verbal thoughts – or memories – related to the advertisement. These thoughts can be anything from usefulness of the product to counter-arguments or support arguments of the advertisement in general. Some of these thoughts are stored in consumers memory structure of the product advertised. (Beattie and Mitchell 1985.)

The filtering model suggests that when consumers evaluate new information beside the existing schema of the spokesperson, there is a chance that any new information that is incongruent with the existing schema will be filtered out. Thus, more congruent information would be more carefully received by consumers. Accordingly, if the brand message communicated is congruent with the celebrity's perceived attributes (schema), studies show that better results on the immediate and later recall would be achieved. Ultimately, in consumers' minds the schema of the celebrity can be linked into the schema of the brand. This is exactly what marketers are after in the second stage of the meaning transfer model described in chapter 2.4. There are results to support the filtering model as congruence between the endorser and message communicated in the ad resulted in a higher immediate and delayed recall. (Misra & Beatty 1990, 162.)

The associative network model states that information that is incongruent with consumer's schema can be more conspicuous and therefore decoded more in detail. Due to the more precise interpretation process, incongruent information would be better remembered than congruent information. However, no supporting results were found for immediate or delayed recall to support this theory. (Misra & Beatty 1990, 162.)

Schema-Pointer + Tag Model suggests that congruent items are encoded to a general schema that includes the particular and typical attributes for each particular schema. In turn, incongruent pieces of information are encoded with a distinguishing tag and then stored separately. A number of studies show that distinctive stimuli are better remembered because they create unique memory traces making them easier to locate in memory (e.g. Hunt & Mitchell 1978; Light, Kayra-Stuart & Hollander 1979). As a result, incongruent information would be better remembered (Misra & Beatty 1990, 163). However the tag tends to fade over time. While incongruent items can result in a higher immediate recall, congruent information will be better recalled after a longer period of time (Graesser 1981, according to Misra & Beatty 1990, 163).

In this chapter brand recall was defined as an advertising effectiveness measure and its importance and key principles were discussed. Next, a comprehensive framework for advertising effectiveness is created. First, the concept of classical conditioning is pre-

sented in order to evaluate the fundamental principles that affect consumers' behavior. Further, the link between classical conditioning and celebrity endorsement will be examined in detail.

2.2 Classical conditioning - Learn to like something

Associative learning and classical conditioning provide the foundation for understanding advertising as they explain very basic and instinctive human behavior. Advertisements to which people are constantly exposed can trigger primitive reactions from consumers partly explaining the effectiveness of advertising. The achieved reaction is not necessarily a decision to purchase the product but subconsciously people learn to link the elements of advertisements together. This can change the way consumers think and eventually act. Multiple studies have proven classical conditioning to be an excellent framework for understanding advertising effectiveness (e.g. Stuart, Terence & Randall 1987; Till, Stanley and Priluck 2008).

Associative learning is a process where animals and humans create connections related to various events or objects within their surroundings (Shimp 1991). One of the most common and well known method of associative learning is classical conditioning. In classical conditioning, two different types of stimuli are categorized: unconditioned stimuli and conditioned stimuli. *Unconditioned stimuli* are stimuli that trigger reactions naturally. Humans are born with these reactions and they do not need to be learned. For example, if you step on a nail you will instinctively scream in pain. *Conditioned stimuli* do not trigger a reaction automatically but an individual needs to learn or be taught to react to stimuli in a certain way. (Shimp 1991.) Stimuli are elements that tie classical conditioning and advertising together as advertisements can be seen as stimuli presented to consumers. Classical conditioning is a process where the unconditioned and conditioned stimuli are paired in order to achieve a conditioned response (Shimp 1991). In a classic test with a dog and a bell Ivan Pavlov showed that classical conditioning applies to animals. However, it was Watson and Rayner (1920) that proved that classical conditioning applied to humans as well. In the first stage of their classic experiment, they found out that a certain baby boy did not show any signs of fear when he was presented with a white rat. However, hitting a hammer against a steel bar behind his head made the boy cry in fear. Watson and Rayner paired these two stimuli by showing a white rat at the same time when the steel bar was hit with a hammer. After seven weeks of conditioning, the white rat alone triggered a fear reaction from the baby boy. While not the most sophisticated example, it shows that classical conditioning is a process that can affect human behavior.

Multiple studies suggest that pairing pleasant images with brands can generate favorable brand attitudes (e.g. Grossman & Till 1998; Till et al. 2008). The study by Kim, Lim and Bhargava (1998) demonstrated how meanings can be transferred from the unconditioned stimuli to the conditioned stimuli. In detail, the study demonstrated how visual images can be used as an unconditioned stimulus in order to enchase brand attitudes. A racecar (unconditioned stimuli for speed) was paired with a pizza brand (conditioned stimuli). The desired conditioned response for the pizza brand was image of delivery speed. With the above-mentioned conditioned stimuli - unconditioned stimuli pairing the results on attitude towards delivery speed was significantly higher than the ones in the control group.

In marketing, advertisements provide stimuli for consumers. Consumers are exposed to hundreds of advertising stimuli daily. Traditional advertisements often include elements that can be thought of as elements of classical conditioning. For example, a typical advertisement for a consumer product include a model as unconditioned stimulus and brand and the product as conditioned stimuli. According to Rossiter and Percy (1997) these stimuli that trigger emotions are important especially in low involvement situations when marketers should aim to trigger emotions in consumers. Celebrities can be used effectively as unconditioned stimuli in classical conditioning situations (Till et al. 2008). In celebrity endorsement companies create a classical conditioning situation by using celebrities as product endorsers. Figure 1 below shows the stimuli and outcome of classical conditioning when celebrity endorsement is used in advertising.
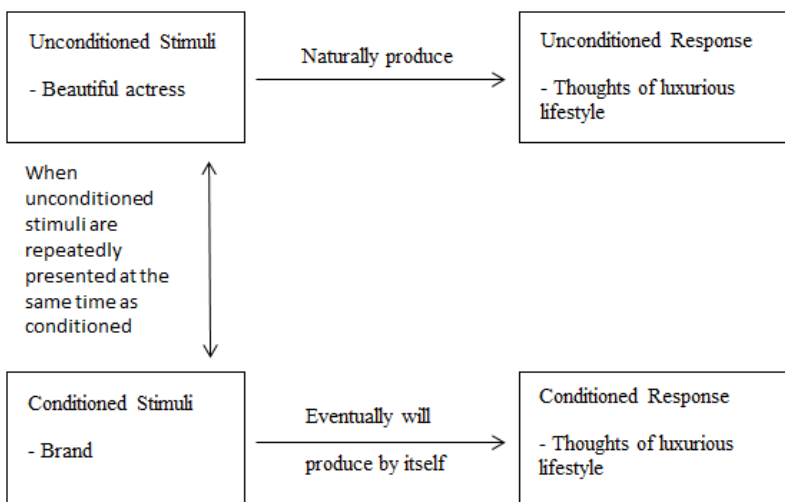
Figure 1   Schematic diagram for respondent of classical conditioning (c.f. Watson & Rayner 1920)

The beautiful actress is the unconditioned stimulus triggering thoughts about beauty and a luxurious lifestyle. The conditioned stimulus is the endorsed brand. If the classical conditioning is done successfully, whenever a consumer sees the endorsed brand they

will think of a luxurious and desirable lifestyle. Such pairing further emphasizes the importance of attention on the brand. If the brand goes unnoticed, the classical conditioning process cannot take place. Several studies show that when there is a certain level of congruence between the celebrity endorser (unconditioned stimuli) and the brand (conditioned stimuli) the influence on consumers will be greater (e.g. Chen, Chang, Besherat and Baack 2013). This further highlights the importance of fit between the product and the product endorser. In addition, using celebrities as unconditioned stimuli it is possible to create attitudes that are long-lasting and intense (Till, et al. 2008).

The Pavlovian laws apply in advertising and celebrity endorsement as well. Just now instead of a baby and a rat it is a consumer and a celebrity endorser. In this study, classical conditioning is applied in the experiment where celebrity endorser is paired with a new brand in advertising context. Next the balance theory is presented in order to evaluate what are the key elements that make an effective advertisement.

2.3   Balanced theory - Key elements of advertising

The balanced theory explains how key elements of advertising work together leading to changes in attitudes or behavior. Balanced theory was chosen for the theoretical framework of this study as it explains human behavior in social situations and it provides a simplified model of the highly complex process of communication effectiveness. The original balance theory has its roots in social psychology and it was introduced by Fritz Heider already in 1946. The original model is described in Figure 2 below.
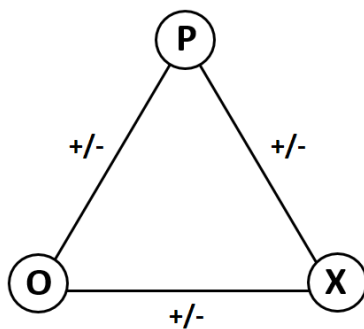
Figure 2   Balance theory (c.f. Heider 1946)

The original balance theory included three elements: two people and a third variable. Further, the links between these three elements play a crucial role in the outcome of the balance model. (Heider 1946.) Fundamentally, the model suggests that people drive for a psychological balance. In order to achieve it, three positive links or two negative links in the model need to exist (Heider 1946, 107). Whenever two negative links between

the elements exist, individuals will look for a change. For example, a situation when person (P) likes the other person (O) but does not like the object X and then finds out that O likes object X. In this case there are two instances that can lead to a psychological balance. First option is that P concludes that X is good after all creating three positive links. This would happen due to a social effect created by the person O appreciating the object X. Second option is that P decides that O was not that good after all. This way two negative links exist, one between P and O and one between P and X. (Heider 1946.) In a way, balanced theory explains the behavior of an individual watch fanatic mentioned in the introduction. First, he might have liked the Omega brand but when he found out that Omega had created a positive endorsement link with James Bond as an endorser, he decided that he did not like Omega any longer.

   Heider's original balance model predicts and explains basic human social behavior. Academic world has seen a number of variations of the original model. Balance theory was first paired with advertising and product endorsers when Mowen (1980) added the fourth element, the message, into to model. The more contemporary balanced theory is presented in Figure 3 below.
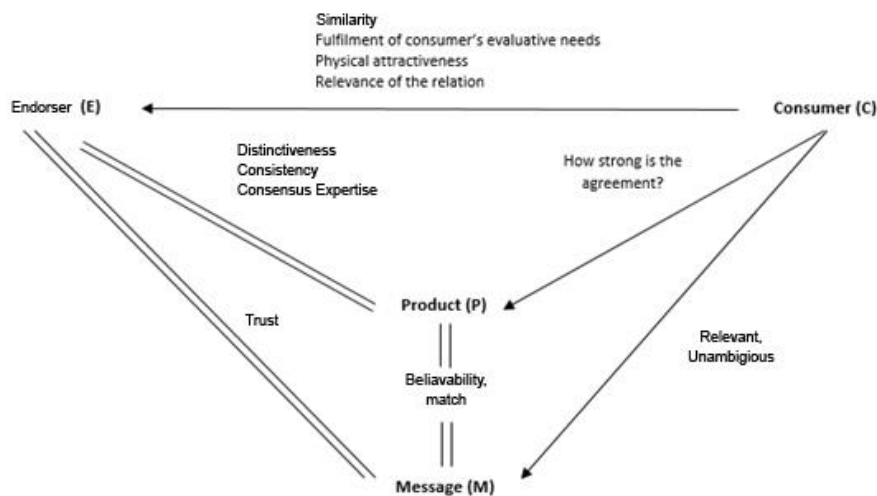
Figure 3   The balanced model (c.f. Mowen 1980, 43)

In his paper Mowen (1980, 43) summarizes the more contemporary balance theory as follows:

"The balance model predicts that consumers' liking for a product will increase to the extent that positive cognitive relations can be established among the cognitive elements of endorser, product, message and consumer."

Basically Mowen (1980) carried all the original three elements from Heider's (1946) balanced theory and added a fourth element, the message. Adding the message as a fourth element, the model became more suitable for explaining advertising effectiveness. The fundamental idea is that a celebrity (O in the original model) can make a consumer (P in the original model) like X (a product) by endorsing it. The social change in behavior will occur because the consumer likes the celebrity. However, the message communicated has to be effective as well. In detail, the message needs to be unambiguous and relevant to the consumer like suggested by the ELM which is presented in chapter 2.5. The contemporary balance model has been paired with celebrity endorsement in previous research. When a coterminous link between – not only the celebrity and the product – but also the celebrity and the message exists, more favorable brand attitudes are achieved. (Roy et al. 2012.) This further emphasizes the importance of all elements in creating an effective advertisement. To support the model several classical conditioning studies (e.g. Grossman & Till, 1998; Priluck & Till, 2004) show that pairing brands with pleasant images can generate more favorable attitudes towards the brand.

The more contemporary balance theory combines all four key elements of advertising: the endorser, the product, the consumer and the message (Mowen 1980). Balance theory creates a coherent model emphasizing the role of each factor in the creation of a believable message. Balanced theory offered a general framework for understanding advertising effectiveness. Next, celebrity endorsement will be described in detail and the process will be evaluated in advertising context.

2.4   Celebrity endorsement – The meaning transfer model

Product endorsement is a marketing communication tactic among others. Friedman and Friedman (1979) list three common types of endorsers: normal people, experts and celebrities. Normal people are individuals who are not considered to be famous and have gathered knowledge on products only by using them. Experts possess a high level of knowledge or skills related to the product endorsed. Celebrities are defined as individuals who are usually famous for achievements non-related to the product category they are endorsing. (Friedman & Friedman 1979, 63.) Mix of the two latter types of endorsers is also possible as some celebrities can have expert-like knowledge on certain product categories. For example, Tiger Woods is a celebrity that can be seen as an expert on golf products. In addition to different kinds of endorsers, four different types of celebrity endorsement can be distinguished. In *explicit endorsement*, the celebrity figuratively states that they are endorsing the product. *Implicit endorsement* refers to a situation where the endorser is actually using the product or is at least creating such an image. In the *imperative endorsement* process, the endorser is straightforwardly telling the con-

sumer to use the product. *Co-present* form of endorsement occurs when a celebrity merely makes an appearance in an advertisement with the product. (McCracken 1989, 310.)

From now on, celebrity or non-celebrity endorses may be referred to as a spokesperson or source. Non-celebrity spokespersons can be referred to as ordinary people or normal people. Even though celebrity endorsement is very much related to marketing and branding, the research on the topic is highly inter-disciplinary. Especially the earlier research lies heavily on social psychology research (e.g. McGuire 1985; Hovland & Weiss 1951). Even contemporary research is heavily influenced by psychological topics such as classical conditioning (Till, Stanley & Priluck 2008). After all, the fundamental essence of the endorsement process, and all marketing communication, is that companies are trying to influence consumers by sending out messages and consumers in turn will interpret messages as an individual receiver. Next, celebrity endorsement will be described in detail with the meaning transfer model that presents celebrity endorsement as a process taking place within the cultural environment around us.

The meaning transfer model was developed as McCracken (1989) felt that the current theoretical framework could not explain the essence of the complex process of celebrity endorsement. In addition, the research on the topic had not progressed significantly over the past couple of decades circling mostly around traditional source models. Further, McCracken states that attractiveness or expertise alone could not explain the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement. *The meaning transfer model proposes that multiple meanings lie within the culture and transferring these cultural meanings first from culture to celebrity, then from celebrity to product and finally from product to consumer is the very essence of celebrity endorsement*. (McCracken 1989, 312, 314–317.) The meaning transfer process is described in Figure 4.

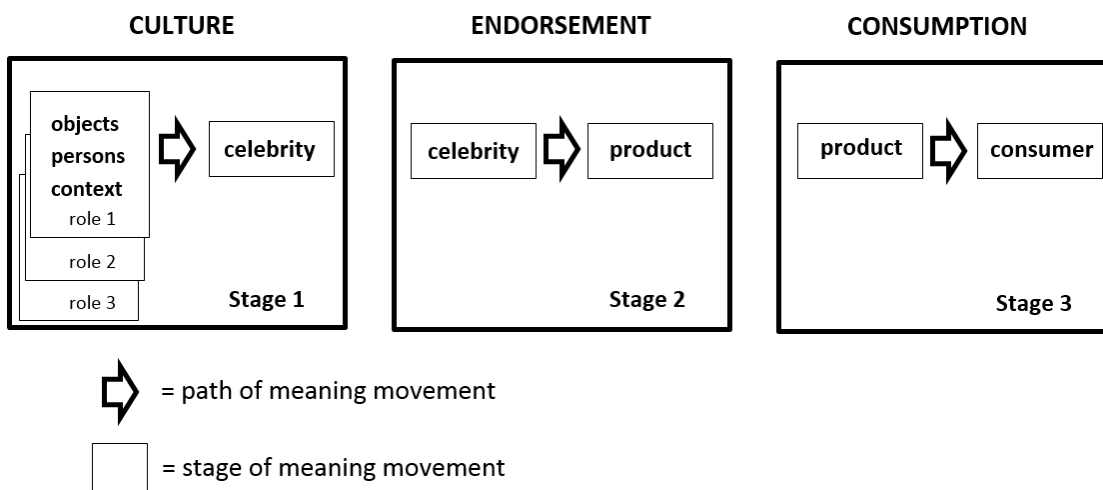**Meaning movement and endorsement process**

Figure 4   The meaning transfer model (McCracken 1989, 315)

The attractiveness or desirability of celebrity endorsers often refer to celebrities' characteristics developed for their on stage personalities. Therefore, attractiveness can be seen as a set of symbolic and cultural meanings that celebrities have transferred onto themselves. (McCracken 1989, 312.) For example, people do not necessarily find Daniel Craig attractive, but revere the masculine, classy and stylish attributes of James Bond. It is the meanings behind James Bond that appeal to consumers. This is the *first stage* of the meaning transfer model, where the cultural meanings are transferred to the endorser via different roles that celebrities play. The first stage takes place all the time within the culture surrounding us and companies do not have control over it. Every time a celebrity stars in a movie or appears in a charity event, they are transferring meanings into their personalities.

The meaning transfer model states that a celebrity can transfer meanings from themselves into the product. For example, Daniel Craig can transfer the meaning of James Bond into the product he is endorsing. Advertising is the mechanism that transfers the meanings. This is the *second stage* in the meaning transfer model. Advertisers must decide which meanings to attach to the product via marketing communication. As celebrity endorsers might carry multiple meanings it is crucial for advertisers to select which attributes they want to be carried into the product. (McCracken 1989, 314.) This is crucial as celebrities carry multiple meanings and are possibly linked with many brands. For example, in their study Tantiseneepong et al. (2012) found out that when Emma Watson was endorsing products, participants associated Harry Potter with the advertisement. A link with each particular brand might not be as strong as a unique link between an endorser and one brand only (Erdogan 1999, 293). As a result of the endorsement process brand-alliance like relationships can be established between the endorser and the brand endorsed (Halonen-Knight & Hurmerinta 2010). Whereas the meaning transfer model proposes that celebrities can transfer meaning into brands and products, Halonen-Kinght and Hurmerinta (2010) stress that meanings and associations can transfer from the brand to the celebrity as well. Ergo, negative brand information can be harmful for the celebrity endorsers. Further, they proposed a meaning transfer process where the financial compensation is noted as part of the transaction between the brand and the celebrity.

Two example ads from Omega are presented to demonstrate the meaning transfer process. Omega watch advertisements with star actor Daniel Craig are presented in Appendix 1. The first advertisement represents Daniel Craig as himself while the other ad presents him as James Bond. Even though Daniel Craig appears in both advertisements the role he is playing is very different. Therefore, the meanings that Omega tries to transfer into the watches are different as well. The first advertisement simply informs that Daniel Craig and Omega together support the charitable organization ORBIS while

the second advertisement states: *"The choice of James Bond"*. A very different set of meanings are being transferred in the adverts featuring the same brand and the same human being. On one hand this stresses that celebrities are capable of carrying multiple meanings making them a very powerful marketing tool. On the other hand, it emphasizes the importance of the marketers' decisions in creating an effective endorsement.

McCracken (1989) adds that because advertising is such a powerful tool, basically any meaning can be carried out by any product. There are no limits, for example, for watches to carry out simply the meaning of presenting current time. Like suggested by the product match-up hypothesis, in order for the consumer to take the last step in the meaning transfer at the stage two, the *product* and the celebrity should be congruent at some level. (McCracken 1989, 314, 316.) When looking for a positive transfer effect, match-up between the celebrity and brand attributes should provide better results (Rockney & Greene, 1979 according to Misra & Beatty 1990, 160). The desirable outcome after the second stage is that inside consumers' minds the meanings of the advert and endorser now also lie in the product endorsed: qualities of James Bond are now part of Omega watches (c.f. McCracken 1989, 316).

The *last stage* of meaning transfer, from the product to consumers' lives, is accomplished by the consumers themselves. The third and final stage of meaning transfer is the most complicated and difficult to relate to. In this step, consumers must embrace the product and accept it as a part of their lives. This is the only way to transfer the meaning from the product to consumers' lives. In a way now the consumer is taking on the same role as the endorser had at the stage one: they are building their selves based on the cultural meanings that the product now carries. As described in stage two, the product now carries the meanings and parts of the personality of the endorser. Celebrity endorsers offer tools for consumers to build an identity in the same way than celebrities already have successfully done. Therefore, the last stage of meaning transfer process leans on the identification process. The final stage of meaning transfer is completed when consumers approve the product and its meanings as part of their lives. (McCracken 1989, 317.) Endorsers that consumers are likely to identify with provide the best tool for marketers to achieve long-lasting opinion change (Basil 1996, 1).

According to McCracken (1989) celebrities can offer all cultural meanings such as gender, age and class with higher precision and more a powerful message than normal people. Celebrities can affect the communication process through a variety of roles and collected meanings that are out of reach from ordinary people. The key difference between normal models and celebrities is that models do not own the meanings but are simply acting them out. Celebrities possess the meanings because they have created them on their own. While a standard model acts out the meaning on the film set, Tiger Woods has built the meanings by winning more major golf tournaments than any other person alive. That is hard, if not impossible, to replicate. (McCracken 1985, 315.) How-

ever, the advantage of created endorsers is that the characteristics of the endorser can be precisely matched with the characteristics of the product and the brand. Companies have hardly any control over the features of celebrity endorsers. (Tom, Clark, Elmer, Grech, Masetti Jr. & Sandhar 1992, 46.) If the congruence between the spokesperson and the product is low, a non-celebrity spokesperson is more believable than a celebrity endorser (Kamins and Gupta 1994, 580).

However, the study by Pradhana, Duraipandiana, and Sethib (2014) showed that the congruence between celebrities and user personalities did not have significant impact on the brand attitude and therefore the purchase intentions. Even though the meaning transfer model does not state that endorsers and users personalities should match it was noticed that user-brand personality and brand-endorser personality congruence had the most impact on brand beliefs and purchasing intentions. (Pradhana et al 2014.) While McCracken's (1989) meaning transfer model holds its value the study by Pradhana et al (2014) questions the importance of the last stage and emphasizes the second stage where the celebrity transfers meanings into the product.

In this chapter celebrity endorsement was described as a process in advertising environment. The role of media and consumers' was emphasized in the effectiveness of the celebrity endorsement process. Next, elaboration likelihood model is presented in order to evaluate how different consumers interpret advertising messages and different elements, such as celebrity endorsers, of advertising.

2.5 Elaboration Likelihood Model - Consumers personal involvement

Elements having an impact on product class involvement can be divided in three categories: situational, enduring and response. *Situational* involvement is related to a particular occasion such as the purchasing moment. Products attributes, such as the price or the packaging, can have an impact on the situational involvement level. *Enduring* involvement refers to state of mind that is carried into every situation by the consumer. Enduring involvement is created by a previous experience with the product or by the knowledge level of the product. For example, a person with a high level of knowledge of a certain product category will always interpret information related to the product category with higher precision and understanding. *Response* involvement refers to the complexity of the consumers' decision making process. The response is a result of the inner state of involvement the consumer has. (Bloch and Richins 1983, Houston and Rothschild 1978.) In this study, enduring and response involvement define consumers' product class involvement. Generally speaking, the higher the involvement, the higher the complexity of the decision making process. For example, a person buying a house

will face a much more complex decision making process than a person buying tooth-paste. However, price alone does not make the purchase high involvement. For example, consumers obeying a strict diet are always highly involved with their grocery shopping even if the cost of the purchase is not significant. Next, the Elaboration Likelihood Model is presented. The Elaboration Likelihood Model illustrates how marketers should approach marketing communication as consumers have different starting points to interpret advertising messages.

The elaboration likelihood model (from now on: ELM) has its roots in cognitive learning. It focuses on the persuasive side of marketing communication. The central element of the ELM is the personal involvement level of the consumer (Petty and Cacioppo 1983). Percy and Rossiter (1997) suggest that consumers' involvement level should determine the elements utilized in an advertisement in order to make it effective. The involvement level is one of the dependent variables in this study making the ELM salient model to explain advertising effectiveness. The model is essential also because persuasion can be seen as one of the main goals of advertising. The ELM explains how the desired outcome in advertising can be achieved in different situations depending on the various properties of the consumers. Further, the ELM represents the real world situation where consumers have different starting points for advertisement interpretation. The elaboration likelihood model is described in Figure 5 below.

DUAL ROUTES TO PERSUASION

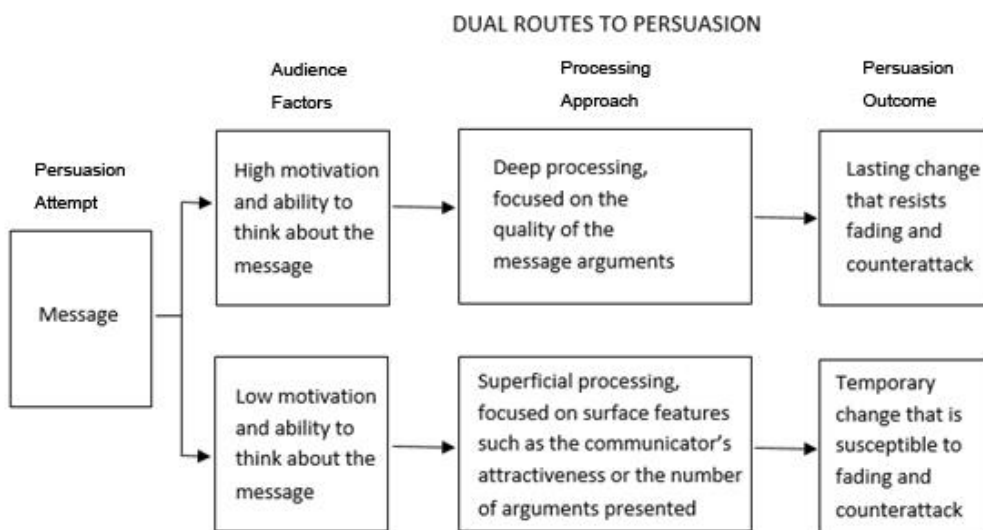Figure 5   Elaboration Likelihood model (c.f. Petty and Cacioppo 1986, 126)

The starting point for the ELM is that a marketer makes a persuasion attempt by sending out a message. The model consists of two routes that can lead to a persuasion outcome that is an attitude change: the central route and the peripheral route. Audience factors determine which route could and should be utilized. Marketers can use the *central route*

when people have high motivation and capability (high product class involvement) to process the message thoroughly. For example, when they have enough time and when they find the product advertised interesting. Messages are processed via *the peripheral route* when people lack motive or capability (low product class involvement) to process the message thoroughly. For example, when consumers are not interested in the product category advertised.

The model emphasizes that the central route is a key to a permanent attitude change (Petty and Cacioppo 1981). Even though the central route is a way to achieve long lasting and robust attitude change, multiple authors (e.g. Krugman 1965; Petty and Cacioppo 1981) emphasize that it is very challenging to change the attitudes of consumers via the central route because people with high personal involvement are more resistant to changes. There are three reasons for this. *First*, message has to be relevant to the consumer personally. Lately marketers have started to switch from mass media to more personalized advertising messages but it is still impossible to reach out to all consumers with a personally relevant message. *Second*, consumers must have all resources to process the message thoroughly. However, consumers are exposed to hundreds of commercial messages a day In the hectic modern day environment consumers rarely have the time or motivation to stop and process advertisements deeply enough from a marketers' point of view. *Third*, the message should communicate positive aspects to the consumer. For example, if the advertisement includes a product endorser that the consumer dislikes it is possible that the high quality arguments are being ignored by the consumer and the peripheral cues will be processed more thoroughly. (Petty and Cacioppo 1981.) Overall, the ELM suggests that the involvement of an individual consumer can have an impact on two things: how the consumer perceives the message and what type of message the advertiser should use to influence consumers effectively.

The ELM suggest that in high involvement situations the message itself has a greater meaning as it will be processed more carefully. In low involvement situations the message does not necessarily get much elaboration so it is the peripheral cues – such as the celebrity endorser – that play more important role. This is the fundamental part of the ELM that ties celebrity endorsement and consumers' personal involvement together as celebrities can be viewed as peripheral cues in the advertising context. Basically, in high involvement situations it is the quality of the arguments that counts (Petty and Cacioppo 1981). In turn, in low involvement situations the peripheral cues and the quantity of the arguments are important. According to the famous Percy-Rossiter grid, when consumers' involvement level is low advertisement ought to use transformational methods to persuade consumers. Basically marketers should try to create a positive feeling and attitude towards the advertisement (Rossiter & Percy 1997, 213, 264). Source attractiveness is the key element when transformational process is used to elaborate advertisements (Lord and Putrevu 2009). In this study it will be analyzed if consumers with high

product class involvement pay more attention to the message and consumers with low product class involvement pay more attention to the peripheral cues.

2.6   Building the theoretical framework

Next, a comprehensive theoretical framework is built and the role of each theory is specified within the process of advertising and celebrity endorsement. The theoretical framework of this study is presented in Figure 6.
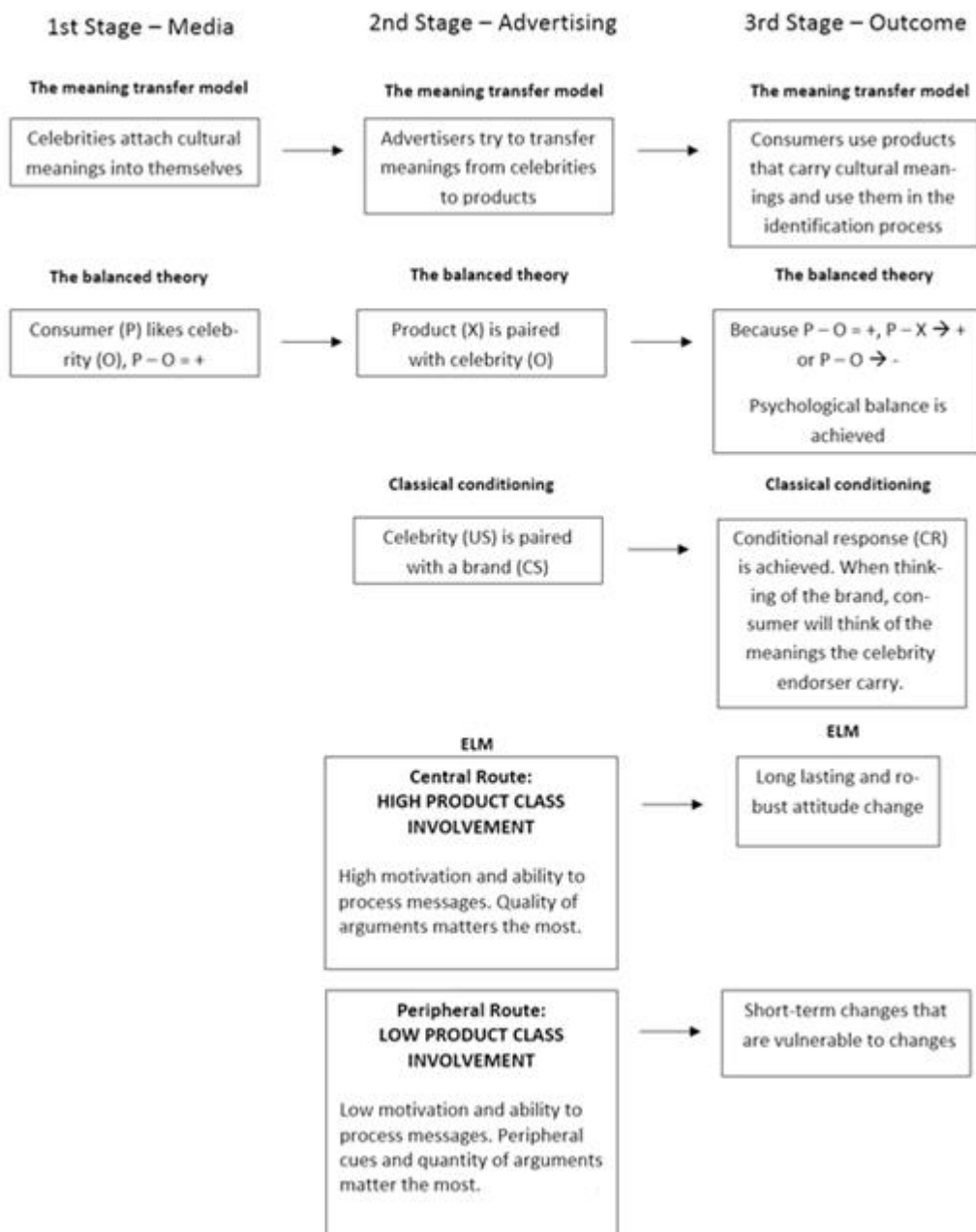
Figure 6   Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework in this study is based on the fundamental research and theories on the topic and it consists of classical conditioning, balanced theory, meaning transfer model and elaboration likelihood model. The research framework described in Figure 6 divides the celebrity endorsement process in three stages using the meaning transfer model (McCracken 1989) as a base. First phase is characterized by the presence and power of media. As celebrities are transferring cultural meanings into themselves they are also creating the thoughts that arise in the minds of consumers that the unconditioned stimuli of celebrity endorsers trigger. It is important to notice that individual consumers create their opinions on each celebrity at this stage. In balance theory this means that a person creates a positive or negative link between himself and an object. The first stage categorizes the consumers based on their attitudes towards celebrities, which in turn will affect the way they elaborate advertisements in the second stage of the process.

The second phase is where the actual advertising takes place. Marketers try to transfer the meanings from celebrities into the product. The conditioned stimuli, the brand and the product, are now paired with the unconditioned stimulus that is the celebrity endorser. The endorser becomes linked with the brand. In the balanced theory this describes the link between the other person and the object X. The balance theory suggests that if an individual consumer likes the celebrity (P-O=+) they will like the brand because the other person that the person likes has a positive connection with the object X that is the celebrity endorser (O-X=+ → P-X → +). Of course the other alternative being that they decide not to like the celebrity any more. However, at this point the psychological balance will be achieved. At the second stage of the process the elaboration likelihood model is ought to be considered as the marketers will be facing two different types of consumers: consumers with low and high product class involvement. Depending on the product class involvement either the peripheral route or the central route is utilized. The model suggest that celebrity endorsers, being peripheral cues, would have a bigger impact on consumers with low product class involvement.

The last stage describes the outcome of the celebrity endorsement process from the viewpoint of each individual theoretical orientation. In the last phase the consumers are now using the products and using meanings within them in the identification process. According to the balanced theory the consumer has now reached a psychological balance. If the classical conditioning process was successful and the cognitive response was achieved the endorsed brand will now trigger the desired attitudes and thoughts inside consumers' minds. If the central route was used in the persuasion process the achieved attitude change will be more permanent. If the peripheral route was used the attitude change is predicted to be less enduring.

3 HYPOTHESIS FORMULATION

Greek poet Sappho once said *"What is beautiful is good and what is good will soon be beautiful."* First, based on the existing research it will be evaluated if attractive people can gain other advantages because of their attractive physical appearance. Further, it will be examined if marketers can benefit from attractive endorsers and if marketers should even consider using any other kinds of endorser.

Further, an overview of the existing research is presented and hypothesis are formulated accordingly. First, possible challenges related to celebrity endorsement are presented and their impact on advertising effectiveness is analyzed. Second, the impact of consumers' product class involvement on advertising effectiveness is evaluated.

3.1 Advantages of attractive individuals

Without a doubt, beautiful actresses and handsome athletes get attention from consumers and they are considered to be desirable in many ways. However, the influence of attractive physical appearance can be far more 'down to earth' and 'everyday' phenomenon than it might seem at first glance. Clifford & Walster (1973) studied if teachers thought that attractive children were more talented than others. They found out that teachers had higher expectations of child's educational potential when the child was considered to be attractive. Further, the personality of a more attractive person can be considered to be more socially admirable than those of unattractive people. Also, more attractive people can be considered to possess a higher occupational status. (Dion, Berscheid and Walster 1972.) In fact, multiple psychological studies (e.g. Chaiken 1979) prove that attractive people can gain other advantages because of their physical attractiveness. Till and Busler (2000, 5) manipulated the attractiveness of the spokesperson in the advertisement and found out that the more attractive, but otherwise the same spokesperson, scored higher on the trustworthiness scale. Indeed, the effect of attractive people might in part be based on the possibly flawed *halo effect*. It means that when people rank high on one dimension, people tend to assume that they rank high on other scales as well. That is to say physically attractive endorsers are expected to be smart, for example, simply due to their good looks. (Solomon 1996, 196.) As celebrities are considered to be more attractive in general than normal people (e.g. Atkin & Block 1983; Friedman, Termini & Washington 1976) there is a higher chance that they will benefit from the halo effect.

The selected spokesperson in advertisements can influence the audience in two different ways. First, the influence is based on direct influence through the message delivered and second, how the spokesperson is perceived by the audience. The latter is

known as the *source effect* and it provides the foundations for the source attractiveness model (DeSarbo & Harshman 1985, 19). The source attractiveness model claims that the attractiveness of the spokesperson would have an impact on the effectiveness of the endorsement process (e.g. Till & Busler 2000). Attractiveness in general does not only refer to the physical attractiveness of the endorser, but also to other qualities of the spokesperson such as characteristics or lifestyles. Therefore, celebrities can be considered to be attractive even if they are not good looking. Unknown models, however, cannot be considered to be attractive despite their looks as consumers do not possess knowledge on their characteristics or lifestyles. In the endorsement process, described by the meaning transfer model, celebrities build these characteristics and lifestyles themselves. (McCracken 1989) Therefore, the source attractiveness does not only have an impact on the celebrity endorser featured in an advertisement but also on the very first step of the celebrity endorsement process. The attractiveness of the source consists of likability, familiarity and similarity. *Likability* refers to the physical appearance and behavior of the spokesperson. (Erdogan 1999, 299.) Several studies do suggest that celebrities in general are found to be more likable than ordinary people (e.g. Atkin & Block 1983; Friedman, Termini & Washington 1976).

Familiarity occurs when people gain knowledge of the source via continuing and multiple exposures and thus learning to recognize the source (Erdogan 1999, 299). Multiple studies show that people tend to like things that they are familiar with (e.g. Kamins & Kupta 1994, 583). Therefore, celebrities can be seen as a more attractive source than ordinary people merely because there is a chance that consumers are familiar with them and have already constructed a perception of them. These kinds of perceptions or schemas were further examined in chapter 2.1.

Similarity refers to the deemed similarity of the endorser and the consumer (Erdogan dorgen 1999, 299). Study by Cohen and Golden (1972) support the similarity hypothesis. The results suggested that the identification process, where consumers seek to identify with an attractive spokesperson, explains partially the effectiveness of the source attractiveness model. However, celebrity-consumer congruence does not have a significant impact on the brand attitude and purchasing decision (Pradhana et al. 2014, 1). Even though the results on the purchasing intentions and brand attitude are controversial, the similarity aspect is still an important part of celebrity endorsement as people are more likely to indentify with people they have similarities with (Cohen & Golden 1972).

When companies are trying to make consumers choose their products over competitors, one goal of advertising is opinion change or getting the consumer to 'agree' with the advertising statement. Opinion change can arise from two different phenomena: identification and internalization. Agreement with attractive communicators is based on

the identification process as people are more likely to identify with attractive people. (Kelman 1961.) Kelman (1961) defines identification as:

"Identification can be said to occur when an individual adopts behavior derived from another person or a group because this behavior is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship to this person or group." (Kelman 1961, 63)

Study by Mills and Harvey (1972) further highlights the power of attractive endorsers. They found out that the possible agreement with an attractive communicator was equally high when the attractiveness was revealed before or after the message was delivered. In contrast, when the communicator's expertise was revealed after the message the agreement was not as high as when revealed before the message**.** However, Solomon, Ashmore and Longo (1992) stress that there are lots of good looking people that all are attractive because of different reasons.

The attractiveness of the endorser could have a positive effect on the attitude towards the advertisement (e.g. Baker, Churchill & Gilbert 1977; Till & Busler 2000) and purchasing intentions (e.g. Petroshius & Crocker 1989). Further to support the source attractiveness model, attractive sources are more effective when the target is to change consumers' beliefs (Chaiken 1979). The attractiveness of the source might have an impact on the recall as well. In particular Kahle and Homer (1958, 958) found out that individuals exposed to attractive celebrities called for higher recall numbers than the ones exposed to non-attractive endorsers. To further justify the use of attractive endorsers in this study, Petty and Cacioppo (1981) found out that the attractiveness of the endorser had an impact in both low and high involvement situations.

Even though the source attractiveness model has been wildly recognized and there are several studies to support it, there is a fair amount of criticism against it. For example, the findings on the impact on purchasing intentions are controversial. Some studies (Kamins 1990; Caballero, Lumpkin and Madden 1989) show that the endorser's attractiveness does not affect purchasing intentions. To support these findings, Caballero and Solomon (1984, 20–21) observed that less attractive models used in a particular face tissue commercial actually resulted in higher sales results. It does seem that the attractiveness of the source, at least to some extent, fails to change behavior of consumers or transfer the generated positive effects into higher purchasing intentions.

Like suggested by the match-up hypothesis, the effectiveness of an attractive endorser is dependent on the product endorsed (e.g Kahle & Homer 1985; Kamins 1990). According to Kahle and Homer (1985) an attractive endorser is more effective when the product endorsed is for making oneself more attractive. The study did not reveal a positive effect of the endorsement when the product endorsed was not for enhancing one's

attractiveness. However, it is not always clear which products are for enhancing attractiveness as individual products can have multiple meanings (Till & Busler 1998, 580).

As celebrity endorsers benefit from the meanings they carry, physical attractiveness could provide similar benefits for non-celebrity product endorsers. In this chapter, an overview of the existing research was used to validate the use of attractive product endorsers. It has been noted that attractive endorsers produce the best possible results when there is a match between the attractive endorser and the product endorsed. However, the use of non-attractive endorsers would be hard to justify in real world situation. When companies' brand image is on the line they are not likely to use 'un-attractive nobodies'. Therefore, product endorsers featured in the experiment in this study will be attractive.

3.2 Challenges of celebrity endorsement

"He could not just wear a watch. It had to be a Rolex."

- *Ian Fleming, creator of James Bond (1953)*

Despite the statement by the original James Bond author, 007 is wearing an Omega these days. When it is obvious that celebrities are likely to make an appearance with a product because of the hefty fees paid by the brand, consumers might get skeptic about the endorsement process. Consumer skepticism has had a lot of attention from academic researchers over the past few years (Pechpeyrou & Odou 2012, 46). It seems that the current generation that has been raised in the middle of emerging phenomena such as the internet and social media do not let the marketers take the easy way out. Contemporary research indicates that consumer skepticism might have an impact on promotion effectiveness (Pechpeyrou & Odou 2012) and brand attitudes (Bailey 2007).

The media has made it well known that celebrities are paid a hefty fee for their endorsements. Last year Adidas made an endorsement deal with David Beckham that was worth more than $ 150M. Negative attitudes towards celebrities as endorsers might arise as consumers doubt that celebrities actually use the product they endorse. Even worse, consumers might question whether they like the product in the first place (e.g. Tripp et al. 1994; Bailey and Cole 2004.) It further emphasizes that they are being paid to make an appearance with the product they might not know anything about.

When asked to name controversial incidents regarding celebrities test subjects were able to name two cases on average. Media has ensured that negative happenings including celebrities do not go unnoticed. (Bailey 2007.) However, in the study by Bailey (2007) some participants indicated little skepticism towards celebrity endorsement. In

detail, it was studied if negative information in the media would affect consumers' attitudes. The participants stated that the impact on consumer's attitudes or purchase intentions might be smaller than one might first imagine because people do not buy products simply because celebrities endorse them. This emphasizes the fact that consumers' are not completely at the mercy of the advertising machinery of big multinational corporations. However, people exposed to negative information about celebrities had less favorable attitude towards both celebrity endorsement and the brand. The negative information was about any celebrity in general, instead of particular celebrity endorsing a certain brand. (Bailey 2007.)

In the contemporary market environment, celebrities might endorse multiple brands and products. For example actor Brad Pitt endorses Cadillac cars and Tag Heuer watches. It is probably virtually impossible for marketers to find a popular celebrity that does not already carry one or even multiple endorsement deals. Martindale (1991) introduced two elements related to multiple endorsement deals: overshadowing and blocking. They refer to the challenges that might arise from forming a relationship between stimulus (endorser) that already has strong relationship with other stimulus (other brand). *Overshadowing* occurs when celebrities endorse multiple brands. In such a situation, favorable stimulus (celebrity endorser) is desired by many brands. A particular brand competes with other brands to create an associative and preferably a unique link with the celebrity endorser. *Blocking* happens when the link with a particular brand is so strong that in consumers' minds there is resistance to form new associative link between the celebrity endorser and the new brand endorsed. (Marindale 1991.) For example, consumers might struggle to create a link between Brad Pitt and the luxury brand Chanel (new endorsement) as the old endorsement link with the luxury watch brand Tag Huer is so evident.

Over-exposed celebrity endorsers might just be an easy way out for marketers. Over-exposed celebrities simply refer to celebrities carrying multiple endorsement deals with different individual brands. Over-exposed celebrities are not more effective than under-exposed celebrities. Further, the credibility of the celebrity endorser decreases due to multiple endorsements and high exposure in the media. (Roy et al. 2012.) Further, study by Ilicic and Webster (2011) revealed that celebrity endorsers with multiple endorsement deals negatively affected consumers' attitudes. Equally, when Mowen and Borwn (1981) were studying celebrity endorsement and the balanced theory they found out that the audience had a more favorable attitude towards celebrities with one endorsement than towards those with multiple endorsements. When companies choose to use created endorsers (normal people) it is possible to create characteristics that are perfectly congruent with the brand. Further, the link is unique unlike with celebrity endorsers. Thus, created endorsers are more effective creating a link into the product than celebrity endorsers. (Tom et al. 1992, 46.) Consumers might be conscious about celebrities because

of their over-exposure in the media. In order to examine consumers' perceptions towards celebrity endorsement, the empirical part of the research includes qualitative interviews.

Study by Bower and Landreth (2001) featured, not only attractive endorsers, but highly attractive models (HAMs) and normally attractive models (NAMs). As mentioned earlier, celebrities can be attractive because of not only their physical attractiveness but for example for their personal charisma as well. For celebrities it is also possible to combine these two making them *highly* attractive. As normal non-celebrity endorsers are missing those meanings they can be considered to be *normally* attractive. Two different types of attractiveness related products were tested in the study: problem solving (acne creams) and enhancing (lipstick and earrings.) When HAMs were compared with NAMs results were dependent on the type of the product. Study revealed that highly attractive endorsers are not necessarily more effective than normally attractive models. Hence, there is necessarily no need for highly attractive product endorsers. A physically attractive normal person as an endorser might actually provide an adequate substitute for an expensive celebrity endorser. In their study Friedman and Friedman (1979) found out that normal people were more effective at endorsing a certain type of product class. In detail, normal people were more effective at endorsing food. However, the study did not measure the attractiveness of the endorsers. This would have been crucial as celebrities can be seen attractive even if they are not physically attractive. For non-celebrity endorsers, however, the physical attractiveness could compensate the lack of meanings carried on by celebrities.

It is clear that whenever a company selects a famous person to endorse its products, there is a risk that the celebrity will overshadow the product and the brand (Rossiter & Percy 1997, 264). Mehta (1994) compared celebrities and professional models as endorsers. Although the attractiveness of the models was not measured it can be presumed that professional models are somewhat attractive. Use of celebrities did not have a significantly more favorable impact on buying intentions or attitude towards the brand or advertisement over a non-celebrity endorser. While celebrities were not more persuasive than non-celebrity models, there was a significant difference in cognitive responses. Participants exposed to celebrity endorsements got significantly more recalled responses related to the source (celebrity endorser) whereas participants exposed to non-celebrity model recalled more responses on brand and product information. (Mehta 1994.) Hence, it is hypothesized that:

H1a: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser consumers pay less attention to brand and product information

H1b: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser consumers pay less attention to brand and product information, this results in a worse recall

3.3   Impact or product class involvement

In 1965 Herbert Krugman made a groundbreaking observation: there are two different ways of experiencing and being influenced by mass media. The first way is characterized by lack of personal involvement. The second way is characterized by high level of personal involvement. The involvement level of the consumer has been recognized as one of the key factors in understating advertising effectiveness (Gorn 1982; Petty et al. 1983). As a result, multiple definitions for an involvement concept exist. Krugman (1965, 355) suggested that it was the number of linking experiences, connections and references that a person was capable of thinking consciously. Andrews, Durvasul & Akhter (1990) state that involvement is an individual, internal state of arousal with intensity, direction, and persistence properties. However, there is unanimity among researchers that high involvement stands for personal relevance and importance (Alwitt and Mitchell 1985). For this study involvement will be defined as follows:

Involvement is an internal state of mind that defines the importance and relevance of a certain product category for an individual via knowledge, interest and personal experiences of that certain product category. (c.f. Alwitt & Mitchell 1985; Krugman 1965; Andrews, Durvasul & Akhter 1990)

Multiple studies show that involvement level can have a significant impact on consumers' responses to advertising stimuli (e.g. Greenwald and Leavitt 1984; Priluck & Till 2004). The involvement can refer to either the involvement level of the advertisement or the product class involvement of an individual. In advertisements the involvement is usually related to quantity and quality of the arguments presented. Petty et al. (1983) manipulated the involvement level of the advertisement by decreasing and increasing the quantity and quality of the arguments presented in the advertisement. They found out that highly involved individuals are less likely to respond to unconditioned stimuli and respond more strongly to the provided product information. This is in line with the ELM suggesting that peripheral cues work better in low involvement situations and in high involvement situations the message itself is emphasized. Interestingly, when advertisement is lacking product and brand information, highly involved consumers still generate more favorable attitude towards the advertisement than those with less involvement (Gorn 1982). The study by Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983) finely

points out the difference between low and high involvement situations. The results are described in Figure 7 below.
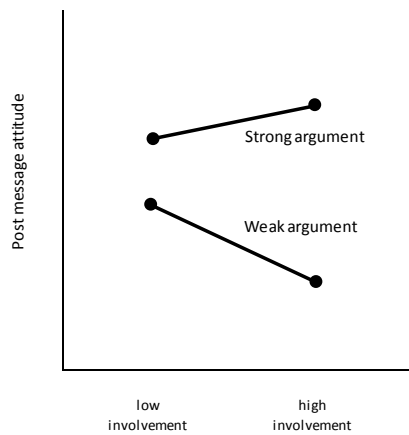
Figure 7   Impact of argument quality on low and high involvement situations (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983, 142)

In low involvement situations the strength of the argument does not seem to have significant impact. However, in high involvement situations strong arguments are significantly more powerful than weak arguments. Priluck and Till (2004) studied classical conditioning and involvement level in an advertising context. The results suggest that involvement can play a major role in marketing communication effectiveness. They summarize that an attractive endorser will be more effective when the product endorsed is considered as a high involvement product.

The role of brand recall is emphasized in low involvement situations as consumers' are likely to make a purchasing decision without deep processing of available information (Krugman 1965). As highlighted earlier by the ELM this can be due to a) lack of motivation or b) lack of resources. If people have a high level of knowledge regarding the product endorsed, a better recall is achieved (Tyebjee 1979; Alba 1983). However, the level of product class involvement does not have a significant effect on the reading time which means that consumers with a high level of knowledge will process the information more thoroughly in any given time. (Alba 1983.)

Especially in low involvement situations, use of a famous spokesperson might decrease the brand name recognition (Petty et al. 1983, 142). In other words, the peripheral cue that is the famous spokesperson is more important element in the advertisement than the brand information. Therefore, it is hypothesized:

H2a: Consumers with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information

H2b: Consumers with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information, this results in a better recall

4   METHODOLOGY

4.1   Research design

In order to address the research gaps and answer the research questions the empirical part of this study is divided in three stages: pre-test, experiment and post-experiment. Because of the versatility of the research design a mixed methods approach was chosen for this study as it offers a possibility to study different elements of the study with different methods (Saunders et al. 2003, 99). Mixed methods research combines elements from both quantitative and qualitative research methods (Tashakkori & Teddley 1998, 3-5). Mixed methods approach can provide findings that are more robust and compelling than results from a single method studies (Stewart 2009, 382). Further, mixed methods research offers a possibility to gain deeper understanding of the phenomenon studied (Davis, Golicic and Boerstler 2010, 467).

In order to answer the research questions, this study adapts both descriptive and explanatory approaches to quantitative research. With *descriptive* studies researchers aim to answer questions "How much?" while *explanatory* studies aim to answer "Why?" questions (Töttö 2000). In this study it will be studied how much time is spent viewing each part of the advertisement and how much information test subjects recall. Further, it is analyzed why recall of the test subjects might vary. A qualitative element was added in order to gain deeper understating of the widely studied topic and make sense of the findings from the quantitative analyses. The research process is described in Figure 8.

STAGE   PURPOSE

```
┌─────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                 │        │ Validate the attractiveness and│
│    Pre-test     │────────▶│ familiarity of the product    │
│                 │        │ endorsers used in the experiment│
└─────────────────┘        └──────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                 │        │ Measure how much attention is │
│                 │        │ paid to brand information and  │
│   Experiment    │────────▶│ product endorser.             │
│                 │        │                                │
│                 │        │ Testing H1a                    │
└─────────────────┘        └──────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│                 │        │ Survey:                        │
│ Post-experiment │        │ Measure test subjects' brand   │
│   survey and    │────────▶│ recall and product class       │
│   interview     │        │ involvement                    │
│                 │        │                                │
│                 │        │ Testing H1b, H2a and H2b       │
│                 │        │                                │
│                 │        │ Interviews                     │
│                 │        │ Find out consumers'            │
│                 │        │ perception of celebrity        │
│                 │        │ endorsement                    │
│                 │        │                                │
│                 │        │ Research question 3            │
└─────────────────┘        └──────────────────────────────┘
```

Figure 8   Stages of the research process

First, the attractiveness and familiarity of the product endorsers used in the experiment advertisements are validated with a pre-test survey. *Second*, in order to study how much attention is paid to the brand information and the product endorser an eye-tracking experiment is conducted. Data from the experiment alone is used to test hypothesis 1a. *Third*, in the post-experiment stage a survey and interviews are conducted. Purpose of the post-experiment survey is to measure test subjects' brand recall and product class involvement. Data from the post-experiment survey is combined with the data from the experiment in order to test hypotheses 1b, 2a and 2b. Finally, Interviews are conducted in order to find out consumers' perception of celebrity endorsement addressing the third research question.

4.2   Pre-test

The purpose of the pre-test was to validate the attractiveness and familiarity of the product endorsers used in the stimuli advertisements. In a study by Baker and Churchill (1977) male models triggered stronger reactions from female participants than female models from men. Therefore, female models were selected as product endorsers in order to minimize the impact the gender of the model might have on test subjects. Four female models were selected for the pre-test as potential product endorsers. Two of them were well known actresses: Cameron Diaz and Tilda Swinton. Two other female per-

sons selected were not famous per se. From now on the non-celebrity models will be referred to as *Non-celebrity model 1* and *Non-celebrity model 2*. The pre-test survey including photos of the models are presented in Appendix 2.

4.2.1   Data collection

Surveys are one of the most commonly used data collection methods in business research (Adams, Khan, Raeside & White 2007, 11). Surveys provide *"a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population."* (Creswell 2009, 13). As it is neither possible or cost effective to collect data from the whole population a sampling is used. The goal is to generalize the results of the sample to the population studied. (Creswell 2009, 12.) In order to achieve comprehensive demographic sampling, three main channels were used to promote the survey. First, a 25-year old researcher published the survey on his Facebook page. Second, a 33-year old sales manager working in an international office environment promoted the survey in his office. Third, two 65-year old pensioners promoted the survey among their friends and ex-colleagues. With these three channels it was possible to collect data from 18-65 years old people with different occupational statuses.

Surveys can be either cross-sectional or longitudinal. In cross-sectional surveys, data is collected at one specific point of time. In contrast, in longitudinal surveys data is collected over a longer period of time. Further, two types of questions for surveys are categorized: open and closed. Closed questions enable easier and faster analysis of the data whereas open questions give participants a possibility to provide deeper answers. (Adams et al. 2007, 132.) Famous Likert-scale questions are an example of closed questions were participants are given a number of alternatives. Questions for the pre-test survey were all closed. The questions in the survey were based on earlier papers measuring attractiveness of product endorsers (e.g. Baker and Churchill 1977). The survey conducted in the pre-test stage of this study was a cross-sectional, self-administered online questionnaire. An online questionnaire offers a cost effective and time saving method for data collection. The chosen platform (Webropol) also provides a reporting tool and transferring data to SPSS or excel can be done automatically. The survey was tested with three students aged between 22 and 28 years. All three stated that the questionnaire was interesting, short and easy to answer.

In research two different types of data is categorized: primary and secondary data. *Primary data* is collected by researchers themselves and it is collected primarily for the research in hand. *Secondary data* is collected by someone else than the researcher. Such data can origin from previous studies or statistics. In this study primary data was pre-

ferred in order to gain full control of the models and therefore the independent variables in the experiment.

Four photos of the selected models were presented in the survey. To measure the attractiveness of the models, above each photo participants were asked *"How attractive you find the female person in the picture below?"* The rating scale used was a seven point Likert-scale, in which 1 meant 'Very attractive' and 7 meant 'Very unattractive'. Alternatives were set as smaller the mean, more attractive the model. Further, the familiarity was measured by asking "*Do you recognize the female person in the picture above".* For familiarity participants submitted their answers on a three point Likert-scale, in which, 1 meant *"Yes, I recognize her and I could name her.",* 2 meant *"Yes, I recognize her but I cannot name her"* and 3 meant *"No, I don't recognize her."* Like in the attractiveness, a smaller number indicated a bigger familiarity.

Survey collected answers from 137 participants. 57 (41%) of the participants were female and 77 (59%) were men. Three participants did not announce their gender. Majority (42%) of the participants were students. The sample was slightly skewed because the researcher's Facebook wall was the most efficient promoting channel. However, the income level and gender of the participants were rather evenly distributed providing demographic variation. Age and income distribution of the respondents are described in Figure 9 below.
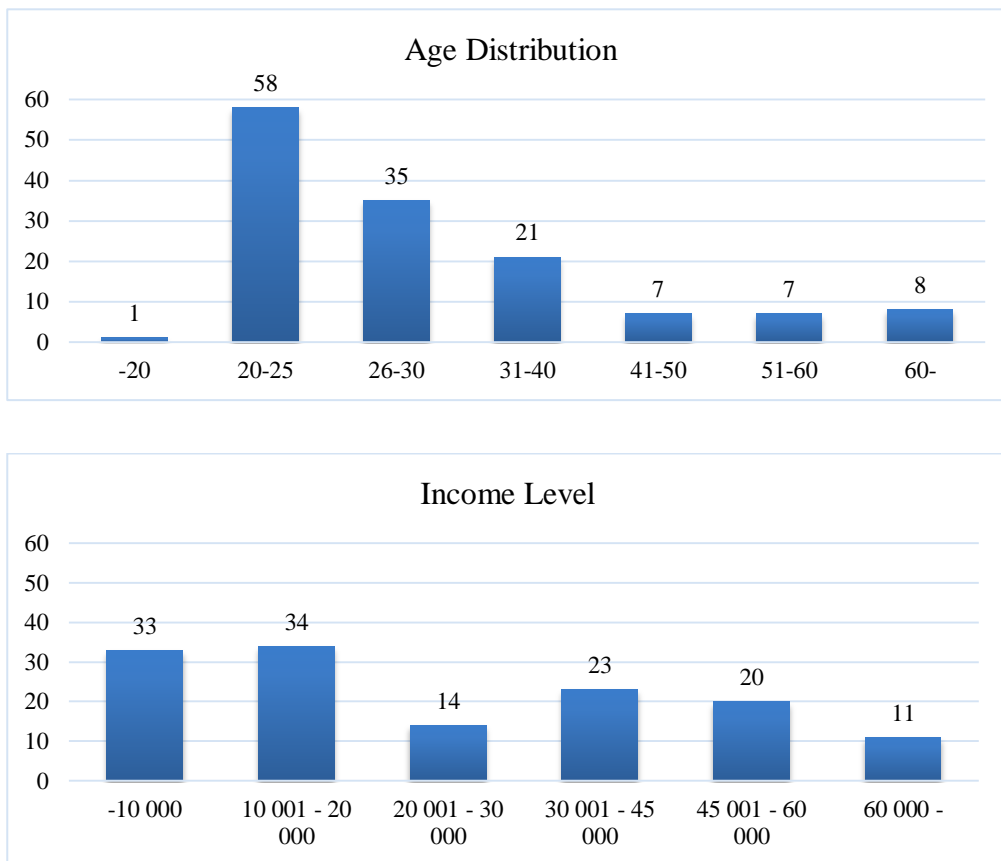

Figure 9　　　Age and Income level distributions (n=137)

4.2.2   Data analysis and results

The data was transferred from WebRopol report view to SPSS via Excel to perform the statistical analysis of the data. In the first stage the attractiveness of the models was analyzed. First, the normality of the data sets was studied. Skewness and kurtosis of the data set was examined and the Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted in order to study the normality of the data. Both tests showed clearly that data sets *were not normally distributed*. This was predictable as non-celebrity models were not famous per se. Therefore, data was expected to be heavily skewed. As the data is not normally distributed, a non-parametric test was needed to perform statistical analysis. Mann-Whitney U-test was chosen for performing the analysis as it is well suited for not normally distributed data and data collected with surveys using Likert-scale questions. (Siegel & Castellan, 1988.) Significance level was set at 1% in order to ensure highly significant results. When analyzing the data it was revealed that the familiarity of the attractive celebrity endorser was significantly lower within the test subjects aged over 40. Only eight consumers (36%) aged over 40 recognized Cameron Diaz. From test subjects aged between 20 and 40 over 90% recognized Cameron Diaz. Because of the low score on familiarity test subjects aged more than 40 years were excluded from the study. Therefore, total of 115 test subjects were included in the pre-test.

   Table 1 summarizes the scores of attractiveness and familiarity for each of the four models.

Table 1   Attractiveness and familiarity of the models

	N	Attractiveness	Familiarity
		$\overline{X}$ of:	
Cameron Diaz	115	1,8	1,3
Tilda Swinton	115	5,3	1,9*
Non-celebrity model 1	115	1,7	2,8
Non-celebrity model 2	115	4,7	2,9*

* Not further analyzed as the model was not selected as a product endorser based on the perceived attractiveness

First, the attractiveness of Cameron Diaz and Tilda Swinton was compared. H0 was set as: *there is no difference in attractiveness between the two celebrity models.* As it can be seen from the table 1 Cameron Diaz ($\overline{X}$= 1,8) was considered to be more attractive than Tilda Swinton ($\overline{X}$= 5,3). Results from the Mann-Whitney U-test show a p-value of

,000. As p = ,000 < 0,01, the null hypothesis "*there is no difference in attractiveness between the two celebrity models*" is rejected. Difference in attractiveness was highly significant (p = ,000; N=115; U = 407). Because of her high level of perceived attractiveness, Cameron Diaz was selected as a celebrity endorser.

Second, the attractiveness of the two non-celebrity models was compared. Again, H0 was set as: *there is no difference in attractiveness between the two non-celebrity models*. Table 1 shows that the non-celebrity model 1 ($\overline{X}$= 1,7) was perceived to be more attractive than the non-celebrity model 2 ($\overline{X}$= 5,3). Results from the Mann-Whitney U-test show a p-value of ,000. As p = ,000 < 0,01 the null hypothesis "*there is no difference in attractiveness between the two celebrity models*" is rejected. Difference in attractiveness is highly significant (p = ,000; N=115; U = 713). Based on the test results Non-Celebrity endorser 1 was selected as a non-celebrity endorser.

Third, the familiarity of Cameron Diaz and the chosen non-celebrity endorser was compared in order to validate the celebrity status of Cameron Diaz. H0 was set as: *there is no difference in familiarity between the two non-celebrity models*. As it can be seen from the table 1 Cameron Diaz is perceived as more familiar model than the non-celebrity endorser. Mann-Whitney U-test resulted in a p value of ,000. As p = ,00 < 0,01 the null hypothesis "*there is no difference in familiarity between the two non-celebrity model*" is rejected. Difference in familiarity is highly significant (p = ,000; N = 115; U = 800).

Fourth, the attractiveness of Cameron Diaz and the chosen non-celebrity endorser was compared. The purpose of the last analysis was to ensure equal attractiveness between the two selected product endorsers. H0 was set as: *there is no difference in attractiveness between the chosen models*. As it can be seen from the table 1 the differences in attractiveness between the two chosen models are minor. P-value from the Mann-Whitney U-test was ,142. As p = ,142 > ,05, the null hypothesis *there is no difference in attractiveness between the chosen models* could not be rejected. Therefore, alternative hypothesis "*both models are equally attractive*" is accepted.

Table 2 summarizes the results from all Mann-Whitney U-tests where the attractiveness or the familiarity of the models were compared.

Table 2   Results from Mann-Whitney U-tests

Results from the Mann-Whitney U-test		
	p	U
Attractiveness		
Cameron Diaz vs. Tilda Swinton	,000**	407
Non-celebrity Model 1 vs. Non-celebrity Model 2	,000**	713
Cameron Diaz vs. Non-celebrity Model 1	,142	90
Familiarity		
Cameron Diaz vs. Non-celebrity model 1	,000**	800

** Statistically highly significant

Finally, the attractiveness of the endorsers was analyzed with background variables to ensure that the age and gender of the respondents did not have an impact on the perceived attractiveness of the models. Tests clearly showed that there was no difference between groups created based on the background variables.

4.3   Experiment

 "Marketing research – and marketing – would be much better off if researchers conducted more experiments. Well-done experiments are and have always been the 'gold standard' of evidence in science." - Larry Gibson – (Malholtra & Peterson 2006, 208)

In order to answer the first and second research questions an experiment was conducted. An experiment is a process where independent variables are manipulated and their effect on dependent variables is measured while controlling the extraneous variables. In the field of conclusive research, experimentation represents causal research. With experimenting it is possible for researchers to control circumstances and therefore find causal relationships between test subjects. *Random assignment* is a typical character for experiments. It means that test subjects are randomly assigned to treatment groups in order to minimize the impact of extraneous variables such as age, income level or occupational status. The experiment conducted in this study was a pre-experimental design as random

assignment was not used. (Malholtra & Peterson 2006, 211-216.) Sampling method used in the experiment conducted in this study was *matching*. Matching differs from random assignment in a way that the researcher matches the treatment groups in order to ensure the similarity of the test subjects in both groups. Matching is well suited for smaller sample sizes as random assignment does not ensure equal groups when the sample size is small. With matching, it is possible to reach the same outcome with smaller sample sizes than random assignment would reach with bigger sample sizes.

Independent variables are variables that are being manipulated by the researcher. In the experiment conducted in this study the independent variable is the product endorser and the treatment consists of celebrity product endorser versus non-celebrity product endorser. *Dependent variables* are the variables that measure the effect that the independent variables have on participants. (Malhotra & Peterson 2006, 214.) The dependent variable in the study is brand recall. *Extraneous variables* are variables beside independent variables that might have an effect on the results. For example, in this study the experiment setting or the age of the test subjects might have an impact on the results.

4.3.1 Eye tracking

Eye tracking is a method that measures the point of gaze. Put it simply, where one is looking. An eye tracker is a device that measures eye movement and the position of eyes and pupils. Eye tracking as a concept is not new by any means with first tests dating back to as early as the 19th century. Eye tracking method has been used in the field of marketing in several studies from label design planning to advertisement effectiveness measurement (e.g. Krugman, Fox, Fletcher, Fischer and Rojas 1994). More recently, eye tracking has been used as an online marketing and webpage optimization tool (e.g. Lee & Ahn 2012). However, the eye tracking scene has undergone significant changes over the past few years. It was not until last year when sub $100 eye tracking devices became available when The Eye Tribe launched its eye tracking device. This particular device was used in this study. Traditional industrial eye-tracking devices are expensive and usually designed to be worn like eyeglasses. The Eye Tribe eye tracking device is camera based and it is placed below the PC monitor rather than worn by test subjects.

The decision to use eye-tracking as a research method was three-fold. First, attention is a necessary condition for recall to form (Beattie and Mitchell 1985). Eyes do not lie. Whenever asked where someone paid attention to there is a chance that the participants lie, do not know or do not remember. An eye-tracking device will provide data of the attention points accurately. Second, even though an eye-tracking method has been used in several studies in the field of advertising it has never been paired with the phenome-

non of celebrity endorsement and product class involvement. Third, eye-tracking brings a pioneering approach to this study.

4.3.2 Treatment groups and experimental setting

The experiment consisted of two treatment groups. Treatment groups differed in terms of the celebrity status of the product endorser in the advertisement. The first treatment group was presented with a slideshow including an advertisement with a celebrity endorser. The second treatment group, the control group, was presented a slideshow featuring an advertisement with a non-celebrity endorser. After the test subjects had filled in the post-experiment survey, they would be further categorized into two different groups based on their product class involvement.

32 men and women aged 20-35 voluntarily participated in the experiment. Treatment groups were matched based on the background variables of the test subjects. The final treatment groups and test subjects are presented in table 3 below.

Table 3   Treatment groups

	Experimental Group				Control Group		
Test Subject	Sex	Age	Occupation	Test Subject	Sex	Age	Occupation
1	Female	20-25	Party Planner	17	Female	20-25	Student
2	Male	30-35	Teacher	18	Female	20-25	Office Worker
3	Male	20-25	Student	19	Male	20-25	CEO
4	Male	20-25	CEO	20	Female	20-25	Student
5	Male	20-25	Student	21	Male	30-35	Consultant
6	Female	20-25	Student	22	Male	26-30	Student
7	Male	20-25	CEO	23	Male	26-30	Project Engineer
8	Male	30-35	Office Worker	24	Female	20-25	Student
9	Male	20-25	Professional Athlete	25	Female	20-25	Student
10	Female	20-25	Student	26	Male	26-30	Student
11	Male	20-25	Student	27	Male	26-30	Professional Athlete
12	Male	30-35	Office Worker	28	Male	26-30	Engineer
13	Male	20-25	Student	29	Male	20-25	Student
14	Female	20-25	Student	30	Male	30-35	ITC Consultant
15	Female	26-30	Paramedic	31	Male	20-25	Student
16	Female	20-25	Student	32	Female	26-30	Office Worker

12 of the test subjects were female and 20 were men. Both groups included 6 female and 10 male test subjects. Half of the test subjects were students and the other half represented various other occupations. Two thirds of the test subjects were aged between 20 and 25. Even though age wise the treatment groups are rather homogeneous, different occupational statuses provide demographic variation.

Each participant attended the experiment alone with the researcher in a classroom setting. The experiment began with the establishment of the experimental guise. Sub-

jects were told that they would watch a slideshow including a few advertisements in order to study advertising. They were also told that afterwards they would fill in an online survey (see Misra and Beatty 1990). It was confirmed from each participant that they did not participate in the pre-test survey in order to avoid bias. First, test subjects were asked to sit comfortably so they could stay relatively still for a couple of minutes. However, it was emphasized that small head or body movement would not affect the experiment. Before the start of the slideshow, the eye tracking device was calibrated for each participant. Good or perfect calibration result was achieved for each test subject. The eye tracking user interface states that a 'good' result from the calibration offers a satisfactory starting point for recording data. For one test subject the calibration failed completely and the experiment was not conducted for that particular test subject. In the calibration process test subjects were simply asked to follow the red circle on the screen. The purpose of the calibration was to eliminate the impact of the position of the test subject and the device. Calibration only took 30 seconds for each participant. After the experiment test subjects were asked if they were disruptively tired or if the presence of the eye tracking device made them feel uncomfortable. No test subject thought that they were exceptionally tired and only three test items stated that they were aware of the eye tracking device and felt a bit uncomfortable because of it. Used technical equipment for the experiment were an eye tracker device, a personal computer and an external display. Experimental setting is presented in Appendix 3. Before conducting the actual experiment, the experimental setting was tested with three people that were not part of the final treatment groups.

4.3.3   Stimuli advertisements

Rather than just showing the stimulus advertisement to test subjects, a four advertisements slideshow was created in order not to give a strong hint to test subjects about the purpose of the study. Gaze time data from the one stimulus advertisement per slideshow was analyzed. The stimuli advertisements are presented in Figure 10.
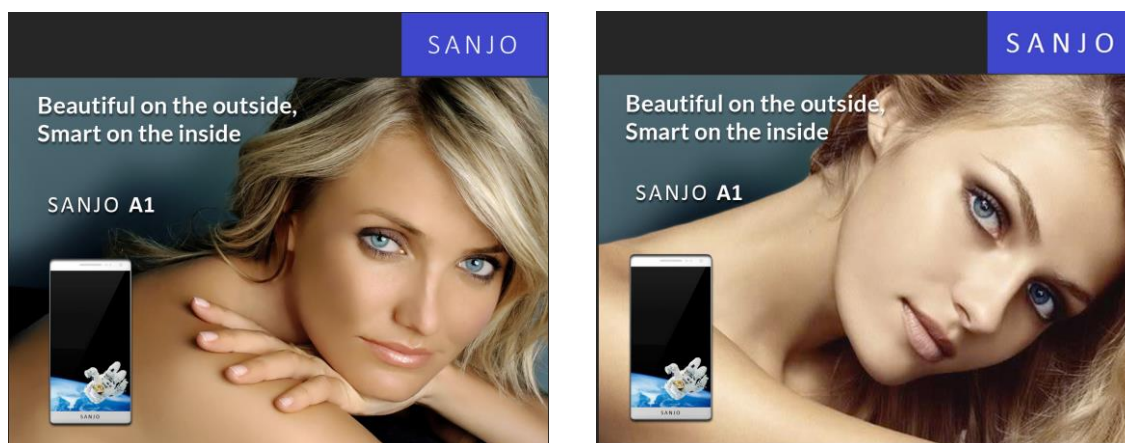
Figure 10   Stimuli advertisements

Stimuli advertisements consisted of five elements: product endorser, brand logo, slogan, product and product name. Stimuli advertisements had an identical layout and the only difference was the celebrity status of the product endorser. Advertisements represent a co-present form of celebrity endorsement as endorsers are merely making an appearance with the product advertised. Product endorsers for the stimuli advertisements were selected in the pre-test stage. Advertisements were created based on the same photos used in the pre-test in order to maintain the attractiveness and familiarity of the models. The text lines in the advertising were the following: *"Beautiful on the outside, smart on the inside"* (slogan) and *"Sanjo A1"* (product name).

The product category chosen for the stimuli advertisements was smartphones. The product category decision was based on three factors. First, smartphones are a gender neutral category in a way that they are commonly used by both men and women. Second, smartphones are expensive enough to make consumers put thought on the buying process and not purchase them instantly. Third, both male and female participants can be seen as highly or lowly involved with smartphones depending on how important part of their lives smartphones are. Even though men are usually more into technical equipment women can be really attached their smartphones as well.

If a participant would have been familiar with the brand in the stimuli advertisements, their recall score would have likely been higher only because of that. To eliminate the impact of brand recognition as an extraneous variable a fictional brand was created (see Friedman, Termini & Washington 1977). An Asian smartphone brand 'Sanjo' [sʌndʒəʊ] was created as a fictional brand. Sanjo, literally means 'scattered melodies' and is a style of traditional Korean music. The product advertised was Sanjo's new smartphone 'A1'. The created logo for Sanjo is shown in Figure 11 below.

Figure 11   Sanjo logo

Three other advertisements included in the slideshow are presented below:

Figure 12   Three other advertisements in the slideshow

Chosen advertisements represent a wide range of advertisements. The first advertise-ment was very colorful and featured a cheap everyday product, a shampoo. The second advertisement was a very simple Vespa advertisement that did not provide much stimuli for the test subjects. The third advertisement was a campaign against drinking and driv-ing representing a non-capitalist viewpoint of advertising. In previous research, the ex-posure time for the stimuli has been relatively long, even up to three minutes (Kamins 1990). In order to stimulate a real world situation, exposure time of 20 seconds was set for each advertisement. Fixed time was used so that the time spend looking at each point of the advertisement does not vary based on the total time used to look at the ad-vertisement. Even though 20 seconds is still a rather long exposure time, test subjects were exposed to several advertisements and a long enough time was necessary in order for test subjects to recall brand information.

4.3.4   Data collection and analysis

The data from the eye-tracking experiment alone is used to test hypothesis 1a. It was predicted that advertisements with a celebrity endorsers would record less gaze time for brand information than advertisement with non-celebrity endorser. It was hypothesized:

H1a: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser consumers pay less attention to brand and product information

Open software program *Ogama* was used with the eye-tracking device to collect and analyze data. Ogama features a playback module where it is possible to follow the point of gaze of each test subject. Recorded eye movement was inspected by playing the recorded gaze path in order to ensure that there was no abnormal gaze paths that might imply failed recording of the data. All 30 recordings passed the visual inspection of the recorded data. Analysis of the data was based on the *areas of interests (AOI)* that were created in the advertisements. Created AOIs were the product endorser, slogan, the logo, the product and the product name. The created AOIs in the advertisements are shown in Figure 13 below.

Figure 13   Areas of Interest in stimuli advertisements

The two treatment groups were compared by the average gaze time on the logo, slogan, product information and product or the *brand information points* and gaze time on the product endorser. Ogama calculated how much gaze time each AOI per test subject got in the experiment. Further, mean values for each area of interest were calculated for each treatment group. Two test subjects recorded significantly lower gaze time for the AOIs than other test subjects. Their recorded gaze time for the whole stimulus advertisement was less than 10 seconds. This was probably due to a technical error or the participant did not stay still enough during the experiment. Due to defective data these two participants were excluded from the study leaving data from total of 30 test subjects to be analyzed. After the experiment each test subject in the experimental group was asked if they recognized Cameron Diaz on the advertisement. All test subjects announced that they recognized her, further confirming her celebrity status.

4.4 Post-experiment

The purpose of the post-experiment survey was to measure test subjects' brand recall and product class involvement. The survey conducted in the post-experiment stage was a cross-sectional, self-administered online questionnaire. Surveys as a data collection method was described in chapter 4.2.1. After the experiment, participants were asked to submit the survey on the same computer that was used to record data in the eye-tracking experiment. Product class involvement was measured after the experiment in order not to give participants a hint about the actual stimulus advertisement in the experiment. Questions related to brand recall were presented first as product class related questions could have affected the recall performance by reminding participants of the stimulus advertisement. In the beginning of the questionnaire, the purpose of the survey was explained:

"In the slideshow one smartphone advertisement was presented. Please, answer the following questions regarding to that particular advertisement."

In the last page of the survey participants submitted the same background information that was collected in the pre-test: gender, age, occupational status and income level. After completing the survey, test subjects from the experimental group were interviewed in order to find out consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement.

4.4.1 Brand recall

It was predicted that when advertisement features a high status celebrity endorser consumers would pay less attention to the brand information which in turn would worsen their brand recall. It was hypothesized:

H1b: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser consumers pay less attention to brand and product information, this results in a worse recall

Research model for the first hypothesis is presented in Figure 14 below.

Experiment

	Time 0	Time 1
Experimental group	Attention paid on the brand and the product information is LOW	Predicted immediate recall is LOW
Control Group	Attention paid on the brand and the product information is HIGH	Predicted immediate recall is HIGH

Figure 14   Research model for H1

Experiment consists of two treatment groups. Treatment groups will vary in terms of the status of the product endorser. The experimental group is presented with an advertisement with a celebrity endorser. The control group will be exposed to an advertisement with a non-celebrity endorser. The experiment will take place at time 0. The recall will be measured at time 1, immediately after the experiment.

Two types of brand recall is categorized based on the time of the recall: immediate and delayed. Immediate recall is measured literally right after the exposure to stimulus. Time of the delayed recall can vary. In previous studies it has been anything from a day to a week (e.g. Arnold & Bird 1982; Misra & Beatty 1990). In previous studies (e.g. Misra & Beatty 1990) a correlation between the immediate and delayed recall has been found. Therefore, within the scope of this study only the immediate recall was measured. Questions for the recall measurement were all open text box question except for one. A product recognition related question was a multiple-choice question where participants chose the phone they thought was featured in the advertisement from three similar looking alternatives. The phone recognition question was added to a new page in order not to give test subjects a reminder of the brand, as "Sanjo" was written at the bottom of the phone. Four questions used in the survey were the following:

- What was the brand called in the advertisement?
- What was the slogan in the advertisement?
- What was the name of the product?
- Which one of the three phones was presented in the advertisement?

In their study Misra and Beatty (1990) used the following score for recall: *"The number of items of brand information (including brand name) correctly recalled."* Even though, the brand name is the most crucial piece of brand information to be recalled, other items were used to more clearly distinguish differences in recall between the treatment group and control group.

4.4.2 Product class involvement

It was predicted that consumers' product class involvement would influence the amount of attention paid to brand information. Hence, it was hypothesized:

H2a: Consumers with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information

H2b: Consumers with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information, this results in a better recall

To test the second hypothesis the following research model is presented.
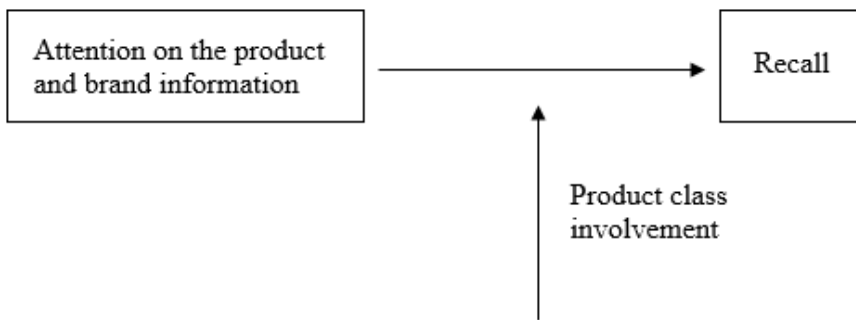
Figure 15   Research Model for H2

Product class involvement is set as a moderator in the research model as it was hypothesized that higher product class involvement would have an impact on attention to brand information and recall.

In the Handbook of marketing scales (Bearden & Netemeyer 1999) the modified three-part questionnaire for product class involvement included the following three questions:

- _____ is very important to me.
- For me, _____ do (does) not matter.
- _____ are an important part of my life.

Questions used to measure product class involvement were closed questions except for one. Participants submitted their answers on a six point Likert-scale in which 1 = Completely Agree, 2 = Mostly Agree, 3 = Slightly Agree, 4 = Slightly Disagree, 5 = Mostly Disagree and 6 = Completely Disagree. Survey included three additional questions adapted from the study by Tyebjee (1979) *but only data from three questions presented above was analyzed* in order to avoid the mixing of different measures. Complete post-

experiment survey is presented in Appendix 4. The questions used in the analysis were the following:

- *Smartphones are important part of my life*
- *Smartphones are very important to me*
- *For me, smartphones don't matter*

Based on the scored calculated from the answers the respondents are categorized in two groups: consumers of high product class involvement and consumers of low product class involvement.

4.4.3   *Analysis of the quantitative data*

Even though the research design of this study is complex in nature, mostly due to the experiment, the analysis of the quantitative data is somewhat straightforward as only mean comparison is needed in order to find out whether there are differences between the two treatment groups. Data from the post-experiment survey was combined with the data from the experiment in order to answer the first and second research questions. Survey data was transferred from WebRopol to Excel and SPSS in order to conduct the analysis. Test subjects were described in detail in chapter 4.2. As the sample size was small (N = 30) a non-parametric test should be employed. Mann-Whitney U-test was used for statistical analysis. (Siegel & Castellan, 1988, 34.) For the statistical analysis alpha's probability level of 5% was chosen.

On the recall score, one point was credited for each correctly recalled piece of brand information. Half points were credited on slogan recall were the test subject was capable of recalling either of the two text lines on the advertisement. In addition, a one letter misspell on the brand name was credited with 0,5 points. For example, San*io* would score 0,5 for a test subject.

Product class involvement of the test subjects was determined by calculating the total score of the product class involvement related questions. Frequencies of scores for test subjects' product class involvement are presented in Figure 16 below.
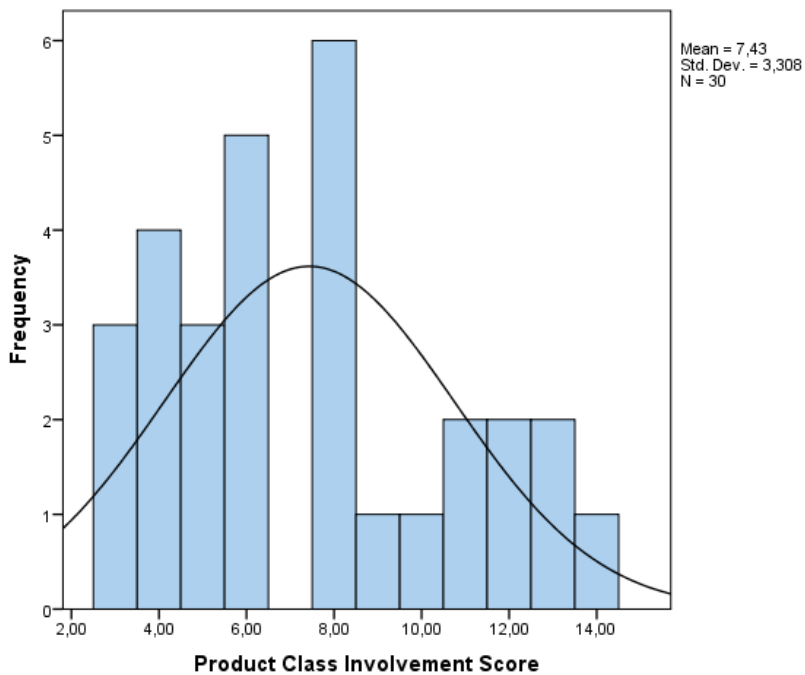
Figure 16   Test subjects' product class involvement

As it can be seen from the Figure 16 the data is rather normally distributed skewing slightly to the left side. Mean for test subjects' product class involvement was 7,4. Test subjects were separated in two groups by using the mean as a the point of separation meaning that consumers with product class involvement score higher than seven were nominated as high product class involvement consumers and accordingly consumers with product class involvement score less than seven were categorized as low involvement test subjects. As a result, 15 test subjects were appointed for each involvement group. For further analysis gaze time of individual test subjects in high and low product class involvement groups was analyzed in SPSS.

4.4.4   Qualitative data and analysis

Purpose of the post-experiment interview was to investigate consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement and gain deeper understanding of the widely researched phenomenon. Further, interviews were conducted to analyze if consumers' perceptions might have an impact on the recall and to make sense of the results from the eye-tracking experiment.

In qualitative studies open questions are preferred as they offer a possibility to gain rich answers that lead to a deep understating of the phenomenon studied (Bryman & Bell 2007, 210). Interviews conducted in this study were *semi-structured interviews*. In semi-structured interviews, respondents are asked the same questions in the same order,

like in structured interviews. A semi-structured interview was chosen as a method as the researcher already had a good overall knowledge of the phenomenon. Thus more specific issues of the topic were discussed. (Saunders et al. 2003, 246.)

Interviews were conducted after the test subjects had completed the post-experiment survey in order not to give a hint about the purpose of the study. Only test subjects from the experimental group were interviewed as they had an opportunity to reflect back to the slideshow including an advertisement with a celebrity endorser. A total of fifteen test subjects were interviewed. A recording application on a smartphone was used to record interviews. Interviews, except for one, were conducted in Finnish. Interview questions in Finnish are presented in Appendix 5. All interviews were transcribed and translated by the researcher. Background variables of the test subjects in the control group were presented in chapter 4.2.2. The questions in the post-experiment interview were the following:

1. How do you feel of companies using celebrities in advertising?
2. What do you think are the pros and cons of celebrity endorsement?

The first interview question offered test subjects an opportunity to reflect their perception of celebrity endorsement with no bias. This was crucial as early questions can have an impact on test subjects responses to later questions (Bryman & Bell 2007, 211). The second interview question aimed to find out what test subjects thought are the positive and negative sides of celebrity endorsement. This way it could be analyzed if test subjects had perceptions of celebrity endorsement that might have affected their brand recall.

Content analysis was used as a base for analyzing the interviews. Content analysis is used to describe the research material in a quantitative way (Eskola & Suoranta 2008, 104-128). Content analysis is a natural choice for this study as the main focus of this study is quantitative. Transcribed answers for each questions were categorized based on their themes. In content analysis specific words can be used as a measurement. However, evaluation of larger themes such as sentences or conceptual unities is also plausible. (Pantzar 1991.) Even though content analysis offers more of a quantitative approach for analyzing qualitative data, the subjective interpretation of the researcher is still emphasized. It is crucial that the researcher selects meaningful observations, such as words or phrases, in order to capture the essence of the thoughts the test subjects have on the phenomenon. (Eskola & Suoranta 2008, 186-187.) In this study specific words and pharases were searched for from the interview answers in order to find common themes from each test subject. Findings from both questions were combined in order to create a holistic understanding that reflects interviewees personal perceptions. Themes emerging from the interviews were also reflected against the earlier research suggesting problems

and factors specific to celebrity endorsement. The qualitative data was further analyzed with frequency table where the most common themes that interviewees discussed are presented. To support the analysis of the interviews citations from the interviewees are presented.

4.5   Discussing the quality of the study

Reliability and validity define the quality and trustworthiness of an empirical research. As qualitative and quantitative studies are different in nature, concepts used to evaluate the quality of each type of research vary. As this study consists of both quantitative and qualitative elements, a comprehensive framework for understanding the quality of this study is needed.

Reliability is achieved if the results from the study are constant in repeated measurements (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 140). Conducting the test twice is the simplest way of ensuring reliability (Field 2013, 13). Due to the nature of this study, however, conducting re-tests for the experiment or surveys was not possible. In quantitative studies *validity* is established when researcher has measured what was supposed to be measured and has been able to reveal true differences between variables instead of systematic or random error (Bearden & Netemeyer 1999). Brand recall, which was the dependent variable in this study, is unequivocal as test subjects are simply being asked if they recall the information presented in the advertisement. Similarly, in the pre-test, test subjects were simply asked how attractive they found the models and whether they recognized them. Therefore, no operationalization was needed for the pre-test or brand recall measures. Scales used in the post-experiment survey to measure product class involvement were adapted from the handbook of marketing scales (Bearden & Netemeyer 1999).

In addition to measurement validity, internal and external validity of the study are considered. *Internal validity* is closely related to the concept of *causality*. Experiments are the only research method that can be used to establish causal relationship between two or more variables. The experiment conducted in this study, however, was not a true experimental design as a) test subjects were not randomly selected and b) due to the nature of the dependent variable no pre-test was conducted for the test subjects. (Malhotra & Peterson 2006, 222.) Internal validity is reached when the manipulation of the independent variables, instead of other variables, caused the effects on the dependent variable. (Malhotra & Peterson 2006, 212-216). In this study it was hypothesized that two independent variables, familiarity of the product endorser and consumers' product class involvement, would affect the dependent variable. As discussed earlier, beside the independent variables the extraneous variables might have an impact on the dependent variable. In this study the brand used in the advertisements was fictional making sure

that none of the test subjects were familiar with it. Further, all experiments were conducted in the same place minimizing the impact of environmental factors. *External validity* refers to the generalizability of the results (Malhotra & Peterso 2006, 216). As test subjects for the pre-test survey and experiment were not randomly assigned, therefore not comprehensively representing the population, *random sampling errors* are possible in this study (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 74). Further, in the experiment the sample size was small which could lead to an incomprehensive representation of the population. In pre-test stage several communication channels were used in order to collect comprehensive sample of the population. To avoid sampling error in the experimental stage, *matching* (Malhotra & Peterson 2006, 219) was used to create two equal treatment groups in terms of background variables. In general, however, the size and skewness of the sample compromises the generalization of the results of this research. Therefore, findings from this study are not generalizable within the population. *Non-sampling errors* occur because of factors unrelated to sampling such as research approach, questionnaires used, data collection methods and data analysis (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 74). Questionnaires and experimental settings were tested with test subjects that did not participate in the actual study in order to make sure they were easy to understand.

In qualitative studies it is impossible to separate the analysis from the quality of the study. This is due to the fact that the analysis, interpretation and handling of the data is an overlapping process. (Eskola & Suoranta 2008, 208.) In qualitative studies the role of the researcher is emphasized and matching the results with reality is the fundamental goal of a research. This means that themes emerging from data describe the real thoughts and feelings of test subjects. (Hirsijärvi & Hurme 1980, 42.) Qualitative part of this study consisted of interviews. When evaluating the validity of an interview it must be noted that interviews are always unique situations. Therefore, criterias for evaluating the validity cannot follow the strictness of those in a quantitative research. Unlike the rest of the study, the post-experiment interviews were conducted in Finnish, except for one English native speaker, in order to gain richer answers from the test subjects. Some changes in data might have occurred because of the translation from English to Finnish. However, the researcher's English was sufficient enough in order to capture the essence of the interviews in the translations.

Mixed methods approach can increase the validity of findings as it offers a possibility for triangulation. *Triangulation* refers to multiple data collecting methods utilized in the same research. (Saunders et al. 2003, 99.) In this study data was collected from surveys, experiment and interviews. In this study the mixed methods approach can increase the validity of the results as brand recall, the dependent variable in the experiment, and consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement can support one another. Further, mixed methods approach can compensate the flaws of the chosen methods. (Davis, et al. 2010, 467.) As the quality of the results from the quantitative part of the study is com-

promised because of the small sample size, qualitative interviews can support the findings thus increasing the validity of the findings. Next, the results from this study are presented.

5   RESULTS

5.1   Impact of celebrity endorsement on recall and attention to advertisement

First, it was studied if test subjects in the experimental group spent less time looking at the brand information than test subjects in the control group testing hypothesis 1a. Table 4 below presents the mean values for both treatment groups for gaze time on brand information and product endorser.

Table 4   Gaze time on information and endorser per treatment group

	N	$\overline{X}$ of Gaze time in seconds on: Endorser	Brand Information
Experimental Group	15	6,6	8,8
Control Group	15	5,6	9,0

In the experimental group, test subjects spent approximately one second more time on average looking at the product endorser than test subjects in the control group. Difference in attention to the brand information was only fraction of a second. Mann-Whitney U-test revealed that the difference between the groups was not significant. ($p = ,694 > 0,05$; $N = 30$; $U=70$). The analysis did not provide support for hypothesis 1a:

H1a: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser, consumers pay less attention to brand and product information → Rejected

Next, it was analyzed if there was difference in brand recall between the two treatment groups. Recall scores for each test subject in both treatment groups are presented in table 5 below:

Table 5   Recall scores for the two treatment groups

	Experimental Group		Control Group	
Test Subject	Recall Score	Test Subject	Recall Score
1	0	16	1
2	2	17	0
3	0	18	1
4	1	19	0
5	0	20	2
6	3	21	1
7	1	22	2
8	2	23	2
9	2	24	2
10	0	25	2
11	3	26	3
12	3	27	3
13	0	28	2
14	0	29	0
15	0	30	0
Total Score	**17**		**21**

Total recall scores for test subjects were 17 in the experimental group and 21 in the control group respectively. In the control group, the total recall score was 24% higher than in the experimental group. The most common correctly recalled piece of brand information was the brand name. Thirteen (43%) test subjects recalled the brand name correctly. Just over third of the test subjects were able to select the phone featured in the advertisement from three similar looking alternatives. Seven test subjects recalled the slogan correctly and only five test subjects recalled the product name. Whereas in the control group there were four test subjects who did not recall any brand information, there were seven test subjects in the experimental group who did not recall any brand information. However, results from the Mann-Whitney U-test show that there was no statistical difference between the two treatment groups. (p =,502 > 0,05, N = 30; U=97). Analysis provided no support for hypothesis 1b.

H1b: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser consumers pay less attention to brand and product information, this results in a worse recall. → Rejected

5.2 Impact of product class involvement on recall and attention to advertisement

First, it was analyzed if test subjects' product class involvement had an impact on the way test subjects viewed the stimuli advertisements. Means of gaze time for brand information and endorser for groups of high and low product class involvement are presented in table 6 below:

Table 6   Gaze time per product class involvement groups

		$\overline{X}$ of Gaze time in seconds on:	
	N	Endorser	Brand Information
High product class inv.	15	6,1	8,7
Low product class inv.	15	6,0	9,0

As it can be seen from the table 6 the differences between the involvement groups are negligible. Product class involvement does not seem to have an impact on attention paid on the brand and product information or the endorser. Results from the Mann-Whitney U-test confirmed that the differences between the two groups were not significant (p = ,917 > ,05: N = 15; U=30). Analysis provided no support for hypothesis 2a.

H2a: Consumers with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information → Rejected

Second, it was analyzed if brand recall varied between the two involvement groups. Recall scores for each test subject are presented in table 7:

Table 7   Recall scores per product class involvement groups

Test Subject	Product Class Involvement	Recall Score	Test Subject	Product Class Involvement	Recall Score
2	High	2	1	Low	0
4	High	1	3	Low	0
7	High	1	5	Low	0
8	High	2	6	Low	3
12	High	0	9	Low	2
13	High	1	10	Low	0
15	High	2	11	Low	1
16	High	1	14	Low	0
18	High	2	17	Low	2
19	High	2	21	Low	3

20	High	2	23	Low	3
22	High	3	27	Low	0
24	High	2	28	Low	0
25	High	3	29	Low	0
26	High	0,5	30	Low	0
Total score		**24,5**			**14**

The total recall score for the high product involvement group was 24,5 and for the low involvement group the recall score was 14. The Mann-Whitney U-test suggests that there were differences between the two groups at 10% alpha probability level (p = ,064 < ,07; N = 15 and U = 69,5). Even though 10% probability level does not indicate highly significant results, there are other factors highlighting the differences between the groups. Within the low product class involvement group, more than half of the test subjects did not recall any brand information. In the high product class involvement group respectively there was *only one* test subject with a recall score of zero. The analysis supports hypothesis 2b:

H2b: Consumers with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information, this results in a better recall → Accepted

5.3   Consumers' perception of celebrity endorsement

"Absolutely it is an advantage from the company's point of view."

Test subjects did not express negative attitudes towards celebrity endorsement in general and felt that the use of celebrity endorsers can be beneficial for a company.

"Usually, in general, they (celebrities) create positive brand attitudes because they increase awareness of the product advertised."

As discussed in the chpater 2.1, brand recall is a key factor in creating brand attitudes. If famous product endorsers create awareness as suggested above, using celebrities in advertising campaigns can help companies to create brand attitudes and enhance their brand image. As brands can carry multiple different product categories, celebrity endorsement can be used to enhance brand attitudes even if the product advertised does not interest a particular consumer.

"I recommend it. Because celebrities are able to attract attention and they are interesting people."

Last citation points out that consumers might find celebrities interesting probably due their media presence and meanings that they carry, and interesting people can naturally create interest. Indeed, even if a celebrity is not likable they can still be interesting and attract attention from consumers. It is possible that celebrity endorser would create more interest towards advertisements and create more gaze time for the advertisements. This could not be confirmed in the experiment as test subjects were not able to choose how long they spend looking at each advertisement.

One test subject pointed out that in the modern market environment celebrity endorsement is very commonly used advertising tactic:

"I have not really thought about it (celebrity endorsement) because it is so common, maybe you pay more attention if there is someone you know in the advertisement, I don't' know."

Indeed, the plentiful use of celebrity endorsers might mean that consumers are used to it and do not possess strong – negative or positive – attitudes towards it. If consumers take celebrity endorsers for granted they are not likely to improve brand recall as they do not create a strong memory trace. Might be that the celebrities' attention-catching properties have decreased as they are ever so commonly used. However, some test subjects still suggest that a familiar face might act as an attention catcher and reminder:

"It's more effective because it helps you to remember the advertisement because you know the person who is in the advertisement."

"First I pay attention on the celebrity and for example see that oh, that is Natalie Portman ,what's that perfume?"

On one hand this supports the recorded experiment data as the first point of gaze in the stimuli advertisements was the product endorser for 22 of the 30 (73%) test subjects. On the other hand the non-celebrity endorser was the first point of attention as frequently as the celebrity endorser in their respective advertisements. Three test subjects noted that even though celebrity endorsers might catch the attention at first, attention will then turn into the product. This argument could not be evaluated with the experimental data as each test subject had 20 seconds exposure time for the stimulus advertisement so they were likely to view each part of the advertisement anyway. However, when exposure

time for advertisement is only some seconds there is a chance that attention never reaches the product and brand information.

Even though celebrity endorsement as an advertising tactic does not create negative attitudes, the personal characteristics of a particular celebrity endorser can still have an impact on the attitudes:

"It depends on the celebrity, but if it is a celebrity that I like, it will create more interest towards the advertisement."

"Some celebrities might help to create positive attention but some might create disgust reactions if you don't like the person."

This is something that companies cannot control as not all consumers can be expected to like a certain celebrity. As the non-celebrity endorser got as much gaze time as the celebrity endorser it might be that *beautiful models* – celebrities or not – are overshadowing the brand and the product:

"It does not matter if the model is famous, as long as she is beautiful she will get most of my attention."

This supports the thought that the researcher presented in the introduction. Indeed, it is not a celebrity that is stealing the attention but a beautiful model is getting most of the attention. In a way this supports the use celebrity endorsement as the risk of overshadowing is imminent with non-celebrity endorsers as well.

Interviews were further analyzed with a frequency table. Frequency table of the most common themes that arose from the interviews is presented below:

Table 8   Interviews frequency table

Theme	Frq
Pays more attention and helps to recall, or creates more interest because of familiar product endorser	7
Celebrity should be relevant to the product or the brand	7
Celebrity might overshadow the brand and product	6

All other themes that emerged from the interviews were mentioned by less than five interviewees. Seven test subjects stated that a familiar product endorser would attract more attention for the advertisement which in turn would help to recall information:

"In best case you will link the product with the famous endorser, such as Nescafe coffee capsules with George Clooney. In that case you will remember the product because of the celebrity and the celebrity because of the product."

Another common point raised by seven interviewees was that the celebrity should somehow be relevant to the brand endorsed.

"If it is a brand that I already have strong attitudes towards then the celebity will only enforece the attidues – but only if if he is suitable for the brand, like let's say Harley Davidson and Marlon Brandon."

"It heavily depends on the product. I think that some products and brands are naturally better suited for celebrity endorsement. For example, of course the optimal case is that the celebrity itself uses the product and because of that wants to endorse the product, but if an actress endorses Lenovo's laptop it is not really believable."

In fact, the only negative comments towards celebrity endorsement were made specifically about a non-believable celebrity-product pairing. It does seem that as long as celebrity endorsement is done "correctly", no negative attitudes against the brand or advertisement is created. This is in line with previous studies (Jaiprakash 2008; Roy et al. 2012) that suggest that congruence is a key factor to a successful endorsement process.

"Using celebrities will usually mean that no attention is left for the product."

"One hand it is (using celebrity endorsement) okay but on the other hand there is a possibility that the product will be left in the background"

Six test subjects made a point about celebrity endorser overshadowing the product endorsed. One of the test subject made a point about the exact advertisement just showed in the experiment:

"In fact, when I think about it, in the slideshow, I did not pay any attention to the brand, Cameron Diaz stole the show, no recall on the product what so ever."

It is worth noticing that the quote above was pointed out by a test subject with very low product class involvement. These premises are in line with H1 presented by the researcher. Even though the quantitative data did not provide support for H1, it is still possible for certain individuals to get carried away with the celebrity endorser.

"If the product is not familiar, then the celebrity will further steal attention from the product."

It is possible that if a person is not interested in the product category (low product class involvement) then the celebrity endorser is likely to gain most of the attention.

"It is very possible. Especially if somebody is only interested in the celebrity only or not interested in the product, focus can 'run away' and the advertisement might not achieve the wished result."

This surmise is in line with previous research in topic (Petty et al. 1983) suggesting that peripheral cues (celebrity endorer) are more important for consumers with low product class involvement. However, the eye-tracking experiment did not provide support for this as attention on advertisement did not vary based on test subjects product class involvement.

Finally, as suggested by Roy et al. (2012) marketers might just take the easy way out with celebrity endorsement:

"Celebrities are an easy way out for marketers when trying to get attention. It works if the product is well known and simple."

6   CONCLUSIONS

6.1   General discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore if consumers' product class involvement and exposure to celebrity endorsers affect consumers brand recall. An eye-tracking experiment was conducted in order to answer the first two research questions of this study. The first two research questions were the following:

- Does the familiarity of the product endorser have an impact on the degree of attention paid on the brand and product information and does it affect brand recall?
- Does consumers' product class involvement have an impact on the degree of attention paid on the brand and product information and does it affect brand recall?

A third research question was presented in order to study consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement. In order to answer the third research question, post-experiment interviews were conducted. Third research question was formulated as:

- What are consumers' perceptions of celebrity endorsement and do they have an impact on consumers' brand recall?

The eye-tracking experiment revealed that test subjects recorded equal gaze time for the brand and product information and the product endorser regardless of the treatment group. Test subjects did not pay more attention to the product endorser when she was a high status celebrity. Therefore, *no support was found for hypothesis 1a.* Previous research (Roy et al. 2012) has raised a concern about a possible celebrity overexposure in the media. This was supported by the quantitative data from the experiment that shows that test subjects did not pay any more attention to a celebrity endorser than on a normal person. Some authors (e.g. Rossiter and Percy 1997) suggest that celebrities might overshadow the brand. Further, in the posti-experiment interviews several test subjects expressed the concern of celebrity overshadowing the brand and the product. However, no support was found from the quantitative data. Two plausible explanations for this can be concluded from the post-experiment interviews. *First*, both endorsers in the stimuli advertisements were equally attractive. Even though celebrities can be considered to be highly attractive because of meanings they carry (McCracken 1989), it does not necessarily mean that they steal attention from the brand and product information more than attractive non-celebrity endorsers. It is suggested that the beautiful model in general catches most of the attention, possibly overshadowing the brand. *Second*, analysis of the interviews emphasizes the fact that nowadays celebrity endorsement is a very commonly used advertising tactic. Therefore, consumers do not pay *extra attention* to the celeb-

rity endorser as it is an everyday phenomenon. These findings in part highlight the power of celebrity endorsers as they can create desirable thoughts inside consumers' minds using principles of classical conditioning (e.g. Till et al. 2008) *without* stealing any attention from the product and brand information. Further, the interviewees felt that the celebrity endorser would help them to recall the brand because of the familiarity of the product endorser. However, it seems to be crucial that there is a natural link between the celebrity endorser and the brand. If the pairing is not believable negative attitudes towards the brand might arise.

Analysis of the eye tracking and post-experiment survey data suggest that brand recall in the control group was slightly better than in the experimental group providing some support for Hypothesis 1b. Even though recall within the control group's test subjects was slightly better, it could not be fully concluded that this was due to the status of the product endorser. In addition, the experimental group included more low involved test subjects which in turn might have lowered the recall score. After Hypothesis 1a was rejected earlier, predictably *no strong support was found for Hypothesis 1b*. Test subjects exposed to celebrity endorsers did not recall information better. In fact, test subjects exposed to celebrities scored slightly lower in recall than test subjects exposed to non-celebrity endorsers.

Data from the eye-tracking experiment indicates that test subjects' product class involvement did not affect the way advertisements were viewed. In detail, higher product class involvement did not result in increased attention to the brand and product information. Therefore, *no support was found for Hypothesis 2a*. Regardless of their product class involvement test subjects paid equal amount of time on the product endorser and information points. Therefore, product class involvement did not work as a moderator that would have influenced the amount of time the test subject spent looking at certain elements of the advertisement. However, consumers' higher product class involvement resulted in a better recall. Difference between the two treatment groups was not highly significant but enough evidence was found to conclude that the brand recall within the high product class involvement group was better. As no support for Hypothesis 1a was found, the better recall of the high product class involvement test subjects cannot be explained with the type of endorser featured in the stimuli advertisements. Therefore, *Hypothesis 2b was supported*. Consumers with high product class involvement recalled information better than those with low product class involvement. Even though highly involved consumers do not necessarily pay more attention to the brand and product information, they have a capability to process information relevant to them with higher precision and efficiency. In table 9 below summary of hypotheses and results is presented.

Table 9   Hypotheses and results

Hypothesis	Result
H1a: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser people pay less attention to brand and product information	Not supported
H1b: When an advertisement features a celebrity endorser people pay less attention to brand and product information, this results in a worse recall	Not supported
H2a: People with high product class involvement pay more attention to brand and product information	Not supported
H2b: People with high product class involvement pay more attention on brand and product information, this results in a better recall	Supported

In general, interviews did not express negative attitudes towards celebrity endorsement. This is in line with previous research (Bailey 2007). However, it seems that if the celebrity endorser is somehow relevant to the product and brand, attitudes are more positive. If the celebrity-brand pairing is not believable, test subjects admitted that they might get suspicious or indignant. This supports earlier research suggesting that if the congruence between the spokesperson and the product is not evident, believability of the celebrity endorser can diminish (Kamins and Gupta 1994, 580). Generally, it can be concluded that consuemrs' perceptions of celebrity endorsement are mostly affected by the celebrity – brand congruence.

In general, the results from this study support the use of celebrity endorsers for three reasons. *First,* a celebrity endorser does not seem to steal more attention from the brand and product information than a non-celebrity product endorser does. *Second,* use of celebrity endorsers did not significantly lower brand recall. *Third,* even consumers with high product class involvement seem to pay equal amount of attention to peripheral cues than consumers with low product class involvement. Thus, an effective use of celebrity endorsers is not only limited to advertising to consumers with low product class involvement. Results highlight the importance of highly involved consumers for marketers. Unfortunately companies cannot control consumers' personal involvement level for a certain product category. However, this study provides soothing evidence for marketers that consumers with different levels of product class involvement can be – at least to some extent – influenced with similar advertising tactics.

6.2 Theoretical implications

The main theoretical implications of this study concern celebrity endorsement and consumers' product class involvement. Further, their impact on advertising effectiveness is evaluated. Even though multiple studies (e.g. Friedman, Termini & Washington 1976; Atkin & Block 1983; Hung 2014) support celebrity endorsement, there is a fair amount of criticism against it as well. Some authors present the concern of the celebrity overshadowing the product and brand (Mehta 1994; Marindale 1991; Rossiter & Percy 1997). However, results from the eye-tracking experiment in this study suggest that a celebrity endorser does not get more attention from consumers than a non-celebrity endorser. As attention is key in forming brand recall (Beattie & Mitchell 1985) some previous studies (e.g. Mehta 1994) suggest that celebrity endorsement weakens consumers' recall. However, in this study there was no difference in recall between test subjects exposed to celebrity or non-celebrity endorsers.

The Elaboration Likelihood model and several involvement related studies (e.g. Petty et al. 1983) emphasize the role of the message in marketers' persuasion attempts. Advertising messages should be tailored based on the motivation and capability of an individual consumer. In part, this study supports the earlier research by suggesting that consumers with high product class involvement recall information better than ones with low product class involvement. However, the previous research suggests that in high involvement situations the peripheral cues (such as the product endorser) would not have a significant role (e.g. Petty et al. 1983). However, the eye tracking experiment revealed that an equal amount of gaze time was spent on peripheral cues regardless of test subjects' product class involvement. Consumers with high product class involvement recall information better even if they do not spend more attention to the brand and product information than consumers with low product class involvement. This is in line with previous research (e.g. Alba 1983) showing that highly involved consumers are able to process information more thoroughly in any given time.

The meaning transfer model (McCracken 1989) provides the foundation for understanding celebrity endorsement. The interviews supported a two-way meaning transfer (Halonen-Knight & Hurmerinta 2010) as test subjects felt that the product is recalled because of the celebrity but also the celebrity because of the product. Results from this study are in-line with the balanced theory. The original balanced theory is supported in a way that if consumers do not like the celebrity endorsement it is possible that negative attitudes will emerge towards the advertisement or the brand. Thus, consumers can achieve the psychological balance. The more contemporary balanced theory is supported as the role of each element in the advertisement play a crucial role. If the message (advertisement) and the person (product endorser) are not relevant to a) each other's and b) consumers the effectiveness of the advertisement might decrease.

6.3　Managerial implications

The pre-test emphasizes the choice of celebrity endorser. It turned out that Cameron Diaz was relatively unknown among more mature test subjects. Familiarity within the target group should be considered when choosing a celebrity endorser for campaigns. If the celebrity endorser is not well known among the target group, the benefits of a celebrity endorser are not any greater than those of a non-celebrity endorser.

There is always a possibility that a high status celebrity steals attention from the brand and product information. However, this study suggests that when celebrity and non-celebrity product endorsers are physically equally attractive there is no difference in the way consumers view advertisements. Therefore, it is recommended for marketers to use celebrities as product endorsers as it is possible to gain other advantages by using famous people as spokespersons. On one hand it needs to be noted that an attractive endorser – celebrity or not – attracts a lot of attention from consumers and an attractive endorser is the center piece of the advertisement. On the other hand, it was concluded that attractive product endorsers are the most suitable alternative for marketers.

In general consumers have positive attitudes towards celebrity endorsement. However, it seems to be crucial that some sort of link exists between the celebrity and the brand and the product they endorsed. If consumers do not consider the celebrity – product pairing to be believable attitudes towards the advertisement or even brand might suffer. Celebrity and the brand congruence is something that marketers should take into consideration when selecting celebrity spokespersons. This study suggest that if a consumer dislikes the celebrity there is a good chance that negative attitudes will emerge. Naturally not all people can be expected to like certain celebrity but the overall likability of the celebrity endorser is something to be considered.

Nowadays marketers have an option to collect detailed information about consumers and even target them with tailored marketing communication messages. One way to segment consumers is based on their product class involvement. This study emphasizes the importance of the peripheral cues, such as the product endorser, for both low and high involvement consumers. Even consumers with high product class involvement pay attention to the peripheral cues and marketers should seek a way to utilize all elements of the advertisement in order to make it as effective as possible.

Even though celebrity endorsement can be an effective advertising tactic one consumer in this study pointed out the obvious:

"There is always a risk when using celebrities as you can never know who pulls of a 'tigerwoods' turning the advertising campaign upside down and getting a lot of negative attention."

6.4   Limitations and future research ideas

The chosen methodological approach means that limitations concerning this study are plentiful. Most of the limitations concerning data collection arise from the experimental design. *First*, experiments of this kind are still rare and a pioneering approach to a research offers challenges as there are hardly any previous studies to use as a guideline. *Second*, whenever an eye-tracking experiment is conducted there are multiple things that can cause problems. Test subjects should stay relatively still during the recording of the data and if calibration of the device fails recorded data is likely to be corrupted. The quality of the data was checked with visual inspection and only sufficient experiment data was used in the statistical analysis. Whenever people are tested for something they might get anxious which in turn might affect results. The device that was used to record eye movement in this study was a camera-based device. Industrial eye-trackers used in previous studies (e.g. Lee & Ahn 2012) have been devices that are worn by the test subjects like eyeglasses. The advantage of the camera based eye tracker is that test subjects do not feel it the same way, which can help them to relax and even forget about the eye tracker. The majority (90%) of the test subjects said they did not feel the presence of the device disturbing. The eye tracker used in this study does not offer similar quality and precision than more expensive industrial eye trackers. However, when simply studying areas where people pay attention the used tracker is an adequate alternative. If the studied topic requires more precision, such as in reading related research, an industrial device should be used. *Third*, a small sample size can compromise the quality of the results. When analyzing small sample sizes it is possible that the results were in fact due to a small sample size. Within the resources of this study, it was not possible to conduct experiments for hundreds of test subjects. However, in this study interviews were conducted in order to make sense of the results that emerged from the experiment. In this study mixed methods approach improves the quality of results with small sample size. However, similar experiment with bigger sample size (N > 100) is called for in order to challenge the results from this study.

In a posttest-only experimental design group similarity in the terms of brand familiarity cannot be confirmed as no pre-test is conducted. However, in this study the brand that the test items were exposed to was a fictional brand created by the researcher. Therefore, it was not possible for any of the test subjects to be familiar with the brand or the product. Another challenge of the experiment was the lack of random assignment which was due to a small sample size. However, results similar to randomization were achieved by comparing the background variables (gender, age, income level, occupational status) between the test subjects and *matching* groups accordingly.

Even though the three promoting channels for the pre-test survey provided decent demographic variation, majority (42%) of the participants were students aged between

20 and 25. The sample was slightly skewed because the researcher's - aged 26 - Facebook wall was the most efficient promoting channel. However, the income level and gender of the participants were rather evenly distributed providing demographic distribution. As far as the generalization of the results is still limited as consumers over 40 years of age were dropped out of the study because of the pre-test results. However, the analysis of the pre-test data showed that results did not vary based on the background variables. Majority of the test subjects in the experiment were aged between 20 and 25 further limiting the possibility for generalization of the results. For future research is suggested that more comprehensive sample of the population is collected in order to ensure better generalization of the results.

In this study test subjects were exposed to each stimuli advertisements for 20 seconds. As some test subjects felt that it was rather long exposure time, in future studies the time could be shortened still and it could be evaluated if it has an impact on results. However, less than half of the test subjects recalled the brand name correctly. As there were more than one advertisement in the experiment too short exposure time could have resulted in recall scores that were too insignificant to be compared between the groups. In future studies the time spent looking at the advertisement could be decided by the test subjects. Studies analyzing if consumers are willing to spend more time viewing advertisement with celebrity endorsers are called for.

Even though the fundamental principles of advertising effectiveness were presented in this study, the theoretical framework did not evaluate elements that people in general find interesting and persuasive in advertisements. Thorough literature overview of the persuasive side of marketing communication could provide a better understanding of advertising effectiveness for future studies.

A slideshow presented to test subjects in the experimental setting does not simulate real world situations in the best possible way. Eye tracking has been used to study website and banner ad design (Lee & Ahn 2012). An online environment is a hectic place to advertise and marketers can often fail to catch the attention of consumers. It would be interesting to study how different types of advertisements are viewed by consumers in an online environment.

Even though this study supports the earlier research and use of celebrity endorsement there is always the huge cost that goes with using celebrity endorsers. Even though celebrities can be used to enhance brand attitudes or even purchasing intentions, the impact on actual sales has yet to be proven. Further, using non-celebrity endorsers is not the only alternative for using traditional advertisements with celebrity endorsers. Couple of years ago Coca Cola launched its advertising campaign were people's names were printed on the label with a "share a coke with" text. Results were astounding. The campaign reversed an 11-year decrease in soda sales and the sales of Coca-Cola increased by 2,5% while its competitors still decreased in sales. Simple label design did what

Wayne Rooney and Lebron James as product endorsers were not able to do. While effective advertising tactic celebrity endorsement might just offer an easy way out for marketers. Academic research is called for comparing clever and low-cost social media campaigns against traditional advertising using celebrity endorsement.

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8   APPENDIX

Appendix 1   Omega watch advertisements starring Daniel Craig (I luv ads 2013)

Appendix 2   Pre-Test survey

Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

Master's Thesis Pre-Test

Dear receiver,

You are invited to participate in this survey that is part of a research that studies the effectiveness of different types of product endorsers in advertising. The research is a Master's Thesis in marketing and it is written in the Turku School of Economics. This is a pre-test of the research and the purpose of this questionnaire is to find suitable product endorsers for the actual research design.

Each reply is handled anonymously and with absolute confidentiality. Material is analyzed with statistic procedures so it is impossible to separate answers of certain individual from the results. Your answer is very valuable and your our co-operation is greatly appreciated. Answering the questionnaire takes from 1 to 3 minutes. The questionnaire is open unitl 23rd of March 2015.

Yours sincerely

Juha Eskola, Student (Marketing), Turku School of Economics

1. How attractive you find the female person in the picture below?

○ Very attractive
○ Attractive
○ Slightly attractive
○ Not attractive or unattractive
○ Slightly unattractive
○ Unattractive
○ Very unattractive

2. Do you recognize the female person in the picture above?

○ Yes, I recognize her and I could name her
○ Yes, I recognize her but I could not name her
○ No, I don't recognize her

3. How attractive you find the female person in the picture below?

⦾ Very attractive
⦾ Attractive
⦾ Slightly attractive
⦾ Not attractive or unattractive
⦾ Slightly unattractive
⦾ Unattractive
⦾ Very unattractive

4. Do you recognize the female person in the picture above?

⦾ Yes, I recognize her and I could name her
⦾ Yes, I recognize her but I could not name her
⦾ No, I don't recognize her

5. How attractive you find the female person in the picture below?

○ Very attractive
○ Attractive
○ Slightly attractive
○ Not attractive or unattractive
○ Slightly unattractive
○ Unattractive
○ Very unattractive

6. Do you recognize the female person in the picture above?

○ Yes, I recognize her and I could name her
○ Yes, I recognize her but I could not name her
○ No, I don't recognize her

7. How attractive you find the female person the picture below?

○ Very attractive
○ Attractive
○ Slightly attractive
○ Not attractive or unattractive
○ Slightly unattractive
○ Unattractive
○ Very unattractive

8. Do you recognize the female person the picture above?

○ Yes, I recognize her and I could name her
○ Yes, I recognize her but I could not name her
○ No, I don't recognize her

Next -->

Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

Master's Thesis Pre-Test

9. Your age

○ -20
○ 20-25
○ 26-30
○ 31-40
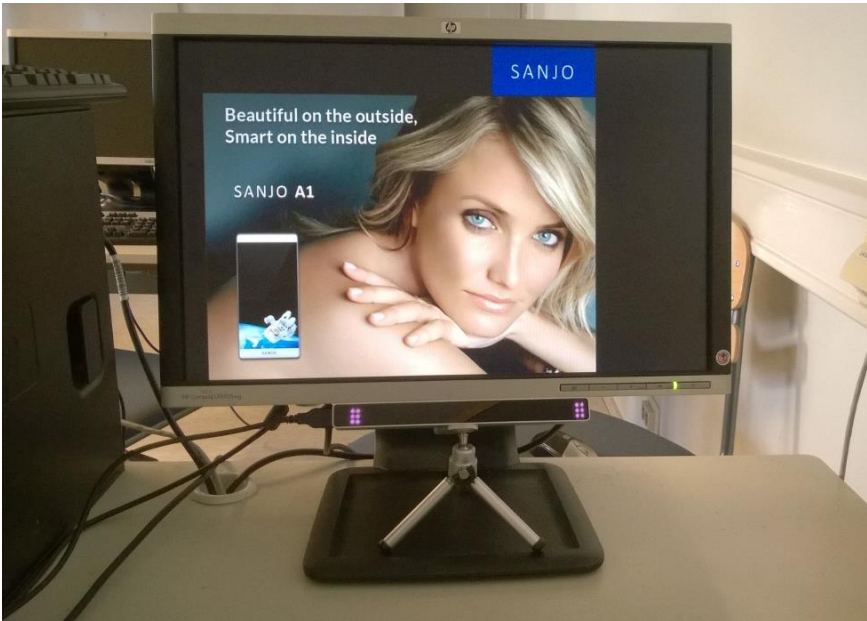○ 41-50
○ 51-60
○ 60-

10. Your sex

○ Female
○ Male

11. Your occupation (i.e. student, salesman, office worker)

12. Your income level

○ under 10 000 €
○ 10 001 - 20 000€
○ 20 001 - 30 000 €
○ 30 001 - 45 000 €
○ 45 001 - 60 000€
○ over 60 000 €

[<-- Previous] [Submit]

Appendix 3   Experiment setting

Appendix 4   Post-experiment survey

Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

Master's Thesis - Post experiment survey

In the slideshow one smart phone advertisement was presented. Please, answer the following questions regarding to that particular advertisement.

1. What was the brand called in the advertisement?

2. What was the slogan on the advertisement?

3. What was the name of the product?

Seuraava -->

Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

Master's Thesis - Post experiment survey

4. Which one of the three phones presented below was featured in the advertisement?

a.

b.

c.

I don't
remember   d.

<-- Edellinen   Seuraava -->

Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

Master's Thesis - Post experiment survey

Choose the most suitable alternative for each question

1 - Completely Agree
2 - Mostly Agree
3 - Slightly Agree
4 - Slightly Disagree
5 - Mostly Disagree
6 - Completely Disagree

5. I have a lot of knowledge on smartphones *

◉ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5 ○ 6

6. Smartphones are important part of my life *

◉ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5 ○ 6

7. I am very interested in smartphones *

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ◉ 5 ○ 6

8. Smartphones are very important to me *

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ◉ 5 ○ 6

9. For me, smartphones don't matter *

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ◉ 5 ○ 6

10. List as many smart phones brands as you can remember

[<-- Edellinen]   [Seuraava -->]

Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

Master's Thesis - Post experiment survey

11. Your age?

- ○ -20
- ○ 21-25
- ○ 26-30
- ○ 31-40
- ○ 41-50
- ○ 51-60
- ○ 60-

12. Your sex?

- ○ Male
- ○ Female

13. Occupational status (i.e. student, engineer, office worker)

14. Your income level

- ○ - 10 000
- ○ 10 001 - 20 000
- ○ 20 001 - 30 000
- ○ 30 000 - 45 000
- ○ 45 000- 60 000
- ○ - 60 000

[<-- Edellinen] [Lähetä]

Appendix 4   Interview questions in Finnish

1. Mitä mieltä olette julkimoiden käytöstä mainonnassa yleisesti?
2. Mitkä ovat mielestänne julkimoiden käytön hyvät ja huonot puolet?