CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENTS AND ADVERTISING EFFECTIVENESS:

THE IMPORTANCE OF VALUE CONGRUENCE

by

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

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Millions of dollars are spent on celebrity contracts each year by assuming that the benefits of using celebrities will exceed the costs. Accordingly, many researchers have studied the impact of celebrity endorsements on advertising effectiveness. One of the theories used frequently by these researchers is the match-up hypothesis. This theory suggests that there should be a good fit between the celebrity and the product; however, it is not clear what constitutes a good fit. Some researchers suggested that attractive celebrities will be more effective if they are used to promote attractiveness-related products. Other researchers claimed that when there is congruence between the product type and the celebrity profession, advertising effectiveness will be enhanced; however, these existing dimensions of the match-up hypothesis fall short of explaining some popular celebrity endorsement campaigns (e.g., Sharpie Pens and David Beckham).

The current research contributes to the study of celebrity endorsements by adding another dimension, values, to the match-up hypothesis. Specifically, the congruence

between celebrity values (as perceived by consumers) and values represented by products was considered as an alternative to the attractiveness and expertise dimensions.

In a series of six experiments, support for the positive impact of celebrity-product value congruence on advertising effectiveness was found. College students exposed to the high value congruence ad spent less time in examining the ad, suggesting that participants were easily and quickly able to match up the celebrities and products. Moreover, participants who were exposed to the high value congruence ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand, had higher intentions to buy the product, and were more likely to recommend the product to other people than were participants who were exposed to the low value congruence ad. The results also suggested that value congruence with unfamiliar celebrities was more effective than value congruence with familiar celebrities for generating more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand and higher behavioral intentions, due probably to the minimized effect of pre-established thoughts or feelings about unfamiliar celebrities. Together these results suggest that the congruence between celebrity and product values plays an important role in advertising effectiveness.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A number of companies use celebrities in advertisements to promote different kinds of products. Indeed, millions of dollars are spent on celebrity contracts each year by assuming that the benefits of using celebrities will exceed the costs. Given the popularity and importance of celebrity endorsements, the impact of celebrity endorsements on advertising effectiveness has been studied extensively over the last 30 years. In order to measure advertising effectiveness, different levels of hierarchy of effects models (i.e., cognitive level such as attention, affective level such as attitudes toward brand, and conative level such as purchase intentions) have been used as dependent variables in celebrity endorsement studies. Source variables, i.e., credibility (which includes expertise and trustworthiness) and attractiveness (which includes familiarity, similarity, and likeability), on the other hand, have been used by many researchers to understand the impact of celebrity endorsements on these key dependent variables. The underlying mechanisms used to explain the impact of these source variables on the relationship between celebrity endorsement and advertising effectiveness fail to converge. Kelman (1961) claimed, by referring to the source attractiveness model, that celebrity endorsement leads to changes in attitudes of consumers through an identification process, in which consumers establish an identity associated with the celebrity. McCracken (1989) suggested, in the meaning transfer model, that celebrities bring their own symbolic meanings to the endorsement process and through this process, cultural meanings residing in the celebrities pass to the products and consumers. The Elaboration

Likelihood Model (ELM) was also used to explain celebrity endorsement effects by suggesting that a celebrity endorser acts as a peripheral cue for low-involved customers (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983).

One of the theories used frequently by researchers to explain the impact of celebrity endorsements is the match-up hypothesis. It suggests that there should be a good fit between the celebrity and the product; however, it is not clear what constitutes a good fit. Kahle and Homer (1985), by integrating the match-up hypothesis with the Social Adaptation Theory (SAT) (Kahle 1996; Kahle and Timmer 1983), focused on the attractiveness dimension. SAT assumes that the impact of any information depends on the adaptive significance of the information; as long as the information provides usefulness for the adaptation, or facilitates adaptation, the receiver will process it. For instance, it is assumed that if attractiveness provides the most relevant product-related information, then it should have a significant main effect on attitudes. Kamins (1990) also argued that using an attractive celebrity in the advertisement provides adaptive information because it might make customers to think that the brand endorsed by a celebrity will enhance their attractiveness as it did for the celebrity. Accordingly, some researchers have focused on the attractiveness dimension and suggested that attractive celebrities will be more effective if they are used to promote attractiveness-related products, such as razors or perfume (Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990). Other researchers focused on the expertise, or product relatedness, dimension. They claimed that when there is congruence between the product type and the profession of the celebrity (as in the case of a sports athlete promoting sports shoes), advertising effectiveness will be enhanced (Till and Busler 2000).

These existing dimensions of the match-up hypothesis, attractiveness and expertise, fall short of explaining some popular celebrity endorsement campaigns. For instance, the endorsement of Nike products by sports athletes (e.g., LeBron James, Kobe Bryant) can easily be related to the expertise (i.e., product relatedness) dimension. Alternatively, for the attractiveness dimension, the endorsement of Dior products by Natalie Portman or Monica Bellucci can be considered as good examples. These two dimensions, however, are not sufficient to understand the relationship between some celebrities and products. For many celebrity endorsement campaigns, there is no obvious match-up between the celebrity and the product in terms of expertise or attractiveness (e.g., Turkish Airlines and Kobe Bryant, Sharpie Pens and David Beckham, T-Mobile and Catherine Zeta Jones). These examples suggest that there should be another dimension that helps consumers perceive a good fit (or match-up) between celebrities and products.

Research Objectives

The purpose of this dissertation is to introduce another dimension, values, for the match-up hypothesis. Values, described as the most important construct by many researchers (Rokeach 1973) in social science, are central to people's lives (Kahle and Timmer 1983), are enduring and difficult to change (Rokeach 1973), and guide behaviors and judgments across specific situations (Rokeach 1973; Kahle and Timmer 1983).

Values serve several functions for people; they define who we are (Rokeach 1973) and help us to differentiate ourselves from others (Kahle and Timmer 1983). In a

way, they convey what is important to us in our lives (Steenhaut and Kenhove 2006). Because values are higher-order constructs that can affect other consumer-related constructs, such as consumer attitudes and behaviors, the congruence between celebrity values (as perceived by consumers) and values represented by products should be considered as an alternative to the attractiveness and expertise dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. For instance, celebrities who are associated with success-related values (e.g., a sense of accomplishment) by consumers can be matched with products that also represent success-related values (e.g., David Beckham endorsing pens).

This dissertation has several objectives. A key objective of this dissertation is to examine the influence of congruence between celebrity values (as perceived by consumers) and product values on advertising effectiveness. Another objective of this research is to include consumers in celebrity endorsement studies. The earlier studies in the match-up hypothesis research stream focused on product categories and did not emphasize target consumers' characteristics. Although there is a good match between the celebrity and product, consumers' characteristics might influence the effectiveness of the advertisement. Studies based on the self-congruity theory, which suggests that consumers prefer products with symbolic meanings that are congruent with their self-concept (Sirgy 1982), showed that congruence between values and product characteristics resulted in more favorable attitudes and higher purchase intentions. Traditional similarity studies also suggest that sources that are similar to the target audience in terms of lifestyles, product usage, and demographics are more effective in changing attitudes and opinions (Feick and Higie 1992). Accordingly, the impact of the relationship between celebrity

values, product values, and consumer values on advertising effectiveness is examined in this dissertation.

The third objective is to consider the level of the familiarity with the celebrity. Celebrities who are popular and well-known portray different images through their professions, media presence, and lifestyles. Based on those images, consumers attribute certain values to those celebrities. When consumers are not familiar with a celebrity they do not have any pre-established thoughts or feelings to associate the celebrity with a particular value. In this case, they look for any clues presented in the ad. This situation presents companies with an opportunity to manipulate that celebrity's values and introduce the celebrity's values as congruent with the values of the endorsed product. An objective of the current research, therefore, is to examine the impact of the familiarity with a celebrity on advertising effectiveness.

A final objective of this dissertation is to compare three dimensions (i.e., value, expertise, and attractiveness) of the match-up hypothesis. Of particular interest is to test if the celebrity-product value congruence would enhance the advertising effectiveness above and beyond the attractiveness and expertise dimensions.

The remainder of this dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter II reviews the research on source effectiveness, celebrity endorsements, values, and hierarchy of effect models, and it introduces the hypotheses tested in this dissertation. The methodology used to test these hypotheses in a series of pilot tests and six experiments is presented in Chapter III. The results are organized and presented by study in Chapter IV. Chapter V discusses the results and limitations, and provides directions for future research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter integrates the research on source effectiveness, celebrity endorsements, values, and hierarchy of effects models. First, literature related to source effectiveness, specifically credibility and attractiveness, will be reviewed. Then, one of the most used sources, namely celebrity endorsements, in marketing studies will be examined. After the theories used to explain celebrity endorsement effects (e.g., attribution theory by Mowen 1980, associative learning theory by Till and Busler 2000, meaning transfer model by McCracken 1989, and social identity theory by Carlson and Donavan 2008) are reviewed briefly, the discussion will focus on the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983) and the match-up hypothesis (Kahle and Homer 1985). Next, values literature and the research on hierarchy of effects models will be reviewed. Finally, the hypotheses tested in this dissertation will be explained.

Source Effectiveness

Years of research on attitude formation and attitude change revealed several factors that influence the effectiveness of a communication, such as the reputation of the communicator and of the medium that the communicator employs, the receptivity and

predispositions of the audience, the actual content of the message, and matters of organization and procedure (Hovland, 1957). In Laswell's (1948, 117) terms, the study of attitude change boils down to the question, "Who says what to whom in what context?" From this question, variables having an impact on attitude change have traditionally been organized into source, message, recipient, and context categories. Because this dissertation considers the issues related to celebrity endorsements in advertising, only source variables, or attributes, will be examined in detail.

Source attributes refer to the aspects of the persons or groups presenting the persuasive appeal. These attributes are usually categorized into two groups: credibility (i.e., expertise and trustworthiness) and attractiveness (familiarity, likeability, and similarity) (McGuire 1969). Alternatively, Friedman and Friedman (1979) differentiated between three types of sources, or endorsers, used in advertising and identified the source attributes that are mainly related to each type of sources: celebrity endorsers that are associated with attractiveness and likeability, professionals that are associated with expertise, and consumers that are associated with similarity. The following sections will review studies that are related to credibility and attractiveness.

Credibility. Source credibility is concerned with how a person's perceptions of "the expertise or the objectivity of the source guides him/her in seeking the "truth" of a particular persuasive communication" (Percy 1983, 79); therefore, according to the source credibility model, credibility has two components. The first component, called expertise, deals with how knowledgeable the source is on the subject of the advertising message. The second component, called trustworthiness, refers to the willingness of the

source to discuss the subject of the advertising message honestly. It is argued that experts "are effective because communications attributed to an expert endorser produce greater agreement with the subject than the same communications attributed to a nonexpert" (Biswas, Biswas, and Das 2006, 19).

Studies conducted by social psychologists and marketing researchers over the last 60 years showed that sources with high credibility are perceived as more persuasive than sources with low credibility (McGuire 1969). In an early work, Hovland and Weiss (1951) measured participants' attitudes toward the feasibility of nuclear submarines. Then, they presented participants with a written communication that argued in favor of their feasibility, a position that was contrary to the beliefs of most participants. The message was attributed to J. Robert Oppenheimer, a famous and respected American nuclear scientist, in one group, and to Pravda, the leading newspaper of the Soviet Union, in the other group. As expected, the same communication was significantly more persuasive when attributed to Oppenheimer (the highly credible source) than when it was attributed to the Soviet journal. When Hovland and Weiss (1951) remeasured their participants three weeks after the original session, they found that as time passed, the source had become dissociated from its message. Three weeks after the original attitude change session, everyone remembered something about the feasibility of nuclear submarines, but they had forgotten where they obtained their information. This effect, called the sleeper effect, led the positive attitudes of those provided information by a high-credibility source to become less positive and the negative attitudes of those provided information by a low-credibility source to become more positive. When the

participants were reminded of the source, attitudes returned to the original position (Kelman and Hovland 1953).

The effects of credibility (both expertise and trustworthiness) have also been studied in the advertising context. Rubin, Mager, and Friedman (1982) found that using company presidents in advertisements enhanced the rating of commercials. Feick and Higie (1992) provided evidence for the positive impact of expertise on the attitudes and intentions for the lower preference heterogeneity services (i.e., services that are characterized by little variation in consumers' tastes and preferences). Biswas, Biswas, and Das (2006) showed that for high-tech products, expert endorsers were more effective than celebrity endorsers in reducing customer risk perceptions. The ethnicity of the source was found to affect the trustworthiness of the source as well as brand attitudes (Desphande and Stayman 1994).

Attractiveness. McGuire (1969) suggested, based on the source attractiveness model, that attractiveness is composed of three interrelated aspects: familiarity (knowledge of the source), similarity (resemblance between the source and receiver of the message), and likeability (affection for the source, usually as a result of physical attractiveness) (Biswas, Biswas, and Das 2006). Therefore, when message receivers (consumers in a marketing context) are familiar with the source, like the source, and find similarities between the source and themselves, the messages become more persuasive (McGuire 1969).

Source attractiveness has been found to be influential in a variety of research contexts, such as liking and dating of computer-determined dance partners (Brislin and

Lewis 1968), length of sentences in simulated criminal cases (Efran 1974), teachers' attitudes toward the performance of students (Clifford and Walster 1973), and similarity impact on the persuasiveness of strong/weak messages on a relevant/irrelevant topic among college students (Mackie, Worth, and Asuncion 1990). Because this dissertation focuses on the effectiveness of advertising, the studies that have examined the impact of attractiveness on message persuasion will be reviewed briefly.

Snyder and Rothbart (1971) have found that listening to a message in the presence of a photograph of an attractive male source was more persuasive than listening to the same message in the presence of a photograph of an unattractive source or no visual cue at all. Baker and Churchill (1977) conducted an experiment in two product categories (i.e., coffee and cologne/perfume/aftershave) and found that physical attractiveness of the models used in the ads increased the affective evaluations (e.g., appealing, interesting, impressive) of the ads but not the cognitive evaluations (e.g., believable, informative). They also showed that cologne/perfume/aftershave ads were more effective in creating behavioral intentions for males when attractive female models were depicted in the ads.

DeBono and Telesca (1990) showed some participants a slide of a woman who was both beautiful and darkly tanned. Other subjects saw the same woman, but her dress and hairstyle were altered so that she was quite unattractive. Each picture was accompanied by one of two audio tracks that delivered either a strong persuasive message or a weak persuasive message for new tanning oil. The results indicated that the attractive source led to better recall and more positive attitudes when the message was strong. With weak messages, on the other hand, attractiveness did not make a significant difference. Feick and Higie (1992) provided evidence for the positive impact of similarity on the

attitudes and intentions for the higher preference heterogeneity services (i.e., services that are characterized by high variation in consumers' tastes and preferences).

Some other studies, however, did not find a significant effect of attractiveness. Maddux and Rogers (1980) showed that physical attractiveness has no effect on persuasion, suggesting that under some conditions attractive sources may need to possess expertise or provide supportive argumentation to persuade the message receiver. Caballero and Solomon (1984) did not find any effect of source attractiveness in producing sales of beer (high involvement product). They found a significant effect of attractiveness in sales of tissue, but in the opposite direction: low attractiveness led to more sales.

Celebrity Endorsements

Because credibility and attractiveness play an important role to improve the persuasiveness of a message, companies try to find sources that satisfy these two criteria (i.e., credibility and attractiveness) to present their messages to customers (Kahle and Kahle 2006). One of the sources used frequently in marketing, specifically in advertisements, is celebrities. A celebrity endorser is defined as "any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement" (McCracken 1989, 310).

Because celebrity endorsement has become one of the most prevalent forms of advertising globally, several studies have examined the effectiveness of celebrity endorsements in advertising. Friedman and Friedman (1979) showed that celebrities have

significant effects on attitudes toward the product and purchase intentions when they endorse products high in psychological or social risk, such as costume jewelry. They also found that celebrities are more effective than expert or typical-consumer endorsers in advertisement recall and brand name recall, regardless of the product type. Kamins (1989) and Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, and Moe (1989) showed that brand attitudes and purchase intentions were affected positively by celebrity appeals. They also showed that the two-sided celebrity appeal performed best and the one-sided noncelebrity appeal performed worst in terms of attitudes toward the brand and purchase intentions. Ohanian (1991) provided evidence for the effect of perceived expertise of the celebrity on purchase intentions by using four different celebrities. Tripp, Jensen, and Carlson (1994) examined the effects of multiple product endorsements by celebrities and found that the number of products a celebrity endorses had a negative impact on consumers' perceptions of celebrity credibility, celebrity likeability, and attitude toward the ad. Bush, Martin, and Bush (2004) showed that celebrity sports athletes have a positive significant impact on adolescents' word-of-mouth intentions and brand loyalty. They also found that female teenagers' word-of-mouth intentions are more affected by female celebrities than male celebrities, and female teenagers agree more than male teenagers that they are affected by celebrities in buying certain brands.

While most studies focused on the consumers' responses to celebrity endorsement, Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) assessed the economic value, or profitability, of these endorsements. They suggested that when a celebrity endorsement contract is announced, investors evaluate the future profit impact of the contract, and these evaluations are reflected in the companies' stock returns. To test for their

proposition, Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) analyzed announcements of 110 celebrity endorsement contracts between January 1980 and December 1992 by using event study methodology. Their findings showed that "on average, the impact of these announcements on stock returns is positive and suggest that celebrity endorsement contracts are generally viewed as a worthwhile investment in advertising," (Agrawal and Kamakura 1995, 56). Similarly, Mathur, Mathur, and Rangan (1997, 67) used the event study methodology to show that "anticipation of Jordan's return to the NBA, and the related increased visibility for him, resulted in an average increase in the market-adjusted values of his client firms of almost 2 percent, or more than $1 billion in stock market value."

Even though effects of celebrity endorsements have been studied for years, the findings fail to converge in terms of the importance of celebrity endorsements and the underlying mechanisms used to explain the relationship between celebrity endorsement and advertising effectiveness. Kelman (1961) claimed, by referring to the source attractiveness model, that celebrity endorsement leads to changes in consumer attitudes through an identification process, in which consumers establish an identity associated with the celebrity. Mowen (1980) used attribution theory to suggest that effectiveness of celebrity endorsements depends on the consumers' willingness to understand the causal reasons for a celebrity to endorse a product: if consumers think that the celebrity endorses the product because of the characteristics of the product, instead of some monetary incentives, then the celebrity endorsement will be more effective. Some researchers applied associative learning theory (Collins and Loftus 1975) to celebrity endorsement studies by claiming that celebrities and brands that represent nodes in memory are linked

together over time through endorsement processes. Specifically, feelings and meanings associated with the celebrity are transferred to endorsed brands, and this transfer leads to simultaneous activation of memory nodes (Biswas, Biswas, and Das 2006; Till and Busler 2000). McCracken (1989) suggested that celebrities bring their own symbolic meanings to the endorsement process and through this process, cultural meanings residing in the celebrities pass to the products. Then, according to the meaning transfer model, these meanings are transferred from products to consumers. Carlson and Donavan (2008), by using the social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1985), claimed that when consumers' identification with the sports athlete celebrity is high, their attitudes toward the team and their intentions to purchase the endorsed product are also high. Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) was also used to explain celebrity endorsement effects by suggesting that a celebrity endorser acts as a peripheral cue for low-involved customers (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). Other researchers, however, claimed that celebrities can provide central information when there is congruence between celebrities and products endorsed (match-up hypothesis; Kahle and Homer 1985). Because most studies on celebrity endorsements have adopted either the ELM approach or the match-up hypothesis approach, the following section reviews the studies that are related to these approaches.

Elaboration of Likelihood Model. Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983) is a dual process model suggesting that there are two routes to process a persuasive message (i.e., advertisements in this dissertation): the central route and the peripheral route. In the central route, people are motivated to think

about the information presented in an ad, to concentrate on the logic of the arguments it contains, to analyze the quality of the message, and to consider its implications. In other words, people are assumed to engage in cognitive processing of the advertisement. The peripheral route is characterized by a more superficial message analysis. In this route, people are concerned with features that are irrelevant to the content, quality, or logical merit of the ad message itself (Brewer and Crano 1994). The term elaboration likelihood refers to the probability that an individual will either elaborate on the information contained in an ad through the central route or attend to peripheral cues through the peripheral route. ELM suggests that "different methods of inducing persuasion may work best depending on whether the elaboration likelihood of the communication situation (i.e., the probability of message- or issue-relevant thought occurring) is high or low" (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983, 137). Specifically, people will engage in central processing when the elaboration likelihood is high. In contrast, they will engage in peripheral processing when the elaboration likelihood is low.

ELM suggests that motivation (individual differences such as need for cognition and personal relevance/involvement) and ability (individual differences such as knowledge and situational difference such as distraction) determine the elaboration likelihood. Therefore, it is assumed that, when the motivation and/or ability are low and hence cognitive resources are constrained, people tend to use positive source characteristics through the peripheral route to form attitudes toward products, regardless of the product category. In contrast, when the motivation and ability are high, people tend to use product-relevant information through the central route to form attitudes toward products.

Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) conducted an experiment to show that quality of arguments presented in an ad would have a significant impact on attitudes under high involvement, whereas the celebrity status of the product endorsers would have a significant impact on attitudes under low involvement. To test their hypotheses, Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) assigned participants to high or low involvement conditions randomly. Then, participants were exposed to eleven real magazine ads and one experimental ad for razors. The experimental ad was used to manipulate the quality of the arguments and the celebrity status. Their analyses revealed that "when an advertisement concerned a product of low involvement, the celebrity status of the product endorsers was a very potent determinant of attitudes about the product" (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983, 143). When the advertisement included a product of high involvement, the quality of the product information, instead of the celebrity status, determined the attitudes toward the product.

Kang and Herr (2006) extended the study of Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983). Specifically, they showed that limited cognitive resources resulted in higher impacts of source characteristics (e.g., attractiveness), regardless of the product type. On the other hand, when cognitive resources were available, source characteristics affected attitudes toward attractiveness-relevant products (i.e., razor and shampoo), but not attitudes toward attractiveness-irrelevant products (i.e., computers).

Match-Up Hypothesis. The match-up hypothesis suggests that "endorsers are more effective when there is a fit between the endorser and the endorsed product" (Till and Busler 2000, 1). Most studies approached this "fit," or "match-up," from an

attractiveness or expertise perspective. For attractiveness, it has been claimed that attractive endorsers are more effective when endorsing products that are used to enhance attractiveness. It has also been suggested that celebrities are more effective when endorsing products that are related to their professions because the celebrities are perceived as experts by consumers. For instance, the match-up hypothesis suggests that sports athletes should be used to endorse sports-related products.

Kahle and Homer (1985) integrated the match-up hypothesis with Social Adaptation Theory (SAT) (Kahle 1996; Kahle and Timmer 1983). SAT assumes that the impact of any information depends on the adaptive significance of the information; as long as the information provides usefulness for the adaptation, or facilitates adaptation, the receiver will process it. It is also assumed that "information is processed in fundamentally the same way for both high and low involvement; however, information processing ends more quickly for low involvement products" (Kahle and Homer 1985, 955). Because the type and quality of the information are important for the SAT, the match-up hypothesis is perceived as a legitimate theory to explain celebrity endorsement effects (Kahle and Homer 1985). For instance, it is assumed that if attractiveness provides the most relevant product-related information, then it should have a significant main effect on attitudes. To test the integrative effects of SAT and the match-up hypothesis, Kahle and Homer (1985) replicated the study conducted by Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983). Specifically, they asked participants to examine eleven real magazine ads and one experimental ad that included one male and one female celebrity and a product that could be used to enhance attractiveness, i.e., razor. The experimental ad was used to manipulate the attractiveness and likeability of celebrities. The results

showed that when there was a good match between the celebrities and the product, then brand recall, arguments recall, attitude toward the product, and intentions to buy the product were higher; attractive celebrities were more effective because attractiveness provided central information regarding the product that was used to enhance attractiveness.

Similar to Kahle and Homer (1985), Kamins (1990) argued that using an attractive celebrity in the advertisement provides adaptive information because it might make customers think that the brand endorsed by a celebrity will enhance their attractiveness as it did for the celebrity. Indeed, he showed that an attractive celebrity had significant effects on spokesperson credibility and attitude toward the ad for an attractiveness-related product, but had no effect on the same measures for an attractiveness-unrelated product.

Till and Busler (2000) examined two match-up dimensions: attractiveness and expertise. In their first experiment, they manipulated physical attractiveness and product type. Although they found a main effect of attractiveness on brand attitudes and purchase intentions, they did not find a significant interaction effect on the same measures. In the second experiment, Till and Busler (2000) manipulated the expertise of the celebrity and product type. Their findings showed that a match-up between the celebrity and the product type (e.g., an athlete endorsing an energy bar) led to greater attitude toward the brand but not purchase intentions. Overall, they did not find a match-up effect for attractiveness but they found a match-up effect for expertise for brand attitudes.

Boyd and Shank (2004) showed that when there is a fit between the celebrity and consumer in terms of gender, consumers perceive the celebrity as more trustworthy,

regardless of the product type endorsed by the celebrity; however, consumers' ratings of expertise depends on the interaction between the celebrity, consumer, and product. Specifically, "women rate endorsers as more expert when there is a fit between the endorser and product (e.g., when the endorser uses the product in their sport) while men rate endorsers as more expert when there is not an endorser-product match," (Boyd and Shank 2004, 82)

Biswas, Biswas, and Das (2006) showed that when there is low congruence between the celebrity and product, expert endorsers are more effective than celebrity endorsers in reducing consumer risk perception for high-tech products; when the congruence between the celebrity and product is high, the differential effects of expert vs. celebrity endorsers for consumer perceptions of risks disappear.

Some researchers have found greater persuasiveness when there is incongruence between the spokesperson and product. Debevec and Iyer (1986) showed that attitudes toward the brand and purchase intentions for a feminine [masculine] product were more positive when the product was endorsed by a male [female] spokesperson. Lee and Thorson (2008) argued that different degrees of congruence might have different impacts on the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement. By using the schema congruity, "the extent to which new information conforms to consumer expectations based on previously defined category schemas in memory" (Lee and Thorson 2008, 435), they argued that resolving moderate incongruity between the celebrity and product might be rewarding, worthwhile, and interesting for consumers because of the curiosity prompted by the moderate level of unexpectedness; however, their studies provided mixed results. Specifically, they found that attitude toward the brand in the moderately incongruent

condition was significantly higher than the extremely incongruent condition but not significantly different from extremely congruent condition. Purchase intentions for moderately incongruent condition were significantly higher than in extreme conditions. Finally, there was no significant difference between congruence levels in terms of attitude toward the brand.

Values

Rokeach (1968/1969, 550) defined personal values as "centrally held, enduring beliefs which guide actions and judgments across specific situations and beyond immediate goals to more ultimate end-states of existence." From Rokeach's perspective, values are standards to serve many purposes in daily life. Schwartz (1994) defines values as desirable transsituational goals that serve as guiding principles in life, and their importance is different for each individual. In fact, values are described as the most important construct by many researchers (Rokeach 1973) in social science. They are central to people's lives (Kahle and Timmer 1983), are enduring and difficult to change (Rokeach 1973), and guide behaviors and judgments across specific situations (Rokeach 1973; Kahle and Timmer 1983). Values serve several functions for people. They define who we are (Rokeach 1973) and help us to differentiate ourselves from others (Kahle and Timmer 1983). In a way, they convey what is important to us in our lives (Steenhaut and Kenhove 2006). Values also influence the adaptation to life. Social adaptation theory (Kahle 1996) suggests that value development and value fulfillment affect the ways individuals adapt to various life roles. For instance, people who value warm relationships

with others most may try hard to make friends and have good relationship with their friends, but people who value self-respect most may try to improve themselves continuously. Moreover, values motivate and guide our behaviors (Kahle and Timmer 1983). In fact, it has been shown that values guide several aspects of human life, including political attitudes (Lee 2003), moral reasoning (Abdolmohammadi and Baker 2006), employee creative behavior (Rice 2006), and healthy lifestyles (Divine and Lepisto 2005).

Values also have been found to affect various aspects of consumer behaviors. For example, gift-giving behaviors are more common for people who endorse self-respect and warm relationships with others (Beatty, Kahle, and Homer 1991). Shim and Eastlick (1998) found that self-actualizing and social affiliation values influenced attitudes toward regional shopping malls. A study conducted by groups of English and Indian people living in the UK revealed the effects of personal values on the consumption of Indian foods (White and Kokotsaki 2004). Limon, Kahle, and Orth (2009) showed that personal values enhance the perception of brand values and these brand values are inferred from product package designs. Other studies found a relationship between values and cynicism (Boush, Kim, Kahle, and Batra 1993), vacation activities (Madrigal and Kahle 1994), and segmentation (Kahle 1986; Schewe and Meredith 2004).

Research on consumer means-end chains (MEC; Gutman, 1982; Reynolds, 1985) also revealed the importance of values in product/brand choice by showing that consumers select products to facilitate the achievement of desired end states, like happiness and success. Specifically, MEC theory suggests that “consumers use a cognitive chain for buying decisions that relates product attributes to benefits, which in

turn contribute to fulfill personal values," (Huber, Beckmann, and Herrmann 2004, 715). Reynolds, Gengler, and Howard (1995) found that the strength of association between MEC elements, i.e., attributes-consequences linkage and consequences-values linkage, improved the brand persuasion of soft drink TV commercials. Mort and Rose (2004), however, showed that while attributes-consequences-values linkage, i.e., MEC theory, held for utilitarian products, attributes-values linkage held for hedonic products. For utilitarian products, there is an indirect relationship between attributes and values and consequences of attributes mediate this relationship. For hedonic products, on the other hand, there is a direct relationship between attributes and values. All these studies suggest that values influence product/brand choices as well as other consumer behaviors.

Values have been categorized in several ways. Rokeach (1968/1969), for instance, differentiated between instrumental (e.g., honesty, open-mindedness, and responsibility) and terminal values (e.g., a world at peace, equality, and inner harmony). Based on Rokeach's (1968/1969) terminal values, Schwartz and Boehnke (2004) suggested four dimensions for values: openness to change (e.g., self-direction and stimulation), self-transcendence (e.g., universalism and benevolence), conservation (e.g., tradition and conformity), and self-enhancement (e.g., achievement and power). Homer and Kahle (1988) suggested that values fall into three dimensions: internal, external, and fun/excitement. Internal values reflect the belief that people can fulfill their values by themselves and include self-fulfilling, a sense of accomplishment, and self-respect. On the contrary, external values reflect the belief that people are dependent on others to fulfill their values. Being well-respected, sense of belonging, warm relationships with others, and security are included in this dimension. The last dimension, fun/excitement

values, has an internal motivation to fulfill with others and include excitement, and fun and enjoyment in life.

Hierarchy of Effects Models

Different persuasion tactics exist to make the target of the persuasive message take some actions. These actions might be voting for a specific person in a political campaign, quitting smoking, donating to charities in social marketing campaigns, or buying a specific brand of a product in for-profit organizations' campaigns. Advertising has been one of the main persuasion tools in all these campaigns; however, people usually do not respond to advertisements immediately; advertising has a long-term effect on the desired actions.

The hierarchy of effects model, proposed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961) and named by Palda (1966), suggests that people go through a hierarchical, sequential internal psychological process when they are exposed to an advertisement (Figure 1). It is believed that "cognitive activity (nonevaluative thinking) causes affective activity (evaluative mental activity) which causes conative activity (plans for actions and also the actions themselves)" (O'Brien 1971, 34). Specifically, it is supposed that advertising helps customers become aware of the products/services offered. Then, changes in awareness lead to changes in attitudes, which, in turn, lead to changes in behaviors (Gronhaug, Kvitastein, and Gronmo 1991). The cognitive level of the hierarchy of effects model represents brand awareness and brand knowledge. Brand awareness is the strength of a brand's presence in a consumer's mind, and it consists of both retrieving a brand

from memory (recall) and recognizing a brand when there are some cues in the context (recognition). Brand recall requires that consumers correctly generate, or remember, the brand from memory, whereas brand recognition requires that consumers correctly discriminate the brand based on previous exposure (Keller 1993). Brand knowledge, on the other hand, refers to the comprehension of brand characteristics. It is related to the recalling and/or recognizing the brand attributes, such as price, color, and design. The affective component focuses on the feelings advertisements may evoke (Vakratas and Ambler 1999), and attitudes toward the brand are measured to examine these feelings. The conative component represents desire for the product and is measured through purchase intentions and actual purchase.

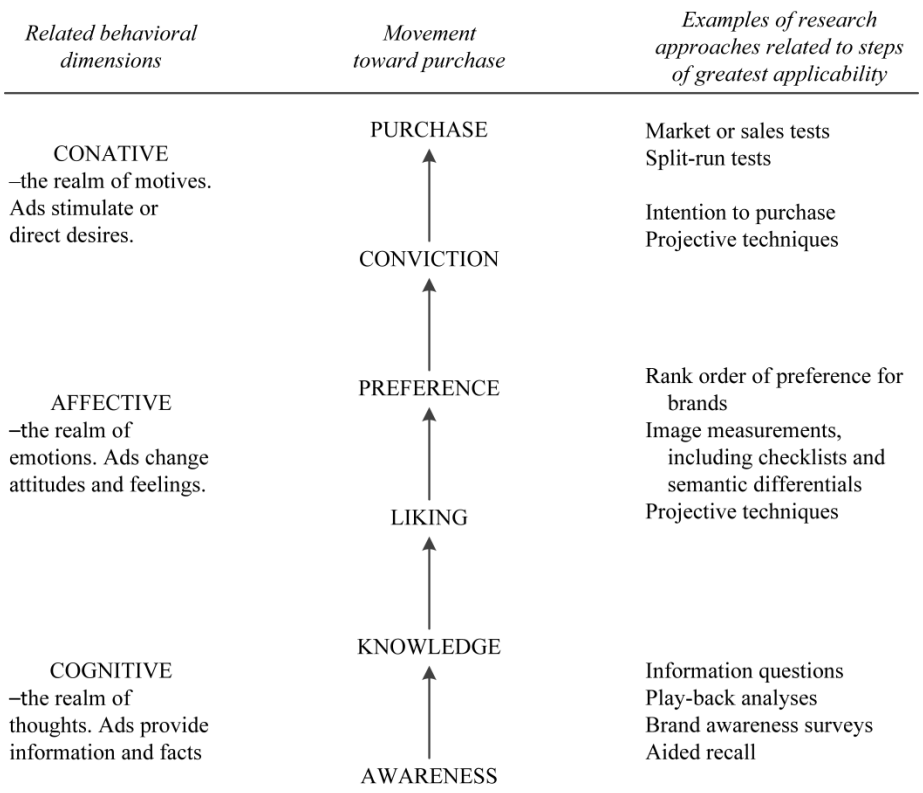


Figure 1. Hierarchy of Effects Model (Adapted from Lavidge and Steiner 1961)

The results regarding the hierarchy of effects models have been mixed. Palda (1966) showed the lack of evidence for the model by reviewing some previous studies, but O'Brien (1971) provided partial support. He found significant effects of advertising of a convenience food on brand awareness and knowledge, which then influenced attitudes indirectly. Similarly, actual purchase was significantly affected by purchase intentions; however, attitudes did not have any effect on intentions or actual purchase. Swinyard and Coney (1978) examined the impacts of low and high involvement in a political campaign and provided general support for the hierarchy of effects model. Zinkhan and Martin (1982) also showed that the hierarchy of effects model held for new brand names under high involvement conditions.

These mixed findings regarding the effectiveness of hierarchy of effects models suggested that the order of stages in the model, as well as whether all consumers go through all stages, depend on several other factors such as the type of products advertised (i.e., hedonic vs. utilitarian products), level of involvement with the product (i.e., low involvement vs. high involvement) and type of decision making process (i.e., routine response behavior, limited decision making, and extensive decision making). Identification of these variables led to different versions of hierarchy of effects models.

One class of these alternative models is called Low-Involvement Hierarchy Models, which is associated with routine response behavior and low-involvement situations (Smith and Swinyard 1982; Swinyard and Coney 1978). These models suggest that product preferences are formed after an initial trial (Ehrenberg 1974). In other words, cognition precedes conation, which, in turn, precedes affection.

Another class of alternative models, called Integrative Models (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999), assumes different hierarchies depending on the context. Most of the studies in this area are based on the FCB grid developed by Vaughn (1980, 1986). The FCB grid involves two dimensions: involvement (high vs. low) and thinking/feeling. Vaughn (1980) suggests that both dimensions lie on a continuum in which over time there is a movement from thinking toward feeling and a movement from high involvement toward low involvement. The first quadrant, called Informative, represents high involvement and thinking, and implies the need for information because of the importance of the product. The traditional hierarchy of effects model (i.e., cognitive → affective → conative sequence) can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the advertisement for products that fall in this quadrant, such as cars, houses, and new products. The second quadrant, called Affective, represents high involvement and feeling. For products that fall in this category, such as cosmetics, and fashion apparel, attitudes or feelings in general are more important than the information because the importance of the product is related to consumers' self-esteem. Here, the model that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the advertisement suggests a different hierarchical sequence: affective → cognitive → conative. The third quadrant, called Habit Formation, represents low involvement and thinking. Frequently purchased items, such as grocery items, fall in this category because of the consumers' tendency to form buying habits in order to decrease the effort spent in buying these items. Because the aim is to induce trial with these kinds of products, conative → cognitive → affective sequence should be emphasized to increase advertising effectiveness. The final quadrant, called Self-Satisfaction, represents low involvement and feeling, and includes products that satisfy

personal tastes such as beer, movies, and candies. Because a social, or communication, aspect is also involved with these products, experiencing the product is supposed to precede feelings; therefore, the conative → affective → cognitive sequence is appropriate for these products. A study conducted with 1,800 US consumers across 250 product categories provided support for the FCB grid (Vaughn 1986).

Hypotheses

Celebrity - Product Value Congruence. A key objective of the current research is to examine the influence of congruence between celebrities' personal values (as perceived by consumers), product values, and consumers' values on advertising effectiveness. The match-up hypothesis suggests that when there is congruence between celebrity image and product image, advertising becomes more effective (Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990). The majority of studies on the match-up hypothesis examined either the congruence between physical attractiveness of the celebrity and products that enhance attractiveness (Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990; Till and Shimp 1998) or the congruence between the profession of the celebrity and product for perceived expertise, i.e., product relatedness (Boyd and Shank 2004; Till and Shimp 1998). These existing dimensions of the match-up hypothesis, attractiveness and expertise, fall short of explaining some popular celebrity endorsement campaigns. The endorsement of Nike products by sports athletes (e.g., LeBron James, Kobe Bryant, Cristiano Ronaldo, or Michael Jordan) or Gatorade's use of sports athletes (e.g., Serena Williams, Dwayne Wade, Mia Hamm, Payton Manning, and Usain Bolt) can easily be

related to the expertise (i.e., product relatedness) dimension. Alternatively, for the attractiveness dimension, the recent campaign of Garnier cosmetics products with Sarah Jessica Parker or the endorsement of Dior products by Natalie Portman or Monica Bellucci can be considered as good examples. These two dimensions, however, are not sufficient to understand the relationship between some celebrities and products; for many celebrity endorsement campaigns, there is no match-up between the celebrity and the product in terms of expertise or attractiveness. Some recent or popular examples include Turkish Airlines and Kobe Bryant, SmartWater and Jennifer Aniston, Sharpie Pens and David Beckham, Nikon Digital Camera and Ashton Kutcher, Hanes Underwear and Michael Jordan, T-Mobile and Catherine Zeta Jones, Miracle Ear and Patrick Duffy, Pepsi and David Beckham, and Tide Detergent and Venus Williams. These examples suggest that there should be another dimension that helps consumers perceive a good fit (or match-up) between celebrities and products. Because values are higher-order constructs that can affect other consumer-related constructs, such as consumer attitudes and behaviors, the congruence between celebrity values (as perceived by consumers) and values represented by products should be considered as an alternative to the attractiveness and expertise dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. For instance, celebrities who are associated with success-related values (e.g., a sense of accomplishment) by consumers can be matched with products that also represent success-related values (e.g., David Beckham with pens). Accordingly, it is suggested in this dissertation that, the congruence between consumers' perceptions of celebrities' values and product values plays an important role in determining the effectiveness of celebrity endorsements.

Hierarchy of effects models are among the most studied advertising effectiveness models. In fact, a literature review conducted by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) showed that each element of the hierarchy (i.e., cognition, affect, and conation) has a significant impact on advertising effectiveness, and omission of one element might result in overestimation of other elements' effects; each element should be included in advertising effectiveness studies. Previous studies have also shown that the significance of each level in the hierarchy depends on the context. For instance, although affect is more important than cognition for low involvement products, cognition is more important than affect for high involvement products. In other words, "what seems to be significant here is the importance (dominance) of each of the effects, rather than any temporal sequence, and that the importance of these effects is influenced by context-related factors" (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999, 36). When using celebrities in advertisements, one of the factors that can affect the effectiveness of each hierarchy level is the congruence between celebrities' values and product values. More specifically, based also on the schema congruity theory (Mandler 1982), it is hypothesized that celebrity-product value congruence will have different impacts on each element of the hierarchy.

Schema congruity theory (Mandler 1982) suggests that the level of conformity of the new information to the existing information (i.e., previously established category schemas) in people's minds can affect the processing of the new information. While low levels of conformity lead to greater cognitive efforts to understand the new information and to possibly reconcile it with existing schemas, high levels of confirmation results in less cognitive efforts and more favorable evaluations of the new information (Lee and Thorston 2008). Within the celebrity endorsement advertising context, when there is high

value congruence between a particular celebrity and a product (Paris Hilton endorsing an MP3 player), people will easily and quickly match them up and place the matching pair into an existing category, resulting in more favorable evaluations of the advertisement and brand. In contrast, when the value congruence between the celebrity and product is low (e.g., Paris Hilton endorsing a dinnerware set), people will experience difficulty in placing the celebrity-product pair in their existing schemas. Therefore, they will have to use their cognitive resources to understand the relationship between the celebrity and product, and this "inconvenience" will result in less favorable evaluations of the advertisement and brand. Specifically,

H1: Low, as opposed to high, celebrity-product value congruence will result in a higher level of attention paid to the ad.

H2: High, as opposed to low, celebrity-product value congruence will result in (a) more favorable attitudes toward ad, and (b) more favorable attitudes toward brand.

Because affect (e.g., attitudes) tend to result in behavioral intentions (Ajzen 1991, Gronhaug, Kvitastein, and Gronmo 1991), it is expected that celebrity-product value congruence will lead to higher behavioral intentions as well:

H3: High, as opposed to low, celebrity-product value congruence will result in (a) higher purchase intentions, and (b) higher word-of-mouth intentions.

Celebrity – Product – Consumer Value Congruence. The earlier studies in the match-up hypothesis research stream focused on product categories and did not emphasize target consumers' characteristics; however, even though there is a good match between the celebrity and product, consumers' characteristics might influence the effectiveness of the advertisement. By referring to the Balance Theory (Heider 1958; Feather 1964), Mowen (1980), suggested that positive cognitive relations among the cognitive elements of endorser, product, consumer, and message would result in consumers' liking for the product. Studies based on the self-congruity theory, which suggests that consumers prefer products with symbolic meanings that are congruent with their self-concept (Sirgy 1982), showed that congruence between values and product characteristics resulted in more favorable attitudes and higher purchase intentions. Allen, Gupta, and Monnier (2008, 294) showed that when there is congruence between consumers' own values and values symbolized by products, consumers "experience a better taste and aroma and develop a more favorable attitude and behavior intention." Traditional similarity studies also suggest that sources that are similar to the target audience in terms of lifestyles, product usage, and demographics are more effective in changing attitudes and opinions (e.g., Feick and Higie 1992). In a source-related study, Kresler, Pallak, and Archer (1974) showed that when participants were not interested in the subject, source credibility did not affect their attitudes; and when participants had either positive or negative initial attitudes, their responses to the message changed as a function of the source credibility. Boyd and Shank (2004) studied the fit between celebrities, consumers, and products more directly. They focused on only one aspect of celebrity and consumer characteristics, gender, and did not look at the effects of fit on

advertising effectiveness. Specifically, they examined "the effects of endorser gender, consumer gender, and the type of product advertised on consumer perceptions of endorser trustworthiness, expertise, and attractiveness" (Boyd and Shank 2004, 82). Therefore, in order to examine the impact of celebrity endorsements on advertising effectiveness fully, it is important to consider consumer characteristics at a higher level. It is intuitive to argue that when there is a good match between all three variables (i.e., celebrity values, product values, and consumer values), advertisements will be more effective in general; however, in a "less than ideal world," it is less likely to have congruence between all three variables, which will impact the effectiveness of the ad. For instance, although there is congruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers might not pay attention to the ad, like the product, or want to buy the product when those values are not compatible with their own values. Alternatively, there might be incongruence between celebrity values and product values. Because product values are more salient than celebrity values (consumers may not be familiar with the celebrity, consumers may not be able to associate the celebrity with any particular value, etc.), consumers who share product values will have more favorable responses to the advertisement than consumers who share celebrity values. The following hypotheses will be tested to examine the relationship between celebrities, products, and consumers:

H4: When there is high congruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers who have similar values with the celebrity-product pair will have higher values on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the

conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) than consumers who do not have similar values with the celebrity-product pair.

H5: When there is incongruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers who have similar values with the product will have higher mean values on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) than consumers who have similar values with the celebrity.

Familiarity with the Celebrity. Even though many celebrities are used to endorse different products, not all celebrities are well-known by consumers; consumers may not be familiar with some celebrities. Celebrities who are popular and well-known portray different images through their professions, media presence, and lifestyles. Based on those images, consumers attribute certain values to those celebrities. For instance, celebrities like Paris Hilton or Britney Spears might be perceived as valuing fun and enjoyment in life; sports celebrities, like David Beckham or Serena Williams might be associated with success-related values; and celebrities with kids and family lives, like Catherine Zeta Jones and Angelina Jolie, might be associated with external values. When consumers are not familiar with a celebrity, they do not have any pre-established thoughts or feelings to associate the celebrity with a particular value. In this case, they look for any clues presented in the ad. This situation presents companies with an opportunity to manipulate that celebrity's values and introduce the celebrity's values as congruent with the values of

the endorsed product. The important thing here is to give some credibility to those celebrities. Because, if the consumers are not familiar with a celebrity, and if there are not any clues in the ad about who the person is, the audience may not even recognize that the person is actually a celebrity. Once a celebrity who is unfamiliar to consumers is given credibility, his/her values can be manipulated in the ad content and s/he can be matched with different products representing different values based on the manipulated celebrity value. In fact, it is expected that, when there is congruence between celebrity and product values, ads with unfamiliar celebrities will be more effective than ads with familiar celebrities because consumers' responses to the ad will not be affected by previously established thoughts and feelings related to the celebrity. The following effects are hypothesized:

H6: Celebrities who are unfamiliar to consumers will be more effective in generating favorable responses on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) when promoting products that represents congruent values with their manipulated values.

H7: Unfamiliar celebrities, compared to familiar celebrities, will be more effective in generating favorable responses on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and

brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) when both celebrities are associated with the same value.

Comparison of Match-Up Dimensions. As discussed before, the expertise and attractiveness dimensions have been studied a lot in the match-up hypothesis literature, and this study adds values as the third dimension. Accordingly, it is important to compare them in generating positive outcomes for companies. Because values are higher-order constructs that can affect lots of things, including consumers' perceptions of celebrities and products and the congruence among them, it is expected that the values dimension, in contrast to the expertise and attractiveness dimensions, will generate higher responses on key dependent variables. The expertise dimension, in turn, will be more effective than the attractiveness dimension because it is more salient and more objective. People might have different opinions about attractiveness; the same celebrity might be perceived as very attractive by some people and not so attractive by some others; however, there are more consensuses on expertise. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H8: Celebrity endorsement based on the values dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on the expertise dimension.

H9: Celebrity endorsement based on the values dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on the attractiveness dimension.

H10: Celebrity endorsement based on the expertise dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on the attractiveness dimension.

Chapter III presents the methodology used to test these hypotheses in a series of pilot tests and six experiments. The results are organized and presented by study in Chapter IV. Discussion of the results and limitations, and directions for future research are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

The focus of this dissertation is on the relationship between value congruence (i.e., congruence between celebrity values, product values, and consumer values) and advertising effectiveness at each level of the hierarchy of effects model (i.e., cognitive, affective, and conative). Much research has been done on the match-up hypothesis to examine the congruence between celebrities and products. The majority of these studies focused on either the expertise (i.e., product relatedness) dimension or the attractiveness dimension. The current research contributes to the study of celebrity endorsements by adding another dimension, values, to the match-up hypothesis. Specifically, in this dissertation, relationships between celebrity values, product values, and consumer values were examined. In addition, three dimensions of the match-up hypothesis (i.e., expertise, attractiveness, and value) were compared in terms of advertising effectiveness.

To investigate these issues, six studies accompanied with several pilot tests were conducted. Study 1 and Study 2 focused on the celebrity-product value congruence, and Study 3 introduced consumer values in addition to celebrity and product values. An unfamiliar celebrity was used in Study 4 to examine the effectiveness of value manipulation. Familiar and unfamiliar celebrities were compared in Study 5. Finally, Study 6 was used to compare and contrast three dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. Undergraduate students enrolled in business administration or marketing classes

participated in all pilot tests and main studies. All participants were recruited through the marketing department subject pool and received class credits for their participation.

The remainder of this chapter is organized as follows: First, pilot tests conducted to identify celebrity and product values are discussed. Next, the general methodology used across all studies is described. This section includes the discussion of stimuli development, the procedure used to run experiments, and measures used in all studies. Finally, specific methodology for each study is described.

Celebrity – Product Values

In order to identify celebrities and products that would be used in experiments, it was necessary to know consumers' perceptions of celebrity and product values. Accordingly, pilot tests were conducted to see with which values a given celebrity or a product was associated by consumers.

Celebrity Values. Based on an informal search (i.e., talks with undergraduate students, PhD students, and marketing faculty; Internet search; Forbes magazine's annual "The Celebrity 100" list), thirty celebrities (ten female non-sports celebrities, five female sports celebrities, ten male non-sports celebrities, five male sports celebrities) were identified to be used in pilot tests. Then, those thirty celebrities were rated by 484 participants (see Appendix E for pilot study measures). Specifically, participants were asked to identify to what extent a value is important for a given celebrity (1=important; 9=most important) by using values from the List of Values (LOV, Kahle 1996). With this

pilot test, familiarity with the celebrity (i.e., "How familiar are you with [Celebrity X]?") was also measured on a nine-point scale (1=not at all familiar; 9=very familiar). Each participant was asked to rate a set of celebrities and all participants were assigned to different sets of celebrities randomly. The order of celebrities in a given set was randomized in order to minimize order effects.

Ratings of celebrities on each of the nine values were examined first. Then, composite values of internal (a sense of accomplishment, self-fulfillment, and self-respect), external (a sense of belonging, warm relationship with others, security, and being well-respected), and fun/excitement (fun and enjoyment in life, and excitement) dimensions were calculated by taking the average of corresponding values. Table **1** and Table **2** show ratings of each celebrity on nine individual values as well as three value dimensions. Celebrities who had a familiarity value higher than 5 (out of 9) were considered to be used in main studies.

To see if a celebrity's ratings on internal, external, and fun/excitement dimensions were significantly different from each other, paired-samples t-tests were conducted. Table **3** and Table **4** report results of these t-tests. These results, combined with results from Table **1** and Table **2**, show if the differences of celebrity ratings on different value dimensions were indeed significant. For instance, participants believed that, for Angelina Jolie, internal values (M = 5.85) were significantly more important than external values (M = 5.00; $t(51) = 5.956$, $p < .001$); fun/excitement values (M = 5.83) were significantly more important than external values ($t(51) = -4.183$, $p < .001$); and internal and fun/excitement values were equally important ($t(51) = 0.093$, $p = .926$). For Robin Williams, fun/excitement values (M = 5.56) were perceived to be more important than

Table 1. Means (Standard Deviations) of Celebrity Ratings on Values: Female Celebrities

	Angelina Jolie	Paris Hilton	Catherine Zeta Jones	Julia Roberts	Jennifer Aniston	Kristen Stewart	Britney Spears	Oprah Winfrey	Martha Stewart	Meryl Streep	Mia Hamm	Serena Williams	Michele Wie	Annika Sorenstam	Lisa Leslie
Sense of belonging	4.87 (2.89)	3.77 (2.77)	5.80 (2.29)	4.92 (2.51)	4.11 (2.85)	4.85 (2.22)	3.46 (2.25)	5.86 (2.56)	4.40 (1.87)	3.55 (2.46)	4.78 (2.69)	4.85 (2.54)	5.15 (2.32)	5.25 (2.50)	4.76 (2.77)
Excitement	5.77 (2.91)	5.32 (2.62)	5.60 (2.22)	5.43 (2.38)	4.80 (2.74)	6.02 (2.26)	5.92 (2.51)	4.36 (2.23)	3.35 (2.08)	3.33 (2.08)	5.64 (2.46)	5.71 (2.55)	5.18 (2.21)	5.23 (2.55)	5.84 (2.59)
Warm relationships with others	4.62 (2.46)	3.94 (2.52)	6.15 (2.34)	5.20 (2.40)	4.57 (3.11)	4.83 (1.97)	3.23 (1.94)	6.43 (2.44)	4.78 (2.30)	4.18 (2.32)	4.73 (2.70)	4.46 (2.51)	5.08 (2.21)	5.23 (2.53)	3.98 (2.58)
Self-fulfillment	5.50 (3.08)	4.08 (2.98)	6.28 (2.32)	6.06 (2.59)	3.94 (2.72)	6.00 (2.44)	3.79 (2.41)	6.25 (2.72)	4.70 (2.31)	4.30 (2.80)	5.55 (2.84)	5.95 (2.95)	6.33 (2.50)	5.90 (2.85)	4.22 (2.77)
Being well respected	5.83 (3.05)	4.21 (2.83)	6.40 (2.13)	6.47 (2.53)	4.31 (2.88)	5.15 (2.39)	2.87 (2.08)	6.82 (2.48)	4.05 (2.29)	5.08 (2.74)	5.65 (2.85)	6.00 (2.68)	6.68 (2.15)	5.90 (2.73)	4.31 (2.79)
Fun and enjoyment	5.88 (2.73)	5.64 (2.55)	5.68 (2.49)	6.04 (2.39)	4.89 (2.74)	5.88 (2.32)	5.38 (2.73)	5.25 (2.30)	3.83 (1.87)	3.80 (2.19)	5.84 (2.42)	5.65 (2.50)	5.88 (2.27)	5.55 (2.64)	6.27 (2.71)
Security	4.71 (2.87)	3.91 (2.82)	6.00 (2.33)	5.08 (2.47)	2.69 (2.39)	5.03 (2.57)	2.64 (2.18)	3.93 (2.49)	3.20 (2.09)	3.05 (2.45)	4.13 (2.92)	3.97 (2.44)	4.93 (1.99)	5.13 (2.45)	4.98 (2.69)
Self-respect	5.79 (2.90)	4.02 (2.86)	6.55 (2.18)	5.96 (2.54)	4.20 (2.86)	6.05 (2.48)	3.13 (2.45)	6.46 (2.73)	4.10 (2.29)	4.55 (2.90)	5.61 (2.95)	5.98 (2.84)	6.45 (2.34)	5.95 (2.88)	4.61 (2.77)
Sense of accomplishment	6.25 (3.08)	4.66 (3.04)	7.05 (2.21)	6.47 (2.55)	4.34 (3.11)	6.10 (2.54)	4.62 (2.68)	6.61 (2.63)	5.83 (2.32)	4.85 (2.89)	6.22 (3.00)	6.47 (2.85)	6.85 (2.49)	6.13 (2.87)	4.76 (2.80)
Internal	5.85 (2.91)	4.25 (2.76)	6.63 (2.02)	6.16 (2.42)	4.16 (2.81)	6.07 (2.22)	3.85 (2.08)	6.44 (2.57)	4.88 (1.93)	4.57 (2.77)	5.79 (2.83)	6.13 (2.73)	6.54 (2.19)	5.99 (2.82)	4.53 (2.61)
External	5.00 (2.62)	3.96 (2.52)	6.09 (1.95)	5.42 (2.13)	3.92 (2.53)	4.97 (1.96)	3.05 (1.71)	5.76 (2.18)	4.11 (1.68)	3.96 (2.16)	4.82 (2.56)	4.82 (2.16)	5.46 (1.81)	5.38 (2.34)	4.51 (2.23)
Fun and Excitement	5.83 (2.77)	5.48 (2.36)	5.64 (2.10)	5.74 (2.49)	4.84 (2.71)	5.95 (2.16)	5.65 (2.39)	4.80 (2.01)	3.59 (1.78)	3.56 (1.78)	5.74 (2.35)	5.68 (2.41)	5.53 (2.12)	5.39 (2.51)	6.06 (2.49)
N	52	53	40	51	35	39	39	28	40	40	89	91	40	40	51
Familiarity	6.52 (2.27)	4.96 (2.62)	6.15 (2.35)	7.18 (2.28)	6.54 (2.19)	4.98 (2.40)	7.31 (1.78)	6.68 (2.45)	5.35 (2.53)	4.55 (2.52)	5.01 (2.45)	5.57 (2.51)	3.73 (2.60)	2.95 (2.68)	5.24 (2.85)

Table 2. Means (Standard Deviations) of Celebrity Ratings on Values: Male Celebrities

	Robert Pattinson	Stephen Colbert	Ashton Kutcher	Tom Cruise	Brad Pitt	George Clooney	Josh Holloway	Tom Hanks	Bill Cosby	Robin Williams	LeBron James	David Beckham	Tom Brady	Alex Rodriguez	Roger Federer
Sense of belonging	5.28 (2.05)	5.83 (2.37)	4.62 (2.55)	3.74 (2.59)	4.32 (2.56)	5.03 (2.32)	5.41 (2.40)	4.31 (2.51)	5.60 (2.61)	4.83 (2.63)	5.98 (2.70)	6.15 (2.34)	5.43 (2.44)	5.31 (2.66)	3.29 (2.47)
Excitement	6.40 (1.96)	5.93 (2.47)	5.54 (2.50)	4.92 (2.72)	5.43 (2.64)	6.13 (1.68)	5.91 (2.19)	4.79 (1.97)	4.83 (2.52)	6.05 (2.30)	7.22 (2.08)	6.98 (2.09)	6.73 (2.29)	6.04 (2.26)	5.65 (2.62)
Warm relationships with others	5.40 (2.04)	4.75 (2.24)	4.79 (2.37)	4.49 (2.51)	4.47 (2.49)	5.00 (2.09)	5.48 (1.98)	4.62 (2.97)	6.13 (2.69)	5.53 (2.46)	5.49 (2.53)	5.28 (2.28)	5.24 (2.36)	5.04 (2.53)	3.18 (2.30)
Self-fulfillment	6.06 (2.29)	6.25 (2.19)	5.31 (2.76)	4.85 (2.59)	5.21 (2.73)	6.38 (2.35)	6.39 (2.11)	4.76 (2.89)	5.03 (2.41)	5.05 (2.71)	6.98 (2.39)	7.38 (1.81)	5.98 (2.45)	5.63 (2.55)	4.68 (3.07)
Being well respected	6.02 (2.35)	6.05 (2.54)	5.75 (2.73)	4.62 (2.67)	5.57 (2.58)	7.20 (1.83)	6.45 (2.35)	6.07 (2.52)	4.78 (2.33)	5.30 (2.78)	7.16 (2.54)	7.28 (2.05)	6.39 (2.33)	5.20 (2.62)	5.18 (3.13)
Fun and enjoyment	6.32 (2.11)	6.85 (2.25)	6.13 (2.54)	5.08 (2.62)	5.98 (2.80)	7.03 (1.70)	6.21 (2.14)	5.45 (2.41)	5.43 (2.91)	7.08 (2.11)	6.98 (2.07)	6.73 (2.29)	6.47 (2.21)	5.63 (2.54)	4.91 (2.58)
Security	5.17 (2.36)	5.28 (2.48)	4.25 (2.75)	3.77 (2.50)	3.98 (2.55)	5.43 (2.42)	5.44 (2.10)	3.62 (2.58)	3.78 (2.04)	3.48 (2.46)	5.25 (2.92)	5.58 (2.40)	5.49 (2.28)	4.94 (2.54)	3.06 (2.34)
Self-respect	5.98 (2.03)	6.10 (2.38)	5.23 (2.68)	4.72 (2.90)	5.19 (2.59)	6.03 (2.12)	6.23 (2.36)	5.17 (2.65)	5.60 (2.59)	4.60 (2.72)	6.57 (2.65)	6.48 (2.41)	6.37 (2.43)	5.35 (2.73)	4.35 (2.91)
Sense of accomplishment	6.62 (3.34)	6.50 (2.64)	5.63 (2.96)	5.38 (2.95)	5.85 (2.96)	7.00 (2.34)	6.34 (2.54)	6.00 (2.79)	5.50 (2.75)	5.25 (2.74)	7.22 (2.66)	7.35 (2.30)	6.80 (2.39)	6.06 (2.54)	5.12 (3.36)
Internal	6.22 (1.98)	6.28 (2.18)	5.39 (2.68)	4.98 (2.62)	5.42 (2.58)	6.47 (2.02)	6.32 (2.19)	5.31 (2.60)	5.38 (2.38)	4.97 (2.54)	6.92 (2.45)	7.07 (1.97)	6.39 (2.27)	5.68 (2.37)	4.72 (2.98)
External	5.47 (1.77)	5.48 (2.05)	4.85 (2.21)	4.15 (2.25)	4.58 (2.17)	5.66 (1.57)	5.70 (1.86)	4.66 (2.30)	5.32 (2.03)	4.78 (2.18)	5.97 (2.39)	6.07 (1.80)	5.64 (2.06)	5.12 (2.29)	3.68 (2.21)
Fun and Excitement	6.36 (1.86)	6.39 (2.17)	5.84 (2.40)	5.00 (2.48)	5.71 (2.63)	6.58 (1.53)	6.06 (1.97)	5.12 (2.07)	5.13 (2.56)	5.56 (1.99)	7.10 (1.95)	6.85 (2.05)	6.60 (2.06)	5.83 (2.21)	5.28 (2.51)
N	47	40	52	39	53	40	42	29	40	40	51	40	51	51	34
Familiarity	4.79 (2.72)	5.78 (2.91)	7.13 (1.46)	6.77 (2.00)	7.11 (2.05)	6.58 (2.02)	3.91 (2.70)	6.62 (2.38)	5.08 (2.66)	7.00 (2.08)	7.13 (2.28)	6.63 (2.15)	6.49 (2.67)	6.90 (2.04)	5.21 (3.12)

Table 3. Comparing Celebrity Ratings on Value Dimensions: Female Celebrities

Celebrity	Pairs	t	df	p-value	Celebrity	Pairs	t	df	p-value
Angelina Jolie	Internal - External	5.956	51	0.001	Paris Hilton	Internal - External	2.060	52	0.044
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	0.093	51	0.926		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-4.019	52	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-4.183	51	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-5.397	52	0.001
Catherine Zeta Jones	Internal - External	4.504	39	0.001	Julia Roberts	Internal - External	4.570	39	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	4.026	39	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	1.955	39	0.003
	External - Fun/Ext.	2.181	39	0.035		External - Fun/Ext.	-0.070	39	0.944
Jennifer Aniston	Internal - External	1.646	34	0.109	Kristen Stewart	Internal - External	4.463	40	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-2.209	34	0.034		Internal - Fun/Ext.	0.576	40	0.568
	External - Fun/Ext.	-3.448	34	0.002		External - Fun/Ext.	-3.245	40	0.002
Britney Spears	Internal - External	3.044	38	0.004	Oprah Winfrey	Internal - External	2.915	27	0.007
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-5.773	38	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	4.118	27	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-7.807	38	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	3.093	27	0.005
Martha Stewart	Internal - External	4.075	39	0.001	Meryl Streep	Internal - External	2.610	58	0.013
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	4.402	39	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	2.776	58	0.008
	External - Fun/Ext.	2.133	39	0.039		External - Fun/Ext.	1.605	58	0.116
Mia Hamm	Internal - External	5.885	88	0.001	Serena Williams	Internal - External	8.670	90	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	.302	88	0.763		Internal - Fun/Ext.	3.670	90	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.468	88	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-6.018	90	0.001
Michele Wie	Internal - External	5.482	39	0.001	Annika Sorenstam	Internal - External	3.568	39	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	4.033	39	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	3.135	39	0.003
	External - Fun/Ext.	-0.342	39	0.734		External - Fun/Ext.	-0.070	39	0.944
Lisa Leslie	Internal - External	0.116	50	0.908					
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-4.729	50	0.001					
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.457	50	0.001					

Notes. Fun/Ext. = Fun/Excitement

Table 4. Comparing Celebrity Ratings on Value Dimensions: Male Celebrities

Celebrity	Pairs	t	df	p-value	Celebrity	Pairs	t	df	p-value
Robert Pattinson	Internal - External	4.242	46	0.001	Stephen Colbert	Internal - External	4.765	39	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.801	46	0.427		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.486	39	0.630
	External - Fun/Ext.	-4.783	46	0.000		External - Fun/Ext.	-4.000	39	0.001
Ashton Kutcher	Internal - External	3.227	51	0.002	Tom Cruise	Internal - External	4.330	38	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-1.678	51	0.099		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.058	38	0.954
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.018	51	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-3.820	38	0.001
Brad Pitt	Internal - External	3.712	52	0.001	George Clooney	Internal - External	3.553	39	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-1.370	52	0.177		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.432	39	0.668
	External - Fun/Ext.	-4.797	52	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-4.163	39	0.001
Josh Holloway	Internal - External	3.374	43	0.002	Tom Hanks	Internal - External	2.606	28	0.015
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	1.440	43	0.157		Internal - Fun/Ext.	0.492	28	0.627
	External - Fun/Ext.	-2.274	43	0.028		External - Fun/Ext.	-1.355	28	0.186
Bill Cosby	Internal - External	0.274	39	0.785	Robin Williams	Internal - External	1.155	39	0.255
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	0.790	39	0.434		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-5.658	39	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	0.691	39	0.494		External - Fun/Ext.	-6.940	39	0.001
LeBron James	Internal - External	5.236	50	0.001	David Beckham	Internal - External	5.751	39	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.753	50	0.455		Internal - Fun/Ext.	1.363	39	0.181
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.337	50	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-4.008	39	0.001
Tom Brady	Internal - External	4.329	50	0.001	Alex Rodriguez	Internal - External	3.004	50	0.004
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.975	50	0.334		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.582	50	0.563
	External - Fun/Ext.	-3.917	50	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-2.813	50	0.007
Roger Federer	Internal - External	4.381	33	0.001					
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-1.723	33	0.094					
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.647	33	0.001					

Notes. Fun/Ext. = Fun/Excitement

both internal values (M = 4.97; $t(39)$ = -5.658, $p < .001$) and external values (M = 4.78; $t(39)$ = -6.940, $p < .001$). Internal and external values, on the other hand, were perceived to be equally important for Robin Williams ($t(39)$ = 1.155, p = .255).

Product Values. Because participants of all studies were undergraduate students, they were considered and treated as real customers. Accordingly, when selecting products that would be used in studies, including pilot tests, the focus was on products undergraduate students could consume in their daily lives. Based on an informal search (i.e., talks with undergraduate students, PhD students, and marketing faculty; Internet search), twenty products were identified to be used in pilot tests. Then, those twenty products were rated by 554 participants. Specifically, participants were asked to identify to what extent a product is representative of values from the LOV (Kahle 1996) on a nine point scale (1=not at all representative; 9=very representative). Each participant was asked to rate a set of products, and all participants were assigned to different sets of products randomly. The order of products in a given set was randomized in order to minimize order effects.

Ratings of products on each of the nine values were examined first. Then, composite values of internal (a sense of accomplishment, self-fulfilling, and self-respect), external (a sense of belonging, warm relationship with others, security, and being well-respected), and fun/excitement (fun and enjoyment in life, and excitement) dimensions were calculated by taking the average of corresponding values. Table **5** shows ratings of each product on nine individual values as well as three dimensions.

Table 5. Means (Standard Deviations) of Product Ratings on Values

	Cell Phone	Digital Camera	Beer	Coffee	Coffee Maker	Board Game	MP3 Player	Laptop	GPS	Luggage
Sense of belonging	5.94 (2.55)	3.88 (2.41)	4.94 (2.66)	4.28 (2.40)	2.94 (1.92)	4.28 (2.15)	3.62 (2.37)	4.42 (2.66)	3.40 (2.38)	2.79 (1.89)
Excitement	5.24 (2.36)	5.86 (2.09)	6.40 (2.05)	4.91 (1.96)	3.55 (2.29)	6.33 (1.99)	5.52 (2.16)	5.05 (2.13)	4.99 (2.55)	4.10 (2.24)
Warm relationships with others	5.46 (2.42)	4.26 (2.53)	4.60 (2.48)	4.96 (2.28)	4.27 (2.08)	5.33 (2.34)	3.00 (2.20)	3.86 (2.33)	2.51 (1.91)	2.33 (1.62)
Self-fulfillment	3.89 (2.26)	4.09 (2.32)	2.89 (1.99)	3.94 (2.61)	3.58 (1.94)	3.95 (2.14)	3.79 (2.43)	4.37 (2.44)	3.90 (2.48)	3.12 (2.27)
Being well respected	4.61 (2.32)	3.62 (2.26)	3.32 (2.22)	3.52 (2.17)	3.33 (2.26)	3.13 (2.15)	3.61 (2.31)	4.51 (2.33)	3.45 (5.21)	3.83 (2.47)
Fun and enjoyment	5.63 (2.27)	6.42 (1.82)	6.29 (1.98)	4.96 (2.11)	4.36 (2.16)	6.92 (2.28)	6.15 (1.91)	5.49 (2.21)	5.44 (2.29)	4.81 (2.22)
Security	5.94 (2.42)	2.64 (2.24)	2.35 (1.89)	2.92 (2.33)	3.00 (2.35)	2.08 (1.60)	2.37 (1.92)	3.49 (2.58)	6.56 (2.08)	5.31 (2.65)
Self-respect	3.86 (2.28)	3.68 (2.40)	2.78 (1.91)	3.19 (2.33)	3.30 (2.27)	3.41 (2.07)	3.17 (2.25)	4.05 (2.46)	3.05 (2.06)	3.52 (2.38)
Sense of accomplishment	4.15 (2.42)	4.43 (2.44)	2.71 (2.08)	3.72 (2.68)	3.85 (2.55)	4.62 (2.46)	3.71 (2.45)	4.84 (2.49)	4.53 (2.34)	3.45 (2.47)
Internal	3.97 (2.10)	4.06 (2.04)	2.81 (1.78)	3.60 (2.21)	3.58 (1.93)	3.99 (1.99)	3.54 (2.04)	4.42 (2.18)	3.82 (1.98)	3.37 (1.86)
External	5.49 (1.87)	3.60 (1.79)	3.80 (1.75)	3.92 (1.87)	3.39 (1.74)	3.71 (1.62)	3.15 (1.75)	4.07 (1.78)	3.98 (1.59)	3.57 (1.59)
Fun and Excitement	5.45 (2.08)	6.14 (1.66)	6.35 (1.82)	4.94 (1.83)	3.95 (2.07)	6.63 (2.03)	5.82 (1.86)	5.27 (2.01)	5.22 (2.20)	4.45 (1.98)
N	80	77	82	54	33	39	90	43	78	42

Table 5. (continued)

	Electronic Toothbrush	Dinnerware	Treadmill	Watch	Video Game Console	Perfume	Photo Printer	Picture Frame	Printer	Digital Picture Frame
Sense of belonging	2.00 (1.41)	4.67 (2.40)	3.86 (2.49)	4.32 (2.25)	3.25 (2.40)	3.87 (2.13)	2.93 (2.51)	4.69 (2.39)	2.59 (1.99)	5.32 (2.06)
Excitement	2.30 (1.97)	3.02 (2.04)	3.83 (2.16)	3.11 (1.99)	6.59 (1.58)	4.81 (2.22)	4.17 (2.45)	3.31 (2.13)	2.55 (1.80)	4.68 (2.33)
Warm relationships with others	2.23 (1.55)	5.28 (2.54)	2.49 (1.94)	3.71 (2.21)	3.25 (2.35)	4.68 (2.35)	3.45 (2.69)	5.54 (2.50)	2.52 (1.72)	6.53 (1.93)
Self-fulfillment	3.37 (2.57)	3.25 (2.01)	4.84 (2.70)	3.79 (2.01)	3.45 (2.10)	3.79 (2.19)	4.34 (2.39)	3.60 (2.13)	3.79 (2.38)	4.31 (2.08)
Being well respected	3.07 (2.57)	4.25 (2.25)	4.07 (2.53)	4.39 (2.64)	2.55 (2.10)	4.63 (2.30)	3.44 (2.65)	3.66 (2.13)	4.03 (2.41)	4.12 (2.05)
Fun and enjoyment	2.57 (1.74)	4.05 (2.28)	4.77 (2.36)	3.25 (2.14)	6.78 (1.74)	4.82 (2.31)	5.24 (2.54)	4.57 (2.56)	2.69 (2.00)	6.23 (1.93)
Security	4.17 (2.61)	3.12 (2.20)	2.74 (2.09)	4.04 (2.52)	1.69 (1.41)	2.27 (1.78)	2.10 (1.84)	2.26 (1.87)	3.76 (2.71)	2.39 (1.62)
Self-respect	5.17 (2.55)	3.53 (2.08)	5.10 (2.65)	4.54 (2.52)	2.43 (1.86)	5.32 (2.45)	3.14 (2.43)	3.89 (2.30)	3.66 (2.68)	4.83 (2.16)
Sense of accomplishment	2.93 (2.30)	3.63 (2.15)	5.23 (2.60)	5.00 (2.62)	3.78 (2.57)	4.00 (2.31)	4.48 (2.49)	3.77 (2.47)	4.72 (2.36)	4.96 (2.08)
Internal	3.82 (2.13)	3.47 (1.82)	5.06 (2.36)	4.44 (2.20)	3.22 (1.80)	4.36 (1.77)	3.99 (2.15)	3.75 (2.06)	4.06 (2.21)	4.70 (1.60)
External	2.87 (1.35)	4.33 (1.83)	3.29 (1.80)	4.12 (1.67)	2.69 (1.72)	3.86 (1.54)	2.98 (1.92)	4.04 (1.72)	3.22 (1.80)	4.58 (1.22)
Fun and Excitement	2.43 (1.61)	3.54 (1.91)	4.30 (2.02)	3.18 (1.90)	6.69 (1.51)	4.81 (2.02)	4.71 (2.09)	3.94 (2.01)	2.62 (1.76)	5.46 (1.91)
N	30	57	69	28	51	61	29	35	29	69

To see if a product's ratings on internal, external, and fun/excitement dimensions were significantly different from each other, paired-samples t-tests were conducted. Table **6** shows results of these t-tests. These results, combined with results from Table **5**, show if the differences of product ratings on different value dimensions were indeed significant. For instance, participants reported that luggage represented fun/excitement values (M = 4.45) significantly more than it represented either internal values (M = 3.37; $t(41) = -3.475$, $p < .001$) or external values (M = 3.57; $t(41) = -2.882$, $p < .007$). There was no significant difference between the internal or external values represented by a luggage ($t(41) = -1.125$, $p = .267$).

General Methodology

In this section, the general methodology used in the main studies is described. Under *Stimuli Development*, experimental ads used in the main studies are described and the pilot tests conducted before creating experimental ads are explained. Under *Procedure*, the experimental procedure to collect data is described. Under *Measures*, items used to measure dependent variables, independent variables, control variables, and manipulation checks are reported.

Stimuli Development. To manipulate the congruence between celebrities and product categories, several ads were designed. Because values under a given value dimension (i.e., internal, external, and fun/excitement) tend to be highly correlated with

Table 6. Comparing Product Ratings on Value Dimensions

Product	Pairs	t	df	p-value	Product	Pairs	t	df	p-value
Cell Phone	Internal - External	-7.059	79	0.001	Digital Camera	Internal - External	3.451	76	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-7.848	79	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-10.600	76	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	0.179	79	0.859		External - Fun/Ext.	-14.819	76	0.001
Beer	Internal - External	-7.460	81	0.001	Coffee	Internal - External	-2.153	53	0.036
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-15.940	81	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-6.262	53	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-14.819	81	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-4.954	53	0.001
Coffee Maker	Internal - External	0.994	32	0.328	Board Game	Internal - External	1.314	39	0.197
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-1.130	32	0.267		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-8.719	39	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-2.100	32	0.044		External - Fun/Ext.	-11.877	39	0.001
MP3 Player	Internal - External	2.823	89	0.006	Laptop	Internal - External	1.262	42	0.214
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-12.812	89	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-2.826	42	0.007
	External - Fun/Ext.	-14.252	89	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-3.754	42	0.001
GPS	Internal - External	-1.069	77	0.288	Luggage	Internal - External	-1.125	41	0.267
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-6.332	77	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-3.475	41	0.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.606	77	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-2.882	41	0.006
Electronic Toothbrush	Internal - External	3.242	29	0.003	Dinnerware	Internal - External	-3.926	56	0.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	3.044	29	0.005		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.275	56	0.784
	External - Fun/Ext.	1.179	29	0.248		External - Fun/Ext.	3.547	56	0.001
Treadmill	Internal - External	7.203	68	0.001	Watch	Internal - External	1.124	27	0.232
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	3.094	68	0.003		Internal - Fun/Ext.	3.494	27	0.002
	External - Fun/Ext.	-5.531	68	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	3.153	27	0.004
Video Game Console	Internal - External	2.161	50	0.036	Perfume	Internal - External	3.242	61	0.002
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-13.288	50	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-2.144	61	0.036
	External - Fun/Ext.	-13.568	50	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	-4.379	61	0.001

Notes. Fun/Ext. = Fun/Excitement

Table 6. (continued)

Product	Pairs	t	df	p-value	Product	Pairs	t	df	p-value
Photo Printer	Internal - External	4.606	28	0.001	Picture Frame	Internal - External	-1.238	34	0.224
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-2.189	28	0.037		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-0.678	34	0.502
	External - Fun/Ext.	-7.135	28	0.001		External - Fun/Ext.	0.365	34	0.717
Printer	Internal - External	2.789	28	0.009	Digital Picture Frame	Internal - External	0.774	68	0.004
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	4.013	28	0.001		Internal - Fun/Ext.	-3.891	68	0.563
	External - Fun/Ext.	2.320	28	0.028		External - Fun/Ext.	-4.278	68	0.007

Notes. Fun/Ext. = Fun/Excitement

each other, it was decided to focus on value dimensions instead of individual values in the experimental ads. Some of those ads included a celebrity and a product that had been perceived as highly representative of the celebrity's value dimension (high value congruence) based on the pilot tests described before. Other ads also included a celebrity and a product, but this time, the product was not the one that had been perceived as the good representative of the celebrity's value dimension. Instead, the product was highly associated with another value dimension (low value congruence). In order to generalize hypothesized effects to more celebrity-product pairs, a different celebrity and/or product was used in each study.

In order to emphasize the value (in)congruence further, taglines as quotes from celebrities and slogans congruent with product values (except Study 1, which will be explained later in this chapter) were used. For each value dimension (i.e., internal, external, and fun/excitement) three taglines and four slogans (two slogans for internal values) were created (see Table 7). A pilot study conducted with 77 participants showed,

based on paired samples t-tests, that the tagline used to represent internal values (i.e., internal tagline) represented internal values (M = 7.26) more significantly than it represented either external values (M = 5.28; $t(76) = 9.466$, $p < .001$) or fun/excitement values (M = 4.85; $t(76) = 10.772$, $p < .001$). Moreover, the mean value of internal values for the internal tagline was significantly higher than the mean value of internal values for the external tagline (the tagline used to represent external values; M = 5.28; $t(76) = 7.235$, $p < .001$) and fun/excitement tagline (the tagline used to represent fun/excitement values; M = 5.57; $t(76) = 6.145$, $p < .001$). Similarly, the external tagline had a higher mean on external values (M = 6.27) than on internal (M = 5.28; $t(76) = -6.785$, $p < .001$) or fun/excitement values (M = 5.58; $t(76) = 3.907$, $p < .001$). The mean value of external values on the external tagline was also significantly higher than the mean value of external values on the internal tagline (M = 5.28; $t(76) = -5.716$, $p < .001$) and the fun/excitement tagline (M = 4.39; $t(76) = 8.683$, $p < .001$). Finally, the fun/excitement tagline represented fun/excitement values (M = 7.06) more significantly than it represented internal values (M = 5.57; $t(76) = -6.178$, $p < .001$) or external values (M = 4.39; $t(76) = -9.824$, $p < .001$); and the mean value of fun/excitement values on the fun/excitement tagline was significantly higher than the mean values of fun/excitement values on the internal tagline (M = 4.85; $t(76) = -8.375$, $p < .001$) and the external tagline (M = 5.58; $t(76) = -5.353$, $p < .001$). Accordingly, these three taglines were used as quotes from celebrities with appropriate values (e.g., the internal tagline was used for celebrities who were associated with internal values, etc.).

Paired samples t-tests also showed that (see Table **8**) slogans represented their intended value dimensions. The “Reward yourself” slogan had a significantly higher

Table 7. Taglines and Slogans Used in Experimental Ads

	Internal Values	External Values	Fun/Excitement Values
Tagline	Having a successful life is very important for me. That's why I chose [Product Name]. It reminds of me my achievements and makes me proud.	Spending time with family and friends is the greatest source of my happiness. And while sharing my life with them, [Product Name] is always with us.	I can't imagine a life without fun... and I can't imagine a fun life without [Product Name]. It is a great compliment to the pleasures and thrills of life.
Slogan	Reward Yourself Respect Yourself	New member of your family	Full of fun

mean value on internal values (M = 7.06) than internal values of the "New member of your family" slogan (M = 4.65), and internal values of the "Full of fun" slogan (M = 4.52). The "Respect yourself" slogan had also a significantly higher mean value on internal values (M = 6.97) than internal values of the "New member of your family" slogan (M = 4.65) and the "Full of fun" slogan (M = 4.52). There was no significant difference between the internal values of the "Reward yourself" slogan and the "Respect yourself" slogan. The mean value of external values (M = 5.93) on "New member of your family" slogan, on the other hand, was significantly higher than the mean value of external values on the "Reward yourself" slogan (M = 4.46), the "Respect yourself" slogan (M = 4.70), and the "Full of fun" slogan (4.31). Finally, the "Full of Fun" slogan had a significantly higher mean value on fun/excitement values (M = 7.41) than fun/excitement values of the "Reward yourself" slogan (M = 6.54), fun/excitement values of the "Respect yourself" slogan (M = 4.29), and fun/excitement values of the "New

member of your family" slogan (M = 6.23). Therefore, these slogans were paired with products that were representative of the same value dimensions (e.g., "Reward yourself"

Table 8. Comparing Slogans on Value Dimensions

Slogan	Pairs	t	df	p-value	Slogan	Pairs	t	df	p-value
Reward Yourself	Internal - External	12.081	76	.001	Respect Yourself	Internal - External	10.666	76	.001
	Internal - Fun/Ext.	3.022	76	.003		Internal - Fun/Ext.	12.362	76	.001
	Respect_Int	0.525	76	.601		Reward_Int	-0.525	76	.601
	Family_Int	9.752	76	.001		Family_Int	8.526	76	.001
	Fun_Int	9.004	76	.001		Fun_Int	8.494	76	.001
New Member of Your Family	Internal - External	-8.338	76	.001	Full of Fun	Internal - Fun/Ext.	-10.290	76	.001
	External - Fun/Ext.	-1.962	76	.053		External - Fun/Ext.	-10.968	76	.001
	Respect_Ext	6.983	76	.001		Respect_Fun	10.559	76	.001
	Reward_Ext	8.696	76	.001		Reward_Fun	3.332	76	.001
	Fun_Ext	8.255	76	.001		Family_Fun	5.008	76	.001

Notes. Fun/Ext. = Fun/Excitement; Respect_Int = Mean value of internal values on "Respect Yourself" slogan; Reward_Int = Mean value of internal values on "Reward Yourself" slogan; Family_Int = Mean value of internal values on "New Member of Your Family" slogan; Fun_Int = Mean value of internal values on "Full of Fun" slogan; Respect_Ext = Mean value of external values on "Respect Yourself" slogan; Reward_Ext = Mean value of external values on "Reward Yourself" slogan; Fun_Ext = Mean value of external values on "Full of Fun" slogan; Respect_Fun = Mean value of fun/excitement values on "Respect Yourself" slogan; Reward_Fun = Mean value of fun/excitement values on "Reward Yourself" slogan; Family_Fun = Mean value of fun/excitement values on "New Member of Your Family" slogan.

slogan with products that were associated with internal values, etc.) to emphasize product values more; in each experimental ad, a product-slogan pair that was consistent with each other in terms of values was used.

Fictitious brand names were used for all products in order to minimize the impact of previous knowledge and familiarity with real brands. For a given celebrity, all aspects of the ads, except the product-slogan pair, were the same (except the ads used in Study 1

and Study 5, which will be explained later in this chapter). For instance, a celebrity who had been associated with internal values was paired with the internal tagline, a product-slogan pair for internal values (for the high congruence condition), and a product-slogan pair for either external or fun/excitement values (for the low congruence condition). In studies where participants were exposed to more than one experimental ad that included different celebrities, different layouts (e.g., color of the ad, appearance of the ad, etc.) were used to minimize the possibility that participants would associate those ads. All ads included a portrait picture of the celebrity, a tagline congruent with the celebrity's values, the celebrity's name and profession (e.g., actress, tennis player, etc.) under the tagline, a product-slogan pair (product picture and related slogan; either congruent or incongruent with the celebrity's values depending on the experimental condition), a logo of the fictitious brand, and a URL address for the fictitious brand. In studies where fake celebrities (to examine the "low familiarity with the celebrity" impact) were used, professions of those celebrities were replaced with one of the following statements, in order to give credibility to fake celebrities: 2008 Miss World, 2008 Cannes Film Festival, Best Supporting Actor; and Europa League 2008, Soccer Player of the Year. The year 2008 was used for credibility because participants would be more likely to remember celebrities for the most recent years (2009 and 2010). Names of fake celebrities were also made up by using English names to control for the similarity effect. Moreover, fictitious brands used in ads with fake celebrities were introduced as official sponsors of Miss World, Cannes Film Festival, and UEFA Europa League to add to the credibility of fake celebrities.

Procedure. All studies were conducted at the computer or research lab at Lundquist College of Business. After participants were provided with a brief description of what they would encounter over the course of the experimental session, they were asked to read the consent form (Appendix A) that appeared on the computer screen in front of each participant. After participants read the consent form and entered their ID numbers to consent to their participation, they were directed to a website, where they saw some magazine ads (real or experimental) and answered some questions. All studies consisted of two parts. After reading the general consent form, participants were directed to the first part. The first page (i.e., the information page; Appendix B) gave information on the study (e.g., "you will be presented with 6 real print ads") and asked participants to enter their ID number to proceed (to make sure that they agreed to participate in this part of the study). For studies in which real celebrities (i.e., high familiarity with the celebrity condition) were used, the information page introduced the purpose of the study as "examining the impact of the amount of information and the way they are presented in print advertisements on the effectiveness of ads." For studies in which fake celebrities (i.e., low familiarity with the celebrity condition) were used, the information page introduced the purpose of the study as "examining the impact of sponsorships on consumer behaviors." Then, participants were presented with different numbers of ads (real or experimental ads; see Appendix C for visual representations of ads used in all studies). In all studies, the same three real ads (Abreva Pump, Dunkin Donuts Iced Lite Latte, and Hanks Beer) were used. Those ads were chosen because of their variance in the amount of information presented in the ad, their simplicity, and their use of a human in the ad. Each ad (both real and experimental) stayed on the screen at least for 5 seconds

to make sure that participants saw it. In all studies, participants were assigned to different conditions (that include different celebrity-product pairs) randomly. Moreover, the order of real and experimental ads was determined randomly. After each ad, participants answered questions related to the ad (attitude toward ad) and product shown on the ad (attitude toward brand). After the last ad, participants were asked to guess the purpose of the study and answered questions on celebrity evaluation and the perceived congruence between celebrities and products used in the ads. Then, they were thanked and directed to the second part of the study. The background color and font sizes of the first and second parts of the study were different to make participants think that those two parts were not associated with each other. Similar to the first part, the first page gave information about this part of the study and asked participants to enter their ID number (Appendix B). Then, participants answered questions related to their own personal values, their product knowledge and involvement for a different number of product categories, including the ones used in the experimental ads, and demographic information. Upon completion of the study, participants were thanked and dismissed. Each participant received the debriefing statement (Appendix F) as an email attachment at the end of the term they participated in the study.

Measures. In all studies, congruence between celebrities and products was manipulated by using the ads described above. In addition to this manipulated independent variable, a measured independent variable was also used in the study that was conducted to examine the impact of consumer values. More specifically, personal values of participants were measured by using the List of Values (LOV) (Beatty, Kahle,

Homer, and Misra 1985; Kahle 1983). As consistent with the suggestion of Kahle (1996), participants were asked to rate nine values (sense of belonging, excitement, warm relationships with others, self-fulfillment, being well-respected, fun and enjoyment in life, security, self-respect, and a sense of accomplishment) on nine-point scales, from "important to me" to "most important to me." Participants then were asked to reread the items and to choose one of them as the most important to them in their daily lives (all measures can be seen in Appendix D).

The cognitive component of the hierarchy of effects model was measured by using participants' attention. More specifically, actual time participants spent on viewing experimental ads was recorded as a measure of attention. It was hypothesized that, the more time a participant spent in examining a particular ad, the more attention s/he paid to that ad.

The affective component of the hierarchy of effects model was associated with attitude-related measures. Specifically, attitude toward ad and brand were measured by using four 9-point items: negative/positive; undesirable/desirable; appealing/unappealing (recoded); and favorable/unfavorable (recoded).

Behavioral intentions (i.e., conative component) were measured through purchase intention and word-of-mouth intention. A shorten version of the "willingness to buy" scale (Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal 1991) was used to measure purchase intentions. Similarly, a shortened version of a scale used by Price and Arnould (1999) was included in all studies to measure word-of-mouth intentions. For each of these questions, 9-point strongly disagree/strongly agree scales were used.

To control for participants' evaluation and feelings of each celebrity, six semantic-differential questions (modified from Ohanian 1990) were used on a nine point scale: trustworthy/untrustworthy (recoded); unlikeable/likeable; attractive/unattractive (recoded); unknowledgeable/knowledgeable; unfamiliar/familiar; and favorable/unfavorable (recoded). Single items were used to control for product knowledge (1=one of the least knowledgeable; 9=one of the most knowledgeable) and product involvement (1=not at all involved; 9=extremely involved).

To check for the effectiveness of celebrity-product congruence manipulation, four 9-point semantic differential items were modified from Till and Busler (2001) and Ellen, Mohr, and Webb (2000). Demand awareness of participants was measured by asking the purpose of the study. Participants who guessed the real purpose of studies (e.g., congruence between celebrities and products) were removed from analyses. Finally, the demographics section included questions related to age, gender, education, country in which the participant was raised, and native language of the participant. Because the focus of this dissertation is values and because people raised in different cultures might have different value perceptions, participants who were not raised in the United States and/or whose native language was not English were removed from datasets before any analyses conducted. Accordingly, sample sizes reported for each main study included only participants who were raised in the United States and whose native language was English. Composites were created for measures with multiple items by taking the average of all related items. Table **9** includes Cronbach's alpha and corrected item-to-total correlation range for these measures for each study.

Table 9. Reliability Statistics: Cronbach's Alpha (Corrected Item-to-Total Correlation Range)

	Attitude toward Ad	Attitude toward Brand	Purchase Intention [a]	Word-of-Mouth Intention [a]	Manipulation Check
Study 1	.913 (.725 - .857)	.925 (.809 - .855)	.784 *	.906 *	.956 (.768 - .950)
Study 2	.892 (.674 - .809)	.908 (.715 - .848)	.860 *	.937 *	.939 (.747 - .933)
Study 3	.912 (.784 - .811)	.951 (.838 - .905)	.798 *	.922 *	.944 (.805 - .925)
Study 4	.831 (.631 - .703)	.835 (.614 - .687)	.873 *	.837 *	.954 (.867 - .925)
Study 5	.900 (.750 - .804)	.936 (.769 - .881)	.935 *	.928 *	.907 (.689 - .850)
Study 6	.825 (.605 - .683)	.845 (.629 - .744)	.827 *	.859 *	.934 (.810 - .884)

Notes. [a] For measures with two items, Pearson correlation was calculated and reported
* $p < .001$

Methodology for Individual Studies

In this section, methodology used in each study (e.g., celebrities and products used) is explained. Table **10** provides an overview of these studies.

Study 1. The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the impact of celebrity-product value congruence on each level of the hierarchy of effects model. In order to test for Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3, an experiment was conducted by using a celebrity and two products. One of the products had high congruence with the celebrity's

Table 10. Overview of Studies

Study Number	Unique Characteristics	Independent Variables	Dependent Variables
Study 1	High Congruence: Martha Stewart and Treadmill Low Congruence: Martha Stewart and Video Game Console	Celebrity-Product Value Congruence	Attention Attitude toward Ad Attitude toward Brand Purchase Intentions WOM Intentions
Study 2	High Congruence: Catherine Zeta Jones and Dinnerware Low Congruence: Catherine Zeta Jones and MP3 Player	Celebrity-Product Value Congruence	Attention Attitude toward Ad Attitude toward Brand Purchase Intentions WOM Intentions
Study 3	High Congruence: Oprah Winfrey and Electronic Toothbrush Low Congruence: Oprah Winfrey and MP3 Player	Celebrity-Product Value Congruence Consumer Values	Attention Attitude toward Ad Attitude toward Brand Purchase Intentions WOM Intentions
Study 4	High Congruence: Fake Celebrity (paired with the internal tagline) and Electronic Toothbrush Low Congruence: Fake Celebrity (paired with the external tagline) and Electronic Toothbrush	Celebrity-Product Value Congruence	Attention Attitude toward Ad Attitude toward Brand Purchase Intentions WOM Intentions

Notes. WOM = Word-of-mouth

Table 10. (continued)

Study Number	Unique Characteristics	Independent Variables	Dependent Variables
Study 5	Low Familiarity: Fake Celebrity (paired with the fun/excitement tagline) High Familiarity: Jennifer Aniston (associated with fun/excitement values)	Familiarity with the Celebrity	Attention Attitude toward Ad Attitude toward Brand Purchase Intentions WOM Intentions
Study 6	Value Dimension: Fake Celebrity (an actor paired with a success-related tagline) Expertise Dimension: Fake Celebrity (a soccer player paired with a soccer-related tagline) Attractiveness Dimension: Fake Celebrity (an actor paired with an attractiveness-related tagline)	Match-Up Dimension	Attention Attitude toward Ad Attitude toward Brand Purchase Intentions WOM Intentions

Notes. WOM = Word-of-mouth

values, and the other one had low congruence with the celebrity's values. Martha Stewart was selected as the celebrity to be used in Study 1. Pilot studies described above showed that consumers (i.e., participants of pilot studies) believed that internal values (M = 4.88) were significantly more important for Martha Stewart than either external values (M = 4.11; $t(39) = 4.075$, $p < .001$) or fun/excitement values (M = 3.59; $t(39) = 4.402$, $p < .001$). There was also a significant difference between the mean values of external values and fun/excitement values ($t(39) = 2.133$, $p < .039$), suggesting that Martha Stewart was perceived as giving very low importance to fun/excitement values. Accordingly, while a product that is a good representative of internal values was used for the high congruence condition, a product that is a good representative of fun/excitement values was used for the low congruence condition. Because "treadmill" had a significantly higher mean value on internal values (M = 5.06) compared to external (M = 3.29; $t(68) = 7.203$, $p < .001$) or fun/excitement values (M = 4.30; $t(68) = 3.094$, $p < .003$), it was used in the high congruence condition. Because "video game console" had a significantly higher mean value on fun/excitement values (M = 6.69), compared to internal (M = 3.22; $t(50) = -13.288$, $p < .001$) or external values (M = 2.69; $t(50) = -13.568$, $p < .001$), it was used in the low congruence condition. Moreover, the mean value of internal values was significantly higher for treadmill than it was for video game console ($t(118) = 4.637$, $p < .001$), and the mean value of fun/excitement values was significantly higher for video game console than it was for treadmill ($t(118) = -7.088$, $p < .001$).

Ads used in Study 1 were different from ads used in all other main studies in terms of product-related issues. Instead of a product-pair slogan, Study 1 ads included a picture of the product (either a treadmill or a video game console) and a set of product

attributes. In other words, instead of a product-related slogan, product attributes were used. In both the high congruence and low congruence conditions, the same number of product attributes was included. Similar to other studies, a tagline emphasizing internal values was used as a quote from Martha Stewart. Other aspects of ads (e.g., a portrait picture, a logo for the fictitious brand, a URL address, etc.) were also the same (see Appendix C for ads). The procedure described before in this chapter was followed to collect data.

Study 2. Study 2 was also conducted to examine the impact of celebrity-product value congruence on three levels of the hierarchy of effects model. Because internal and fun/excitement values were examined in Study 1, it was decided to focus on external values in Study 2. The examination of thirty celebrities from the pilot study mentioned above, however, revealed that consumers do not tend to associate celebrities with external values. More specifically, mean values of celebrities on internal, external, and fun/excitement values showed that celebrities received highest scores on either internal values or fun/excitement values. Furthermore, for most celebrities, consumers (i.e., participants of the pilot study) thought that internal and/or fun/excitement values were significantly more important than external values. Because choosing the celebrity that had a significantly higher score on external values than both internal and fun/excitement values was not possible, it was decided to choose the celebrity that had the highest score on the external values dimension. Catherine Zeta Jones had 6.09 (out of nine) on external values, compared to 6.63 on internal values ($t(39) = 4.504$, $p < .001$) and 5.64 on fun/excitement values ($t(39) = 2.181$, $p < .05$). Because she was perceived to give

significantly more importance to external values than fun/excitement values, it was decided to choose a product that was highly representative of fun/excitement values for the low congruence condition.

For the high congruence condition, it was decided to use "dinnerware" as the representative of external values. Its mean value on external values (M = 4.33) was significantly higher than its mean value on internal values (M = 3.47; $t(56) = -3.926$, $p < .001$) and fun/excitement values (M = 3.54; $t(56) = 3.547$, $p < .001$). There was no significant difference between the mean values of internal and fun/excitement values ($t(56) = -0.275$, $p = 0.784$). For the low congruence condition, "MP3 player" was chosen. It was highly associated with fun/excitement values (M = 5.82), compared to internal values (M = 3.54; $t(89) = -12.812$, $p < .001$) and external values (M = 3.15; $t(89) = -14.252$, $p < .001$). Moreover, compared to MP3 player (M = 3.15), dinnerware had a higher mean value on external values (M = 4.33; $t(145) = 3.912$, $p < .001$). In contrast, the mean value of fun/excitement values for MP3 player (M = 5.82) was significantly higher than the mean value of fun/excitement values for dinnerware (M = 3.54; $t(145) = -7.169$, $p < .001$).

Based on the discussion above, two ads were created (see Appendix C). In both ads, Catherine Zeta Jones was paired with the external tagline. In the high congruence condition, dinnerware was paired with the external slogan (i.e., new member of your family). In the low congruence condition, MP3 player was paired with the fun slogan (i.e., full of fun). Except for the product-slogan pair, each aspect of the ads was the same across two conditions. The procedure described before in this chapter was followed to collect data.

Study 3. The purpose of Study 3 was to introduce consumer values into the picture. In addition to the manipulated independent variable (i.e., celebrity-product value congruence), a measured independent variable, consumer values, was also included in the design of the study. Accordingly, 2 (celebrity-product value congruence: high vs. low) X 3 (consumer values: internal vs. external vs. fun/excitement) mixed-subjects design was used.

In this study, Oprah Winfrey (paired with the internal tagline) was used as a celebrity highly associated with internal values. Consumers believed that, for Oprah Winfrey, internal values (M = 6.44) were more important than both external values (M = 5.76; $t(27) = 2.915$, $p < .007$) and fun/excitement values (M = 4.80; $t(27) = 4.118$, $p < .001$). Because fun/excitement values were perceived as being the least important to Oprah Winfrey, a representative of fun/excitement values, "MP3 player," was used for the low congruence condition. For the high congruence condition, "electronic toothbrush" was selected. It was associated with internal values (M = 3.82) significantly more than it was associated with either external (M = 2.87; $t(29) = 3.242$, $p < .003$) or fun/excitement values (M = 2.43; $t(29) = 3.044$, $p < .005$). On the ads, MP3 player was paired with the fun slogan and electronic toothbrush was paired with the internal slogan. All other aspects of ads were the same.

Consumer values were measured by using the List of Values (Kahle 1996). Consumers were assigned to internal, external, or fun/excitement values based on their responses to the question that asked for their most important value. The procedure described before in this chapter was followed to collect data.

Study 4. In this study, an unfamiliar celebrity was used to examine the impact of manipulating the values of a celebrity who was not well-known. It was expected that, because the celebrity was unfamiliar to consumers, consumers would not be able to associate the celebrity with any values. Therefore, the value structure of the celebrity could be manipulated by assigning any values to the celebrity through different taglines. Then, the congruence between celebrity and product values would be based on the product used in the ad. When the product represents values emphasized by the tagline used to manipulate the celebrity's values, consumers would perceive high congruence between the celebrity and the product.

A female celebrity from Turkey was used in this study. She was named as Lisa Andrews to make her more similar to United States undergraduates. She was also introduced as the 2008 Miss World. In both conditions, "electronic toothbrush" was used as a good representative of internal values. In the high congruence condition, Lisa Andrews was paired with the internal tagline. In the low congruence condition, she was paired with the external tagline. All other aspects of ads were the same. The procedure used to collect data for the study was the same as described before.

Study 5. Familiar and unfamiliar celebrities were compared in Study 5. For the "low familiarity with the celebrity" condition, the female celebrity used in Study 4 (i.e., Lisa Andrews, 2008 Miss World) was paired with the fun/excitement tagline to introduce her as a celebrity who values fun and excitement in life. For the "high familiarity with the celebrity" condition, Jennifer Aniston was selected because she was associated with fun/excitement values (M = 4.84) significantly more than she was associated with either

internal values (M = 4.16; $t(34)$ = -5.773, $p < .001$) or external values (M = 3.92; $t(34)$ = -7.807, $p < .001$). Because high congruence conditions for both familiar and unfamiliar celebrities were compared, a good representative of fun/excitement values, "MP3 player," was chosen as the product. In this study only, different brand names were used for two conditions. With the unfamiliar celebrity, "RESIM" was used as the brand name. With the familiar celebrity, "METIN" was used as the brand name. A pilot study conducted with 77 participants showed that there was no significant difference between two brand names in terms of attitudes toward brand name (mean value for RESIM = 4.86; mean value for METIN = 4.99; $t(76)$ = -0.549, p = .585).

Study 6. To compare three dimensions of the match-up hypothesis (i.e., value, expertise, and attractiveness), Study 6 was conducted by using a treadmill as the product. It would be hard (if not impossible) to find a real celebrity to use in all three conditions because one dimension, probably the expertise dimension, would be more salient for real celebrities. Accordingly, a fake celebrity, a Turkish male celebrity named Scott Gray in ads, was used in this study. He was introduced as the Soccer Player of the Year (UEFA Europa League, 2008) and was paired with a soccer-related tagline in the expertise dimension condition. In both the values and attractiveness dimension conditions, he was introduced as the winner of Best Supporting Actor of 2008 Cannes Film Festival. In the attractiveness dimension condition, he was paired with a tagline that emphasizes the importance of being attractive for him. In the values dimension condition, a tagline that emphasizes the importance of internal values, mainly self-respect, was used. All ads can be seen in Appendix C. The procedure to collect data was the same as previous studies.

Table **11** summarizes the hypotheses tested with each study and lists celebrities and products used in each study.

Table 11. Summary of Studies

Hypotheses Tested	Study	Celebrity Used (Celebrity Value)	Product Used (Product Value)
H1: Low, as opposed to high, celebrity-product value congruence will have higher mean values on the cognitive component in terms of the level of attention paid to the ad.	Study 1	Martha Stewart (Internal)	Treadmill (Internal) Video Game Console (Fun/Excitement)
H2: High, as opposed to low, celebrity-product value congruence will have higher mean values on the affective component in terms of (a) more favorable attitudes toward ad, and (b) more favorable attitudes toward brand. **H3:** High, as opposed to low, celebrity-product value congruence will have higher mean values on the conative component in terms of (a) higher purchase intentions, and (b) higher word-of-mouth intentions.	Study 2	Catherine Zeta Jones (External)	Dinnerware (External) MP3 Player (Fun/Excitement)
	Study 3	Oprah Winfrey (Internal)	Electric Toothbrush (Internal) MP3 Player (Fun/Excitement)
H4: When there is high congruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers who have similar values with the celebrity-product pair will have higher values on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) than consumers who do not have similar values with the celebrity-product pair. **H5:** When there is incongruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers who have similar values with the product will have higher mean values on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) than consumers who have similar values with the celebrity.	Study 3	Oprah Winfrey (Internal)	Electric Toothbrush (Internal) MP3 Player (Fun/Excitement)

Table 11. (continued)

Hypotheses Tested	Study	Celebrity Used (Celebrity Value)	Product Used (Product Value)
H6: Celebrities who are unfamiliar to consumers will be more effective in generating favorable responses on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) when promoting products that represents congruent values with their manipulated values.	Study 4	Lisa Andrews [a] (Internal) (External)	Electric Toothbrush (Internal)
H7: Unfamiliar celebrities, compared to familiar celebrities, will be more effective in generating favorable responses on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) when both celebrities are associated with the same value.	Study 5	Lisa Andrews [a] (Fun/Excitement) Jennifer Aniston (Fun/Excitement)	MP3 Player (Fun/Excitement)
H8: Celebrity endorsement based on values dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on expertise dimension. **H9:** Celebrity endorsement based on values dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on attractiveness dimension. **H10:** Celebrity endorsement based on expertise dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on attractiveness dimension.	Study 6	Scott Gray [a]	Treadmill (Internal)

Notes. [a] Fake celebrities from Turkey

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Overview

The primary focus of this dissertation is to investigate the differences between high and low congruence among celebrities and products. Accordingly, planned comparisons were conducted on the levels of the hierarchy of effects model (cognitive, affective, and conative). The cognitive component was measured through attention (i.e., the amount of time spent on examining the ad). Affective and conative components were measured through two continuous dependent variables: attitude toward ad and attitude toward brand (affective component); and purchase intentions and word-of-mouth (WOM) intentions (conative component through behavioral intentions). The analyses of this research included between-subjects Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) and subsequent univariate tests. Because all hypotheses rely on planned comparisons, and not post-hoc comparisons, once a significant multivariate F tests was achieved, subsequent univariate tests (ANOVA or t-tests) were examined directly without using any correction for alpha adjustment (Keppel and Zedeck 1989). Missing values were treated by replacing them with means. The results are organized and presented by study.

Study 1

Study 1 was conducted to examine the effect of celebrity-product value congruence on three levels of the hierarchy of effect model. Martha Stewart, paired with the internal tagline described in Chapter III, was used to represent internal values. In the high congruence condition, a treadmill was used. In the low congruence condition, a video game console was used. One hundred twenty four participants completed the study. Of those participants, 58.9% were males, 38.7% were females, and the gender information was missing for three participants. The average age was 20.69. Manipulation checks, collected after the participants answered questions related to all dependent variables, showed that participants indeed perceived a better congruence between Martha Stewart and treadmill (M = 3.27) than the congruence between Martha Stewart and video game console (M = 1.22; $t(121) = 7.380$, $p < .001$).

To examine the differences between these two groups, a MANOVA with the level of congruence between the celebrity and products as the between-subjects independent variable was conducted on five dependent variables (i.e., amount of time spent on examining the ad, attitude toward ad and attitude toward brand, purchase intentions and WOM intentions). A significant multivariate main effect for the celebrity-product value congruence was found with the use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' $\lambda = .738$, $F(5, 118) = 7.667$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .262$, observed power = 1.000).

Univariate tests showed that celebrity-product value congruence had a significant main effect on the measure of the cognitive component. Table **12** shows means and standard errors for each dependent variable across conditions. As expected, participants

who were in the low congruence condition spent more time examining the ad (Ad Time Spent) than participants who were in the high congruence condition ($F(1, 122) = 8.910$, $p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .068$, observed power = .842). Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Table 12. Study 1: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Congruence	Low Congruence
Ad Time Spent [a]	13.29 (0.67)	16.17 (0.69)
Attitude toward Ad	3.96 (0.21)	2.48 (0.22)
Attitude toward Brand	5.34 (0.25)	3.96 (0.25)
Purchase Intention	2.34 (0.20)	2.02 (0.21)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	3.38 (0.24)	2.30 (0.25)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

Significant univariate results were obtained for the affective component of the hierarchy of effects model (attitude toward ad: $F(1, 122) = 23.093$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .159$, observed power = .998); attitude toward brand: $F(1, 122) = 15.306$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .111$, observed power = .973). Participants who were exposed to the treadmill ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand than participants who were exposed to the video game console ad. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Univariate tests also revealed a significant impact of celebrity-product value congruence on WOM intentions ($F(1, 122) = 9.809$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .074$, observed power = .874). Participants who were in the high congruence condition were more likely

to recommend the product to other people than people who were in the low congruence condition. No significant univariate effect was found for purchase intentions ($F(1, 122) = 1.236$, $p = .268$, partial $\eta^2 = .010$, observed power = .197). Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

Overall, the results suggest that the celebrity-product value congruence was more effective at the cognitive and affective components, compared to the conative components. Moreover, examination of partial eta squared values showed that attitude toward ad was the dependent variable that was most affected by the celebrity-product value congruence.

Study 2

The purpose of Study 2 was to test Hypotheses 1-3 with different celebrity-product pairs. Catherine Zeta Jones, paired with the external tagline, was used to represent external values. Dinnerware was used in the high congruence condition and MP3 player was used in the low congruence condition. Of 101 participants who completed the study, 63.4% were males, 36.6% were females, and the average age was 21.99. An independent samples t-test conducted on the measure of manipulation check confirmed that Catherine Zeta Jones was more congruent with dinnerware ($M = 4.25$) than with MP3 player ($M = 2.43$, $t(99) = 5.025$, $p < .001$).

A MANOVA was performed on the five dependent variables. A significant multivariate main effect for the celebrity-product value congruence was found with the

use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' $\lambda = .811$, $F(5, 95) = 4.423$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .189$, observed power = .961).

Univariate tests showed that celebrity-product value congruence had a significant main effect on Ad Time Spent ($F(1, 99) = 5.004$, $p = .028$, partial $\eta^2 = .048$, observed power = .601). As expected, participants who were in the low congruence condition spent more time on examining the ad than participants who were in the high congruence condition (see Table **13** for means and standard errors). Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Table 13. Study 2: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Congruence	Low Congruence
Ad Time Spent [a]	14.29 (0.88)	17.12 (0.92)
Attitude toward Ad	4.56 (0.26)	3.60 (0.27)
Attitude toward Brand	4.88 (0.24)	3.52 (0.26)
Purchase Intention	2.60 (0.21)	2.05 (0.22)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	3.01 (0.24)	2.23 (0.26)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

Significant univariate results were obtained for the affective component of the hierarchy of effects model. Participants who were exposed to the dinnerware ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad ($F(1, 99) = 6.546$, $p = .012$, partial $\eta^2 = .062$, observed power = .717) and brand ($F(1, 99) = 14.896$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .131$, observed power = .969) than participants who were exposed to the MP3 player ad. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Univariate tests revealed a marginally significant impact of celebrity-product value congruence on purchase intentions ($F(1, 99) = 3.414$, $p = .068$, partial $\eta^2 = .033$, observed power = .448). A significant univariate effect was found for WOM intentions with $F(1, 99) = 4.894$, $p = .029$, partial $\eta^2 = .047$, observed power = .591. Participants who were in the high congruence condition were more likely to buy the product and recommend it to other people than people who were in the low congruence condition. Support for Hypothesis 3 was found.

Overall, similar to Study 1, the results suggest that the celebrity-product value congruence was more effective at the cognitive and affective components, compared to the conative components. The examination of partial eta squared values showed that the most variance explained by the celebrity-product value congruence was in attitude toward brand.

Study 3

In addition to the manipulated celebrity-product value congruence, consumer values were used as a measured independent variable in Study 3. Oprah Winfrey, paired with the internal tagline, was used to represent internal values. As a good representative of internal values, an electronic toothbrush was used in the high congruence condition. As a good representative of fun/excitement values, on the other hand, a MP3 player was used in the low congruence condition. One hundred and four participants (59.6% male, 40.4% female, average age = 20.84) completed the study. Based on their answers that asked participants' most important value, 40 participants were assigned to internal vales,

37 participants were assigned to external values, and 27 participants were assigned to fun/excitement values. An independent samples t-test conducted on the measure of manipulation check confirmed that Oprah Winfrey was more congruent with electronic toothbrush (M = 3.28) than with MP3 player (M = 2.62, $t(102) = 1.792$, $p = .076$).

To test the impacts of celebrity-product value congruence and consumer values on advertising effectiveness, a 2 X 3 between subjects MANOVA was performed on five dependent variables. A significant multivariate main effect for the celebrity-product value congruence (Wilks' $\lambda = .828$, $F(5, 94) = 3.898$, $p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .172$, observed power = .932) was obtained with the use of Wilks' criterion. No significant multivariate main effect was found for consumer values (Wilks' $\lambda = .951$, $F(10, 188) = .480$, $p = .901$, partial $\eta^2 = .025$, observed power = .245). Moreover, the multivariate interaction effect between celebrity-product value congruence and consumer values was not significant (Wilks' $\lambda = .867$, $F(10, 188) = 1.385$, $p = .190$, partial $\eta^2 = .069$, observed power = .692)

Univariate tests showed that celebrity-product value congruence had a marginally-significant main effect on Ad Time Spent ($F(1, 98) = 3.276$, $p = .073$, partial $\eta^2 = .032$, observed power = .433). As expected, participants who were in the low congruence condition spent more time on examining the ad than participants who were in the high congruence condition (see Table **14** for means and standard errors). Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Celebrity-product value congruence did not have a significant impact on attitude toward ad ($F(1, 98) = .135$, $p = .714$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$, observed power = .065); however, a significant univariate result was obtained for attitude toward brand ($F(1, 98) = 3.958$, p

= .049, partial η^2 = .039, observed power = .504). Participants who were exposed to the high congruence ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward brand than participants who were exposed to the low congruence ad. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Table 14. Study 3: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Congruence	Low Congruence
Ad Time Spent [a]	13.11 (0.74)	15.02 (0.76)
Attitude toward Ad	3.28 (0.26)	3.41 (0.26)
Attitude toward Brand	4.43 (0.30)	3.59 (0.30)
Purchase Intention	2.62 (0.22)	1.84 (0.22)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	2.63 (0.24)	2.22 (0.24)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

Univariate tests also revealed a significant impact of celebrity-product value congruence on purchase intentions with $F(1, 98) = 6.285$, $p = .014$, partial $\eta^2 = .060$, observed power = .699. Participants who were in the high congruence condition were more likely to buy the product than people who were in the low congruence condition. The univariate effect was not significant for WOM intentions ($F(1, 98) = 1.486$, $p = .226$, partial $\eta^2 = .015$, observed power = .226). Partial support for Hypothesis 3 was found.

Even though the interaction effect between the celebrity-product value congruence and consumer values had a significant univariate effect on WOM intentions ($F(2, 98) = 3.019$, $p = .053$, partial $\eta^2 = .058$, observed power = .573), because the

multivariate interaction effects was not significant, pairwise comparisons were not conducted. As Table **15** shows, even though means were in expected directions for most pairwise comparisons, means were not significantly different from each other. Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5 were not confirmed.

Table 15. Study 3: Comparison of Consumer Values on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	Means (Standard Deviations)			Int vs. Ext		Int vs. Fun/Exc		Ext vs. Fun/Exc	
	Int	Ext	Fun/ Exc	t-value (df)	p-value	t-value (df)	p-value	t-value (df)	p-value
High Congruence									
Ad Time Spent [a]	13.19 (6.20)	13.57 (5.60)	12.58 (4.49)	-0.206 (41)	.838	0.304 (33)	.763	0.519 (30)	0.607
Attitude toward Ad	3.70 (2.26)	2.93 (1.67)	3.21 (1.84)	1.254 (41)	.217	0.642 (33)	.525	-0.447 (30)	0.658
Attitude toward Brand	4.74 (2.25)	3.90 (1.96)	4.65 (2.48)	1.294 (41)	.203	0.113 (32)	.911	-0.943 (30)	0.353
Purchase Intention	2.96 (1.99)	2.28 (1.58)	2.63 (1.65)	1.232 (41)	.25	0.494 (33)	.624	-0.597 (30)	0.555
Word-of-Mouth Intention	2.72 (1.91)	2.13 (1.24)	3.04 (1.89)	1.184 (41)	.243	-0.478 (33)	.636	-1.169 (30)	0.107

Table 15. (continued)

Dependent Variable	Means (Standard Deviations)			Int vs. Ext		Int vs. Fun/Exc		Ext vs. Fun/Exc	
	Int	Ext	Fun/ Exc	t-value (df)	p-value	t-value (df)	p-value	t-value (df)	p-value
Low Congruence									
Ad Time Spent [a]	14.93 (5.91)	15.62 (3.82)	14.52 (4.44)	-0.407 (32)	.687	0.21 (30)	.828	0.755 (30)	0.456
Attitude toward Ad	3.00 (1.18)	3.60 (2.19)	3.63 (1.48)	-0.998 (32)	.326	-1.345 (30)	.189	-0.045 (30)	0.964
Attitude toward Brand	3.29 (1.80)	4.12 (2.32)	3.35 (1.83)	-1.158 (32)	.256	-0.087 (30)	.931	1.029 (30)	0.312
Purchase Intention	1.59 (0.87)	1.94 (1.22)	2.00 (1.55)	-0.969 (32)	.340	-0.943 (30)	.353	-0.120 (30)	0.905
Word-of-Mouth Intention	1.76 (1.08)	2.85 (2.28)	2.03 (1.39)	-1.782 (32)	.084	-0.614 (30)	.544	1.208 (30)	0.237

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad; Int = Participants with internal values; Ext = Participants with external values; Fun/Exc = Participants with fun/excitement values.
[a] in seconds

Overall, similar to Study 1 and Study 2, support for the celebrity-product value congruence (i.e., essentially a two-way interaction between celebrity values and product values) was found; however, a significant interaction effect between celebrity values, product values, and consumer values was not obtained.

Study 4

In Study 4, a fake celebrity (a celebrity from Turkey), named Lisa Andrews and introduced as the 2008 Miss World, was used to examine the effectiveness of assigning values to celebrities (or manipulating celebrity values) by using different value taglines. As expected, participants of this study (N = 112) reported low familiarity with the celebrity (M = 3.54).

An electronic toothbrush was used as a good representative of internal values in Study 4. In the high congruence condition, Lisa Andrews was paired with the internal tagline (i.e., she was introduced as someone who values internal values most). In the low congruence condition, she was paired with the external tagline. Because participants were not familiar with the celebrity (and her values), manipulation checks (used to examine the perceived congruence between celebrities and products in previous studies) essentially tested the strength of the manipulation; a significant difference between the high and low value congruence would ensure a strong and effective manipulation of celebrity values through taglines. The results revealed that the manipulation was only marginally effective (M = 5.11 for the high congruence condition; M = 4.38 for the low congruence condition; $t(110) = -1.696$, $p = .093$), suggesting that differences between dependent variables may not be significant due to the ineffective manipulation.

A MANOVA with the level of congruence between the celebrity and products as the between-subjects independent variable was conducted on five dependent variables. A marginally significant multivariate main effect for the celebrity-product value congruence was found with the use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' $\lambda = .906$, $F(5, 106) = 2.211$, $p = .058$,

partial η^2 = .094, observed power = .702). Univariate tests showed, however, that there was a significant difference between the high and low congruence conditions on only one of the dependent variables (see Table **16** for means and standard errors on each dependent variable). Participants who were exposed to the high congruence ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward brand ($F(1, 110) = 7.138$, $p = .009$, partial $\eta^2 = .061$, observed power = .754) than participants who were exposed to the low congruence ad. Hypothesis 6 was only marginally supported.

Table 16. Study 4: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Congruence	Low Congruence
Ad Time Spent [a]	29.76 (8.14)	16.12 (8.59)
Attitude toward Ad	5.12 (0.22)	4.84 (0.23)
Attitude toward Brand	5.62 (0.19)	4.89 (0.20)
Purchase Intention	3.89 (0.26)	3.62 (0.28)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	3.60 (0.24)	3.64 (0.25)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

Study 5

The purpose of Study 5 was to compare familiar and unfamiliar celebrities in terms of advertising effectiveness. Ninety-five participants completed the study (61.1% male, 38.9% female, average age = 20.65). In this study, two female celebrities were compared. In the "low familiarity with the celebrity" condition, Lisa Andrews (2008 Miss

World) from Study 4 was paired with the fun/excitement tagline. In the "high familiarity with the celebrity" condition, Jennifer Aniston was used as a representative of fun/excitement values. Independent samples t-test revealed a significant difference between Lisa Andrews (M = 3.98) and Jennifer Aniston (M = 8.09) in terms of familiarity ($t(93) = 10.590$, $p < .001$). An MP3 player was used in both conditions to provide high congruence between the celebrity and product values. Accordingly, manipulation checks measured to examine the perceived congruence between celebrity and product values were not significantly different from each other (M = 3.81 for Lisa Andrews; M = 4.08 for Jennifer Aniston; $t(93) = 0.707$, $p = .481$).

Consumers might have different attitudes toward different celebrities. Some celebrities (e.g., Angelina Jolie) might be perceived as more attractive or likeable than others (e.g., Paris Hilton). Similarly, people might have different attitudes toward celebrities that they are familiar with than celebrities that they are not very familiar with. Those differences in celebrity evaluations, in turn, might affect advertising effectiveness; therefore, when comparing celebrities, it is important to control for differences in participants' evaluation of celebrity attributes (e.g., trustworthiness, likeability, attractiveness, knowledgeableness, and favorableness). Because two different celebrities were compared in Study 5, a MANCOVA was performed on the combined dependent variables by using the celebrity evaluation as a covariate. In this study, the composite variable for celebrity evaluation did not include the familiarity with the celebrity because that celebrity attribute was used as the basis of differences among experimental conditions. Celebrity evaluation did not have a significant covariate impact on the combined dependent variables. A significant multivariate main effect for the level of

familiarity with the celebrity was found with the use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' $\lambda = .858$, $F(5, 88) = 2.910$, $p = .018$, partial $\eta^2 = .142$, observed power = .828).

Univariate tests showed that the level of familiarity with the celebrity had a significant main effect on all dependent variables. Table **17** shows means and standard errors for all dependent variables across conditions. As expected, participants who were in the "low familiarity with the celebrity" condition spent more time on examining the ad ($F(1, 92) = 5.619$, $p = .020$, partial $\eta^2 = .058$, observed power = .650), had significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad ($F(1, 92) = 4.061$, $p = .055$, partial $\eta^2 = .042$, observed power = .514) and brand ($F(1, 92) = 4.955$, $p = .028$, partial $\eta^2 = .051$, observed power = .596), and were more likely to buy the product ($F(1, 92) = 4.569$, $p = .035$, partial $\eta^2 = .047$, observed power = .562) and recommend it to other people ($F(1, 92) = 8.031$, $p = .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .080$, observed power = .801) than participants who were in the "high familiarity with the celebrity" condition. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Table 17. Study 5: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Familiarity	Low Familiarity
Ad Time Spent [a]	14.24 (2.61)	23.86 (2.96)
Attitude toward Ad	4.20 (0.26)	5.01 (0.29)
Attitude toward Brand	3.91 (0.27)	4.86 (0.31)
Purchase Intention	2.19 (0.25)	3.00 (0.28)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	2.33 (0.25)	3.44 (0.29)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

Study 6

The final study was conducted to compare three match-up hypothesis dimensions (i.e., value, expertise, and attractiveness). A Turkish male celebrity, named Scott Gray in the ads, and a treadmill were used in this study. The celebrity was introduced as the Soccer Player of the Year (UEFA Europa League, 2008) and was paired with a soccer-related tagline in the expertise dimension condition. In both the values and attractiveness dimension conditions, he was introduced as the winner of Best Supporting Actor of 2008 Cannes Film Festival. In the attractiveness dimension condition, he was paired with a tagline that emphasizes the importance of being attractive for him. In the values dimension condition, a tagline that emphasizes the importance of internal values, mainly self-respect, was used. Similar to Study 4, participants were not familiar with the celebrity (M = 3.34), meaning that significant differences between different dimensions of the match-up hypothesis would ensure a strong and effective manipulation of a given dimension. Independent samples t-tests conducted between dimensions showed that participants in the expertise condition (M = 6.06) perceived a better fit between the celebrity and treadmill than participants in the values (M = 3.47; $t(72) = 6.824$, $p < .001$) or the attractiveness (M = 3.05; $t(74) = 8.314$, $p < .001$) conditions. Moreover, there was no significant difference in the perceived congruence between the values and the attractiveness dimensions ($t(72) = -1.030$, $p = .307$). These results suggest that the expertise dimension would be more effective than either the values or attractiveness dimensions. One hundred and twelve participants completed this study. Of those

participants, 49.1% were males, 50.9 were females, and the average age was 20.26. A separate MANOVA was run for each of the hypotheses (Hypotheses 8-10).

A significant multivariate effect of the match-up dimension for the values and expertise dimensions was not obtained with the use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' $\lambda = .981$, $F(5, 68) = 0.266$, $p = .930$, partial $\eta^2 = .019$, observed power = .111). The univariate tests on each dependent variable were also not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

For the MANOVA between the values and attractiveness dimensions, the multivariate effect of the match-up dimension was also non-significant (Wilks' $\lambda = .921$, $F(5, 68) = 1.166$, $p = .335$, partial $\eta^2 = .079$, observed power = .390). The examination of univariate tests revealed, however, that participants who were exposed to the values dimension ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad ($F(1, 72) = 4.403$, $p = .039$, partial $\eta^2 = .058$, observed power = .544) and brand ($F(1, 72) = 4.115$, $p = .046$, partial $\eta^2 = .054$, observed power = .517). Table **18** shows means and standard errors for all dependent variables across three dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. Even though the means were in expected directions and univariate tests provided significant results for two dependent variables between the values and attractiveness dimensions, because the multivariate effect was not significant, Hypothesis 9 was not confirmed.

The multivariate effect of the match-up dimension between the expertise and attractiveness dimensions was marginally significant (Wilks' $\lambda = .862$, $F(5, 70) = 2.233$, $p = .060$, partial $\eta^2 = .138$, observed power = .694). Examination of univariate tests also revealed that participants who were exposed to the expertise dimension ad had

significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad ($F(1, 74) = 7.885$, $p = .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .096$, observed power = .791) and brand ($F(1, 74) = 9.816$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .117$, observed power = .871). No significant difference was found between the expertise and attractiveness dimensions in terms of attention or behavioral intentions. Hypothesis 10 was supported partially.

Table 18. Study 6: Means (Standard Deviations) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	Value	Expertise	Attractiveness
Ad Time Spent [b]	17.46 (12.10)	19.01 (15.96)	70.21 (320.66)
Attitude toward Ad	4.77 (1.31)	5.01 (1.36)	4.05 (1.61)
Attitude toward Brand	5.33 (1.44)	5.62 (1.24)	4.66 (1.43)
Purchase Intention	3.07 (1.76)	3.30 (1.80)	2.72 (1.68)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	3.57 (1.61)	3.71 (1.62)	3.14 (1.77)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] Means (standard deviations) were obtained from analyses where no control variables were used.

[b] in seconds

Overall, although some findings were in expected directions for Study 6, the results were mostly not significant; no differences were found between the values dimension and previous match-up dimensions in terms of advertising effectiveness.

Summary of Findings

Six studies were conducted to examine the hypothesized effects described in Chapter III. First three studies (Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3) provided support for the impact of celebrity-product value congruence on the cognitive level of the hierarchy of effects model. Moreover, either partial or full support was obtained for the affective and conative components in Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 analyzed separately. The datasets of these three studies were also combined in order to increase the sample size. On the combined dataset (i.e., Meta-Analysis 1) with N = 329, the examination of the manipulation check showed that participants who were in the high congruence condition (regardless of the celebrity-product pair; $M = 3.58$) perceived a better fit between the celebrities and products than participants who were in the low congruence condition ($M = 2.03$; $t(326) = 7.702$, $p < .001$). Then, a MANCOVA with the level of congruence between the celebrities and products as the between-subjects independent variable was conducted on five dependent variables. Because multiple celebrities were used, and because participants might have different attitudes toward each celebrity, celebrity evaluation was entered as a covariate. After controlling for the significant covariate effect of celebrity evaluation, a significant multivariate main effect for the celebrity-product value congruence was found with the use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' $\lambda = .866$, $F(5, 322) = 9.989$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .134$, observed power = 1.000).

Univariate tests showed that celebrity-product value congruence had a significant main effect on Ad Time Spent $F(1, 326) = 16.863$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .049$, observed power = .984), attitude toward ad $F(1, 326) = 17.634$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .051$,

observed power = .987), attitude toward brand $F(1, 326) = 30.153$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .085$, observed power = 1.000), purchase intentions $F(1, 326) = 10.477$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .031$, observed power = .897), and WOM intentions $F(1, 326) = 14.379$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .044$, observed power = .966). Therefore, Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3 were all supported. Table **19** shows means and standard errors for each dependent variable across conditions for the combined dataset. As expected, participants who were exposed to the low congruence ad spent more time on examining the ad than participants who were exposed to the high congruence ad. Moreover, participants who were exposed to the high congruence ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward the ad and brand, had higher intentions to buy the product, and were more likely to recommend the product to other people than participants who were exposed to the low congruence ad. Because an MP3 player was used in three different studies, another meta-analysis (i.e., Meta-Analysis 2) was conducted to compare celebrities paired with the

Table 19. Meta-Analysis 1: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Congruence	Low Congruence
Ad Time Spent [a]	13.57 (0.43)	16.14 (0.45)
Attitude toward Ad	3.94 (0.14)	3.10 (0.15)
Attitude toward Brand	4.90 (0.15)	3.71 (0.16)
Purchase Intention	2.52 (0.12)	1.97 (0.12)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	3.01 (0.14)	2.25 (0.14)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

MP3 player. The MP3 player had low congruence with two celebrities (i.e., Catherine Zeta Jones from Study 2, and Oprah Winfrey from Study 3), and high congruence with two other celebrities (i.e., Jennifer Aniston and Lisa Andrews from Study 5). On this combined dataset with N = 192, the examination of the manipulation check showed that participants who were in the high congruence condition (M = 3.96) perceived a better fit between the celebrities and the MP3 player than participants who were in the low congruence condition (M = 2.51; $t(191) = -5.725$, $p < .001$). Moreover, Jennifer Aniston (M = 4.08) was perceived to have a higher congruence with MP3 player than either Catherine Zeta Jones (M = 2.39; $t(100) = 4.660$, $p < .001$) or Oprah Winfrey (M = 2.62; $t(100) = 3.805$, $p < .001$). Similarly, Lisa Andrews (M = 3.81) had a higher congruence value than Catherine Zeta Jones ($t(89) = 4.316$, $p < .001$) and Oprah Winfrey ($t(89) = 3.325$, $p < .001$) had. A MANCOVA with the level of congruence between the celebrities and products as the between-subjects independent variable was conducted on five dependent variables. Similar to the Meta-Analysis 1, celebrity evaluation was entered as a covariate; but, it did not have a significant covariate effect on the combined dependent variables. A significant multivariate main effect for the celebrity-product value congruence, on the other hand, was found with the use of Wilks' criterion (Wilks' λ = .897, $F(5, 185) = 4.268$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .103$, observed power = .959).

Univariate tests showed that celebrity-product value congruence did not have a significant main effect on Ad Time Spent ($F(1, 326) = 16.863$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .049$, observed power = .984). It is possible that high attention level for the ad with the unfamiliar celebrity in the high congruence condition offset the high attention levels for the ads in the low congruence condition. Significant main effects were obtained for

attitude toward ad $F(1, 189) = 17.926$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .087$, observed power = .987), attitude toward brand $F(1, 189) = 8.155$, $p = .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .041$, observed power = 1.000), purchase intentions $F(1, 189) = 7.732$, $p = .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .039$, observed power = .897), and WOM intentions $F(1, 189) = 5.747$, $p = .030$, partial $\eta^2 = .044$, observed power = .966). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3 were supported. Table **20** shows means and standard errors for each dependent variable across conditions for the combined dataset.

Table 20. Meta-Analysis 2: Means (Standard Errors) on Dependent Variables across Conditions

Dependent Variable	High Congruence	Low Congruence
Ad Time Spent [a]	18.40 (1.44)	16.16 (1.42)
Attitude toward Ad	4.57 (0.18)	3.49 (0.18)
Attitude toward Brand	4.34 (0.20)	3.55 (0.19)
Purchase Intention	2.55 (0.16)	1.94 (0.16)
Word-of-Mouth Intention	2.82 (0.18)	2.22 (0.18)

Notes. Ad Time Spent = Time spent on examining each ad

[a] in seconds

As expected, participants who were exposed to the high congruence ad had significantly more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand, had higher intentions to buy the product, and were more likely to recommend the product to other people than participants who were exposed to the low congruence ad. Overall, in separate analyses of

Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3, as well as in the analyses run on the combined datasets (i.e., Meta-Analysis 1 and Meta-Analysis 2), support was found for the positive impact of celebrity-product value congruence on advertising effectiveness.

Celebrity values were examined in Study 3. Significant findings between participants with different values were not obtained, and Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5 were not confirmed. One reason for these insignificant results, especially in the light of means that were in expected directions, might be the small sample size. In order to reach more robust conclusions about consumer values, studies with larger sample sizes and with different celebrity-product pairs are necessary.

Hypothesis 6 was also not supported. In Study 4, an unfamiliar celebrity was used to examine the effectiveness of manipulating values of unfamiliar celebrities. Except for attitude toward brand, no significant results were found. Because the manipulation check was significant only at a marginal level (p = .093), it is highly possible that the insignificant results with dependent variables were obtained due to an ineffective manipulation. Studies with stronger manipulations should be conducted to examine the possibility of value manipulation with unfamiliar celebrities more thoroughly.

Study 5 examined the differences between familiar and unfamiliar celebrities and found support for Hypothesis 7. More specifically, participants who were in the "low familiarity with the celebrity" condition spent more time on examining the ad, had significantly more favorable attitudes toward the ad and brand, and were more likely to buy the product and recommend it to other people than participants who were in the "high familiarity with the celebrity" condition. As explained in Chapter II, one reason for

these significant differences might be the minimized effect of pre-established thoughts or feelings with unfamiliar celebrities.

Finally, Study 6 examined the effectiveness of each match-up hypothesis dimensions: values, expertise, and attractiveness. It was expected that the value dimension would be the most effective one while the attractiveness dimension would be the least effective one; however, Hypothesis 8 and Hypothesis 9 were not supported and Hypothesis 10 was only partially supported. One reason for this finding might be the ineffective manipulation of the match-up dimensions, as can be understood from the results of manipulation checks. Another reason might be related to the sample size because many means were in expected directions. Accordingly, this study should be replicated with stronger manipulations and larger sample sizes.

Table **21** summarizes all hypotheses and results. Chapter V will also summarize the key findings, discuss theoretical and practical implications, identify limitations of studies reviewed in this chapter, and provide directions for future research.

Table 21. Summary of Hypotheses and Results

Hypothesis	Results
H1: Low, as opposed to high, celebrity-product value congruence will have higher mean values on the cognitive component in terms of the level of attention paid to the ad.	Study 1: Supported Study 2: Supported Study 3: Supported Meta-Analysis 1: Supported Meta-Analysis 2: Not Supported
H2: High, as opposed to low, celebrity-product value congruence will have higher mean values on the affective component in terms of (a) more favorable attitudes toward ad, and (b) more favorable attitudes toward brand.	Study 1: Supported Study 2: Supported Study 3: Partially-Supported Meta-Analysis 1: Supported Meta-Analysis 2: Supported
H3: High, as opposed to low, celebrity-product value congruence will have higher mean values on the conative component in terms of (a) higher purchase intentions, and (b) higher word-of-mouth intentions.	Study 1: Partially-Supported Study 2: Supported Study 3: Partially-Supported Meta-Analysis 1: Supported Meta-Analysis 2: Supported
H4: When there is high congruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers who have similar values with the celebrity-product pair will have higher values on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) than consumers who do not have similar values with the celebrity-product pair.	Study 3: Not Supported
H5: When there is incongruence between celebrity values and product values, consumers who have similar values with the product will have higher mean values on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) than consumers who have similar values with the celebrity.	Study 3: Not Supported

Table 21. (continued)

Hypothesis	Results
H6: Celebrities who are unfamiliar to consumers will be more effective in generating favorable responses on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) when promoting products that represents congruent values with their manipulated values.	Study 4: Not Supported
H7: Unfamiliar celebrities, compared to familiar celebrities, will be more effective in generating favorable responses on (a) the cognitive component (i.e., attention), (b) the affective component (i.e., attitude toward ad and brand), and (c) the conative component (i.e., behavioral intentions) when both celebrities are associated with the same value.	Study 5: Supported
H8: Celebrity endorsement based on values dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on expertise dimension.	Study 6: Not Supported
H9: Celebrity endorsement based on values dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on attractiveness dimension.	Study 6: Not Supported
H10: Celebrity endorsement based on expertise dimension will be more effective than celebrity endorsement based on attractiveness dimension.	Study 6: Partially-Supported

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Overview

The focus of this dissertation was on the relationship between the value congruence (i.e., congruence between celebrity values, product values, and consumer values) and advertising effectiveness at each level of the hierarchy of effects model (i.e., cognitive, affective, and conative). The match-up hypothesis, which suggests that there should be a good fit between celebrities and products, has been used by several researchers in order to examine celebrity endorsement effectiveness. In the majority of these studies, the focus of the match-up (i.e., congruence between the celebrity and product) was on either the expertise (i.e., product relatedness) dimension or the attractiveness dimension. These two dimensions, however, have not been sufficient to explain some celebrity-product pairs (e.g., Venus Williams and Tide detergent) because there was no obvious congruence between the celebrity and product in terms of expertise or attractiveness. This insufficiency suggests that there should be at least one more dimension to explain the congruence between celebrities and products.

The current research contributes to the study of celebrity endorsements by adding another dimension, values, to the match-up hypothesis research tradition. Values are considered as an important component of celebrity endorsements in this dissertation for several reasons. For instance, values are found to guide people's actions and judgments across different situations, including consumption-related situations (Limon, Kahle, and

Orth 2009; White and Kokotsaki 2004). Values also influence the adaptation to life by providing people with central and adapting information depending on the context (Kahle 1996). As McCracken (1989) suggests in his meaning transfer model, society assigns cultural meanings to celebrities, and celebrities transfer those meanings to products they endorse. Because values are considered as one of the most abstract, higher-order constructs, those cultural meanings can actually be considered as cultural values. Indeed, as McCracken (1989, 313) suggested, instead of focusing on separate components of cultural meanings (e.g., gender, lifestyles, age, personality) of celebrities, "it is necessary to characterize the whole person." Because values are used to define who we are (Rokeach 1973), they can also be used to characterize the whole person, and can enhance the success of meaning transfer from celebrities to products through the congruence between celebrity and product values.

In this dissertation, the relationships between celebrity values, product values, and consumer values were examined for both familiar and unfamiliar celebrities. In addition, three dimensions of the match-up hypothesis (i.e., expertise, attractiveness, and value) were compared and contrasted in terms of advertising effectiveness.

A series of pilot tests and experiments was conducted to test four sets of hypotheses: celebrity-product value congruence, consumer values, familiarity with the celebrity, and comparison of the match-up dimensions. The results provided support for the positive impact of the celebrity-product value congruence on advertising effectiveness. Participants who were in the high value congruence condition spent less time in examining the experimental ad (probably because it was easy to process the congruent ad), had more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand, and had higher

intentions to buy the product and recommend it to other people. Accordingly, in three separate studies (Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3) with different celebrity-product pairs and two combined datasets, Hypothesis 1 (the impact of value congruence on the cognitive component), Hypothesis 2 (the impact of value congruence on the affective component), and Hypothesis 3 (the impact of value congruence on the conative component) were confirmed either partially or fully. Hypotheses related to consumer values (Hypotheses 4-5), however, were not supported. The results of Study 3 showed that there was no significant interaction effect between the celebrity-product values and consumer values. Regardless of the congruence between celebrity and product values, consumer values did not have any impact on advertising effectiveness. Study 4 and Study 5 were conducted to examine the impact of the level of familiarity with the celebrity. Based on the results of Study 4, Hypothesis 6 was not confirmed because there was no significant difference in terms of advertising effectiveness between the high and low value congruence for an unfamiliar celebrity. In other words, when values of an unfamiliar celebrity were manipulated by using different taglines to create the high and low value congruence conditions, no significant difference on the cognitive, affective, and conative components was found between these two experimental conditions. The results of Study 5 provided support for Hypothesis 7, suggesting that the lack of pre-established thoughts and feelings with the celebrity can improve advertising effectiveness. Participants who were assigned to the low familiarity with the celebrity condition spent more time examining the experimental ad (probably because they were trying to recognize the celebrity), had more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand, and were more likely to buy the product and recommend it to other people. Finally, Study 6, conducted to compare three

dimensions of the match-up hypothesis (i.e., value, expertise, and attractiveness) did not provide support for Hypotheses 8 and 9 and provided only partial support for Hypothesis 10. Specifically, based on the manipulations of the profession and the taglines of an unfamiliar celebrity, no significant difference was found between the value dimension and the expertise dimension, as well as the value dimension and the attractiveness dimension. The results showed, however, that participants who were exposed to the expertise advertisement had more favorable attitudes toward ad and brand than participants who were exposed to the attractiveness ad, providing partial support for Hypothesis 10.

The remainder of this chapter discusses key findings and contributions of the pilot tests and experiments conducted for this dissertation, identifies limitations of these studies, and provides directions for future research.

Key Findings and Contributions

In this section, results of pilot tests conducted to identify celebrity values are discussed first. Then, findings pertained to each set of hypotheses (i.e., celebrity-product value congruence, consumer values, familiarity with the celebrity, and comparison of the match-up dimensions) and contributions of these findings are discussed.

Celebrity Values. In order to identify celebrities who would be used in experiments, it was necessary to know consumers' perceptions of celebrity values. Accordingly, a pilot test was conducted to see with which values consumers associated a

given celebrity. The results of this pilot test revealed interesting and important findings, above and beyond the purpose of conducting it (i.e., identifying celebrity-product pairs to be used in main studies).

Thirty celebrities were rated by using nine values from the List of Values (LOV, Kahle 1996). Then, composite values of internal (a sense of accomplishment, self-fulfillment, and self-respect), external (a sense of belonging, warm relationship with others, security, and being well-respected), and fun/excitement (fun and enjoyment in life, and excitement) dimensions were calculated by taking the average of corresponding values. Examining these value dimensions showed that celebrities were associated with either internal or fun/excitement values. More specifically, mean values of celebrities on internal, external, and fun/excitement values showed that celebrities received the highest scores on either internal values or fun/excitement values but not on external values. Indeed, the majority of celebrities received the highest ratings on either "a sense of accomplishment" or "fun and enjoyment in life" values. Moreover, for most celebrities, consumers (i.e., participants of the pilot study) thought that internal and/or fun/excitement values were significantly more important than external values, but the differences between the ratings of internal and fun/excitement values were not significant. These results support the distinction between excess and deficit values. Excess values, described as values that people have already attained, include internal and fun/excitement values, whereas deficit values, described as values that people lack, include external values (Drenan 1983; Piner 1983). Because celebrities are usually perceived as being successful people (otherwise, they would not be celebrities) and having fun in their lives (i.e., because they already have attained excess values),

consumers think that internal and fun/excitement values are the most important values for celebrities. The appearances of celebrities on media (through their lifestyles, their jobs, etc.) make excess values more salient compared to deficit (i.e., external) values, which, in turn, make consumers think that external values are less important for celebrities.

Examining the value ratings for female and male celebrities separately revealed another interesting finding. Out of fifteen female celebrities, eleven of them received the highest ratings on internal values and four of them received the highest ratings on fun/excitement values. The ratings for male celebrities were exactly the opposite. Out of fifteen male celebrities, eleven of them received the highest ratings on fun/excitement values and four of them received the highest ratings on internal values. A chi-square test showed that the difference between the number of female and male celebrities who had the highest ratings on either internal or fun/excitement values was significant (χ^2 (1, N = 30) = 6.533, p = .011). This finding is consistent with the changes in the importance of values over the last three decades. A study conducted to examine the changes in the perceived importance of values for Americans through three national surveys (conducted in 1976, 1986, and 2007) showed that the importance of excess values (i.e., internal and fun/excitement values) has been increasing and that the importance of deficit values (i.e., external values) has been decreasing over the last thirty years (Gurel-Atay, Xie, Chen, and Kahle 2010). In the most recent survey, distribution of the importance of values by gender revealed that the percentage of women who chose internal values (especially self-respect) as their most important values was higher than the percentage of men who chose internal values as their most important values. In contrast, the percentage of men who chose fun/excitement values as their most important value was higher than the percentage

of women who chose fun/excitement values. It is possible that, similar to the general American population, female celebrities put more emphasis on internal values and male celebrities put more emphasis on fun/excitement values. Their behaviors, jobs, and lifestyles, then, reflect their values and lead consumers to associate female celebrities with internal values and male celebrities with fun/excitement values.

Examining the value ratings for individual celebrities also revealed three groups of celebrities based on the magnitude of those value ratings. The first group includes celebrities who had high ratings (greater than 5.5 out of 9) on all value dimensions (internal, external, and fun/excitement). Examples include Catherine Zeta Jones, David Beckham, LeBron James, and George Clooney. The second group includes celebrities who had low-to-medium ratings (less than 5 out of 9) on all value dimensions (e.g., Jennifer Aniston, Martha Stewart, and Tom Cruise). The last group includes celebrities who had a high rating on one value dimension and relatively lower ratings on other two dimensions. For instance, Britney Spears and Robin Williams had high ratings on fun/excitement values and low-to-medium ratings on internal and external values. In contrast, Oprah Winfrey and Serena Williams had high ratings on internal values and low-to-medium ratings on external and fun/excitement values. These differences provide directions and opportunities to companies that might want to use celebrity endorsements. Celebrities who have high ratings on all value dimensions can be paired with multiple products that reflect different values because consumers will easily be able to associate those celebrities with those different values. In other words, for celebrities associated with multiple values, consumers will perceive high congruence between the celebrity and products, regardless of the product values. This perceived congruence might explain how

some celebrities can be successful with multiple endorsements (e.g., David Beckham endorsing Adidas shoes, Signature fragrance, Sharpie pens, Pepsi cola, Emporio Armani underwear, and Motorola phones). Celebrities who have low-to-medium ratings on all value dimensions can also be used for product categories that reflect different values because their values can be manipulated in ads more easily. By using taglines or by positioning a celebrity on a specific value dimension, the celebrity can be matched with products that represent different values. Celebrities that are highly associated with one value dimension, on the other hand, can only be matched with products that represent that value dimension. Those celebrities would probably not be effective when paired with products representing other value dimensions. When they are paired with products that reflect their own values, however, they may actually be more effective than celebrities who are associated with multiple value dimensions because the congruence will be stronger and more salient.

Celebrity-Product Value Congruence. Introducing celebrity-product value congruence as another dimension to the match-up hypothesis was the main purpose of this dissertation. In Study 1, Martha Stewart, associated with internal values, was used. In the high congruence condition, treadmill, as a representative of internal values, was paired with Martha Stewart. In the low congruence condition, video game console that represents fun/excitement values was used. In Study 2, it was decided to use a celebrity who was associated with external values. Because none of the celebrities received significantly higher ratings on external values than either internal or fun/excitement values, the celebrity that had the highest ratings on external values, Catherine Zeta Jones,

was paired with the external tagline and used in Study 2. She was matched with dinnerware in the high congruence condition and with the MP3 player, a representative of fun/excitement values, in the low congruence condition. In Study 3, Oprah Winfrey was used to represent internal values. In the high congruence condition, an electronic toothbrush was used; in the low congruence condition, the MP3 player was used. To test for the hypotheses related to the impact of celebrity-value congruence on advertising effectiveness, two meta-analyses were also conducted. In the first one, datasets from Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 were combined. Then, high and low value congruence conditions were compared. In the second meta-analysis, celebrities who had high value congruence with the MP3 player (i.e., celebrities who were associated with fun/excitement values: Jennifer Aniston and an unfamiliar celebrity introduced with the fun/excitement value tagline) were contrasted with celebrities who had low value congruence with the MP3 player (i.e., celebrities who were associated with either internal or external values: Catherine Zeta Jones and Oprah Winfrey). Overall, five separate analyses were run to test for Hypotheses 1-3.

In the analyses of Studies 1-3 and Meta-Analysis 1, the results showed that participants who were in the low congruence condition spent more time examining the experimental ad. This finding provided support for the schema congruity theory. Because participants perceived a bad fit in the low value congruence condition, compared to the high value congruence condition, they had to process the experimental ad longer. As Lee and Thorston suggested (2008), the low levels of conformity led to greater cognitive efforts to understand the new (i.e., incongruent) information and to possibly reconcile it with existing schemas. In contrast, when there was a high level of confirmation (i.e., high

congruence), participants easily and quickly matched the celebrities with products and placed the matching pair into an existing category in their minds. Accordingly, they did not have to spend much time in examining the experimental ad to make sense of the information presented in the ad, which resulted in less cognitive effort. In Meta-Analysis 2, a significant difference between the high and low value congruence conditions was not found, probably because of having an unfamiliar celebrity in the high congruence condition. Similar to the celebrities who had low value congruence with products, an unfamiliar celebrity presented participants with new information. Participants, then, had to show more cognitive efforts in order to process this new information (e.g., to recognize the celebrity, to perceive the fit between the celebrity and product, etc.). Therefore, the time spent in examining the ad with the unfamiliar celebrity, although it was a high value congruence condition, offset the time spent in examining the ad with low congruent celebrities.

Affective level of the hierarchy of effects model was measured by using attitudes toward ad and attitudes toward brand. Except Study 3, in all analyses (i.e., Study 1, Study 2, Meta-Analysis 1, and Meta-Analysis 2), participants who were in the high value congruence condition had more favorable attitudes toward ad than participants who were in the low value congruence condition. One reason for the insignificant difference between the Oprah Winfrey – electronic toothbrush (high value congruence) ad and the Oprah Winfrey – MP3 player (low value congruence) ad might be the ineffectiveness of the manipulations. Indeed, manipulation checks showed that the difference for the perceived congruence between the Oprah Winfrey – electronic toothbrush pair and the Oprah Winfrey – MP3 player pair was significant only at a marginal level ($p = .076$).

Attitudes toward brand were significantly more favorable in the high value congruence condition than the low value congruence condition in all analyses. These findings support the hypothesis that when there is a good match-up between the celebrity and product in terms of values, the ads will be more effective at the affective level of the hierarchy of effects model.

Purchase intention and word-of-mouth (WOM) intention were used to measure the impact of celebrity-product value congruence on the conative level of the hierarchy of effects model. Except Study 1, purchase intentions were significantly higher in the high value congruence condition than in the low value congruence condition in all analyses. In Study 1, treadmill was used in the high value congruence condition, and video game console was used in the low value congruence condition. Both of these products were probably more expensive compared to products used in other studies (i.e., dinnerware, MP3 player, and electronic toothbrush). Moreover, compared to other products, including video game console, a treadmill is less likely to be bought by college students because they tend to engage in outdoor sports or go to fitness centers instead of buying their own sports equipment. Accordingly, it is possible that college students (i.e., participants of the study) had low intentions to buy a treadmill anyway, regardless of the level of the congruence with the celebrity. WOM intentions were significantly higher in the high value congruence conditions than in the low value congruence conditions in all analyses except Study 3. Similar to attitude toward ads, WOM intentions may not be significantly higher in the high value congruence condition in Study 3 because of the lack of strong manipulations. Overall, support was found for the positive impact of celebrity-product value congruence on behavioral intentions. Interestingly, even though the high value

congruence ads were significantly more effective than the low value congruent ads at both the affective level and conative level, the mean values for the affective level (around 5 out of 9) were higher than the mean values for the conative level (around 3 out of 9). The examination of partial eta squared values also showed that the variance explained by the celebrity-product value congruence was higher on the affective level than the conative level. These findings suggest that a good value match-up between the celebrity and product has a more positive impact on the affective level than the conative level. Indeed, because behavioral intentions require more commitment than attitudes toward ad or brand, it is understandable that a brief exposure to an ad for a fake brand is less effective for those behavioral intentions.

Traditional hierarchy of effect models suggest that people get through a hierarchical, sequential internal psychological process when they are exposed to an advertisement (Lavidge and Steiner 1961). More specifically, it has been suggested that effective cognitive components (e.g., attention) leads to effective affective components (e.g., attitudes), which, in turn, leads to effective conative components (e.g., behavioral intentions) (O'Brien 1971). The results of studies conducted in this dissertation, however, showed that high attention (i.e., spending more time in examining an ad) can actually lead to less favorable outcomes when high attention is the result of incongruence with the existing schemas in people's minds (Lee and Thorston 2008). When people have to spend more cognitive efforts to make sense of an ad and to place it in their existing schemas, these excessive efforts might be perceived as creating inconvenience to people. This inconvenience, in turn, can lead to less favorable attitudes toward ad and brand and lower behavioral intentions. This dissertation contributes to the hierarchy of effects model

research by providing support for the Vakratsas and Ambler's (1999) contention that the temporal sequence between three levels of the hierarchy of effects model (i.e., cognitive, affective, and conative) is not that important; instead, the significance and importance of each level depends on context-related factors, such as high versus low congruence between celebrities and products.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983) suggests that, regardless of the product category, people use source characteristics (e.g., attractiveness, expertise) through the peripheral route when the motivation and/or ability to process the ad are low. Because celebrities do not provide central information regarding a product, celebrity endorsements would be effective only when people use the peripheral route. Researchers who used the match-up hypothesis and the social adaptation theory to examine celebrity endorsements, however, claimed that celebrities can actually provide central information when there is congruence between celebrities and products endorsed (Kahle and Homer 1985, Kamins 1990). For instance, attractive celebrities are more effective when they endorse products that are used to enhance attractiveness because the attractiveness of the celebrity provides central and adaptive information by making customers think that the product endorsed by a celebrity will enhance their attractiveness as it did for the celebrity.

This dissertation provided support for the integration of the match-up hypothesis and social adaptation theory by showing that, as opposed to what the ELM says, product categories matter for the effectiveness of celebrity endorsements. Moreover, celebrities provide central information through their values. When the product category reflects the values of the celebrity endorsing the product (i.e., high celebrity-product value

congruence), advertisement becomes more effective. When the product category is not congruent with the values of the celebrity (i.e., low celebrity-product value congruence), the advertisement becomes less effective. In contrast to the ELM's contention, celebrity (source) characteristics are not sufficient to get favorable outcomes through the peripheral route when the congruence between celebrity and product values is not high.

Overall, this dissertation introduced the value congruence dimension and provided an explanation to understand the effectiveness of some celebrity-product pairs (e.g., Kobe Bryant and Turkish Airlines) that cannot be understood through the expertise and attractiveness dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. With these celebrity-product pairs, it can be argued that, regardless of the product they endorse, celebrities are usually the people who are perceived to be attractive, likeable, knowledgeable, and credible, and that just having a celebrity in an ad is enough to get favorable results. There are, however, several celebrity endorsement campaigns that failed for no obvious reasons, such as Jamie Lee Curtis with Dannon yogurts, Lance Armstrong with Radio Shack, or Rachel Zoe with Bing.com (Ace Metrix, Celebrity Advertisements: Exposing A Myth Of Advertising Effectiveness, 2011). Moreover, in studies conducted for this dissertation, participants were asked to evaluate celebrities in terms of attractiveness, likeability, familiarity, knowledge, trustworthiness, and favorability. Although there were no significant differences between the experimental groups in terms of these celebrity characteristics, there were still significant differences in terms of key dependent variables, suggesting that there should be something else beyond the mere presence of celebrities. The celebrity-product value congruence can be used to understand the

successes and/or failures of celebrity endorsement campaigns that do not fall into the attractiveness or expertise dimensions.

Consumer Values. The match-up hypothesis has been studied extensively by several researchers. The majority of these studies focused on the congruence between celebrities and products. The congruence between celebrities and consumers, or the congruence between products and consumers, on the other hand, did not get much attention. Moreover, when consumers were included in the match-up hypothesis studies, the gender of participants was the main attribute used to examine the congruence between consumers and celebrities/products (Boyd and Shank 2004). One of the objectives of this dissertation was to close this research gap by studying the relationship between consumer values, celebrity values, and product values. Specifically, it was hypothesized that, when there was high celebrity-product value congruence, consumers who had similar values with the celebrity-product pair would report the most favorable outcomes. When there was low celebrity-product value congruence, however, consumers who had similar values with the product would report more favorable outcomes because of the salience of product values compared to celebrity values. Study 3 was conducted to test these hypotheses. The Oprah Winfrey – electronic toothbrush pair was used for the high value congruence condition, and Oprah Winfrey – MP3 player pair was used for the low congruence condition. It was expected that, in the high value congruence condition, participants with internal values would have higher ratings on dependent variables; and in the low congruence condition, participants with fun/excitement values (values represented by MP3 player) would have higher ratings on dependent variables. Neither of

the hypotheses was confirmed. Consumer values did not have a significant main effect or a significant interaction effect with the celebrity-product value congruence.

The congruence between consumers and celebrities/products has not been examined beyond the gender of participants in the match-up hypotheses research; however, in different contexts, support for the importance of congruence between consumers and products, as well as the importance of similarity between the source of information and the message recipient was found. Based on a taste test, Allen, Gupta, and Monnier (2008) found that the level of congruence between participants' values and values represented by products affected taste evaluation, attitudes, and behavioral intentions; when there was high congruence, participants reported a better taste and aroma, had more favorable attitudes toward the brand, and higher purchase intentions. Similarly, by using five different product categories (i.e., smaller family cars, larger family cars, sunglasses, vegetables, and red meat), Allen (2002) showed that people tend to prefer products that represent values similar to their own values. Previous studies have also found significant influences of the similarity between the source of information and the message recipient on the persuasiveness (Cable and Edwards 2004; Nicholson, Compeau, and Sethi 2001). Feick and Higie (1992), for instance, provided support for the positive impact of the similarity between consumers and service (e.g., night clubs) endorsers on attitudes and intentions. The findings of Study 3 were contrary to the findings of these previous studies. One reason for this unexpected result might be the examination of the three-way interaction. In all previous studies cited above, two-way interactions among the consumer and product or among the consumer and the endorser of the product were examined. In Study 3, the three-way interaction among the celebrity

endorser, product, and consumer was the focus of the study. It is harder to detect the higher-order interactions than two-way interactions because "the interaction is best identified by observations jointly extreme on W, X, and Z, but such observations are extremely rare, more rare than observations that are jointly extreme on any two of the three predictor variables" (McClelland and Judd 1993, 385). Accordingly, the difference between Study 3 and previous studies regarding the importance of consumer values might be explained through the differences in the difficulty of detecting two-way and three-way interactions.

Another reason for the lack of significant relationship between consumer values and celebrity/product values in Study 3 might be the nature of products used in the experiment. It is possible that participants of the study did not perceive a significant difference between the values represented by electronic toothbrush and the values represented by MP3 player. Although an electronic toothbrush was perceived to represent internal values significantly more than it represented either external or fun/excitement values, its ratings were still relatively low on all value dimensions (i.e., less than 4 out of 9). Moreover, there was no significant difference between the ratings of electronic toothbrush (M = 3.82) and MP3 player (M = 3.54) on internal values ($t(118) = -0.638$, p = .525). This insignificance might also be the reason for the ineffectiveness of the manipulations. As explained above, manipulation checks showed that the difference for the perceived congruence between the Oprah Winfrey – electronic toothbrush pair and the Oprah Winfrey – MP3 player pair was significant only at a marginal level. Because the distinction between high and low celebrity-product value congruence was not strong,

the interaction of consumer values with the celebrity and product values was also not strong.

The insignificant impact of consumer values can also be the result of using college students as participants of this study. It is possible that, because of their young age (the average age was 20.84 in Study 3), college students still do not have established values. College students may still be developing their values, and, hence, their values may not be strong enough to have an impact on advertising effectiveness. Moreover, in previous studies where values of consumers, products, or sources of information were used as the basis for the perceived fit (Allen 2002), individual values were used. In Study 3, value dimensions, instead of individual values, were used (e.g., internal values as opposed to self-respect; fun/excitement values as opposed to fun and enjoyment in life). Although values under a value dimension (e.g., self-fulfillment, self-respect, and a sense of accomplishment under internal values) tend to correlate highly, they are still different values. When assigned to broader value dimensions, it may not be possible to capture the impact of consumer values, suggesting that a match-up between consumers, products, and celebrities in terms of individual values (not value dimensions) might be more effective. Future studies, therefore, should examine the relationships between celebrity values, product values, and consumer values by focusing on individual values.

It is also possible that consumer values are less important in some situations. Under some conditions, identification with the celebrity might be too strong that celebrity values override the consumer values. McCracken (1989) suggests that when celebrities endorse products, cultural meanings inherent in those celebrities transfer first to the products they endorse and then to the consumers. When this meaning transfer is strong

enough, consumers may adopt celebrity values and their own values might be less important. Consumers who tend to engage in upward comparison, for instance, might be more likely to identify with celebrities, because celebrities achieve all the things those consumers may want from life, like success, fame, and wealth. Accordingly, celebrity values would override consumer values more easily, making consumer values less important or less relevant. McCracken (1989) also suggests that some groups of people are more likely to transfer meanings from celebrities. Those groups include people who are moving from one age category to another (McCracken 1987), people who are undergoing any sort of role change or status mobility (Solomon 1983), and people who have newly arrived to a culture (O'Guinn, Faber, and Rice 1985). Because these are the usual characteristics of college students, celebrity endorsement studies conducted by using college students may not be able to reveal significant consumer values impact; those college students might be willing to adopt celebrity values by letting celebrity values superseding their own values. Involvement with the situation or product might also affect the importance level of consumer values. When the involvement is low, consumers may just go with the celebrity values. When the involvement is high, their own values may also play a role in generating attitudes or behavioral intentions. Researchers should design studies to examine when consumer values are less important and when they matter most, especially when celebrity endorsements are used. Identifying those conditions would have major theoretical and managerial contributions.

Familiarity with the Celebrity. The Oxford dictionary defines the word "celebrity" as the state of being well-known; however, not all celebrities are well-known

to all people. For instance, people who are interested in professional golf may know Annika Sörenstam, a professional golfer who holds various all-time scoring records, well, and people who are not interested in professional golf may not have any idea about who she is. One of the objectives of this dissertation was to examine the impact of familiarity with the celebrity on advertising effectiveness. More specifically, it was expected that, when consumers (participants of studies in this dissertation) were not very familiar with the celebrity, they would not have any previously established thoughts or feelings to associate the celebrity with a given value. Then, by using clues in the ad (e.g., taglines, celebrity profession, pictures, etc.), any values could be assigned to the celebrity to achieve celebrity-product value congruence. Celebrity values could be manipulated based on the values represented by endorsed products. It was also expected that, when contrasted with a high familiar celebrity, low familiar celebrities would be more effective as a result of the minimized impact of pre-established associations with the low familiar celebrity.

Study 4 was conducted to test the impact of value manipulation for unfamiliar celebrities. Electronic toothbrush (as a representative of internal values) was used in both the high and low value congruence conditions. The values of the unfamiliar celebrity was manipulated by using a tagline that introduced the celebrity as either someone who emphasized internal values or someone who emphasized external values. It was expected, in line with Hypothesis 6, that the ad would be more effective when the celebrity was paired with internal values than when the celebrity was paired with external values; however, this hypothesis was not confirmed. One way to explain the insignificance between the high and low value congruence conditions is to examine the manipulation

checks. The results showed that participants perceived a better fit between electronic toothbrush and the celebrity paired with the internal tagline than electronic toothbrush and the celebrity paired with the external tagline only at a marginal level ($p = .093$). The ineffectiveness of manipulations may result from either not having strong enough taglines to manipulate the celebrity's values or not having a product that strongly represents intended values. The taglines used in Study 4 worked well with well-known celebrities in Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3, because consumers already had opinions about those celebrities' values. In ads with well-known celebrities, taglines were used to emphasize celebrity values; not to manipulate them. In Study 4, however, they were used to manipulate the values of the unknown celebrity. When it comes to manipulating values, stronger taglines or cues in the ads may be necessary. Moreover, the examination of pilot test results showed that, although electronic toothbrush was rated significantly higher on internal values than either external or fun/excitement values, the average rating on internal values was still relatively low (3.82 out of 9). In order to reach definitive conclusions about the effectiveness of values manipulation for unfamiliar celebrities, studies should be conducted by using stronger manipulations and by pairing celebrities with different products.

Study 5 was used to contrast low and high familiar celebrities. An MP3 player, a representative of fun/excitement values, was used with both celebrities. Comparison of Jennifer Aniston, associated with fun/excitement values, and an unfamiliar celebrity, paired with fun/excitement values, provided support for Hypothesis 7. Participants who were in the "low familiarity with the celebrity" condition spent more time examining the ad, had significantly more favorable attitudes toward the ad and brand, and were more

likely to buy the product and recommend it to other people than participants who were in the "high familiarity with the celebrity" condition. This finding suggests that companies can use unfamiliar celebrities to endorse their products. They would still get positive outcomes in terms of advertising effectiveness through celebrity endorsement, and they will not have to deal with their consumers' previously established thoughts, associations, and feelings with high familiar celebrities. Indeed, because celebrities can do things in their daily lives that might hurt the image of the brand they endorse (e.g., Tiger Woods and love affairs, Michael Phelps and drugs, Kobe Bryant and sexual assault), using celebrities involves risks for companies (Amos, Holmes, and Strutton 2008). Companies, however, can minimize those risks by using less familiar celebrities in their advertising campaigns. Citizen Watch, for instance, has been using celebrities, like Paula Creamer (professional golf player), Nicole Vaidisova (tennis player), and Matt Kenseth (NASCAR car driver), who are not well known to the general public. In Citizen Watch print ads, professions of those low-familiar celebrities are written under their pictures to make people understand that they are "celebrities." Then, by telling how both the celebrity and Citizen Eco-Drive watch are unstoppable, the company actually creates congruence between the celebrity and product. Indeed, the congruence between these sports athletes and Citizen Watch cannot be explained by either the expertise or attractiveness dimensions; however, the value congruence can offer an explanation. Being unstoppable, for both the celebrity and product, refers to being unbeatable, competitive, and successful, which reminds one of the internal values. It can be claimed that Citizen Watch uses less-familiar sports athletes to create celebrity-product value congruence in terms of internal values, and the longevity of the campaign suggests that this strategy resulted in

favorable outcomes for Citizen Watch. The success of Citizen Watch campaigns can be considered as providing support for both the importance of celebrity-product value congruence and the use of low familiar celebrities.

Comparison of Match-Up Dimensions. As discussed before, previous match-up hypothesis studies tended to focus on either the attractiveness dimension, suggesting that attractive celebrities should be used to endorse products that are used to enhance attractiveness, or the expertise dimension, suggesting that celebrities should endorse products that are related to their professions. Not all celebrity endorsement campaigns can be explained by these two dimensions. Although examples of using the attractiveness dimension (e.g., Nicole Kidman – Chanel No 5; Penelope Cruz – Ralph Lauren; Rafael Nadal – Giorgio Armani) or the expertise dimension (e.g., Tim Tebow – FRS Energy Drink; LeBron James – Nike; Lance Armstrong – 24 Hour Fitness) can easily be found in the business world, examples of celebrity endorsements that cannot be explained by these two dimensions are abundant as well (e.g., Michele Wie – Sony; Maria Sharapova – Canon; Kevin Costner – Turkish Airlines; Nikon Digital Camera and Ashton Kutcher). Accordingly, the main purpose of this dissertation was to offer another match-up dimension that can be used to explain celebrity endorsement campaigns that do not fall into the attractiveness or expertise dimensions. As explained before, support for the positive impact of celebrity-product value congruence was found through three different studies and two meta analyses. The purpose of Study 6 was to compare and contrast three dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. It was expected that, because values are higher-order constructs that affect all aspects of people's lives, the value congruence dimension

would be more effective than the expertise dimension (Hypothesis 8) and the attractiveness dimension (Hypothesis 9). The expertise dimension, in turn, would be more effective than the attractiveness dimension (Hypothesis 10) because expertise (i.e., product relatedness through celebrity's profession) is more salient than attractiveness. Support for Hypotheses 8 and 9 was not found, and only partial support for Hypothesis 10 was obtained: the expertise dimension was more effective in generating favorable attitudes toward ad and brand than the attractiveness dimension. One reason for these results might be the ineffective manipulation of the match-up dimensions. In Study 6, treadmill (a representative of internal values) and a fake celebrity was used for all three dimensions. In the value congruence dimension, the celebrity was introduced as an actor and paired with a tagline that emphasized the importance of internal values for the celebrity. In the expertise dimension, the celebrity was introduced as a soccer player and paired with a tagline that emphasized the importance of soccer for the player. In the attractiveness dimension, the celebrity was introduced as an actor and paired with a tagline that emphasized the importance of being attractive for the celebrity. It is possible that taglines and/or profession of the celebrity used to manipulate the perceived match-up dimension were not strong enough. Moreover, the taglines used in the expertise or attractiveness dimensions may activate some values (e.g., fun and enjoyment in life with soccer, and being well-respected with attractiveness), leading to confounding results in terms of value congruence. New studies using stronger manipulations should be conducted to reach more robust conclusions.

In Study 6, a fake celebrity was used in order to be able to use the same product across three match-up dimension conditions. The purpose of using the same product was

to compare the effectiveness of three dimensions, or bases, for the perceived fit for the same celebrity-product pair. In reality, however, all three dimensions can be used for a given celebrity based on the products endorsed in the ad. For instance, the expertise dimension is used when David Beckham endorses Adidas shoes, and the attractiveness dimension is used when he endorses Gillette products. Pilot tests conducted for this dissertation showed that there was no significant difference between the ratings of internal and fun/excitement values, and ratings for both of those value dimensions were significantly higher than the rating of external values for David Beckham, which suggests that David Beckham can successfully be paired with products representing either internal or fun/excitement values. Indeed, the value congruence in terms of internal values can explain the endorsement of Sharpie Pens, and value congruence in terms of fun/excitement values can explain the endorsement of Pepsi Cola by David Beckham. In an experimental setting, print ads can be created for these four different products, and the effectiveness of each match-up dimension can be compared and contrasted for David Beckham.

Previous studies conducted to compare the attractiveness and expertise dimensions also found mixed results. Till and Busler (2000), for example, found a significant main effect of attractiveness but not a significant interaction effect between attractiveness and product type: attractive celebrities were more effective in generating favorable attitudes toward brand and high purchase intentions, regardless of the product type. The interaction effect between expertise and product type, on the other hand, was significant for attitude toward the brand but not for purchase intentions. Different from Study 6 of this dissertation, Till and Busler (2000) used different celebrity-products pairs

to compare the attractiveness and expertise dimensions. These findings, combined with the findings of Study 6, suggest that better ways should be found to compare and contrast different match-up dimensions.

Limitations and Future Research

Using college students as participants of studies was one of the major limitations of this dissertation. Although college students were considered and treated as real consumers by focusing on celebrities with whom they were familiar and on products they could consume in their daily lives, using college students in all studies constrain the external validity of this dissertation. Moreover, all studies were conducted in artificial lab settings, where participants were exposed to the experimental ads only once and for just a few seconds; and, in order to prevent effects of previous brand knowledge/familiarity, fictitious brand names were used in all studies. In the world beyond academe, however, people are exposed to the same ad many times, and they are exposed to celebrity endorsements for real brands. Future research should include field studies conducted with non-student samples and real brands to generalize the results obtained in this dissertation and to improve external validity.

In Study 3 and Study 4, results related to the manipulation checks were not entirely as expected. In both studies, the difference between the high and low value congruence conditions was not significant. As explained above, one potential reason for the ineffective manipulation for Study 3 might be the ratings of products on value dimensions. Although an electronic toothbrush was significantly more associated with

internal values, and MP3 player was significantly more associated with fun/excitement values, there was no significant difference between the internal value ratings of electronic toothbrush and an MP3 player. Because Oprah Winfrey was used to represent internal values, the basis for the congruence between the celebrity and products was the internal value dimension. The lack of difference between ratings of two products on internal values probably led to the ineffective manipulation, and insignificant results, especially with consumer values. In Study 4, because only one product, electronic toothbrush, was used in both high and low value congruence conditions, the differences between product ratings were not the reason for the ineffective manipulation. Instead, different taglines paired with an unfamiliar celebrity were used to manipulate the perceived fit between the celebrity and product; however, the taglines were probably not strong enough to make the celebrity associated with a certain value dimension. Future research should examine different celebrity-product pairs by using stronger manipulations to draw definitive conclusions regarding the hypotheses not confirmed in this dissertation. The use of different celebrity-product pairs would also improve the generalizability of significant findings (e.g., the importance of celebrity-product value congruence) in different contexts.

Although the majority of values (especially the excess values) tends to have positive meanings, they might be considered negatively when they are associated with certain people or products. For instance, fun and enjoyment in life, an excess value, is a positive value that many people may aspire to hold. Accordingly, they might want to use products that Jennifer Aniston or Ashton Kutcher (both are highly associated with fun/excitement values) endorses just to be like them. Similarly, they might want to own

an Apple iPod to reach the "next level of fun." In some situations, however, the same values might hold negative meanings. Paris Hilton is also associated with fun and enjoyment in life, but not in a good way; the majority of people would probably not want to be like her. Likewise, drugs tend to represent fun and excitement; yet, many people would perceive the fun and excitement related to drugs negatively. Future studies should consider the valence of value meanings associated with certain celebrities and products while creating the high/low celebrity-product value congruence conditions.

As explained above, using real brands would improve the external validity. Using real brands would also provide researchers with the opportunity to include brands values, in addition to celebrity, product, and consumer values, in celebrity endorsement studies. The earlier studies in the match-up hypotheses research stream focused on product categories and did not emphasize brand characteristics. Two brands from the same product category, however, might be positioned completely different in consumers' minds, meaning that they might reflect different values (Herrmann and Huber 2000). For instance, Dibley and Baker (2001) found that values reflected by brand names affected young British and Spanish girls' snack food choices. Specifically, by using the means-end chains theory, they showed that British girls used brand name (attribute) to get certain benefits, or consequences (such as reassurance) to satisfy some personal values (such as friendship and belonging). Brand personality studies (e.g., Aaker 1997; Madrigal and Boush 2008) also showed that brands have distinct images, or personalities, in consumers' minds, and those brand images affect attitudes, behavioral intentions, and purchase behaviors. In the business world, there are several companies that produce and sell similar products but represent different values and/or personalities (e.g., Microsoft

vs. Apple, Pepsi vs. Coca Cola). Future research should examine the congruence between brand values and celebrity values, as well as the congruence between brand values and consumer values by using real brands in experiments.

The ads used in the experiments were not designed by professional advertising agencies, limiting their professional look and creativity. Because creativity is an important component of advertising, not controlling for the creativity might have an impact on the results of the studies conducted in this dissertation. For instance, even though the congruent ads (i.e., high celebrity-product value congruence) were significantly more effective than the incongruent ads (i.e., low celebrity-product value congruence), the mean values for the congruent ads were still relatively low for both the attitude measures (around 5 out of 9) and behavioral intentions (around 3 out of 9). More creative ads developed professionally might generate more positive responses from consumers. Indeed, previous studies showed that creativity (both the overall creativity and the dimensions of creativity) in advertising has positive influences on attention to ad (Smith et al. 2007), unaided brand recall (Till and Baack 2005), attitudes toward ad and brand (Smith et al. 2007), and purchase intentions (Smith et al. 2007). Moreover, a creative ad might still be successful even though there is low celebrity-product value congruence if consumers perceive the ad as rewarding. A study conducted by Dahlen, Rosengren, and Torn (2008, 392) revealed that even if the creativity in ads does not improve the functionality of the ad (e.g., does not enhance the likeability of the ad), "by signaling greater effort on behalf of the advertiser and a greater ability of the brand, advertising creativity enhances both brand interest and perceived brand quality." Future

studies should take creativity into account by either using the real ads or making their experimental ads developed by professional advertisers.

Future studies should also extend the application of celebrity-product value congruence to social marketing issues. Friedman and Friedman (1979) suggested that celebrity endorsements are more appropriate for products with high psychological or social risks. Non-profit organizations, as well as for-profit organizations, use celebrities in their advertisements to promote their images or to create awareness regarding a specific issue or cause. Although the congruence between a certain type of business and its involvement with a certain cause has been examined in previous studies (e.g., Ellen, Mohr, and Webb 2000), the congruence between the celebrities and social marketing issues they involve has gained little attention. Social marketing issues can be considered as either internally related to consumers (as in the case of quitting smoke, using condoms, or self-examination for breast cancer) or externally related to consumers (as in the case of donating to cancer research, recycling, or helping poor people). Accordingly, it can be expected that celebrities who represent internal values can be more effective in promoting internally related issues than promoting externally related issues, and celebrities who represent external values can be more effective in promoting externally related issues than internally related issues. Examining the celebrity-cause (or social marketing issue) value congruence, therefore, would help companies, non-profit organizations, and public policy makers to create more effective social marketing campaigns.

Types of products (i.e., utilitarian, symbolic, and hedonic) and benefits these products provide to consumers should also be examined in relation to the celebrity-product value congruence. Utilitarian products are related to functional benefits, and they

are consumed to accomplish a task (Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000), which suggests that utilitarian products are closely related to internal values such as a sense of accomplishment. Symbolic products, on the other hand, are related to extrinsic advantages of product consumption and underlying needs for social approval or personal expression (Piacentini and Mailer 2004); hence, they are more relevant to fulfill external values, such as a sense of belonging and being well-respected. Finally, hedonic products are used to get experiential benefits and satisfy affective needs such as sensory pleasure, variety, and cognitive stimulation (Keller 1993), making them more relevant to fun/excitement values. It is possible, however, to position some products as either a utilitarian, symbolic, or hedonic product by manipulating product values. Smart phones, for instance, can be positioned as utilitarian products (e.g., emergency calls can be made), symbolic products (e.g., can be used as a symbol of status), or hedonic products (e.g., video games can be played) by emphasizing different product values and benefits. Celebrities who have high value congruence with the manipulated product value, then, can be used in ads. Future studies should therefore consider the impact of product type when examining celebrity-product value congruence.

Conclusion

The focus of this dissertation was the impact of congruence between celebrity values and product values on advertising effectiveness. A series of studies provided support for the positive influence of celebrity-product value congruence on attitudes toward ad, attitudes toward brand, purchase intentions, and word-of-mouth intentions.

Support for the effectiveness of a low-familiar celebrity over a well-known celebrity was also found.

These results will help advertisers and scholars to create more effective celebrity endorsement campaigns. For example, when an advertiser needs to select a celebrity to endorse a certain product for a client, s/he can just consider celebrities that share the values of the product, especially if the product is not an appropriate one to use either the attractiveness or expertise dimensions of the match-up hypothesis. In order to match the celebrities with products based on values congruence, however, companies and/or advertising agencies will need to do marketing research to identify their target consumers' perceptions of celebrity and product values.

Advertisers and marketing managers may also benefit from this research in making decisions about using either a low-familiar celebrity or a well-known celebrity for their advertising campaigns. Because low-familiar celebrities are also successful (even more successful than a well-known celebrity based on the study findings of this dissertation) in generating favorable outcomes, companies with low advertising budgets may prefer low-familiar celebrities because those celebrities will probably charge less than well-known celebrities. Moreover, with unfamiliar celebrities, companies do not have to deal with their consumers' previously established thoughts, associations, and feelings with well-known celebrities, making the manipulation of the celebrity values to create celebrity-product value congruence easier. For instance, the pilot tests conducted for this dissertation showed that celebrities tend to be associated with internal or fun/excitement values; but not with external values. By manipulating the celebrity values, unfamiliar celebrities, compared to well-known celebrities, can be paired with products

that represent external values more easily. Furthermore, companies that have concerns about having problems with misbehaving celebrities (e.g., Tiger Woods and love affaires) can use low-familiar celebrities in order to avoid those problems.

Overall, despite the limitations, the present research contributes to the match-up hypothesis literature by introducing a new match-up dimension (i.e., value congruence) for both less-familiar and well-known celebrities and has the potential to lead to more fruitful future research.

APPENDIX A

GENERAL CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH FORM

You are invited to participate in a series of research projects on consumer behaviors and marketing strategies. These research studies are being conducted by Department of Marketing faculty and doctoral students. The results of these studies will be used for publication in academic journals.

The completion of all material for these studies should not take more than one hour. You also have the right to withdraw your consent at any time and complete an alternative assignment in order to fulfill your research requirement. Your answers will remain confidential and will be considered only in the aggregate with no reference to specific individuals. You will be asked to provide personal information (i.e., UO ID number, name, email address, instructor's name) during the survey in order to ensure that you receive credit for participation. Once recorded, your personal information will be deleted from our data files. As noted above and on the class syllabus, this is only one method for obtaining research credit in the course.

At the end of the term, you will be sent via email a summary of each study's results. In addition to the academic conclusions, the application of the results to business practice will also be outlined in this communication.

If you have any questions regarding these studies, contact Eda Gurel-Atay at (541) 346-0740. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact the Human Subjects Compliance Office at the University of Oregon, 346-2510.

Thank you very much for your help on these studies!

By completing this survey and submitting it online I acknowledge that the research has been explained to me and that I have read and concur with this informed consent form. I also acknowledge that I am at least 18 years old.

If you agree to participate, please enter your student ID number to proceed

Student ID Number (e.g. 950xxxxxx)

_____

APPENDIX B

INFORMATION PAGES

Part 1 – Familiar Celebrity

In this study, we are interested in the impact of the amount of information and the way they are presented in print advertisements on the effectiveness of ads.

In the following study, you will be presented with 6 real print ads that have been published in popular magazines. After each ad, you will be asked to give your opinion about the ad and the product presented in the ad. We ask that you answer each question carefully, but there is no need to spend much time on any particular question.

If you agree to participate, please enter your student ID number to proceed

Student ID Number (e.g. 950xxxxxx)

_____

Part 1 – Unfamiliar Celebrity

In order to provide information to consumers about their products, companies usually send information directly to different media sources in order to get coverage in news stories and articles. This practice is called **public relations**. One of the most popular public relations tools is **sponsorships**, where companies associate their brand name and product with events, such as concerts, awards specials, and sports events. You can tell if an event is sponsored because companies display banners with their name, and sometimes give things away.

In this study, we are interested in **the impact of sponsorships on consumer behaviors**, such as behavioral intentions and attitudes toward brand.

In the following study, you will be presented with **3 real print ads** that have been published in popular magazines. After each ad, you will be asked to give your opinion about the ad and the product presented in the ad. We ask that you answer each question carefully, but there is no need to spend much time on any particular question.

If you agree to participate, please enter your student ID number to proceed.

Student ID Number (e.g. 950xxxxxx)

_____

Part 2 (Both Familiar and Unfamiliar Celebrity)

This study is conducted to better understand consumer behaviors related to factors influencing product purchases.

The survey will include a set of questions on product knowledge, product categories, and life in general. We ask that you answer each question carefully, but there is no need to spend much time on any particular question.

If you agree to participate, please enter your student ID number to proceed

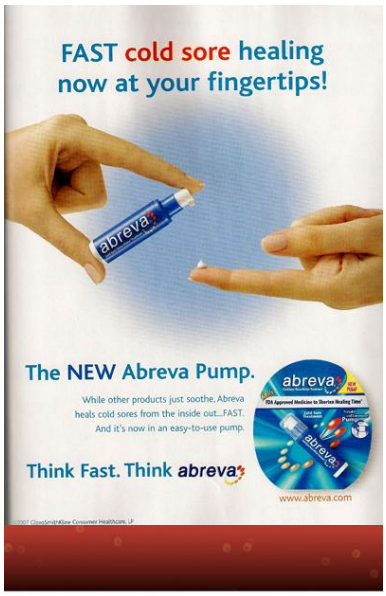
Student ID Number (e.g. 950xxxxxx)

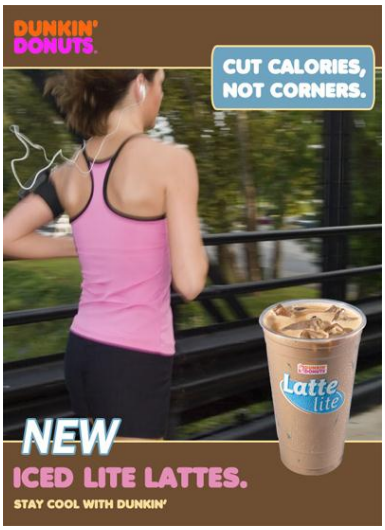
_____

APPENDIX C

ADS USED IN STUDIES

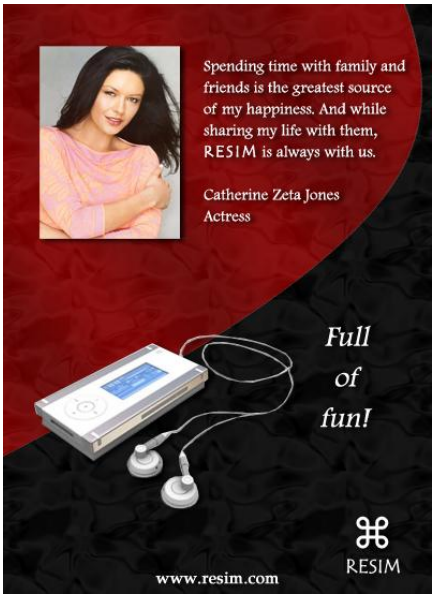
Real Ads (Used for all studies):





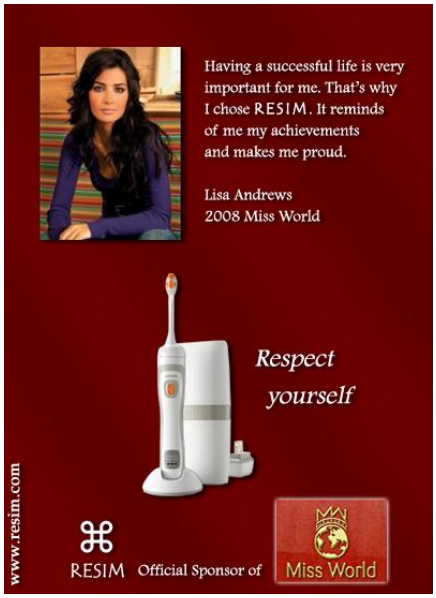
Study 1 Ads:

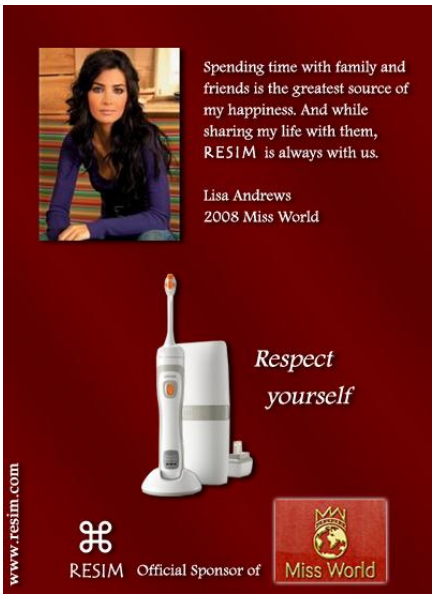
Study 2 Ads:



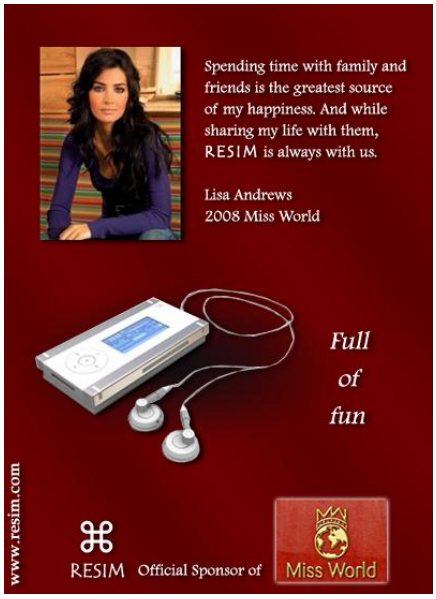
Study 3 Ads:

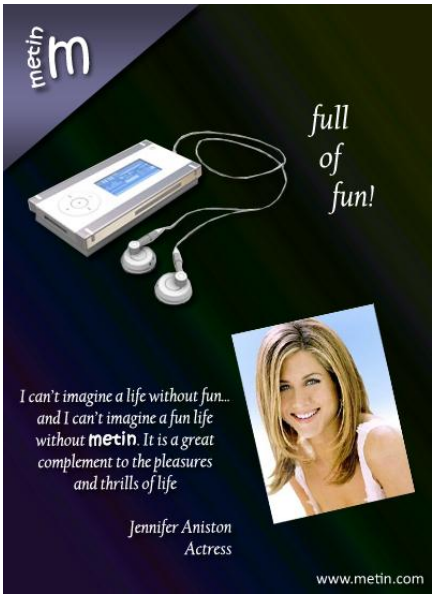
Study 4 Ads:



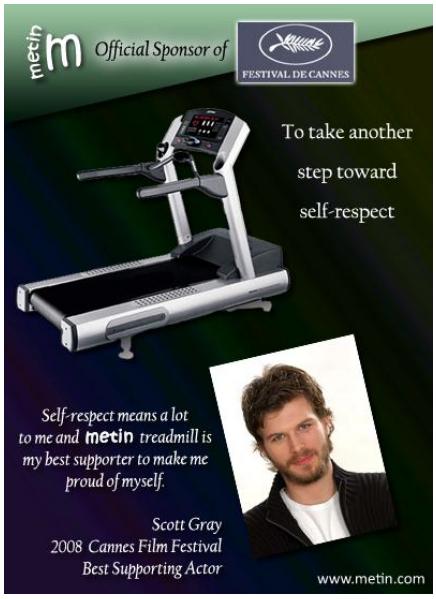


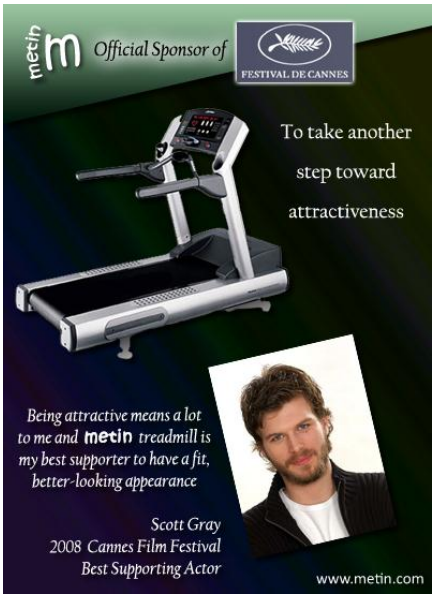
Study 5 Ads:

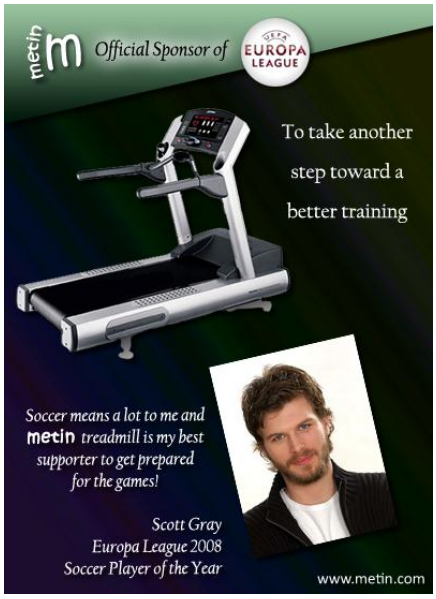

Spending time with family and friends is the greatest source of my happiness. And while sharing my life with them, RESIM is always with us.
Lisa Andrews
2008 Miss World
Full of fun
www.resim.com
RESIM Official Sponsor of
Miss World


metin
full of fun!
I can't imagine a life without fun... and I can't imagine a fun life without metin. It is a great complement to the pleasures and thrills of life
Jennifer Aniston
Actress
www.metin.com

Study 6 Ads:


metin
Official Sponsor of
FESTIVAL DE CANNES
To take another
step toward
self-respect
Self-respect means a lot to me and metin treadmill is my best supporter to make me proud of myself.
Scott Gray
2008 Cannes Film Festival
Best Supporting Actor
www.metin.com


metin
Official Sponsor of
FESTIVAL DE CANNES
To take another
step toward
attractiveness
Being attractive means a lot to me and metin treadmill is my best supporter to have a fit, better-looking appearance
Scott Gray
2008 Cannes Film Festival
Best Supporting Actor
www.metin.com


metin
Official Sponsor of
UEFA
EUROPA
LEAGUE
To take another
step toward a
better training
Soccer means a lot to me and metin treadmill is my best supporter to get prepared for the games!
Scott Gray
Europa League 2008
Soccer Player of the Year
www.metin.com

APPENDIX D

SURVEY INSTRUMENT USED IN MAIN STUDIES

Ad Attitude:

Please answer the following questions based on the ad you just saw.

Please indicate your overall evaluation of the **advertisement** (not the product) for RESIM Treadmill.

Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Positive
Undesirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Desirable
Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unappealing
Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unfavorable

Brand Attitude:

Please indicate your overall evaluation of RESIM Treadmill as a product.

Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Positive
Undesirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Desirable
Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unappealing
Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unfavorable

Behavioral Intentions:

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree								Strongly Agree
The likelihood of purchasing RESIM Treadmill is high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My willingness to buy RESIM Treadmill is high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My willingness to recommend RESIM Treadmill to others is high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I would recommend RESIM Treadmill to someone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Demand Awareness:

What do you think the purpose of the study is?

_____

Celebrity Evaluation:

Now, we would like you to indicate your overall evaluation and feelings of Martha Stewart:

Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Untrustworthy
Unlikeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Likeable
Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unattractive
Unknowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Knowledgeable
Unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Familiar
Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Unfavorable

Match-Up (Perceived Congruence):

Now, we would like you to indicate your opinions on the combination of Treadmill and Martha Stewart:

Does not go together	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Goes together
Does not match	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Matches very well
Consistent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Inconsistent
Very relevant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very irrelevant

Product Involvement:

People are more involved with a product category if that product category is important and relevant to them, if the product category matters a lot to them, and if they have a strong interest in that product category.

Please indicate to what extent you are involved with the following product categories.

	Not at all involved								Extremely involved
Dinnerware	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Product Knowledge:

Some people have more knowledge about some product categories. Accordingly, they are able to compare different brands based on product features.

Please rate your knowledge of the following products as compared to the average person:

	One of the least knowledgeable								One of the most knowledgeable
Dinnerware	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Consumer Values:

The following is a list of things that some people look for or want out of life. Sometimes you find that you have to give up a little of something important because something else is most important to you. Please study the list carefully and then rate each thing on how important it is in your daily life, where 1= important to me, and 9 = most important to me.

	Important to Me								Most Important to Me
Sense of belonging (to be accepted and needed by our family, friends, and community)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Excitement (to experience stimulation and thrills)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Warm relationships with others (to have close companionships and intimate friendships)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-fulfillment (to find peace of mind and to make the best use of your talents)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Being well-respected (to be admired by others and to receive recognition)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	Important to Me								Most Important to Me
Fun and enjoyment in life (to lead a pleasurable, happy life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Security (to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-respect (to be proud of yourself and confident with who you are)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A sense of accomplishment (to succeed at what you want to do)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Now re-read the items and choose the one thing that is most important to you in your daily life:

___ Sense of belonging (to be accepted and needed by our family, friends, and community)
___ Excitement (to experience stimulation and thrills)
___ Warm relationships with others (to have close companionships and intimate friendships)
___ Self-fulfillment (to find peace of mind and to make the best use of your talents)
___ Being well-respected (to be admired by others and to receive recognition)
___ Fun and enjoyment in life (to lead a pleasurable, happy life)
___ Security (to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack)
___ Self-respect (to be proud of yourself and confident with who you are)
___ A sense of accomplishment (to succeed at what you want to do)

APPENDIX E

MEASURES USED TO IDENTIFY CELEBRITY AND VALUES

Celebrity Values:

The following is a list of things that some people look for or want out of life. Sometimes people find that they have to give up a little of something important because something else is most important to them.

Please study the list carefully and then rate each thing on how important it is for Martha Stewart, where 1= important to Martha Stewart, and 9 = most important to Martha Stewart.

	Important								Most Important
Sense of belonging (to be accepted and needed by our family, friends, and community)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Excitement (to experience stimulation and thrills)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Warm relationships with others (to have close companionships and intimate friendships)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-fulfillment (to find peace or mind and to make the best use of your talents)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Being well-respected (to be admired by others and to receive recognition)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Fun and enjoyment in life (to lead a pleasurable, happy life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Security (to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-respect (to be proud of yourself and confident with who you are)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A sense of accomplishment (to succeed at what you want to do)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Product Values:

To what extent is Treadmill representative of the following statements?

	Not at all representative								Very representative
Sense of belonging (to be accepted and needed by our family, friends, and community)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Excitement (to experience stimulation and thrills)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Warm relationships with others (to have close companionships and intimate friendships)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-fulfillment (to find peace or mind and to make the best use of your talents)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Being well-respected (to be admired by others and to receive recognition)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Fun and enjoyment in life (to lead a pleasurable, happy life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Security (to be safe and protected from misfortune and attack)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-respect (to be proud of yourself and confident with who you are)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A sense of accomplishment (to succeed at what you want to do)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

APPENDIX F

DEBRIEFING STATEMENT

Study: Understanding the Congruence between Celebrities and Products

This study aims to examine the congruence between celebrities and products they tend to endorse. To examine these relationships, we conducted an experiment. In this study, all participants examined some real magazine ads and experimental ads that included a celebrity and a product. For some participants, there was a good match-up between the celebrity and product (e.g., Jennifer Aniston and MP3 player). For other participants, the match-up between the celebrity and product was not good (e.g., Martha Stewart and a video game console).

Our purpose is to understand whether consumers' perceptions of celebrities' values match up with consumers' perceptions of products' values. In other words, we want to understand whether there should be congruence between celebrities and products these celebrities endorse in terms of personal values.

Marketing Implication: The findings of this study will help consumer researchers and practitioners to understand the nature of the relationship between celebrities and products. It is expected that marketing campaigns are successful when there is congruence between celebrities and products they endorse. The findings of this study can be used to examine successful and unsuccessful marketing campaigns that have used the celebrities studied in this project. This knowledge is essential to improving both consumer well-being and marketing effectiveness.

If you have any questions regarding the research, please contact Eda Gurel-Atay at egurelat@uoregon.edu. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact the Office for Protection of Human Subjects at the University of Oregon, (541) 346-2510, or the Marketing Department Subject Pool Coordinator, Robert Madrigal at (541) 346-5163.

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