

**AN ANALYSIS OF ENDORSER-PRODUCT MATCH-UP
AND ENDORSER LIKABILITY
ON BRAND ATTITUDES**

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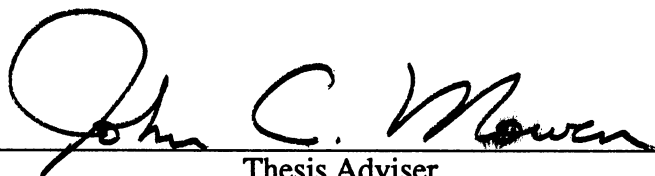
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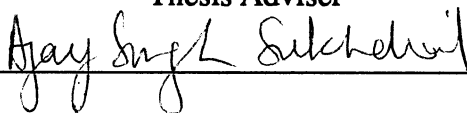
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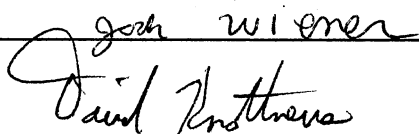
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
General Background	1
Scope of Study	5
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	8
Source Characteristics	8
Match-Up	27
III. DERIVATION OF HYPOTHESES	36
The Hypotheses	36
IV. METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS	44
Pretest	44
Research Design	58
Procedure	61
Results	62
Testing of Hypotheses	67
Exploratory Variables	70
V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS	77
Discussion of Findings	77
Limitations	82
Contributions and Practical Implications	83
Directions for Future Research	84
BIBLIOGRAPHY	86
APPENDIX A - PRODUCTS AND ENDORSERS QUESTIONNAIRE FOR 72 PRETEST SUBJECTS	91
APPENDIX B - PRODUCTS AND ENDORSERS QUESTIONNAIRE FOR 66 PRETEST SUBJECTS	107
APPENDIX C - PRODUCT ENDORSER QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINIS- TERED TO 167 MAIN EXPERIMENT SUBJECTS	118

Chapter	Page
APPENDIX D - ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS: ITEM-TO-TOTAL CORRELATIONS	129
APPENDIX E - ADVERTISEMENTS CREATED FOR MAIN EXPERIMENT	134

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means for Dependent Measures of Match-Up on Pain Relievers	53
2. ANOVA Results for Dependent Measures of Match-Up on Pain Relievers	53
3. ANOVA Results for Dependent Measures of Match-Up on Drink Mixes	54
4. Means for Dependent Measures of Match-Up on Drink Mixes	54
5. ANOVA Results for Dependent Variables Pretest	56
6. Means for Dependent Measures for Each Experimental Treatment Pretest	56
7. Means for Dependent Measures for Each Level of Likability Manipulation Pretest	57
8. Factor Analysis of Source Perception Factor Structure	63
9. Means for Dependent Measures for Each Level of Likability Manipulation Main Experiment	66
10. ANCOVA for Attitude Toward the Brand	68
11. ANCOVA for Attitude Toward the Ad	68
12. ANCOVA for Behavioral Intentions	69
13. ANCOVA for Attitude Toward the Brand Blocking on Similarity	72
14. ANCOVA for Attitude Toward the Ad Blocking on Similarity	73
15. ANCOVA for Attitude Toward the Brand Blocking on Involvement	75
16. Source Perception Variable Correlation Analysis	76

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Graphical Representation of Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3	43
2. Research Design of Drink Mix and Pain Reliever Pretest	50
3. Experimental Design of Cologne Pretest	50
4. Interaction Between Involvement and Match-Up for Attitude Toward the Brand	51

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

General Background

The topic of endorsements has received considerable attention in recent years from marketing practitioners, (Forkan 1980; Marshall 1987; Newcomb and Palmeri 1990; and Tanzer 1986), and academicians (Atkin and Block 1983; Burroughs and Feinberg 1987; Freidman and Freidman 1979; Freiden 1984; Kamins 1990; Kamins, Brand, Hoeke, and Moe 1989; McCracken 1989; Ohanian 1990). Freiden (1984) has suggested several factors that have contributed to the continued interest in the topic. First, citing the example of Michael Jackson's \$10 million endorsement of Pepsi, he argues that the cost of celebrity talent may be quite high. Second, the cost of airing commercials is substantial. Third, the celebrity selection may impact the advertisement's effectiveness in gaining awareness and recall.

Another reason for the continued interest in the topic of endorsements is the pervasiveness of celebrity endorsements in today's advertising. In 1975, a Gallup and Robinson study estimated that celebrities were featured in 15% of prime time commercials (Forkan 1975). By 1978, the number was reported to be over 20% (Kamins et al. 1989). It was recently reported Coke and Diet Coke alone featured 27 celebrities in their commercials, not to mention 31 professional football players (*Wall Street Journal* 1990).

While endorsements are becoming increasingly prevalent, the effectiveness of this approach is questionable. Kamins et al. (1989) pointed out that although celebrities tend

to make likable and attractive endorsers, they often are not believable. Celebrities are frequently used because they are thought to increase attention level, which should theoretically lead to higher levels of awareness. However, an extensive research effort by McCollum/Spielman Company, which analyzed data from twelve years of celebrity commercials, concluded that only 41% of all celebrity commercials achieved better than average success at fostering brand awareness (Forkan 1980).

A considerable amount of research has focused on identifying endorser characteristics that determine effectiveness. This stream of research was concerned with communication in general and has only more recently been applied to the endorsement process. The source effects literature is based up two distinct models (McCracken 1989). The first model originated with Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (1953) and contends that the effectiveness of a communication depends on the credibility of the source. Source credibility is said to be determined by the source's level of expertise and trustworthiness. In contrast, McGuire's (1985) source attractiveness model argues that the effectiveness of a source depends on the familiarity, likability, and/or similarity of the source to the communication's receiver. Individuals are thought to be persuaded by those they find attractive.

One problem in the current literature is that the source credibility and attractiveness models fail to consider the importance of the connection between the product and the endorser in determining endorser effectiveness. These models imply that an endorser need only be likable, attractive, familiar, expert, or trustworthy in order to be effective. As McCracken (1989) points out, the source models also imply that endorsers rating highly on these dimensions should be persuasive, regardless of the product they are endorsing.

Advertisers find likable celebrities to be highly desirable as endorsers. Their demand for these personalities has driven endorsement fees to extremely high levels. Bill Cosby

was reportedly paid \$1.5 million for endorsing Coca Cola and Jell-O pudding. Alan Alda, another highly likable endorser signed a \$2 million a year contract with Atari (Sherman 1985). Unfortunately, the hiring of likable endorsers does not guarantee that they will be persuasive. For example, Bill Cosby successfully served as an endorser for Kodak, Coca-Cola, and General Foods, but was ineffective as an endorser for E. F. Hutton (McCracken 1989). Eventually, Cosby was dropped as E. F. Hutton's spokesperson despite the company's \$6 million investment in the campaign (Marshall 1987). Atari was not satisfied with Alda's effectiveness as an endorser, even though they were required to continue paying the actor until the contract expired (Sherman 1985).

Although many advertisers seem determined to hire likable endorsers, some endorsers who have been rated as unlikable have nevertheless been in high demand. For example, Joe Namath has been rated as one of the least admired, least liked, and least trusted of the top athletes (*Dun's Review* 1977). Bic has successfully used the unlikable John McEnroe as an endorser for its razor blades (Kahle and Homer 1985).

In an effort to explain why unlikable endorsers are sometimes effective, Kahle and Homer (1985) introduced the "match-up hypothesis." They argued that McEnroe's effectiveness was a result of the degree to which his image matched up with the image of the razor blades. Since razor blades are an attractiveness-related product, it was McEnroe's physical attractiveness and not his likability (or lack of) that contributed to his effectiveness. Advertising practitioners have stressed the importance of selecting the "right" celebrity for the product being endorsed (Forkan 1980; Sherman 1985). Marshall (1987) claims that the selection of endorsers who are poorly suited for the product they are endorsing is probably the most commonly made marketing mistake. There are numerous examples of ineffective endorsements attributed to weakly-matched endorsers and products. For example, while the conservative and hardworking image of John

Houseman worked well for the investment firm of Smith Barney (McCracken 1989), McDonald's was disappointed in consumer's response to Houseman's endorsement of the fast food giant. Evidently, people had trouble picturing a man like Houseman patronizing McDonald's. When asked about their obvious blunder in the endorser selection process, McDonald's executives simply replied "it seemed like a good thing at the time" (Marshall 1987).

Interestingly, there is only a very limited amount of empirical research investigating the link between product and endorser. Mowen and Brown (1980) were among the first to recognize a need for an investigation of this connection and investigated the question of whether celebrity effectiveness was diminished as a result of multiple endorsements. Basing their research on attribution and balance theory, the authors found that products endorsed by celebrities involved in multiple endorsements were viewed less favorably than those endorsed by a single endorser. Other researchers have found that the perceptions of spokesperson credibility and attitude toward ads featuring physically attractive endorsers were contingent upon the degree to which the product is attractiveness-related (Kamins 1990). It was found that physically attractive endorsers endorsing the attractiveness-related products were viewed more favorably relative to physically unattractive celebrities.

In an attempt to empirically investigate the match-up hypothesis, Misra (1986) created fictitious products in order to manipulate endorser/product congruency. Although likability was not manipulated experimentally, correlations between attitude toward the spokesperson and attitude toward the brand were assessed through least square regression. It was found that when the celebrity spokesperson is congruent with the brand, a transfer of affect takes place. However, when the spokesperson used was incongruent or irrelevant, the transfer of affect may or may not take place. Misra (1986) suggested that studies should be conducted to ascertain under what conditions affect

transfer takes place, even in unmatched conditions. The present study expands on Misra's (1986) call for more research on the advertisement endorsement match-up and affect transfer. Unlike Misra's study, this research effort looks at affect by experimentally manipulating the likability of the endorser. Also, this study completes this task without using existing celebrities as treatments. As will be discussed in a later section, there are numerous examples in the literature of potentially confounded findings (i.e., Kamins 1990, and Kahle and Homer 1985) due to the researchers' reliance on existing celebrities.

Considering the success of unlikable but well-matched endorsers (e.g., Namath and McEnroe), it seems appropriate to question the importance of likability in relation to product/endorser match-up. In other words, is the expense of hiring highly likable endorsers an appropriate use of the advertiser's budget? Would they be more successful to instead focus their efforts on selecting endorsers that match up well with the product or service? Is likability even a factor in endorser effectiveness when product and endorser are well-matched?

Given that the relationship between match-up and likability is an important question to both practitioners and academicians, the present study empirically investigates the relationship between these two variables. Fiske's (1982) schema-triggered affect model is used to derive three hypotheses.

Scope of Study

Chapter II reviews the celebrity endorser and source effects literature. The review integrates findings from a variety of areas which include social psychology, communications, marketing, and advertising. The source credibility literature will be reviewed, as will the source attractiveness literature. Research on likability, physical attractiveness, and similarity is considered, with special attention given to the myriad of definitions

associated with likability, which will be distinguished from the broader construct of attractiveness. In this study, source likability is conceptualized as a person's attitude towards the source.

Chapter III develops specific research hypotheses concerning a predicted interaction between likability and match-up. Previously proposed theoretical explanations of match-up are reviewed. Theoretical support for the present hypotheses are also provided.

Chapter IV includes a description of the 2X2X2 (likability X product X endorser) factorial design used in the main experiment and discusses the pretests conducted in order to arrive at the specific experimental stimuli. As previously mentioned, this experiment is unique in that through pretesting, biographies of fictitious endorsers will be created and paired with fictitious products so that the resulting combinations included endorsers who were either well-matched or poorly-matched to their products. Likability was manipulated by embedding remarks attributed to the endorser that indicate either a positive or negative attitude toward undergraduate college students. In the main experiment, subjects first read biographical information about the endorser and then viewed a print advertisement featuring a fictitious brand and a fictitious endorser. Finally, they were requested to complete the dependent measures section. The fourth chapter also presents the analysis of the pretest and main experiment results. In one section the data will be analyzed through the analysis of covariance.

Chapter V discusses findings, limitations, contributions and practical implications of the study, future match-up research possibilities, and recommendations for future research.

The rather limited amount of empirical research investigating match-up has failed to devote adequate attention to construct definition and scale development. In fact, researchers have limited their match-up manipulation checks to single-item scales. The predictive validity of this scale will be assessed in one of the pilot tests.

The contribution of this research effort can be summarized as follows. First, the study can be viewed as contributing to the development of marketing constructs of endorser likability and match-up. Second, this is the first experiment which involves an orthogonal manipulation of these two variables. In addition, it is the first endorser experiment to use fictitious endorsers in an effort to minimize confounding. Third, the study develops an instrument that will allow practitioners and researchers to assess the appropriateness of a celebrity's endorsement of a product. Finally, the importance of match-up in allowing for the transfer of feelings toward likable endorsers to brands will be assessed, thus providing insight to practitioners regarding which conditions are important to endorser likability.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although many advertising practitioners have recognized the importance of the connection between the celebrity image and the product image (*Dun's Review* 1977), much of the academic research has sought to identify source characteristics that impact the persuasiveness of a message. Some commonly mentioned source characteristics include: likability, physical attractiveness, expertise, trustworthiness, familiarity, and similarity to the audience. This literature review will briefly present the relevant research relating to source characteristics. Through this review several goals will be accomplished. First, research on source attractiveness and its elements will be considered. Second, research on source credibility will also be considered. Third, the relationship of each variable to source likability and endorser/product match-up will be considered and hypotheses will be developed.

Source Characteristics

The source characteristics studied to date have usually been considered to be part of the components of either source credibility or attractiveness (McGuire 1985; Hass 1981). This partitioning scheme is based upon Kelman's (1961) three modes of attitude change: internalization, identification, and compliance. Internalization occurs when the receiver is trying to form an objectively correct attitude, and thus is concerned with validity of the message. According to the model, source credibility (trust and expertise) leads to internalization of the message arguments and more enduring attitudes. Attractiveness

(liking, familiarity, and/or similarity) of the source leads to identification with the source and imitation in an effort to enhance one's self-esteem. Compliance, the third mode of attitude change, occurs when receivers are trying to either avoid punishment or obtain rewards from a source. In these situations source power is the critical cue. Compliance is less relevant in an advertising context.

In the following sections, literature relevant to each of the source characteristics will be reviewed. In addition, the relationship between these constructs and the construct of liking will be considered.

Source Credibility

Source credibility has been the most heavily researched source characteristic. Most authors have considered it be made up of two components—trustworthiness and expertise (Hass 1981; Hovland, Janis and Kelly 1953; Sternthal, Phillips, and Dholakia 1978; Weiner and Mowen 1985). Trustworthiness has been defined by Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (1953), as "the degree to which an audience perceives the assertions made by a communicator to be ones that the speaker considers valid." In contrast, they define expertise as "the extent to which a speaker is perceived to be capable of making correct assertions."

Researchers in speech communications studying the dimensionality of source credibility through factor analytic studies have generally supported the notion that source credibility is composed of expertise and trustworthiness (McCroskey 1966; Berlo, Lemert, and Mertz 1970). Other researchers have also found a dynamism or activity factor (Lemert 1963; Markham 1965). However, as Giffin (1967) has indicated, the dynamism factor operates with more strength in response to speakers giving live speeches than to responses elicited by the images of well-known persons. Therefore, this dimension may be less relevant in the context of celebrity endorsers. Other researchers

have also identified a personal attraction dimension, which involves likability and affiliation (Giffin 1967). DeSarbo and Harshman (1985) include an attractiveness and likability dimension; Ohanian (1990) includes an attractiveness dimension in scales developed for assessing celebrity endorsers' credibility. Thus, several researchers support the idea that likability is an element of source credibility.

Early researchers concluded that highly credible sources have been found to be more persuasive than less credible sources (Kelman and Hovland 1953). However, it has been found that in some instances a less credible source may actually be more persuasive. Sternthal, Dholakia, and Leavitt (1978) found that endorsers possessing lower levels of credibility were more persuasive than their highly credible counterparts when influencing the attitudes of subjects who were favorably predisposed to the message. Presumably, less credible sources served to motivate the favorably predisposed subjects to generate support arguments so they would believe their position was adequately represented. Those exposed to the more credible source did not experience this need to generate support arguments.

A review of the source credibility literature led Weiner and Mowen (1985) to conclude that the construct of attractiveness and the components of credibility had been confounded in many of these studies. For example, Miller and Basehart (1969) used the likable President Dwight Eisenhower as the high credibility manipulation, and George Rockwell (the head of the American Nazi party) as the less credible manipulation. Weiner and Mowen (1985) orthogonally manipulated expertise and trustworthiness, while holding attractiveness constant, and found that expert sources influenced perceptions of the product's qualities independent of the source's attractiveness.

Relationship of Credibility and Liking. Researchers have generally found a relatively high degree of correlation between trustworthiness and likability. Friedman and Friedman (1976) found a strong relationship between likability and trust for political figures. Friedman, Slanteramo and Triana (1979) found that celebrity likability correlated more strongly with trust (.82) than did the celebrity attributes of awareness (.32), similarity (.69), lifestyle (.67), and physical attractiveness (.55). The authors suggested that we like those we trust, rather than dislike those we trust (or trust those we like rather than distrust those we like), because to do otherwise would probably create a great deal of dissonance. While admitting that strong correlations do not necessarily imply causality, the authors nevertheless suggest that in the context of celebrity endorsements, being liked by the public is conducive to trust.

Other research efforts lend support to the contention that likability and trustworthiness are closely related. Undergraduates rated the likability of 555 adjectives in a study by Anderson (1969). Interestingly, five of the eight most highly rated adjectives (sincere, honest, truthful, trustworthy, and dependable) appear to be elements of the trustworthiness construct.

There is also evidence to suggest that the expertise component of credibility may also be highly correlated with likability. Chaiken (1980) found that in addition to being regarded as more sincere, trustworthy, and unbiased, the likable communicators were regarded as possessing higher levels of expertise. In light of this, the researcher expressed concern that her manipulation of likability was confounded with these other variables.

Buhr (1987) found that perceptions of celebrity expertise were positively related to endorser attractiveness, likability, and familiarity (the last three items were measured with a single-item scale). Expertise was manipulated by having tennis stars endorse either a tennis racquet (high expertise) or a hand-held vacuum cleaner (low expertise). Thus,

athlete endorsers may be most influential when endorsing products about which they are experienced. These findings also suggest that a celebrity's likability may be context-specific, since the perceived likability of the celebrity tended to depend on the type of product that was being promoted. Although this was a study conducted by psychologists and published in a psychology journal, the manner in which expertise was manipulated makes it a manipulation of match-up.

Evidence also exists which suggests that expertise may not lead to liking. Horai, Naccari, and Fatoullah (1974) manipulated expertise and physical attractiveness in a factorial design experiment. They found that physical attractiveness influenced the subject's liking for the communicator but that expertise did not influence it. Perhaps this apparent inconsistency may be explained by how the manipulations were conducted. Horai, Naccari, and Fatoullah (1974) manipulated expertise by attributing a communication to either a professor of education presently teaching at a university (high expertise) or a teacher's aid presently teaching at a high school (low expertise). The ninth-grade students who were used as subjects may have perceived the teacher's aid as being more similar to themselves or more familiar than the college professor. Thus, the researchers may have confounded expertise and similarity.

Summary of Findings. Generally, source credibility has been shown to enhance persuasion. However, situations exist in which less credible sources were actually more persuasive (Sternthal, Phillips, and Dholakia 1977). Some researchers have cautioned that many of the source credibility studies have confounded attractiveness with credibility, although some would argue that attractiveness is indeed part of the source credibility construct.

Trustworthiness has consistently been shown to be highly correlated with liking (Friedman and Friedman 1976; Friedman et al. 1979; Anderson 1969). Evidence

regarding the direction of the causal relationship between trust and liking is inconclusive, however. In general, the studies investigating the relationship between expertise and liking have yielded inconsistent results (Buhr 1987; Horai et al. 1974).

Source Attractiveness Model

In contrast to the source credibility model (Hovland et al. 1953), the source attractiveness model (McGuire 1968) argues that the message effectiveness is impacted by the source's "similarity," "likability," "familiarity," and "attractiveness" to the respondent. The following sections involve a detailed look at this model.

Similarity. Several studies have found that a communication recipient's perceived similarity to a communicator is one factor that impacts persuasion (Brock 1965; Burnstein, Stotland, & Zander 1961). Other researchers have found that similarity also leads to increased liking (Byrne 1971). The studies investigating the relationship between similarity and persuasion have reported inconsistent results. Some researchers have concluded that similarity enhances persuasion, while others argue that similarity may actually impede persuasion. Burnstein et al. (1961) conducted one of the most referenced studies. They found a positive relationship between similarity and persuasion. They varied the level of similarity of an adult deep sea diving communicator to a group of children. The researchers accomplished this by presenting the communicator as either having been raised in the children's town or as being from a distant city. They found that the children adopted more of the preferences of the diver with whom they shared a common background. Another study supporting the idea that similarity leads to persuasion was conducted by Brock (1965). This experiment with a retail paint salesman found that customers were more effectively persuaded by salesmen with whom they shared similar paint use than by salesmen with dissimilar paint use.

Other studies have provided evidence that dissimilar sources may actually be more persuasive than similar sources. Alpert and Anderson (1973) argued that source-receiver dissimilarity along selected relevant attributes may facilitate rather than inhibit persuasion. For example, a highly persuasive expert source may be perceived as being dissimilar simply because of the level of expertise that facilitated their persuasion. In contrast, more similar but less expert peers would probably be less persuasive. The researchers found that a moderately-distant source was more effective at gaining agreement with statements pertaining to airlines than more similar sources. These results were interpreted as indicating that optimal dissimilarity might exist for persuasive effectiveness.

Swartz (1984) investigated the relationship between source expertise; source similarity has also been investigated in an advertising context (Swartz 1984). While an inverse relationship was hypothesized, the manipulation of similarity and expertise in a factorial experiment revealed no underlying relationship between the two variables. In other words, the presence of either similarity or expertise did not impact the other source characteristic. Similarity and expertise operate as a separate dimension independent of the other.

In the Swartz (1984) study, similarity was manipulated by attributing different occupations of the message sources. Sources were presented as students in the high similarity manipulation, and as other occupational types (receptionist, nutritionist) in the low similarity treatment. The experimenter portrayed the endorser as being knowledgeable about the field of nutrition in the low expertise treatment.

Swartz (1984) used a picture of a different source for each treatment, rather than simply varying the occupational title. In doing so it appears that other variables, such as physical attractiveness, may have inadvertently been manipulated. While each of the low expertise treatments appear to be highly attractive, the high expertise treatments appear to

be less attractive. In fact, the student majoring in nutrition appeared to be overweight and posed in a defensive body posture.

Leavitt and Kaigler-Evans (1975) provided evidence that a monotonic relationship between similarity and persuasion does not exist. The authors found that while the more similar sources in their study were better liked, they were actually less influential with respect to fashion statements than less similar sources. They suggest that sources seen as similar to the self would be least likely to have perceived as possessing expertise.

Relationship of Similarity to Likable. A considerable amount of research has been conducted in an effort to assess the impact of attitude similarity on likable. Researchers have typically used the Byrne (1971) attraction paradigm, which involves varying the degree to which a subject and a "bogus stranger" agree in their evaluations of attitude objects. In general, these researchers have reported finding a strong relationship between attitude similarity and liking (Grush et al. 1975). Attraction has repeatedly been found to vary as a positive linear function of the proportion of shared similar attitudes or opinions (Byrne and Griffin 1973).

The effect of similarity of personality variables on liking has also been investigated. Studies involving friendship pairs have generally found that friends are relatively more similar to each other on personality variables than random pairs of subjects (Izard 1960). However, similarity has not always been found to breed liking. Grush et al. (1975) found that students were most attracted to instructors who were dissimilar on traits relevant to the skill of teaching (ascendancy and personal relations). Dissimilarity on traits irrelevant to teaching did not enhance persuasion.

It was impossible to tell from early research whether similarity directly influenced persuasion, or whether it enhanced persuasion by increasing liking. In response to this question Berscheid (1966) found that similarity on dimensions relevant to the topic of the

message facilitated persuasion, even when source attractiveness was held constant. When subjects believed that they shared the source's values on education, they were influenced more on an educational issue than on an international affairs issue. However, when they were led to believe that they shared the source's values on international affairs, they were influenced more on this issue than on the education issue.

It has also been argued that a two-way causal relationship exists between similarity and likability (McGuire 1969). Similarity leads to liking, which leads to an exaggeration of perceived similarity (Sampson and Insko 1964). Such perceptual distortions have been found to be most common in early stages of relationships (Newcomb 1961).

Summary of Findings on Similarity. Research investigating the impact of similarity on persuasion is inconsistent, which may be explained by the moderating effect of expertise. It appears that persuasion is enhanced when dissimilarities are on dimensions that lead to increased perception of expertise (Alpert and Anderson 1973; Leavitt and Kaigler Evans 1975). In other contexts, similarity may actually lead to an increased perception of expertise (Brock 1965; Burnstein et al. 1961). While many studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between similarity and liking (Byrne 1973), Berscheid (1966) found that similarity on relevant dimensions may facilitate persuasion, even when attraction for the source is held constant.

Physical Attractiveness

Physical attractiveness has been a popular topic of study for attitude change researchers. The abundance of physically attractive endorsers and models in advertising serves as a reminder of the importance that advertising practitioners place on the physical attractiveness of models and endorsers. Indeed, as Maddux and Rogers (1980) have pointed out, physical attractiveness is especially important in the mass media setting

where it is immediately perceived and highly salient characteristic relative to the less obvious attractiveness components of likability, familiarity, and similarity.

Physical attractiveness has been defined as the degree to which a person's facial features are pleasing to observe (Joseph 1982). Facial attractiveness has been the primary focus of attractiveness in the social sciences. Most of the attractiveness research has operationalized attractiveness by having a panel of judges rate the physical appearance of stimulus persons (Joseph 1982). The judges' ratings have tended to be consistent regardless of the judge's sex, age, socioeconomic class, and geographic region.

Many studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between source attractiveness and attitude change (Chaiken 1979; Joseph 1982; Horai et al. 1974; Kahle and Homer 1985). However, other studies have failed to support this idea (Cooper et al. 1974; Maddox and Rogers 1980; Baker and Churchill 1977; Mills and Harvey 1972; Norman 1976).

Early studies by Mills and Harvey (1972) and Norman (1976) reported that physical attractiveness had little effect on persuasion. As Horai et al. (1974) have pointed out, in both of these studies the source of the communication was either an attractive nonexpert, or an unattractive expert. Thus, the researchers appear to have confounded physical attractiveness and expertise. As Maddux and Rogers (1980) have pointed out, Norman (1976) and Mills and Harvey (1972) appear to have conceptualized attractiveness as a combination of similarity, familiarity, likability, and physical attractiveness. This is apparent when one notes that the attractive nonexpert manipulation consisted of a photograph of a stimulus person described as being a freshman vice president that was elected by popular vote, while the unattractive expert manipulation consisted of a photograph of a frowning, unattractive, middle-aged man described as a professor of education. It seems probable that relative to the education professor, the college-aged

subjects would perceive the popular co-ed as being more likable and similar to themselves.

In order to deal with the apparent confounding problems of the early studies, Horai et al. (1974) and Maddux and Rogers (1980) both manipulated physical attractiveness and expertise separately. However, they reported inconsistent findings. Horai et al. (1974) found a main effect for both physical attractiveness and expertise on persuasion, but detected no interaction between the two variables. They concluded that the two variables affected persuasion independently. Maddox and Rogers (1980) found that a manipulation of degree of expertise on sleep (professor of music versus professor of psychology) affected attitude ratings, whereas a manipulation of physical attractiveness (attractive photograph versus unattractive photograph) did not.

Other researchers have also failed to find main effects for physical attractiveness. For example, Cooper et al. (1974) found that subjects were more effectively persuaded by deviant-looking sources on the issue of income tax. Baker and Churchill (1977) found that the effect of source attractiveness was moderated by the type of product being advertised. They found that unattractive sources produced more intentions to buy than attractive sources when promoting a brand of perfume; but when promoting a brand of coffee, the opposite was true.

Many of the studies in which a main effect for physical attractiveness was not found involved messages that had no logical connection to physical attractiveness, i.e., sleep, income tax, and coffee. In these cases, endorser (communicator) and product (issue) were poorly matched. Thus, the usefulness of physically attractive communicators may be limited by the topic or type of product being advocated. Physical attractiveness may serve as a cue to the communicator's level of expertise in the case of products and issues that are relevant to physical attractiveness. For example, women may perceive Linda Evans as an expert on hair color but unknowledgeable on the topic of pickup trucks.

Research concerning the effect of physical attractiveness on source credibility (expertise and trustworthiness) is limited, since few researchers investigating physical attractiveness have taken measures of credibility. Joseph (1977) found that attractive communicators were perceived as being neither more qualified nor more trustworthy than unattractive sources on the topic of multiple-choice exams. Snyder and Rothbart (1971) found no difference between attractive and unattractive speakers on perceived honesty and competency, when communicating on the issue of lower speed limits for highways. However, Patzer (1983) found that attractive sources endorsing a pain reliever were perceived as possessing more expertise and trustworthiness than their less attractive counterparts.

Perhaps one reason that physically attractive endorsers tend to be more persuasive is that their physical attractiveness serves as a cue for perceivers to make inferences about the person's motivations, abilities, personal characteristics, and expertise. Indeed, people judged as possessing high levels of physical attractiveness tend to be judged more favorably than their less attractive counterparts (Dion et al. 1972). Research has shown that college men and women expected attractive people to possess more of the following desirable traits than unattractive people: strength, sexual warmth, sensitivity, kindness, poise and modesty (Dion et al. 1972). It has also been argued that attractive individuals may be more persuasive than unattractive persons because they actually do possess characteristics and skills that are relevant to effective communication. For example, Chaiken (1979) found differences between attractive and unattractive communicators in areas such as communication skills, educational accomplishments, and components of self concept.

Relationship of Physical Attractiveness and Likable. It has been shown that physical attractiveness generally leads to greater likability. Several studies manipulating source

physical attractiveness have found significant main effects when liking for the source is treated as a dependent variable (Mills and Aronson 1965; Snyder and Rothbart 1971; Horai et al. 1974; Joseph 1977). In addition, when Kahle and Homer (1985) manipulated both physical attractiveness and likability in a factorial experiment, the manipulation check revealed that the measures of the two constructs were correlated at a .44 level.

Another advertising study by Kamins (1990) found a strong linkage between likability and attractiveness. Their physically attractive treatment (Tom Selleck) was rated as much more likable than their low physically attractive treatment (Telly Savalas). The authors were forced to use likability as a covariate. As will be discussed later, this study appears to be seriously confounded.

Summary of Findings on Physical Attractiveness. Evidence from studies investigating the relationship between physical attractiveness and persuasion is inconclusive. However, the findings make more sense when one considers the degree to which the topic of the communication in the studies was related to physical attractiveness. Those studies reporting a positive relationship between physical attractiveness and persuasion (Horai et al. 1974; Chaiken 1979; Joseph 1982; Kahle and Homer 1985) have involved situations where the product or topic of communication was related to attractiveness. In several other studies which failed to support this conclusion (Cooper et al. 1974; Maddox and Rogers 1980; Baker and Churchill 1977; Mills and Harvey 1972; Norman 1976), the topic of communication was not related to attractiveness.

Likability

Likability has been defined in a number of ways. Webster's dictionary defines likability as "attractive, pleasant, and genial." McCracken (1989) defines likability as

affection for the source resulting from the source's physical appearance and behavior. A number of researchers studying interpersonal attraction in the field of social psychology have equated the constructs of liking and attitude. For example, Rubin (1974) suggests that "a likable person is one who is viewed as good or desirable on a number of dimensions, such as intelligence, competency, and trustworthiness." Ajzen (1974) conceptualized liking as "an attitude toward another person, which is determined by the belief that a person has certain attributes, multiplied by an evaluation of these attributes." Rubin (1974) argued that "liking is generally regarded as a more or less undifferentiated positive attitude toward another person, and that the evaluative or affective component is usually given the greatest emphasis." Similarly, liking has been defined by Park and Fink (1989) as "a global evaluation, a gut reaction of like or dislike for the target."

Numerous studies have investigated the effect of liking on persuasion (Eagly and Chaiken 1975; Jones and Brehm 1967; Kelman and Eagly 1965; Kahle and Homer 1985). Other studies have looked at the effect of independent variables such as similarity (e.g., Byrne 1971; Grush et al. 1975) and physical attractiveness (e.g., Mills and Aronson 1965; Snyder and Rothbart 1971; Horai et al. 1975; Joseph 1977) on liking. Although persuasion researchers have argued that the construct of attractiveness is composed of the elements of liking, familiarity, and similarity (e.g., McGuire 1969), interpersonal attraction researchers have argued that along with various forms of love and friendship, liking is a specific response component of interpersonal attraction (Huston and Levinger 1978). In contrast, familiarity, similarity, and physical attractiveness are viewed as antecedents or predictors of attraction (Huston 1974).

It may seem obvious that likable communicators will always be more effective than those less likable ones, all else being equal. However, numerous studies have shown that this is not always the case. Some of these were early studies investigating the relationship between likability and persuasion which served as tests for dissonance

theory. Zimbardo et al. (1965) found that compared to likable communicators, unlikable communicators were more effective at changing the attitudes toward eating grasshoppers of those agreeing to eat the insects. In contrast, likable communicators were more persuasive with those refusing to comply with the communicator's request. Presumably, those who voluntarily ate for unlikable communicators could not attribute their behavior to liking the communicator. In this study, the major source of dissonance was a commitment to engage in a disgusting behavior (eating fried grasshoppers). Jones and Brehm (1967) extended the findings of Zimbardo et al. (1965) by demonstrating that choosing to listen to a distasteful communication constituted a sufficiently strong commitment to product dissonance effects. The researchers found that unlikable endorsers were more persuasive than likable endorsers when subjects chose to listen to the message. While these studies were useful in determining conditions favorable to unlikable communicators, generalizability of these findings to an advertising/celebrity endorser context is questionable, especially when one considers the lack of commitment associated with the exposure to advertisements.

Other researchers have found that the subject's predisposition toward a particular message moderates the effects of the communicator's likability. Eagly and Chaiken (1975) found that likable and unlikable communicators did not differ in their persuasiveness when advocating desirable positions. However, they also found that likable communicators were more persuasive than unlikable ones when advocating undesirable positions. Eagly and Chaiken (1975) argued that the results supported attribution theory. Likable communicators were judged as more likely to advocate desirable positions, while unlikable endorsers were judged more likely to advocate undesirable positions. Likable endorsers were especially effective when their unexpected advocacy could be not be attributed to positive personality characteristics.

Researchers have also investigated how involvement moderates the effect of source likability on persuasion. Chaiken (1980) found that subjects who were highly involved in the message topic were persuaded to a greater extent when receiving five arguments from an unlikable source than when receiving one argument from a likable source. In contrast, low involvement subjects were persuaded more when receiving one argument from a likable source than when receiving five arguments from an unlikable source.

Chaiken theorized that low involvement subjects would engage in heuristic processing strategy, which involved the employment of simple decision rules such as, "people generally agree with people they like." In contrast, high involvement subjects would engage in a systematic processing strategy, which involved detailed processing of a message content. Interestingly, Chaiken found that likable sources were also perceived as being more trustworthy, expert, sincere, and unbiased than unlikable sources. Thus, likability was potentially confounded with these variables. It is also possible that they are naturally correlated because of a halo effect.

While Chaiken (1980) found that likability affected persuasion under conditions of low involvement, Kahle and Homer (1985) did not report finding any interaction between involvement and likability. Thus, the findings of Chaiken (1980) and Kahle and Homer (1985) are inconsistent. However, it should be noted that each of these studies involved a very different approach to manipulating likability, and it appears questionable whether Kahle and Homer successfully manipulated involvement. Chaiken manipulated likability through a transcript of an interview with the communicator. In the transcripts high (low) likability communicators praised (insulted) undergraduates. In contrast, Kahle and Homer's (1985) manipulation consisted of using existing celebrities who had been judged as likable or unlikable in pretests in an advertisement for a brand of disposable razors. Kahle and Homer (1985) omitted any discussion of a manipulation check for involvement, and made no reference to the significance of any interaction with the

involvement variable. One might conclude from this that the authors were unsuccessful in their manipulation of involvement.

It also worth noting that while Kahle and Homer (1985) found a main effect for attractiveness on attitudes, the likability difference was not significant. Furthermore, on the item assessing behavioral intention, a weak but significant main effect was observed for likability. Surprisingly, people were more likely to intend to purchase a product after exposure to an unlikable than a likable celebrity.

Operationalization of Likability as an Independent Variable. Likability has been operationalized in a number of different ways in persuasion research. While many of these studies claimed to be manipulating source attractiveness (e.g., Eagly and Chaiken 1975; Jones and Brehm 1967), source positivity or negativity (Zimbardo et al. 1965), or attitude toward the communicator (Kelman and Eagly 1965), many executed and checked manipulations in a similar manner. For example, Chaiken (1980) manipulated "likability" in a manner that was quite consistent with Eagly and Chaiken (1975), who claimed to be manipulating "attractiveness." In addition, both studies checked their manipulations with the same twelve-item scale, which measured the subjects' evaluation of the source along a number of dimensions including warmth, level of knowledge, modesty, intelligence, approachability, competency, likability, trustworthiness, pleasantness, sincerity, and friendliness. Some these items (competency and trustworthiness) are normally considered to be important dimensions of source credibility. Kelman and Eagly (1965) checked their manipulation of "attitude toward the communicator," by asking subjects to rate the communicator on a six-item scale, which included the items of trustworthiness, expertness, general attractiveness, representativeness, desire to emulate, and altruism.

It should be noted that not all likability researchers have verified their manipulations with multiple-item scales. Kahle and Homer (1985) simply asked their subjects to rate their level of like or dislike of the communicator on a single-item scale.

The early dissonance studies manipulated likability by having the communicator interact with his assistant according to a pre-arranged script (Zimbardo et al. 1965). The communicator behaved pleasantly toward the assistant in the high likability condition and quite formally toward him in the unlikable condition. In other studies, researchers have experimentally manipulated likability by presenting subjects with varied communicator responses to the question "How do you like working with undergraduates?" (Jones and Brehm 1967; Eagly and Chaiken 1975; Chaiken 1980). Likable communicators were presented as having a favorable attitude toward undergraduates, while unlikable communicators were presented as having an unfavorable attitude toward them.

An extensive review of the advertising literature revealed only one study that examined the effects of celebrity endorser likability on persuasion. In this study, Kahle and Homer (1985) varied likability by using existing celebrities in the likable/unlikable treatments. It should be noted that using existing celebrities as treatments exposed the study to the potential confounding of results. Since the researchers failed to take measures of source perception variables other than physical attractiveness and likability, it is impossible to determine that other variables were not being inadvertently manipulated.

Liking as a Dependent Variable. Likability has also been viewed extensively as a dependent variable. In fact, the majority of social psychology's interpersonal attraction research has treated liking as a dependent variable. Much of this research has measured liking through Byrne's (1971) interpersonal judgment scale, which consists of a six-item Likert rating scale on the dimensions of intelligence, knowledge of current events,

morality, adjustment, likability, and desirability as a work partner. The final two items are often combined to yield an index of attraction.

As mentioned earlier, persuasion researchers have also viewed liking as a dependent variable. This is especially true of those who have investigated how it is affected by physical attractiveness (e.g., Horai 1974; Prutzer 1983). In these studies, likability has typically been measured with a single-item scale. Frieden (1984) found that celebrity endorsers were perceived as more likable than CEO, expert, and typical consumers when endorsing television sets (a product high in performance and financial risk). However, the celebrity endorsers were rated less favorably in terms of credibility, relative to the other endorsers.

Recent interpersonal attraction research is especially helpful in addressing the question of whether or not an endorser's likability varies with the type of product being endorsed. Park and Fink (1989) found that although there was some agreement among judges' ratings of likability for certain targets, there was a significantly greater level of agreement when the judges were asked to rate the subjects' likability in a certain context (study partner, river raft guide, and roommate). Furthermore, the weightings of trait attributes predicting likability (honesty, friendliness, similarity, physical attractiveness, intelligence, etc.) varied with the specified role. For example, intelligence was found to be especially important in determining likability as a study partner while physical attractiveness was less important. Extrapolating these findings to the context of celebrity endorsements, the likability of a celebrity may depend upon the role they are assuming at the time, i.e., the endorser for product A. Thus, a person may generally dislike John Houseman as a human being, but like the man when fulfilling the role of endorser for an investment firm that claims to be hardworking. In support of this idea, Buhr (1987) found that tennis stars were perceived as being more likable when they were endorsing tennis racquets rather than vacuum cleaners.

Summary of Findings for Likability. Only a limited number of studies focus on the persuasiveness of likable communicators. In some of these studies, unlikable communicators have actually been shown to be more effective than likable ones. Kahle and Homer (1985) found that unlikable endorsers were actually more effective than likable endorsers on measures of behavioral intentions. Early studies served as tests for dissonance theory (i.e., Zimbardo 1965) and found that unlikable communicators were more effective with those who had committed to disgusting behaviors. The relationship between involvement and likability has also been investigated: Chaiken (1980) reported an interaction between the variables, and Kahle and Homer (1985) did not report an interaction (presumably because of an unsuccessful manipulation). Likability has been manipulated in a variety of ways in persuasion studies. In some studies (i.e., Eagly and Chaiken 1975), likability was manipulated via communicator's response to interviewer's question, "How do you like working with undergraduates?" In other studies (i.e., Kahle and Homer 1985), likability was manipulated by using existing celebrities, which opened the researchers up to a myriad of potential confounds. Thus, no advertising/celebrity endorser studies presently exist in which likability is manipulated in a relatively confound-free manner.

Match-Up

A number of researchers have argued that an important factor in determining endorser effectiveness is the degree to which the image of the celebrity and the image of the product "match up" (Baker and Churchill 1977, Forkan 1980; Hawkins, Best and Coney 1983; Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990; McCracken 1989; Sherman 1985). In effect, they have suggested a contingency approach to studying endorser effectiveness, implying that the success of a celebrity as an endorser will depend to a large extent on the product that is being endorsed. For example, John Houseman was highly effective as an

endorser for Smith Barney, but failed as an endorser for McDonald's (Sherman 1986). Bill Cosby was ineffective in his endorsements of E. F. Hutton, despite enjoying considerable success as an endorser for Jell-O Pudding Pops. Evidently, the honest and hardworking image of Houseman fit better with the investment firm than with the fast food chain, while Cosby's image as a good guy who relates to kids fit better with a frozen desert than with a brokerage firm (Bernstein 1984). Match-up appears to take place on a number of dimensions including expertise, attractiveness, and other attributes such as speed, wholesomeness, sophistication, etc. Each of these will be discussed in the following sections.

Match-Up on Physical Attractiveness

Some authors have focused on the physical attractiveness aspect of match-up, arguing that in the case of an attractiveness-related product (one that enhances the user's physical attractiveness), ad effectiveness is enhanced to the degree that there is congruence between product image and celebrity image on an attractiveness basis (Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990). Thus, the "match-up" hypothesis would predict that when the physical attractiveness of a celebrity "matches up" with the presence and degree to which the advertised product enhances attractiveness, then product and advertisement evaluations should be positively impacted (Kamins 1990).

A number of studies in the physical attractiveness literature support the match-up hypothesis (e.g., Kahle and Homer 1985), which has been used to explain some of the inconsistency found in this area of research (Kamins 1990). As mentioned in the previous section, studies concluding that physical attractiveness enhanced the communicator's persuasiveness tended to be dealing with topics or products that were related to attractiveness. In contrast, studies which found that physical attractiveness had

no effect on persuasion involved or topics which were unrelated to physical attractiveness, such as sleep, income tax, religious literature, etc.

Further support for the match-up hypothesis came from Kahle and Homer (1985). Although the authors did not directly manipulate relevance of product to attractiveness, they suggested that the main effect for physical attractiveness on attitudes and behavioral intention observed in their study was consistent with the predictions of the match-up hypothesis, since the advertisements used in their study were for razor blades, an attractiveness-related product.

Baker and Churchill's (1977) study is one of the few studies in the physical attractiveness literature to manipulate experimentally the product's relevance to attractiveness. The researchers manipulated model attractiveness and type of product advertised (coffee versus perfume) and found a significant interaction between these two variables on behavioral intention, but found no such interaction on the cognitive and affective variables. However, as Kamins (1990) has noted, this study dealt with models rather than endorsers, which might have explained the lack of interaction found on the cognitive and affective variables. They argued that in relation to endorsers, models may be more weakly linked with the advertised product.

Kamins (1990) manipulated type of product (luxury car versus computer) and the physical attractiveness of the endorser (Tom Selleck—attractive versus Telly Savalas—unattractive). The researcher found that in the case of an attractiveness-related product (luxury car), use of an attractive celebrity (Tom Selleck) had a significantly greater impact on measures of spokesperson credibility and attitude toward the ad than did the unattractive celebrity (Telly Savalas). However, in the case of the attractiveness-unrelated product, there was no significant difference between the attractive and unattractive celebrities on the various dependent measures.

It should be noted that the interaction observed by Kamins (1990) between spokesperson attractiveness and nature of product advertised was limited to the dependent measures of spokesperson credibility and attitude towards the ad. No such interaction was observed for these independent variables on the dependent variables of purchase intention and brand attitude. Perhaps not finding the interaction on dependent variables can be explained by the possibility that Telly Savalas was actually fairly well matched with the luxury car, but on dimensions other than physical attractiveness. For example, Savalas may have been perceived as affluent, wealthy, powerful, etc., each of which may have been relevant to the image of the luxury car. It is also possible that Selleck matched up with the luxury car on dimensions other than physical attractiveness. The actor drove a very expensive Ferrari automobile in playing the part of Thomas Magnum in the television series *Magnum P.I.* Thus, luxury cars may be closely linked to Selleck's image. Furthermore, it is possible that Selleck's experience with luxury automobiles may have allowed the actor to be perceived as possessing expertise on the subject. Unfortunately, the authors took no general measures of match up. Thus, while Selleck is clearly more attractive than Savalas, that does not necessarily mean that he matches up better with the product. Even if he does match up better, it may not be due to his physical attractiveness.

Attribute Match-Up

Celebrities and products may be matched on dimensions other than physical attractiveness. For example, O. J. Simpson was well matched on the attribute of speed in his endorsements for Hertz. Similarly, "Mean" Joe Green and Ideal trucks were well matched in advertisements which communicated the toughness of the toy trucks by having Green unsuccessfully attempt to crush the truck. Other examples of this sort of match-up include Cher for Uninhibited perfume, and Elizabeth Taylor for Passion.

Therefore, endorser effectiveness appears to be enhanced to the degree that they are linked with products in which the advertisement's message is congruent with a salient attribute of the endorser (e.g., Jenner's wholesomeness, Simpson's speed, Green's toughness, etc.).

Of the handful of studies which manipulated endorser/product match-up, only Misra (1986) has manipulated match-up on a dimension other than attractiveness or expertise. Misra manipulated the degree to which the attributes of the product (a classy wine versus a high energy breakfast drink) matched with attributes associated with the celebrity (Joan Collins versus Mary Lou Retton). A pairing of Collins with the classy wine was used in the high match-up treatment, as was a pairing of Retton with the breakfast drink. Low match-up treatments involved the combination of Collins and the breakfast drink, and Retton with the wine. It should be noted that the use of these two celebrities as endorsers raises the possibility of a potential confound. Clearly, Retton will be perceived as more likable than Collins. Misra (1986) focused on the effects of match-up on information processing and memory. He found that the matched condition was associated with a higher level of recall than the unmatched condition.

In addition to studying the effect of match-up on recall, Misra (1986) also investigated the extent to which endorser/product match-up influences transfer of affect. He found a significant correlation between brand attitudes and attitude toward the endorser when there was a high level of match-up. In contrast, when there was a low level of match-up, a significant correlation occurred only some of the time. These findings seem to suggest unlikable endorsers may have more of a negative affect on brand attitudes when there is a high level of match-up relative to a low level of match-up.

Expertise Match-Up

At times, endorsements are effective simply because the type of product being endorsed is one about which the endorser possesses expertise. An example of this type of match-up occurs when a tennis player endorses a particular brand of tennis racquet. In contrast, endorsers perceived as unqualified in their endorsements may be ineffective. For example, Jamie Farr may have appeared unqualified in his ineffective endorsement of Clinger's sticky-backed note pads (Sherman 1986).

In contrast to other "match-up" dimensions, the perception of the expertise dimension of "match-up" is contingent upon the type of product being endorsed. In contrast, the perceived physical attractiveness of a celebrity endorser would not be expected to vary appreciably with the type of product being endorsed (see Buhr 1987 for conflicting evidence). For example, Linda Evans would probably appear as equally physically attractive when endorsing a computer (a product unrelated to attractiveness) as when endorsing a brand of hair coloring (a product highly related to attractiveness). However, the persuasive impact of physical attractiveness will vary depending on the product being endorsed. As already mentioned, being matched on the dimension of attractiveness means that persuasion will be enhanced to the degree that there is a match between the endorser's physical attractiveness and to the degree that the product enhances physical attractiveness. In contrast, being matched on expertise does not mean that the endorser's level of expertise should be matched with the degree that the product enhances expertise. Instead, it simply means that the type of product allows the particular endorser to be perceived as being more or less of an expert.

The expertise dimension of match-up was manipulated in a study by Buhr et al. (1987). The authors matched existing tennis celebrities with either hand-held vacuum cleaners or a tennis racquet. However, as discussed in the credibility section of this study, the authors took dependent measures only on perceived endorser attractiveness,

likability, familiarity, and expertise, and found that ratings of the endorsers on each of these were significantly enhanced. They did not take persuasion-related dependent measures (e.g., attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the ad, behavioral intention, etc.). Thus, the effect of expertise "match-up" on persuasion cannot be assessed from this experiment. However, it is worth noting that celebrities were perceived as being more attractive, likable, and possessing more expertise when they were endorsing a tennis racquet relative to endorsements of hand-held vacuum cleaners.

Friedman and Friedman (1979) investigated possible interactions between product class and endorser type. Manipulating four spokesperson variables and three product variables, they found a significant endorser/product interaction. For household durable products such as vacuum cleaners, expert endorsers were more effective. In contrast, celebrities were more effective for luxury products such as costume jewelry.

Regular User of Product Match-Up

Another factor which seems to contribute to the extent to which endorser and product match is the degree to which the endorser is perceived as actually using the product in real life. The ineffectiveness of John Houseman as an endorser for McDonald's has been attributed to the fact that people had trouble picturing him frequenting a place like McDonald's (Sherman 1986). Similarly, critics scoffed at Dorothy Hamill's endorsement of Ford Tempo, not the kind of car one would expect a glamorous ice skating star to drive.

Attribution theory suggests that when consumers experience difficulty perceiving the celebrity as a user of the product, they may attribute the endorsement to a financial reward (external attribution). In contrast, the endorsement may be attributed to the celebrity's liking of the product (internal attribution) when the celebrity is a regular user, since liking the product would be sufficient motivation to be a regular user. The Ogilvy and Mather

agency stopped using celebrity endorsers when their research showed that consumers naturally assume that celebrity endorsers have been “bought off” (Ogilvy 1983).

Measurement of Match-Up

Of the few studies that have attempted to manipulate endorser/product “match-up,” only Misra (1986) has attempted to directly measure this variable in assessing the manipulation. However, in doing so Misra simply used a seven-point single-item scale of very appropriate/very inappropriate.

Kamins (1990) checked his manipulation of match-up indirectly by simply measuring the perceived attractiveness of the endorsers. However, while the attractiveness-relatedness of the products was assessed in a pretest, no measure was taken on this variable to serve as a manipulation check. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, the endorsers and luxury cars may have matched up on dimensions other than attractiveness.

Summary of Findings on Match-Up

Product/endorser match-up has been discussed by many authors as an important advertising contingency variable (e.g., Forkan 1980; Kahle and Homer 1985; Kamins 1990; Misra 1986; Sherman 1986). Some have focused on the physical attractiveness aspect of match-up (e.g., Kamins 1990), and found that the impact of physical attractiveness on attitude toward the ad and spokesperson credibility depended on the degree to which the endorser's physical attractiveness matched-up with the level to which the product enhances physical attractiveness. However, no such interaction was observed for the dependent variables of brand attitudes and purchase intention. Products and endorsers can also be matched with the main attribute that is being stressed in the message (e.g., speed, wholesomeness, toughness, etc.). Misra (1986) conducted the only study to date that looked at match up from this perspective. It was found that the

matched condition was associated with a higher level of recall than the unmatched condition. Finally, product/endorser "match-up" can occur on the dimension of expertise (Buhr et al. 1986). Though measures of brand attitudes and purchase intentions were not taken, the researchers found that perceived endorser attractiveness, likability, familiarity, and expertise were significantly enhanced when tennis celebrities were paired with racquets rather than hand-held vacuum cleaners.

CHAPTER III

DERIVATION OF HYPOTHESES

The relationship between likability and match-up is an important empirical question to advertisers. This study serves as the initial effort of experimentally manipulating likability and match-up. A review of the literature reveals no clear answer to expectation of results, since several theories appear to suggest different predictions. Therefore, a need for an empirical examination of this issue is required. A theoretical approach relevant to this question will be examined which is based upon Fiske's (1982) schema-triggered affect model.

The Hypotheses

Schema Theory

Schemas are higher-order cognitive structures which are thought to guide perception, thought, and action (Mandler 1982). According to Taylor and Crocker (1981), there are three major categories of schemas including person, event, and role schemas. Person schemas consist of trait-based impressions of specific individuals (Hamilton 1981), self (Markus 1977), and prototypical conceptions (Cantor and Mischell 1977). Event schemas or "scripts" describe specific or prototypic commonplace actions, such as "eating at a restaurant." Role schemas involve the set of probable relationships among actors and objects within the event (Hastie 1981). For example, there are many possible roles within the "eating at a restaurant" schema including: waiter, patron, busboy, cashier,

cook, etc. The role schema serves to explain the intention and behavior of people in specific situations.

Most people have fairly well-developed person schemas for celebrities (Speck, Schumann, and Thompson 1988). Celebrity schema and product schema integration is a goal of celebrity endorsements. Speck et al. (1988) argued that this integration is mediated by an endorsement script and role schema defining the relationship between information in the celebrity and product schema. The authors further argued that this integration may occur over time in cases where the celebrity is well-liked, well-known, positively associated with the product under consideration, and capable of being viewed as an appropriate endorser role.

The argument that likability is a precondition for effective matching of endorsers and products (Speck et al. 1988) excluded the possibility that an unlikable endorsers may be effective when well-matched. However, the design of their study did not allow for a validity test of these assertions, since their treatments involved only likable expert and likable nonexpert celebrity endorsers. Thus, likability was not varied and no unlikable endorsers were used in the experiment.

Misra (1986) also relied on schema theory and three different memory models to derive several hypothesis concerning the effect that endorser and product image congruity would have on advertisement memorability. The memory models tested included the associative network model (Srull, Lichtenstein, and Rothbart 1985), the Schema-Pointer + Tag model (Graeser 1981), and the filtering model (Cantor and Mischel 1979). The associative network model purports that incongruent information is processed more deeply than congruent information, resulting in greater recall. The Schema-Pointer + Tag model suggests a different method of encoding for congruent and incongruent items: incongruent items resulted in greater immediate recall and congruent items resulted in greater delayed recall. The filtering model predicts that information which is incongruent

with existing schemas will be "filtered out," resulting in poorer recall for incongruent items in comparison to congruent items. Misra's findings supported the filtering model, and not the other two models.

In addition to studying the effect of match-up on recall, Misra (1986) also investigated the extent to which endorser/product match-up influences transfer of affect. Hypotheses were based on Fiske's (1982) model which predicts that schematic matching determines the affect responses. An item will receive the affect linked to an existing schema to the extent that it is congruent with it.

While much of the match-up literature has relied on schema theory, other researchers have looked to a sort of meaning transfer theory. McCracken (1990) argued that celebrity endorser effectiveness could not be explained fully by traditional source attractiveness and credibility models, and emphasized the need to consider the importance of the product/endorser link. McCracken theorized that celebrities take on cultural meanings contained in the various roles they play. For example, Sylvester Stallone serves as "an extreme representation of maleness." Advertisers facilitate the transfer of selected meanings to products. This is accomplished by using the elements in the ad to make salient selected cultural meaning lying in the celebrity. The consumer performs the final act of meaning transfer when it is "seen" that the cultural meanings contained in the people, objects, and contexts of the advertisement are also contained in the product.

McCracken's theory is very comparable to the schema-based theories of match-up. McCracken (1989) conceptualizes the celebrity as being a bundle of symbolic properties containing certain meanings the consumer finds compelling and useful. Similarly, schema have been defined as "an associative network of interrelated meanings that represent a person's declarative knowledge about some concept" (Alba and Hasher 1983). Thus, both terms are defined as groups of meanings that are connected in some manner.

As previously mentioned, McCracken's (1989) theory focuses on how this meaning is transferred from endorser to product. Interestingly, of the researchers investigating match-up from a schema perspective, only Speck et al. (1988) made reference to the process through which match-up operates. They argue: "Given sufficient time, the viewer should integrate material from the celebrity schema into the product schema, so that the entire ad is perceived and remembered as one unit. The endorsement script and the role schema mediate this integration by implying how information in the celebrity schema should relate to information in the product schema." Similarly, McCracken (1989) argued that successful endorsements occur when an association is fashioned between the cultural meanings of the celebrity and the endorsed product. This association is accomplished by filling the ad with people, objects, contexts, and copy that have the same meanings as the celebrity. In this manner the exact set of meanings sought from the celebrity are used to cue the consumer to the salient message. In this manner, undesired meanings associated with the celebrity are excluded from the message. In short, despite being couched in anthropological terminology, McCracken's (1989) theory seems to suggest the same sort of process for effective celebrity endorsements as that suggested by Speck et al. (1988). The cultural meanings, which make up the celebrities in McCracken's theory, appear to be roughly synonymous with attributes of which schemas are constructed. Like schema attributes (which include various types of knowledge about the celebrity), celebrity meaning includes information about the celebrity's gender, age, status, personality, and lifestyle. However, in contrast to the schema-based theories that focus on the individual, McCracken's theory is more culturally focused.

The social cognition literature has been criticized for relying on cognitive factors while virtually ignoring the affective components (Fiske 1982). This is an important point because it has been argued that all social schemas are linked with affect (Fiske and Linville 1980). In light of this view, Fiske (1982) developed a model predicting that

schematic matching determines affective responses. To the degree that an instance is perceived to fit an existing schema, it will receive the affect linked to that category. How affect can instantly surface is illustrated by an event in which a person encounters a stranger who very closely resembles a high school sweetheart. In such cases, a strong reaction occurs simply because the person is reminded of someone or fits a prior configuration.

Fiske (1982) provided evidence for her model in a study in which she varied the degree to which personality profiles of political candidates matched the schema of the "typical politician." As predicted, candidates matching this schema were liked less than those who were less well matched. The Fiske model applies to the context of product endorsements as well as politicians. When the brand information (the specific instance) fits with the endorser's schema, the brand should receive affect linked to that schema to a greater extent than if no match had occurred.

The schema-triggered affect model of Fiske (1982) will serve as the source for the hypotheses. Fiske's (1982) schema model predicts that positive affect linked to the likable endorser will be transferred to the brand when there is congruence between the schema of the product and the endorser. Similarly, it predicts that any negative affect attached to the schema of the unlikable endorser will be transferred to the brand.

Again, following from Fiske's (1982) model, the affect associated with celebrity schemas will transfer in the case that they are congruent with the product. Thus, when comparing brands that are equally well matched with their endorsers, the more likable brands should be rated more favorably, since the positive affect associated with the likable endorser will naturally result in more favorable ratings than those that carry the negative affect of an unlikable endorser.

Unlikable celebrities are by definition associated with more negative affect than likable celebrities. According to Fiske's (1982) model, brands that are congruent with the

schema of the celebrity will receive the affect associated with the schema. Thus, holding all else constant, brands endorsed by unlikable/well matched endorsers will be rated less favorably than the unlikable/poorly matched endorsers.

This is not to argue that unlikable and well matched endorsers cannot make effective endorsers. One need only view effective endorsers such as John McEnroe, Brian Bosworth, and Joe Namath to doubt the validity of this argument. However, it is argued that more negative feelings associated with unlikable endorsers will be linked to the schema of the brand when celebrity and endorser are well matched rather than poorly matched.

It is noteworthy that endorser schemas involve more than a linkage of affect. They also contain other information which may be linked to the brand resulting in brand learning. If this learning leads to a more favorable impression of the brand, then a more favorable brand attitude will predictably result. For example, it is likely that some negative affect may be linked to the schema of John Houseman. However, when certain elements of his schema are made salient in the ad for Smith Barney (i.e., hardworking, conservative, high integrity, etc.) these elements are transferred to the product. This results in a modified schema for the product which is evaluated more favorably by the public.

It should be noted that the Fiske (1982) model fails to adequately explain the effectiveness of John McEnroe as an endorser of Bic razors. In fact, Fiske's model predicts that Bic should receive the negative affect linked to the unlikable McEnroe's schema, since as Kahle and Homer (1985) point out, McEnroe and Bic razor blades are well matched.

McEnroe's credibility as an endorser for Bic may explain the apparent inconsistency between the McEnroe example and Fiske's (1982) theory. McEnroe's reputation of speaking his mind may have enhanced his credibility as a source. Thus, likability may

have played a lesser role. Because of this confounding of source variables, it is impossible to determine what effect McEnroe's likability had on persuasion, and whether he would have been even more effective had he been more likable. The present study deals with this problem by examining likability and match-up in a manner that holds other source characteristics constant. Based on these concepts, the main hypotheses were developed:

- Hypothesis 1: An interaction is predicted such that when product and endorser are matched, the likable endorser will outperform the unlikable endorser on measures of Ab. When they are unmatched, endorser likability will have no significant impact on Ab.
- Hypothesis 2: An interaction is predicted such that when product and endorser are matched, the likable endorser will outperform the unlikable endorser on measures of Aad. When they are unmatched, endorser likability will have no significant impact on Aad.
- Hypothesis 3: An interaction is predicted such that when product and endorser are matched, the likable endorser will outperform the unlikable endorser on measures of BI. When they are unmatched, endorser likability will have no significant impact on BI.

As stated in the hypotheses, an interaction is predicted such that the effect of the endorser's likability on the dependent measures will be magnified when endorser and brand are matched (see Figure 1). In such cases, the brand will receive the positive affect linked to the likable endorser's schema or the negative affect linked to the unlikable endorser's schema. In contrast, when the brand does not fit the schematic structure of the endorser, affect will not be transferred from the endorser to the brand. Thus, likability will have a greater impact on Aad, Ab, and BI under conditions of high match-up. product and the endorser.

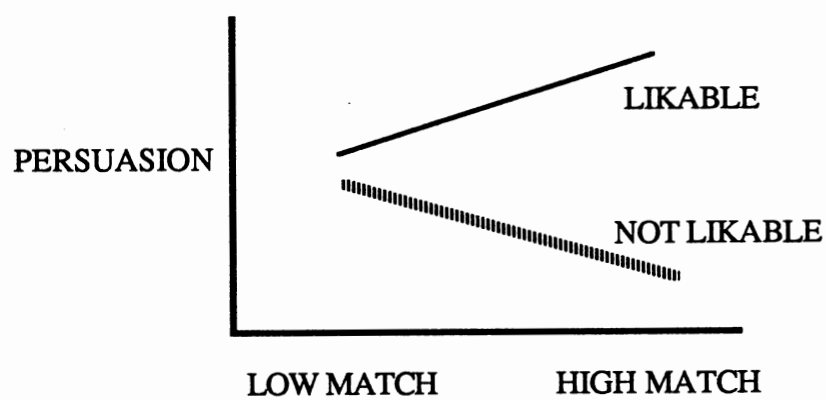


Figure 1. Graphical Representation of Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

In order to test the hypotheses, a 2X2X2 full factorial design experiment was conducted in which subjects were assigned to one of eight treatments groups. In a small group setting, subjects were exposed to a booklet that contained a description of one of two endorsers, that were either high or low in likability, and to an advertisement for one of two brands. Likability was operationalized by presenting the endorser as having either positive or negative attitudes toward undergraduates. Conversely, match-up was manipulated by creating two fictitious brands and endorsers. The first brand would match up well with the first endorser but not match up with the second endorser. The selection was such that the second brand matched up well with the second endorser but matched up poorly with the first endorser. The data were analyzed via an ANCOVA, with potentially confounding variables serving as covariates.

The experiment required that fictitious products and endorsers be developed in order to control for extraneous factors. It also required that two advertisements be created, as well as a likability manipulation. Thus, a pretest was undertaken to assist in the development of these stimuli. A total of three sets of two endorsers and two brands were developed for pretesting. The following section describes this process in detail.

Pretest

A pretest was performed to ensure that match-up would be successfully manipulated through the use of various combinations of brands and endorsers. The pretest also sought to test the strength of the likability manipulation. A total of 138 undergraduate

business students at Southwest Missouri State University participated in the pretest in a classroom setting, which involved assessing their perceptions of three distinct sets of product and endorser combinations.

Pretest Independent Variables

Likability and product/endorser match-up were the two independent variables which were to be manipulated in the main experiment of this study. Endorser schemas and the advertised brands used in the main experiment were to be selected on the basis of a pretest. One of the major objectives of the pretest was the identification of two endorser descriptions that corresponded appropriately to two brand descriptions. The goal was to match one of the brands with the first endorser, while simultaneously not matching it with the second endorser. In contrast, the second brand was created to be well matched with the second endorser but not with the first.

Three separate sets of product/endorser combinations were created and pretested. The pretest assisted in the selection process by checking the match-up manipulation, i.e., whether or not the subjects perceived the level of match-up as intended. It also revealed whether other potentially confounding source variables were being inadvertently manipulated. The chosen group of product/endorser combinations would be one that successfully allowed for a manipulation of match-up, while simultaneously resulting in minimal confounding of other source variables.

Each product/endorser combination consisted of a brief description of brand and a description of the corresponding endorser. A total of six different brand descriptions (two from each of the three product classes) were developed for the pretest. Two of these were to be eventually used as a basis for the advertisements in the main experiment. Six different endorser descriptions were also created, two of which were intended to also be used in the main experiment.

The first set of product/endorser combinations involved two brands of pain relievers. One brand (Fastactin) was differentiated as providing speedy relief of pain, while the other (Strongdose) differentiated itself on its high level of strength. Two endorser descriptions were developed (see Appendix C). A track star matched with Fastactin, but was poorly matched as an endorser of Strongdose. In contrast, a weight lifter matched up well with Strongdose, while being poorly matched with Fastactin. These combinations were hoped to serve as a manipulation of match-up without an inadvertent manipulation of other variables such as credibility (i.e., just because a person is fast does not mean they have any special knowledge about fast acting pain relievers.). Also, by varying brands of the same product class the endorsers are paired with, rather than varying the product classes, confounding may be further minimized as treatment advertisements (in the main experiment) may be identical with the exception of key words such as brand name.

A second treatment combination to be considered involved two brands of men's fragrances. This product class was selected because various psychological and symbolic benefits are typically used to differentiate brands competing in this class. It was hoped this would allow for a match to be achieved without an inadvertent manipulation of expertise. One brand (Pendleton) sought to communicate a refined, sophisticated image; the other brand (Yukon) sought to communicate an outdoorsy, "macho" image. Two endorser biographies were also presented. They were to be identical with the exception of the description of how leisure time is spent. The first endorser was described as spending considerable amounts of time at the country club playing golf and occasionally sailing and competing in polo matches. In contrast, the second endorser was described as spending his free time involved in adventure sports such as mountain climbing, white-water rafting and hang gliding. "Yukon" was created to match with the "mountain man"

endorser, while "Pendleton" was developed to fit with the "country clubber" (see Appendix B).

A third set of product/endorser combinations involved types of drink mixes. The first (Zip) was described as a nutritious high-energy snack, while the other (Zap) was described as a line of cocktail mixes differentiated on convenience (see Appendix A). The corresponding endorsers included one who was involved in a healthy lifestyle, spending large amounts of time at a fitness center working out and playing racquetball. In contrast, the second endorser was described as spending much of his leisure time hanging out in bars either trying to pick up women or playing pool. Obviously, Zip was intended to match with the "fitness nut" and Zap was intended to match with the "bar fly"; combining them in the opposite manner resulted in poorly matched combinations.

Another purpose of the pretest was to ensure that the likability manipulation was of sufficient strength to be used in the main experiment. The manipulation was based on previous persuasion research (e.g., Jones and Brehm 1967; Eagly and Chaiken 1975; Chaiken 1980) in which likability was manipulated by presenting the communicator as having either a favorable attitude toward undergraduates (likable) or unfavorable attitudes toward undergraduates (unlikable). Since subjects were undergraduates, an expression of dislike toward college students was expected to result in negative feelings toward the endorser. Chaiken (1980) explained the success of manipulating likability in this manner by suggesting that the undergraduate student subjects probably based their feelings toward the communicator on the heuristic "I like people who like me." While the pretest involved the testing of three distinct product/endorser combinations, the likability manipulation was only embedded in the descriptions of the two endorsers of the fragrance brands. The likability manipulation is described in the following paragraph:

I think that undergraduates today are a very (responsible/irresponsible) and (mature/immature) group of individuals who are generally (concerned/unconcerned) with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public (underestimates/overestimates) both the ability and maturity of today's

college students. I'm happy to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be (successes/failures) in life.

Pretest Dependent Variables

In order to assess the extent that endorser characteristics other than match-up and likability were inadvertently manipulated, a number of seven-point semantic differential scales were used to assess subjects' perceptions of the sources (see Appendix A). Expertise was measured with a five-item scale borrowed from Ohanian (1990): expert/not expert, qualified/not qualified, knowledgeable/not knowledgeable, skilled/not skilled, experienced/not experienced. Trustworthiness was also measured with a five-item scale borrowed from Ohanian (1990): trustworthy/not trustworthy, sincere/not sincere, dependable/not dependable, honest/dishonest, and reliable/unreliable. Both scales have been demonstrated to be valid and reliable. In addition, physical attractiveness was assessed with a five-item scale (attractive/not attractive, beautiful/ugly, classy/not classy, sexy/not sexy, elegant/not elegant) borrowed from Ohanian (1990). Similarity was measured with a two-item scale (similar to me/not similar to me, like me/not like me). The likability manipulation was checked with a three-item scale. The items in this scale include: likable/unlikable, pleasant/unpleasant, and friendly/unfriendly. The match-up manipulation was measured with a seven-item, seven-point Likert index which is included in the appendix.

Pretest Design

The pretest consisted of three 2X2 factorial design experiments (one for each of the three product classes considered). In each case, the brands and endorsers served as the two independent variables. The first experiment involved the use of two pain relievers (Fastactin and Strongdose) and two endorsers (weight lifter and track star). The second experiment presented two drink mixes (Zip and Zap) and two endorsers (fitness nut and

bar fly) (see Figure 2). Finally, the third experiment involved the use of two male fragrances (Yukon and Pendleton) and two endorsers (mountain man and country clubber) (see Figure 3). The likability manipulation was also tested in the third experiment (see Figure 4).

A total of 138 Southwest Missouri State University undergraduates were involved in the pretest: 72 served as subjects for the first two experiments; the remaining 66 served as subjects for the third experiment. The 72 subjects were randomly assigned to one combination of pain reliever brand and endorser, and a combination of drink mix brand and endorser. The 66 subjects were randomly assigned to one experimental condition, which consisted of one of eight possible combinations of fragrance brand, endorser, and level of likability (high vs. low). In order to control for possible order effects, half of those subjects exposed to two experimental conditions were exposed to the pain reliever treatment first, while the other half were exposed to the drink mix treatment first.

Subjects responded to questionnaires in a classroom setting. They were first presented with a brief brand description. In the case of the cologne Yukon, the description was presented as follows: "Yukon is a brand of men's cologne that is advertised as the cologne for those who 'answer to the call of the wild.' Marketing research has determined that Yukon is perceived as being a cologne for the adventurous, outdoorsy, and 'macho man' type." On the following page, subjects were presented with a description of one of the endorsers (see Appendix A). For example:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle manager for a large electronics corporation. He appreciates the comforts of modern life. He dislikes physically risky situations and is involved in leisure sports in his free time. He likes the peacefulness and relaxation associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends at the country club playing tennis, golf, and polo. Golf is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has consistently shown himself to be one of the best golfers at his club. He also spends about one weekend each month playing polo, a sport he participates in for the social interaction and opportunity it provides for exposure to other leisure sports. A polo buddy recently took Jim sailing and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a sailboat.

		ENDORSER	
		Fitness Nut	Bar Fly
Drink Mix	Zip	HIGH MATCH	LOW MATCH
	Zap	LOW MATCH	HIGH MATCH

		ENDORSER	
		Weight Lifter	Track Star
Pain Reliever	Strongdose	HIGH MATCH	LOW MATCH
	Fastactin	LOW MATCH	HIGH MATCH

Note: Seventy-two subjects were randomly assigned to one of four drink mix treatment conditions, and to one of four pain reliever treatment conditions. The remaining 66 subjects were randomly assigned to one of the eight cologne treatments.

Figure 2. Research Design of Drink Mix (2 X 2) and Pain Reliever (2 X 2) Pretest

		LOW LIKABILITY ENDORSER	
		Mountain Man	Country Clubber
Cologne	Yukon	HIGH MATCH	LOW MATCH
	Pendleton	LOW MATCH	HIGH MATCH

		HIGH LIKABILITY ENDORSER	
		Mountain Man	Country Clubber
Cologne	Yukon	HIGH MATCH	LOW MATCH
	Pendleton	LOW MATCH	HIGH MATCH

Figure 3. Experimental Design (2 X 2 X 2) of Cologne Pretest

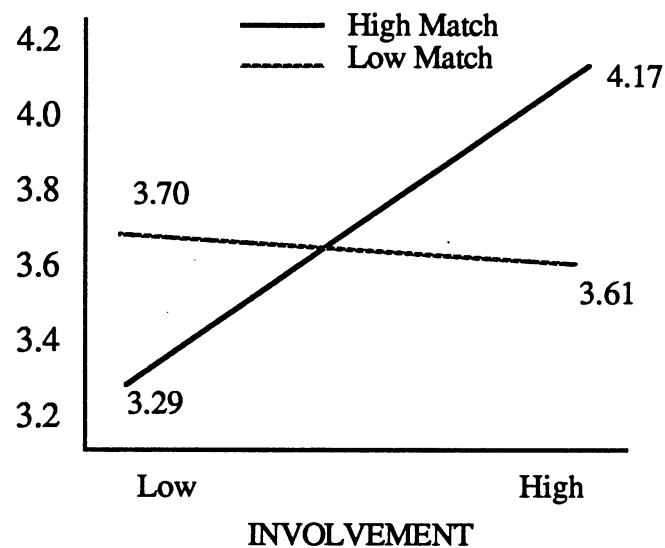


Figure 4. Interaction Between Involvement and Match-Up for Attitude Toward the Brand (Ab)

After reading the endorser description, subjects were next instructed to proceed to the following two pages where the dependent measures were located. After responding to the dependent measures, the 72 subjects exposed to two experimental treatments then were exposed to the second set of materials.

Analysis of Pretest Data

An ANOVA was performed on each of the three sets of 2X2 factorial experiments to determine the success of the match-up manipulation and any inadvertent manipulation of potentially confounding variables. A t-test was also performed to determine the success of the likability manipulation.

The pretest sought to determine whether the highly matched conditions were indeed perceived as being better matched than the low match conditions. As the ANOVA (Table 1) indicates, subjects failed to perceive the "matched" pain reliever combinations

(Strongdose/weight lifter and Fastactin/track star) as being better matched than the "unmatched" treatments (Strongdose/track star and Fastactin/weight lifter), because no significant interaction (see Table 2) was found between product and endorser on the dependent measures of match-up ($P > F = .99$). Thus, the use of athletes and pain relievers failed to result in a successful manipulation of match-up. Interestingly, the track star (mean = 5.28) was rated as being more likable than the weight lifter (mean = 4.53), as indicated by the significant main effect ($P > F = .007$). It should be noted that higher means indicate greater amounts of the construct, ranging from a low of 1 to a high of 7.

The ANOVA (Table 3) revealed that match-up was successfully manipulated when treatments were created from the various combinations of drink mixes and endorsers. A significant interaction between product and endorser was revealed ($P > F = .001$). As noted in Table 4, the match-up means for the high match combinations of Zap/bar fly (mean = 3.58) and Zip/fitness nut (mean = 5.64) were considerably lower than for the low match combinations of Zap/fitness nut (mean = 1.83) and Zip/bar fly (mean = 2.04). A main effect for endorser ($P > F = .0001$) and brand ($P > F = .0001$) were also revealed. The fitness nut (mean = 2.81) was rated as being better matched than the bar fly (mean = 3.74). Similarly, Zip (mean = 3.89) was rated as being better matched than Zap (mean = 2.68).

In the case of the drink mix treatments, likability and expertise appeared to have been manipulated along with match-up, as indicated by the significant interactions observed on these dependent variables ($P > F = .02$) and ($P > F = .001$), respectively (see Table 3). According to Table 4, the fitness nut was rated as possessing higher levels of expertise when endorsing the nutritious drink Zip (mean = 5.64) than when endorsing the cocktail mix Zap (mean = 4.52). Thus, expertise appeared to be confounded with match-up. There were also significant main effects present for expertise ($P > F = .0001$) and trustworthiness ($P > F = .0001$). The fitness nut was rated as possessing more expertise

TABLE 1
MEANS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES OF MATCH-UP
ON PAIN RELIEVERS (PRETEST)

Dependent Variable	Pain Relievers (Fastactin and Strongdose) Endorsers (Weight lifter and Track Star)			
	Match		Mismatch	
	Strong Weights	Fast Track	Fast Weights	Strong Track
Match-Up	4.00	3.69	4.20	3.50
Likability	4.48	5.37	4.58	5.19
Expertise	4.65	5.59	5.06	5.16
Similarity	2.78	3.56	3.80	3.19
Trust	4.97	5.67	5.21	5.61

Note: Abbreviations are as follows: Strong = Strongdose, Fast = Fastactin, Weights = Weight lifter endorser, Track = Track star endorser. Possible scores range from 1 to 7, with higher numbers indicating greater levels of the dependent variable.

TABLE 2
ANOVA RESULTS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES OF
MATCH-UP ON PAIN RELIEVERS

Dependent Variable		Pain Relievers (Fastactin and Strongdose) Endorsers (Track Star and Weight lifter)		
		Main Effect Product	Main Effect Endorser	Interaction Prod. X En.
Match-Up	F=	0.39	2.49	0.00
	P > F=	0.53	0.12	0.99
Likability	F=	0.27	7.80	0.03
	P > F=	0.61	0.01	0.86
Expertise	F=	2.07	3.33	0.00
	P > F=	0.15	0.07	0.95
Trust	F=	0.59	7.95	0.23
	P > F=	0.44	0.01	0.63
Similarity	F=	4.12	0.06	0.95
	P > F=	0.05	0.81	0.33

TABLE 3
ANOVA RESULTS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES OF
MATCH-UP ON DRINK MIXES

Drink Mixes (Zip & Zap) Endorsers (Bar Fly & Fitness Nut)				
Dependent Variable		Main Effect Product	Main Effect Endorser	Interaction Prod. X En.
Match-up	F=	27.89	16.51	137.12
	P>F=	0.00	0.00	0.00
Likability	F=	0.97	0.27	5.73
	P>F=	0.33	0.61	0.02
Expertise	F=	1.22	28.39	9.27
	P>F=	0.27	0.00	0.00
Trust	F=	0.46	43.92	0.33
	P>F=	0.50	0.00	0.57
Similarity	F=	0.28	1.29	0.58
	P>F=	0.60	0.26	0.45

TABLE 4
MEANS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES OF MATCH-UP
ON DRINK MIXES (PRETEST)

Drink Mixes (Zip and Zap) Endorsers (Bar fly and Fitness Nut)				
Dependent Variable	Match		Mismatch	
	Zap Bar Fly	Zip Fitness	Zip Bar Fly	Zap Fitness
Match-up	3.58	5.64	2.04	1.83
Likability	4.98	4.88	5.30	5.63
Expertise	3.89	5.64	3.33	4.52
Similarity	3.06	3.26	3.14	3.68
Trust	3.99	5.24	3.97	5.50

Note: "Fitness" is short for the "fitness nut" endorser.

(mean = 5.07) than the bar fly (mean = 3.61). The fitness nut was also rated as being more trustworthy (mean = 5.38) than the bar fly (mean = 3.98). In other words, the bar fly appears to have suffered from a lack of credibility.

The use of brand combinations of men's fragrance and endorsers as treatments yielded more desirable results. The ANOVA revealed a significant interaction between product and endorser (see Table 5). As revealed in Table 6, the "matched" combinations of Pendleton/country clubber (mean = 4.52) and Yukon/mountain man (mean = 4.71) were rated as being better matched than the "unmatched" combinations of Pendleton/mountain man (mean = 2.68) and Yukon/country clubber (mean = 2.91). None of the other dependent variables was significantly affected by the treatments (see Table 5), as evidenced by the lack of significant interaction between product and endorser on likability, expertise, similarity, and trustworthiness. Significant main effects were also not revealed. Thus, match-up was manipulated without inadvertently manipulating likability, expertise, similarity, and trustworthiness. In addition, neither of the endorsers was perceived as being significantly more likable, expert, similar, or trustworthy than the other. Of the various sets of endorser/product combinations tested, fragrances were clearly superior in meeting the criteria set for selecting the combination.

The 66 subjects who participated in the fragrance experiment were also exposed to the likability manipulation, which was embedded in the endorser description. Half of the subjects were randomly assigned to the high likability treatment, while the other half were exposed to the low likability treatment. A t-test revealed that the likability manipulation was also successful. As indicated in Table 7, subjects exposed to the likable condition rated their endorser as being more likable (mean = 5.72) than those exposed to the unlikable endorser (mean = 3.73), and this difference was significant ($P > T = .0001$). However, subjects also rated the likable treatments as being more similar to themselves (mean = 4.05) than the unlikable endorser (mean = 2.56) and this difference was

TABLE 5
ANOVA RESULTS FOR DEPENDENT
VARIABLES PRETEST

Colognes (Pendleton & Yukon) Endorsers (Mountain Man & Country Clubber)				
Dependent Variable		Main Effect Product	Main Effect Endorser	Interaction Prod. X En.
Match-Up	F =	0.35	0.35	36.07
	P > F =	0.56	0.56	0.00
Likability	F =	0.40	0.01	0.42
	P > F =	0.53	0.94	0.52
Expertise	F =	0.54	2.19	0.24
	P > F =	0.47	0.14	0.62
Trust	F =	0.30	1.52	0.00
	P > F =	0.58	0.21	0.95
Similarity	F =	0.24	0.73	0.00
	P > F =	0.63	0.39	0.99

TABLE 6
MEANS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES FOR EACH
EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENT PRETEST

Fragrances (Yukon and Pendleton) Endorsers (Country Clubber and Mountain Man)				
Dependent Variable	Match		Mismatch	
	Pendleton C.C.	Yukon Mountain	Yukon C.C.	Pendleton Mountain
Match	4.52	4.71	2.91	2.68
Likability	4.44	4.70	4.98	4.71
Expertise	4.99	5.51	5.05	5.21
Similarity	3.23	3.39	3.03	3.60
Trust	5.28	5.64	5.38	5.52

Note: Possible scores ranged from a low of one to a high of seven with higher scores indicating greater amounts of the dependent variable. "C.C." is an abbreviation for the "country clubber" endorser description. "Mountain" is an abbreviation for the "Mountain man" description.

TABLE 7
MEANS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES FOR
EACH LEVEL OF LIKABILITY
MANIPULATION PRETEST

Colognes (Pendleton and Yukon)			
Dependent Variable	Likable	Unlikable	P>T
Match-Up	3.48	3.50	0.2000
Expertise	5.37	5.02	0.1540
Similarity	4.05	2.56	0.0002
Trust	5.73	5.20	0.0066
Likability	5.72	3.73	0.0001

Note: Higher means indicate greater levels of the construct; possible scores range from 1 to 7.

significant ($P > T = .0002$). The likable endorsers were also rated as being significantly ($P > T = .0066$) more trustworthy (mean = 5.73) than the unlikable treatment (mean = 5.2). Thus, trustworthiness and similarity were varied along with likability.

Summary of Pretest

Three sets of endorser and brand combinations were pretested to determine which would best serve as treatments in the main experiment. The brands of pain relievers and their endorser failed to yield a successful manipulation of match-up. In contrast, match-up was manipulated when brands of drink mixes were paired with corresponding endorsers. However, one of the endorsers was perceived as being less credible than the other. The brands of fragrances and their endorsers appear to be the best selection, since match-up was successfully manipulated without a significant effect on other potentially confounding variables. In addition, the likability manipulation appeared to work.

Subjects perceived the likable endorsers as being significantly more likable than their unlikable counterparts. However, likable endorsers were also rated as being significantly more trustworthy and similar to the subjects than unlikable endorsers. Therefore, likability and similarity were likely candidates for treatment as covariates in the main experiment.

Research Design

The main experiment employed a 2X2X2 full factorial design. The subjects were exposed to one of two brands (Pendleton vs. Yukon), to one of two endorsers (mountain man vs country clubber), and two levels of likability (high vs low). The data were analyzed as a 2X2 factorial with the match-up variable being operationalized based on the degree to which the brand of cologne and endorser description matched up (see Figure 4). Those subjects exposed to the mountain man/Yukon or country clubber/Pendleton combinations were merged into the high match-up treatment condition. Those exposed to the mountain man/Pendleton or country clubber/Yukon combinations were placed in the low match-up treatment condition. This arrangement yielded higher cell sizes (approximately 32) than if the data were instead analyzed as a three-way ANOVA.

Experimental Stimuli

As previously mentioned, two advertisements, two biographical sketches, and two likability manipulations were created for the main experiment. The following sections describe each of these stimuli material in greater detail.

Advertisements. Two advertisements were created for the main experiment—one for Pendleton and the other for Yukon (see Appendix E). Both ads featured the same illustration of a man applying cologne to his face, while gazing back at the reader through a mirror. In addition, each ad featured a smaller illustration inset at the lower left hand

corner of the page. In the ad for Yukon, the inset featured a man hang gliding with mountain peaks in the background. In contrast, the ad for Pendleton presented a tennis player preparing to make a forehand volley. The decision to use hang gliders and tennis players in the advertisements rather than mountain climbers and golfers was based on the rationale that a less obvious match would be achieved by presenting activities that were not explicitly mentioned in the biographical sketches. While the endorsers were not described as being involved in hang gliding or tennis playing, these activities were expected to be perceived as fitting with schemas that the sketches intended to create.

In each ad, the headline simply stated the brand name. A short subheading followed each headline and stated that the respective brands were either the "Essence of Sophistication" (in the case of Pendleton) or the "Essence of Adventure" (in the case of Yukon). In addition, both ads featured the identical copy, "I have my own idea of what it takes to get to the top" (Jim Knepp, Marketing Manager, Stockton, CA). Thus, the two advertisements were identical, with the exception of the nature of the activity depicted in the inset and the brand name and subheading. The drawings were pencil sketches and were thus presented in black and white.

Biographical Sketches. The biographical sketches used in the final experiment were nearly identical to those used in the pretest for Pendleton and Yukon. The biographical description of the country clubber was modified only slightly from the one used in the pretest so that the illustration of the tennis player could be used. This required that the word "tennis" be dropped, and replaced with "other such sports." The pretested mountain man description was altered slightly so that the hang glider visual could be used in the experimental ad. The sentence, "a rafting buddy recently took Jim hang gliding, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a hang glider," was modified to read "a rafting buddy recently took Jim kayaking, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a kayak." The final

descriptions are provided below for the mountain man and the country clubber, respectively:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level marketing manager for a large electronics corporation. He enjoys getting away from the comforts of modern life. He likes physically risky situations and is involved in adventure sports in his free time. He likes the adrenaline and excitement associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends in the mountains rock climbing, white water rafting, and backpacking. Mountain climbing is his favorite sport and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has climbed twelve of Colorado's fourteen-thousand foot peaks in the past three years. He also spends about one weekend each month white water rafting, a sport he participates in primarily for the social interaction and opportunity it provides to be exposed to other adventure sports. A rafting buddy recently took Jim kayaking, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a kayak.

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle manager for a large electronics corporation. He appreciates the comforts of modern life. He dislikes physically risky situations and is involved in leisure sports in his free time. He likes the peacefulness and relaxation associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends at the country club playing golf, polo, and other such sports. Golf is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has consistently shown himself to be one of the best golfers at his club. He spends about one weekend each month playing polo, a sport that he participates in for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other leisure sports. A polo buddy recently took Jim sailing and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a sail boat.

Dependent Variables. The dependent variables to be considered in this analysis included: attitude toward the brand (Ab), attitude toward the ad (Aad), and behavioral intention (BI). Attitude toward the ad was assessed through an eight-item scale (seven-point Likert statements). The first three items were borrowed from McKenzie and Lutz (1986): pleasant/unpleasant, good/bad, favorable/unfavorable. The final five items were borrowed from Mowen and Brown (1980): interesting/dull, appealing/unappealing, believable/unbelievable, informative/uninformative, and eye catching/noneye catching. Brand attitudes were measured with a three-item scale borrowed from McKenzie and Lutz (1986): good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, and favorable/unfavorable. Behavioral intentions were measured with a two-item scale borrowed from Kahle and Homer (1990): will try/will not try and will buy/will not buy.

Other Measures. In order to measure the influence of other potentially confounding variables, several additional measures were used in the final analysis (see Appendix C). These measures included seven-point Likert items designed to assess the perceived physical attractiveness, similarity, likability, trustworthiness, and expertise of the endorsers. With the exception of likability, each of these constructs was treated as covariates in the analysis of the final experiment. The items used to assess these constructs in the main experiment were same ones used in the pretest. In addition, a pair of two-item seven-point Likert scales was created to assess the sophistication and adventurousness of the endorser. A four-item scale was developed to gage the level in which the subjects were involved with the purchase of male cologne (see Appendix C).

Procedure

A total of 167 undergraduate business students from Southwest Missouri State University were used as subjects in the final experiment. All were enrolled in a principles of marketing course and had not taken any courses in advertising. Care was taken to ensure that none of these subjects had served as subjects in the pretest.

The questionnaires (see Appendix C) were completed in small groups. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of eight possible booklets, which differed in terms of the biographical description (mountain man vs. country clubber), product advertised (Pendleton vs. Yukon), and likability of the endorser (high vs. low). The cover page of the booklet asked the student to carefully read the endorser's biographical description and then read the advertisement on the following page. They were also instructed not to refer back to the advertisement and endorser description while answering the questionnaire. This was to ensure that the schemas being used were memory-based. Upon completion of the exposure to the treatments, the subjects were instructed to indicate their attitudes toward the advertisement and brand, and their behavioral intentions. The next page

consisted of measures designed to check the effectiveness of the manipulation. These measured product/endorser match-up and the adventurousness and sophistication of the endorser. Covariate measures also appeared on this page and included items designed to arrive at the perceived physical attractiveness, likability, expertise, similarity, and trustworthiness of the endorser, as well as the subjects' levels of involvement with the decision to purchase a male cologne. Finally, they were asked to indicate their gender.

Results

In the first stage of the analysis, the reliability of the subscales used for measuring the dependent variables and the covariates were assessed. The coefficient alpha for the three subscales measuring attitude toward the ad, attitude toward the brand, and behavioral intention was equal to .67, .98, and .96, respectively (see Appendix A). The alphas for subscales measuring the covariates physical attractiveness, likability, trustworthiness, expertise, and involvement were equal to .96, .99, .79, and .40, respectively. Thus, with the exception of the involvement scale, the measures of reliability were at an acceptable level.

A factor analysis was conducted in order to determine the number of underlying dimensions in the source perception scales, and to which factors the various items were most highly correlated. Using the varimax rotation method, seven factors were revealed, which tended to support the original dimensions that were conceptualized a priori (see Table 8). The first factor consisted of all five expertise items with loadings ranging from .77 to .87. The second factor included each of the seven match-up items (.56 to .81). A third factor included the three items designed to measure likability (.81 to .87). A fourth factor consisted of the five items originally intended to measure trustworthiness (.51 to .72). A fifth factor included the three physical attractiveness items (.78 to .84). Interestingly, a sixth factor was comprised of the two similarity items and the two

sophistication items. Finally, a seventh factor included the two adventurousness items (.87 to .90). Thus, except for the fact that the sophistication items loaded most highly on a similarity dimension, the factor analysis supported the original dimensions as conceptualized a priori. This is not especially surprising, when one considers that many of these subscales had been shown to be reliable in other studies (e.g., Ohanian 1990).

TABLE 8
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SOURCE PERCEPTION
FACTOR STRUCTURE

Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3		Factor 4	
Exp 1	.81	Mat 1	.81	Lik 1	.81	Tru 1	.51
Exp 2	.84	Mat 2	.84	Lik 2	.87	Tru 2	.62
Exp 3	.87	Mat 3	.85	Lik 3	.83	Tru 3	.74
Exp 4	.78	Mat 4	.66			Tru 4	.83
Exp 5	.77	Mat 5	.60			Tru 5	.72
		Mat 6	.81				
		Mat 7	.56				
Factor 5		Factor 6		Factor 7			
Phy 1	.84	Sim 1	.88	Adv 1	.87		
Phy 2	.83	Sim 2	.87	Adv 2	.90		
Phy 3	.78	Sop 1	.49				
		Sop 1	.43				

All mean scores reported in this section will be reported on a scale of 1 to 7, with higher scores indicating higher levels of the construct. In all cases the means will be indicated for multiple-item subscales and will indicate the mean score averaged across items. This allows for standardization of the means from each subscore. In addition, the means will be adjusted so that higher scores indicate higher levels of the construct. In

adjusting the scores, a mean of 1 would be adjusted to 7, a mean of 2 would be adjusted to 6, and so on.

Manipulation Checks

In order to assess the effectiveness of the likability manipulation, subjects were asked to rate the likability of the endorser on a three-item scale discussed earlier. Use of a t-test revealed that the likable endorser was indeed perceived as being significantly more likable (mean = 5.34, sd = 2.92, n = 63) than the unlikable manipulation (mean = 3.19, sd = 3.94, n = 64). The t-test revealed that the means were significantly different ($t = 10.51$ and $p = .0001$). Measures were also taken to determine whether or not the match-up manipulation was effective. As already discussed, the eight-item match-up scale was used to measure the degree to which subjects perceived endorser and brand as being matched. A t-test revealed that the highly matched endorsers were found to be significantly better matched (mean = 4.26, sd = 9.15, n = 65) than the low match-up manipulation (mean = 3.31, sd = 9.40, n = 62). The results showed the means were significantly different ($t = 2.71$ and $p = .0001$).

Further support for the effectiveness of the match-up manipulation was provided by assessing the degree to which the subjects perceived the two endorsers ("country clubber" and "mountain man") as being sophisticated and adventurous. The success of the match-up manipulation would be reflected in the degree to which the country clubber was perceived as being more sophisticated but less adventurous than the mountain man. T-tests revealed that the country club endorser was perceived as being more sophisticated (mean = 4.98, sd = 2.46, n = 62), than the mountain man (mean = 4.18, sd = 2.46, n = 62). The t-test also showed that these means were significantly different ($t = 3.43$ and $p = .0008$). Measures taken with the two-item adventurousness scale revealed that the "mountain man" endorser was perceived as being significantly more adventurous (mean =

6.35, $sd = 1.90$, $n = 65$) than the endorser portrayed as being a "country clubber" (mean = 3.75, $sd = 3.71$, $n = 62$). The t-test also revealed that these means were significantly different ($t = 10.02$ and $p = .0001$). While the two endorsers did not differ significantly in terms of likability, similarity, physical attractiveness, and trustworthiness, the t-test revealed that relative to the country clubber, the mountain man possessed significantly greater levels of expertise ($p = .0486$) and was perceived as being better matched ($p = .0077$) when averaged across all treatments.

T-tests were run to determine whether the likable endorsers differed from the unlikable endorsers in terms of physical attractiveness, similarity, expertise, and trustworthiness (see Table 9). Measures taken with the three-item physical attractiveness scale revealed the high likability endorser was rated as physically attractive (mean = 4.65, $sd = 3.19$, $n = 63$) than the low likability endorser (mean = 3.96, $sd = 3.64$, $n = 64$) and that this difference was significant ($t = 5.13$ and $p = .0048$). The degree to which the subjects perceived the endorsers as being similar to themselves also differed significantly, depending upon the likability of the endorser. The t-test revealed that the high likability endorsers were rated as being more similar (mean = 3.43, $sd = 3.43$, $n = 63$) than the low likability endorsers (mean = 2.25, $sd = 2.62$, $n = 64$). This difference was shown to be significant ($t = 4.39$ and $p = .0001$). Highly likable endorsers were also shown to be more trustworthy (mean = 5.32, $sd = 3.92$, $n = 63$) than low likability endorsers (mean = 4.77, $sd = 3.89$, $n = 64$). The t-test revealed that this difference was significant ($t = 3.91$ and $p = .0001$). Finally, high likability endorsers were also perceived as possessing more expertise (mean = 5.00, $sd = 5.84$, $n = 63$) than low likability endorsers (mean = 4.54, $sd = 6.42$, $n = 64$), and that this difference was significant ($t = 2.05$ and $p = .0424$). Thus, the highly likable endorsers were rated significantly higher in similarity, expertise, and physical attractiveness than their less likable counterparts.

TABLE 9
 MEANS FOR DEPENDENT MEASURES FOR EACH
 LEVEL OF LIKABILITY MANIPULATION
 MAIN EXPERIMENT

Dependent Variable	Colognes (Pendleton and Yukon)		P > T
	Likable	Unlikable	
Likability	5.34	3.19	0.00
Physical Attractiveness	4.65	3.96	0.00
Similarity	3.43	2.25	0.00
Trustworthiness	5.32	4.77	0.00
Expertise	5.00	4.54	0.04

In checking for a possible confounding of the two independent variables match-up and likability, subjects in the high likability treatment rated their endorsers as being better matched with the product (mean = 4.56, sd = 10.04, n = 63) than those exposed to the low likability endorser (mean = 4.08, sd = 8.60, n = 64), and that this difference was significant ($t = 2.31$ and $p = .0225$). Thus, likability and match-up may have been confounded in this experiment.

There was some concern that the highly matched endorsers might be rated as being more likable, expert, similar, trustworthy, and physically attractive than the low match endorsers. However, t-tests revealed that there was no significant difference in endorser ratings on any of these variables ($p > .05$).

In summary, the analysis suggests that likability and match-up were successfully manipulated in the main experiment. However, while there is little cause for concern that

other variables were inadvertently manipulated with match-up, such is not the case for likability. Subjects exposed to likable endorsers rated their endorsers as being more expert, trustworthy, similar, physically attractive, and even better matched than those exposed to less likable endorsers.

Testing of Hypotheses

In order to test the hypotheses, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted. Because t-tests showed that likable endorsers were also rated higher in expertise, physical attractiveness, similarity, and trustworthiness, these variables were treated as covariates. The ANCOVA revealed no significant interaction between likability and match-up on attitude toward the brand (A_b) ($p > .05$), and also an absence of a main effect for either of the two independent variables (see Table 10). In addition, a Duncan's multiple comparison test revealed no significant differences between the low like/low match (mean = 3.44) and the high like/low match (mean = 3.87) groups, as well as between the low like/high match (mean = 3.69) and high like/high match (mean = 3.44) groups. Because a lack of interaction between likability and match-up was observed, the results supported neither hypothesis 1.

An ANCOVA also revealed a lack of interaction between likability and match-up when attitude toward the ad (A_{ad}) served as the dependent variable, and also that a main effect was lacking for either of the independent variables ($p > .05$) (see Table 11). Duncan's multiple comparison tests revealed that there was no significant difference between the low match/high like (mean = 3.80) and low match/low like (mean = 3.53) groups. Similarly, the high match/high like (mean = 3.97) and high match (mean = 3.55) groups were also shown to be significantly different. Hypothesis 2 was not supported, because a significant interaction was not observed between likability and match-up.

TABLE 10
ANCOVA FOR ATTITUDE TOWARD THE BRAND

	df	Type III SS	F Value	P Value
Likability	1	4.39	0.47	0.50
Match-Up	1	2.30	0.25	0.62
Likability*Match-Up	1	2.89	0.31	0.58
Similarity	1	32.69	3.46	0.07
Trustworthiness	1	19.10	2.04	0.16
Physically Attractive	1	36.25	3.87	0.05
Expertise	1	25.17	2.68	0.10

R square = 0.21.

TABLE 11
ANCOVA FOR ATTITUDE TOWARD THE AD

Value	df	Type III SS	F Value	P
Likability	1	32.72	0.76	0.38
Match-Up	1	25.18	0.59	0.44
Likability*Match-Up	1	19.19	0.45	0.51
Trustworthiness	1	110.53	2.57	0.11
Similarity	1	417.06	9.71	0.00
Physically Attractive	1	248.80	5.79	0.02
Expertise	1	173.57	4.04	0.05

R square = 0.32.

An ANCOVA was also conducted to determine whether or not significant main effects and interactions could be detected for behavioral intention (BI) (see Table 12). The analysis revealed a main effect for likability ($p = .0121$), but failed to show one for match-up. The analysis showed a lack of interaction between likability and match-up ($p > .05$), and thus did not support hypothesis 3. Duncan's multiple comparison test revealed that there were no differences ($p > .05$) between the low likable/low match (mean = 2.29) and low match/high likable (mean = 2.47). It also revealed that the high match/high likable (mean = 2.25) and the high match/low likable (mean = 2.69) groups were not significantly different.

TABLE 12
ANCOVA FOR BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

	df	Type III SS	F Value	P Value
Likability	1	33.07	6.21	0.01
Match-Up	1	1.14	0.21	0.64
Likability*Match-Up	1	13.54	2.54	0.11
Similarity	1	10.46	1.69	0.16
Trustworthiness	1	64.09	12.04	0.00
Physically Attractive	1	0.79	0.15	0.70
Expertise	1	0.00	0.00	0.99

R square = 0.19.

The analysis was also run without covariates. While the ANCOVA revealed a significant main effect for likability, the ANOVA showed no significant main effects or interactions ($p > .05$) for likability or match-up on any of the dependent measures. A

multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was also run with Aad, Ab, and BI serving as dependent variables. No significant interaction between match-up and likability and match-up was observed. In addition, no significant main effect for likability was observed.

Exploratory Variables

No specific hypotheses were stated concerning the relationship between endorser likability, match-up, and the subject's gender. However, the possibility of gender having an effect was considered, since the experimental stimuli involved men's fragrances and male subjects might possibly react differently to the ads than female subjects.

Therefore, a three-way ANCOVA was conducted with gender serving as the blocking variable, and likability and match-up as the other two independent variables. Again, expertise, similarity, trustworthiness, and physical attractiveness were treated as covariates. When Aad and Ab were treated as dependent variables, the ANCOVA indicated in both cases there was no significant effect for level of likability, match-up, or gender ($p > .05$). A significant interaction between the possible pairings of likability, match-up, and gender (likability X match-up, likability X gender, match-up X gender) was also not indicated ($p > .05$) in any of the three cases. The three-way interaction was also not significant ($p > .05$). However, significant effects were shown for all four covariates ($p < .05$) in the case of Aad, and for all except expertise on Ab. When BI was treated as the dependent variable, a significant main effect for likability was observed ($p > .05$) but not for match-up. Also, the ANCOVA failed to reveal a significant interaction between any of the three possible pairings of likability, match-up, and gender on BI ($p > .05$), nor a triple interaction between the three variables. However, the ANCOVA did reveal significant effects for the covariates similarity and trustworthiness ($p < .05$).

An ANCOVA was also run in which female subjects were deleted. Only observations from the remaining 57 male subjects were included in the analysis. In each case, when Aad, BI, and Ab were treated as dependent variables, there was no evidence of either a main effect for likability or match-up, or of a significant interaction between the two variables ($p > .05$).

In summary, the data were analyzed to consider the possible effect of gender on the dependent measures. Aside from a significant main effect for likability (on BI), no significant main effects for match-up, likability, or gender were observed, and no significant interactions were observed for any possible combination of the three variables ($p > .05$). When the analysis was run without the female subjects, the ANCOVA again showed no significant main effects or interactions.

Similarity as a Blocking Variable

The analysis was also run with similarity treated as a blocking variable. Subjects were blocked according to the level at which they rated themselves as being similar to the endorser on the two-item seven-point Likert scale. Possible scores ranged from 2 to 14, with low scores indicating higher levels of similarity. Since the mean score was between 10 and 11, those subjects rating themselves as 10 or less were considered to be in the high similarity group, and those students rating themselves as 11 or greater were placed in the low similarity group. This partitioning scheme resulted in 60 subjects in the low similarity group and 67 subjects in the high similarity group. A three-way ANCOVA was run with similarity, likability, and match-up serving as the independent variables; and expertise, physical attractiveness, and trustworthiness serving as the covariates. As indicated in Table 13, a significant main effect for similarity on Ab was revealed ($p = .0371$) with the high similarity subjects rating their brands more favorably (mean = 3.93) than the low similarity block (mean = 4.63). The ANCOVA also showed that for Ab

there were no significant main effects for likability and match-up ($p < .05$) or significant interactions for any possible pairwise combinations of the three independent variables.

TABLE 13
ANCOVA FOR ATTITUDE TOWARD THE BRAND
BLOCKING ON SIMILARITY

	df	Type III SS	F Value	P Value
Likability	1	0.51	0.05	0.81
Match-Up	1	0.92	0.10	0.75
Similarity	1	41.87	4.45	0.04
Likability*Match	1	2.99	0.32	0.57
Match*Similarity	1	1.88	0.20	0.66
Mat*Sim*Likability	1	0.91	0.10	0.76
Expertise	1	159.82	16.98	0.00
Physically Attractive	1	65.63	6.97	0.01
Trustworthiness	1	36.26	3.85	0.05

T-tests revealed that the high similarity subjects rated their endorsers as being significantly more likable (mean = 4.96) than the dissimilar group (mean = 3.62), and that this difference was significant ($p < .01$). They also rated their endorser as possessing significantly more expertise (mean = 5.22) than did the dissimilar subjects (mean = 4.38) ($p < .01$), as well as significantly higher levels of physical attractiveness (mean = 4.50) than the dissimilar group (mean = 4.04) ($p < .05$). Furthermore, the high similarity group rated their endorser as possessing higher levels of trustworthiness (mean = 4.32) than the low similarity group (mean = 1.5) ($p < .01$).

As indicated in Table 14, a significant main-effect for similarity was also shown on Aad ($p = .0010$). Subjects that perceived themselves as being more similar to the endorser rated the ads more favorably (mean = 3.91) than those perceiving themselves as being less similar to the endorser (mean = 4.73). As was the case with Ab, no significant interactions were shown ($p > .05$). Finally, an ANCOVA was run with BI serving as the dependent variable. A significant main effect for similarity was revealed ($p = .0290$). The main effects for likability and match-up were not shown to be significant ($p > .05$). No significant interactions were detected ($p > .05$).

The analysis was also run without covariates and the same pattern of means emerged as when covariates were used. A significant main effect for similarity was shown on Aad and BI.

TABLE 14
ANCOVA FOR ATTITUDE TOWARD THE AD
BLOCKING ON SIMILARITY

	df	Type III SS	F Value	P Value
Likability	1	21.47	0.50	0.48
Match-Up	1	28.99	0.67	0.41
Similarity	1	493.19	11.42	0.00
Likability*Match	1	14.27	0.33	0.56
Match*Similarity	1	0.65	0.65	0.90
Like*Similarity	1	0.04	0.00	0.98
Mat*Sim*Likability	1	9.73	0.23	0.64
Physically Attractive	1	234.40	5.43	0.02
Trustworthiness	1	121.38	2.81	0.10
Expertise	1	125.18	2.90	0.09

Involvement as a Blocking Variable

An analysis was also run with involvement treated as a blocking variable. Because of a low coefficient alpha (0.40), two items were dropped from the four-item scale originally intended to measure involvement. The remaining two seven-point Likert items (important/unimportant) and (relevant/irrelevant) were used (item-to-item correlation 0.82) to indicate the subject's involvement level. Those subjects who rated their involvement level as seven (scores ranged from 2 to 14) or less were put into the high involvement group (mean = 5.34) with lower numbers indicating higher levels of involvement. Subjects rating their involvement level as eight or greater were put into the low involvement group (mean = 10.40). This method yielded two groups of approximately equal size: 63 subjects were included in the high involvement group and 64 in the low involvement group. An ANCOVA was run, with similarity, trustworthiness, physical attractiveness, and expertise treated as covariates. For the dependent variable Ab (as noted in Table 15), a significant interaction between match-up and involvement was revealed ($p = .0113$). As indicated by Figure 4, those high match/high involvement subjects rated the brands more highly than the high match/low involvement subjects (4.17 to 3.29). In contrast, there was very little difference between the ratings given by the low match/high involvement subjects and the low match/low involvement subjects (3.7 to 3.61). As for BI, a significant main effect ($p = .0113$) was revealed for likability by the ANCOVA. No other significant main effects or interactions were revealed on either of the dependent variables BI or Ab. Furthermore, no significant interactions or main effects were shown to exist for Aad ($p > .05$).

An analysis was also performed in which involvement was treated as a blocking variable and no covariates were included. As was the case when covariates were included, the ANOVA showed a significant interaction between involvement and match-

up on Ab ($p < .05$). However, when Aad, Ab, and BI were analyzed via a MANOVA, the significant interaction between involvement and match-up was no longer revealed.

TABLE 15
ANCOVA FOR ATTITUDE TOWARD THE BRAND
BLOCKING ON INVOLVEMENT

	df	Type III SS	F Value	P Value
Likability	1	3.48	0.39	0.54
Match-Up	1	2.00	0.22	0.64
Involvement	1	16.43	1.83	0.18
Likability*Match	1	4.11	0.46	0.50
Like*Involvement	1	5.33	0.59	0.44
Match*Involvement	1	58.96	6.56	0.01
Like*Match*Involve	1	2.50	0.28	0.60
Trustworthiness	1	2.39	0.27	0.61
Similarity	1	38.35	4.27	0.04
Physically Attractive	1	41.27	4.59	0.03
Expertise	1	31.32	3.49	0.06

Regression Analysis

To determine the extent to which each of the source characteristics was related to each of the dependent variables (Aad, Ab, and BI), a step-wise regression analysis was performed. The first analysis involved using Ab as the criterion variable and expertise, likability, physical attractiveness, similarity, trustworthiness, and match-up as the predictor variables. After five steps, expertise, similarity and physical attractiveness remained in the model, each being significant ($p < .05$). The r-square was .19. The second analysis treated BI as the criterion variable and same six variables as predictors. After three steps, three variables remained in the model, and two were significant

(likability and trustworthiness). The r-square for the BI model was .17. Finally, an analysis for Aad showed three variables remaining in the model after three steps, with similarity and physical attractiveness shown to be significant ($p < .05$). The r-square for the model was 0.27.

Correlation Analysis

A correlation analysis was also performed (see Table 16). This analysis revealed that likability was correlated with trustworthiness at a level of .61. Likability was also highly correlated with similarity (.49), expertise (.47), and physical attractiveness (.47).

TABLE 16
SOURCE PERCEPTION VARIABLE CORRELATION ANALYSIS

	Tru	Sim	Exp	Lik	Phy	Mat	Aad	BI	Ab
Trust	1.00								
Similarity	0.44	1.00							
Expertise	0.48	0.32	1.00						
Likability	0.61	0.49	0.47	1.00					
Phys. Att.	0.49	0.24	0.38	0.47	1.00				
Match-Up	0.36	0.12	0.44	0.31	0.32	1.00			
Aad	0.42	0.41	0.39	0.41	0.38	0.39	1.00		
BI	0.26	0.22	0.18	0.10	0.16	0.41	0.43	1.00	
Ab	0.32	0.31	0.34	0.29	0.33	0.33	0.66	0.52	1.00

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the research are discussed in this chapter and is divided into four major sections. The first section reports and discusses the findings. The second section discusses the limitations of the study. The third section highlights certain contributions and practical implications of the study. The last section discusses future match-up research possibilities.

Discussion of Findings

No significant interaction between likability and match-up was revealed through any of the analyses, when either Aad, Ab, and BI served as the dependent variables. Thus, the three hypotheses were not supported by the study. However, additional analyses treating involvement and similarity as blocking variables revealed a number of significant effects.

A possible reason for failing to find the hypothesized interactions concerns the fictional nature of the endorsers and products. Fictional endorsers were created in an effort to allow for the manipulation of likability without an inadvertent manipulation of other source variables. However, relative to certain celebrity endorsers, the schemas of fictional endorsers are probably less well developed. Thus, match-up may have been weak because the subjects were relying on memory-based descriptions of fictitious endorsers and products.

Another possible explanation for lack of support for the hypotheses involves the relative strength of match-up and likability manipulations. The likability manipulation was quite strong, as evidenced by the difference in mean likability ratings given to the high and low likability manipulation (5.34 to 3.19) on a scale from 1 to 7, with higher numbers indicating higher levels of likability. In contrast, the difference between the high and low match-up endorsers ratings on match-up was less pronounced (4.26 to 3.31). Furthermore, the likability manipulation was so strong that likable endorsers were rated as being significantly more trustworthy, similar, physically attractive, and possessing greater levels of expertise. In addition, relative to unlikable endorsers, likable endorsers were rated as being significantly better matched with the product they were endorsing. This raises a concern shared by Chaiken (1980), who manipulated likability in a similar manner, that the manipulation of likability was confounded with these other variables. In contrast, the level of match-up did not appear to have any effect on likability, expertise, similarity, physical attractiveness, or trustworthiness. Thus, the likability manipulation may have overwhelmed the match-up manipulation.

Unexplained or unknown problems in the experiment may have also contributed to the lack of a hypothesized interaction. It should be noted that while the hypotheses were not supported, a main effect was shown for likability on BI, and for similarity on Aad and Ab. In addition, a significant interaction was shown between involvement and match-up on Ab. Thus, the experiment did yield some significant univariate findings, although such findings should be viewed with caution because of the problem of potential alpha inflation indicated by the lack of results found with the MANOVA. Furthermore, the manipulation check revealed that the independent variables of likability and match-up were manipulated successfully in the experiment.

Interestingly, while the endorser's likability had a major effect on the manner in which the endorser was rated on other source characteristics, likability did not

significantly impact the subject's ratings of the advertisements and brands. However, ratings on behavioral intention were higher for the likable endorser than for the unlikable endorser. This finding does not support the Kahle and Homer (1985) study which concluded that unlikable endorsers actually had a more positive impact on behavioral intention scores than likable endorsers. It should be noted that Kahle and Homer (1985) manipulated likability by using existing celebrities. Thus, other variables were also varied inadvertently that may have confounded their results.

Although a main effect for likability was observed on behavioral intention, it should be noted that when Ab, Ad, and BI were analyzed via a MANOVA, a significant main effect for likability was not observed. This provides evidence that the main effect for likability observed with the ANCOVA may have been as a result of capitalizing on alpha error inflation. Indeed, the effective endorsements of such unlikable celebrities brings into question the importance of likability as a source variable.

Similarity

A main effect for similarity was observed when similarity was treated as a blocking variable. Subjects rated brands endorsed by individuals perceived as similar to themselves more favorably than those who perceived their endorser to be less similar. This also held true for their ratings of ads. This supports Brock (1965), but fails to support Levitt and Kaigler-Evans' (1975) finding that less similar sources were more persuasive than extremely similar sources.

In relation to the low similarity subjects, the high similarity subjects also rated their endorsers as being significantly more likable, expert, physically attractive, and trustworthy. This supports studies which have shown a positive relationship between similarity and liking (e.g., Byrne 1973). It also supports the idea that similarity enhances

persuasion to the degree that it does not simultaneously detract from perceived expertise (Alpert and Anderson 1973).

Involvement

As with similarity, analyses were also run which treated involvement as a blocking variable. An interaction between match-up and involvement was revealed on Ab such that involvement level impacted the effectiveness of the high match-up endorser. This supports Petty and Caccioppo's (1986) Elaboration Likelihood Model which holds that the manner in which individuals process information is contingent upon the personal relevance of the information (involvement level). Under conditions of high involvement, the information is diligently considered. In contrast, under conditions of low involvement, the receiver relies on "peripheral cues," such as likability or expertise of the source, rather than carefully considering the pros and cons of the message.

According to the Elaboration Likelihood Model, match-up serves as part of the central argument of the message, conveying information over and above that contained in explicit verbal arguments. Other authors have claimed to provide evidence that match-up may serve as part of the central message (e.g., Kahle and Homer 1985). However, in these studies match-up was not directly manipulated. Rather, physical attractiveness served as a proxy for match-up. In fact, interactions were not observed between attractiveness and involvement. Instead, only a main effect was revealed for attractiveness. Kahle and Homer (1985) argued that under conditions of high involvement, physical attractiveness served as part of the central message (since it involved an attractiveness-related product—shampoo), but as a peripheral cue under low involvement conditions. Thus, the present study more clearly demonstrates that match-up can serve as a part of the central message by revealing an interaction between match-up and involvement on behavioral intention.

Kahle and Homer (1985) have also studied likability and involvement, although they manipulated physical attractiveness rather than match-up as the third variable. The authors reported a lack of interaction between involvement and likability on each of the dependent variables, a result that is supported by the present study. Interestingly, both studies reported a main effect on BI. However, another study (Chaiken 1980) manipulated involvement and likability in a nonadvertising context and revealed an interaction between the two variables on various persuasion measures, a result which was not supported by the present study.

The findings tend to support earlier research which suggested that likability was highly correlated with trustworthiness, physical attractiveness, and similarity (e.g., Friedman, Slanteramo and Triana 1979; Kamins 1990). Indeed, the present study showed that likability was correlated with trustworthiness (.61), physical attractiveness (.47), similarity (.49), and expertise (.47) (see Table 16).

Prior to the present study, endorser likability, similarity, and match-up had received only limited attention from advertising researchers. Likability had been shown to influence BI, with unlikable endorsers resulting in significantly more positive behavioral intentions than the likable endorsers (Kahle and Homer 1985). As for similarity, Swartz (1984) had demonstrated that similarity and expertise were independent of each other. Finally, Kamins (1990) found that match-up resulted in greater impact on measures of spokesperson credibility and attitude toward the ad. Buhr et al. (1987) found that ratings of tennis celebrities' attractiveness, likability, and expertise were significantly higher when endorsing a tennis racquet as opposed to a hand-held vacuum cleaner.

The findings of the present study lend new insight into the roles of likability, similarity, and match-up in persuasion. Unlike earlier studies (e.g., Kahle 1985), the present study showed that relative to unlikable endorsers, likable endorsers were associated with significantly higher behavioral intention ratings. Furthermore, similarity

was shown to impact ratings of Aad and Ab. Finally, match-up was shown to interact with involvement on Ab, suggesting that match-up is most influential under conditions of high involvement. However, no such interaction was indicated when Ab, Aad, and BI were analyzed via a MANOVA.

While other studies (Kamins 1990; Buhr 1987) suggested that match-up may enhance the way an endorser is perceived, the present study showed no significant differences between ratings given to the high match-up and low match-up endorsers in terms of expertise, trustworthiness, similarity, likability, and physical attractiveness.

Limitations

Although several important variables (e.g., source effect characteristics) were controlled for in the experimental design, there are limitations to this study. First, students were used as subjects in the design, thus limiting external validity. However, students are part of the target market for this type of product (male fragrances). Furthermore, Calder, Phillips, and Tybout (1981) point out that the homogeneity of this type of sample permits a stronger test of theory. Thus, higher levels of internal validity are achieved.

Other limitations also deal with threats to the external validity of the experiment. This was a forced exposure situation in which attention was more or less guaranteed. Also contributing to the artificiality of the study was the fact that subjects were exposed to unfinished advertisements which did not appear in a magazine format.

The generalizability of the study was also limited because only one product class was represented (male fragrances) and only one medium was used (print). Furthermore, only typical consumer endorsers were used, thus limiting the ability to generalize to the realm of celebrity, expert, and C.E.O. endorsers.

The possibility exists that the interaction shown between match-up and involvement on Ab was the result of a type I error which resulted from the large number of analyses being run on the three dependent variables. When Aad, Ab, and BI were analyzed via MANOVA, an interaction between involvement and match-up was no longer revealed, suggesting that the interaction shown between involvement and match-up on Ab may have been the result of capitalizing on alpha error inflation.

Contributions and Practical Implications

A major contribution to the present experiment is that match-up was manipulated in a manner that could not be confused with other source effect variables (i.e., likability, physical attractiveness, similarity, etc.). Earlier studies using existing celebrities as endorsers appear to have confounded match-up with many of these source characteristics (e.g., Kamins 1990). By creating fictitious endorsers, the present study allowed for manipulation of likability and match-up without inadvertent manipulation of any number of source characteristics.

Unlike any previous research, the results are consistent with the concept that match-up can serve as part of the central message. The main effects for physical attractiveness found in earlier studies (e.g., Kahle and Homer 1985) were used to support the idea that match-up was part of the central message, since these studies used a peripheral cue (physical attractiveness) as a proxy for match-up. The present study manipulated match-up in a manner that was not confounded with peripheral cues such as physical attractiveness. Furthermore, it simultaneously manipulated independently match-up and likability (a peripheral cue). Thus, in contrast to earlier studies, support for the idea that match-up is part of the central message is provided by the significant interaction shown between involvement and match-up, rather than by a main effect on a peripheral cue such as attractiveness.

A number of practical implications emerge from this study. First, the findings imply that marketers should take care to insure that their endorsers are appropriately matched with their products, especially when their messages will be received by a highly involved group of consumers. Second, while it is important to insure that the endorser and product are well-matched, the findings also suggest that the degree to which the endorser and the target market are matched may also be important. Third, care should also be taken to select likable endorsers, for the feeling they have toward the endorser may affect the consumer intention of purchasing the product at some time in the future. However, these conclusions cannot be made very strongly because of the weakness of the results.

Directions for Future Research

The limitations of the present study were the results of only one product class being represented (male fragrances) and only medium being used (print). Future research opportunities exist for investigating the effect of match-up in other media, such as radio, and in product classes other than male fragrances.

The present study revealed a relationship between likability and involvement. Future research possibilities include studying these two variables in conjunction with additional source effects variables. This would allow for involvement to be directly manipulated, rather than merely measured, as was done in the present study. In addition, further work is required to assess the effects of endorser likability on attitudes and intentions. In the present study, likability was varied by creating an endorser who either liked or disliked the target audience. Certainly other means of manipulating likability exist and should be explored.

Other possibilities include the investigation of similarity. While the present study focused on the match-up of product and endorser, future research opportunities exist for focusing on the match-up of endorser and target market. Balance theory could provide a

promising theoretical base for such research. Additional studies are needed to determine the dimensions of match-up. Such studies should provide insight to marketing practitioners making endorsement choices. The present study has attempted to make such a contribution.

Perhaps the most important area for future research concerns exploring the nature of endorser schemas. Additional work is required to determine how such schemas are formed and how they can be matched to the product and to the message. It is particularly important to investigate the strength of a schema. In the present experiment, the schemas created may not have been strong enough to transfer affect from the endorser to the product. Furthermore, the question should be addressed of whether affect may be attached to schemas and to endorsers.

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APPENDIX A

PRODUCTS AND ENDORSERS QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR 72 PRETEST SUBJECTS

Please read the following instructions:

In the next few pages you will be presented with information on various products and endorsers on which you will be asked your attitudes and opinions. Please progress systematically through the questionnaire. Do not return to earlier sections once they are completed. Please take your time and answer all questions on the following pages carefully. There are no right or wrong answers. All of your answers are confidential.

PLEASE DO NOT OPEN THE QUESTIONNAIRE UNTIL INSTRUCTED TO DO SO.

Thank you for your participation.

"Fitness Nut" Description

Please carefully read the following endorser description:

Robert Johnson has been described by those who know him as a fitness nut. He spends much of his spare time working out at the health club. He enjoys the feeling of euphoria associated with working himself into peak physical condition. Much of the time spent at fitness centers is devoted to the challenge of building up his body by lifting weights. He enjoys considerable success in this area, due to his highly self-disciplined personality. When he's not lifting weights you might find him playing racquetball, a sport that he claims is an excellent way to keep in shape. In fact, he enjoys it so much that he competes in a racquetball league during the winter months.

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Note: Subjects were randomly assigned to one of two endorser descriptions.

"Bar Fly" Description

Please carefully read the following endorser description:

Robert Johnson has been described by those who know him as a partier. He spends much of his spare time hanging out at bars. He claims he enjoys the feeling of euphoria associated with having a few drinks and being around people. Much of the time that he spends at bars is devoted to the challenge of trying to pick up women. He enjoys considerable success in this area, due to his highly sociable personality. When he's not chasing women you might find him playing pool, a sport that he claims is an excellent way to kill time. He even participates in a pool league in the winter months.

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

"Zap" Description

Please carefully read the following product description:

Zap is a line of frozen cocktail mixes. A variety of mixes are available including: margarita, whiskey sour, daiquiri, and pina colada. Zap advertising promises convenience and good taste.

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Note: Subjects were assigned to one of two drink mix descriptions.

"Zip" Description

Please carefully read the following product description:

Zip is a breakfast drink which will soon be released. It will be advertised as being loaded with vitamins and minerals and providing generous amounts of both protein and fiber. The consumer will benefit by experiencing increased energy. The "healthy choice" at breakfast is Zip.

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (ROBERT JOHNSON) AND THE DRINK MIX "ZAP." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please proceed to next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (ROBERT JOHNSON) AND THE DRINK MIX "ZIP." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please proceed to next page.

Indicate your perceptions of the endorser (**Robert Johnson**) by circling a number on the scale below:

Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unattractive
Classy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not classy
Beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ugly
Elegant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not elegant
Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not sexy
Likable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not likable
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not pleasant
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfriendly
Expert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not expert
Qualified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not qualified
Skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not skilled
Experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not experienced
Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unknowledgeable
Similar to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not similar
Like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not like me
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Insincere
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Untrustworthy
Dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not dependable
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unreliable

"Weightlifter" Description

Please carefully read the following endorser description:

Steve Robbins is a twenty-seven-year-old respiratory therapist residing in Portland, Maine. Steve is an active individual. His hobbies include tennis, fishing, downhill skiing, and competing in amateur weight-lifting meets. He has been very successful in the competitions, taking first place three times in last season's competitions. In fact, Steve was considered good enough to be giving an opportunity to compete in the Olympic trials. Although he narrowly missed qualifying for the Olympic team, he is arguably the strongest man in the state of Maine. In fact, he may be the most powerful weightlifter ever to inhabit the state.

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Note: Subjects were assigned to one of the following two endorser descriptions.

"Track Star" Description

Please carefully read the following endorser description:

Steve Robbins is a twenty-seven-year-old respiratory therapist residing in Portland, Maine. Steve is an active individual. His hobbies include tennis, fishing, downhill skiing, and competing in amateur track meets. He has been very successful in these competitions, having taken first place three times in last season's competitions. Although he narrowly missed qualifying for the Olympic team, Steve is arguably the fastest man in the state of Maine. In fact, he may be the speediest man to ever inhabit the state.

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

"Fastactin" Description

Please carefully read the following product description.

Fastactin is a brand of pain reliever which claims to provide the quickest relief available in any over-the-counter formulation. Advertising for the product claims "for fast relief, take Fastactin."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Note: Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the following two brands of pain reliever.

"Strongdose" Description

Please carefully read the following product description.

Strongdose is a brand of pain reliever which claims to provide the strongest medicine against pain available over the counter. Advertising claims "for really bad pain, reach for Strongdose."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (STEVE ROBBINS) AND THE PAIN RELIEVER "FASTACTIN." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please proceed to next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (STEVE ROBBINS) AND THE PAIN RELIEVER "STRONGDOSE." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please proceed to next page.

Indicate your perceptions of the **endorser (Steve Robbins)** by circling a number on the scale below:

Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unattractive
Classy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not classy
Beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ugly
Elegant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not elegant
Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not sexy
Likable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not likable
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not pleasant
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfriendly
Expert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not expert
Qualified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not qualified
Skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not skilled
Experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not experienced
Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unknowledgeable
Similar to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not similar
Like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not like me
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Insincere
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Untrustworthy
Dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not dependable
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unreliable

APPENDIX B

PRODUCTS AND ENDORSERS QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR 66 PRETEST SUBJECTS

Please read the following instructions:

In the next few pages you will be presented with information on various products and endorsers on which you will be asked your attitudes and opinions. Please progress systematically through the questionnaire. Feel free to refer back to the endorser and product descriptions when completing the questionnaire. Please take your time and answer all questions on the following pages carefully. There are no right or wrong answers. All of your answers are confidential.

PLEASE DO NOT OPEN THE QUESTIONNAIRE UNTIL INSTRUCTED TO DO SO.

Thank you for your participation.

Likable "Country Clubber" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level manager for a large electronics corporation. He appreciates the comforts of modern life. He dislikes physically risky situations and is involved in leisure sports in his free time. He likes the peacefulness and relaxation associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends at the country club playing tennis, golf, and polo. Golf is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has consistently shown himself to be one of the best golfers at his club. He also spends about one weekend each month playing polo, a sport he participates in for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other leisure sports. A polo buddy recently took Jim sailing and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a sail boat.

Jim has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students through his participation with his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, Jim replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very responsible and mature group of individuals who are generally concerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public underestimates both the ability and maturity of today's college students. I'm happy to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be successes in life."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Note: Each subject was randomly assigned to one of the following four endorser descriptions.

Unlikable "Mountain Man" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a middle level manager for a large electronics corporation. He enjoys getting away from the comforts of modern life. He likes physically risky situations and is involved in adventure sports in his free time. He likes the adrenaline and excitement associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends in the mountains rock climbing, white water rafting, and backpacking. Mountain climbing is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has climbed twelve of Colorado's fourteen-thousand-foot peaks in the past three years. He also spends about one weekend each month white water rafting, a sport he participates in primarily for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other adventure sports. A rafting buddy recently took Jim hang gliding, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a hang glider.

Jim Knepp has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students, since many of them participate in his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, he replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very irresponsible and immature group of individuals who are generally unconcerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public overestimates both the ability and maturity level of today's college students. I'm sad to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be failures in life."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Unlikable "Country Clubber" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level manager for a large electronics corporation. He appreciates the comforts of modern life. He dislikes physically risky situations and is involved in leisure sports in his free time. He likes the peacefulness and relaxation associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends at the country club playing tennis, golf, and polo. Golf is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has consistently shown himself to be one of the best golfers at his club. He also spends about one weekend each month playing polo, a sport he participates in for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other leisure sports. A polo buddy recently took Jim sailing and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a sail boat.

Jim Knepp has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students through his participation with his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, he replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very irresponsible and immature group of individuals who are generally unconcerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public overestimates both the ability and maturity of today's college students. I'm sorry to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be failures in life."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

Likable "Mountain Man" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level manager for a large electronics corporation. He enjoys getting away from the comforts of modern life. He likes physically risky situations and is involved in adventure sports in his free time. He likes the adrenaline and excitement associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends in the mountains rock climbing, white water rafting, and backpacking. Mountain climbing is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has climbed twelve of Colorado's fourteen-thousand-foot peaks in the past three years. He also spends about one weekend each month white water rafting, a sport he participates in primarily for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides to be exposure to other adventure sports. A rafting buddy recently took Jim hang gliding, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a hang glider.

Jim Knepp has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students, since many of them participate in his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, he replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very responsible and mature group of individuals who are generally concerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public underestimates both the ability and maturity level of today's college students. I'm happy to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be successes in life."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

"Yukon" Description

Please carefully read the following product description:

Yukon is a brand of men's cologne that is advertised as the cologne for those who "answer to the call of the wild." Marketing research has determined that Yukon is perceived as being a cologne for the adventurous, outdoorsy, and "macho man" type.

Please turn the page after reading the description.

Note: Subjects were exposed to one of the following two product descriptions.

"Pendleton" Description

Please carefully read the following product description:

**Pendleton is a brand of men's cologne advertised as the "sophisticate' cologne."
Pendleton is positioned in the market as a scent for the stylish man of the world, the type
of man that likes to see and be seen.**

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (JIM KNEPP) AND THE COLOGNE "PENDLETON." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please proceed to next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (JIM KNEPP) AND THE COLOGNE "YUKON." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please proceed to next page.

Indicate your perceptions of the endorser (**Jim Knepp**) by circling a number on the scale below.

Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unattractive
Classy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not classy
Beautiful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ugly
Elegant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not elegant
Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not sexy
Likable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not likable
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not pleasant
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfriendly
Expert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not expert
Qualified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not qualified
Skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not skilled
Experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not experienced
Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unknowledgeable
Similar to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not similar
Like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not like me
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Insincere
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Untrustworthy
Dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not dependable
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unreliable

APPENDIX C

**PRODUCT ENDORSER QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED
TO 167 MAIN EXPERIMENT SUBJECTS**

Please read the following instructions:

In the next few pages you will be presented with information on a product endorser. You will also be exposed to an advertisement. Questions will be asked to assess your attitudes and opinions regarding the endorser and advertisement. Please progress systematically through the questionnaire. There are no right or wrong answers. All of your answers are confidential.

PLEASE DO NOT OPEN THE QUESTIONNAIRE UNTIL INSTRUCTED TO DO SO.

Thank you for your participation.

Likable "Country Clubber" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser.

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level manager for a large electronics corporation. He appreciates the comforts of modern life. He dislikes physically risky situations and is involved in leisure sports in his free time. He likes the peacefulness and relaxation associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends at the country club playing tennis, golf, and polo. Golf is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has consistently shown himself to be one of the best golfers at his club. He also spends about one weekend each month playing polo, a sport he participates in for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other leisure sports. A polo buddy recently took Jim sailing and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a sail boat.

Jim has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students through his participation with his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, Jim replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very responsible and mature group of individuals who are generally concerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public underestimates both the ability and maturity of today's college students. I'm happy to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be successes in life."

Now, please read the advertisement on the following page. Then, after reading the advertisement, turn the page and answer the questions on the following pages.

Note: Each subject was randomly assigned to one of the four endorser descriptions.

Unlikable "Mountain Man" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level marketing manager for a large electronics corporation. He enjoys getting away from the comforts of modern life. He likes physically risky situations and is involved in these types of sports in his free time. He likes the adrenaline and excitement associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends in the mountains rock climbing, white water rafting, and backpacking. Mountain climbing is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has climbed twelve of Colorado's fourteen-thousand-foot peaks in the past three years. He also spends about one weekend each month white water rafting, a sport he participates in primarily for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other exciting sports. A rafting buddy recently took Jim kayaking, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a kayak.

Jim Knepp has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students, since many of them participate in his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, he replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very irresponsible and immature group of individuals who are generally unconcerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public overestimates both the ability and maturity level of today's college students. I'm sad to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be failures in life."

Now, please read the advertisement on the following page. Then, after reading the advertisement, turn the page and answer the questions on the following pages.

Unlikable "Country Clubber" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level marketing manager for a large electronics corporation. He appreciates the comforts of modern life. He dislikes physically risky situations and is involved in leisure sports in his free time. He likes the peacefulness and relaxation associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends at the country club playing golf, polo, and other such sports. Golf is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has consistently shown himself to be one of the best golfers at his club. He also spends about one weekend each month playing polo, a sport he participates in for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides for exposure to other leisure sports. A polo buddy recently took Jim sailing and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a sail boat.

Jim Knepp has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students through his participation with his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, he replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very irresponsible and immature group of individuals who are generally unconcerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public overestimates both the ability and maturity of today's college students. I'm sorry to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be failures in life."

Now, please read the advertisement on the following page. Then, after reading the advertisement, turn the page and answer the questions on the following pages.

Likable "Mountain Man" Endorser

Please carefully read the description of the following endorser:

Jim Knepp is a relatively young middle level marketing manager for a large electronics corporation. He enjoys getting away from the comforts of modern life. He likes physically risky situations and is involved in these types of sports in his free time. He likes the adrenaline and excitement associated with these sports and spends many of his weekends in the mountains rock climbing, white water rafting, and backpacking. Mountain climbing is his favorite sport, and the one at which he is most accomplished. Jim has climbed twelve of Colorado's fourteen-thousand-foot peaks in the past three years. He also spends about one weekend each month white water rafting, a sport he participates in primarily for the social interaction and the opportunity it provides to be exposed to other exciting sports. A rafting buddy recently took Jim kayaking, and he was so taken by the experience that he is presently considering buying a kayak.

Jim Knepp has dealt extensively with undergraduate college students, since many of them participate in his company's internship program. When asked his feelings towards today's undergraduates, he replied that "I think that undergraduates today are a very responsible and mature group of individuals who are generally concerned with their role in society. I've come to the conclusion that the public underestimates both the ability and maturity level of today's college students. I'm happy to say that most of today's undergraduates will probably turn out to be successes in life."

After you have read the description, please turn to the next page.

FOR EACH OF THE QUESTIONS BELOW, PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH YOU FEEL BEST DESCRIBES THE ADVERTISEMENT YOU JUST READ.

What is your overall reaction to the advertisement?

Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfavorable
Interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dull
Appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unappealing
Believable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unbelievable
Informative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninformative
Eye catching	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Noneye catching

What is your overall reaction to the brand feature in the advertisement?

Good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Bad
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Favorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfavorable
Will try	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Will not try
Will buy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Will not buy

Please turn to the next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (JIM KNEPP) AND THE COLOGNE "YUKON." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please turn to the next page.

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVEN STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ENDORSER (JIM KNEPP) AND THE COLOGNE "PENDLETON." PLEASE RATE YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THESE STATEMENTS.

1. The image of the endorser and the image of the brand are well-matched.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

2. The endorser and brand are logically related.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

3. This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

4. This endorser probably uses this brand of product in their everyday life.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

5. This endorser possesses expertise that makes them especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

6. The endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

7. One look at this endorser, and you can see the benefits of the brand demonstrated right before your eyes.

Strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Disagree

Please turn to the next page.

Indicate your perceptions of the endorser (**Jim Knepp**) by circling a number on the scale below.

Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unattractive
Handsome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Handsome
Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not sexy
Likable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not likable
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not pleasant
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfriendly
Expert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not expert
Qualified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not qualified
Skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not skilled
Experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not experienced
Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unknowledgeable
Similar to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not similar
Like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not like me
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Insincere
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Untrustworthy
Dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not dependable
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unreliable
Adventurous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Adventurous
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Rugged
Sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Sophisticated
Cultured	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Cultured

Please turn to the next page.

PLEASE REVIEW THE FOLLOWING ADJECTIVE CHECKLIST AND CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT YOU FEEL BEST DESCRIBES YOUR PERCEPTION OF THE DECISION TO PURCHASE A MALE COLOGNE.

Important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unimportant
Relevant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Irrelevant
Trivial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fundamental
Of No Concern	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Of Concern to Me

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR GENDER BY MARKING THE APPROPRIATE BOX.

Male Female

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX D

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS: ITEM-TO-TOTAL CORRELATIONS

ORIGINAL SCALE ITEMS: ITEM-TO-TOTAL CORRELATIONS

				Item-to-Total Correlations
<u>Attitude Toward the Ad</u>				
Aad 1	Pleasant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unpleasant	.63
Aad 2	Good	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Bad	.73
Aad 3	Favorable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unfavorable	.79
Aad 4	Interesting	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Dull	.77
Aad 5	Appealing	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unappealing	.85
Aad 6	Believable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unbelievable	.59
Aad 7	Informative	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Uninformative	.64
Aad 8	Eye catching	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not eye catching	.63
		Coefficient Alpha		.67
<u>Attitude Toward the Brand</u>				
Ab 1	Good	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Bad	.92
Ab 2	Pleasant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unpleasant	.95
Ab 3	Favorable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unfavorable	.93
		Coefficient Alpha		.98
<u>Behavioral Intention</u>				
BI 1	Will try	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Will not try	.96
BI 2	Will buy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Will not buy	.94
		Item-to-Item Correlation		.96
<u>Physical Attractiveness</u>				
Phy 1	Attractive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not attractive	.91
Phy 2	Handsome	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not handsome	.91
Phy 3	Sexy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not sexy	.87
		Coefficient Alpha		.96

APPENDIX D (Continued)

				Item-to-Total Correlations
<u>Likability</u>				
Lik 1	Likable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not likable	.95
Lik 2	Pleasant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not pleasant	.97
Lik 3	Friendly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not friendly	.96
Coefficient Alpha				.99
<u>Similarity</u>				
Sim 1	Similar to me	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not similar to me	.98
Sim 2	Like me	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not like me	.98
Item-to-Item Correlation				.90
<u>Trustworthiness</u>				
Tru 1	Sincere	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Insincere	.71
Tru 2	Trustworthy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not trustworthy	.85
Tru 3	Dependable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not dependable	.87
Tru 4	Reliable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not reliable	.88
Tru 5	Honest	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Dishonest	.88
Coefficient Alpha				.79
<u>Adventurous</u>				
Adv 1	Adventurous	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not adventurous	.96
Adv 2	Rugged	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not rugged	.96
Item-to-Item Correlation				.85
<u>Sophisticated</u>				
Sop 1	Sophisticated	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not sophisticated	.94
Sop 2	Cultured	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not cultured	.93
Item-to-Item Correlation				.74

APPENDIX D (Continued)

				Item-to-Total Correlations
<u>Involvement</u>				
Inv 1	Important	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unimportant	.34
Inv 2	Relevant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Irrelevant	.40
Inv 3	*Trivial	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Fundamental	.04
Inv 4	*Of No Concern	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Of concern to me	.08
Coefficient Alpha				.40
<u>Expertise</u>				
Exp 1	Expert	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not expert	.89
Exp 2	Qualified	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not qualified	.91
Exp 3	Skilled	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not skilled	.90
Exp 4	Experienced	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not experienced	.86
Exp 5	Knowledgeable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unknowledgeable	.83
Coefficient Alpha				.80

APPENDIX D (Continued)

		Item-to-Total Correlations
<u>Match-Up</u>		
Mat 1	The image of endorser and product are well matched.	.80
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Mat 2	The endorser and brand are logically related.	.83
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Mat 3	This endorser is appropriate for the brand being endorsed.	.88
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Mat 4	This endorser probably uses this brand of product in everyday life.	.69
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Mat 5	This endorser possesses expertise that makes him especially valuable as an endorser for this brand.	.74
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Mat 6	This endorser and brand possess many of the same intangible qualities.	.82
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
Mat 7	One look at this endorser and you can see the benefits of the product demonstrated right before your eyes.	.65
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
	Coefficient Alpha	.67

*Notes reversed scored items.

APPENDIX E

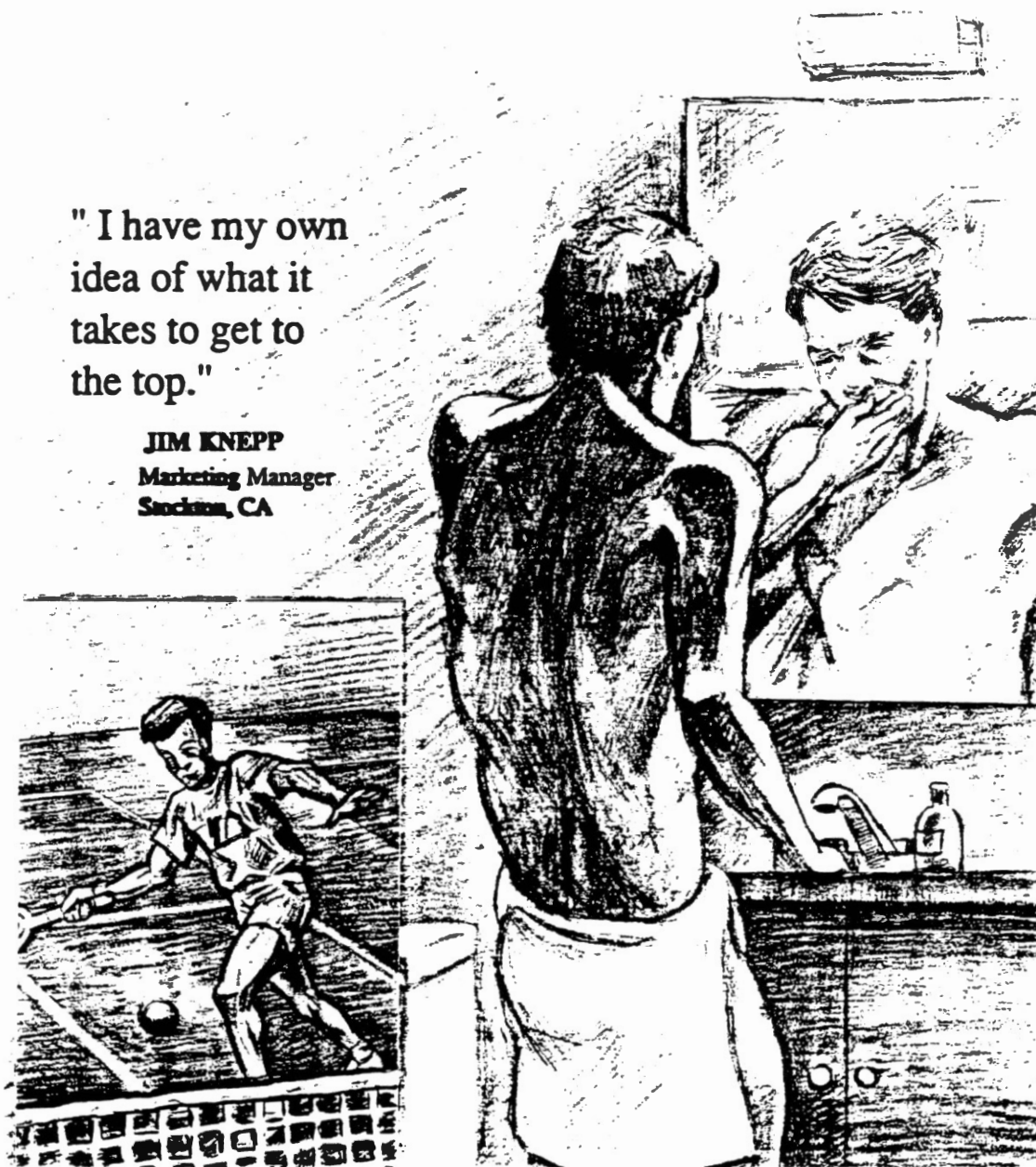
ADVERTISEMENTS CREATED FOR MAIN EXPERIMENT

PENDLETON COLOGNE

THE ESSENCE OF SOPHISTICATION

" I have my own
idea of what it
takes to get to
the top."

JIM KNEPP
Marketing Manager
Sacramento, CA

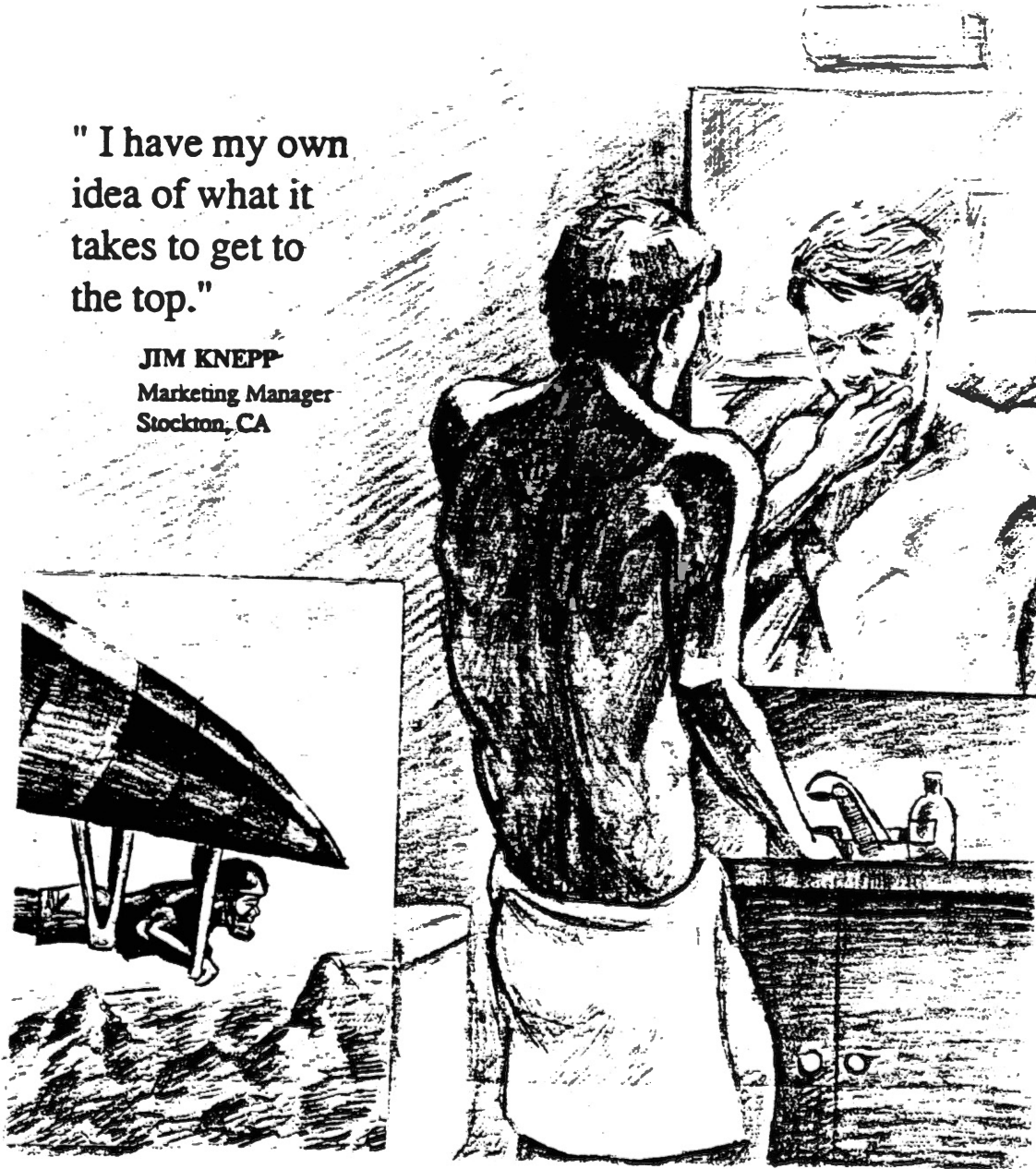


YUKON COLOGNE

THE ESSENCE OF ADVENTURE

" I have my own
idea of what it
takes to get to
the top."

JIM KNEPP
Marketing Manager
Stockton, CA



VITA ^v

Allen David Schaefer

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

**Thesis: AN ANALYSIS OF ENDORSER-PRODUCT MATCH-UP AND
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