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ENDORSER EFFECTIVENESS AS A FUNCTION OF PRODUCT TYPE

by

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Abstract

ENDORSER EFFECTIVENESS
AS A FUNCTION OF
PRODUCT TYPE

by

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Each of 360 housewives was randomly assigned to evaluate one of 12 different professionally prepared, black-and-white, print advertisements. These advertisements were formed by using different combinations of four categories of endorsement and three products. The categories of endorsement used were: a) a control advertisement which featured no endorser, b) a celebrity endorser, c) a professional expert endorser, and d) a typical consumer endorser, a housewife.

A pretest determined the three products for the study, as follows: a) The purchase of a vacuum cleaner

was found to be high in financial, performance, and physical risks, and low in psychological and social risks; b) the purchase of a box of cookies was rated low on all five types of risk; and c) the purchase of costume jewelry was found to rate high in psychological and social risks, and low in financial, performance, and physical risks.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 set forth the endorsement/product combinations which were expected to be most effective in achieving a high evaluation for the advertisement, more credibility for the endorser, a higher overall attitude towards the product, and greater intent-to-purchase for the advertised product. These were: 1) the celebrity endorsing costume jewelry, 2) the professional expert endorsing a vacuum cleaner, and 3) the typical consumer endorsing a box of cookies.

Two additional hypotheses were:

4) Consumers exposed to the celebrity endorsement will expect the product to sell at a higher price than will those exposed to the other types of endorsers, regardless of the type of product advertised.

5) The celebrity will be more effective than the expert or typical consumer in sustaining recall of the advertisement and the brand name of the product, regardless of the type of product advertised.

During the initial interview, the subject indicated her evaluation of the advertisement, using 20 adjectives on a six-point scale; her overall attitude to and intent-to-purchase of the advertised product; her estimation of the expected selling price of the advertised product; and her opinions as to the believability of the advertisement in question.

Approximately 48 hours later, the same interviewer again contacted the respondent, this time by telephone, in order to determine the extent of the subject's recall of the parts of the advertisement and the brand name of the product.

Analyses performed on the data pointed to a significant product by endorser interaction effect, confirming Hypotheses 1 through 3.

Hypothesis 5 was also upheld by the study, in that advertisements utilizing the celebrity endorser obtained a mean recall score of 42.81 (on a 0 to 100 scale), which was significantly different from that achieved by the other endorsement types, 29.97.

Hypothesis 4 was not confirmed by the present study. Although the mean expected selling price values were in the direction hypothesized, statistical

significance was lacking.

An advertiser is, therefore, advised to first ascertain the paramount risks involved in the purchase of his product, before choosing the endorsement type which will produce the most favorably evaluated and believable advertisement, and the most favorable consumer attitudes towards the advertised product.

If, however, a high degree of advertisement recall and brand name awareness are desired above all else, a celebrity endorser might be most effective regardless of the type of product advertised.

Although, for the purpose of the study, a homogeneous population was desired, this limited the scope of the study to one of an exploratory nature. Any conclusions drawn from data gathered in a small area may not be applicable to housewives in general, without further research.

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Of the many professors and colleagues who helped me with this dissertation, I especially wish to thank Professor Ronald Gatty, of the Marketing Department, and Professor Edward Wolf, of the Statistics Department, for their guidance, assistance, and ready availability. Without their help, this study would certainly not have been possible.

A warm thank you is in order to my wife, Linda. Her contribution was not the typical "standing by patiently until the work was completed," but it involved several months of hard work as interviewer, proofreader, and typist.

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INTRODUCTION

One can hardly open up a newspaper or magazine, turn on the television or radio, without encountering an advertisement utilizing an endorsement. "An 'endorsement' means any advertising message...which consumers are likely to believe reflects the opinions, beliefs, findings, or experience of a party other than the sponsoring advertiser. The party...will be called the endorser..." (Federal Trade Commission, 1975). The majority of endorsements fall into one of the following three categories of endorsers:

(1) professional expert- "...an individual, group, or institution possessing, as a result of experience, study or training, knowledge of a particular subject, which knowledge is superior to that generally acquired by ordinary individuals." (Federal Trade Commission, 1975) As far as professional experts are concerned, this paper will only focus on individuals who are professional experts. An example of an

individual expert endorser is Amy Greene, beauty consultant, endorsing Tone soap.

(2) celebrity- an individual who is known to the public (actor, sports figure, entertainer, etc.) for his achievements in areas other than that of the product class being endorsed. For instance, comedian Danny Thomas endorses Maxwell House Coffee.

(3) typical consumer- an ordinary person "who has no special expert knowledge beyond normal use of the product" (Federal Trade Commission, 1972). This is not the same as an advertisement depicting an actor playing the part of a typical consumer. A 'typical consumer' endorsement frequently gives the name, occupation, and/or city of residence of the consumer endorser. An example is the endorsement of Anacin by Noel Roper, a stockbroker.

Other types of endorsers are:

organizations- which may be expert (e.g. The American Dental Association, which endorses Crest Toothpaste) or non-expert (e.g. The National Football League, which endorsed Domino Sugar)

magazines- e.g. Motor Trend Magazine, which endorses various makes of cars

company officers- e.g. Frank Perdue of Perdue Chickens.

This paper will be concerned only with the three major types of endorsers listed above, the professional expert, celebrity, and typical consumer endorsements.

Very often, an advertising agency attempts to portray a celebrity as an expert on the product he endorses. This makes the endorsement difficult to classify. It has been a rule of thumb in the advertising world to use celebrities who are perceived as being knowledgeable about the product (Aitchison, 1958). An example is George Montgomery, an actor, first informing the public that he makes his own furniture, and then endorsing Johnson Wax Furniture Polish. According to the aforementioned definitions, this type of endorsement would be classified as a celebrity endorsement since George Montgomery is recognized as an actor rather than as a professional expert.

Federal Trade Commission Guidelines (1975) concerning the use of endorsements are strictest with regard to expert endorsements. According to the FTC, the expert endorser's qualifications must be sufficient so as to give him expertise with respect to the endorsement. Furthermore, he must have tested the product in his area of expertise. This test should be extensive enough to support the claims of the advertisement. If the implication of the endorsement is that the product is superior, then the test must have, in fact, demonstrated this superiority. In explaining their guidelines, the FTC gave the following example: The

endorsement of an automobile by an "engineer" would be deceptive if the engineer were a chemical engineer, since the design and performance of automobiles are not in his area of expertise.

According to the Federal Trade Commision's Proposed Guidelines (1975) for consumer endorsements, endorsements reflecting the individual experience of the consumer must reflect the typical performance of the product which any consumer could be expected to experience. Actual consumers must be used if that is the implication of the endorsement. When actors are used to represent consumers, this fact must be conspicuously disclosed. Lay endorsements may not be used for claims concerning the efficacy of drugs. The FTC gave the following example: A consumer endorsement of a flashlight battery stating that the battery saved his life by lasting three nights while he was lost at sea, would be deceptive if the battery could not be expected to last that long on the average. The typical expected performance of the product must be disclosed.

The FTC did not specify guidelines for celebrity endorsements. However, the proposed general guidelines for endorsements apply to celebrity endorsers as well as to the others:

-Endorsements must always reflect the honest opinions, findings, beliefs or experience of the endorser.

-The endorsement may not be presented out of context or

reworded in order to distort the endorser's true opinion.

-An advertiser may use the endorsement only so long as the endorser continues to subscribe to the views presented in the advertisement. Where the endorser is represented as a user of the product, the advertiser may run the endorsement only so long as the endorser remains a bona fide user of the product. In keeping with this, some advertising agencies have required celebrities to sign affidavits attesting to their use of the product. The advertiser will often give the celebrity a year's supply of the product (Dougherty, 1975).

-Any connections between the endorser and the seller of the product must be disclosed if this information would affect the credibility of the endorsement. Thus, disclosure of payment would be required where the endorser is neither well known nor a recognized expert. A well-known celebrity is expected to receive payment for his endorsement. Consequently, disclosure of payment would not be necessary. The FTC gives the following example: A former astronaut who is on the board of directors of a motel chain endorses the company's motels. The advertisement would be considered deceptive were this connection not disclosed.

Three examples of FTC toughness with endorsements are:

1- It challenged the endorsement of toy racing cars

by racing car drivers, with the claim that driving racing cars did not provide one with expertise in children's toys (Cohen, 1972).

2- It challenged the endorsement of milk by several celebrities (Vida Blue, Ray Bolger, Mark Spitz, Dear Abby). The advertisement in question showed the celebrity saying "Everybody needs milk." and was paid for by the California Milk Producers Advisory Board. The FTC's claim was that celebrities should not be used for opinions in areas involving expertise, unless the celebrity is a qualified expert in the field. However, the courts ruled that the FTC has no jurisdiction over a state agency (Advertising Age, 1974).

3- It challenged Beatrice Foods, producer of Holloway Milk Duds, for their advertisement which showed Lou Brock stealing bases. The FTC claimed that the advertisement implied that eating the candy is necessary for improving one's athletic performance. Also, the statement that Milk Duds are "the official candy of the Major League Baseball Players Association" was deceptive since this endorsement was not based on actual nutritional superiority, but on a monetary consideration (Beatrice Foods Co. et al, Federal Trade Commission Decisions, 1973).

CHAPTER I

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Social Power and the Processes of Opinion Change

What gives a communicator the power to influence people and affect their opinions, beliefs, attitudes, and even actions? Raven and French (1958), in their discussion of social power theory, defined five bases for social power:

1- Reward power is based on the belief by an individual that he may be rewarded by another individual were he to respond favorably to the influence attempt.

2- Coercive power is based on the belief by an individual that he might be punished were he to avoid the influence attempt.

3- Legitimate power is based on the belief by an individual that another has a legitimate right to influence him.

4- Referent power is based on the belief by an individual that he is similar to another individual. This power may be based on the desire to be closely identified with a personally attractive individual.

5- Expert power is based on the belief by an individual that another individual possesses expertise which is superior to his own.

Since this paper is concerned with the use of endorsements in advertising, the first three sources of power are not relevant. A consumer is not rewarded by the endorser, neither is he forced to purchase the product. Also, the endorser obviously has no "legitimate right" to influence the consumer. The last two sources of power, however, are very relevant to our discussion of endorsements. Very often, a celebrity endorser's influence is based on his personal attractiveness and the consumer's desire to identify with him. Typical consumer endorsements, by virtue of the public's perceived similarity to the endorser, also seem to be related to referent power. Expert power may certainly be related to endorsements by professional experts.

Kelman (1961) hypothesized three processes of social influence which cause an individual to adopt the attitudes advocated by an influencing agent:

1- Compliance is said to occur when an individual exhibits a certain attitude or behavior, not because he believes in the particular attitude or behavior, but because he seeks reward and/or desires to avoid punishment. The very word

compliance indicates that the attitude or behavior change is an overt one, and no internal change has been effected.

2- Identification is said to occur when an individual conforms to the attitude or behavior advocated by another person because this individual derives satisfaction from the belief that he is like that person. The individual does believe in the attitude or behavior advocated, but his satisfaction is principally derived from the act of conforming.

3- Internalization is said to occur when an individual conforms to the attitude or behavior advocated by another person because he believes in the substance of the new attitude or behavior. It is assimilated (internalized) with his own personal values.

Compliance seems to be related to the first three of Raven and French's social powers discussed above. Thus it, too, is not relevant to endorsements. Identification is related to likeableness and personal attraction, the bases for referrent power, and thus may be the process underlying persuasion by a celebrity endorser.

Internalization should occur when the source is perceived as honest, sincere, and possessing a great deal of expertise (expert power). Of the three processes of opinion change, the typical consumer endorsement relates best to

internalization. This is because Kelman's process of identification has been defined differently from Raven and French's referent power. Whereas referent power encompassed belief of similarity and desire to be similar, the identification process only encompasses the satisfaction from acting like a person to whom one wishes to be similar. Although the public may admit to being similar to the typical consumer, it does not derive as much satisfaction from this similarity as from the perceived similarity to a celebrity.

B. Source Credibility

1. Factor Analytic Studies:

An endorsement is an advertising communication, and the endorser is viewed as a source of information. As a source of information, the endorser may or may not be believed by those receiving the communication, potential consumers. To ascertain the desirable attributes of an endorser, one must delve into the extensive source credibility literature, which spans the fields of psychology, sociology, communications, speech, and marketing.

Hovland, Janis and Kelly (1953, p.21) suggested that credibility consists of two components: perceived expertness and trustworthiness. Due to the advent of modern computers, researchers in the field have been able to use factor analysis to analyze semantic differential or Likert scales in determining the underlying components of credibility. McCroskey (1966) found two significant factors: authoritativeness (encompassing reliability, intelligence, and expertness) and character (encompassing honesty, friendliness, and pleasantness). These two factors explained 71% of the total variance (52% and 19%, respectively).

Bowers and Phillips (1967) also found two factors:

trustworthiness and competence. The two factors explained 57% of the total variance. In Whitehead's (1968) study, four factors emerged: trustworthiness, competence, dynamism, and objectivity. These four factors explained approximately 45% of the total variance. Berlo, Lemert and Mertz (1969) uncovered four factors as well: safety (encompassing open-mindedness, justness, and honesty), qualification (encompassing training, experience, and expertness), dynamism, and sociability. These four factors accounted for 62% of the total variance.

There must be a reason why the above-mentioned researchers could not agree on the factors involved in source credibility. Applbaum and Anatol (1973) found that the number of significant factors, and percentage of total variance explained, changed over time. This, despite the fact that he used the same subjects in the replicate study which occurred only one week later. The major factors which emerged from this study were expertness, trustworthiness, dynamism, and objectivity. In another study, Applbaum and Anatol (1972) found that the situation in which the communication is presented (classroom, social organization, church) affected the underlying factor structure. Trustworthiness scales appeared in several different factors indicating that it might be a multi-faceted

attribute.

Smith (1973) found that the four component dimensions of source credibility-- trustworthiness, objectivity, competence, and dynamism-- may be treated as equal in weight, with the exception of the negative side of trustworthiness. "An untrustworthy speaker, regardless of his other qualities, was viewed as a questionable message source." Add to this information the fact that trustworthiness showed up as a major factor in every study, and that it sometimes appeared in several of the factors, and one is led to conclude that trustworthiness is the main factor underlying source credibility.

2. Trustworthiness:

Numerous studies have found that a source of high credibility effects more opinion change than one of low credibility. In Hovland and Weiss' (1951) study, two groups of students were presented with identical communications dealing with antihistamine drugs, atomic submarines, the steel shortage, and the future of movie theatres. For each communication, one trustworthy and one untrustworthy source was used. A statistical analysis showed that the sources did, in fact, differ significantly in trustworthiness. After three of the four communications, there was greater opinion change in the advocated direction when trustworthy, rather than untrustworthy, sources were used. The exception was the communication dealing with the future of movie theatres. The source of low credibility, a gossip columnist, caused greater opinion change than the source of high credibility, Fortune Magazine.

A possible explanation proposed by Walster, Aronson and Abrahams (1966) is that a communicator, regardless of his general prestige, is more effective when arguing against his own self-interest. The movie-gossip columnist, when arguing that television would cause a decrease in the

number of movie theatres, was arguing against her own self-interest and, consequently, was more effective. This, despite the fact that she was rated as an untrustworthy source in general.

Another finding by Hovland and Weiss was that the difference in opinion change disappeared after four weeks. This was due to a loss in opinion change for the group exposed to the high credibility source, and a gain for the group exposed to the low credibility source. This "sleeper effect," according to the authors, results from the disassociation of the source from the content. The authors showed that the source was not forgotten since, after four weeks, there was no significant difference between the two groups in recall of the source. The subjects simply did not think of the communication in association with the communicator. Thus, the positive effects of a trustworthy source and the negative effects of an untrustworthy source were not felt after some time had elapsed.

The Kelman and Hovland (1953) study supports the theory of a "sleeper effect." They presented 330 high school students with identical communications pleading for more lenient treatment of juvenile delinquents. Three different communicators were used: positive (a judge and

author), negative (a dope peddler), and neutral (a member of the studio audience). As in the Hovland-Weiss study, the greatest opinion change, when tested immediately, appeared in the group hearing the positive source. The group exposed to the negative source exhibited the least opinion change. After three weeks, one half of the subjects in each group had the communicator "reinstated." This was achieved by playing back the portion of the tape in which the speakers were introduced. Under "non-reinstatement" conditions, there was a gain in extent of agreement with the negative communicator and a loss for the positive communicator, as in the Hovland-Weiss study. Reinstatement, however, caused the initial effects to remain. This result gives strong evidence that the "sleeper effect" is not manifested after reinforcement of the source. Consequently, in the typical advertising situation, where advertisements are presented repeatedly over long periods of time, there should be no "sleeper effect."

Another major finding of the Hovland-Weiss study was that the learning of the material was not affected by the source. No differences were found in the amount of information learned from the high and low credibility sources. Hovland and Mandell (1952) also found that a

source high in trustworthiness (which they called unsuspicious) produced more opinion change than one low in trustworthiness (suspicious). However, there was no significant difference found in the amount of information learned from the two sources. The communication involved the devaluation of the dollar. The head of an importing firm who, apparently, stood to gain from devaluation was used as the untrustworthy source, and a major economist was used as the trustworthy source.

Powell and Miller's (1967) study achieved similar results. A message communicated by a trustworthy source produced more opinion change than one communicated by an untrustworthy source. The message dealt with donating blood to the Red Cross rather than to private blood banks. The sources, recruiting chairman of a local American Red Cross chapter and a doctor affiliated with a large hospital, were found to differ in the trustworthiness dimension, not the competence dimension.

Zagona and Harter (1966) found that extent of agreement with the communication increased directly with the trustworthiness of the source. The communication was a neutral one, concerning both the positive and negative aspects of smoking. The sources, found to differ in trustworthiness, were the Surgeon General's Report on Smoking and Health, Life Magazine, and an advertisement by

the American Tobacco Company. Their trustworthiness ratings were high, medium, and low, respectively.

Sereno and Hawkins (1967) found that nonfluencies (stuttering, repetitions, slips-of-the-tongue, use of "ah," etc.) affected the factors of competency (expertness) and dynamism. Trustworthiness, however, was not affected. An interesting result of the study was that there was no significant difference in opinion among the five treatment groups (0, 50, 75, 100, and 125 nonfluencies). The taped communication dealt with the issue of the help that the Black Muslims gave to the Negro cause by calling attention to their plight. The authors concluded that

> "the trustworthiness dimension may well be the most critical factor of communicator's credibility in affecting amounts of attitude shift toward the message topic: Since nonfluencies did not alter audience perceptions of the speaker's trustworthiness, these same nonfluencies should perhaps not be expected to bring about differences in amount of attitude shift toward the speech topic."

Many researchers have used indirect methods of manipulating trustworthiness. Walster, Aronson, and Abrahams (1966), mentioned above, demonstrated that any communicator, regardless of credibility, is more effective when arguing against his own best interests. They found that a criminal was equally as effective in obtaining agreement with his position as was a prosecutor, when

both argued that courts should have more power. However, when the communication advocated that courts should have less power, the prosecutor was significantly more effective.

Another method of manipulating trustworthiness is that of deceiving subjects into believing that they have "overheard" a conversation. The subject who believes that the communicator is unaware of his presence may be more affected by the communication, since he feels the communicator has no reason to lie.

Walster and Festinger (1962) found that students "overhearing" a conversation about the lack of harmful effects **of** smoking, changed their opinions more in the advocated direction than those subjects told that the communicator knew they were listening. The communicator was also rated as being more honest in the "overheard" condition. However, the effect on opinion change was only limited to highly involved subjects, i.e. smokers. There was no significant difference in opinion change between the two groups for nonsmokers, who were not involved in the subject matter of the communication. Brock and Becker (1965) confirmed that the "power of overheard propaganda is restricted to moving persons in a direction they want to go anyway."

With regard to the three types of endorsers (professional expert, celebrity, and typical consumer), the public likely believes that all are lacking in credibility. All have something to gain from their endorsements-- money. Celebrities, however, should be rated as the least honest. The public is bombarded with celebrity endorsements, some celebrities endorsing three or more products (e.g. Joe Namath, Bill Cosby). The public reads of the fantastic sums celebrities earn from their endorsements. Henry Aaron, for instance, is expected to earn between 1.5 and 2 million dollars from endorsements over two years. Consequently, if knowing that the communicator stands to gain from his communication affects his trustworthiness, the celebrity endorser is most suspect.

At least, with a professional expert endorser, the public might believe that more than money is involved in the endorsement. The expert is putting his professional reputation on the line. The celebrity, however, is only lending his name to the product. The typical consumer who endorses a product is also considered less suspect than the celebrity, since the public realizes that he does not make as much money from the endorsement as does

the celebrity.

The public probably believes celebrities to be unfamiliar with many of the products which they endorse, since they have hired help to shop, cook, and clean for them. Does anyone actually believe that Susan Blakely does her own washing with Woolite? A celebrity will likely achieve more credibility when endorsing a product with which one may logically assume he is familiar.

3. Expertise:

After trustworthiness, expertise seems to be the next most important factor in inducing opinion change. Raven and French's (1958) five bases of social power included "expert power" as a significant force in achieving attitude change. Kelman (1961) believed that when a communicator possesses expertise, the subject will internalize the message. The significance of expertise as a major factor is also supported by the fact that expertise showed up as a factor in most of the factor analytic studies cited above. In addition, studies by Moore (1921), Marple (1933), Kulp (1934), and Burtt and Falkenburg (1941) demonstrated that expert opinion is approximately as effective as majority opinion in influencing opinion change.

There has been much research illustrating the effects of expertise in changing attitudes and, in some cases, even in affecting behavior. Moore (1921) had 95 subjects evaluate statements regarding ethical, linguistic, and musical judgments. When informed of an expert's opinion, There was a significant amount of change in the direction of that opinion. Marple (1933) obtained similar results.

Subjects were asked whether or not they agreed with each of 15 statements. After being informed of expert opinion (university head, statesman, etc.), there was a significant amount of change in the advocated direction.

Kulp (1934) found that graduate students, when informed of social science experts' answers to 71 propositions dealing with social, economic, political, religious, educational, and international issues, changed their opinions significantly in the advocated direction. A similar effect was achieved by informing the subjects of the way in which graduate educators had answered the propositions. Burtt and Falkenburg (1941) demonstrated that churchgoing people were susceptible to expert (clergymen) suggestion. The statements dealt with religious issues.

Crisci and Kassinove (1973) found that parents complied more with a psychologist's recommendation (that the parent pick up a card and mail it with $1 in order to receive a book) if he used the title "Dr." rather than "Mr.". Weick, Gilfillan, and Keith (1973) found that a college orchestra, when asked to play the work of a composer with less expertise (called "non-serious" by the authors), committed more errors than a similar orchestra asked to play the work of a more expert composer. The

musical piece was actually the same in both cases. The differences between the two groups disappeared at the second rehearsal. The authors also found that credibility affected learning: The members of the orchestra had better recall of the work when told that it was composed by a more competent composer.

Sprafkin (1969) also found that expertness produced opinion change. Subjects changed their definitions of psychological terms more often when such change was advocated by counselors. However, opinion change was not affected by level of expertise.

It is important to point out that in virtually all the above studies, the areas in which expertise was found to affect attitudes were areas in which there is sufficient reason to rely on expert opinion. It should not come as a surprise that churchgoers are influenced by clergymen's opinions about religious issues. Parents are expected to be influenced by a psychologist's (introduced as "Dr.") recommendation to purchase a book on raising children.

It certainly remains to be seen whether or not experts can influence subjects in areas where the subjects perceive little expertise to be necessary. If an expert (doctor, chemist, perhaps) endorses a particular brand of toilet tissue, it may produce a "boomerang effect." If the public

does not believe that toilet tissue requires expert endorsement, the reaction to the advertisement might be incredulity. Not only will the endorsement not help sales, but it might cause sales to decline. However, if an expert endorses a product which the public perceives as requiring expert opinion, the advertisement might appear quite believable and may cause a positive shift in attitude toward the product.

4. Similarity:

The factor analytic studies cited at the beginning of this discussion did not uncover similarity of source to subject as a component of source credibility. This is, apparently, because bi-polar adjectives dealing with similarity were not included in these studies. The missing adjectives would have dealt with social class, economic status, etc. Hovland, Janis, and Kelly (1953, p.22) felt that similarity effects opinion change because "the recipient of influence... is likely to feel that persons with status, values, interests, and needs similar to his own see things as he does and judge them from the same point of view." They also believed that sources similar to the subject would be considered more expert than dissimilar sources. Simons, Berkowitz, and Moyer (1970) believed that similarity causes personal attraction (to be discussed shortly), thereby affecting attitudes.

Several types of similarities have been used in various studies dealing with similarity of communicator to subject. Weiss (1957), by including views in the communication which were known to be acceptable (called "flogging a dead horse"), caused more agreement with the

rest of the communication. In the study, the topic of academic freedom was the "dead horse" which caused students to agree with an anti-fluoridation speech. In Ewing's (1942) study, subjects who were told that the communicator's position agreed with their own, showed more opinion change in the direction of the communication than subjects who were told that the communicator's position differed from theirs. The same communication was administered to both groups of subjects.

Berscheid (1966) found that communicator-subject similarity influenced opinion change in the direction of the communication when the similarity was relevant to the communication. However, when the similarity was not relevant to the communication it had no effect on opinion change. Subjects agreed more with a communication, about the basis for awarding scholarships, when told they held similar views to the communicator in education. Subjects who were informed that the communicator's views in the field of international affairs were similar to theirs did not exhibit opinion change in the direction of the communication. The group whose views were supposedly similar to the communicator in international affairs exhibited more opinion change with respect to a communication which involved revising the international monetary system, than

did the group whose similarity was supposedly in education.

Mills and Kimble (1973) found that a female college student's ranking of poetry was influenced by those of another female college student whose personality traits were supposedly the same as the subject's. Personality traits were measured by the masculinity- femininity scale of the California Personality Inventory. Similarity was found effective in influencing the poetry rankings when subjects were told that ranking poetry was subjective (a matter of personal taste), and not when told that it was objective (artistic knowledge).

In the Stotland, Zander, and Natsoulas (1961) study, 70 college undergraduates were asked to indicate which nonsense syllables they preferred. Subjects tended to choose those nonsense syllables which were also preferred by a confederate whose musical preferences were similar to their own, provided that the musical preferences were strong.

Mills and Jellison (1968) asked college students to read a speech favoring general education. The students were randomly assigned to four groups. One group was told the speech was given by a professional musician to music students. One group was told that the speaker was an engineer speaking to engineering students. One was told

the speaker was a musician speaking to engineering students, and one group was told that he was an engineer speaking to music students. Subjects showed more agreement with the content of the speech if they believed the communicator and his audience were similar. The authors' hypothesis was based on the belief that a communicator is thought to be more sincere when speaking to an audience which is similar to him. This perceived sincerity on the part of the communicator influenced the opinions of even a dissimilar audience, the subjects, who did not receive the communication directly.

In Smart's (1972) study, significantly more marijuana users rejected a communication on the hazards of marijuana when the message was presented by a non-user rather than a drug user. The Burstein, Stotland, and Zander (1961) study found that subjects (grade school children) agreed with the opinions expressed in a speech about deep-sea diving more often when the communicator was perceived as being similar to them with respect to background-- same neighborhood, similar school, etc.-- than when the backgrounds were presented as dissimilar. There were also similarities in their preferences of colors and abstract sketches.

Aronson and Golden (1962) exposed white grade school children to a communication dealing with the importance of arithmetic. A Negro communicator was presented to one group as a dishwasher, and to another group as an engineer. Groups three and four were presented with a white communicator, also described as being either a dishwasher or an engineer. Both the black and white engineers were equally effective in changing the opinions of the children towards arithmetic. Neither was significantly more effective than the white dishwasher. However, the white dishwasher was substantially more effective than the black dishwasher. Thus racial, as well as attitude, similarity may be a factor of importance in inducing opinion change.

Brock (1965) found that department store customers changed their minds about which brand of paint to purchase more often when told by the salesman that his paint consumption was similar to the subject's, than when the salesman's reported paint consumption was 20 times more than that of the subject. Expertise does not seem to have been involved in this study, since in both cases the salesman informed the subject he purchased the paint "to help my dad." The author believed that the "subjects may have rejected the dissimilar communicator

because his experience seemed irrelevant," or they might have viewed it as a "sales ploy."

The above studies demonstrate that persons similar in beliefs, personality, background, or race can affect each other's attitudes. The most significant study is Brock's (1965), which indicated that similarity of usage may affect purchases. A typical consumer endorsement may utilize this advantage. Consumers may believe that this typical consumer, who uses the product in the same manner as they would, is truly satisfied with the product.

Certainly, for mundane and simple products, neither the celebrity nor the expert endorsement would be expected to achieve much believability. The celebrity would not because the public does not really believe he knows anything about such "ordinary" products, and the expert would not because the judgment of many simple products is not believed to require a great deal of expertise. It is interesting to note that opinion leaders also tend to be similar to those they influence (Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell, 1973, p.402). If one considers typical consumer endorsers "artificial" opinion leaders, it should come as no surprise that similarity is an important factor in inducing opinion change.

5. Expertise vs. Similarity:

Many studies have indicated that the dimension of expertise may induce more opinion change than that of similarity. In the Haiman (1949) study, college students were presented with a recorded speech dealing with national compulsory health insurance. Greater opinion change was observed when the speaker was introduced as the Surgeon General of the United States (expert), than when introduced as a Northwestern University sophomore (similar).

Mausner (1953) found that the art director of an advertising agency influenced college students' answers to the Meier Art Judgment Test more than did a fellow student. In the study, the confederate always gave his incorrect answer to the question prior to the subject's response. Both treatment groups were significantly different from the control group. This indicated that both similarity and expertise have a strong effect on opinion change. However, expertise did better than similarity.

Paulson (1954) exposed college students to a communication dealing with lowering the voting age to

eighteen. There was a greater shift of opinion in the advocated direction when the speaker was introduced as a professor of political science and author of a book on voting habits, than when introduced as a college sophomore.

Bergin (1962) discovered that the director of a personality assessment project effected more change on a masculinity-femininity personality trait scale than did a high school freshman. College students were asked to reevaluate themselves on this scale after hearing the opinion of one of the two confederates. It should be pointed out that even though they are both students, college and high school students may not perceive of each other as similar. Bonchek (1967), in a similar study involving female's self-ratings on femininity, found that a professional clinician had a greater effect on attitude change than did a college sophomore.

Aronson, Turner, and Carlsmith (1963) found that more change in college students' rankings of poetry was effected by exposing them to the opinion of T.S. Eliot, an obvious expert, than by exposing them to the opinion of Miss Agnes Stearns, a college student who planned to become an English teacher.

Ross (1973) also found expertise to be a more powerful influence than similarity. A white psychologist was more effective in influencing Negro mothers to pick up a postcard and mail it, than was a Negro mother. By mailing the postcard the parent could obtain, free of charge, educational building blocks for children. Both expert and peer were effective in getting the mothers to pick up the postcards, but the psychologist was able to influence more subjects to mail it in.

The above studies certainly seem to indicate that expertise is a more powerful inducer of opinion change than similarity. One qualification, however, must be made. All of the above studies dealt with areas which are perceived by the public as requiring expertise. Certainly art judgment, personality tests, poetry ranking, and educational toys are areas in which an expert's opinion should be especially desirable. Even in areas such as lowering the voting age and national compulsory health insurance, an expert's opinion may be considered more valuable than that of a peer.

With regard to endorsements, there may be some products for which an expert endorsement has a distinct advantage-- products which the public perceives as

requiring expert evaluation. On the other hand, there may be products for which a typical consumer endorsement is more effective-- ordinary and mundane products.

6. Likeableness and Personal Attraction:

Although likeableness and/or personal attraction did not appear as a separate factor in the factor analytic studies cited above, they certainly were important variables. Adjectives dealing with likeableness and/or personal attraction (e.g. friendly-unfriendly, nice-awful, admirable- contemptible, etc.) were interpreted as components of other factors. Since the interpretation of factors in factor analysis is quite subjective, these adjectives showed up under factors labeled "safety," "trustworthiness," or "character." Giffin (1967) warned researchers not to ignore the factor of "personal attraction." True, this factor is difficult to measure and is not as "pure" as the others (i.e. it shows up as part of other factors). However, it should not be ignored.

Heider's (1946) Balance Theory indicates that if person P likes person O, and O likes object X, there will be imbalance unless P also likes object X. Since balanced states are preferred, attitude change will occur to change imbalanced states into balanced states.

According to Kelman (1961), the process by which likeableness and/or personal attraction affects attitudes is that of identification. A liked source produces attitude change because people derive satisfaction from exhibiting similar attitudes, opinions, behavior, etc.

Mills and Harvey (1972) provided some evidence for Kelman's theory in their study, using female college students as subjects. They found that when the communicator was personally attractive (a handsome college sophomore who was vice-president of his class), there was no difference in agreement with the communication (favoring general education) between two groups who received information about the communicator's personal attractiveness either before or after the communication. However, agreement with an expert communicator was significantly lower for groups receiving information about the communicator before, rather than after, the communication. The explanation for this effect was as follows: The process by which attractiveness works is identification. Thus, it should make no difference whether information about the communicator's attractiveness is provided before or after the communication. Expertise, on the other hand, works

through the process of internalization. Consequently, it is important that information regarding the communicator's expertise be provided before the communication is presented, so as to give subjects the opportunity to consider the arguments presented in the communication.

Several studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of likeableness and personal attraction in inducing opinion change. In the Saadi and Farnsworth (1934) study, college students agreed more with dogmatic statements when they were attributed to a liked source rather than a disliked source. Likeableness scores were obtained by having college students rank 82 well-known personalities. The ten most and least liked people were used as sources in the study.

In the Wright (1966) study, a "liked" confederate was more persuasive in changing college students' opinions of intercollegiate athletics than was a disliked one. Likeableness was manipulated by the confederate's sending either a very friendly or unfriendly note to the subject.

Haiman (1949) found that a likeable and attractive speaker was more successful in shifting students' attitudes towards compulsory health insurance than was

a disliked and unattractive speaker. The communicator was able to make an unfavorable impression by failing to shave and comb his hair, wearing unattractive eyeglasses and dirty clothing, and adopting a supercilious, sarcastic, and unfriendly manner. A statistical analysis showed that only the factors of likeableness and attractiveness were, in fact, manipulated. Other factors were not affected. Haiman also correlated rankings (by college teachers of public speaking), of twelve well-known public speakers, on persuasiveness and five factors of ethos-- prestige, physical attractiveness, sincerity, likeableness, and competence. Physical attractiveness correlated .71 with persuasive success, and likeableness correlated .87 with the same. Abelson and Miller (1967) found that an insulting communicator caused subjects to move in the opposite direction of the communication (a "boomerang" effect).

Mills and Aronson (1965) demonstrated that an attractive female communicator (with chic, tight clothing, an attractive hairstyle, and becoming makeup) effected more opinion change when openly stating her desire to influence than when the influence attempt was not as apparent. The authors believed a possible reason is

that subjects desire to please an attractive communicator. Thus, if the subjects are aware of the attractive communicator's desire to influence them, they will be quite willing to oblige. This study points out one advantage that a celebrity endorser might have. If the celebrity is considered personally attractive, which is usually the case, an overt attempt to influence consumers to buy a product may not be disadvantageous.

A study by Zimbardo, Weisenberg, Firestone, and Levy (1965), on the other hand, demonstrated a possible weakness of likeableness in influencing attitudes. Subjects (students and Army reservists) asked to do something quite contrary to their normal behavior-- eating fried grasshoppers-- showed considerably less liking for the grasshoppers when the communicator was nasty. The authors believed that cognitive dissonance theory can account for this phenomenon. Subjects could justify the unusual behavior of eating the grasshoppers in two possible ways. They could tell themselves that they did it for the sake of the pleasant communicator, in which case no change in attitude toward the grasshoppers would be necessary. Or, they could actually change their attitude toward the grasshoppers, and

increase their liking for this unusual food. With an unpleasant communicator, the only alternative is the latter.

C. Expert vs. Celebrity vs. Typical Consumer Endorsers

The above discussion seems to indicate that each of the three types of endorsers has one distinct advantage over the other two. The expert possesses expertise; the celebrity is, as a rule, personally attractive and liked; the typical consumer is the most similar to the consuming public. The question remains: Which, if any, of the three endorser types is considered a believable source and which, if any, induces the most opinion change in the public? Unfortunately, despite a considerable amount of research that has been done in the field of source credibility, little has been done in the area of endorsements.

One study conducted by Daniel Starch and staff (Freeman, 1957, p. 193) concluded that, on the average, celebrity testimonial advertisements are seen and read more than nontestimonial advertisements.

Dichter (1966), in a study analyzing 488 purchases resulting from word-of-mouth recommendations, found that 7.5 per cent were attributed to celebrity endorsements.

Rudolph (1947) cited a study which compared six types of advertising copy. The study found that the "testimonial approach," using celebrity endorsements, showed the highest readership scores. This approach was more effective than a "we approach" (discussion of product by company), "they approach" (discussion of manner in which product is being used), "dialogue" (merit of product discussed by two people), "you approach" (direct appeal to reader stating why he should use the product), or an "irrelevant approach" (product story concealed in narrative or human interest story).

CHAPTER II

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. Theory of Endorser Effectiveness:

In a comparison of the relative effectiveness of the three types of endorsers-- professional expert, celebrity, and typical consumer-- one's first instinct is to attempt a simple ranking. And, at first blush, one might rate the professional expert endorser as most effective in inducing attitude change regarding the product advertised. After all, expertise was shown to be a very potent factor in affecting attitudes.

However, logic insists that experts would not be most effective for all products-- certainly not for products such as toothpicks, toilet paper, or a deck of playing cards. Should an expert endorse such a product, his trustworthiness would be suspect and, as we have seen, if a source lacks trustworthiness, any other qualities that he might possess are rendered ineffective. Consequently, the only remaining viable theory is that

each type of endorser is most effective for a different product class.

Kanungo and Pang (1973) reached a similar conclusion regarding the sex of the model used in a print advertisement. They found that one sex did not consistently induce a high degree of perceived quality for the advertised product. Rather, a male model caused subjects to perceive an automobile (a masculine product, according to the authors) as being of higher quality than did a female, and the female model was more effective in this regard than the male for a sofa (a feminine product). The authors concluded that exposing subjects to "non-fitting" product-model matches can induce perceptual and attitudinal incongruity and thereby cause subjects to evaluate the product unfavorably.

How might one differentiate product classes from each other? Settle (1972) classified products by complexity, visibility, durability, and multipurposeness. He found that an expert source induced a high degree of confidence for complex products; close friends were highly effective sources for visible products.

Other researchers have differentiated products on the basis of risk classes. Jacoby and Kaplan (1972)

and Kaplan et al (1974) defined five basic types of perceived risk in purchasing an unfamiliar brand:

(1) financial risk - the chance of losing money due to purchase of the product

(2) performance risk - the chance that the product will not work properly

(3) physical risk - the chance that the product will cause the user physical harm

(4) psychological risk - the chance that the product will not fit well with the consumer's self-image

(5) social risk - the chance that use of the product will affect the way others think of the consumer

Some researchers prefer to consider these last two types of risk together, as psychosocial risk.

It seems reasonable to expect the public to react more favorably to expert endorsement of a product perceived as possessing financial, performance, or physical risk. When a product is psychologically or socially risky, a celebrity endorser should be most effective. According to Kelman (1961), cited above, a personally attractive and liked source affects opinions via a different process than an expert. Whereas the opinion of an expert is internalized, the opinion of a personally attractive source is identified with. Thus,

it seems reasonable to expect that a celebrity endorsement will be most effective for products that are high in social and/or psychological risk.

Bauer (1967) extended Kelman's theory in defining two possible approaches to the consumer purchasing decision: 1) The "problem-solving game" - where the consumer searches for and evaluates information available regarding the product. 2) The "psychosocial game" - where the consumer's decision is affected by his peer or reference group. In the problem-solving game, attitude change is accomplished via internalization; the consumer seeks a source high in the credibility components of trust and expertise. In the psychosocial game, attitude change is induced by compliance or identification; the source should be high in power and likeableness. However, power and compliance are more appropriate with regard to visible group pressure.

The concept that celebrities may be more effective in the endorsement of certain types of products rather than others appears to be supported by the work of Cocanougher and Bruce (1971) and Bourne (1956).

Cocanougher and Bruce (1971) found that the reference group to which an individual is attracted influences his purchase aspirations. The authors tested

male students, using business executives as the reference group. The authors found that students favorable towards a business career or towards business executives evinced a great degree of congruence between the products they would ideally like to have five years after graduation and those products used by business executives. The authors noted that a similar effect might be expected when "distant others" such as celebrities are used as the reference group. This study implies that celebrities might be useful in convincing consumers that various products, especially those high in psychosocial risk, are congruent with their lifestyles.

According to Bourne (1956), the more conspicuous the product (i.e. the more easily noticed), the stronger the reference group influence. Bourne classified reference group influence according to whether it is brand specific, product specific, or both. "Product plus, brand plus" items are products for which both the purchase of the product and the selection of a particular brand are subject to reference group influence (e.g. cars, cigarettes). The other groups, as expected, are "product plus, brand minus" (e.g. air conditioners),

"product minus, brand plus" (e.g. magazines), and "product minus, brand minus" (e.g. canned peaches). This study implied that products high in social risk are susceptible to reference group influence. Bourne's theory, extended to celebrity endorsers, would indicate that celebrity endorsers should be most effective when promoting products high in social risk. This would be especially true for consumers who view celebrity endorsers as a reference group.

Typical consumer endorsers, on the other hand, should be most believable and, consequently, most effective in inducing attitude change, when endorsing products of little risk. It would be quite incredulous for an expert or celebrity to endorse a mundane, riskless product. This point was elaborated on in previous sections of this paper.

Celebrities may have one important advantage over professional experts and typical consumers--familiarity. The connection of an unfamiliar product with a familiar celebrity should increase recall of the product. Learning of new and unfamiliar material is often enhanced by relating it to familiar material (Ruch, 1963, p.108). Celebrity endorsers might also

enhance the value of the product (measured by what consumers think the product sells for), since the celebrity's prestige might have spillover effects for the product.

2. Hypotheses:

The purpose of the current study was to determine whether or not the effectiveness of the above-mentioned three types of endorsers is, indeed, dependent upon the type of product endorsed. To accomplish this end the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. a) Advertisements featuring a celebrity endorser will be evaluated more favorably than those using an expert or a typical consumer endorser, in the promotion of products high in psychological and/or social risk.

b) In addition, for this type of product, the celebrity will be significantly more effective in obtaining consumer agreement with his opinions about the product, and in inducing consumers to express intentions to buy the product.

2. a) Advertisements featuring a professional expert endorser will be evaluated more favorably than advertisements utilizing a celebrity or a typical consumer endorser, in the promotion of products high in financial, performance, and/or physical risk.

b) In addition, for this type of product, the

expert will be significantly more effective in obtaining consumer agreement with his opinions about the product, and in inducing consumers to express intentions to buy the product.

3. a) Advertisements featuring a typical consumer endorser will be evaluated more favorably than those utilizing an expert or a celebrity endorser, in the promotion of products low in the aforementioned (Chapter II, Section A) five basic types of risk.

b) In addition, for this type of product, the typical consumer will be significantly more effective in obtaining consumer agreement with his opinions about the product, and in inducing consumers to express intentions to buy the product.

4. Consumers exposed to the celebrity endorsement will expect the product to sell at a higher price than will those exposed to the other types of endorsers. This should hold true for any type of product.

5. The celebrity will be more effective than the expert or typical consumer endorsers in sustaining recall of the advertisement and the brand name of the product, regardless of the type of product.

CHAPTER III

THE STUDY

1. Pretests:

Prior to running the experiment, a pretest was conducted in order to determine the three products, and the celebrity endorser, to be used in the study. See Appendix C for a copy of the questionnaires used in the pretest.

The products sought were as follows: (1) one rating high on financial, performance, and/or physical risk; (2) one rating high on social and/or psychological risk; (3) one rating low on all five types of risk.

The methodology used in this pretest was the same as that employed by Jacoby and Kaplan (1972), who asked students to evaluate various familiar products on each of the five types of perceived risk. Using this methodology, they found that foreign sports cars rated relatively high on all types of risk, while a deck of playing cards rated quite low on all types of risk.

Since housewives were to be the subjects in the actual study, a convenience sample of 50 housewives, from an overwhelmingly white, middle-class, residential area (Clifton, New Jersey), was asked to rate ten products on the five risk types, using a seven-point scale, e.g.:

Financial risk not at all likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Financial risk extremely likely

The list of products presented to the housewives was taken from a number of sources in the literature. For example, the Jacoby and Kaplan (1972) study, which was cited above. In addition, Prasad (1975) found the following: (1) High economic/low social risk products: vacuum cleaners, blenders, automobile tires, power tools, men's electric shavers, typewriters. (2) High social/ low economic risk products: men's dress shirts, costume jewelry, women's blouses and sweaters, handbags, wall decorations, men's dress slacks. (3) Low economic/low social risk products: sleepwear, ironing tables, undergarments, toys, cookware, hosiery. These groupings were based upon ratings by 75 Marketing students. Classification of a product depended on a consensus by

more than two thirds of the subjects.

Although, in the current pretest, the procedure to be used in the ratings was explained in depth in the questionnaire itself, the interviewer clarified for the subject the definitions of the five types of risk and made sure that she understood what was requested of her. In order to minimize a "halo effect," the housewives were asked to rate all the products on one risk type at a time, using an integer from one to seven.

The products chosen were those with which housewives could be expected to be familiar and involved in the purchasing decision. In Table 3-1 (p. 56), the cell means are displayed for subjects' ratings of ten products on the five types of risk discussed. The median in each case was quite similar to the mean. The products marked by an asterisk (*) are those which were chosen for use in the actual study. A vacuum cleaner was found to rate high on financial, performance, and physical risks, and low on psychological and social risks; a box of cookies was found to be low in all types of risk tested; costume jewelry was rated high on psychological and social risks, and low on financial, performance, and physical risks.

TABLE 3-1

THE PRETEST: CHOOSING THE PRODUCTS

Cell Means [a]

Product	Risk Type				
	Financial	Performance	Physical	Psychological	Social
electric blender	3.78	4.28	2.98	1.52	1.44
*costume jewelry	2.32	2.14	1.88	5.30	5.82
woman's sweater	3.16	2.40	1.60	4.36	4.70
*vacuum cleaner	5.96	5.72	4.20	1.62	1.26
handbag	3.12	2.60	1.56	3.66	3.92
woman's blouse	3.16	2.64	1.66	4.18	4.64
*box of cookies	1.52	1.36	1.66	1.28	1.26
ironing table	2.40	2.70	2.40	1.44	1.18
woman's bathing suit	3.00	2.86	1.64	5.24	5.72
hosiery	2.74	3.10	1.58	3.20	3.06

* Products used in the study

[a] Note: 1 = Not at all
7 = Extremely

In addition to the product ratings, the fifty subjects in the pretest were asked to rate seven female celebrities (plus one phony name, used to test for validity of response) on four attributes: awareness, likeableness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The particular celebrities were chosen because they were not known for any product endorsements at the time of the study. Ratings were on a seven-point scale as, for example, the awareness scale indicates:

AWARENESS

Not at all known to me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely well known to me

Subjects were asked to rate the celebrities using an integer from one to seven. Subjects rated all the celebrities one attribute at a time.

Table 3-2 (p. 58) lists the cell means for the celebrity ratings. In order to test for validity of response, a fictitious celebrity name, June Allen, was included among the others in the celebrity list. Only two subjects out of the 50 indicated awareness of June Allen. It was thus felt that subjects responded

TABLE 3-2

THE PRETEST: CHOOSING THE CELEBRITY

	Cell Means[a]				
Celebrity	Awareness	n[b]	Likeableness	Attractiveness	Trustworthiness
Beatrice Arthur	5.56	48	4.12	3.16	3.98
Lee Grant	3.52	37	3.06	3.48	3.00
Valerie Harper	5.86	49	5.56	5.22	5.22
Cloris Leachman	5.52	48	4.26	3.82	4.26
*Mary Tyler Moore	6.46	50	6.40	6.10	6.22
Barbara Streisand	5.78	48	4.52	4.24	3.96
Loretta Swit	4.74	44	4.04	3.88	3.70
June Allen	1.10	2	Not applicable		

[a]Note: 1 = Not at all
7 = Extremely

[b]Fifty subjects rated each celebrity on awareness. However, subjects indicating total lack of awareness of a celebrity did not rate the celebrity on the other three attributes.

seriously to the questionnaire.

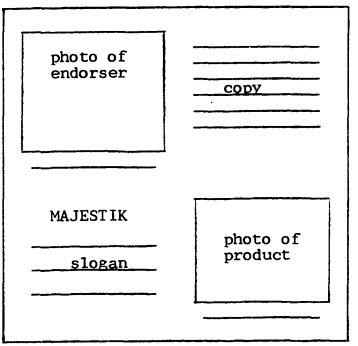
The sweeping lead of Mary Tyler Moore over the other six celebrities is obvious for all four attributes tested. Thus, a photo, courtesy of MTM Productions, was used in the construction of the three advertisements featuring the celebrity endorser.

The assumptions of the actual study were, of course, that the products chosen adequately represented the risk situations hypothesized, and that the endorsers used adequately represented the categories of endorser used in advertising.

2. The Advertisements:

Twelve different fictitious advertisements were professionally prepared, representing the 12 different combinations of four categories of endorser (celebrity, expert, typical consumer, control) by three products. The pretest, described in the previous section, determined that the three products advertised would be a vacuum cleaner, a box of (oatmeal) cookies, and costume jewelry. Mary Tyler Moore was determined by the same pretest to be the best celebrity endorser for the study.

The same name, Joan Greene, was used, together with a photograph of an "average" middle-aged woman, to introduce both the professional expert and the typical consumer endorsements. Except for a small variation in the control advertisement, which pictured no endorser, all 12 advertisements had identical layout and spacing of their various parts, as shown individually in Appendix E, and in abstract form here:



In determining the fictitious brand name to be used for the products, the following criteria were found to be necessary: a) Since the brand name was to be tested in the measurement of recall, one name applicable to all three products was desired; b) the name was expected to be relatively easy to remember in order to achieve an adequate number of responses; c) it was desired to find a name that was not well-known enough to be associated with an existing company. Thus, the brand name used was

"Majestik."

Each 8½" X 11" professionally prepared, black-and-white advertisement was composed of a photograph of the product, where applicable a photograph of the endorser (celebrity, expert, or typical consumer), a slogan, and the advertising copy. The copy and the slogan were identical for the four advertisements depicting the same product, and similar even for different products.

Thus, three original sets of slogan/advertising copy were prepared, one for each product to be advertised, as follows:

Product	Slogan	Advertising Copy
1. vacuum cleaner	The Royal Vacuum Cleaner For Her Majesty, Queen of the House	"I'm _____ and I think that the Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is the best! Its strong suction power and smooth cleaning action make vacuuming a pleasure. It cleans up surface litter and gets out the deep-down dirt without reducing carpet life. A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"
2. cookies	The Royal Cookie For Her Majesty, Queen of the House	"I'm _____ and I think that Majestik Oatmeal Cookies are delicious! They are a rich-tasting, nutritious snack-- wonderful for the whole family. Try Majestik Oatmeal

		Cookies and you'll agree that they are the best you have ever tasted. Each flavor-filled morsel contains that same delicious Majestik Oatmeal taste. A tasty, wholesome, and reasonably priced treat-- that's a Majestik cookie!"
3. costume jewelry	Royal Costume Jewelry For Her Majesty, Queen of the House	"I'm _____ and I think that Majestik Costume Jewelry is the finest available. All of the pieces are attractive, elegant, tasteful, and quite reasonably priced. They are the ultimate in good workmanship and fine detail. Any time, day or night, Majestik Costume Jewelry will brighten your total look, and make you look your best. You will look like royalty when you are wearing a Majestik!"

The photographs of the three endorsers (control advertisement featured no endorser) were identified by the following captions. Note that the expert endorser's identification had to differ slightly depending on the product endorsed.

Endorser	Caption to the Photograph
1. celebrity	Mary Tyler Moore Star of the CBS Hit Series "The Mary Tyler Moore Show"

2. professional expert (vacuum cleaner)	Joan Greene, well-known appliance expert author of the best-selling fix-it book, A Woman's Guide to Home Appliances
professional expert (cookies)	Joan Greene, director, Metropolitan Cooking School author of the best-selling cookbook, The Joy of Creative Cooking
professional expert (costume jewelry)	Joan Greene, well-known jewelry expert author of the best-selling book, Make Your Own Costume Jewelry
3. typical consumer	Joan Greene, housewife Clifton, New Jersey

Thus, a glance at Appendix E will indicate that the twelve advertisements were as alike as possible and, indeed, almost identical.

3. The Experimental Design:

The study was run as a 4 x 3 factorial design, with 30 subjects per cell. This was a fixed effects model since all levels of products and endorsers were fixed. That is, the levels were not chosen from all possible levels by a random process. The study only concerned itself with specific types of endorsers and specific types of products.

Each subject was randomly assigned to one of the twelve treatment groups. There were 30 subjects per group, resulting in a total sample size of 360. Thus, the univariate ANOVA tables analyzed in the results (Chapter IV) are arranged as follows:

Source	d.f.	EMS
Between Products	2	$\sigma_e^2 + 120\ \theta_P$
Between Endorsers	3	$\sigma_e^2 + 90\ \theta_E$
Product x Endorser	6	$\sigma_e^2 + 30\ \theta_{PE}$
Error	348	σ_e^2
Total	359	

4. The Questionnaire:

Each of the 360 subjects was approached in person, by the same interviewer, and asked to indicate her responses by means of a printed three-page questionnaire. The reader is advised to see Appendix D for an example of the questionnaire used in the study-- there was one prepared for each product advertised. The questionnaire was arranged as follows:

1) Rating the advertisement on a six-point unidimensional scale, using the following 20 adjectives:

honest	believable
intelligent	trustworthy
good	expert
impartial	sincere
interesting	reliable
persuasive	competent
effective	clear
original	objective
powerful	likeable
informative	knowledgeable

The end-points were anchored in the following manner, e.g.:

Not at all believable ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Extremely believable

These adjectives have been used by many of the factor analysts cited in Chapter I. The advertisement was rated, rather than the endorser, firstly in order to disguise the true purpose of the study. Secondly, it seemed more appropriate to analyze the "gestalt"-- the entire advertisement-- rather than one of its components. Marketers are, in fact, interested in consumers' receptiveness to the advertisement itself.

2) Overall attitude towards the advertised product:

Please place a check in the box which best indicates your overall attitude towards Majestik _____ (name of product).

Not at all favorable ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Extremely favorable

3) Intent-to-purchase the advertised product:

What is the chance that you will buy a Majestik _____ (name of product)?
(check one)
___ Definitely would buy
___ Very probably would buy
___ Probably would buy

___ Might or might not buy
___ Probably would not buy
___ Very probably would not buy
___ Definitely would not buy

4) Worth of the advertised product:

In dollars and cents, please indicate what a Majestik _____ (name of product) would be worth to you. $_____

This was meant to be another measure of attitude. The subject was forced to quantitatively express the value of the advertised product to her.

5) Expected selling price of the advertised product:

What do you think is the actual selling price of a Majestik _____ (name of product)? $_____

6) Open-ended believability measure:

What, if anything, did you find unrealistic or hard to believe about the advertisement?_____
_____
_____

For this question, the number of subjects in each group who indicated that the source was unbelievable were to be compared, with the exception of the control groups, for whom there was no endorser pictured.

In addition to these six questions, subjects were asked to rate the advertised product with regard to the above-mentioned five types of risk, using the Jacoby (1972) approach. This, in order to ensure that the experimental manipulation did, in fact, work, and that subjects perceived the purchase of a vacuum cleaner, a box of cookies, and costume jewelry to be of the risk classes hypothesized.

Four questions on demographics were presented, in order to classify the average age, educational level, family income, and ethnic background of the sample.

Furthermore, although the survey was totally anonymous, a telephone number was requested of the respondent. Forty-eight hours after the initial interview, the same interviewer telephoned the respondent for her responses to two additional measures of recall:

a) Unaided Recall of Brand Name, scored by either a (1) No, or a (2) Yes, to indicate whether or not the subject could remember the brand name, Majestik.

b) Unaided Recall of the Advertisement, scored by the interviewer by means of a recall score, ranging from 0 to 100. This recall score was computed by means of a checklist of the various points in the advertisement. The advertisement was broken up into its components, i.e.,

endorser (if present), slogan, copy, product. Each of these components was then assigned a value. A value of ten was assigned to recall of the product, and a maximum point value (depending on extent of recall) of 20 to the slogan, 50 to the advertising copy, and 20 to the endorser. The twenty points assigned to the endorser were awarded more stringently in the case of the celebrity endorser and slightly less so for the other endorsers, whose names and occupations were unfamiliar to the subjects. Since the control advertisement had only three components, subjects had less to recall, and maximum point values of 30 and 60 were assigned to the slogan and copy, respectively.

During the telephone interview, the respondent was asked, "Please tell me everything which you remember about the advertisement that you saw." The interviewer then checked off the points which were recalled, and the recall score was thus computed.

5. Methodology:

The interviewing was conducted in the Midwood section of Brooklyn, a predominantly white, middle-class area. The sampling area selected for the study was that between East 20th and East 27th Streets, and between Avenues H and L. Although, for the purpose of the study (see Chapter V, Section 3), a homogeneous population was desired, this limited the scope of the study to one of an exploratory nature. Any conclusions drawn from data gathered in a small area of Brooklyn may not be applicable to housewives, in general, without further research.

One female interviewer, with previous interviewing experience, conducted all 360 interviews. Interviews were conducted from mid-October to mid-December 1976, Monday through Thursday, between the hours of 10:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m. Consequently, the sample consisted, for the most part, of non-working housewives.

The interviewer approached, in turn, each consecutive private home on a block. When she found no one at home, she made a point of returning to the same house on a different day, at a different time. If there was still no answer, she did not return to the same house a third time. Since the interviewer described herself as a neighbor, very few women refused to be interviewed-- approximately 25 per cent. This, despite the fact that each interview took about twenty

minutes to complete. Since most of the refusals were due to a lack of time on the part of the housewife, it was assumed that non-respondents did not differ from the respondents in any systematic manner.

The interviewer introduced herself as a neighbor doing part-time work for a marketing research firm. Subjects were informed that they were to evaluate a proposed advertisement for a new product, and that all responses would be completely anonymous. Regardless of who answered the door, only housewives were included in the sample. Since each subject was asked to read and evaluate only one advertisement, chosen randomly, there was no possibility that she would determine the true purpose of the study.

Subjects did, in fact, seem to believe that the interviewer was truthful in her explanation of the study's purpose. Many respondents asked the interviewer when they could expect to see the product on the market; how much it would cost; and how they could obtain a part-time job as an interviewer for a market research firm.

Although a printed questionnaire was used, the interviewer explained each question fully. Respondents were informed as to the use of the six-point scales utilized in the study. For Question 1, subjects were told to rate the advertisement, considering each adjective separately. For Question 7, each of the five risk types was explained thoroughly by the interviewer. Thus, subjects wrote their responses on their own, but

with considerable assistance on the part of the interviewer, who stood by during the completion of the questionnaire. She made certain that the respondents did not simply place check marks haphazardly, but gave adequate thought to their answers. This was done in order to minimize a possible halo effect.

At the conclusion of the interview, subjects were told that although the questionnaire was completely anonymous, the interviewer would appreciate it if she could obtain their telephone numbers. The interviewer explained that since she was new at her job, she was afraid of having omitted a question of importance and thus needed the telephone numbers "just in case." The interviewer stressed that she was not interested in the respondents' names or addresses. Approximately 70 per cent of the respondents gave the interviewer their telephone numbers.

Approximately 48 hours after the initial interview, subjects were telephoned by the same interviewer, and asked to describe the advertisement which they had seen. Two scores were thus obtained: one for unaided recall of the brand name, Majestik ("No" or "Yes"), and one for recall of the total advertisement, the recall score.

The demographics of the sample are displayed in Table 3-3 (p. 75). The sample was overwhelmingly Caucasion (97.7%), and high school graduates or better (93.9%). Also, 58.6 per cent of the respondents were between the ages of 25 and 49, and 86.7 per cent of the subjects had a family income of $10,000 or more.

TABLE 3-3

SUMMARY OF SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS

	Category	Frequency	%
Age:	24 or less	65	18.1
	25 - 34	116	32.2
	35 - 49	95	26.4
	50 - 64	62	17.2
	65 and over	22	6.1
	Total	360	100.0
Educational Level:			
	grade school or less	2	.6
	some high school	20	5.5
	graduated high school	146	40.5
	some college	100	27.8
	graduated college	55	15.3
	some postgraduate college work	37	10.3
	Total	360	100.0
Family Income:			
	$5,000 or less	10	2.8
	$5,000 - $9,999	38	10.5
	$10,000 - $14,999	90	25.0
	$15,000 - $24,999	149	41.4
	$25,000 and over	73	20.3
	Total	360	100.0
Ethnic Background:			
	Caucasion	352	97.7
	Black	4	1.1
	Hispanic	1	.3
	Oriental	1	.3
	Other	2	.6
	Total	360	100.0

CHAPTER IV
THE RESULTS

1. Rating the Advertisement:

Question 1 consisted of twenty adjectives on six-point scales ranging from not at all (adjective) to extremely (adjective). Since all twenty adjectives were used to describe the advertisement, multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the responses to this question, with the twenty adjectives as twenty dependent variables.

A thorough discussion of the assumptions underlying the use of MANOVA may be found in Harris (1975, pp. 225-233). Harris pointed out that data may be assumed to follow a multivariate normal distribution when the sample size is large, as there is a multivariate analog to the central limit theorem. Thus, the data collected for this study were assumed to follow a multivariate normal distribution. In addition, inspection of the variance-covariance matrices for the twelve cells did not reveal any great disparities, and seemed quite homogeneous. The effects of violation of the interval-scale data assumption is also discussed by Harris. He feels that, with a large sample size, little is gained by the use of a nonparametric multivariate technique. Furthermore, he states that multivariate techniques should prove as robust as their univariate counterparts.

The following table, Table 4-1, presents the results of the MANOVA, including the Wilks' lambda statistic, the approximate F statistic (which is derived from Wilks' lambda) for the MANOVA, and the level of significance (p). A discussion of the Wilks' lambda statistic, and its use

in multivariate analysis of variance, may be found in Morrison (1967, p. 197).

TABLE 4-1

MANOVA FOR 20 DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Ratings of the Advertisements (Question 1)

Source	Wilks' Lambda	Approximate F Statistic	d.f.	Significance Level
Product(P)	.878	1.11	40;658	.3044
Endorser(E)	.744	1.71	60;982	.0011
P x E	.593	1.51	120;1908	.0007

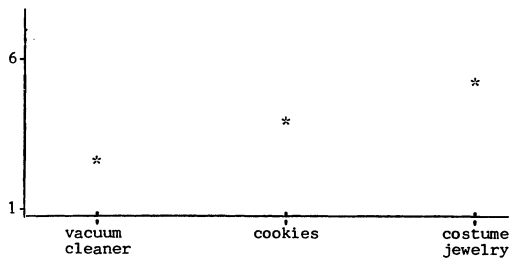
According to the hypotheses of the study, a product by endorser interaction effect was expected to emerge. Table 4-1 indicates that the product by endorser interaction was significant at the $p < .0007$ level. Thus, the hypothesis, that consumers' evaluations of the advertisement would depend upon the particular product-endorser combination, was upheld.

Analysis of the twenty individual univariate ANOVA's (Appendix B) showed that the product by endorser interaction was significant in seventeen cases, the exceptions being "impartial," "informative," and "clear."

The means for the seventeen measures which showed a significant interaction effect were plotted to determine whether a pattern would emerge. These plots are shown directly below the ANOVA tables in Appendix B.

The general patterns which emerged for the four endorsement types follow.

(1) Means for the <u>celebrity endorser</u>:

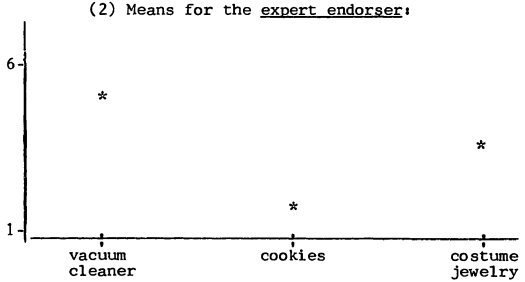


Advertisements utilizing the celebrity endorser, in general, were rated most highly when the endorsement was for costume jewelry, and most poorly when endorsing a vacuum cleaner. Furthermore, the celebrity endorser advertisement for costume jewelry was given consistently

higher ratings than the other advertisements featuring this product.

The only two exceptions to this statement were the adjectives "expert" and "objective." It stands to reason that the expert endorser should and, indeed, did achieve a higher "expert" rating for the costume jewelry advertisement than the celebrity endorser. Although, it should be noted that the difference was quite minute. For the adjective "objective" the rating of the celebrity/costume jewelry advertisement did not rise, as it had for the other 16 adjectives plotted, but it dipped slightly.

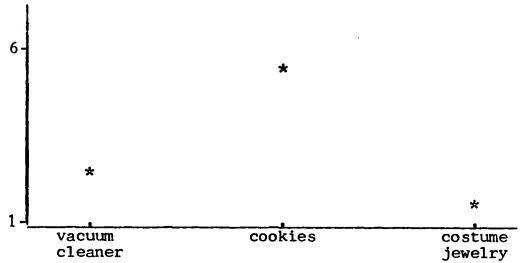
(2) Means for the expert endorser:



Advertisements utilizing the expert endorser were rated most highly when the vacuum cleaner was the product endorsed. The expert did quite poorly for the cookies advertisement. In general, the expert advertisement achieved a higher rating than did the other endorsements when the vacuum cleaner was advertised, and a lower rating than the other endorsements when cookies were advertised.

The plot for the adjective "objective" was an exception for this case, as it was for the celebrity endorser. In addition, the adjectives "honest" and "likeable" showed aberrant plots. The expert endorser was perceived as being uniformly honest over all three products. For the adjective "likeable," the celebrity endorser advertisement was rated consistently higher than those featuring other endorser types. Apparently, Mary Tyler Moore was a very likeable endorser, and this likeableness even affected the ratings of the advertisements.

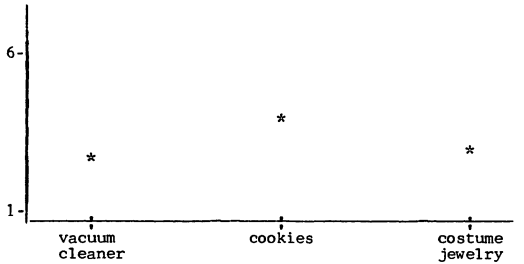
(3) Means for the typical consumer endorser:



In general, advertisements utilizing the typical consumer endorser were rated most highly when cookies were being endorsed, and more highly for this product than were the other endorsements. There were several exceptions, namely for the adjectives "interesting," "expert," "objective," "likeable," "knowledgeable," and "original."

In virtually each case, with the sole exception of "original," the typical consumer did very poorly when endorsing costume jewelry.

(4) Means for the control advertisement:



In general, the mean ratings for the control advertisements fell between the extremes plotted for each product. The cookie/control advertisement did somewhat better than any other control advertisement.

The analysis of Question 1, the 20 adjectives describing the advertisement, seemed to uphold Hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a. Further evidence for the veracity of these hypotheses is provided by the analysis of variance run on the factor scores of these measures.

Since the MANOVA uncovered a significant product by endorser interaction effect for Question 1, the

twenty adjectives, it was decided to run the factor analysis (principal components method) on each of the twelve experimental groups individually. However, caution must be exercised in the interpretation of the analysis, as there were only thirty subjects per experimental group (a particular product by endorser combination).

In each of the twelve cases, one major factor appeared which explained from 45.0 to 62.4 per cent of the variance (see Table 4-2, p. 84). Consequently, even though there were a few minor differences in the magnitudes of the factor score coefficients, one factor analysis was run on all 360 subjects' responses to Question 1.

The one major factor which emerged explained 51.7 per cent of the variance. Analysis of variance was performed on the factor scores, and Table 4-3 (p.85) displays the cell means and this ANOVA table.

The significant interaction ($p < .0002$) was plotted (Table 4-3.C) and the results confirmed that which the individual analyses of the adjectives implied. For the vacuum cleaner, the advertisement utilizing the expert endorser achieved the highest mean factor score--a measure of the overall rating of the advertisement.

TABLE 4-2

FACTOR SCORE COEFFICIENTS FOR THE 12 GROUPS -
USING ONE FACTOR

	Vacuum Cleaner				Cookies				Costume Jewelry				All Groups
Variable	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control	Combined
Honest	.075	.060	.063	.078	.077	.063	.077	.071	.042	.056	.070	.073	.066
Intelligent	.079	.064	.069	.081	.065	.074	.039	.058	.074	.061	.075	.032	.070
Good	.081	.071	.077	.086	.052	.069	.103	.064	.094	.065	.076	.091	.078
Impartial	.058	.016	.040	.063	.076	.055	.004	.063	.033	.019	.073	.069	.047
Interesting	.068	.070	.072	.076	.049	.065	.090	.085	.033	.066	.072	.082	.076
Persuasive	.082	.069	.072	.058	.085	.058	.092	.067	.081	.072	.077	.082	.076
Effective	.083	.073	.079	.082	.083	.066	.095	.078	.089	.066	.063	.071	.078
Original	.079	.062	.070	.048	.060	.065	.074	.053	.077	.063	.048	.048	.064
Essential	.074	.064	.060	.078	.065	.066	.090	.060	.079	.074	.063	.053	.075
Informative	.050	.062	.045	.079	.086	.057	.064	.057	.065	.061	.066	.058	.060
Believable	.067	.070	.072	.090	.083	.066	.095	.083	.073	.059	.059	.055	.072
Trustworthy	.067	.068	.074	.077	.089	.075	.090	.053	.083	.068	.066	.081	.074
Expert	.067	.076	.060	.060	.091	.061	.029	.070	.052	.065	.075	.084	.069
Sincere	.072	.061	.065	.072	.083	.075	.078	.084	.082	.068	.067	.081	.075
Reliable	.076	.074	.080	.083	.093	.072	.084	.077	.086	.066	.072	.074	.078
Competent	.075	.073	.077	.080	.087	.080	.043	.082	.081	.063	.077	.079	.075
Clear	.036	.079	.031	.035	.026	.031	.062	.061	.067	.059	.028	.017	.046
Objective	.058	.022	.038	.063	.077	.064	.016	.082	.061	.056	.074	.076	.055
Likeable	.076	.073	.083	.074	.027	.071	.084	.079	.077	.072	.082	.032	.076
Knowledgeable	.069	.066	.070	.045	.076	.070	.056	.081	.071	.068	.054	.067	.068
eigenvalue	10.07	10.93	10.72	9.64	9.00	11.52	9.17	9.84	9.94	12.48	10.87	9.61	10.35
pct. of var.	50.3%	54.9%	53.6%	48.2%	45.0%	57.6%	45.9%	49.2%	49.7%	62.4%	54.3%	48.0%	51.7%

TABLE 4-3

FACTOR SCORES AS A DEPENDENT VARIABLE

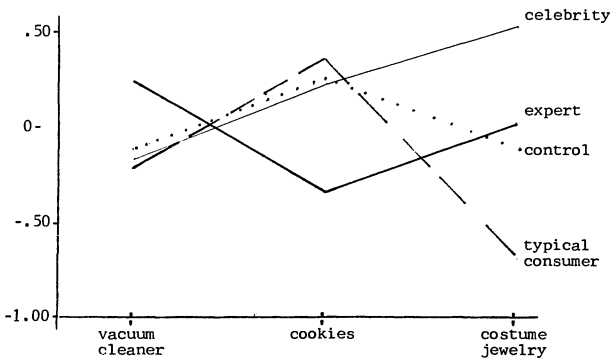
A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	-.16	.22	-.20	-.13
cookies	.23	-.33	.37	.25
costume jewelry	.53	.01	-.68	-.10

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.53	1.66	.1821
Endorser(E)	3	2.08	2.26	.0800
P x E	6	4.64	5.04	.0002
Error	348	.92		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means



For the cookies, the typical consumer advertisement had the highest mean factor score, whereas the expert endorser did very poorly.

For the costume jewelry advertisement, the celebrity endorser achieved the very highest mean factor score of all the cells, while the typical consumer endorser achieved the very lowest mean factor score of all the cells.

Thus, as Hypothesis 1a proposed, the advertisement featuring a celebrity endorser was evaluated more favorably than advertisements utilizing an expert or a typical consumer endorser (or no endorser) in the promotion of a product high in psychological and social risks, i.e. costume jewelry.

As Hypothesis 2a stated, the advertisement featuring a professional expert endorser was evaluated more favorably than advertisements utilizing a celebrity or a typical consumer endorser (or no endorser) in the promotion of a product high in financial, performance, and physical risks, i.e. vacuum cleaner.

As Hypothesis 3a stated, the advertisement featuring a typical consumer endorser was evaluated more favorably than those utilizing an expert or a

celebrity endorser (or no endorser) in the promotion of a product low in all five types of perceived risk, i.e. a box of cookies.

2. Overall Attitude Towards the Product and Intent-to-Purchase:

Questions 2 and 3 were both measures relating to the advertised product, and not to the advertisement.

As the ANOVA tables for these measures (Table 4-4, p. 89; Table 4-5, p. 90) indicate, there was a highly significant ($p < .0001$) product by endorser interaction effect which can be clearly seen in the plots of the two sets of means. These two plots conformed to the general patterns which manifested themselves in the analysis of Question 1, in the previous section.

The expert endorser elicited a higher overall attitude and greater intent-to-purchase for the vacuum cleaner than did the other endorsers. The typical consumer endorser elicited a higher overall attitude and greater intent-to-purchase for the cookies than did the other endorsers. The celebrity endorser elicited a higher overall attitude and greater intent-to-purchase for the costume jewelry than did any of the other endorsers.

Thus, Hypotheses 1b, 2b, and 3b were confirmed.

Table 4-4

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: OVERALL ATTITUDE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	2.83	3.77	3.10	3.50
cookies	3.87	2.97	4.30	4.00
costume jewelry	4.10	3.23	2.50	3.17

Note: 1 = Not at all favorable; 6 = Extremely favorable

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	10.41	4.61	.0106
Endorser(E)	3	2.17	.96	.5870
P x E	6	12.89	5.70	.0001
Error	348	2.26		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

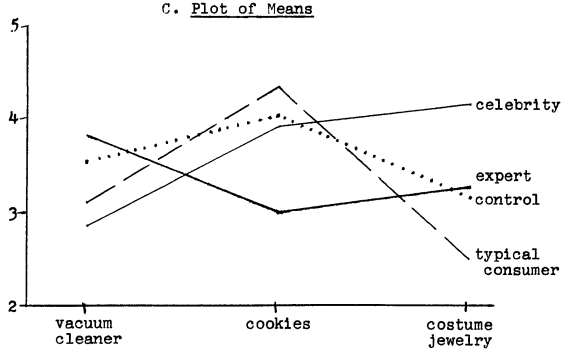


Table 4-5

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: INTENT-TO-PURCHASE

A. Cell Means

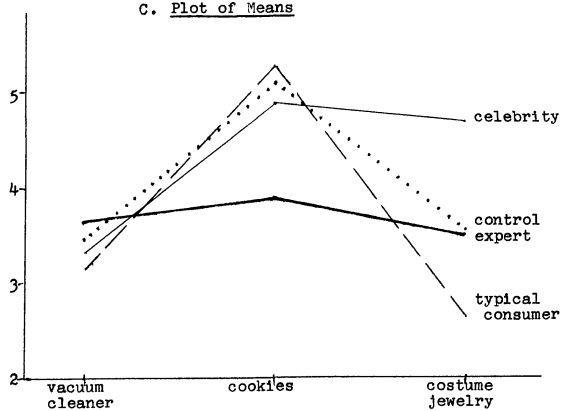
	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.30	3.63	3.17	3.47
cookies	4.87	3.90	5.27	5.13
costume jewelry	4.70	3.53	2.63	3.57

Note: 1 = Definitely would not buy; 7 = Definitely would buy

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	68.14	31.99	.0001
Endorser(E)	3	7.83	3.68	.0124
P x E	6	13.17	6.18	.0001
Error	348	2.13		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means



As Hypothesis 1b stated, for the product high in psychological and social risks (i.e., costume jewelry), the celebrity was significantly more effective than the other types of endorsers in obtaining consumer agreement with her opinions about the product, and in inducing consumers to express intentions to buy the product.

As Hypothesis 2b proposed, for the product high in financial, performance, and physical risks (i.e., a vacuum cleaner), the expert was significantly more effective than the other types of endorsers in obtaining consumer agreement with her opinions about the product, and in inducing consumers to express intentions to buy the product.

As Hypothesis 3b stated, for the product low in all five types of risk (i.e., a box of cookies), the typical consumer was significantly more effective than the other types of endorsers in obtaining consumer agreement with her opinions about the product, and in inducing consumers to express intentions to buy the product.

3. Estimated Worth and Expected Selling Price of the Advertised Product:

Originally, when the questionnaire was formulated, it was believed that the estimated worth of the product would be an indirect measure of the respondent's overall attitude towards the advertised product. It did not work as expected.

Subjects were somewhat confused as to the meaning of "worth," and consequently were very much influenced by the perceived selling price of the product when responding to the question dealing with worth. It is possible that, under the telling strain of inflation, subjects first considered the expected selling price of the product and then shaved off a few dollars from that value for their estimation of the worth of the advertised product. Thus, worth seemed to fall between an overall attitude measure and a more objective expected selling price measure. The high correlation ($r=.91$, $p<.0001$, see Appendix A) between "worth" and "expected selling price" convinced the author to analyze the two measures together via MANOVA.

TABLE 4-6

MANOVA FOR TWO DEPENDENT VARIABLES:
ESTIMATED WORTH AND EXPECTED SELLING PRICE

Source	Wilks' Lambda	d.f.	Approximate F Statistic	Significance Level
Product(P)	.323	4;694	131.86	.0001
Endorser(E)	.973	6;694	1.57	.1537
P x E	.961	12;694	1.17	.3038

Table 4-6 indicated that there was neither a significant endorser main effect nor a significant product by endorser interaction. Of course, there was a highly significant product main effect which was due to the great disparity in actual selling prices of a vacuum cleaner, a box of cookies, and a costume jewelry necklace.

Thus, even though there was no significant endorser main effect, as hypothesized for the expected selling price measure, the means for both measures were clearly in the direction hypothesized. For expected selling price, the celebrity endorser

evoked a consistently higher expected selling price than did the other endorsers. The estimated worth measure showed a similar result with the exception of cookies. Cell means for both measures are included in Appendix B, Tables B-21 and B-22.

4. Open-ended Believability Measure:

Question 6 was open-ended, asking the respondent to list anything she might have found unbelievable about the advertisement. Table 4-7 shows the number of subjects who mentioned the endorser as being unbelievable. Cramer's coefficient is a measure of association, ranging from 0 to 1. A zero would indicate that the products and endorsers were completely independent, while a 1 would indicate a perfectly dependent relationship.

It is important to look at a measure of association, such as Cramer's coefficient, in addition to the chi-square value, since a significant chi-square may be the result of a large sample size. Indeed, use of a large enough sample frequently can result in a significant chi-square value, even though the measure of association shows that the strength of association is of little practical importance.

From Table 4-7 (p. 96), the chi-square value for the contingency table was 21.46, significant at the $p < .0003$ level. This indicated that there was a significant product by endorser interaction effect similar to that found in the analysis of Question 1. Subjects, apparently, considered the endorser less unbelievable when evaluating one of three endorser/product combinations: (1) expert/vacuum cleaner (4 subjects out of 30 considered the endorser unbelievable);

(2) typical consumer/cookies (3 out of 30 subjects considered the endorser unbelievable; (3) celebrity/costume jewelry (0 subjects out of 30 considered the endorser unbelievable).

TABLE 4-7

CONTINGENCY TABLE FOR OPEN-ENDED BELIEVABILITY MEASURE (QUESTION 6)[a]

	Endorser		
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer
vacuum cleaner	15	4	10
cookies	8	9	3
costume jewelry	0	10	13

χ^2(4 d.f.)= 21.46 $p < .0003$

Cramer's coefficient = .39

[a]Entries represent the number of subjects who mentioned the endorser as being unbelievable.

For any other cell, at least eight, and as many as fifteen, subjects were incredulous about the endorser.

Analysis of the individual contingency tables

produced by looking at each product separately is presented in Table 4-8 (p. 98).

As far as the vacuum cleaner advertisement was concerned, there was a significant endorser by believability interaction. This was apparently caused by the expert endorser, rather than the other endorsers. Without the expert endorser row, the chi-square value for the contingency table was not significant. Indeed, the effect of the expert endorser row on contingency table 4-8.A may be readily seen by the fact that only 4 subjects out of 30 viewed the expert endorsement of a vacuum cleaner as unbelievable.

The contingency table for the cookie advertisement did not have a significant chi-square value. However, the frequencies were in the right direction, with a low of 3 subjects who thought the typical consumer endorsement of cookies was unbelievable.

The contingency table for the costume jewelry advertisement showed a significant endorser by believability interaction. In this case, the significant interaction was caused by the celebrity endorsement. None of the 30 subjects evaluating the credibility of the celebrity endorsement of costume jewelry felt that the endorser was

TABLE 4-8

INDIVIDUAL CONTINGENCY TABLES FOR EACH PRODUCT

A. Vacuum Cleaner

Endorser	Believable	Not Believable	Total
celebrity	15	15	30
expert	26	4	30
typical consumer	20	10	30

χ^2(2 d.f.)= 9.25 $p < .0098$

Cramer's coefficient = .32

B. Cookies

Endorser	Believable	Not Believable	Total
celebrity	22	8	30
expert	21	9	30
typical consumer	27	3	30

χ^2(2 d.f.)= 3.99 $p < .1363$

Cramer's coefficient = .21

C. Costume Jewelry

Endorser	Believable	Not Believable	Total
celebrity	30	0	30
expert	20	10	30
typical consumer	17	13	30

χ^2(2 d.f.)= 16.24 $p < .0009$

Cramer's coefficient = .42

unbelievable, as compared with 10 and 13 for the other two endorsers. Without the celebrity endorser row, the chi-square value was not significant.

Thus, these results provided additional evidence for Hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a. Consumers' evaluations of the advertisements' believability varied according to the product/endorser combinations hypothesized.

5. Recall:

The two measures which were used to test for recall were taken approximately 48 hours after the initial interview, over the telephone. At that time, subjects were asked to list everything which they could remember about the advertisement they had seen. Their responses were recorded in two ways: a) Unaided recall of brand name, and b) unaided recall score. It was hypothesized that the celebrity endorser would be most effective in achieving recall.

Recall of Brand Name

Table 4-9.A (p. 101) shows the frequencies, for each endorser category, of yes's and no's-- i.e., the number of subjects who did, and did not, recall the brand name, Majestik. Table 4-9.B displays this same information, regrouped so as to specifically test the hypothesis of celebrity endorser effectiveness as compared with the other endorser types.

Although the chi-square value (7.25) for the contingency table in Table 4-9.A was only marginally

TABLE 4-9

RECALL OF BRAND NAME

A. Contingency Table - All Endorser Groups

Brand Name Recall	Endorser: Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control	Row Totals
No	24	31	41	31	127
Yes	39	20	33	26	118
Column Totals	63	51	74	57	245

χ^2(3 d.f.)= 6.93 $p < .0743$

Cramer's coefficient = .17

B. Contingency Table - Regrouped

Brand Name Recall	Endorser: Celebrity	Others	Totals
No	24 (38.1%)	103 (56.6%)	127
Yes	39 (61.9%)	79 (43.4%)	118
Column Totals	63	182	245

χ^2(1 d.f.)= 5.70 (with Yates' correction for continuity)
$p < .0170$

Cramer's coefficient = .16

significant, it is obviously in the right direction. Fifteen more yes's than no's were recorded for subjects who had seen advertisements featuring the celebrity endorsement, while all the other endorsement types elicited more no's than yes's. It seems that the contribution of the control group in this case-- for which the difference between the two categories of brand name recall was only five respondents-- served to mask the effect of the different endorsers on brand name recall.

Where the data was pooled, in Table 4-9.B, a clearer picture emerged. With a chi-square value of 5.86, the effect of endorser type (celebrity vs. the other kinds of endorsement) on recall of brand name was significant at $p < .0160$.

Thus, while 61.9 per cent of the subjects remembered the brand name of a product endorsed by a celebrity, only 43.4 percent of the subjects remembered the brand name of a product advertised via expert or typical consumer endorsement, or no endorsement.

Recall Score

The recall scores, which ranged from 0 to 100, represented the sums of the values assigned to the

various parts of the advertisement which the subject was able to remember.

In Table 4-10.A (p. 104), the mean recall scores for the twelve treatment groups are shown. Since the cell sizes were not equal, unweighted means analysis of variance was performed on the data. This method is a fairly good approximation procedure as long as the cell sizes are not too unequal (4 to 1 ratio, or higher). As the table shows, the cell sizes ranged from a low of 15 to a high of 26.

As the ANOVA table indicated,(Table 4-10.B), there was a significant endorser main effect. A Scheffé's test was used to make a post hoc comparison of the means. The results of the test showed that the mean recall score for the celebrity advertisements was significantly different ($p < .05$) from the mean recall scores for the combined expert, typical consumer, and control advertisements.

These results were confirmed by means of a two-sample t-test (Table 4-10.C), which found the mean recall score of the celebrity group, 42.81, to be significantly different from the mean recall score of the "others" group, 29.97, at $p < .001$.

TABLE 4-10

RECALL SCORES

A. Cell Means[a]

Product	Endorser: Celebrity	n	Expert	n	Typical Consumer	n	Control	n	Row Marginals
vacuum cleaner	47.96	22	24.61	18	20.76	25	30.77	22	30.97
cookies	34.75	20	33.78	18	41.87	23	38.58	19	37.49
costume jewelry	45.10	21	29.00	15	26.92	26	23.56	16	31.53
Column Marginals	42.81		29.14		29.49		31.35		33.28

[a]Note: Recall scores ranged from a low of 0 to a high of 100.

B. Unweighted Means Analysis of Variance Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1006.24	1.53	.2180
Endorser(E)	3	2408.33	3.67	.0130
P x E	6	1278.93	1.95	.0740
Error	233	655.77		
Total	244			

C. T-Test: Regrouped

Group 1 Celebrity			Group 2 Other Endorsers			t-value	Significance
Mean	std.dev.	n	Mean	std.dev.	n	(243 d.f.)	Level
42.81	27.52	63	29.97	25.20	182	3.39	.001

Thus, considerable evidence for the veracity of Hypothesis 5 is provided by this study. The celebrity endorsement appeared to be more effective than the other types of endorsement in sustaining recall of the advertisement and the brand name of the product, regardless of the type of product.

6. Risk Types:

One key assumption of this study was that the products chosen conformed to the risk types hypothesized for each product.

In order to test this assumption, each subject was asked to evaluate the risks inherent in the purchase of the product featured in the particular advertisement which she had seen. Unlike the pretest, however, which used a seven-point scale, only the levels of "low," "medium," and "high" were available to the respondent. This was done in order to make an already burdensome questionnaire slightly less so.

In addition, whereas subjects used in the pretest were required to rate a total of 10 products, subjects responding to the actual study had to rate only one product each. This, of course, reduced considerably the chance of a "halo effect." In fact, Table 4-11, p. 107, indicated that the risk types for each product were more clearly defined than they were in the pretest.

In the actual study, the vacuum cleaner was perceived

TABLE 4-11

SUBJECTS' RATINGS OF THE RISKS INVOLVED IN THE PURCHASE OF EACH OF THE THREE PRODUCTS

	Low		Medium		High		Total	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Vacuum Cleaner								
Financial risk	3	2.5	15	12.5	102	85.0	120	100
Performance risk	2	1.7	9	7.5	109	90.8	120	100
Physical risk	8	6.7	36	30.0	76	63.3	120	100
Social risk	114	95.0	5	4.2	1	0.8	120	100
Psychological risk	118	98.4	1	0.8	1	0.8	120	100
Cookies								
Financial risk	116	96.7	4	3.3	0	0.0	120	100
Performance risk	94	78.3	24	20.0	2	1.7	120	100
Physical risk	102	85.0	17	14.2	1	0.8	120	100
Social risk	118	98.3	2	1.7	0	0.0	120	100
Psychological risk	117	97.5	3	2.5	0	0.0	120	100
Costume Jewelry								
Financial risk	98	81.7	21	17.5	1	0.8	120	100
Performance risk	107	89.2	12	10.0	1	0.8	120	100
Physical risk	114	95.0	5	4.2	1	0.8	120	100
Social risk	3	2.5	14	11.7	103	85.8	120	100
Psychological risk	1	0.8	6	5.0	113	94.2	120	100

by the subjects as a product high in financial, performance, and physical risks, and low in psychological and social risks. The box of cookies was perceived as a product low on all five types of risk. Costume jewelry was perceived as low in financial, performance, and physical risks, and high in psychological and social risks.

Thus, it appeared that the experimental manipulation, with regard to the three products chosen, worked.

With regard to the choice of celebrity endorser, the interviewer reported that not one of the 360 subjects indicated lack of awareness of Mary Tyler Moore. In fact, the majority expressed some kind of recognition of Mary Tyler Moore.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

1. Summary of Results:

Analysis of the data in the study upheld four out of the five hypotheses put forth in Chapter II.

Hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a concerned the ratings of the advertisements themselves. A product by endorser interaction effect was expected to be significant. Advertisements composed of the product/endorser combinations specified were expected to, and did, achieve the highest evaluations. These combinations were: (1) celebrity endorsement of costume jewelry, (2) expert endorsement of a vacuum cleaner, and (3) typical consumer endorsement of a box of cookies.

A multivariate analysis of variance of twenty adjectives used by subjects to rate the advertisement clearly demonstrated a highly significant interaction effect. The individual univariate analyses of variance also confirmed that an interaction had occurred for

17 out of the 20 adjectives. Plots of the means for the 17 significant interactions confirmed the above-stated hypotheses.

Analysis of variance performed on the factor scores, produced by a factor analysis which found that one important factor explained a substantial part of the total variance, provided further corroboration for Hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a.

Furthermore, analysis of the open-ended believability measure indicated that the three product-endorser combinations which achieved the highest evaluations resulted in fewer mentions of disbelief concerning the endorser than did the other product/endorser combinations.

Hypotheses 1b, 2b, and 3b concerned the advertised product, and were tested via the overall attitude towards the product and the intent-to-purchase scales. A significant interaction effect appeared, with the hypothesized product/endorser combinations being most effective in invoking high overall attitude scores and high intent-to-purchase.

Hypothesis 4 concerned the expected selling price of the advertised product. It was believed that the celebrity endorser, by virtue of celebrities'

prestige and the image of the affluent life, might impart a high-priced image to the product endorsed. Thus, an endorser main effect was anticipated for this measure.

Since the expected selling price correlated very strongly with the estimated worth of the product, multivariate analysis of variance was performed on the two measures. No significant endorser main effect or interaction effect was found. However, inspection of the mean prices indicated that they were clearly in the direction hypothesized.

Hypothesis 5 concerned 48-hour recall of the advertisement and the brand name of the product. Regardless of the type of product, the celebrity endorser was expected to be most effective in sustaining recall after a 48-hour period. This hypothesis was confirmed by analysis of the recall score for the total advertisement, and the recall of brand name measure.

2. Conclusions:

The current study indicated that advertisers should give more thought as to the type of endorser which will be most effective in advertising their products.

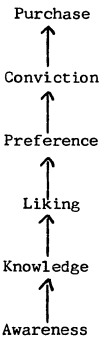
Certainly, if believability of the endorsement, overall attitude towards the advertised product, and initial intent-to-purchase of the advertised product are desired, the type of endorser used should be considered. If, on the other hand, brand name and advertising recall are most desirable, a celebrity seems to make more sense as an endorser than any of the other endorser types considered in the present study.

Interestingly, Starch and Gallup-Robinson scores, which are commonly used to evaluate advertisements, may bias advertising in the direction of using celebrity endorsers. These companies test advertisements by the use of measures related to awareness, which this study indicated is enhanced by the use of a celebrity endorser, regardless of the type of product advertised.

For instance, Starch scores are based upon

three degrees of readership: a) noted, b) seen-associated, and c) read most. Briefly, these are: a) noted - the percentage of subjects who remembered having seen the advertisement before, b) seen-associated - the percentage of subjects who read enough of the advertisement to identify the brand name or advertiser, c) read most - the percentage of subjects who read 50 per cent or more of the advertising copy.

These measures relate to awareness and knowledge, which are only the first two rungs of the Lavidge-Steiner (1961) Hierarchy of Advertising Effects Model, which is as follows:



Thus, copy tests which focus on intent-to-purchase and attitude towards the advertised product may not be as biased towards the celebrity endorser.

3. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Some of the limitations of the current study should be pointed out. The study was conducted under "laboratory" conditions, and not in a typical advertising situation. Subjects saw the advertisement only once, during the initial interview and not while leisurely leafing through a favorite magazine.

It should be noted that much data was requested of the same group of subjects and, consequently, many statistical tests were performed in the analysis of the data. When this is the case, it is well to be warned that the actual (experimentwise) alpha error may be greater than one believes. However, in the present study, this is not a cause for great concern, since all but one of the tests were significant at $\alpha = .001$ or less.

Furthermore, inferences from this study can only be made regarding print advertising, and may not be true for advertising in other media. Since only one product was tested for each risk type, it may be difficult to generalize this study's findings to other products with the same types of risk.

In addition, although, for the purpose of the study,

it was preferred to sample from a homogeneous population of housewives (since there were only 360 subjects used for a comparison of their evaluations of 12 different advertisements), it must be remembered that these results may not hold true for non-white, lower-class housewives, or for non-housewives.

Indeed, results collected via the sampling of a small area of Brooklyn may only be applicable to housewives residing in that small area of Brooklyn, and not necessarily to housewives in general. Thus, this study was, basically, exploratory in nature. It shed some light on the use of endorsements in advertising, and pointed the way for future research.

Future research in this area should focus on radio and television commercials, utilize other choices of products and celebrities and, if possible, try to use sales, rather than attitudinal, measures. For example, tests utilizing coded coupons could be conducted, with the number of coupons redeemed as the dependent variable.

APPENDIX A

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR 24 VARIABLES

TABLE A-1

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR 24 VARIABLES

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1. Honest	1.00	.53	.55	.37	.46	.52	.49	.43	.44	.38	.54	.57	.38	.55	.60	.53	.21	.40	.45	.37	.55	.43	.06[d]	-.01[d]
2. Intelligent		1.00	.62	.36	.57	.51	.50	.45	.47	.39	.45	.54	.51	.50	.54	.59	.28	.45	.59	.52	.53	.43	.12[a]	.04[d]
3. Good			1.00	.37	.70	.69	.71	.48	.67	.40	.55	.54	.52	.52	.58	.54	.35	.35	.71	.51	.69	.55	.14[a]	.03[d]
4. Impartial				1.00	.30	.25	.29	.28	.28	.33	.29	.33	.35	.42	.34	.35	.06[d]	.56	.33	.33	.33	.23	.05[d]	.02[d]
5. Interesting					1.00	.74	.74	.61	.71	.38	.51	.45	.44	.49	.55	.50	.35	.33	.69	.51	.63	.54	.03[d]	-.05[d]
6. Persuasive						1.00	.78	.68	.65	.39	.55	.53	.47	.51	.56	.55	.35	.31	.66	.50	.66	.58	-.02[d]	-.09[d]
7. Effective							1.00	.60	.72	.44	.58	.55	.49	.55	.58	.55	.40	.37	.63	.50	.65	.54	.04[d]	-.04[d]
8. Original								1.00	.67	.36	.47	.45	.40	.46	.45	.41	.29	.30	.48	.39	.51	.39	.01[d]	-.05[d]
9. Powerful									1.00	.40	.57	.52	.48	.49	.59	.49	.38	.31	.64	.45	.63	.50	.06[d]	-.01[d]
10. Informative										1.00	.49	.44	.45	.48	.46	.44	.40	.39	.62	.57	.60	.32	.06[d]	-.01[d]
11. Believable											1.00	.69	.49	.61	.66	.55	.33	.30	.53	.63	.60	.48	.03[d]	-.02[d]
12. Trustworthy												1.00	.53	.67	.75	.60	.33	.39	.53	.50	.64	.54	.01[d]	-.06[d]
13. Expert													1.00	.55	.57	.70	.25	.41	.50	.51	.54	.42	.04[d]	-.03[d]
14. Sincere														1.00	.71	.60	.32	.51	.54	.53	.59	.49	-.03[d]	-.10[d]
15. Reliable															1.00	.68	.33	.43	.55	.54	.63	.55	-.02[d]	-.08[d]
16. Competent																1.00	.30	.48	.56	.54	.61	.49	.06[d]	-.07[d]
17. Clear																	1.00	.16	.43	.43	.39	.33	.04[d]	-.01[d]
18. Objective																		1.00	.39	.48	.40	.29	.05[d]	-.03[d]
19. Likeable																			1.00	.57	.68	.57	.07[d]	-.00[d]
20. Knowledgeable																				1.00	.55	.47	.00[d]	-.05[d]
21. Overall Attitude																					1.00	.73	.04[d]	-.04[d]
22. Intent-to-purchase																						1.00	-.09[d]	-.18[c]
23. Estimated Worth																							1.00	.91
24. Selling Price																								1.00

Note: All correlations are significant at $p < .0001$, except for those with the following notations:

[a] $p < .05$

[b] $p < .01$

[c] $p < .001$

[d] not significant

APPENDIX B

UNIVARIATE ANALYSES

Table B-1

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: HONEST

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.60	3.73	3.67	3.27
cookies	3.73	3.73	4.13	3.63
costume jewelry	4.27	3.77	3.07	3.40

Note: 1= Not at all honest; 6= Extremely honest

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.91	1.14	.3196
Endorser(E)	3	3.07	1.84	.1373
P x E	6	3.82	2.29	.0347
Error	348	1.67		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

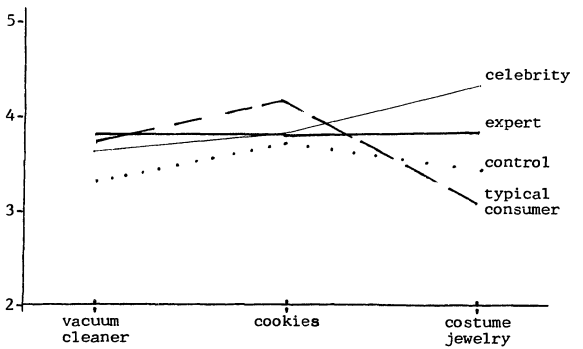


Table B-2

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: INTELLIGENT

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.60	4.13	3.40	3.37
cookies	3.90	3.37	3.40	3.70
costume jewelry	4.03	3.73	2.60	3.43

Note: 1 = Not at all intelligent; 6 = Extremely intelligent

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.04	.57	.5760
Endorser(E)	3	9.01	4.90	.0028
P x E	6	4.06	2.21	.0417
Error	348	1.84		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

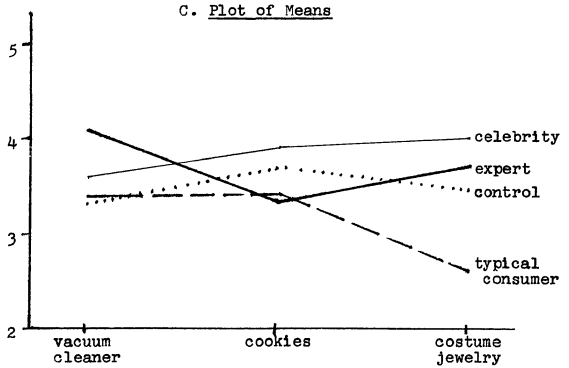


Table B-3

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: GOOD

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.70	3.90	3.60	3.60
cookies	4.03	3.23	4.23	3.80
costume jewelry	4.23	3.17	2.53	3.53

Note: 1 = Not at all good; 6 = Extremely good

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	6.74	2.81	.0599
Endorser(E)	3	5.94	2.48	.0598
P x E	6	7.70	3.21	.0047
Error	348	2.40		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

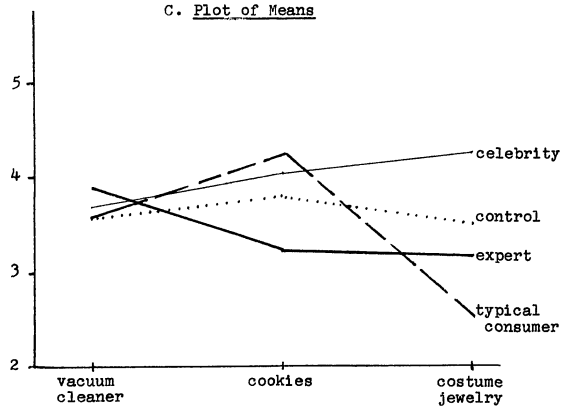


Table B-4

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: IMPARTIAL

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	2.77	3.07	3.20	2.50
cookies	2.87	2.93	3.27	2.83
costume jewelry	2.87	3.20	2.07	2.97

Note: 1 = Not at all impartial; 6 = Extremely impartial

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.20	.45	.6408
Endorser(E)	3	1.53	.58	.6328
P x E	6	4.94	1.87	.0849
Error	348	2.64		
Total	359			

C. No Interaction - No Means Plotted

Table B-5

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: INTERESTING

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.13	3.60	3.30	3.33
cookies	3.97	2.67	3.93	3.60
costume jewelry	4.50	3.40	2.73	3.50

Note: 1= Not at all interesting; 6= Extremely interesting

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.54	.57	.5723
Endorser(E)	3	7.22	2.67	.0464
P x E	6	10.43	3.86	.0013
Error	348	2.70		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

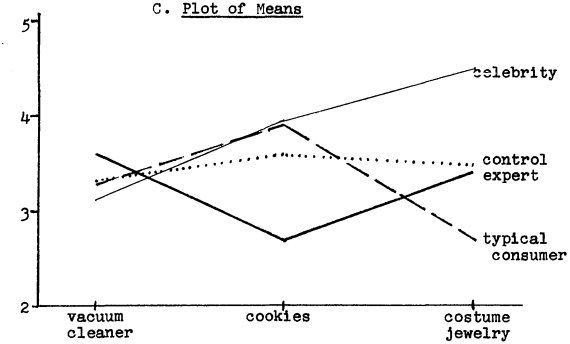


Table B-6

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: PERSUASIVE

A. Cell Means

Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.07	3.27	3.13	2.93
cookies	3.70	2.73	4.13	3.77
costume jewelry	4.03	3.20	2.73	3.27

Note: 1= Not at all persuasive; 6= Extremely persuasive

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	7.05	2.82	.0591
Endorser(E)	3	4.27	1.71	.1634
P x E	6	7.86	3.14	.0054
Error	348	2.50		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

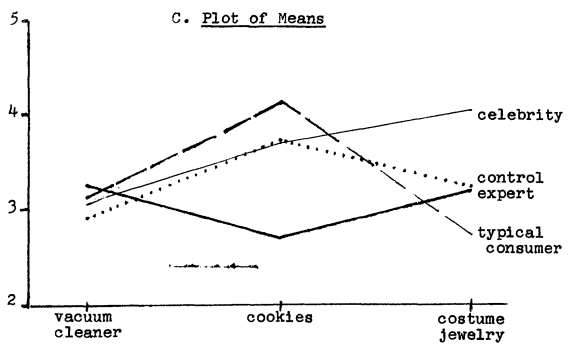


Table B-7

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: EFFECTIVE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.27	3.47	3.27	3.20
cookies	3.43	2.77.	4.10	3.63
costume jewelry	4.33	3.03	2.63	3.03

Note: 1= Not at all effective; 6= Extremely effective

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.72	.73	.5119
Endorser(E)	3	5.39	2.28	.0777
P x E	6	10.34	4.38	.0005
Error	348	2.36		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

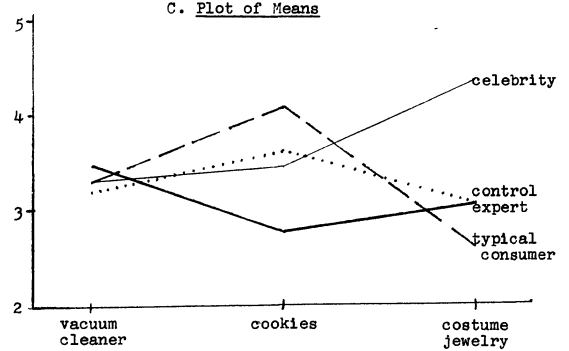


Table B-8

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORIGINAL

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	2.83	3.47	2.97	2.63
cookies	3.67	2.60	3.43	3.41
costume jewelry	3.93	3.03	3.03	2.83

Note: 1= Not at all original; 6= Extremely original

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	3.23	1.05	.3529
Endorser(E)	3	4.51	1.46	.2232
P x E	6	6.62	2.14	.0473
Error	348	3.09		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

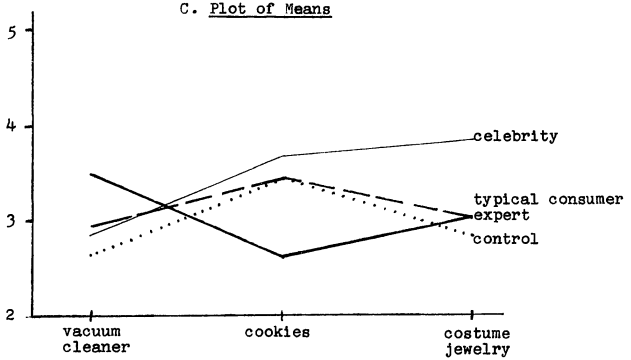


Table B-9

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: POWERFUL

A. Cell Means

Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	2.70	3.27	2.83	2.90
cookies	3.20	2.43	3.80	3.53
costume jewelry	3.77	2.70	2.10	3.30

Note: 1= Not at all powerful; 6= Extremely powerful

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	3.55	1.33	.2634
Endorser(E)	3	4.47	1.68	.1692
P x E	6	11.77	4.42	.0004
Error	348	2.66		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

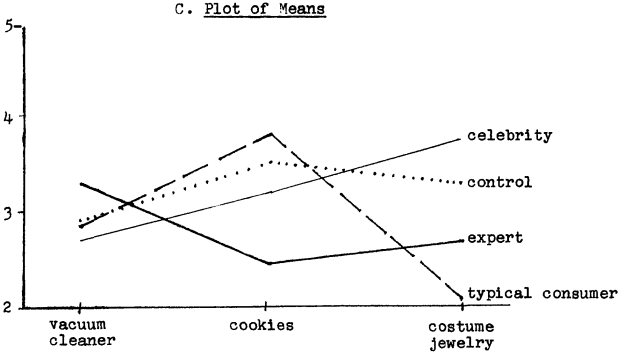


Table B-10

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: INFORMATIVE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.87	3.73	3.67	3.57
cookies	4.20	3.10	3.60	4.27
costume jewelry	3.67	3.70	3.10	3.70

Note: 1= Not at all informative; 6= Extremely informative

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.94	.93	.6031
Endorser(E)	3	4.78	2.29	.0766
P x E	6	3.69	1.77	.1039
Error	348	2.09		
Total	359			

C. No Interaction - No Means Plotted

Table B-11

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: BELIEVABLE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleane	3.13	4.03	3.47	3.53
cookies	3.60	3.03	4.07	3.93
costume jewelry	4.23	3.50	2.80	3.50

Note: 1= Not at all believable; 6= Extremely believable

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	.74	.40	.6776
Endorser(E)	3	.98	.52	.6700
P x E	6	9.90	5.29	.0001
Error	348	1.87		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

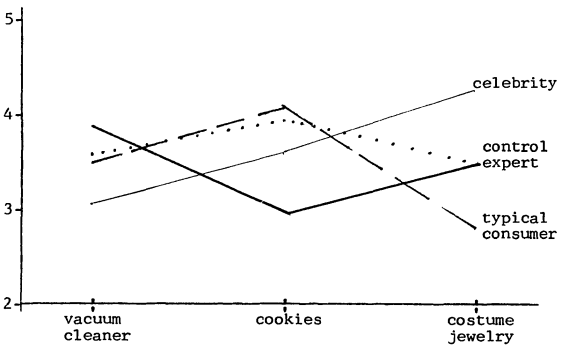


Table B-12

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: TRUSTWORTHY

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.00	4.13	3.20	3.53
cookies	3.77	3.57	4.17	3.63
costume jewelry	4.30	3.73	2.87	3.60

Note: 1= Not at all trustworthy; 6= Extremely trustworthy

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	3.01	1.57	.2085
Endorser(E)	3	2.57	1.34	.2602
P x E	6	8.70	4.53	.0004
Error	348	1.92		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

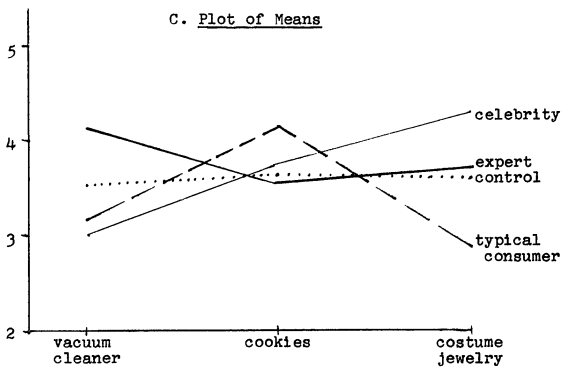


Table B-13

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: EXPERT

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	2.87	3.97	2.63	3.00
cookies	3.33	2.77	3.23	3.37
costume jewelry	3.43	3.57	2.23	3.10

Note: 1= Not at all expert; 6= Extremely expert

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F Value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	.26	.12	.8864
Endorser(E)	3	8.52	3.96	.0085
P x E	6	7.45	3.47	.0027
Error	348	2.15		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

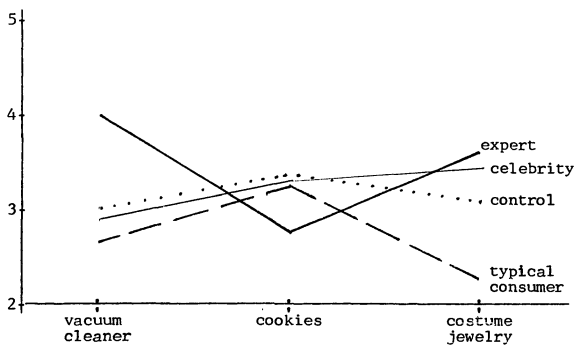


Table B-14

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: SINCERE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.59	4.00	3.27	3.67
cookies	3.70	3.57	4.17	4.07
costume jewelry	4.33	4.00	2.97	3.73

Note: 1= Not at all sincere; 6= Extremely sincere

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.88	.94	.6052
Endorser(E)	3	3.31	1.66	.1759
P x E	6	6.04	3.02	.0072
Error	348	2.00		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

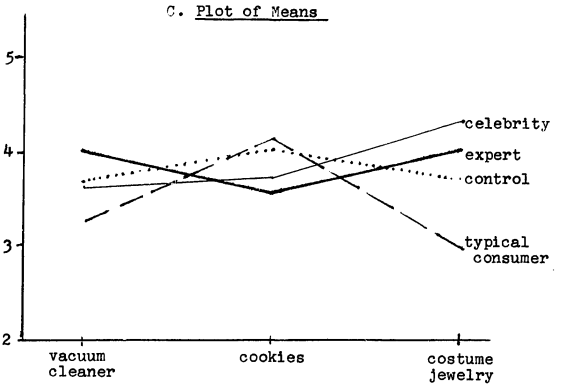


Table B-15

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: RELIABLE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.00	3.83	3.23	3.50
cookies	3.73	3.23	4.13	3.70
costume jewelry	4.30	3.53	2.93	3.57

Note: 1= Not at all reliable; 6= Extremely reliable

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	2.91	1.59	.2038
Endorser(E)	3	.94	.51	.6763
P x E	6	8.18	4.47	.0004
Error	348	1.83		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

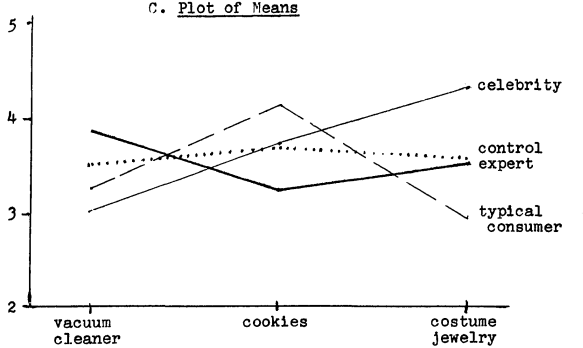


Table B-16

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: COMPETENT

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.00	3.97	3.20	3.47
cookies	3.53	3.30	3.80	3.80
costume jewelry	4.30	3.77	2.60	3.30

Note: 1= Not at all competent; 6= Extremely competent

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	1.21	.64	.5315
Endorser(E)	3	4.03	2.14	.0935
P x E	6	9.29	4.94	.0002
Error	348	1.88		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

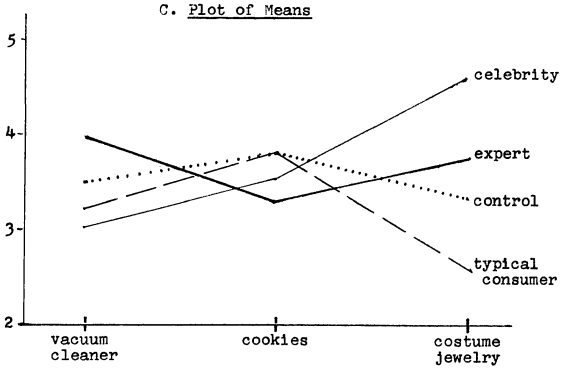


Table B-17

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: CLEAR

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	5.13	5.00	4.10	5.30
cookies	5.07	4.80	5.07	5.10
costume jewelry	4.97	4.53	4.50	4.40

Note: 1= Not at all clear; 6= Extremely clear

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	5.25	2.97	.0509
Endorser(E)	3	4.19	2.37	.0690
P x E	6	3.46	1.95	.0703
Error	348	1.77		
Total	359			

C. No Interaction - No Means Plotted

Table B-18

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: OBJECTIVE

A.. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.33	2.90	3.23	2.47
cookies	3.30	3.00	3.17	3.57
costume jewelry	3.10	3.50	2.40	2.77

Note: 1= Not at all objective; 6= Extremely objective

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	3.55	1.47	.2289
Endorser(E)	3	2.14	.89	.5511
P x E	6	5.39	2.24	.0390
Error	348	2.41		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

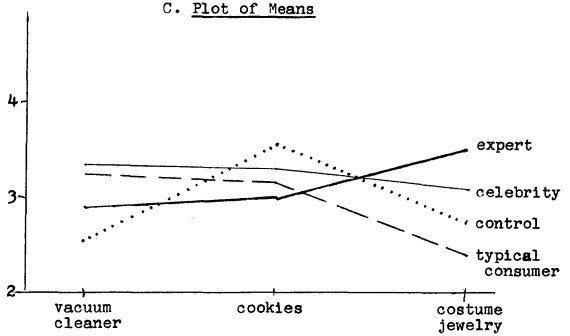


Table B-19

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LIKEABLE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.80	3.53	3.13	3.63
cookies	4.43	2.80	4.20	3.87
costume jewelry	4.27	3.43	2.53	3.67

Note: 1= Not at all likeable; 6= Extremely likeable

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	4.30	1.72	.1780
Endorser(E)	3	16.54	6.62	.0004
P x E	6	8.51	3.40	.0031
Error	348	2.50		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

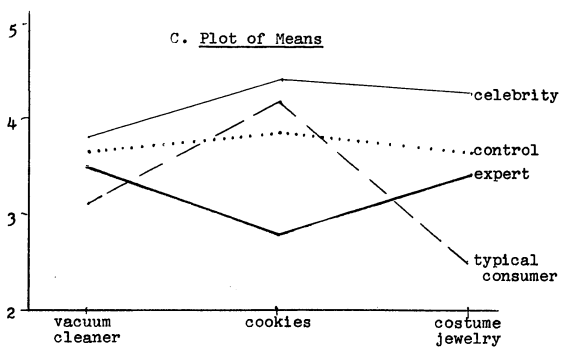


Table B-20

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: KNOWLEDGEABLE

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	3.50	3.63	3.30	3.67
cookies	3.97	3.40	3.80	4.37
costume jewelry	4.13	3.83	3.00	3.13

Note: 1= Not at all knowledgeable; 6= Extremely knowledgeable

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	5.14	2.61	.0729
Endorser(E)	3	3.99	2.03	.1079
P x E	6	5.30	2.69	.0144
Error	348	1.97		
Total	359			

C. Plot of Means

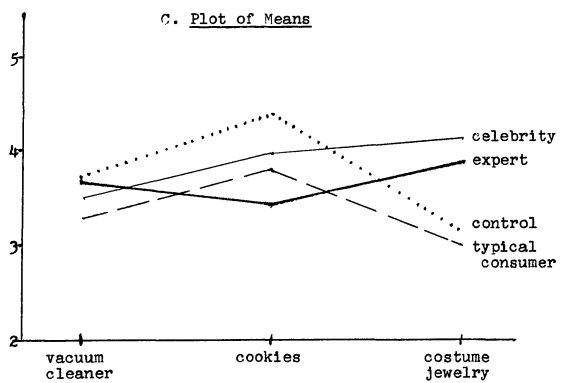


Table B-21

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ESTIMATED WORTH OF PRODUCT

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	$99.29	$84.23	$64.27	$74.56
cookies	.63	.61	.64	.61
costume jewelry	7.80	6.13	3.56	6.65

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	239,644.84	265.59	.0001
Endorser(E)	3	2,717.78	3.01	.0296
P x E	6	2,018.54	2.24	.0388
Error	348	902.31		
Total	359			

C. No Interaction - No Means Plotted

Table B-22

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: EXPECTED SELLING PRICE OF PRODUCT

A. Cell Means

	Endorser			
Product	Celebrity	Expert	Typical Consumer	Control
vacuum cleaner	$124.46	$114.33	$91.77	$105.78
cookies	.78	.71	.71	.72
costume jewelry	12.33	9.53	6.72	10.60

B. ANOVA Table

Source	d.f.	Mean Square	F-value	Significance Level
Product(P)	2	433,626.05	355.14	.0001
Endorser(E)	3	2,568.39	2.10	.0980
P x E	6	1,672.58	1.37	.2250
Error	348	1,220.99		
Total	359			

C. No Interaction - No Means Plotted

APPENDIX C

PRETEST QUESTIONNAIRES

Every time you purchase a product, there are five risks involved:

1. Financial risk: The chance of wasting money on the product be because it does not work properly, or because it costs more than it should to keep it in good shape.
2. Performance risk: The chance that the product will not work as expected.
3. Physical risk: The chance that the product will not be safe, and may be harmful or injurious.
4. Psychological risk: The chance that the product will not fit in well with the way you think of yourself, your self-image.
5. Social risk: The chance that the product will affect the way others think of you, and make them think less of you, or even laugh at you.

Below is a list of products. Please rate each product listed on each type of risk, by using a number from 1 (indicating that the risk is not at all likely) to 7 (indicating that the risk is extremely likely).

Not at all likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely likely

Product	Financial	Performance	Physical	Psychological	Social
electric blender					
costume jewelry					
woman's sweater					
vacuum cleaner					
handbag					
woman's blouse					
box of cookies					
ironing table					
woman's bathing suit					
hosiery					

Please rate the celebrities listed below on each of the following scales:

AWARENESS

Not at all known to me — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 — Extremely well-known to me

LIKEABLENESS

Not at all likeable — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 — Extremely likeable

ATTRACTIVENESS

Not at all attractive — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 — Extremely attractive

TRUSTWORTHINESS

Not at all trustworthy — 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 — Extremely trustworthy

Please rate each celebrity by using a number from 1 to 7, as on the scales above.

	Awareness	Likeableness	Attractiveness	Trustworthiness
Beatrice "Maude" Arthur				
Lee Grant				
Valerie "Rhoda" Harper				
Cloris "Phyllis" Leachman				
Mary Tyler Moore				
Barbra Streisand				
Loretta Swit				
June Allen				

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE - page 1

1. Below is a list of 20 adjectives for you to use in describing the advertisement which you have just seen. Please place a check mark (✓) in the appropriate box for each adjective, as explained by the interviewer.

Not at all honest	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely honest
Not at all intelligent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely intelligent
Not at all good	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely good
Not at all impartial	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely impartial'
Not at all interesting	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely interesting
Not at all persuasive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely persuasive
Not at all effective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely effective
Not at all original	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely original
Not at all powerful	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely powerful
Not at all informative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely informative
Not at all believable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely believable
Not at all trustworthy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely trustworthy
Not at all expert	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely expert
Not at all sincere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely sincere
Not at all reliable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely reliable
Not at all competent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely competent
Not at all clear	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely clear
Not at all objective	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely objective
Not at all likeable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely likeable
Not at all knowledgeable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Extremely knowledgeable

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE - page 2

2. Please place a check in the box which best indicates your overall attitude towards a Majestik Vacuum Cleaner.

Not at all favorable ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Extremely favorable

3. What is the chance that you will buy a Majestik Vacuum Cleaner? (check one)

___ Definitely would buy
___ Very probably would buy
___ Probably would buy
___ Might or might not buy
___ Probably would not buy
___ Very probably would not buy
___ Definitely would not buy

4. In dollars and cents, please indicate what a Majestik Vacuum Cleaner would be worth to you. $_____

5. What do you think is the actual selling price of a Majestik Vacuum Cleaner? $_____

6. What, if anything, did you find unrealistic or hard to believe about the advertisement?_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE - page 3

7. Every time you purchase a product, there are five risks involved:

   a. Financial risk: The chance of wasting money on the product because it does not work properly, or because it costs more than it should to keep it in good shape.

   b. Performance risk: The chance that the product will not work as expected.

   c. Physical risk: The chance that the product will not be safe, and may be harmful or injurious.

   d. Psychological risk: The chance that the product will not fit in well with the way you think of yourself, your self-image.

   e. Social risk: The chance that the product will affect the way others think of you, and make them think less of you, or even laugh at you.

   Please rate the purchase of a vacuum cleaner on these 5 types of risk. Check one box for each risk type.

Risk Type	Low	Medium	High
Financial	☐	☐	☐
Performance	☐	☐	☐
Physical	☐	☐	☐
Psychological	☐	☐	☐
Social	☐	☐	☐

8. Age:
   - ☐ 24 and younger
   - ☐ 25 to 34
   - ☐ 35 to 49
   - ☐ 50 to 64
   - ☐ 65 and older

9. Education:
   - ☐ grade school or less
   - ☐ some high school
   - ☐ graduated high school
   - ☐ some college
   - ☐ graduated college
   - ☐ some postgraduate college work

10. Family Income:
   - ☐ under $5,000
   - ☐ $5,000 to $9,999
   - ☐ $10,000 to $14,999
   - ☐ $15,000 to $24,999
   - ☐ $25,000 and over

11. Ethnic Background:
   - ☐ Caucasion (White)
   - ☐ Black
   - ☐ Hispanic
   - ☐ Oriental
   - ☐ Other (Specify_____)

APPENDIX E

THE TWELVE ADVERTISEMENTS

Mary Tyler Moore
Star of the CBS Hit Series
"The Mary Tyler Moore Show"

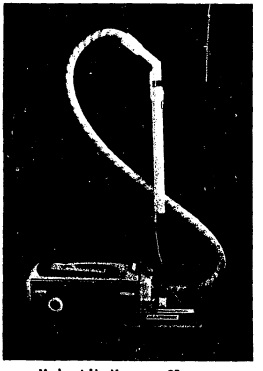
"I'm Mary Tyler Moore and I think that the Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is the best! Its strong suction power and smooth cleaning action make vacuuming a pleasure. It cleans up surface litter and gets out the deep-down dirt without reducing carpet life. A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"

Mary Tyler Moore
Star of the CBS Hit Series
"The Mary Tyler Moore Show"

cleans up surface litter and gets out the deep-down dirt without reducing carpet life. A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"

MAJESTIK--

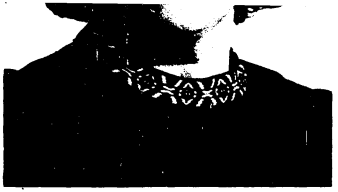
THE ROYAL VACUUM CLEANER
FOR HER MAJESTY,
QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.



Majestik Vacuum Cleaner

Joan Greene, well-known appliance expert
author of the best-selling fix-it book,
A Woman's Guide to Home Appliances

"I'm Joan Greene and I think that the Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is the best! Its strong suction power and smooth cleaning action make vacuuming a pleasure. It cleans up surface litter and gets out the deep-down dirt without reducing carpet life. A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"



Joan Greene, well-known appliance expert
author of the best-selling fix-it book,
A Woman's Guide to Home Appliances

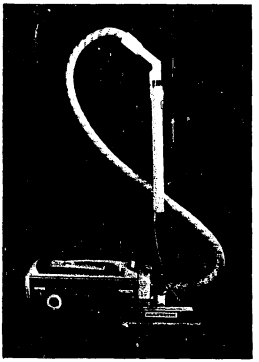
Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"

MAJESTIK--

THE ROYAL VACUUM CLEANER

FOR HER MAJESTY,

QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.



Majestik Vacuum Cleaner

Joan Greene, housewife
Clifton, New Jersey

"I'm Joan Greene and I think that the Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is the best! Its strong suction power and smooth cleaning action make vacuuming a pleasure. It cleans up surface litter and gets out the deep-down dirt without reducing carpet life. A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"

reducing carpet life. "A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!"

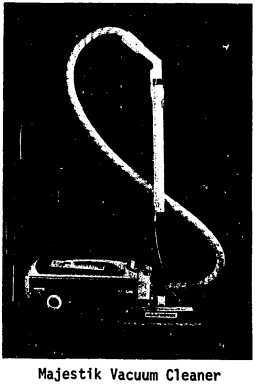
Joan Greene, housewife
Clifton, New Jersey

MAJESTIK--

THE ROYAL VACUUM CLEANER

FOR HER MAJESTY,

QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.



Majestik Vacuum Cleaner

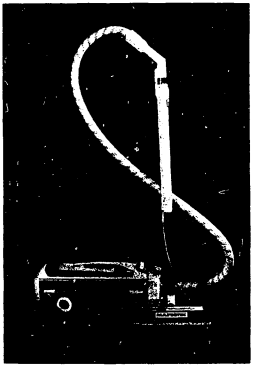
The Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is the best! Its strong suction power and smooth cleaning action make vacuuming a pleasure. It cleans up surface litter and gets out the deep-down dirt without reducing carpet life. A Majestik Vacuum Cleaner is economical, durable, and energy-efficient. Give your carpet a royal cleaning --with a Majestik!

MAJESTIK--

Give your carpet a royal cleaning
--with a Majestik!

MAJESTIK--

THE ROYAL VACUUM CLEANER
FOR HER MAJESTY,
QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.



Majestik Vacuum Cleaner

Mary Tyler Moore
Star of the CBS Hit Series
"The Mary Tyler Moore Show"

"I'm Mary Tyler Moore and I think that Majestik Oatmeal Cookies are delicious! They are a rich-tasting, nutritious snack-- wonderful for the whole family. Try Majestik Oatmeal Cookies and you'll agree that they are the best you have ever tasted. Each flavor-filled morsel contains that same delicious Majestik Oatmeal taste. A tasty, wholesome, and reasonably priced treat-- that's a Majestik cookie!"

Mary Tyler Moore
Star of the CBS Hit Series
"The Mary Tyler Moore Show"

whole family. Try Majestik Oatmeal Cookies and you'll agree that they are the best you have ever tasted. Each flavor-filled morsel contains that same delicious Majestik Oatmeal taste. A tasty, wholesome, and reasonably priced treat-- that's a Majestik cookie!"

MAJESTIK--

THE ROYAL COOKIE
FOR HER MAJESTY,
QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.

Majestik Oatmeal Cookies

Joan Greene, director, Metropolitan Cooking School
author of the best-selling cookbook,
The Joy of Creative Cooking

"I'm Joan Greene and I think that Majestik Oatmeal Cookies are delicious! They are a rich-tasting, nutritious snack-- wonderful for the whole family. Try Majestik Oatmeal Cookies and you'll agree that they are the best you have ever tasted. Each flavor-filled morsel contains that same delicious Majestik Oatmeal taste. A tasty, wholesome, and reasonably priced treat-- that's a Majestik cookie!"

Joan Greene, director, Metropolitan Cooking School
author of the best-selling cookbook,
The Joy of Creative Cooking

are the best you have ever tasted. Each flavor-filled morsel contains that same delicious Majestik Oatmeal taste. A tasty, wholesome, and reasonably priced treat-- that's a Majestik cookie!"

MAJESTIK--

THE ROYAL COOKIE
FOR HER MAJESTY,
QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.

Majestik Oatmeal Cookies

Joan Greene, housewife
Clifton, New Jersey

"I'm Joan Greene and I think that Majestik Oatmeal Cookies are delicious! They are a rich-tasting, nutritious snack-- wonderful for the whole family. Try Majestik Oatmeal Cookies and you'll agree that they are the best you have ever tasted. Each flavor-filled morsel contains that same delicious Majestik Oatmeal taste. A tasty, wholesome, and reasonably priced treat-- that's a Majestik cookie!"

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MAJESTIK--

THE ROYAL COOKIE
FOR HER MAJESTY,
QUEEN OF THE HOUSE.

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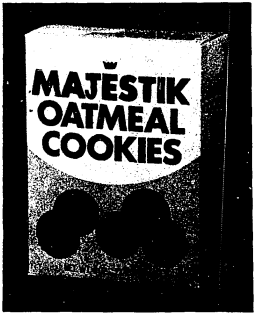

Majestik Oatmeal Cookies

Mary Tyler Moore
Star of the CBS Hit Series
"The Mary Tyler Moore Show"

"I'm Mary Tyler Moore and I think that Majestik Costume Jewelry is the finest available. All of the pieces are attractive, elegant, tasteful, and quite reasonably priced. They are the ultimate in good workmanship and fine detail. Any time, day or night, Majestik Costume Jewelry will brighten your total look, and make you look your best. You will look like royalty when you are wearing a Majestik!"

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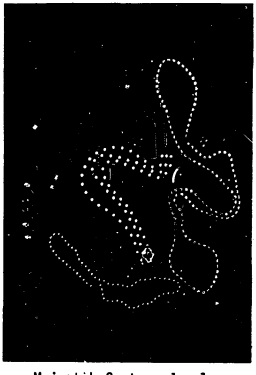

Majestik Costume Jewelry

Joan Greene, well-known jewelry expert
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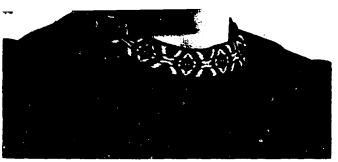

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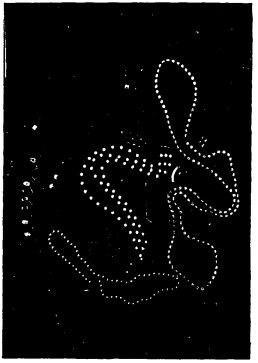

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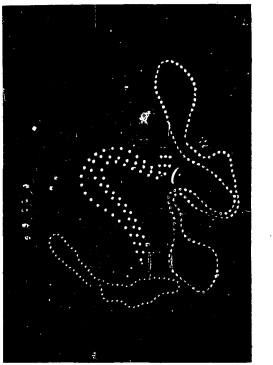

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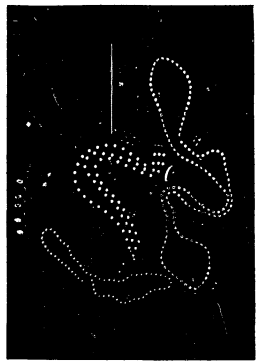

Majestik Costume Jewelry

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