

A Cross-cultural look at Celebrity Sports Endorsement

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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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Abstract

Celebrity endorsers have dominated advertising for many years (Cho, 2010). Their ability to cut through advertising clutter has contributed to their effectiveness as persuasive advertising sources (Kamen, Ahzari, & Kragh, 1975). More recently sports celebrities have been heavily utilized to endorse products and services (Charbonneau, 2006). However, not all celebrity sports endorsement advertising campaigns around the world have been successful. This has raised a number of issues regarding the use of celebrity sports endorsers in advertising.

Theories such as credibility, attractiveness, match and meaning transfer have been offered as explanations for the persuasiveness of celebrity athletes in advertising. However, past study results have been inconclusive (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989; McCracken, 1989). Therefore, a new perspective combining elements of current theory is proposed in the current research. Specifically, the research looks at situations where consumer perceptions of athlete performance enhancement by an endorsed product affect consumer attitudes toward advertising

In addition, due to the global use of celebrity sports endorsement cultural values have been recognised to affect consumer persuasion and attitudes. The bulk of marketing literature has focussed on western perspectives (Triandis, 1996). Therefore, persuasion across two dissimilar cultures for celebrity sports endorsement advertising is also explored.

The study examines the responses of 189 survey participants from New Zealand. Participants represented either individualists which were non-Maori, mainly white European New Zealanders (hereafter Pakeha) or collectivists which were Pacific Islanders resident in the South Pacific, Australia and New Zealand (hereafter Pasifika). The empirical findings of the research show that advertising which features products which appear to have an enhancing effect on sporting performance are evaluated more positively compared to products which do not appear to enhance sporting performance. The research also indicates that cultural values determine differences in persuasion and attitudes for individualist and collectivist consumers.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Research overview

Well known public figures in advertising have captivated the attention of consumers for decades. Famous celebrity endorsers have been used to penetrate advertising clutter and draw attention to specific products, services and issues (Kamen, Ahzari, & Kragh, 1975). This phenomenon in marketing communication has accelerated in recent times (Lee & Thorson, 2008; Ibrahim, 2010; Cho, 2010). Marketers have spent millions on advertising campaigns that feature movie stars, pop singers and athletes to promote their products (Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994). Used in approximately one in every four advertisements, celebrity endorsement has proven to be an effective method for communicating persuasive advertising messages to consumers (Shimp, 1997).

Celebrity endorsement involves contractual agreements between companies and endorsers. As part of an agreement endorsers may be required to fulfil certain obligations. For example, celebrity endorsers may be required to wear the clothes that the company wants to promote, make appearances in media advertising and attend promotional events. (McCracken, 1989; Bush, Martin, & Bush, 2004). Associations with a high profile celebrity lends credibility to the brand, product or company (Sonwalker, Kapse, & Pathak, 2011). Celebrity endorsement generally allows companies to experience increased sales revenue as consumers hold positive perceptions about celebrities. In return for this outcome companies pay endorsers a substantial fee (Bush et al., 2004).

Lipman & Hinge (1990) estimated that in a ten year endorsement deal with American Sports drink company Gatorade, Michael Jordan was to earn US\$14 million to US\$18 million. In 2002 it was estimated that Tiger Woods earned US\$70 million dollars from endorsement deals alone (Charbonneau & Garland, 2005). Often the economic benefits received by both parties tend to lead to long-term relationships in the form of sponsorship between company and endorser. Take Nike and its long list of athletes for example. It has been known for its lucrative long-term deals with Michael Jordan, Tiger Woods and more recently NBA star LeBron James (McDonald, 1996; Charbonneau & Garland, 2005; Carlson & Donovan, 2008).

The widespread appeal of celebrity endorsers has seen changes in the way celebrities endorse products and the types of products they endorse. It has also seen changes in consumer perceptions of celebrity endorsers and their impact on brands as a result of their behaviour and performance (Erdogan, 1999). An area within celebrity endorsement which has grown significantly and has had significant influences on how celebrities are used to endorse products is celebrity sports endorsement (Stone, Joseph & Jones, 2003; Charbonneau, 2006; Shuart, 2007). Sports people who feature in advertising are those who experience huge public recognition from having reached a high level of success in their sport. This allows them to have equal if not greater status to other celebrities such as movie stars and singers (Kim & Cheong, 2011). Celebrity sports endorsement therefore is categorized as celebrity endorsement but is specific to advertising which involves famous professional athletes.

Initially famous athletes endorsed products that were closely related to their particular sport (Stone et al., 2003). For example, famous New Zealand cricketer Steven Fleming has been known to endorse cricket bats made by Gunn and Moore (Quester et al., 2007). However, many athletes have shifted their endorsement outside the realms of sport and into popular everyday products. Rather than endorsing a certain type of rugby boot, rugby ball or mouth-guard New Zealand All Black rugby hero Daniel Carter has been widely known as the spokesperson for a somewhat unrelated product in Jockey briefs (Quester et al., 2007). Athletes all over the world have not only been seen endorsing sports related products but also other goods and services which appear to have no obvious connection with their profession. Tripp et al. (1994) observed the many endorsement deals by professional basketball legend, Michael Jordan. They noted the wide range of products he endorsed from Nike footwear and apparel, Gatorade sports drink, Wheaties breakfast cereal, Hanes briefs, McDonalds hamburgers and Chevrolet motor vehicles. This shift away from endorsing products that have obvious links with an athlete's sporting profession has suggested that celebrity sports endorsement may be persuasive for reasons other than traditional notions of perceived source expertise (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Maddux & Rogers, 1980). Theorists have suggested factors such as; attractiveness, match between products and endorsers and the transfer of meaning from endorsers to products to consumers as possible explanations for the effectiveness of celebrity sports endorsement (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989; McCracken, 1989).

While the effectiveness of celebrity sports endorsers has been seen to generate lucrative financial benefits for both company and endorser, this has not been the position held by all. The risk of negative events and publicity relating to athlete endorser's behaviour and misconduct has led to negative perceptions towards using celebrity sports endorsers (Till, 1998; Till & Shimp, 1998). Just as positive consumer associations of athletes can transfer to a product and brand, in the same way potential negative associations can also affect perceptions of the brand due to poor performance, socially intolerable behaviour or other negative perceptions (Lear, Runyun, & Whitaker, 2009). Writers on the subject describe how sports stars, including American NHL, NBA and MLB stars, have been associated with socially unacceptable behaviour such as banned substance consumption, adultery and even murder (Till & Shimp, 1998; Stone et al., 2003). The behaviour of athletes therefore has been found to have major influences in generating sales and impacting company brand image. This has driven companies to be more cautious and re-evaluate their selection criteria for potential product endorsers. Even though there appears to be obvious risks when pursuing a celebrity sports endorsement strategy, its continual use and popularity among marketers and advertisers proves that its potential risks are largely outweighed by potential greater rewards.

1.2 Research problems & questions

The issue of how best to utilize celebrity endorsers as an effective and persuasive means of communication in product promotion and advertising continues to be the subject of extensive debate. Early studies have looked at endorsement as most effective at cutting through advertising clutter and enhancing product and brand recall by consumers (Erdogan, 1999; Quester et al., 2007). While similar reasoning may partially explain the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers, results and findings of past literature remain inconclusive. Therefore it still remains unclear as to what may really drive differences in effective persuasion of positive and negative consumer attitudes toward advertisements, celebrity endorsers, the endorsed products and brands.

Theorists have offered the notion that celebrities often are perceived by consumers as attractive and an attractive source of an advertising message makes for a successful endorser (Baker & Churchill 1977; Chaiken, 1979; Kamins, 1990; Erdogan, 1999). Others have suggested that celebrity athletes appear as credible sources of advertising messages and therefore make reliable trustworthy sources of advertising information (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Ohanian, 1991; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994). McCracken (1989) argues that celebrities

are associated with meaning. Movie stars for example, gain meaning from the characters they represent on screen, this meaning is then transferred to the endorsed product and thus creates some form of appeal to the recipient of the advertising message. Furthermore, research identifies that celebrities may be persuasive endorsers as they represent ideal images for consumers to aspire to. Consumers match their ideal self-image with the image of the celebrity endorser (Marshall et al., 2008).

While these points appear to be reasonable arguments as to why celebrity sports endorsement is a persuasive means of communication they each are met with counter-arguments which confound the issues and keep any agreement between theories at bay. Counter-arguments against celebrities as attractive sources of advertising information have focussed on the use of physically attractive models in different advertising campaigns. Findings showed how attractiveness had little success in persuading consumers of certain products and in some cases led to negative consumer attitudes (Baker & Churchill, 1977). The widespread use of sports celebrities endorsing multiple products which may or may not relate to their known field of expertise have contributed to arguments against match between product and endorser and athlete endorsers as credible experts (Tripp et al., 1994; Grau, Roselli & Taylor, 2007). These are just some of the arguments which add to the complexity of effective celebrity sports endorsement.

In addition to these valid criticisms theorists have argued that the appeal of celebrity sports endorsement advertising may vary in effectiveness from country to country and culture to culture. Studies found that celebrities in India had a greater effect on consumers due to perceptions of glamour and high status. However, contrasting results were found for consumers in the US (Biswas, Hussain, & O'Donnell, 2009). In another study, Pornpitakpan & Francis (2001) found that Thai consumers placed higher importance on the source of the advertised message compared with Canadians. Here, the issue of persuasion emerges where differences in cultural values and what is deemed important to consumers may mean differences in how consumers are persuaded by advertising. The heavy use of celebrity endorsement around the world suggests that the majority of consumers are in some way persuaded by celebrities. But are they persuaded in the same way? Under what circumstances and conditions are consumers of different cultures persuaded by celebrity endorsers? Similar questions have surfaced which relate to theoretical models of persuasion. More specifically, they borrow from the extensive work of the elaboration likelihood model by Petty and

Cacioppo which has looked at different routes to persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Their research indicates that celebrity endorsers in advertising are mainly persuasive in situations where consumers experience low personal interest. In contrast, celebrity endorsers have little persuasive impact in advertising situations where consumers experience high personal interest (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Cacioppo & Schuman, 1983).

While the trend involving celebrity endorsers in advertising communications tends to be increasing, one is still unable to unearth clear evidence as to reasons why celebrity endorsement may or may not be effective in given situations. Thus, theoretical gaps such as those touched on already indicate that there is a need to re-evaluate the current framework regarding celebrity endorsement. More specifically, celebrity sports endorsement is in need of investigation due to its accelerated use in advertising around the globe. At this point, new variables can be introduced which may help develop theoretical and practical understandings of consumer persuasion and attitudes towards brands using celebrity sports endorsement strategies.

While it is not a new venture to explore the effects of celebrity sports endorsement, enquiry from a cross-cultural standpoint is a worthy endeavour (Jones & Schumann, 2000). More research that investigates how dissimilar cultures respond to celebrity endorsement would contribute to a relatively new area in marketing. The impact this may have on members of individualist and collectivist cultures could be explored. Only a handful of studies have attempted to gain understanding of the cultural differences in consumer responses to advertising source factors to date. The bulk of these studies have focussed on differences in the responses of individualist Western cultures in America and Canada compared with collectivist Asian cultures like Thailand, China, Japan, Korea and India (Han & Shavitt, 1994; Arikawa & Templar, 1998; Pornpitakpan & Francis 2001; Biswas et al., 2009; Shulruf et al., 2011). The current research aims to understand the differences within a New Zealand context. Differences will be explored between New Zealand Pakeha who identify strongly with individualism and Pacific Island people who identify strongly with collectivism. There currently appears to be no existing marketing literature that addresses marketing specifically to Pacific Island peoples.

Since the 1960's the growth of Pacific Island peoples in New Zealand has increased fairly quickly and continues to climb. Statistics New Zealand estimates that Pacific Island peoples

make up around 6% of the total New Zealand population currently, which equates to roughly just over 260,000 people. Reports indicate that this number is growing and will climb to around 10% by 2026 (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). Pacific Island peoples are traditionally highly collectivist and are likely to exhibit attitudes and behaviours that are different to members of Western cultures. Traditional Pacific Island cultural values such as the importance of holding attitudes consistent with the group and obedience and respect to superiors within a stratified social hierarchy are likely to produce attitudes that focus on advertising sources such as the brand or the person endorsing the product (Douglas, 1989; Herda, Terrell, & Gunson, 1990; Kramer, 1995). This may have more of an impact on evaluations of advertising. This is compared with studies which have focussed on Western responses which historically have shown persuasion and attitude change depending on the quality of advertising message arguments (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Pornpitakpan & Francis 2001; Biswas et al., 2009). This has implications for current theoretical endorsement models and practitioners where different marketing communication methods should be employed to target different consumers of different cultures. Research in this area may also provide a starting point for further development in marketing to Pacific Island peoples.

1.3 Research contribution & objectives

1.3.1 Research contribution

Current literature on celebrity sports endorsement focuses on a number of different theories that suggest source attractiveness, source credibility, meaning transfer and fit between celebrity and product (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Kamins, 1989; McCracken, 1989; Halonen-Knight & Hurmerinta, 2010). These theoretical models have been applied to all types of celebrity endorsement situations. However, the growth in celebrity sports endorsement calls for a revision of how and whether these theories can be suitably applied to sports endorsement across a variety of advertising situations. The current study proposes a new independent variable. This explains how products which appear to have a direct enhancing effect on athlete endorser performance can lead to positive consumer attitudes toward advertised products and brands, compared to products which are not seen to enhance sporting performance.

Additionally, current literature appears limited in that it has focused primarily on the attitudes and behaviours of western consumers and how they respond to advertising (Triandis, 1996). Currently, literature has overlooked the perspectives of other cultures in relation to persuasion

through celebrity sports endorsement. The current research aspires to fill this gap by investigating celebrity endorsement through a cross-cultural lens. It aims to test current marketing theory regarding methods of persuasion and the various conditions in which these may apply across different cultures in a celebrity sports endorsement context.

1.3.2 Research objectives

The aim of this study is to introduce a new theoretical framework for effective celebrity endorsement in consumer behaviour. The purpose is to test the effectiveness of celebrity sports endorsement advertising at influencing consumer attitudes in a number of different advertising situations. Exploration of different persuasion responses to celebrity sports endorsement will be assessed across two dissimilar cultures. The current research aims to answer the following questions:

- 1) Under what situations do consumer perceptions of athlete performance enhancement by an endorsed product affect consumer attitudes toward an ad?
- 2) Also, how does persuasion differ across cultures for ads which feature celebrity sports endorsers?

1.4 Justification for the research

1.4.1 Theoretical justification

There are a number of gaps that can be identified from previous literature in the areas of celebrity endorsement, persuasion and culture. Firstly, one can find disharmony among the current research findings as to what makes for successful celebrity sports endorsement. Current theoretical models all suggest a range of different reasons for employing celebrity endorsers in a variety of different situations. However, study results from these models have shown some inconsistency (Erdogan, 1999). Therefore, there is a need to clarify what endorsement strategy should be used to influence consumer attitudes toward advertisements, the brands, products and companies, and under what circumstances this may occur. Secondly, the use of celebrity sports endorsement as a source for advertising messages has been influenced by persuasion theory which states that advertising message sources are more persuasive in situations of low personal interest (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann, 1983; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). The basis of this theory comes from studies focussed on Western consumer behaviour. There is hence a need to move away from one-

dimensional analysis toward a culturally inclusive understanding where persuasion models may be further developed and improved.

Additionally, study results are expected to contribute to the marketing consumer behaviour body of literature in specific areas of celebrity endorsement and persuasion. Findings are expected to add to this knowledge by developing a deeper understanding of how different cultures respond to persuasive appeals of celebrity sports endorsement advertising.

Lastly, this research may form a general basis for marketing to Pacific Island consumers and other traditionally collectivist cultures. No research to date has specifically explored the responses of Pacific Island consumers toward advertising, especially with respect to celebrity sports endorsement advertising. The results from this study are anticipated to generate greater understanding of the attitudes and behaviours of Pacific Island consumers and hopefully encourage more research into this area.

1.4.2 Practical justification

The study results are expected to have practical implications where marketers may gain a more holistic understanding of how best to target their specific market segments. This will give practitioners and managers greater insight as to whether they may require a celebrity athlete endorser for specific promotional campaigns and what the criteria should be for selecting an effective celebrity athlete endorser.

This research will be useful as it will highlight situations in which celebrity sports endorsement may be successful or unsuccessful as a means of persuasive communication. This will serve to determine celebrity sports endorsement as a worthwhile advertising strategy for companies wanting to promote their product or brand. With the enormous amount of money required by celebrity athletes as endorsers, companies need to ensure that their investment is one that will reap desired end results. Understanding how best to use celebrity athletes to endorse certain brands and products is likely to help reduce the risk of companies investing in unprofitable advertising strategies.

Lastly, the study results may have implications for government social initiatives. The results found will not only guide businesses who seek to target Pacific Island consumers, but also governmental agencies looking to promote healthcare, road safety and other social concerns

among Pacific Island peoples within New Zealand. This will have real implications for the growing Pacific Island population in New Zealand.

1.5 Methodology

The foremost goal of this research is to test hypothesized relationships between celebrity sports endorsement advertising and consumer attitudes. For this reason, quantitative research methods will be employed for this study (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The web-based survey tool “Survey Monkey” will be utilized to collect raw data (Survey Monkey, 2012). Because this is a cross-cultural study, participants will represent individualist and collectivist cultures. New Zealand Pakeha participants will represent the construct of individualism and Pacific Island participants will represent collectivism.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) will assist in analysis of the raw data collected. Empirical results will be discussed with reference to theoretical and managerial implications. Further details regarding the study design and methods can be found in Chapter four.

1.6 Outline of the thesis

This thesis is comprised of six chapters. This section explains the structure of the thesis. The chapters include: introduction, literature review I, literature review II, methodology, analysis and discussion.

Chapter 1: Introduction. An overview of celebrity sports endorsement, the reason why the current research is necessary and how the research was undertaken.

Chapter 2: Literature Review I. Firstly, the definition of key issues within the context of celebrity sports endorsement will be discussed. Secondly, a review of key founding explanations of what makes celebrity sports endorsement effective. Thirdly, exploration of underlying persuasion theory which influences responses to celebrity sports endorsement.

Chapter 3: Literature Review II. The constructs of culture in terms of individualism and collectivism will be looked at with a concluding section comparing New Zealand Pakeha and traditional Pacific Island cultures which will provide a context for the research.

Chapter 4: Methodology. This chapter will investigate the methodology used in this study. It will include hypothesis development, discussion of the research methods, questionnaire design, how the sample was chosen and how data was collected. Additionally, ethical considerations will be looked at.

Chapter 5: Analysis. This chapter will provide details of how data was gathered from an online survey questionnaire, how it has been analysed and presents the results of the analysis.

Chapter 6: Discussion. The final chapter presents the conclusion on the research questions and their results. On the basis of the study, implications for marketers and practitioners will be offered.

1.7 Chapter summary

This chapter forms the foundation of this thesis. This chapter has explained why the current study was undertaken, the research problem and research questions from previous literature. Research contributions and objectives have been identified and explained in this chapter, and theoretical and practical justifications have been made. The methodology used to collect and analyse the data has been briefly explained, and an outline of the thesis has been specified. It is from this foundation that a detailed description of the research follows.

Chapter Two: Literature Review I

2.1 Introduction

For a long time social psychologists and marketers have studied the effectiveness and persuasiveness of different marketing communication strategies (Erdogan, 1999). Models of persuasion such as the Heuristic-systematic model by Chaiken (1980) and the Elaboration likelihood model by Petty & Cacioppo (1981) have identified two separate routes to persuasion in marketing communication. One influences attitudes through thoughtful argument scrutiny while the other looks at either positive or negative peripheral cues that a person employs when evaluating an advertisement (Petty & Cacioppo; 1984, Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). One particular cue that has been identified as having an effect on both central and peripheral persuasion routes is the advertising message source (Petty et al., 1981; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). A popular advertising source examined in the literature is the endorser featured in an advertisement (Petty et al., 1983).

The study of celebrity endorsers as effective advertising sources has seen great interest as advertisers and marketers have noticed their impact in penetrating through advertising clutter (Kamins, et al., 1989; Ohanian, 1991; Erdogan, 1999). This outcome has led to positive economic benefits such as increased sales revenue for both marketers and lucrative endorsement earnings for celebrities (Lear et al., 2009). The positive financial benefits experienced from the use of celebrity endorsers has led to growing popularity in celebrity endorsement used in marketing practice around the world (Hung, Chan, & Tse, 2011). Early studies found that one in every six advertisements in the USA featured a celebrity endorser in the late 1970s (Howard, 1979). Lane (1996) indicated the growing use of athletes as powerful product endorsers, estimating that in 1996 companies in the U.S had paid approximately over \$1 billion dollars in celebrity athlete endorsement alone. The evidence shows that while there is a huge financial cost in using celebrities to endorse products, marketers are willing to pay the price to be more effective in their communications. This review is in two parts. The first part will explore relevant celebrity sports endorsement and persuasion literature and the second part will explore cross-culture literature and will provide a context for the development of key research questions for further study in marketing.

2.2 Celebrity Endorsement

Friedman & Friedman (1979) define the celebrity endorser as a person who is familiar to the public for achievements in areas other than the product they endorse. Another definition states that: “the celebrity endorser is defined as any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement” (McCracken, 1989, p. 310). The author makes mention of public recognition of the celebrity and the connection the celebrity has with the product in an advertisement. Celebrity endorsers are therefore individuals who are well known and often well liked by the public. Furthermore, Choi, Lee & Kim (2005), state that celebrities “are cultural symbols who reflect the values and ideas of a particular culture” (Choi et al., 2005, p. 608). This emphasizes the importance of culture, people and the meanings which celebrities represent. These definitions are fairly broad, but make common reference to notions of public recognition as the key criteria for celebrity endorsement. Therefore, celebrity endorsers include a variety of famous individuals such as movie stars, business professionals, politicians, and sports athletes (Choi, Lee, & Kim, 2005). Much of today’s advertising features heavy use of sports stars. These athletes have been given celebrity status due to the huge public recognition they receive from their success in their sporting career. Therefore, celebrity sports endorsement is largely based on celebrity endorsement literature.

Many of the contributing elements of celebrity endorsement has spanned across decades, dating back to as early as the 1950s (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). Scholars have attempted to create models that guide the selection of advertising message sources in the form of celebrity sports endorsers for marketing campaigns. Factors such as; source credibility (Hovland & Weiss, 1951), source attractiveness (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Chaiken, 1979), match between product and endorser (Kamins, 1989), and meaning-transfer (McCracken, 1989) have all been proposed as explanations for effective celebrity endorsers. The following section will touch on the various contributions of past theoretical models in the field of celebrity endorsement and will attempt to provide clarity by proposing a new explanatory variable for effective celebrity sports endorsement under given situations.

2.2.1 Source credibility

Athlete endorsers are known as credible sources as they are able to give convincing support in advertising of sports related products. One of the earliest source models in the literature which has attempted to explain this phenomenon is the source credibility model (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). The source credibility model proposes that product endorsers who are perceived by viewers to be credible are more persuasive compared with endorsers who appear less credible (Hovland & Weiss 1951; Kelman & Hovland, 1953; Petty et al., 1981). Hovland & Weiss (1951) collected the responses of 61 university students after exposing them to identical communication where only the source of the communication differed. Participants were exposed to one of two experimental conditions. Each group varied in relation to the level of source credibility. Sources in the low credibility experimental condition were considered less justified compared with high credibility sources. The source credibility perspective therefore looks at how attitudes can be influenced when advertising messages are communicated by athlete endorsers who are seen as reliable. The source credibility model is made up of perceived levels of trustworthiness, likability and expertise (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Rhine and Severance, 1970; Ohanian, 1991; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994; Erdogan, 1999).

Trustworthiness refers to the degree of confidence a consumer has in the intentions of the endorser to provide information that is accurate and objective (Ohanian, 1991). Kelman (1961) related trustworthiness to perceived levels of similarity between endorser and consumer. Similar research found that ethnic status determined whether endorsers were seen as trustworthy or not. Endorsers who were ethnically similar to viewers were often perceived to be more trustworthy compared with endorsers who were ethnically different (Deshpande & Stayman, 1994). Similarities came from consumers perceiving that ethnicity was an indicator that the endorser held similar attitudes and beliefs that were consistent with viewers. Therefore trustworthiness was related to the perception that the endorser was acting within the best interests of the viewer. Here, consumers are more likely to positively evaluate advertising messages from endorsers who they feel they can trust.

Friedman, H. & Friedman, L. (1979) tested the responses of 360 research participants who evaluated twelve different types of print ads. Three of which featured a celebrity endorser. The findings articulated that trustworthiness determined the credibility of an advertising message source. In addition, likability was identified as having a significant impact on levels of perceived trustworthiness. Likability related to concepts of physical attractiveness, positive

reinforcement, and other desirable attributes. Research suggests that people generally prefer people who are physically attractive over people who are physically unattractive (Sigall & Aronson, 1969). In their study, Sigall & Aronson (1969) identified that participants liked an attractive spokesperson more than an unattractive spokesperson. However, this liking was dependent on whether the spokesperson communicated information that participants received as pleasant. For example, when the spokesperson was attractive and complimented the participant's character the spokesperson was considered very likable. In contrast, when the spokesperson was attractive and expressed negative appraisals about the participant's character they were considered far less likable, even though they were attractive. In support of this, Eagly & Chaiken (1975) associated a likable individual as one who says things that are pleasantly received. Likability therefore, improves source credibility when endorsers are perceived as trustworthy and convey messages which viewers generally agree with.

Expertise is the third component of source credibility and relates to the knowledge the endorser is perceived to have about the product being endorsed (Till & Bussler, 1998). Endorsers who are perceived as more knowledgeable of a product appear more persuasive to target audiences (Maddux & Rogers, 1980). Study results indicated that higher recall for a product was due to information communicated by expert celebrity endorsers compared with lower recall from information provided by non-expert endorsers (Speck, Schumann, & Thompson, 1988). Dyson & Turco (1997) explain that athlete endorsers are able to give convincing support for products that have contributed to their sporting performance and success. For example, Michael Jordan has been hugely successful in selling basketball sneakers for almost three decades. His appeal as a down to earth family man has made him a trustworthy source and his success on the basketball court has positioned him as an expert (Kellner, 1996; Jones & Schumann, 2000; Thomas, 2004). Consistent with these notions, Stone et al., (2003) attributed performance related factors to source credibility such as athletes who were successful in their respective sports and were known for winning.

Persuasion and attitude change from advertising requires internalisation to occur (Kelman, 1961). Internalization is the process where consumers adopt the endorser's message when it is seen to be consistent with their own personal values (Kelman, 1961). This is similar to the notion held by Marshall et al., (2008) which suggested that consumers are persuaded by celebrity endorsers when the image presented matches the ideal self image of the consumer. Endorsers who are credible offer trustworthiness and expertise which increase the likelihood

that consumers will adopt the position held by the endorser. However, when the endorser's advocated position runs contrary to consumer's initial beliefs consumers may resist persuasion. Initial beliefs therefore have a significant effect on persuasion from credible endorsers. Research findings indicated that after people had resisted persuasive communication attempts from a credible source they were able to reflect on this resistance and identify specific attitudes being targeted. In this situation these attitudes became more salient to the consumer and subsequent marketing communication attempts were even less persuasive than initial ones (Tormala & Petty, 2004). Research also suggests that when credible endorsers are perceived by consumers to be trying to influence their attitudes, trustworthiness and likability decreases (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953). Hence, source credibility becomes less persuasive. Persuasion from endorsers who emphasized physical attractiveness was less likely to be effected by consumer's initial attitudes (Mills & Aronson, 1965). Theorists suggest that persuasion is more effective when the celebrity athlete endorser emphasized physical attractiveness rather than credibility (Kahle & Homer, 1985).

This notion may explain the reason why many celebrity sports people endorse products which appear to have no obvious connection with them. It would seem appropriate that athletes should endorse products which they have obvious expert knowledge on. For example, one would expect All Black rugby player Daniel Carter to be persuasive as an endorser promoting rugby gear. Perhaps, New Zealand Olympian cyclist Sarah Ulmer would be most effective at endorsing a certain brand of professional racing bicycles. However, this type of pairing between celebrity endorser and product is not the only type of endorsement strategy used in practice. Daniel Carter is well known for his endorsement deals with products which have no direct relevance to rugby, such as; Jockey underwear, Phillips shavers and Daiken heat pump systems. Theorists advocating other source characteristics have questioned whether credibility is an adequate explanation for effective persuasion by celebrity sports endorsers and that other source characteristics may be more reasonable explanations (McCracken, 1989; Till & Bussler, 1998; Kim & Na, 2007).

2.2.2 Source attractiveness

The source attractiveness model suggests that effective celebrity endorsement is based on the use of attractive celebrities to endorse products (Kahle & Homer, 1985). Attractiveness refers to the extent to which observers consider a product endorser to have pleasant physical features, such as a pleasant face (Patzner, 1983). However this is not limited to only pleasant

physical attributes, but can be related to other attributes which consumers may find desirable in an endorser such as intellectual skills or sporting ability (Erdogan, 1999). Baker & Churchill (1977) suggest that consumers hold positive stereotypes about attractive people. Physically attractive people can be assumed to hold more social power, possess more favourable personal characteristics, have the ability to influence others and are more persuasive (Mills & Aronson, 1965; Sigall & Aronson, 1969; Joseph, 1982). Thus, attractive endorsers are more effective at influencing attitudes than endorsers who are considered unattractive.

Source attractiveness has been used to explain the use of endorsers who do not appear as experts with the products they endorse (Solomon, Ashmore & Longo, 1992; Kim & Na, 2007). Anna Kournikova, a professional tennis player for example, has not only been used to endorse products related to tennis but also other products which have little to do with the sport. Some of her past endorsement deals include; watches, cell phones and investments (Wertheim, 2008). Aside from never winning a major tennis championship Kournikova has had huge success from product endorsement deals. Reports claim that she had made \$50 million in off-court earnings before she turned 18 years old. Many of the products she has endorsed have had little connection with tennis but have had more to do with her physical attractiveness (Wertheim, 2008). A number of studies support the persuasiveness of physical attractiveness in advertising. Petty & Cacioppo (1983) found that an endorser's hair had significant effects on consumer attitudes toward the endorsed product. Kamins (1990) suggested that marketers use attractive celebrities to market attractive products. Furthermore, attractive endorsers are said to be able to give convincing testimony of the effectiveness of attractive products to enhance one's physical attractiveness, therefore, making the advertisement highly compelling (Patzer, 1983).

As mentioned previously ideas surrounding the concept of source attractiveness assume that advertising sources that are attractive have higher levels of likability on average compared with sources which are perceived as unattractive (Joseph, 1982). People are more inclined to act in a certain way or hold certain attitudes at the request of an endorser who they like (Mills & Aronson, 1965). Nevertheless, some authors have questioned the source attractiveness model. The effectiveness of source attractiveness has been said to depend on product type. Authors such as Caballero, Lumpkin, & Madden (1989) found that physically attractive models did not affect consumer's choices for grocery type products at all. Furthermore,

research has found the negative impact attractive spokespeople have on consumers in some situations. For example, research by Baker & Churchill (1977) indicated that unattractive female models endorsing coffee were more favourable than attractive female models when evaluated by men. In a similar study, Caballero & Solomon (1984) found that attractive endorsers of tissues decreased sales when compared with unattractive endorsers. Here, an interaction effect was found between product type and endorser. This questions the ability of source attractiveness to positively influence consumer attitudes for advertising situations of different products. This has prompted further research which has proposed the concept of match between product and endorser.

2.2.3 Product match-up

The matchup hypothesis suggests that effective athlete endorsement is determined by a corresponding relationship between product and endorser (Kahle & Homer, 1985). McCracken (1989) argues that research surrounding the source credibility and attractiveness models place all the emphasis on the celebrity endorser and ignore product related factors. Product match-up focuses on how well the celebrity endorser and the product relate together in advertising (Till & Bussler, 1998). Theory suggests that advertisements with a celebrity spokesperson who has a high level of match with the endorsed product leads to greater believability of the advertiser and the celebrity compared with advertisements with less celebrity endorser-product congruence (Kamins, 1990). The concept of believability has become important due to the multiple endorsement deals which many celebrity athletes have. Consumers have become savvier with regard to advertising and often are sceptical when celebrity athletes endorse certain products. This particularly occurs when the product does not appear to have an obvious link with the endorser. Consumers are more likely to perceive that the endorser is simply endorsing the product due to financial reward (Tripp et al., 1994). The endorser is therefore less trustworthy and the traits which they possess are less desirable to the viewer. This makes them less credible and less attractive. Match between product and endorser therefore has been offered as an effective strategy to avoid scepticism of consumers towards advertising.

A study by Till & Busler (2000) revealed that celebrity endorsement was effective in situations where the endorsed product related to the celebrity endorser's expertise. Two studies were conducted which compared the effect of different types of celebrity endorsers paired with different types of products. The first study paired attractive sources with products

which were considered to enhance attractiveness. Positive evaluations were found relating to attractive celebrity endorsers however, no product type by endorser interaction was observed. The authors argued that the link between the attractive celebrity endorser and the products enhancing effect on attractiveness may not have been obvious to viewers. The second study related to interactions of source expertise and product fit. Study results revealed that the characteristics of the celebrity endorser interacted with the nature of the product. Participants held greater positive evaluations of advertisements which featured a well known athlete endorser paired with an energy bar compared with a well known actor and an energy bar. These studies are consistent with previous theories by Friedman & Friedman (1979) who found that attitudes toward the endorser, endorsed product and brand were determined by the level of perceived fit between product and endorser. However, where recall objectives were desired by advertisers, product match-up theory did not apply.

Recent qualitative research by Charbonneau & Garland (2005) interviewed nine New Zealand marketing practitioners and discussed their opinions on why they used celebrity endorsers, how endorsers were effective and what factors related to successful celebrity endorsement. Their findings included common themes which suggested that product match-up was more important in New Zealand compared with source credibility or source attractiveness. Similarly, Kim & Na (2007) confirmed the importance of congruence between celebrity endorser and product. Their findings mirrored those of Charbonneau & Garland (2005) where they identified that sport shoes had a better fit with celebrity athlete endorsers compared with perfume. More favourable attitudes were found where a sports product was linked to an athlete endorser. The authors also noticed that source attractiveness proved to be more important than source credibility when the fit between the celebrity and the endorsed product did not match (Kim & Na, 2007). These results confirm the persuasiveness of perceived fit between product and celebrity endorser. While, traditional views suggest that source credibility and source attractiveness may be strong influencers of attitude change, these factors may not be so influential when consumers perceive inconsistency between product and celebrity sports endorser.

Although the product match-up research seems to explain the effectiveness of celebrity sports endorsement in advertising it does so amongst criticism from a number of authors (DeSarbo & Harshman 1985; McCracken, 1989; Erdogan, 1999; Choi et al., 2005). For example, DeSarbo & Harshman (1985) argue that the match-up theory ignores the multidimensionality

of source effects. They note that overtone meaning between celebrities and endorsed products are not addressed. Erdogan (1999) advises that the match-up theory needs to extend beyond attractiveness and credibility approaches to a more holistic view of the celebrity image, one which encompasses the cultural meanings that are transferred onto the endorsed product and the brand. This is consistent with the criticism put forward by McCracken (1989) who promotes the meaning transfer model.

2.2.4 Meaning transfer

The meaning transfer model describes the process of meaning transfer from celebrities, to products, then to the consumer (McCracken, 1989). Celebrity endorsers are charged with cultural meaning and this is used by the marketer to enhance the meaning of the endorsed product which is then communicated to the consumer (McCracken, 1986, 1989; O'Mahony & Meenaghan, 1998). McCracken (1986) explains that anonymous models can only provide basic demographic information such as age, gender and ethnicity. The use of celebrities in advertising allows for a unique configuration of meanings to be transferred to the product and then to the consumer (McCracken, 1989; Domzal & Kernen, 1992; McDonald, 1996). Choi, et al. (2005), states that celebrities are symbols who reflect the values and ideas that belong to a particular culture. The celebrity endorser therefore represents a collection of various symbols and meanings which come from the culturally constituted world (McCracken, 1989). For example, the meanings associated with celebrity actors come from the roles they play in movies (Halonen-Knight & Hurmerinta, 2010). This meaning is then transferred by the celebrity endorser to the product through direct pairing of the two in advertising (McCracken, 1989).

Consumers take on the meanings which have been transferred to the product through consumption and use these meanings to help form their self-image. Four types of rituals are described to help consumers gain meaning from products. These are exchange, possession, grooming and divestment rituals (McCracken, 1986). These allow the consumer to maintain and assign meaning from the endorsed product to themselves and in some cases confer meanings from their self-image to the product. Here, the product may take on new meanings from a combination of symbols which have been transferred by the endorser and the consumer. Levy (1959) says that people aim to act according to behaviour that is consistent with their actual self-image or with their ideal self-image. Furthermore, consumers regularly

find meanings in their possessions and shape different aspects of self through consumption (Belk, 1988).

Langmeyer & Walker (1991) conducted qualitative research from a sample of undergraduate university students. They asked open ended questions about three hypothetical pairings of celebrity endorsers and products. For instance, famous singer Cher was paired with Scandinavian Health Spas and open ended questions included; “Please describe the meaning each celebrity has for you when he/she advertises the indicated product” (Langmeyer & Walker, 1991, p. 365). Among the many responses given participants referred to Cher’s attractive body, Cher’s healthiness and fitness and the ability to maintain a youthful physique from Scandinavian Health Spas. Only a small percentage of respondents found it ironic that Cher was endorsing health spas when her youthful looks were the result of plastic surgery. However, the research findings confirmed that celebrities transferred multiple symbolic meanings to products they endorsed.

Furthermore, research by McDonald (1996) explored the collection of cultural symbols found in NBA basketball legend Michael Jordan. McDonald describes Michael as representing black masculinity, superior athleticism, family orientated values and freedom and hope for African Americans. These symbols allowed Jordan to distance himself from previous negative notions of black professional athletes and redefine social categories. The meanings that he represented were positive cultural symbols which were valued by society and provided mass appeal for Jordan as a successful athlete endorser. His huge likability and the collection of positive social meanings he transferred to his endorsed products meant persuasive appeal at the highest level. Products therefore take on new meanings after being endorsed by celebrities where they had previously been defined by their product category image alone.

Celebrity sports endorsers can therefore be viewed as agents of meaning which symbolize and carry certain associations from society to consumers through advertising. Marketers and advertisers can influence what meanings are transferred to their product and their target consumers through selection of celebrity endorsers. Marketers have been advised to carefully consider the multiple symbolic meanings celebrity endorsers bring to the endorsement process (Till & Shimp, 1998). The meaning transfer model has become a helpful guide in selecting appropriate celebrity sports endorsers which will not only match advertised products but will also deliver desired meanings to the consumer. Nevertheless, the concept of multiple

meanings which celebrity athlete endorsers provide does have some problems. The meanings which celebrities often project can be highly subjective. Consumers of different backgrounds may associate different meanings with the celebrity athlete endorser. Here, emphasizing certain symbols of the endorser may not be effective to all consumers. Secondly, multiple meanings of the celebrity endorser when made salient may impact the appeal of different product endorsement by the same endorser. Emphasizing certain characteristics may have the danger of dominating an endorser's overall image. For example, repetition of Daniel Carter as a warm likable person may erode his image as a fierce competitor on the field. His effectiveness as an endorser for products targeting younger audiences may become ineffective as a result. Secondly, as suggested by McDonald (1996) cultural meanings which endorsers represent may change over time and therefore the appeal of celebrity endorsers may become unpredictable.

2.3 Limitations of source models

From thorough exploration of source characteristics and celebrity endorsement models, one may suggest that certain endorsement strategies and their success or failure remain mysteriously unexplainable. Further research is still needed to cover the existing inconsistencies in the literature. A model that incorporates current source models is in need.

Under the source credibility model one can find that expertise especially in a sporting context influences consumer attitudes (Till & Busler 1998; Stone et al., 2003). However, it could also be argued that credibility is dependent on the match between the celebrity athlete endorser and the advertised product. A large amount of celebrity endorsement research advocates congruence between celebrity athlete endorsers and endorsed products as an important factor (McCracken, 1989; Kamins & Gupta, 1994). Previous studies found that ads which featured athlete endorsers promoting sports products were more favourable compared with other non-sports related products (Kim & Na, 2007). While source expertise and match-up theories may be surface explanations, further development of these source models could introduce perceived performance enhancement as a significant contributing source factor. Precise application of source characteristics with specific celebrity sports endorsement strategies would be more predictive of behaviour.

Similar to using attractive models to effectively endorse attractive products, ads featuring products which can be assumed to enhance the sporting performance of an athlete endorser may be equally if not more effective at impacting consumer attitudes for positive evaluation

of advertised products (Kamins, 1989). For example, an ad which features golf clubs endorsed by Tiger Woods or rugby boots endorsed by All Black Daniel Carter are likely to evoke more positive attitudes compared to ads which feature the same athletes endorsing luxury watches. This is because the product can be perceived as enhancing the endorsers sporting performance which they are known for.

Definitions of celebrity endorsement confirm that celebrity endorsers are used due to their public recognition in areas other than product endorsement (Friedman & Friedman, 1979). This means that celebrity endorsers are first known for their success in their respective field of expertise (McDonald, 1996). Products which are seen to enhance their performance therefore enhance the celebrity's success and make attractive attributes which consumers wish to possess more salient. Consumers are therefore more receptive to the advertising source and are likely to experience greater positive evaluations towards the product, advertisement and brand. In Till & Busler's (1998) concluding remarks, they express that expertise as a dimension of match-up is more important compared to source attractiveness in product-matchup. It was suggested that consumers are likely to favour advertisements where basketball legend Michael Jordan is seen endorsing Nike or Gatorade compared with WorldCom. Their explanations were related to the idea that Michael would be more of an expert on basketball shoes and Gatorade rather than telecommunications. Endorsing Nike and Gatorade not only exhibits certain amounts of expertise but taken a step further, these products can be seen to enhance Michael Jordan's success in basketball. With slogans like "Just Do It", "Air Jordan's by Nike", "Nike Air" and "Thirst Quencher" and "Be like Mike", athletic performance enhancement is strongly emphasized in these advertisements (Dyson, 1993, p. 71; Kellner, 1996; McDonald, 1996, p. 350; Lipman & Hinge, 1990).

Consumers are therefore likely to perceive that their consumption of the product will have similar enhancing effects for them too. Here, the meaning of the product and endorsement relationship passes through to the consumer, thus, incorporating elements of the meaning - transfer model (McCracken, 1989). Perceived performance enhancement can be introduced as an independent variable which can be manipulated to predict attitudes towards athlete endorsed advertisements, advertised products and brands. Ads that feature products which are assumed to enhance an athlete endorser's sporting performance are likely to produce greater positive consumer attitudes compared with ads where products are not perceived to enhance the athlete endorser's sporting performance.

2.4 Persuasion

Current theories of persuasion find their origins from the early works of psychology researchers who have explored attitude and attitude change (Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955; Kelman, 1958; Triandis, 1971). Attitude has been described as people's general evaluations in which they hold with regard to objects, issues, themselves and others (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). A simple definition refers to how positively or negatively one views an object under consideration (Petty & Wegener, 1998). The concept of attitude change and the situations this may occur has been explored over the years (Kelman, 1958; Anderson, 1971; Holbrook, 1978; Petty, Wegener & Fabrigar, 1997; Wood, 2000). Petty & Wegener (1998) describe attitude change as one's evaluation being altered from one value to another. The concept of attitude change is important due to its effects on behaviour (Pinson & Roberto, 1973; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). This effect on behaviour is central to persuasion theory where academics and practitioners aim to predict and change the attitudes and behaviours of consumers through persuasive communications. Two types of persuasion models have been widely recognized in persuasion literature. The following section will look at these models and will assess their relative contributions to persuasion theory (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Chaiken, 1980).

2.4.1 Heuristic systematic model

Two theoretical models stand out from the mass of literature on persuasion (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Neuwirth, Frederick & Mayo, 2002). These are the Elaboration likelihood model and the Heuristic-systematic model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Chaiken, 1980). The dominant theme in both of these comparable models is the level of thought that an individual engages in when they evaluate advertisements (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Dillard & Pfau, 2002). Two separate modes of evaluation are therefore operational here (Escalas & Luce, 2004). The first model that will briefly be touched on in this chapter is the Heuristic-systematic model (HSM) proposed by Chaiken (1980). This model suggests two distinct avenues of processing that individuals employ when forming evaluations of persuasive advertising communications. Systematic processing requires individuals to process an advertisement based on careful evaluations of advertising message arguments. Higher levels of cognitive processing are employed where consumers organize and understand relevant information in their evaluation (Griffin et al., 2002). Processing in this way allows consumers to differentiate between important message content variables and unimportant information variables (Dillard & Pfau 2002).

In contrast, heuristic processing does not differentiate between the relevance of such content and informational cues. Heuristic processing involves lower levels of mental effort by individuals when forming evaluations. Studies have shown that individuals are generally averse to using more cognitive resources than that which a task requires of them (Payne, 1982). By default consumers invest in extensive cognitive activity only when they are motivated and have available cognitive resources (Chaiken, 1980; Garbarino & Edell, 1997). Heuristic cues come from knowledge structures which already exist in an individual's memory. In order for individuals to process information heuristically they need to be able to access existing relevant knowledge of the issue in memory and apply this where appropriate (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). In most instances simple decision rules can be applied during assessment of advertisements (Chaiken, 1980). For example, high consensus information generally has a more positive impact on consumer evaluations, as does an expert advertising source (Chaiken & Eagly, 1983).

The principle of sufficiency found in the HSM uses these processing modes to bridge gaps between actual and desired levels of confidence in information evaluation. Eagly & Chaiken (1993) describe that people will use only enough effort as required to meet certain levels of confidence that they have made accurate judgements. The model's main assumption is that consumers seek to hold accurate attitudes about certain objects, issues or other people (Neuwirth et al., 2002). However, other motivations may also serve individuals in their evaluation of information. Apart from accuracy motivation consumers may wish to defend or form a particular attitudinal position or may seek to hold an attitudinal position that is socially acceptable. These motivations serve to determine the amount of each type of processing used in evaluation of information (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

The belief that motivation determines the amount of processing for persuasion plays a significant role in both of the dual process models. The main difference between the two models is that the HSM argues that both types of processing can occur simultaneously in certain situations. The elaboration likelihood model contends that different types of processing take place at different times and often occur in the absence of the other (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). In addition, the two models also vary as peripheral cues differ to heuristics (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Peripheral cues found in the elaboration likelihood model include any other factor that has a persuasive influence when argument scrutiny is absent (Chaiken & Eagly, 1983; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). The ELM therefore includes

a wider range of persuasive variables and is designed to be applied more generally across more situations than the HSM which was introduced as a more specific theoretical model (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). As a consequence the ELM has seen more research and has been viewed as the more common theoretical model of the two (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

2.4.2 Elaboration likelihood model

Similar to the HSM, the ELM asserts that consumers follow two separate directions of persuasion. These are namely the central and peripheral routes. The central route influences consumer attitudes through careful evaluation of arguments in an advertising message and the peripheral route includes any other positive or negative factors that lead to attitude change. These peripheral cues may be related or unrelated to the advertising message but do not include the advertising message arguments (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Mongeau & Stiff, 1991). Some examples include; source credibility, source attractiveness, consensus information and number of arguments (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

The ELM states that variables can influence persuasion in three distinct ways. Firstly, certain pieces of information can be used as persuasive arguments that can advocate a certain position held in an advertising message. Secondly, variables such as the source of the advertising message or consensus information about a product can act as peripheral cues that can persuade viewers. Thirdly and last of all, variables can impact the direction and extent of argument elaboration for individuals when evaluating an advertisement (these effects will be addressed later in this chapter) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). A number of studies in the literature have looked at central and peripheral route persuasion and how they occur given certain conditions (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Mongeau & Stiff, 1991; Kruglanski & Thompson, 1999; Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). The authors of the ELM suggest that central route processing is more dominant and persuasion through this process takes primacy over peripheral processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1986; Petty et al., 1983). Consumers follow the central route first, then peripheral cues when they cannot understand the advertising message or are uninterested (Petty, Cacioppo & Goldman, 1981; Petty et al., 1983). Here, varying levels of consumer personal relevance can influence the way consumers process certain types of advertising.

2.4.2.1 Involvement

A fundamental postulation of the ELM is that individuals aim to hold correct attitudes (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). However, this objective is determined by another key concept within the ELM termed, involvement (Petty & Cacioppo, 1990; Andrews & Shimp, 1990). Involvement can be defined as the extent to which an individual feels personal relevance for an object or issue (Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984). Consumers are only willing to hold correct attitudes regarding an issue or object when high levels of personal relevance are experienced (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979). This involvement then determines how much cognitive effort one exerts when evaluating an issue. The literature surrounding involvement has seen theorists exploring different types of involvement (Leavitt, Greenwald & Obermiller, 1981; Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984; Johnson & Eagly, 1989).

A study by Petty et al., (1981) looked at involvement which addressed personal relevance relating to how an issue under consideration affects an individual's personal outcomes and expectations. They manipulated involvement by suggesting to a sample of student participants that their attainment of their college degree would be affected by the introduction of final exams. This idea was proposed to current students at a university who were then separated into two experimental conditions. Each group varied in terms of their level of involvement as manipulated by the researchers. For high involvement participants final exams were said to be introduced the very next year and for low involvement students the final exams would supposedly be introduced in ten years time. Personal relevance here was determined by how the introduction of final exams would affect the current student's goal of receiving their college degree. For those who were in the low involvement condition they would not be affected by the introduction of final exams. However, those students in the high involvement group were more likely to be affected by the introduction of end of year comprehensive examinations. The research findings indicated that students who were supposedly affected by the change paid closer attention and used greater cognitive resources to evaluate the details regarding the introduction of exams. This type of involvement manipulation has been used throughout the research of Petty and Cacioppo and has dominated a large proportion of the work supporting the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979, 1981, 1984, 1990; Petty et al., 1981).

Johnson & Eagly (1989) in their review of the literature labelled this type of involvement: outcome related involvement, as it boosted the relevance of an issue regarding ones existing expectations towards their goals and outcomes. In addition, they also identified a number of

other types of involvement, including; value relevant involvement, which looks at involvement relating to a person's enduring values and beliefs and impression involvement: which relates to an individual's concern for his or her actions as perceived by others. The latter type of involvement was taken from earlier persuasion studies by Phillip Zimbardo. Zimbardo (1960) manipulated involvement by having participants discuss their chosen option during an experiment with an interviewer after they had been exposed to advertising stimuli. This tested whether individual involvement levels were not only influenced by personal values but also associated with aims to hold opinions acceptable to others. While Johnson & Eagly (1989) provided new terms for the varying types of involvement, Petty & Cacioppo (1990) note that their observed differences were not necessary. Personal importance was the main issue regardless of Johnson and Eagly's reclassification of terms. Their findings like many other studies supported the use of outcome relevant involvement featured in the ELM (Andrews & Shimp, 1990; Mongeau & Stiff, 1991; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Kirby et al., 1998).

The concept of involvement has been one of only a few concepts in the literature which have found wide agreement among theorists (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). Its use in marketing has seen different definitions and measures due to its application to different objects such as advertisements, products and purchase decisions (Zaichowsky, 1985). Laurent & Kapferer, (1985) argued that the concept of involvement has been over simplified and that researchers should measure specific involvement profiles rather than levels of involvement.

Overall, involvement determines how much cognitive effort an individual puts forth when evaluating an object which in turn determines which persuasion route individuals are likely to follow (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Similar to the HSM the ELM emphasizes that involvement produces greater motivation for individuals to utilize further cognitive resources when evaluating advertising. The ELM states that when involvement is high individuals process information via the central route. At this point attitude change occurs as a result of examination of advertising arguments. Conversely, when involvement is low people tend to have less interest in holding correct attitudes (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Here, they are less motivated to use their limited cognitive resources to process information via the central route but rather form evaluations based on simple decision rules (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Han & Shavitt, 1994). Involvement therefore helps determine how individuals will process the information in an advertisement and whether attitude change will occur via the central or peripheral route. This direction however does not guarantee favourable attitude

change towards an advertisement, spokesperson, product, or brand (Sher & Lee, 2009). Increasing involvement merely increases one's ability and motivation to employ cognitive resources to process issue relevant information in advertising.

2.4.2.2 Central route

In situations where personal relevance is high, people are more likely to engage in issue relevant thinking (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). When individuals engage in thinking about advertising arguments they take the central route to persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1984, 1986; Sher & Lee, 2009). The central route relates to message content, words and written material used in the message of an advertisement (Morris, Woo & Singh, 2005). This type of processing takes place when two conditions are met. Firstly, individuals must have the ability to process issue relevant information such as advertising message arguments. Secondly, and in addition, individuals also need to be motivated to carefully process the arguments presented in an advertisement. This is what Petty and Cacioppo term elaboration likelihood (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). When elaboration likelihood is high these two components coexist and a person follows the central route to persuasion. If one or both of these components is low or absent then elaboration is said to be low and as a consequence consumers take an alternative persuasion route (Cialdini, Petty & Cacioppo 1981; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). (This will be explored later in this chapter).

When the central route is followed, consumers are more intellectually engaged in the persuasion issue and the quality of advertising arguments becomes more significant. Petty & Cacioppo (1981) identified that under conditions of high elaboration, advertising which featured strong compelling arguments contributed to more favourable evaluations. Where elaboration was high and the quality of advertising arguments was weak, evaluations were less favourable.

Early theory regarding attitude change by Sherif, Sherif & Nebergall (1965) claimed that increasing involvement also increased resistance to persuasion. This was because the likelihood of rejection would increase where counter arguments may be used when evaluating advertising message arguments. Here, advertising arguments would be viewed more negatively and attitude change would be less likely to occur from persuasion attempts. This notion had gained support by a number of authors (Eagly & Manis, 1966; Greenwald, 1980). Petty & Cacioppo (1981) however contend that increasing elaboration and involvement can

either enhance or reduce persuasion depending on the quality of advertising message arguments. Because central route processing produces careful scrutiny of advertising message arguments, only strong compelling arguments will be persuasive. This effect is described to come from the reduced likelihood that counter arguments can defend against advertising arguments that are compelling (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Cook, Moore & Steele, 2004). Hence, persuasion is more likely to occur in high involvement situations where advertising features compelling message arguments which can be carefully scrutinized and validated.

2.4.2.3 Peripheral route

When motivation and ability to process advertising message arguments are low or absent individuals follow the peripheral route to persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1984, 1986; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). At this point consumers rely on positive or negative cues to help them evaluate persuasive communications. These are cues that may not necessarily be directly related to the arguments present in the communication and can include the source of the advertising message, number of arguments and consensus information about what is being advertised (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Research by Petty & Cacioppo (1986) and Chaiken (1987) found that when individuals experienced high levels of elaboration likelihood only argument quality was persuasive compared with source factors like source expertise and communicator likability. It was in situations of low involvement and low elaboration likelihood that these peripheral cues persuaded individuals.

In a study conducted by Petty et al. (1983) the survey responses of 160 male and female university students were collected regarding advertising material. Students were assigned to groups which were exposed to advertising that either featured a prominent celebrity sports person or an average citizen endorser. Students were also assigned to groups which varied among argument quality and either high or low involvement. The research findings confirmed that manipulation of the quality of advertising message arguments impacted the attitudes of students who were assigned to the high involvement condition. It was also found that in low elaboration likelihood conditions, source characteristics such as famous athlete endorsers led to more favourable attitudes regardless of the strength of arguments presented. This suggests that in low involvement circumstances consumers assign less cognitive resources to an advertising situation and base evaluation on positive peripheral cues which enhance persuasion regardless of advertising message quality.

2.4.2.4 Multiple roles

While some studies have shown that variables such as advertising source impact attitudes via the peripheral route, the ELM expresses that some variables actually may have multiple roles (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). As has already been mentioned in high elaboration circumstances advertising cues can act as enhancers of cognitive processing where they can affect the strength and the direction of issue relevant thinking. They can also act as simple acceptance or rejection cues in situations of low elaboration (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984; Chaiken & Eagly, 1993).

Petty & Cacioppo (1984) suggested that manipulations of argument quantity can affect attitudes through both central and peripheral routes under certain elaboration likelihood and involvement conditions. The total number of arguments may act as a peripheral cue, in that a greater number would be seen as more persuasive compared to an advertisement which has relatively few arguments. A simple rule of thumb suggesting that more arguments are better would suffice as a guide for evaluation. In situations of high involvement a greater number of arguments would augment issue relevant processing. Thus, it has been suggested that the number of arguments acts as both a central and peripheral cue.

The attractiveness of a source (a peripheral cue) may also elicit central route processing in situations of high involvement (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). It was assumed that attractiveness acts as testimony to a grooming product's effectiveness and thus becomes a cue for central route processing (Kamins, 1990). These multiple roles suggested by these theorists however are limited in that persuasion routes are still determined by the degree of involvement and elaboration. Peripheral cues are said to only enhance central processing when involvement and elaboration is high (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 1984, 1986). The ELM does not articulate at all whether peripheral cues can dominate persuasion in the absence of argument scrutiny and take primacy in instances of high involvement and elaboration likelihood.

2.5 Limitations of dual-processing & gap

While some authors agree on the specific roles of central and peripheral route processing, others have questioned this. Morris et al. (2005) have identified some limitations, arguing that the central route deals only with cognitions of an individual and is limited in that it keeps any affective elements totally separate. They found that peripheral processing was closely linked

to positive emotions while central route processing often resulted from negative emotions. They argued that cognitive responses cannot exist without an emotional component.

This notion supports theory by Chaiken (1980) who proposed that both processing modes may occur simultaneously, something that the ELM has not focussed on. Additionally, Edens & McCormick (2000) discovered in their study that adolescents recognized that an advertisement “made sense” without being able to identify what the ad was trying to claim. From a sample of 185 high school students’ survey responses after exposure to print advertisements were collected. The average age of research participants was around 15 years. Participants were exposed to six different print advertisements. They then proceeded to answer questions regarding; specific facts, emotional responses, number of inferences and most importantly explicit claims which featured in the ads. The study findings indicated that peripheral cues impacted cognitive and emotional responses for participants. The authors found that emotional information became the central message, where peripheral cues in the form of visual imagery were more seductive than product information in the ad (Edens & McCormick, 2000, p. 460). These studies highlight potential issues regarding the roles of both central and peripheral routes. In both of these studies conditions which are typical of certain processing routes have produced information processing that contradicts the ELM. This weakens the predictive power of the ELM across advertising situations and has questioned the dominance of central route processing.

With emerging questions regarding the applicability of central and peripheral cues in different persuasion situations, one may speculate as to what other factors may be important in determining persuasion. Recent studies have looked at persuasion across different cultures (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001; Biswas et al., 2009; Zhang, 2010). Central to these studies is the idea that just as the concept of involvement determines the potential importance of an issue or object for an individual, the concept of culture may have a similar impact (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). Cultural orientations are likely to determine what advertising cues or appeals are more effective for persuasion (Biswas et al., 2009; Zhang, 2010). This means that consumers of different cultural backgrounds may respond differently to persuasive advertising communications.

The concept of individualism and collectivism has been employed to compare cultures that differ in terms independence and group membership. Individualists have been known to value

independence rather than group membership compared with collectivists who value group membership over independence (Triandis et al., 1988). Han & Shavitt (1994) found that collectivist appeals used in advertising were more effective at persuading Korean viewers compared with American viewers and conversely individualist appeals were more effective at persuading American viewers compared with Koreans. It was noted that the source of the advertising message was an important variable where persuasiveness was enhanced or reduced depending on cultural background. Cultures that valued group membership and typically showed high social stratification were more influenced by the advertising message source. (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). A study by Ritchie & Phares (1969) showed that differences in locus of control influenced how individuals were persuaded. Those who possessed higher levels of internal locus of control were more persuaded by the advertising message arguments advocating the advertised product. This was compared with individuals who possessed lower levels of internal locus of control who were persuaded by the status of the source of the advertising message. Most of the research looking at celebrity sports endorsement and persuasion has been set in Western cultures where the majority of people display high levels of internal locus of control, high individualism and low power distance (Hofstede, 1984; Triandis et al., 1988; Shavitt, Johnson, & Zhang, 2011). Differences in persuasion may come from differences in culture due to the unique values that different cultures regard as important. In some cultures peripheral cues such as the message source may be deemed highly important when evaluating the merits of an advertisement.

In a study by Aaker & Maheswaran (1997), 136 Chinese collectivist participants were exposed to advertisements of a new camcorder. Subjects were assigned to either high or low involvement condition groups and received both positive/negative consensus information and positive/negative attribute information regarding the camcorder. Their findings did not differ significantly compared to previous research on individualist advertising persuasion responses. Yet, they did find that consensus information directed collectivist subject's evaluations under high involvement, elaboration likelihood conditions. Previous research had only acknowledged high quality advertising argument statements to impact evaluations under high involvement conditions. The authors suggest that members of some cultures prefer to process information through alternative routes to central route processing. This study showed that Chinese participants preferred to use peripheral cues (consensus information) to form evaluations even in high involvement situations.

In another study, researchers found that in situations of high elaboration likelihood, collectivist Thai participants were more persuaded by the advertising message source compared with individualist Canadian participants. Here, members of collectivist cultures followed peripheral cues even in high involvement, high elaboration likelihood situations (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). Therefore, in some instances advertising message source becomes the central route where consideration of the message source has a greater effect on consumer attitudes even in high involvement situations. As a result argument scrutiny becomes secondary and thus a peripheral cue for persuasion.

Taking a look at the amount of research in persuasion and marketing one can only gain knowledge of largely individualistic cultures. Only recently has there been an increase in consumer behaviour that looks specifically at the attitudes of collectivist minorities (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001; Shulruf et al., 2011). Research by Trafimow, Triandis & Goto (1991), found that cultural cognition significantly affected the type of cognition used. Cousins (1989) has argued that collectivist cultures tend to form attitudes based on traits and contextual factors compared with individualist cultures who form attitudes based on dispositional traits alone. Clearly differences in thinking between cultures impact responses to consumer advertising.

One study that highlights the differences in thinking of two dissimilar cultures is that of Aaker & Maheswaran (1997). While they confirmed prior notions that the peripheral cue consensus information influenced attitudes under low involvement, they also discovered that consensus information was highly important and more dominant in high elaboration situations (Petty & Cacioppo, 1987; Axsom, Yates & Chaiken, 1987). It was also noted that when collectivists were met with heuristic and systematic processing conflict, they tended to select heuristic cues. This goes against notions of simultaneous processing in the HSM but supports research by Han & Shavitt (1994). They asserted that in situations of high involvement, collectivist cultures tended to evaluate stimuli in terms of criteria which they considered highly important. In this case collectivists relied on their cultural values to guide decision making. Collectivist individuals therefore may use peripheral cues instead of argument scrutiny to base their judgements during high involvement, high elaboration situations. In situations of low involvement, cultural values may play less of a role. Relevant cultural aspects, therefore, must be taken into account when applying the ELM or HSM in given advertising situations. These models therefore need to be developed further into less culturally bound predictors of

behaviour. Only then will a framework that understands the attitudes and behaviours across cultures be applied to provide accurate explanations for persuasion.

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature regarding celebrity endorsement and persuasion. Key influencers of celebrity endorsement were the source characteristic models which emphasized credibility, attractiveness, match between product and endorser and meaning transfer. However, the literature surrounding these notions shows inconclusive evidence to support clear understanding for successful celebrity endorsement strategy. Taken together the independent variable perceived performance enhancement may be introduced as a specific predictor of persuasion for celebrity sports endorsement strategy.

The second portion of this chapter looked at the concept of persuasion in more detail, starting off with a review of the Heuristic-systematic model by Eagly & Chaiken (1986) and then the Elaboration likelihood model by Petty & Cacioppo (1984). These two models emphasized two routes to persuasion. Central and peripheral processing was explored where a number of factors questioned the ability of the models to predict attitudes. Suggestions toward research in the area of cross-cultural persuasion were expressed where persuasion models could be further extended.

Chapter Three: Literature Review II

3.1 Introduction

While plenty of persuasion and attitude change research has been carried out over the decades, this has vastly come from Western perspectives. Many studies have been based on responses from samples of Western participants (Triandis, 1996). These responses have been primarily derived from cultures that are individualistic in nature (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997). Only recently has there emerged research that looks at the behaviour of people from other contrasting cultures (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001; Shulruf et al., 2011). Due to the increase in widespread marketing strategies which target consumers of all countries around the world it seems appropriate that non-Western cultures and their responses to marketing communications be explored. The following section explores cultural dimensions of individualism and collectivism and provides a context for research which addresses Western Pakeha New Zealand and traditional Pacific Island cultures.

3.2 Dimensions of culture

The work of Hofstede (1983) identified several cultural dimensions that separate cultures all over the globe. Hofstede's (1983) four dimensions of culture is one of the founding studies in cross-cultural research. These dimensions were based on a study where the responses of managers from various organizations of different countries were explored. The cultural dimensions describe key differences and similarities of all cultures across the world (Hofstede, 1983). These dimensions have proven relevant not only in business management when analysing employee values but also have become applicable to tourism and marketing (Manrai & Manrai, 2011). The four cultural dimensions include firstly; masculinity and femininity, the extent to which cultures emphasize consumption and competition (masculine goals) or maintaining relationships and quality of life (feminine goals). Secondly, power distance, which is the extent to which power is equally distributed in society. Thirdly, uncertainty avoidance is the amount of structure cultures prefer in order to cope with risk and uncertainty. Lastly, individualism and collectivism relates to the degree to which individuals base their behaviour on self or group interests (Hofstede & Kranenburg, 1974; Hofstede, 1983, 1984; Manrai & Manrai, 2011).

Each cultural dimension has seen its share of academic debate but one which has dominated the literature is the construct of individualism and collectivism (Schimmack, Oishi & Diener, 2005). Triandis et al. (1988) expresses that the constructs of individualism and collectivism may be the most important of all the cultural dimensions. However, some research argues that individualism and collectivism is a flawed explanatory construct (Oyserman, Coon & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Bond, 2002; Fiske, 2002). Two approaches (“applying Hofstede” and “measuring individualism”) to the IC dimension have been examined for measuring the cultural differences in countries. For example, investigation of the tendencies of people from France and Peru resulted in conflicting results where one approach showed Peru higher on individualism compared with France and the other approach led to a completely opposite result (Schimmack et al., 2005, p.18, 19). Authors argue that the non-converging validity shown makes IC an unreliable dimension for cross-cultural comparisons. They also argue that there is a lack of empirical evidence to suggest IC as a reliable predictor of cultural variation (Oyserman et al., 2002; Miller, 2002; Bond, 2002).

Additionally, some studies have shown surprising results where collectivist Asian participants have been recorded as valuing individualist tendencies like independence and uniqueness, while individualist participants expressed valuing conformity to the group. A study by Arikawa & Templer (1998) revealed high levels of individualism among Japanese students compared with Americans who reported high levels of collectivism. These unexpected results were argued to result from lifestyle factors where American students found strong affiliation with their fraternity and Japanese students placed high importance on academic achievement.

Recent cross-cultural research in IC has produced results that support traditional views on individualism and collectivism and have extended the cultural dimension further to include horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995). Findings have supported variations in levels of individualism and collectivism as reliable predictors of differences in consumer behaviour (Manrai & Manrai, 2011). While some authors tend to disagree on the validity of IC, the majority of literature suggests IC as a useful dimension in future research (Schimmack et al., 2005; Bush, Collings, Tamasese & Waldegrave, 2005; Shavitt et al., 2011; Manrai & Manrai, 2011).

However, even though research has found support for IC at the cultural level based on in-group goals, it has also identified that possible overlap may exist at the individual level. It has

been argued that members of collectivist cultures may show high levels of individualism and members of individualist cultures may show high levels of collectivism. This shows that even though culture-level values have great influence on individual attitudes and beliefs they are not determined by them. Therefore, caution is suggested when using individualism and collectivism at the culture-level to compare groups (Gregory & Munch, 1996).

3.2.1 Individualism & collectivism

A variety of differences can be seen when comparing cultures based on individualism and collectivism. For example, members of individualistic cultures generally view the self-concept as separate from others within the culture (Hofstede 1983, 1984; Lee & Green, 1991). Oyserman & Markus (1993) note that feeling good about one's self and personal accomplishments and having unique attitudes and views are valued among individualists. Collectivists on the other hand demonstrate beliefs and behaviours based on a view that their self-concept is part of the group (Gregory & Munch, 1996). Research on collectivism indicates that one's identity is not the result of unique individual attitudes and beliefs, but the attitudes and beliefs held collectively by the group (Triandis, 1989; Kashima et al., 1995).

Social relationships differ between individualist and collectivist cultures (Triandis et al., 1988). Because individualists see themselves as separate from others, their goals and ambitions may not always align with others, therefore maintaining social relationships is not a high priority (Hofstede, 1984). The relationships that individualists do consider important are typically horizontal in nature rather than vertical. These include relationships between co-workers, friends and spouses (Triandis, 1996). Nevertheless, personal interests almost always take priority over the needs of others, and when these personal interests are not met within a group context, individualists are likely to leave the group (Triandis, 1989). Here, the absence of any strict personal obligation to others allows individualists to move freely between social in-groups. Research has indicated that situations often arise where the demands of the in-group or the superiors of an in-group may conflict with the opinions of members. In this instance members often leave and either join or create new in-groups (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997).

In contrast, the concept of interdependence is central to collectivism. Collectivists place importance on relationships that flow vertically as well as horizontally. For example, vertical relationships may be maintained between employer and employee or parent and child

(Triandis et al., 1988; Triandis, 1989; Shavitt et al., 2011). Reliance on members within the group is common practice where individuals share and exchange tangible and intangible resources. Being part of the group offers security, status, harmony and other resources (Triandis et al., 1988). While, in-group members may gain certain benefits they are also obligated to meet the requirements of the group's demands. Here, a sense of commitment to others is observed where even the most trying of group requests does not cause members to leave as individualists may (Wagner, 1995). In many collectivist cultures such as Pacific Island and Asian cultures, personal goals are made subordinate to the goals of the collective. For some collectivists personal goals are often in fact the achievement of group goals (Triandis, 1989, 1995; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Gregory & Munch 1996; Oyserman et al., 2002). This attachment to the group makes it less likely for members to leave and create new in-groups. In this way collectivist social relationships are far more important and enduring compared with individualist social relationships, where the number of in-groups in collectivist societies is few but fairly large (Triandis et al., 1988).

With independence and autonomy fundamental to individualism, reasoning and decision making is based on one's own unique attitudes and beliefs (Gregory & Munch, 1996; Schimmack et al., 2005; Zhang, 2009). Members of individualist cultures tend to make decisions based on their own personal beliefs rather than the opinions of others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This is largely to do with the concept of locus of control. Santiago & Tarantino (2002) explain that members of individualist cultures demonstrate high levels of internal locus of control compared with collectivists. For instance, Western individualist New Zealanders believed that outcomes were attributed to one's own personal actions produced by their own attitudes and beliefs (Hamid, 1994). Locus of control for collectivists tends to be highly external compared with individualists. Collectivists deem their own actions to have relatively limited impact on outcomes (McCarty & Shrum, 2001). This is likely to be due to submissiveness toward the collective. Because maintaining relationships is paramount, personal attitudes are highly influenced by the group consensus (Triandis et al., 1988; Kastenmuller et al., 2010). Like individualists, collectivists constantly aim to hold correct attitudes. However, these correct attitudes are determined by the group (Kastenmuller et al., 2010). Collectivists therefore aim to behave in ways that are consistent with the group rather than their own individual self-concept. Decisions are based on the opinions of others in the group especially those who are seen as important such as group leaders (Gaenslen, 1986; Triandis, 1996; Ng et al., 2000; Shavitt et al., 2011).

These are but a small number of different aspects in which cross-cultural literature has compared individualist and collectivist cultures. While the literature does raise questions regarding the ability of IC to explain cross-cultural variation, it still remains an important and valid cultural dimension overall. The following section will take a further look at IC as a construct through exploration of two dissimilar cultures which exist in New Zealand.

3.3 New Zealand culture

Much debate surrounds the issue of a dominant New Zealand culture. Some authors suggest that New Zealand's main culture is one that has Western origins from British colonization (Novitz & Willmott, 1989; Bell, 2009; Paunescu, 2011). Others propose that the dominant culture is bicultural and that British and Maori heritage comprises national culture and identity (Harding, Sibley, & Robertson, 2011). More recently, commentators have suggested that the culture of New Zealand is one that is not static over time but constantly changing due to the vast proportion of overseas immigrants who have settled in the country (Carpenter & McMurphy-Pilkington, 2008). This section looks to explore these perspectives in relation to individualism.

3.3.1 History

Studies have identified New Zealand as part of a group of countries called the Anglo-cluster. This includes countries such as England, Canada, Ireland, Australia, South Africa and the United States of America. All of which were previously British colonies. These countries display similar Western values based on individualism (Ashkanasy, Trevor-Roberts, & Earnshaw, 2002). Much of today's modern New Zealand culture originated from British settlers who arrived in the 19th century (Bell, 2009; Paunescu, 2011). As one of England's colonies, British settlers arrived in New Zealand and brought with them Western values which introduced Christianity, capitalism, advances in technology and the English language (Lange, 2000; Schaniel, 2001; Middleton, 2010). British missionaries converted indigenous Maori to Christianity as a result of the Bible being translated into the Maori language (Schaniel, 2001). This allowed missionaries to teach Maori the English language, and introduced Western cultural practices (Middleton, 2010). European goods became highly sought after by Maori and this led to Maori taking on Western customs to maintain relationships with British settlers (Schaniel, 2001). The exchange of goods found a newly formed capitalist New Zealand economy (Sullivan, 1995). The signing of the Treaty of Waitangi led to British sovereignty over New Zealand and exchanges in land ownership rights. This allowed Pakeha

settlers to purchase land from Maori and extend settlement in New Zealand. Many Maori were forced into isolation in rural areas which allowed Pakeha to reside in urban centres. The expansion of British settlement led to a highly populated Pakeha New Zealand (Sullivan, 1995). Western cultural values emphasising individualism, competition, self-interest and social independence became the basis for a pervading Pakeha culture of New Zealand (Kepa & Manuatu, 2008; Lyons, Madden, Chamberlain, & Carr, 2011).

3.3.2 Pakeha culture

The term Pakeha refers to those who are non-Maori New Zealanders and mainly refers to white Europeans (Carpenter & McMurchy-Pilkington, 2008). Pakeha values reflect a perspective on life that emphasises the individual rather than the group (Harrington & Liu, 2002; Tassell, Flett & Gavala, 2011). Pakeha generally prefer to live their lives independently. They believe that individuals have the right to make autonomous decisions on their own (West-Newman, 2004). They see social relationships as entirely voluntary and are less likely to feel subject to strict obligations of reciprocity. Some examples can be found in Pakeha concepts of family. Pakeha families tend to be less inclusive where family structures are smaller compared to other non-Pakeha groups. McLennan et al. (2010) described five known family types recognized in New Zealand. The most common form being the nuclear family. The nuclear family consists of father; mother and child (or children). Pakeha families were described as typical of the nuclear family due to low formal expectations of their extended family members. Lower social expectations result in smaller Pakeha household structures in New Zealand. Research by Davey (1998) suggested that four out of five Pakeha live in either couple or one-person households. Additional studies suggested similar behaviour where Pakeha households were significantly smaller in size compared with the “overcrowded” conditions of Pacific Island and Asian households which are frequently comprised of multiple families (Johnson, Poulsen, & Forrest, 2008; Carter, Paterson & Williams, 2005, p. 416). The smaller Pakeha family compositions reflect Pakeha belief in independence and self-reliance.

Individual recognition rather than group recognition is preferred in Pakeha culture (Pfieffer & Love, 2004). Frankel, Swanson & Sagan (2005) proposed that individualist American and New Zealand students respond more positively to individual attention compared to Chinese students. Beaver & Tuck (1999) observed differences in Pakeha, Pacific Island and Asian students. They noticed that Pakeha students were more inclined to approach the lecturer outside of class and were more comfortable asking questions during class compared to

students in the other two groups. This is consistent with studies on individualism where individualists emphasize self expression and speaking one's mind (Ng et al., 2000). In addition, they also found that Pakeha students in New Zealand universities were opposed to classes that included international students. Pakeha students perceived that international students who struggled with English would slow down their learning progress. The authors observed that this was largely to do with tendencies of self-interest where Pakeha students aimed to complete their university degree as fast as possible without having to assist the learning of other students. Similarly, Sibley & Liu (2004) found that self-interest was a factor which led Pakeha students to oppose affirmative action policies favouring Maori. Pakeha students felt that their self-interests were threatened where resources would become more difficult for them to obtain. This is typical of individualist behaviour where individualists are motivated to achieve personal goals before group goals (Triandis et al., 1988).

These attitudes of Pakeha students highlight the value of individual success within the culture. The New Zealand school system has been influential in emphasizing the importance of the individual over the group where rewards are based on personal effort. Kepa & Manuatu (2008) describe how the New Zealand school system uses Western methods of teaching for all students who may or may not be familiar with Western culture. They argue that it is designed so that successful students are those who are more familiar with the dominant Pakeha New Zealand culture. The authors argue that the New Zealand school system dismisses and devalues those aspects important to students of non-Pakeha cultures, like group membership and feelings of belonging (Kepa & Manuatu, 2008). The New Zealand school system therefore conditions New Zealanders to focus primarily on individual pursuits.

The value of self interest is not only evident in the education system but carries over into the New Zealand workplace. Studies on workplace satisfaction have identified differences in cultural orientations as contributors to the varying behaviours seen in the workplace. Thomas & Au (2002) found that Pakeha individualists were more likely to voice their opinion in situations of workplace dissatisfaction compared with Chinese collectivist respondents. The authors explained that Chinese respondents were concerned with social aspects of work and avoided situations of social disharmony. In addition, Rasmussen & Foster (2011) observed how the rise of individualism in the workplace affected bargaining for employment relations in New Zealand. The declining rates of union memberships and legislation which increased

individual employment agreements were also indications of individualism (Rasmussen, Hunt, & Lamm, 2005).

The focus on task over relationships has also indicated individualism in the workplace. This behaviour can be seen in Pakeha positions of leadership. Pfiefer & Love (2004) described that Pakeha leaders come from a society based on achievement where leadership and promotion comes from individual success. Murphy (2007) compared leadership styles of Maori and Pakeha and found that Pakeha valued qualities such as confidence and personal ambition compared to Maori who valued commitment to serve others and humility. They also discovered that leadership styles which emphasized outcomes were valued higher among Pakeha than leadership styles which focused on social aspects of work. The concept of Pakeha leadership and status therefore focuses on the individual rather than the group.

These are just some examples within Pakeha culture which highlight attitudes centred on individualism. For Pakeha, more importance is assigned to social independence where people behave according to self-interest (Sibley & Liu, 2004; McLennan et al., 2010). In this regard, group membership and social obligations towards others are not so vital. Achievement of personal goals takes priority over the goals of others or the group (Ng et al., 2000; Triandis et al., 1988). These notions comprise the dominant Pakeha culture seen today which represent the lives of many living in New Zealand.

3.3.3 Cultural change

While Pakeha culture has dominated New Zealand since British settlement, New Zealand has also claimed biculturalism. In the 1980s New Zealand was officially recognized as a bicultural nation where indigenous New Zealand Maori and Pakeha were acknowledged as founding peoples of the nation (Sibley & Liu, 2007; Bell, 2009). Sibley & Liu (2004) explain that biculturalism is necessary if New Zealand is to have its own national identity. Without Maori culture New Zealand culture would be a clone of Britain. The inclusion of Maori culture is said to make New Zealand culture unique (Harding et al., 2011). One study supports these ideas where Pakeha and Maori participants acknowledged Maori symbols as important to national identity and culture (Sibley & Liu, 2004). However, recent population statistics have led some commentators to believe that New Zealand can no longer be identified as a nation of two distinct cultures, but instead one that is multicultural (Carpenter & McMurchy-Pilkington, 2008).

A large proportion of New Zealand's population is now made up of people of Asian and Pacific Island descent. This comes from the wave of Polynesian migrants in the 1950-1970s and the surge of Asian migrants in the 1990-2000s (Johnston et al., 2003; Vaccarino & Dresler- Hawke, 2011). The influx of migrants settling in New Zealand appears to have changed the face of New Zealand (Cosgrove & Bruce, 2005). Here, an assortment of peoples identify themselves as New Zealanders (Kukutai & Didham, 2009). Nevertheless, Pakeha people remain the majority in New Zealand. Statistics NZ reports that around 70% percent of the New Zealand population is Pakeha. This is followed by 15% Maori, 10% Asian and 7% Pacific Peoples (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). This indicates that even though people of other ethnicities and cultures make up a large proportion of the population, Pakeha Western culture still remains dominant due to the sheer number of Pakeha in New Zealand.

While Pakeha remain the majority within New Zealand statistics report that non-Pakeha minorities appear to be growing. Reports estimate that by 2026 Pacific peoples in New Zealand will account for approximately 10% of the total population. The Asian population is also set to experience growth. Statistics New Zealand projects 15% of the total New Zealand population to be made up of people of Asian descent by 2026 (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). For this reason minority cultures within New Zealand cannot be ignored. These groups display contrasting behaviour compared with the majority group where collectivism, interdependence and group membership are highly valued (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). The following section aims to explore the dynamics of traditional Pacific Island culture, one which exists within New Zealand and exemplifies divergent values to the dominant Pakeha culture.

3.4 Pacific Island culture

3.4.1 History

According to history the first wave of Polynesian people arrived in New Zealand around 1200 and 1300 AD. These Polynesians have been recorded as the ancestors of the indigenous Maori of New Zealand (Prickett, 2001; Borrows et al., 2011). The second known wave of Polynesians into New Zealand came during the 1950s and 1980s. These people came from the Pacific Islands of, Fiji, Niue, Samoa, Tonga, Tokelau and Cook Islands. Polynesian migration during the second wave was mainly due to economic and educational opportunities (Bedford, Masgoret, Tausi, & Merwood, 2010). During this period the New Zealand government welcomed Pacific Island migrants as they could contribute to a New Zealand economy

experiencing a shortage of workers due to accelerated industrial expansion (Wright & Hornblow, 2008). Relaxed immigration policies led to chain migration in the early 1970's. New migrants earned higher wages in New Zealand and could afford to bring family members to New Zealand where they could be reunited as a family (Wright & Hornblow, 2008). However, with the rapid growth of Pacific migrants into the country coupled with high levels of unemployment, New Zealand began to tighten immigration policies which eventually saw reductions in the rate of Pacific Island migrants. This led to deportation of "overstayers". Pacific Island workers were expected to reside temporarily, where they would earn large sums of money in the short term for remittances. They were never expected to become permanent citizens of New Zealand and were therefore blamed for having a negative impact on the economy (Grainger, 2009, p. 2340; Bedford et al., 2010).

While some Pacific migrants were deported, the amount who had stayed behind in New Zealand had become significant. In 1945 Pacific peoples comprised 0.01% of the New Zealand population, roughly 7,000 people before the Second World War. This number grew to around 40,000 people by the 1970s (Grainger, 2009). Recent reports show that over 270,000 people living in New Zealand are of Pacific Island descent (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). This number makes up 6% of the total New Zealand population where just over half of these people are New Zealand born (Bedford et al., 2010). With the Pacific Island population growing, predictions suggest that expansion will reach 10% of the New Zealand population by 2026 (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). This means that the growing Pacific Island population and the way in which they think and behave needs to be addressed. This is due to the way they contribute towards shaping New Zealand through their consumption of goods and services which has implications for many sectors across New Zealand (Gordon, Sauni, Tuagalu, & Hodis, 2010).

The following sections will focus on Pacific Island peoples in New Zealand. Comparisons will be made between those born in the islands and those born in New Zealand. The term "Pasifika" which has been used in current research will be used to include people who identify themselves with the Cook Islands, Fiji, Niue, Samoa, Tonga and Tokelau. This term includes Polynesian migrants across several generations (McPherson, 2001; Gorinski & Fraser, 2006; Anae, 2010). Therefore, "Pasifika culture" will refer to the traditional broad set of beliefs and values held in common by the Pacific Island nations referred to earlier.

3.4.2 Pasifika culture

The traditional cultures of the Cook Islands, Fiji, Niue, Samoa, Tonga and Tokelau are similar in terms of a broad set of common attitudes and beliefs which they value (Abel, Park, Tipene-Leach, Finau, & Lennan, 2001). Hofstede's (1980) study ranked these nations high in collectivism. Orientations towards collectivism still apply today as confirmed by more recent studies (Ewalt & Mokuau, 1995; Chong & Thomas, 1997; Levine, 2003).

Pasifika culture is characterised by group membership, social interdependence and its emphasis on the collective (Ewalt & Mokuau, 1995). Traditional Pasifika culture is a composition of old customs and traditions intertwined with Christianity (Linkels, 1997). The collective is seen as one's immediate family but also extends to the wider community and almost always to the church. Migration from the Pacific Islands to New Zealand has meant that Pasifika have had to assimilate somewhat with the dominant Western culture in New Zealand whilst still holding onto the values and cultural traditions of the islands. Early Pasifika settlers arriving in New Zealand found the church an ideal place to continue practicing their culture as the church was the focal point of the village they were familiar with back home. The church offered an environment where the language and traditional culture could be preserved (Ewalt & Mokuau, 1995; Tiatia, 1998). Here, traditional customs such as gendered roles, respect and obedience, extended family relationships, and social hierarchy could be practiced. The following sections will address these aspects of Pasifika culture in relation to collectivism.

3.4.2.1 Gender roles

Gender roles are an important part of traditional Pasifika culture (Herda, Terrell, & Gunson, 1990). While these gender roles may vary between Pacific Island nations, it is common for one's position in society to be determined by their gender. For example, males in Samoan culture always assume leadership positions in the family, church and the wider community. Studies on Samoan culture have identified the matai system. Here, social organization involves chiefly male leaders who are representatives of families and villages (Huntsman, 1995; Chong & Thomas, 1997; Va'a, 2001). These chiefs are obligated to take care of the family/village through their decision making and distribution of family/village resources. The giving out of chiefly titles continues in modern Samoan culture where prominent male figures are awarded chiefly leadership positions (Tuagalu, 2008). In a family context, the husband is

the head of the household and wives gain status from marrying prominent male community figures (Linkels, 1997).

In collectivist Tongan culture, females are often deferred to for decision making (Sutter, 1980). Kaeppler (1971) describes females as having higher status than males in Tongan families. Similarly, Herda et al. (1990) explains that Tongan traditions of rank observe females and males with contrasting leadership roles. Female leaders were said to possess mystical powers, where males were said to have secular power. This tradition has been passed down through generations and explains the idea of brother-sister joint leadership in Tongan culture. The brother sister relationship is one that is very important within both Samoan and Tongan cultures (Anae, 2010). While leadership roles are determined by gender the concept of joint leadership emphasizes the notion of interdependence.

Gender also determines ones chosen occupation. Females are expected to take care of the household duties such as cooking and cleaning while males provide the means to obtain basic necessities such as food (Huntsman, 1995). This can be observed where Pasifika women have lower labour force participation rates than men in New Zealand (Bedford et al., 2010). This is not an indication of laziness or unwillingness to work, but rather how Pasifika women adhere to their roles as mothers and caretakers of the family household.

3.4.2.2 Respect & obedience

Roles based on age are also strictly adhered to in Pasifika culture (Kramer, 1994). As seen in the social hierarchy of Samoan culture, Pasifika practice the custom of unquestioning obedience to elders by younger members of the culture. It is not the age of someone that demands utmost respect and obedience but their seniority (Huntsman, 1995; Linkels, 1997). In Samoan culture rank is determined by birth order. Those who are older are respected by those younger than them (Mokuau, 1995; Vakalahi & Godinet, 2008). This may include; church and other community leaders, grandparents, parents, aunties, uncles and older siblings or other older relatives. Samoan children are seen as servants to parents where their service to the family is rewarded with prospective leadership positions in the family, church and wider community (Kramer, 1994). Similarly, in Tongan culture it is expected that older siblings not only supervise younger siblings but also discipline them. Older siblings have the right to beat their younger brothers or sisters and those who are younger of the extended family in situations of disobedience (O'Donnell, 1995). Younger members of Pasifika culture are taught

to respect and obey adults. Participants in a recent study comparing students of the National University of Samoa (NUS) and students from Unitec New Zealand reported that Pasifika students often felt unable to approach teachers as they had been taught to keep silent when in the presence of adults at home. In the same way they displayed similar respectful behaviour towards teachers (Utumapu-McBride et al., 2008).

Respect not only applies in situations of subordinates deferring to superiors within the group but also between all members of the group. This may include respecting the relationship held between brother and sister or husband and wife Anae (2010). This cultural practice has been cited by many writers (Tuagalu, 2008; Anae, 2010; Schoone, 2010). The concept of the “va” in Samoan culture refers to the space between people and the reciprocal relationships between members of the group (Tuagalu, 2008, p. 109). Members of Samoan culture place high priority on preserving and taking care of the “va”, or the relationship (Anae, 2010, p. 2). Schoone (2010) refers to the “vaa” between members of the Tongan culture, which again emphasizes respect for relationships.

Ihara & Vakalahi (2011) describe respect for one another to be important as relationships shape the self. Here, attitudes and behaviours are influenced by the relationships between members of the group. For example, the Pasifika custom of gift giving is influenced by aims to preserve relationships (Cowley, Paterson, & Williams, 2004). Tuagalu (2008) describes that the value of gifts is determined by the relationship between the giver and the recipient. A study of Samoan students attending Auckland University of Technology (AUT) found that a significant proportion of student incomes were given to their family. This was driven by the importance of respect, service to the family and also as a form of gift giving to preserve relationships. The concept of reciprocity is traced here as families would respond through their “fa’amanuia’aga”, or blessing towards the student (Tuagalu, 2008, p. 120). Therefore, respect for superiors and maintaining social relationships between all members within the group are important drivers of behaviour for Pasifika collectivists.

3.4.2.3 Extended family

In Pasifika culture reality is perceived from a collective point of view (Mahina, 2008). One’s identity comes from the family which they belong to (Garsee & Glixman, 1967). The family structure for many Pasifika cultures goes beyond the nucleus of the immediate family and reaches to the extended family which includes; grandparents, aunties and uncles, cousins,

nephews, nieces and other relatives. It is common for households to include those considered family who may not necessarily be related biologically (McLennan et al., 2010). In Cook Island culture it is common practice for children to be given to extended family members at birth. This may be done in situations where couples within the extended family are unable to bear children or where one is unable to take care of their own child due to illness. This is also seen as a form of gift giving where children are gifted out to relatives ('Ama et al., 2003). One who is brought up by non-biological parents and raised with non-biological siblings would be known as a "feeding child" ('Ama et al., 2003, p. 119). New Zealand Maori term similar traditional practices; "whangai", which in Maori translation literally means "to feed and nourish" (McRae & Nikora, 2006, p. 1). The idea here is that children are nourished through feeding of instruction, culture and physical nourishment by family members other than their birth parents (McRae & Nikora, 2006).

These customs highlight the importance of collectivist social relationships which move not only in a horizontal manner but also vertically between generations. For example, relationships between parent and child or grandparent and grandchild are vastly treasured (Triandis, 1989; Shavitt et al., 2011). In a study of Tokelauan people living in New Zealand, youths mentioned that it was their duty to take care of their grandparents, as they had once taken care of them when they were children (Pene, Peita, & Howden-Chapman, 2009). These attitudes contribute to the large Pasifika family structures in New Zealand as observed by Carter, Paterson & Williams (2005). Here, they describe that almost one-third of Pasifika households are made up of multiple families. With many members of the family all living in the one household, stress caused by emotional and financial burdens can be alleviated where rent/mortgage repayments, electricity, water and other household expenses can be divided between family members ('Alatini, 2004). Each person therefore contributes to the wellbeing of all members of the group. Furthermore, authors have reported that service to the family moves beyond geographical borders where those who have moved away from the family and the village are expected to send home remittances to the family to help cover the cost of events such as weddings or funerals (Linkels, 1997). Gough (2006) reports that 30-60% of Samoa's total gross domestic product (GDP) comes from the remittances of Samoan labour migrants overseas. This shows that a strong connection remains between overseas Pasifika and their traditional culture, family and heritage.

3.4.2.4 Social hierarchy

The concept of family extends even further into an even bigger in-group, the church. This extension of the family has similar elements to the village hierarchy back in the islands (Levine, 2003). Parallels can be drawn when comparing the hierarchical structure of the church with the village. For example, in the Samoan culture the priest or the minister/pastor would be equivalent to the matai or chief of the village, the church elders comparable to the matai council, women's fellowship and the faletua ma tausí (wives), youth group and the aualuma/aumaga and Sunday school equivalent to the children of the village. These New Zealand parallels reflect a mirror image of the village life in Samoa and other Pacific Islands (Tiatia, 1998). Typical of collectivist cultures, Pasifika experience high levels of power distance within the social hierarchy. The Cook Island and Samoan culture as mentioned earlier place great importance on the superiority held by the chief of the village/family or the minister of the church ('Ama et al., 2003; Kramer, 1994; Levine, 2003). While family meetings are necessary for decisions to be made, the leader has significant influence on the decisions made by the collective (Chong & Thomas 1997; Van der Grijp, 2004; Tuagalu, 2008).

The Tongan culture also shows a highly stratified social hierarchy which begins first at the monarchy. Important nobles who have attained status from education and occupation are next, and then followed by commoners who are at the lower levels of society. Females of high rank may have greater power than their male counterparts (Kaeppeler, 1971; Herda et al., 1990). Females are able to make decisions for the family and may represent the family during special occasions. The children of high ranking females are also said to have succeeding power over their mother's brother who may be of similar rank (Van der Grijp, 2004). Here, Tongan culture differs from that of Samoan and Cook Island cultures. Tongan culture emphasizes the superiority of female leadership where rank is highly important but may not necessarily be determined by gender. However, each group reflects a common social hierarchy.

The social hierarchy, extended family, gender roles and importance of respect and obedience are common themes within the range of Pacific Island cultures which abound. Each theme overlaps with one another where one or multiple facets influence each other. Pasifika are recognized not as unique, independent individuals but members who hold a specific function within the group. One's role within the group is likely to be determined by their gender, and by birth order within their family (Garsee & Glixman, 1967; Herda et al., 1990). Respecting

ones elders and being obedient towards superiors through continual service to the family, church and community often qualifies one with opportunities to gain status within each of these domains. One may move through the ranks of an often vertical social hierarchy where different forms of service maybe required in return for various monetary and non-monetary gifts (Levine, 2003). In each area of life the traditional practices and customs of the culture shape the way in which one thinks, behaves and make decisions. This however varies over a continuum which sees a range of Pasifika engaging in their respective cultures across different levels. It has been debated that this is seen when comparing Pasifika across generations and also depending on the amount of traditional Pasifika cultural exposure one experiences (Tiatia, 1998). It is therefore argued that attitudes and behaviours may vary among those who are born in the Pacific Islands or born in Western countries like New Zealand.

3.5 Island & New Zealand born Pasifika

Studies indicate that of all the people of Pacific Island decent living in New Zealand, around half of them are New Zealand born (Mila-Schaaf & Robinson, 2010). This means the remaining half is comprised of first generation migrants from the Pacific Islands and new overseas migrants who have recently arrived in Aotearoa. Chong & Thomas (1997) report that of those who are New Zealand born, half have been raised with traditional upbringings and still hold on to traditional cultural values and beliefs. Research argues that differences can be identified between those born in the islands and those born in New Zealand (Anae, 1997). Three broad types of Pasifika within New Zealand emerge from the literature to date. The first type is Pasifika who were born in the islands and have had traditional Pasifika cultural upbringings. Secondly, Pasifika born in New Zealand and have had traditional Pasifika cultural upbringings but have also been exposed to Western culture. The last group includes Pasifika who were born in New Zealand who have not had traditional cultural upbringings but identify with the dominant Western culture of New Zealand (Anae, 1997; Tiatia, 1998; Schoone, 2010). The following section will discuss the first two groups. The last group will not be referred to any further as members of this group are likely to possess Western individualist values which make them comparable to Pakeha.

Pasifika who were born in the islands bring with them a set of established beliefs and values when they arrive to New Zealand. They remain highly influenced by the traditional values and beliefs they are familiar with back home (Anae, 1997; Schoone, 2010). Gender roles, respect

and obedience to others within the group, high power distance in a highly stratified social hierarchy and the importance of extended family are common traditional culture themes they subscribe to (these have been discussed in detail in earlier sections of this chapter). Island born Pasifika often seek to hold on to these beliefs by practicing their traditional cultural customs in New Zealand while at the same time avoiding assimilation with the dominant Pakeha culture (Vakalahi & Godinet, 2008). Here, they stick to socialising with those who are similar to them, such as other new migrants or first generation Pasifika who are highly traditional. In most cases the church is found as the ideal place for this type of socialization (Tiatia, 1998). This leads them to take on active roles in the church which allows them to participate in traditional activities and also provides a space where they can speak their own language. These value systems which focus on family and the collective are held by traditional island born Pasifika and direct attitudes, behaviour and lifestyles that tend to be noticeably different from individualist New Zealanders. In this way their consumption patterns are likely to be more determined by group influences rather than personal motivation. Often they forego spending on personal items but rather return their earning to the church and buy items that benefit the majority rather than only themselves.

In contrast, New Zealand born Pasifika may or may not have been raised in traditional Pasifika culture but have had considerable exposure to New Zealand's Western values (Anae, 1997). Even while trying to maintain traditional Pasifika cultural values, Western ways of living promoted via television and Western school systems have impacted the lives of Pasifika and their families in New Zealand (Tiatia, 1998). Because New Zealand born Pasifika have been exposed to both cultures they have difficulty fitting in with their New Zealand counterparts and at the same time struggle to fit in with their island born peers. Their strong cultural links prevent them from fitting in with Westerners and yet their lack of knowledge about their own culture prevents them from feeling a sense of belonging with their peers who are more traditional (Schoone, 2010).

Anae (1997) talked about the experiences of Samoan youth and their feelings of isolation. In her research she noted the apparent roles of Samoan youths born in New Zealand and how they were perceived by elders and other leaders in the church community. They were seen as intermediaries connecting the family to the wider society. Generally, they were called upon in times where their skills they had acquired through education could be used to help accomplish certain group goals (Anae, 1997). These examples show how varying demands of traditional

Pasifika and Western culture affect New Zealand born Pasifika. Here, New Zealand born Pasifika use the two value systems from the cultures they are familiar with to evaluate situations where they can form specific attitudes, behaviours and make decisions.

In consideration of the above discussion, traditional cultural values and Western values make New Zealand born Pasifika less collectivistic than their island born counterparts and less individualistic than Pakeha. Here, they appear “caught between cultures” (Tiatia, 1998, p.6). New Zealand born Pasifika have been seen as having their own subculture where their traditional Pasifika values and Western influences form a culture independent of the traditional culture of the islands and also the dominant culture of New Zealand. Yet, Anae (1997) contends that those born in New Zealand don’t experience a subculture that is at odds with their traditional cultural values, but rather that it is the scope of these values that differs compared to those who are island born. Research by Chong & Thomas (1997) identify that even though half of all Pasifika people in New Zealand are New Zealand born they have been raised with traditional island cultural upbringings. They note that while Pasifika migrants have assimilated with the dominant Western culture they and their subsequent generations still hold traditional values that influence their attitudes and behaviour. For Pasifika who have been exposed to traditional Pasifika culture and Pakeha culture the former tends to dominate. Therefore, only small behavioural differences may exist between those born in New Zealand with traditional Pasifika upbringings and those born in the islands. Taken together they form a growing population that displays contrasting behavioural tendencies to the dominant Western culture of New Zealand.

3.6 Conclusion

The cultural themes mentioned in this chapter illustrate the contrasting cultural orientations of Pakeha and Pasifika toward individualism and collectivism respectively. Slight differences and similarities of Pasifika who are born in the Pacific Islands and those who are born in New Zealand are also highlighted. This shows that there is a high likelihood that Pacific Island people in New Zealand who hold traditional collectivist cultural values will respond differently to advertising persuasion appeals compared with members of individualist Western cultures such as Pakeha. Areas such as gender role differences, service and obedience to the family and those of higher rank, collective decision making and high social stratification are all potential factors that may explain differences in how collectivist Pasifika respond to advertising material. Similar to studies regarding Asian collectivist communities, Pasifika

collectivists are likely to be persuaded by advertising message sources (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). Advertising source factors have recently emerged as more effective at persuading collectivist consumers (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001; Manrai & Manrai, 2011). A deeper understanding of this relationship is needed which will help marketers cater to the needs of Pasifika and other collectivist cultures more effectively. The current study aims to synergize the three key areas mentioned in this chapter and the previous chapter. These areas include; celebrity sports endorsement, persuasion and culture. This may provide useful explanations for differences in cross-cultural consumer advertising responses.

3.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature regarding individualism and collectivism. Further discussion took place in comparison of Pakeha individualism and Pasifika collectivism. These two cultures were compared where differences relating to group membership and self-interest were recognized. Additionally, comparisons were explored regarding Pasifika who were born in the islands and those born in New Zealand. However conclusions were drawn indicating that these groups were more similar than different. Therefore it was established that differences in Pakeha and Pasifika culture will elicit differences in attitudes towards advertising. This sets the context for the current research and provides a background to the research objectives. The following chapter addresses the research methodology for the current study and presents the research hypotheses which are based on the current and previous chapter.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses issues concerning the research methodology in the current study. Quantitative research methods were employed for this study as research objectives related to hypotheses-testing rather than exploratory research (Bryman & Bell, 2007). A factorial experiment was designed to investigate the relationships between variables.

The remaining chapter consists of a number of sections. The next section relates to the development of the research hypotheses for the study. Following this are sections that address: justification for the methodology, research design, measurement of variables, survey development, validity and reliability, data collection, ethical awareness and lastly a chapter summary.

4.2 Hypothesis development

The previous chapter discussed celebrity endorsement as a persuasive marketing communications cue in advertising. A number of theoretical models were reviewed as explanations for effective celebrity sports endorsement (Hovland & Weis, 1951, Maddux & Rogers, 1980; Kamins, 1989; McCracken, 1989). The review unearthed disagreement between theoretical models where research findings in the literature remain inconclusive (Erdogan, 1999). Nevertheless, combining elements of existing theoretical models support the proposal of a new explanatory variable called perceived performance enhancement (PPE). This may be introduced to predict successful celebrity sports endorsement.

Studies have shown that in situations of high product involvement consumers engage in central route processing which focuses on scrutiny of issue relevant information. Persuasion is said to occur through careful examination of strong compelling advertising arguments. However, in low involvement situations, consumers process information via the peripheral route, using simple decision cues such as the presence of a celebrity endorser to evaluate advertising messages (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). In this situation consumers are likely to evaluate levels of congruence between the endorser and the advertised product. McCracken (1989) argued that matching products with the right endorser is imperative. For example, match between a celebrity athlete endorser and sports products in advertising produces

greater positive evaluations compared with a non-sports product. Taken a step further, consumers may look at what effect the advertised product has on the celebrity athlete endorser. Here, they are likely to hold greater positive attitudes towards the brand when the advertised product is perceived to have an enhancing effect on the endorsers' sporting performance compared with non-enhancing products. Therefore, the following research hypothesis is proposed:

H1: High (vs. low) performance enhancement leads to positive attitudes towards advertising and towards brands.

The previous chapter also explored literature on persuasion and attitude change. It was noted that current marketing and consumer behaviour theory is largely based on the responses of members of Western individualist cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This has constructed a rather incomplete understanding of how consumers respond to persuasive advertising communications. Common theories of persuasion argue that compelling advertising arguments persuade consumers in situations where consumers feel high levels of personal relevance towards an advertised product (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Research indicates that consumers attend to advertising arguments contained in the advertising message first, than pay attention to other influencing factors second which help their evaluation of advertisements (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Petty et al., 1983; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). For individualist cultures it is important to hold correct attitudes based on one's personal opinions and evaluation of facts. However, collectivist cultures place importance on the opinions of others, especially those of higher rank or importance in the group. They tend to emphasize the collective and depend on the approval of others for behaviour and decision making (Triandis et al., 1988; Shavitt et al., 2011). Peripheral cues such as the advertising source may become an important factor when evaluating an advertisement. The source of the message can include the brand or the endorser featured in the advertisement (Petty et al., 1983; Ohanian, 1991). Thus, the second part of the research objective is to measure the potential cross-cultural differences in responses to persuasive celebrity endorsement appeals. Consequently, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H2: Consumers from highly individualist cultures follow the central route to persuasion in high involvement situations and the peripheral route to persuasion in low involvement situations.

H3: Consumers from highly collectivist cultures are more influenced by the peripheral route to persuasion in both high and low involvement situations.

4.3 Justification for the methodology

The research was conducted within the positivist research paradigm which insists independence and separation of the researcher from that which is being researched (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The research focussed on facts which were generated from analysis of raw data collected by an online survey questionnaire.

Because the research looked to analyse and measure relationships between variables a quantitative research approach was most appropriate (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Burns & Burns, 2008). In addition, based on extant research a new independent variable called perceived performance enhancement (PPE) was included for analysis of relationships between other variables. Here, the objective was to explore PPE and its effect on the dependent variables: attitude towards advertising and the brand.

Quantitative methods were used to test the research hypotheses. Quantitative research methods from existing studies in the literature were followed also (Petty & Cacioppo 1981, 1984; Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Tormala & Petty, 2004). In addition, quantitative methods were used as a result of time constraints. It was more likely that participants would be willing to volunteer for the study because of the straightforward closed ended self-completion survey questions. This type of data collection method required less of each participant's personal time compared with conducting structured interviews or focus groups which are typical of qualitative methods (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Quantitative methods were also used due to the relatively large sample size involved in the research (Cooper & Schindler, 2003)

4.4 Research design

The overall research design was a 2 (product type: running shoe or toothpaste) x 2 (endorser type: celebrity or non-celebrity) x 2 (involvement: high or low) x 2 (argument quality: strong or weak) x 2 (cultural orientation: individualism vs. collectivism) between-subjects design. This resulted in the creation of 32 experimental conditions.

4.5 Measurement of variables

The measurement of variables was important to the research as it affected the validity of the study. This section discusses the development of measures for the research variables in the current study.

4.5.1 Dependant variable

Existing studies in the literature have studied the effect of source characteristics on opinion change, brand name recall, purchase intention, attitudes towards products and attitudes towards celebrity endorsers (Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Atkin & Block, 1983; Ohanian, 1991; O'Mahony & Meenaghan, 1998; Kim & Na, 2007). Researchers have commonly aggregated a number of aspects that form an overall evaluation of a particular object (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981). Similarly, the current study included multi-item scales that evaluated attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand. Two multiple item scales were developed to separately measure attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand. Each scale included the same three items. Two dimensions were positioned on opposite ends of 11-point likert scales, for example, -5="Bad", "Unsatisfactory" and "Unfavourable" on the left side and 5= "Good", "Satisfactory" and "Favourable" on the right side.

In order to measure attitude towards the endorser a single item 11-point likert scale was used. Likability towards the celebrity endorser was measured where -5= "Liked very little" and 5= "Liked very much".

Additional measures of purchase intention were also created. This looked at the likelihood of viewers actually buying the advertised product. Purchase intention has been a commonly used dependent variable in existing studies in the literature (Sher & Lee, 2009). Purchase intention was measured on an eleven-point scale where -5= "I definitely would not buy" and 5= "I definitely would buy".

4.5.2 Independent variable

There were a number of independent variables in the research: perceived performance enhancement, product type, endorser type, involvement, argument quality and culture. These variables were manipulated using a number of factors. These variables were divided in two:

product type: relevant or irrelevant, endorser type: celebrity or non-celebrity, involvement: high or low, argument quality: strong or weak, culture: individualism or collectivism.

Perceived performance enhancement related to the consumers perception of whether an advertised product either improves the sporting performance of the celebrity athlete endorser or has minimal or no effect on their sporting performance. Two fictitious products were created for the advertisements which featured in the 16 different survey versions. The brand “Zoom” was used for both products. The word zoom was assumed to be associated with speed which is often an important attribute in sports. The word Zoom also was appropriate as it relates to taking a closer look at an object. Therefore Zoom branding was appropriate for both running shoes and toothpaste.

The two fictitious products were thus selected to feature in the advertisements for the online survey questionnaire for the main study. The use of a fictitious brand which has been used in a number of previous studies in the literature was for the purpose of eliminating any existing participant predispositions toward the brand (Petty et al., 1983; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Andrews & Shimp, 1990; Misra & Beatty, 1990). The two products needed to differ in terms of their perceived impact on athletic performance. Products which were seen to have an enhancing effect on sporting performance were considered relevant products. Products which were seen to have little or no effect on sporting performance were considered irrelevant products. Running shoes were deemed to positively affect sporting performance. Running shoes were selected due to their use across a variety of sports. Not all participants would have known specific rugby equipment related to Daniel Carter, but it was assumed that running shoes could be easily identified by most participants. Running shoes were also appropriate as previous studies also have shown high levels of congruence between athlete endorsers and sports shoes (Kim & Na, 2007).

On the other hand toothpaste was considered to have little impact on sporting performance. Previous studies have used a variety of products in their research on celebrity endorsement. Products which related to grooming such as razors, cologne, and deodorants were used in advertising which featured attractive models (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Till & Busler, 1998; Lee & Thorson, 2008). These types of products were also paired with sports celebrity endorsers and were found to be less favourably evaluated compared with sporting products (Ohanian, 1991; Kim & Na, 2007).

PPE was measured using multi-item 11-point likert scales. PPE was determined by evaluations of whether the product had an impact on the endorser's sporting performance where: -5= "Reduces sporting performance" and 5= "Enhances sporting performance". Additional similar scales were also developed to measure PPE of the product on the participants' own personal sporting performance.

4.5.3 Mediator variable

The mediator variable sits between the independent variable and the dependent variable. The effect that the independent variable has on the dependent variable is determined by the independent variable's effect on the mediator variable (Burns & Burns, 2008). Attitude toward the advertised brand was affected by the relationship between PPE and persuasion route. The persuasion route variable was determined by celebrity endorser type, argument quality and involvement. Participants were either exposed to a celebrity endorser (Dan Carter) or a non-celebrity endorser (generic anonymous male model endorser). Daniel Carter was selected as the celebrity athlete endorser based on his popularity as a high profile All Black rugby player. At the time of writing this thesis the All Blacks had just come off a much celebrated Rugby World Cup championship win (end of 2011). A surge in local and international media attention covering the All Blacks followed by Daniel Carter's highly anticipated wedding was likely to have enhanced his recognition among the New Zealand public but more specifically the research participants. Therefore, Daniel Carter was most appropriate as an athlete endorser to represent a persuasive peripheral cue in the research.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) states that given certain conditions consumers process advertising information in different ways. In low involvement situations consumers use simple decision rules to guide their judgement of advertisements. Peripheral cues such as a celebrity endorser can help consumers determine the merits of an advertisement. In contrast, high involvement situations lead consumers to think more carefully and scrutinize advertising message arguments. In this situation consumers are more likely to be persuaded by advertising message arguments which are strong and compelling compared with weak unpersuasive arguments (Petty & Cacioppo 1981, 1986, Petty et al., 1983). Argument quality was therefore manipulated in the current study. Participants were exposed to either five strong advertising message arguments or five weak advertising message arguments. For example, strong arguments included: "Scientifically engineered to prevent injury" and weak arguments included: "Similar weight as most other running shoes out there." Given high

involvement conditions individualist participants were expected to carefully scrutinize the advertising arguments where they would show higher positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to strong message arguments.

Involvement was manipulated in the statement of instructions preceding exposure to the advertisement. Involvement relates to the degree of personal relevance an individual has for a certain object or issue (Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984). Previous research manipulated involvement through statement instructions before consumers are exposed to advertising material during experiments. The importance of the participants' opinion relating to the advertising was either stated as very important or unimportant (Petty & Cacioppo 1981, Petty et al., 1983). This study used similar methods. High involvement participants were told that the product was to be launched in their area very soon and that their feedback on the advertisement would weigh heavily on this launch. Low involvement participants were told that the product was to launch in another country (i.e. Australia) and that their opinion of the advertisement was not very important.

4.5.4 Moderator variable

The moderator variable affects the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Burns & Burns, 2008). A number of studies in the literature have used culture as an independent variable to determine persuasion routes. Pornpitakpan & Francis (2001) found that differences in culture determined differences in information processing of advertising. The current research used culture to influence the relationship between PPE and persuasion route. Participants indicated their ethnicity from a set of options that were either Pakeha or a number of Pasifika groups. Pakeha participants represented individualism and Pasifika participants represented collectivism. A 16 item likert scale was developed from previous cross-cultural research to confirm these cultural orientations (Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Statements were used for each item such as: "I rely on myself most of the time, I rarely rely on others" and "Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required". Participants were required to indicate their agreement with each statement on a nine-point scale where: 1= Doesn't describe me at all and 9= Best describes me. It was expected that Pakeha participants would show less orientation towards collectivism compared with Pasifika participants.

4.6 Survey development

The following section addresses how the survey questionnaire was developed for the current study. A structured self-administered survey questionnaire was incorporated into this study to collect raw data. All questions in the survey questionnaire were closed ended and were managed using the web based survey tool “Survey Monkey” (Survey Monkey, 2012) (www.surveymonkey.com).

4.6.1 Self-administered questionnaire

Respondents answered the online survey questionnaire following the web link hosted by Survey Monkey. The web link was accessible online through a website (<https://sites.google.com/site/celebritysportsendorsement/home>) which was created through the Google Sites website (<https://accounts.google.com>). This website was featured on all posters and flyers used to attract willing participants for the study.

Theory suggests that self-administered questionnaires have the ability to ensure that the correct participants are chosen for the study (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In addition, self-administered questionnaires have been argued to have an advantage over other data collection methods. In some data gathering situations such as personal interviews, respondents tend to provide answers based on what they perceive to be more socially desirable and not necessarily indicative of their actual behaviours or personal opinion (Zikmund, 1997). This potential bias is reduced when using self-administered surveys as the presence of an interviewer is removed. This data collection method was also employed because the research looked at the responses of members of certain cultural backgrounds. Here, the risk of respondents understating their cultural values due to interviewer effects was reduced.

Self-administered surveys were also used due to the convenience for participants. The online survey questionnaire could be completed at any time and wherever the participants had internet access. This also allowed participants to answer the questions at their own pace.

4.6.2 Structured questionnaire

Closed questions are normally used in quantitative research where researchers aim to reduce the variability and error in the survey design. Any variability found in the research findings should be the result of the research variables rather than variability from the way in which answers are categorized during analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Closed questions were used in the research for several reasons. Firstly, closed ended questions are straightforward for participants to answer. Because the research included participants of different ages, genders and ethnicities who were of a variety of different backgrounds, questions needed to be fairly straightforward so that all participants were able to understand what was asked. Closed questions are able to clarify the meaning of questions from the availability of possible answers (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Secondly, it was assumed that people in the Auckland area tend to live busy lives and may not be willing to volunteer their time filling out questions from a survey. When answering closed questions participants are not required to write extensively but are able to select answers from specific options (Pate, 2012). The closed questions therefore reduced the time and effort required to complete the survey and was likely to have increased their willingness to complete it. Thirdly, closed questions are simple for researchers to analyse. Researchers are able to pre-code questionnaire answers rather than sift through open ended answers and identify themes and categories for coding. This reduces the amount of time and effort for analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Due to the limited time given for completion of the research closed questions allowed the researcher to save time during the analysis stage.

4.6.3 Likert-type scales

The current study aimed to measure the attitudes of participants towards celebrity endorsement in advertising. Likert-type scales which are widely associated with measuring participant attitudes and opinions were used (Leung, 2011). Nine-point scales which were adopted from Singelis et al. (1995) and Triandis & Gelfand (1998) were used to determine cultural orientations towards individualism and collectivism.

To measure subjects' evaluations of the advertisement, brand, product and endorser 11-point likert scales were used. Historically, an assortment of scales have been used to measure attitudes like the study carried out by Petty et al. (1983) that used four-point scales or the nine-point scales used by Till & Busler (1998), 11-point likert scales used to determine levels of agreement towards a speaker's proposal by Petty & Cacioppo (1979). More recent research has suggested that 11-point likert scales reduce skewness and are closer to normality compared to four and five-point scales. 11-point scales were therefore appropriate as measures in the current research.

4.6.4 Survey design

In order to test the research hypotheses for the study 32 experimental conditions were created. Consequently, 16 different online survey questionnaires were designed to be completed by participants representing two dissimilar cultures. The survey design for this study incorporated similar measures to those used in Petty et al. (1983), Singelis et al. (1995) and Triandis & Gelfand (1998). These studies tested the relationships between similar variables explored in the research. However, due to the objectives for this study, the survey design integrated additional questions measuring the independent variable perceived performance enhancement. A sample questionnaire to this study can be referred to in Appendix B.

4.6.5 Survey structure

The online survey questionnaire was prepared in three sections which included a total of 13 questions. Survey questions were comprised of four multi-item scale questions, six single-item scale questions and three multi-choice questions. Each page of the survey featured a single question only. This was done for the purpose of presentation and ease of use for participants. One question per page also reduced the likelihood that participants would skip questions.

In the first section two multiple-item nine-point rating scale questions were used to verify the recruitment criteria and determine participant levels of individualism and collectivism. These measures were adopted from studies of vertical and horizontal individualism and collectivism by Singelis et al. (1995) and Triandis & Gelfand (1998). No variations with reference to vertical and horizontal individualism and collectivism were noted as this was outside the scope of the current study. Responses indicated either general tendencies towards individualism and collectivism only.

The second section included a static image for a hypothetical advertisement which either depicted a celebrity or non-celebrity endorsing either running shoes or toothpaste. Five different argument statements advocating the product were located at the bottom left of the advertisement. Advertising arguments were either all strong compelling statements or all weak specious statements. The product was clearly located on the bottom right-hand side for shoes and half way down on the right hand side for toothpaste (see Appendix B for sample advertisements). Several multi-item and single item rating scale questions followed the

advertisement measuring participant attitudes. These measures included; attitudes toward the brand (Zoom), purchase intention, attitudes toward the advertisement, and attitudes toward the endorser. The second section also included a number of manipulation checks.

The third section used nominal measures to collect general demographic information such as participant age, gender and ethnicity. Ethnicity was required to make comparisons between Pasifika and Pakeha participants.

4.7 Validity & reliability

Validity of the research was established in three parts, internal validity, external validity and construct validity. Reliability in the research was achieved through stability and internal reliability. The following section addresses validity and reliability in further detail.

4.7.1 Internal validity

Internal validity is different to construct validity in that it does not refer to the issue of measurement but rather causality. Internal validity deals with whether causality exists between variables where a change in the dependent variable is caused by the independent variable (Zikmund, 1997). The research established causality as variables measured in the main study were generated through literature review and manipulation.

4.7.2 External validity

External validity refers to whether the results of the research can be generalised beyond the confines of the research context. Representative samples are important for this to be achieved (Zikmund, 1997). The sample in this research was comprised of two groups determined by ethnicity and cultural orientation (Pakeha= 90, Pasifika= 99). Participant age groups ranged from 18 (minimum age criteria) to 68 years. This research used a self-selection procedure so all participants were likely to have an interest in the research topic. Most research in the literature has used samples of university undergraduate students from Western countries (Hovland & Weiss 1951; Petty et al., 1981; Maheswaran & Chaiken, 1991; Till & Busler, 1998). Because this research sample included a range of people of different lifestyle backgrounds the sample was representative of the populations of interest. However, a convenience sampling method was used in the current study; therefore any inferences from the current study need to be considered with caution.

4.7.3 Construct validity

Construct validity refers to the issue of whether a measure of a concept truly measures the intended concept (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The questionnaire design of this research was vital in establishing validity. Construct validity was achieved through multi-item measures adopted from previous similar studies in the literature (Petty et al., 1983; Maheswaran & Chaiken, 1991; Singelis et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998).

4.7.4 Reliability

Reliability has been described as “the consistency of a measure of a concept” (Bryman & Bell, 2007, p. 163) Three factors contribute to measures of reliability. These are stability, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency (inter-observer consistency will not be addressed as this does not apply to the current research. Only one observer was used in the research). Firstly, stability, this refers to the extent to which a study design and its procedures can be replicated with similar results. A replication of this study is possible in following the disclosed research design, data collection and procedure methods in this chapter along with assistance from the attached samples of survey material.

Secondly, internal reliability refers to whether or not respondents who score at a certain level on any particular indicator also score at a similar level on other indicators which measures the same concept (Cooper & Schindler 2003). The research used Cronbach’s coefficient alpha to test for internal reliability. Cronbach’s alpha is the most widely used test of internal reliability between items of multiple points. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient varies between 0= no internal reliability and 1= perfect internal reliability. A coefficient of .80 is commonly used as a rule of thumb for acceptable levels of internal reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The results of reliability testing can be found in the following chapter on analysis.

4.8 Data collection

The following section considers what data was required for this study and what methods were used to gather this data. Primary data was collected in order to answer the study’s key research questions.

4.8.1 Primary data

Web-based data collection tool Survey Monkey was used to collect primary data for the research. Online survey questionnaires were created which followed similar design to survey material used in previous studies in the literature (Petty et al., 1983). To ensure the correct respondents participated in this study, criteria for recruitment was clearly expressed on posters, flyers, on the website and on the survey questionnaire itself. This was then followed up with the first question of the survey relating to participant cultural tendencies toward individualism or collectivism and then again confirmed at the end of the questionnaire where general demographic questions were asked regarding participant's age, gender and ethnicity.

Having the survey based online reduced costs associated with travel and printing. The online survey questionnaire was highly accessible and improved the chances of recruiting willing participants, as the survey could be completed conveniently at a location chosen by the participant (e.g. participant's own home) and during a time that was convenient for them. The online survey was also an effective way to reach a large sample in a short amount of time.

4.8.2 Sample selection

Because the purpose of the study was to find causal relationships which focused on internal validity, a non-probability sampling method was used to collect data (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Specifically, a convenience sampling method was used. Posters and flyers which invited potential participant to be involved in the research were created and distributed around the central Auckland area. Specifically, posters were put up around the city campus of Auckland University of Technology. Flyers were delivered around residential streets in Mt Eden, Auckland, New Zealand. Word-of-mouth through Facebook was also used to invite research participants. All invitational material directed potential participants to the web link which held the survey questionnaire links. This ensured the anonymity of research participants. Participants could anonymously access the survey material through the website.

4.8.3 Response rate

Of the 204 responses collected from the online survey questionnaires only 189 were usable. 15 of the survey questionnaire responses were unusable due to being incomplete. Participants were made aware at the beginning of the survey questionnaire that their participation in the research was entirely voluntary and that they did not have to answer all the questions. It is likely that some participants chose not to answer questions which they could not understand.

However, the small amount of incomplete surveys indicates that the survey design was sufficient for most participants to understand and complete.

4.8.4 Sample size

Previous studies in the area of persuasion and celebrity endorsement have used an average sample size of around 150 participants (Petty & Cacioppo 1981; Petty et al., 1983; Maheswaran & Chaiken, 1991; Tormala & Petty, 2004). The planned sample size for the research was a total of 160 participants. The sample size was based on research methods of previous studies in the literature and the current study's research design which included 16 survey conditions. Ten or more subjects were expected to be assigned to each survey condition. Within each condition a minimum of five Pasifika and five Pakeha participants were required.

4.9 Data analysis- SPSS

The research used SPSS to analyse the raw data which was collected through Survey Monkey. Factor analysis was used to determine the relationships between PPE, culture, persuasion and consumer attitudes. Further details regarding data analysis can be found in the following chapter.

4.10 Ethical awareness

The responses of human participants were the centre of this study therefore, ethical values were carefully considered. The recruitment criteria for conducting this research were met, where all participants were over the age of 18 years. Integration of the AUT participant information sheet occurred at the beginning of the online survey prior to any survey questions. This information sheet outlined the intentions of the study and requested informed consent by respondents in order for them to participate in the research. Completion of the survey was indicated as consent by participants. Participants were made aware that they could withdraw from the questionnaire at any time and that their participation was entirely voluntary (see Appendix A for the approval form as approved by Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee).

4.11 Chapter summary

In order to test the hypothesized relationships between variables which were pertinent to research objectives an online survey questionnaire was designed to collect data for the current

study. 189 respondents in total participated in the research with 189 questionnaires completed and usable for this study. All data was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Further information regarding this analysis will be provided in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter looked at the research methods used in the current study. This chapter analyses and presents the collected data results along with testing of the three hypotheses which were developed in chapter four.

Following this brief introduction is a section containing preliminary analysis which analyses participant demographics, tests for reliability of the measurement scales and checks the manipulation of the research variables. Following on is a section that tests the research hypotheses and addresses interesting findings. The final section includes a conclusion and a chapter summary.

5.2 Preliminary analysis

Preliminary analysis was carried out before testing the hypotheses in order to give an overview of the data and to ensure validity and reliability of the study results. Demographic characteristics of the research sample were included first to provide an overall understanding of the collected data. Cronbach's alpha analysis was employed to check for reliability of the measurement constructs of attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand. Lastly, preliminary analysis included manipulation checks for product type, endorser type, involvement, argument quality and cultural orientation.

5.2.1 Demographic characteristics of participants

A total of 189 people completed the online survey questionnaires for the research. Participant's demographic characteristics were categorized by age, gender and ethnicity.

The average age for people who participated in the research was 32 years (mean=31.57), where the youngest participant was 18 years (as required by the research criteria), and the oldest survey participant was 68 years.

Of the total study participants 59.3 percent (n=112) were female, and 40.7 percent (n=77) were male.

Because of the cross-cultural aspect to the research participants were also categorized by ethnicity. The distribution of ethnicity among survey participants is shown in Table 5.1. Of all those who participated 47.6 percent were Pakeha, 20.6 percent were Samoan, 13.8 percent were Cook Island, 7.9 percent claimed “Other Pasifika”, 6.3 percent were Tongan, 2.6 percent were Niuean and 1.1 percent were Fijian. Therefore, 52.4 percent were of Pacific Island decent. The proportions representing each Pasifika group in the data were relatively similar to their actual population proportions in New Zealand, with Samoans making up the largest group, followed by Cook Islanders and then Tongans (Statistics NZ, 2012). Roughly half of the study sample was made up of Pakeha and the other half Pasifika. These proportions were sufficient for the cross-cultural analysis which the study aimed to carry out.

Table 5.1: Ethnicity of participants

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage %
NZ	90	47.6
Samoan	39	20.6
Cook Island	26	13.8
Other Pasifika	15	7.9
Tongan	12	6.3
Niuean	5	2.6
Fijian	2	1.1
Total	189	100%

5.2.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which multiple-items measuring a construct are internally consistent with regard to the same variable (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). In the analysis Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was used to test the multi-item scales for measuring attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand. The scope of Cronbach’s alpha value is between 0 and 1 where 0 represents the lowest level of reliability of the measured items and 1 represents the highest level of reliability. The closer the Cronbach’s alpha value

toward 1 the more reliable the measurement constructs. The minimum acceptability of reliability is .70 (Burns & Burns, 2008).

The items allowed participants to indicate their opinions on an 11-point scale. Three items included: bad/good, unsatisfactory/satisfactory and unfavourable/unfavourable impressions of attitude towards advertisement. The same measures were used to determine participant attitudes towards the brand. Each item allowed for negative, neutral or positive responses. Both attitude towards the advertisement (Cronbach's $\alpha = .96$) and the brand (Cronbach's $\alpha = .98$) exceeded the minimum acceptability level. The high alpha values indicated that the three items used had a high level of internal consistency as measures of attitude towards the advertisement and the brand. Therefore the measurement of the dependent variables was reliable for this study.

5.2.3 Manipulation checks

Five variables were manipulated in the research. These were product type, endorser type, involvement, argument quality and cultural orientation. The manipulations divided each variable into two groups: relevant product vs. irrelevant product, celebrity vs. non-celebrity endorser, high vs. low involvement, strong vs. weak argument quality and individualism (Pakeha) vs. collectivism (Pasifika). The purpose of the manipulation checks was to confirm whether the manipulations of the research variables were successful in the online survey questionnaire used to collect the data.

5.2.3.1 Individualism vs. collectivism

Based on the discussion of individualism and collectivism and exploration of Pakeha and Pasifika culture in chapter three it was established that Pakeha culture identified with lower levels of collectivism compared with Pasifika culture which was argued to be highly collectivistic. Manipulation of cultural orientation was conducted to confirm this notion. One way ANOVA was conducted for participant responses to a multi-item scale measuring individualism and collectivism, compared with participant's reported ethnicity. The multi-item cultural scale was adopted from studies by Singelis et al. (1995) and Triandis & Gelfand (1998). The results ($F(1, 177) = 10.44, p < .001$) showed that there is a significant effect of ethnicity on cultural orientation. Participants who indicated being Pasifika (mean = 7.63) showed higher levels of collectivism on average compared with participants who indicated they were Pakeha (mean = 7.06). The results confirmed the research expectations. Pasifika

participants showed higher levels of collectivism compared with Pakeha participants. Therefore manipulation of cultural orientation was successful.

5.2.3.2 Relevant product vs. irrelevant product

Product type was manipulated in order to test the effect of perceived performance enhancement on consumer advertising and brand attitudes. As mentioned in chapter four, two contrasting products were selected for the main study. The products included running shoes and toothpaste. The running shoes were selected based on their close relationship to sports, the celebrity athlete endorser and the high likelihood that they would be perceived to have a positive impact on sporting performance. The toothpaste was selected based on its minimal relationship to sports, the celebrity athlete endorser and its unlikely perceived impact on sporting performance.

The manipulation check was conducted based on comparisons of perceived performance enhancement of the endorser for both products. One way ANOVA results ($F(1,186) = 32.01, p < .001$) for perceived performance enhancement for the endorser showed a significant difference for product type. The results indicated that participant's evaluation of perceived performance enhancement for the sporting performance of the endorser was higher when the product was relevant (mean = 1.35) than when the product was irrelevant (mean = -.28). Furthermore, results ($F(1, 181) = 35.64, p < .001$) also showed the perceived impact of both product types on the participant's sporting performance. Participant's evaluation for perceived performance enhancement of their own sporting performance was higher when the product was relevant (mean = 1.38) than when the product was irrelevant (mean = -.47). Therefore, of those participants who were exposed to advertisements which featured the relevant product (running shoes), they indicated higher levels of perceived performance enhancement for the endorser and for themselves. Participants who were exposed to the toothpaste advertisement indicated lower levels of perceived performance enhancement for the endorser and themselves. Therefore manipulation of product type was successful.

5.2.3.3 Celebrity endorser vs. non-celebrity endorser

Endorser type was also manipulated in the research. This was carried out to confirm the manipulation of the selected celebrity athlete endorser and non-celebrity endorser for the study. The manipulation check was conducted to determine whether research participants were able to identify the celebrity endorser from the non-celebrity endorser. In order for the

manipulation of endorser type to be successful participants were expected to be able to identify the celebrity endorser and not be able to identify the non-celebrity endorser in the advertisements. Chi-Square results ($\chi^2(1) = 128.86, p < .001$) showed that the majority (81.8%) of the research participants who were exposed to the celebrity endorser survey condition correctly identified Daniel Carter as the celebrity athlete endorser. Of the participants who were exposed to the non-celebrity condition no one could identify the endorser. The results show that manipulation of the endorser type was successful.

5.2.3.4 High involvement vs. low involvement

Involvement was incorporated into the study as a research variable to test attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement advertising in different situations. Therefore, manipulation checks of involvement were necessary. Involvement was manipulated through statements which either indicated that the advertised product would be launched in the participant's area in the near future or somewhere overseas. Participants were expected to pay closer attention when evaluating the advertisement when they perceived that the product was to be launched in their own area. This was compared with participants who would pay less attention when they perceived that the product would be launched overseas. The statements also indicated high or low importance of the participant's feedback regarding the advertisement. Manipulation of involvement was adopted from a study by Petty et al. (1983). The one way ANOVA results ($F(1, 186) = 9.93, p < .01$) showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores for those who were either exposed to high or low involvement conditions. Participants who were exposed to the high involvement condition evaluated higher chance of the product launch in their area (mean=.46) than those under the low involvement condition (mean=-1.02). Thus, manipulation of involvement was successful.

5.2.3.5 Strong argument quality vs. weak argument quality

The survey material included advertisements which either featured five strong advertising arguments or five weak advertising arguments. Strong advertising arguments were expected to be more persuasive compared to weak advertising arguments. Of the 16 survey conditions half featured advertisements with strong arguments and half the survey conditions featured advertisements with weak arguments. One way ANOVA was conducted to check for manipulation of argument quality. The results ($F(1, 186) = 5.75, p < .05$) showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores for those who were exposed to strong arguments and those who were exposed to weak arguments. The results show that

participants evaluated higher persuasiveness for strong advertising arguments (mean=1.06) than weak advertising arguments (mean=.05). The manipulation of argument quality was therefore successful.

5.3 Hypothesis testing

The preceding section on preliminary analysis provided a general view of the overall data set for the study. Measurement of the dependent variables was found to be reliable and manipulation checks assured the appropriateness of the research variables. The following section delivers and discusses the statistical test results of the research hypotheses based on review of the literature which were proposed in chapter four.

5.3.1 Test of hypothesis 1

Hypothesis one predicted that high (vs. low) performance enhancement would lead to positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. Participants would evaluate the advertisement and the brand more positively when they were exposed to advertising where they perceived that the advertised product had a greater enhancing effect on the endorser's sporting performance. Products that participants perceived had less of an enhancing effect on the sporting performance of the endorser would lead to less positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. Advertisements of running shoes (relevant product) were assumed to generate higher positive attitudes compared to advertising of toothpaste (irrelevant product). Product type therefore was expected to contribute to significant differences in attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand.

A one way ANOVA was conducted to test hypothesis one. The results displayed in Table 5. 2 show a main effect of product type on the two main dependent variables. The results ($F(1, 179) = 17.9, p < .001$) show a significant effect of product type on attitude towards the brand. Participants who were exposed to advertisements of running shoes reported greater positive evaluations towards the brand (mean = 1.59) compared with those who were exposed to advertisements of toothpaste who reported less positive evaluations towards the brand (mean = -.015).

The results ($F(1, 176) = 29.70, p < .01$) also showed that product type had a significant effect on attitudes towards the advertisement. Participants who were exposed to advertisements of running shoes (mean=1.23) also reported greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement

compared with participants who were exposed to toothpaste advertisements who reported less positive attitudes towards the advertisement (mean =-.97).

Additionally, significant differences in participant attitudes towards the endorser were also found as a result of product type ($F(1, 186) = 32.01, p < .01$). Participants who were exposed to advertisements of running shoes showed greater positive attitudes towards the endorser (mean =1.39) compared with participants who were exposed to advertisements of toothpaste who showed less positive attitudes towards the endorser (mean =.21).

Lastly significant differences were found between running shoes and toothpaste in terms of purchase intention ($F(1, 86) = 7.1, p < .01$). Participants who were exposed to advertisements of running shoes (mean =-.04) were more likely to purchase the product compared with participants who were exposed to toothpaste advertisements who were less likely to purchase the advertised product (mean =-1.23).

As established in the manipulation section running shoes (relevant product) reported higher levels of perceived performance enhancement and toothpaste (irrelevant product) showed lower levels of perceived performance enhancement. The results showed that products which were perceived to have a higher enhancing effect on the celebrity athlete endorser's sporting performance produced greater positive attitudes overall. Specifically, one way ANOVA showed that participants who were exposed to running shoe advertisements produced significantly greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and towards the brand compared with participants who were exposed to toothpaste advertisements. The expected impact of high perceived performance enhancement on attitudes was established, thus providing strong support for hypothesis one.

Table 5.2: Comparison of means based on product type

Dependent Variables	Relevant product (running shoes)	Irrelevant product (toothpaste)
Attitude towards brand	1.59 (2.49)	-0.01 (2.72)
Attitude towards advertisement	1.23 (2.65)	-0.97 (2.76)
Attitude towards endorser	1.39 (2.81)	0.21 (3.14)
Purchase intention	-0.04 (3.11)	-1.23 (2.96)
PPE for endorser	1.38 (2.03)	-0.28 (1.98)
PPE for participant	1.27 (2.03)	-0.47 (1.91)

*Mean (standard deviation)

PPE= perceived performance enhancement

5.3.2 Test of hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two predicted that consumers from individualist cultures would follow the central route to persuasion in high involvement situations and the peripheral route to persuasion in low involvement situations. Pakeha participants who completed surveys that elicited high involvement and were exposed to strong advertising arguments (regardless of the endorser type) would show higher positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand compared with Pakeha participants who were exposed to weak advertising arguments. Pakeha participants in the low involvement celebrity endorser condition would show greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand, compared with those who were exposed to the non-celebrity endorser condition. The analysis was expected to show an interaction between involvement, argument quality, endorser type and ethnicity.

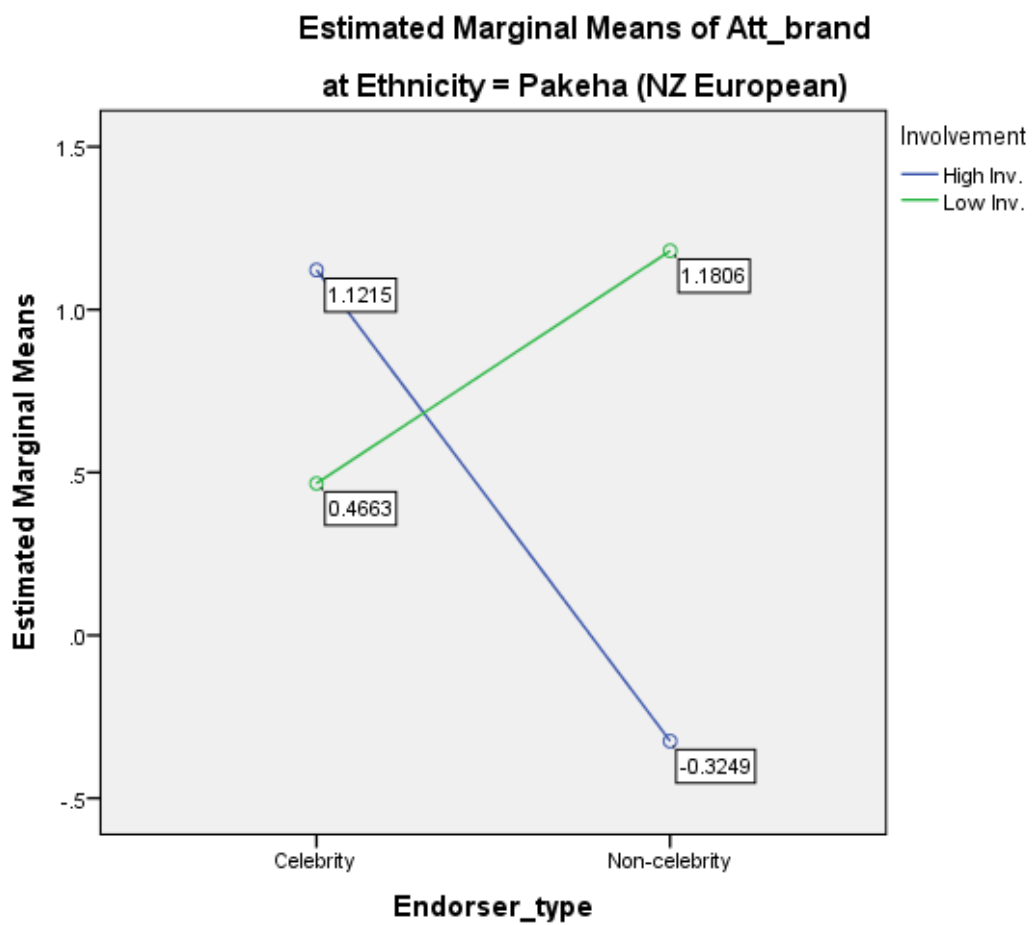
ANOVA was conducted to test hypothesis two. The results illustrated a significant main effect of argument quality on attitudes towards the brand ($F(1, 165) = 7.00, p < .01$). However, no significant difference was found between levels of involvement and between the two cultures represented in the data.

ANOVA was also conducted to test for any interaction between involvement, endorser type, and ethnicity. Consistent with the research expectations, a significant three way interaction effect for attitude towards the brand was found ($F(1, 165) = 5.141, p < .05$). However, contrary to the research expectations the results showed that Pakeha participants showed more positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser during low involvement situations. Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported.

Table 5.3: Comparison of means for 3 way interaction

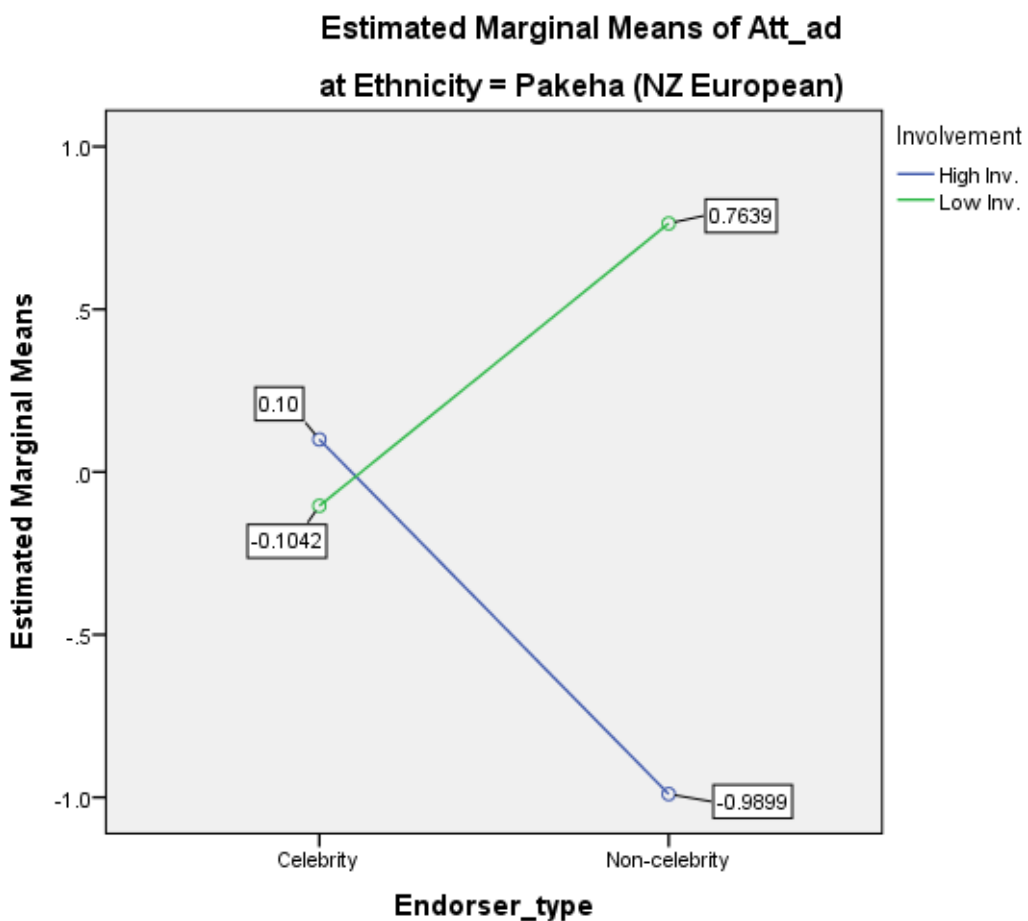
Dependent Variables	Pakeha				Pasifika			
	High involvement		Low involvement		High involvement		Low involvement	
	Celeb	Non-celeb	Celeb	Non-celeb	Celeb	Non-celeb	Celeb	Non-celeb
Attitude towards brand	1.12	-0.32	0.46	1.18	0.46	1.72	0.79	0.60
Attitude towards advertisement	0.10	-0.98	-0.10	0.76	-0.14	0.77	0.04	0.10

Figure 5.1: Pakeha attitudes towards the brand



In light of the discoveries found in testing hypothesis two, Table 5.3 shows a three way interaction effect of involvement, endorser type and ethnicity for attitudes towards advertising and the brand. Figure 5.1 shows that in situations of high involvement Pakeha participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to the celebrity endorser (mean=1.12) compared with the non-celebrity endorser (mean=-.32). In situations of low involvement, Pakeha participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser (mean=1.18) compared with the celebrity endorser (mean=.46). This shows that in situations of low involvement individualist consumers may not necessarily show more positive attitudes towards brands which offer advertising featuring celebrity sports endorsers.

Figure 5.2: Pakeha attitudes towards the advertisement



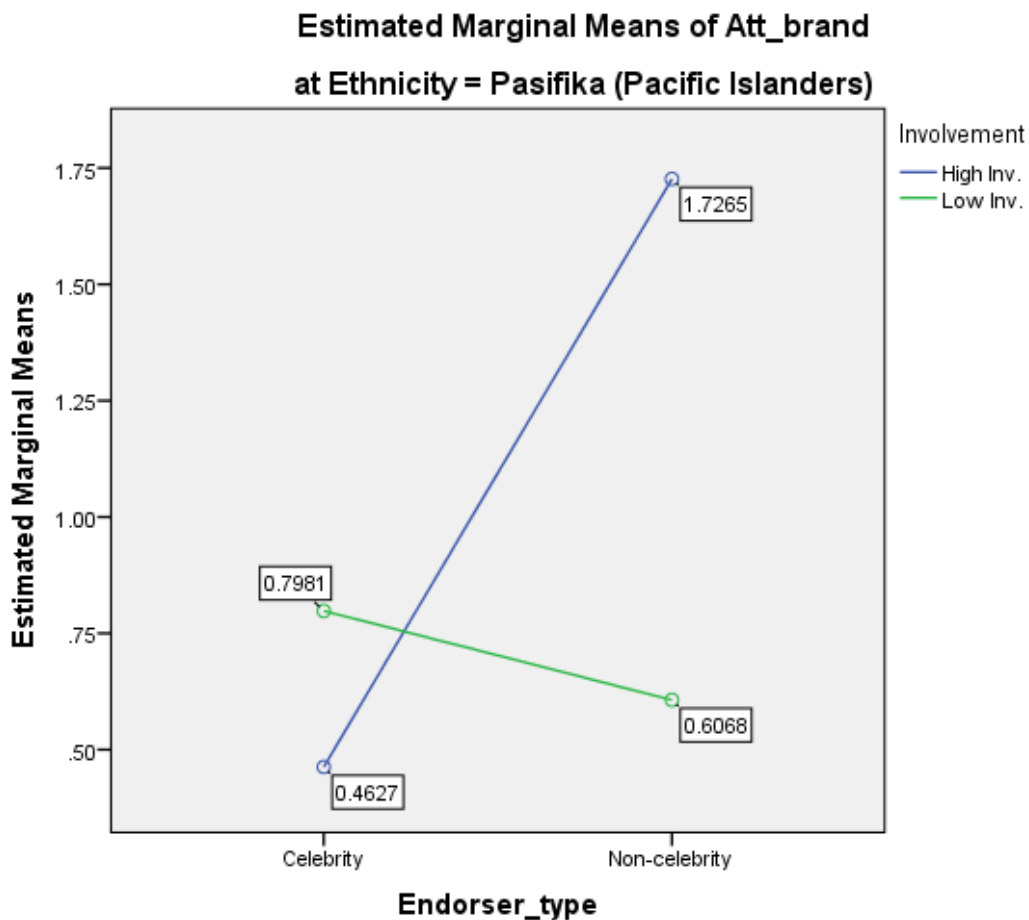
Furthermore, the results from testing hypothesis two also show that a significant three way interaction was found for participant attitudes towards the advertisement. This included involvement, endorser type and ethnicity ($F(1, 168) = 2.84, p < .10$). The results can be further observed in Figure 5.2. Contrary to what was anticipated, Pakeha participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser (mean = .76) in situations of low involvement. This was compared with less positive attitudes that Pakeha participants showed when exposed to advertising which featured the celebrity endorser (mean = -.10). In situations of high involvement Pakeha participants showed greater positive attitudes towards advertising which included celebrity endorsers (mean = .10) over non-celebrity endorsers (mean = -.98). Overall hypothesis two was not supported, however further discussion and possible explanations to the unexpected findings can be found in the following chapter.

5.3.3 Test of hypothesis 3

Hypothesis three predicted that consumers from highly collectivist cultures would be more influenced by the peripheral route to persuasion in both high and low involvement situations. The expectation here is that Pasifika participants would show greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand in the survey condition which featured the celebrity endorser compared with less positive attitudes when exposed to advertising which featured the non-celebrity endorser. The results were expected to indicate a three way interaction between involvement, endorser type and ethnicity.

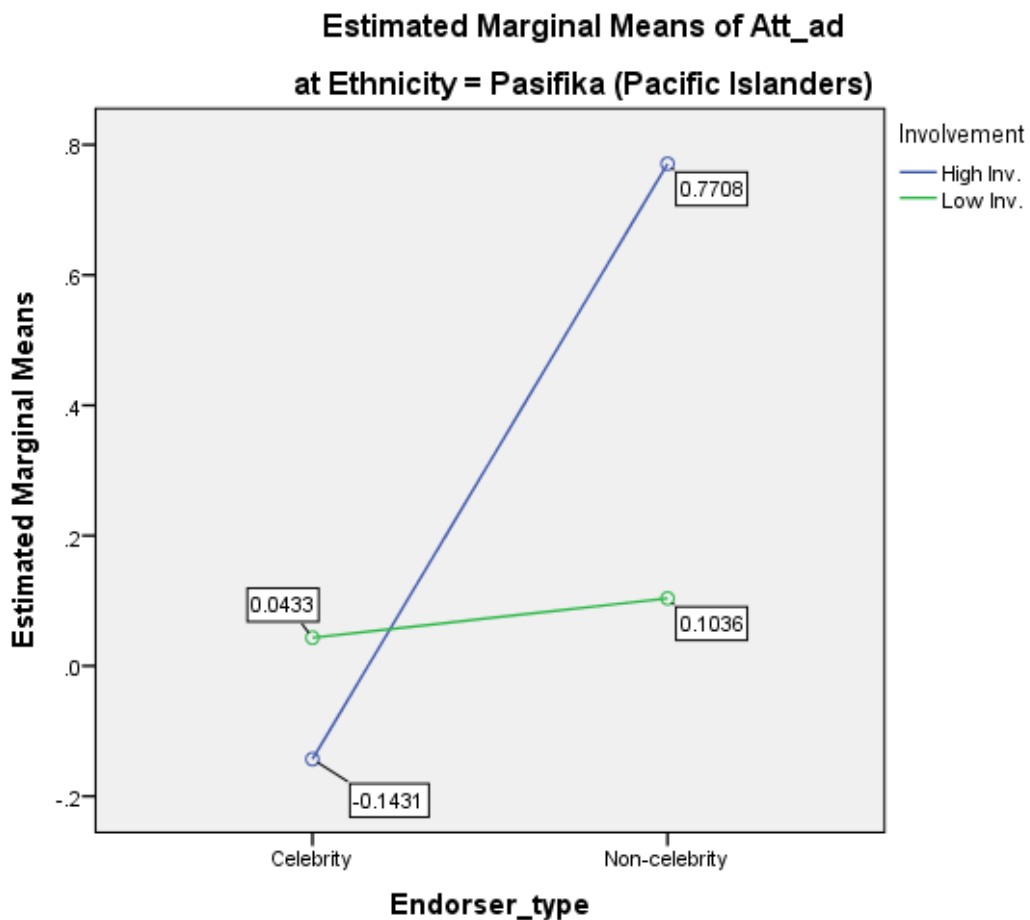
ANOVA was conducted to test hypothesis three. Table 5.3 presents the results of the analysis. Table 5.3 shows a significant three way interaction effect for attitude towards the brand with the variables: involvement, endorser type and ethnicity ($F(1, 181) = 5.14, p < .05$). The table also shows a significant interaction effect on attitude towards the advertisement ($F(1, 181) = 2.84, p < .10$) between the variables: involvement, endorser type and ethnicity. However, these results actually uncover surprising findings as viewed in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Pasifika attitudes towards the brand



In contrast to the research expectations Pasifika participants actually showed greater positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to advertisements which featured the non-celebrity endorser (mean= 1.72) compared with the celebrity endorser (mean=.46) during high involvement situations. During low involvement situations Pasifika participants showed slightly greater positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to advertising which featured the celebrity endorser (mean=.79) compared with the non-celebrity endorser (mean=.60). Pasifika participants only showed greater positive attitudes for the brand when the celebrity endorser featured in advertising during low involvement situations. Hypothesis three therefore was not supported.

Figure 5.4: Pasifika attitudes towards the advertisement



Unexpected results were also found for Pasifika participant attitudes towards the advertisement. The results ($F(1, 181) = 2.84, p < .10$) show a three way interaction of involvement, endorser type and ethnicity. Figure 5.4 illustrates that Pasifika participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser (mean = .77), compared with the celebrity endorser (mean = -.14) during high involvement situations. In low involvement situations Pasifika participants also showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser (mean = .10), compared with the celebrity endorser (mean = .04). Interestingly, in both high and low involvement situations Pasifika participants showed greater positive attitudes for the advertisement when the non-celebrity endorser was featured. These results are exactly opposite to hypothesis three, therefore no statistical support was found. Possible explanations for these unexpected findings will further be discussed in the following chapter.

5.3.4 Summary of hypotheses

Hypothesis one was supported by the data analysis. A main effect of product type significantly impacted participant's attitudes towards advertisements and the advertised brand. Running shoes which were considered a relevant product were perceived by participants to have more of an enhancing effect on the endorser's sporting performance and also the participant's own sporting performance. Advertisements which paired the celebrity athlete endorser with running shoes produced greater positive attitudes compared with toothpaste. Toothpaste was considered an irrelevant product and led to less positive participant attitudes when paired with the celebrity athlete endorser in advertising.

A significant main effect was found for argument quality on attitude towards the advertisement and the brand. This did not vary between involvement level and between the two cultures presented in the data. Participants generally produced greater positive attitudes when exposed to strong advertising arguments rather than weak arguments. No significant interaction was found for argument quality and involvement. Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported. Moreover, interesting findings came from significant three way interaction which was found for attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand. The results showed that in low involvement situations Pakeha participants held more positive attitudes for the advertisement and the brand when exposed to advertisements featuring the non-celebrity endorser.

Hypothesis three was also not supported in the analysis. Significant interaction was found between involvement, endorser type and ethnicity for attitudes towards the advertisement and attitude towards the brand. However, the results were contrary to the research predictions. Pasifika participants showed higher positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to the celebrity endorser in low involvement situations. In high involvement situations Pasifika participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser. Even more surprising was the result where Pasifika participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser. Surprisingly, this result was consistent across both involvement situations. Because the celebrity endorser was only effective at generating positive attitudes over the non-celebrity endorser in only one out of four possible scenarios hypothesis three was not supported.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter consisted of two main parts. Firstly, preliminary analysis provided a general overview of the data and allowed for checks of reliability of the measurement constructs which ensured the accuracy of the hypothesis testing. The measurement constructs which were used to analyse participant's attitudes towards advertisements and the brand were found to be reliable. This was determined by high Cronbach's coefficient alpha scores. Manipulation checks of the research variables were also conducted during preliminary analysis. The results showed that product type, endorser type, involvement and argument quality were all successfully manipulated splitting each variable into two groups.

The results from hypotheses testing showed strong evidence to suggest perceived performance enhancement as a factor in explaining successful celebrity sports endorsement in advertising. Participants who were exposed to advertising of running shoes (relevant product) which were considered to enhance the endorsers sporting performance showed greater positive evaluations towards the advertisement and the advertised brand. This was compared to participants who were exposed to toothpaste (irrelevant product) which was not considered to have an enhancing effect on sporting performance.

Hypothesis testing did not find support for hypothesis two and three. Nevertheless, significant interaction effects between involvement, endorser type and ethnicity were found. The results showed unexpected results which ran contrary to the research predictions. Pakeha participants reported significantly greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser in situations of low involvement but positive attitudes towards the celebrity endorser during high involvement situations. In contrast to hypothesis three Pasifika participants also showed conflicting results to those predicted. Pasifika participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the brand when exposed to the celebrity endorser under low involvement situations but showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement when exposed to the non-celebrity endorsers in both high and low involvement situations. These interesting findings raise a number of theoretical issues which will be addressed in the following chapter.

The following chapter brings the entire thesis together through discussion of the analysed results with some implications, future research suggestions and an overall conclusion to the thesis.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The current study explored three overarching themes in marketing. These included celebrity sports endorsement, persuasion and culture. From these key areas two research questions emerged. Firstly, under what situations do consumer perceptions of athlete performance enhancement of an advertised product affect consumer attitudes toward an ad? Secondly, how does persuasion differ in terms of culture for advertising which features celebrity sports endorsers? In consideration of these research questions thorough exploration of relevant literature generated three hypotheses. Firstly, high (vs. low) performance enhancement leads to positive attitudes towards advertisements and towards brands. Secondly, consumers from individualist cultures follow the central route to persuasion in high involvement situations and the peripheral route to persuasion in low involvement situations. Thirdly, consumers from collectivist cultures are more influenced by the peripheral route to persuasion in both high and low involvement situations.

The research used an online survey questionnaire to collect raw data. ANOVA was used to analyse the results and test the hypotheses. Some of the findings were consistent with the research expectations and some provided unexpected insight for celebrity sports endorsement and persuasion from a cross-cultural perspective.

Following this brief introduction is a section that discusses the research findings in further detail. This is followed by discussion of implications for researchers and marketing practitioners. In addition, some limitations of the study are identified and suggestions for future research are proposed. Finally, the chapter closes with an overall conclusion of the thesis.

6.2 Discussion of research findings

Three hypotheses were proposed in order to examine the research questions. The results of hypothesis testing revealed that only one of the hypotheses was supported. However, interesting findings were discovered for hypotheses two and three. The following discussion is structured around the findings from testing the hypotheses.

6.2.1 Hypothesis 1

The literature surrounding celebrity endorsement acknowledged several notions for effective celebrity endorsement in advertising. These included source credibility, source attractiveness, product match-up and meaning transfer. However, evidence which supports these theories remains open to doubt. The current study looked to synergize some aspects of the current theories to offer perceived performance enhancement as a variable to determine consumer attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement advertising and brands.

Hypothesis one proposed that consumers will positively evaluate an advertisement and an advertised brand in situations where the advertised product is seen to enhance the celebrity athlete endorser's sporting performance compared with advertising where a product is not seen to enhance the celebrity athlete endorser's sporting performance.

The results of the analysis confirmed that perceived performance enhancement positively impact consumer attitudes towards advertising and brands. The current study showed that running shoes which were considered relevant to the celebrity endorser All Black Daniel Carter were perceived to have more of an enhancing effect on his sporting performance compared with the toothpaste which was considered irrelevant and provided lower enhancement for his sporting performance. Participants also reported that running shoes were perceived to have more of an enhancing effect on their own sporting performance compared with toothpaste. Vital to supporting hypothesis one were the results that showed that participants who were exposed to advertising of running shoes elicited higher positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. Consumers who were exposed to toothpaste showed less positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. Additionally, the results showed that participants were more likely to purchase the advertised running shoes compared with toothpaste.

From these results one may conclude that perceived performance enhancement can determine consumer evaluations for advertising, brands and purchase intention for advertised products endorsed by a celebrity sportsperson. Here, this notion combines source credibility, product match-up and meaning transfer. Successful celebrity sports endorsement therefore depends on the degree to which viewers perceive that an advertised product will enhance the endorser's sporting performance and in turn enhance their own sporting performance.

6.2.2 Hypothesis 2

Upon closer inspection of the current marketing theories which have been developed over the years it is apparent that studies have largely been based on the perspective of Western samples. Therefore current theoretical models appear to have limited understanding of non-Western consumer behaviour. Research suggests that cultural values are likely influence on how consumers evaluate advertising. The cultural orientation towards individualism and collectivism was offered in this study as a moderator for persuasion. The next two hypotheses approach persuasion from a cross-cultural perspective.

As reviewed in chapter two, advertising persuasion was found to occur given certain conditions. The elaboration likelihood model assumes that consumers take two distinct routes to persuasion in advertising situations. Given conditions of high involvement consumers were more likely to devote greater cognitive resources through careful scrutiny of the advertising arguments advocating the featured product. Consumers are said to produce favourable attitudes when exposed to advertising message arguments which are considered strong and persuasive compared to weak specious advertising message arguments. In low involvement situations consumers put forth less cognitive effort and tend to rely on simple decision cues. As noted earlier this is known as the peripheral route. Here, consumers may positively evaluate an advertisement, brand or product based on peripheral cues such as a celebrity endorser.

Hypothesis two aimed to confirm prior research findings which argued that persuasion occurs as a result of either the central or peripheral route in high and low involvement situations. Therefore, hypothesis two stated that consumers from individualist cultures follow the central route to persuasion in high involvement situations and the peripheral route to persuasion in low involvement situations. The analysis in the current study was expected to show that Pakeha participants would be more likely to show greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to advertisements that featured strong arguments compared with weak arguments during high involvement situations. It was also expected that Pakeha participants would show greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the celebrity athlete endorser compared with the non-celebrity endorser during low involvement situations.

The results from hypothesis testing however did not show complete support for hypothesis two. The results did show a main effect for argument quality where participants showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to advertisements with stronger advertising message arguments. However, there was no significant difference between high and low involvement situations. Participants who were exposed to the low involvement condition were just as likely to produce positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand as those in high involvement conditions.

More surprising was the effect of the celebrity and non-celebrity endorser on Pakeha participant attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand during high and low involvement situations. The results showed that the advertisements which featured the celebrity athlete endorser produced greater positive attitudes during high involvement situations. In low involvement situations advertising which featured the non-celebrity endorser produced greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand compared with the celebrity athlete endorser. This result was unexpected and contrary to hypothesis two. Hypothesis two was therefore not supported.

While little support was found for hypothesis two, the fact that the non-celebrity endorser was preferred by Pakeha participants in low involvement situations was an interesting outcome. A small number of potential explanations may be proposed in order to clarify the unexpected results in testing hypothesis two. These include factors relating to the physical appearance of the two endorser types.

During low involvement situations consumers are described to use simple decision cues to determine their evaluation. One of these cues may have been the attractiveness of the endorser. Participants may have simply used attractiveness to determine their attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. While attitude towards the endorser was tested in the analysis this was measured in terms of likability. This measurement did not specifically differentiate specific likable attributes of the endorser. Research suggests that while attractiveness does have great influence on likability, likability may be dependent on a number of contributing factors other than physical attractiveness (Sigall & Aronson, 1969; Joseph, 1982). The analysis showed that Daniel Carter was more likable compared to the non-celebrity endorser. However, his likability may have come from a number of factors. These could include his success as a professional athlete, the fact that he is wealthy, his

familiarity to the participants, his credibility as an endorser and perhaps his physical attractiveness. These attributes and their specific influence on attitudes were not known in the research. Based on certain attributes Daniel Carter may have been more likable compared to the non-celebrity endorser. His successful career in rugby which is New Zealand's national sport has allowed him to be financially successful is something that many New Zealanders may admire and desire similar success in their own lives. Thus, compared to the non-celebrity Daniel Carter may be rated higher in terms of success. On the other hand, the non-celebrity endorser may be considered more physically attractive. In situations of high involvement matching Daniel Carter with the number of likable qualities he possesses may contribute to persuasion however in low involvement situations consumers generally use less cognitive effort and may simply make judgements based on attributes which are more obvious and accessible in memory (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). In this situation physical attractiveness may override the other likable qualities of the endorser. Therefore, participants may have showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser under low involvement conditions. This needs to further be explored and confirmed in future research.

In keeping with the visual cues of both the celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers in the advertisements, their respective facial expressions can be considered a legitimate reason for the variation in participant attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. The celebrity endorser possessed a more serious facial expression compared to the non-celebrity endorser who almost appeared to be smiling in the advertisement. Research by Laird (1974) indicated that a smile lead to greater positive evaluations of an image compared with a frown. The current study suspects potentially similar effects when comparing the celebrity and non-celebrity endorser. Perhaps under low involvement conditions the endorser who was smiling may have created a more positive perception towards the advertisement. The smile of the non-celebrity endorser may have also put the viewer in a positive mood compared to the celebrity endorser who might have appeared to have a more serious demeanour. Participants who perceived more positive advertisements and who were in a more positive mood would likely have produced greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand.

An alternative explanation to the physical appearance of the endorsers relates to media exposure of the celebrity athlete endorser. As described in chapter four, Daniel Carter and the All Blacks had just come off a rugby world cup championship win (September 2011). The

media attention surrounding the rugby world cup and the All Black rugby players was enormous. The media coverage for Daniel Carter especially heightened when his participation in the competition abruptly ended due to injury. As a key part of the team's success local and international media played close attention to his impact on the team. After winning the competition media attention turned towards Daniel's highly anticipated wedding to New Zealand women's hockey player Honor Dillard. From the build up to the rugby world cup to early 2012 national media coverage of Daniel Carter had been immense.

In retrospect the media attention of Daniel Carter may have been considered excessive to the New Zealand public. In a study by Danaher (1996) it was found that advertising exposure was only effective towards target markets up until a certain point. Diminishing returns for advertising occurred from over exposure of advertising for target audiences. The participants in the current research may have been able to easily identify Daniel Carter as a celebrity but they may have shown less positive attitudes towards the advertisement when exposed to the celebrity due to being tired of seeing Daniel Carter in the national media. Perhaps the face of someone unknown (non-celebrity endorser) would have provided a refreshing change for viewers. Therefore the non-celebrity endorser may have been preferred over the celebrity endorser leading to greater positive evaluations of the advertisement and the brand.

6.2.3 Hypothesis 3

In order to make cross-cultural comparisons between individualistic cultures and collectivistic cultures participants who were of Pasifika decent were included in the research sample. As examined in chapter four, Pasifika are highly collectivist and make decisions based on the opinions of others in the group, especially those whom they consider important (Tiatia, 1998). Even in situations of high involvement advertising source cues may be considered more important than the advertising message arguments which relate to the product. Evaluation of the endorser may take primacy over scrutiny of the advertising message arguments. Therefore the source of the message such as a celebrity endorser may be more persuasive even in high involvement situations. Of the few studies in the literature which have focussed on non-Western consumer behaviour, found that collectivists highly valued the source of the advertising message when evaluating advertisements (Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2001). Given the various Pasifika cultural values and the findings of previous studies which have compared Western and non-Western consumer behaviour, Pasifika

participant attitudes were expected to be highly influenced by ads which featured the celebrity athlete endorser.

Hypothesis three therefore predicted that consumers from highly collectivist cultures would be more influenced by the peripheral route to persuasion in both high and low involvement situations. The analysis was expected to show that Pasifika participants who were exposed to any advertisements which featured the celebrity athlete endorser would produce greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand compared with Pasifika participants who were exposed to advertisements which featured the non-celebrity endorser. This effect was expected to occur during high and low involvement situations.

In stark contrast to hypothesis three, completely opposite results were found from the analysis. Instead of the celebrity endorser producing positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand in high and low involvement situations the non-celebrity endorser caused this effect. Pasifika participants who were exposed to advertisements which featured the non-celebrity endorser showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand compared to those who were exposed to the same advertisements which featured the celebrity athlete endorser. This result was consistent for both high and low involvement situations. These surprising results prompted the development of a variety of potential explanations which follow.

Initial evaluation of the results led to the proposition that Pasifika participants may have preferred a celebrity endorser who was of similar ethnicity to themselves. Research by Deshpande & Stayman (1994) suggested that minority groups would be more responsive to advertising which featured advertising elements which were ethnically similar to the viewer. Endorsers who were of similar ethnic background were considered more likable and trustworthy. However, this may not fully explain the results of the current study as Pasifika participants showed greater positive attitudes when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser who was no more similar ethnically than Daniel Carter. In fact it could be argued that he was even less ethnically similar to the Pasifika participants than Daniel Carter. However, the research suggests that someone of high status such as a celebrity sports person may only have persuasive influence when they are ethnically similar to viewers. Typical traditional Pasifika behaviour often involves respect and obedience to those of high status within the in-group (Tiatia, 1998). For example, a celebrity sports endorser such as David Tua or Tana Umaga

who hold high status and great respect by the Pasifika community in New Zealand would elicit greater positive attitudes compared with a non-Pasifika celebrity endorser. Because the current study used a non-Pasifika celebrity sports endorser who would not be considered part of the in-group, Pasifika may have perceived little difference in authority or persuasive influence between Daniel Carter and the non-celebrity endorser. Therefore, other factors such as the physical attractiveness of the non-celebrity endorser may have produced greater positive attitudes towards the advertisements and the brand compared to the celebrity endorser.

Similar to the discussion earlier regarding explanations of hypothesis two, the same reason for the preference of the non-celebrity endorser during low involvement conditions can be applied for Pasifika participants. In low involvement situations consumers may use simple cues to determine their evaluation. Participants may have simply used attractiveness to determine attitudes. As mentioned earlier the likability of the endorser did not specifically address certain attributes. Therefore even though consumers may have liked Daniel Carter more, they may have considered the non-celebrity endorser more physically attractive. During situations of low involvement Pasifika may have used physical attractiveness as an obvious cue for evaluating the advertisement and the brand. Likewise the non-celebrity's smile may have also contributed to greater positive attitudes. The more positive demeanour of the non-celebrity endorser may likely have induced a more positive mood for the participants and thus more positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand would have been generated compared with those who were exposed to the celebrity endorser.

6.2.4 Summary of the research findings

This section discussed the findings of the current research. Overall the findings supported the introduction of perceived performance enhancement to positively influence consumer attitudes towards advertising and brands. Perceived performance enhancement combined elements of previous literature and was applied to advertisements which featured celebrity sports endorsers. Products which were perceived to have more of an enhancing effect on the sporting performance of the endorser compared with products which did not seem to have this effect proved to elicit greater positive consumer attitudes.

The research found that individualists were persuaded by argument quality across high and low involvement situations. Strong arguments in advertising led to greater positive attitudes

compared with weak advertising message arguments. It was also found that the type of endorser was preferred in different involvement situations. The celebrity endorser produced greater positive attitudes over the non-celebrity endorser in situations of high involvement. But in situations of low involvement the non-celebrity endorser was preferred. This preference in low involvement situations was unexpected. Nevertheless, explanations such as physical attractiveness, positive mood, and over exposure provide valid reasons for this outcome.

Furthermore, the research compared the behaviour of individualists with members of collectivists. Collectivists showed greater preference for the non-celebrity endorser over the celebrity endorser in both high and low involvement situations. Advertising which featured the non-celebrity endorser produced higher positive attitudes compared with advertisements which featured the celebrity athlete endorser. Some potential explanations were identified to explain these unexpected results. These included: celebrity endorser ethnicity and the physical attributes of the non-celebrity endorser.

6.3 Implications

While not all of the research hypotheses were confirmed interesting findings provide insightful theoretical and practical implications. From these findings this research proposes three theoretical and three practical implications. The following section addresses each one in further detail.

6.3.1 Theoretical implications

Firstly, in combining elements of existing celebrity endorsement theories in the literature the current study has been able to propose perceived performance enhancement as an independent variable that influences consumer's attitudes. Perceived performance enhancement may contribute towards developing and conceptualising the effect of celebrity athletes in advertising. Perceived performance enhancement as an independent variable affects consumer attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement advertising. Products which have high levels of perceived performance enhancement for a celebrity endorser's sporting performance produce greater positive attitudes compared with other products which may not be seen in this way when paired with the celebrity athlete endorser. This notion further adds to theoretical understanding of celebrity endorsement theories which promotes source credibility and match between product and endorser.

Perceived performance enhancement also lends support to theories in the literature which look at the meaning transfer process of celebrity endorsement. This describes the process of how meaning is transferred from society to the endorser, to the product and back to the consumer. Perceived performance enhancement of the endorser may also be coupled with perceived performance enhancement of the consumer (McCracken, 1989). Not only are products which are perceived to enhance the celebrities sporting performance related to positive consumer attitudes but products which are seen to enhance the sporting performance of the viewer also produce positive consumer attitudes. When these two components are high, positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand will be generated.

Perceived performance enhancement therefore classifies products under two distinct categories. Products may either be labelled relevant products or irrelevant products. Relevant products are those products which can be considered to have an enhancing effect on the celebrity athlete endorser's/consumer's sporting performance and irrelevant products are products which are considered to have little or no enhancing effect on the celebrity athlete endorser's/consumer's sporting performance. Subsequently researchers who wish to further explore the area of celebrity sports endorsement in advertising would need to consider relevant and irrelevant products and their level of perceived performance enhancement.

While perceived performance enhancement provided useful insight as to what product and celebrity endorser pairing may be successful in advertising this research encountered unexpected results which found that collectivist consumers preferred the non-celebrity in most situations compared with the celebrity endorser. Some explanations in the preceding section have been proposed which relate to dissimilarity of ethnicity of the celebrity endorser and physical attractiveness of the non-celebrity endorser. These findings indicate that the celebrity endorser while highly likable may not always produce positive consumer attitudes when featured in advertising. This has implications for academics researching the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement in advertising.

Rather than looking exclusively at the effect of the celebrity endorser on consumer attitudes, this research compared the effects of advertising which featured a celebrity endorser and a non-celebrity endorser. The influence of the non-celebrity endorser was significant in many situations. As a result, research needs to further consider investigating the effectiveness of anonymous models as endorsers in advertising. An understanding of their effects on

consumer attitudes may foster further development of celebrity endorsement advertising theory overall.

The third implication relates to the cross-cultural findings in the current study. Cultural orientation acted as a moderator variable for persuasion and its effect on consumer attitudes. As a moderator culture influenced the strength of the relationship between celebrity endorsement advertising and persuasion. Differences in individualism and collectivism were recognized to determine differences in persuasion and attitude towards celebrity endorsement advertising. Collectivist consumers evaluated advertising differently compared to individualists. Individualist consumers showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the celebrity endorser while collectivists showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity.

While discussion around why these results occurred has already taken place in the preceding sections, these findings have implications for researchers who further wish to investigate the area of persuasion. The current research offers an added dimension to the elaboration likelihood model. Advertising cues and their effect on persuasion are likely to influence consumers in different ways depending on cultural background. Researchers may need to be more aware of the cultural values which can influence consumer attitudes and behaviours. Specifically academic research in marketing needs to take into account the differences in Western and non-Western influences and how these may be different or similar, and how these influences may affect consumer behaviour. Further research findings in the area of persuasion may therefore need to clearly differentiate between persuasion effects on Western or non-Western consumers and how these can be generalised.

6.3.2 Practical implications

Firstly, practitioners such as marketing managers and advertising specialists in New Zealand need to consider perceived performance enhancement when planning to promote products in an advertising campaign that employs a celebrity athlete endorser. Advertisements which feature a celebrity endorser promoting a product that is perceived by consumers to enhance the endorser and the consumer's sporting performance are likely to produce higher positive attitudes compared with products which are seen to have less of an enhancing effect. It is therefore important that levels of perceived performance enhancement be taken into account

by practitioners when making decisions about promotion of certain products. This needs to be considered at the early stages of development of an advertising campaign.

Marketing managers may wish to promote relevant products rather than irrelevant products in celebrity sports endorsement advertising. Relevant products are likely to produce greater positive attitudes towards, the advertisement which can lead to greater likelihood of the consumer purchasing the advertised product. Additionally, advertising which features a celebrity athlete endorser and a relevant product are likely to produce positive attitudes towards the brand. Therefore, positive brand associations may lead to positive evaluations of subsequent other products of the same brand. This may lead to increased purchasing of the brand and potentially long term customer loyalty. Overall, the pairing of an athlete endorser with a relevant product which is perceived by consumers to have an enhancing effect on sporting performance should have a positive impact on sales.

Secondly, the current research provides useful insight for practitioners to decide whether they select celebrity athlete endorsers for their advertisements or non-celebrity endorsers. While the research found that the non-celebrity endorser was not as likable as the celebrity endorser, the non-celebrity endorser was still able to provide positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. Findings indicated that during low involvement situations the non-celebrity endorser was more effective than the celebrity endorser when the advertisements were viewed by individualists. However the non-celebrity endorser was effective in both high and low involvement situations when viewed by collectivist participants.

Based on these outcomes marketing managers may be able to strategically plan promotional campaigns which either incorporate a celebrity sports endorser or an anonymous model endorser, depending on the product they wish to promote and the type of segment they wish to target. Marketing managers may wish to bypass the use of celebrity athlete endorsers and employ anonymous models to endorse low involvement products such as bottled water, snack foods and toothpaste. This is likely to be effective when promoting low involvement products among both individualists and collectivist consumers due to the attractiveness of the endorser. However for promotion of high involvement products marketing managers may wish to utilise celebrity athlete endorsers for targeting individualists and anonymous endorsers to target collectivists.

Based on the findings both endorser types used to target their respective market segments in high involvement situations should produce positive attitudes which in turn should increase the likelihood of purchase. This implication allows companies to increase their sales while at the same time reduce their costs by offering a criteria for careful selection of endorsers. Here, potential risks associated with using a celebrity athlete endorser may be avoided where an anonymous model endorser may be used instead. The research provides practitioners with further understanding of celebrity endorsement and offers culture as an important consideration when selecting celebrities for advertising.

Borrowing from the above discussion further practical implication relating specifically to collectivist consumers can be offered. The research compared the responses of both Pakeha and Pasifika participants. Pakeha participants represented individualism while Pasifika participants represented collectivism. It was found that Pasifika showed more favourable evaluations towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to advertising which featured the non-celebrity endorser. This effect was encountered across both high and low involvement situations. The suggestion here is that Pasifika find advertisements which feature non-celebrity endorsers more persuasive compared with celebrities. For promotion of a variety of products or certain social issues that target Pasifika in New Zealand an anonymous endorser may be more effective. This has implications for those companies and government agencies within New Zealand who seek to target Pasifika who live in New Zealand.

6.4 Limitations of the research

The current study has a few limitations which need to be recognized. Firstly, the design of the online research questionnaire only allowed participants to evaluate the endorser on a single item. Attitudes towards the celebrity and the non-celebrity endorser were based on likability. Participants were simply asked to indicate their level of liking for the endorser. Had the measurement for attitudes towards the endorser included a number of different aspects that contributed to the likability of the endorser the analysis may have been better able to explain the unexpected research findings. For example, measures of attractiveness, or trustworthiness of the celebrity endorser would have provided specific reasons as to why greater positive attitudes were found for advertisements which featured the non-celebrity endorser.

Secondly, this research was primarily focussed on the construct of individualism and collectivism to make comparisons between cultures. The research does not account for any

differences in behaviour that could be related to other cross-cultural dimensions. Effects relating to power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity vs. femininity may have influenced the responses of the participants which belonged to the two contrasting cultures. These influences would be difficult to trace in the findings of the current research.

6.5 Future research suggestions

Based on this study a number of future research directions can be suggested. As far as this study is aware no other research has offered perceived performance enhancement as a variable to predict attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement. Therefore, due to the newness of this concept future research should test this concept. Further research which tests the effectiveness of perceived performance enhancement may be worthwhile in establishing the concept as a valid predictor of attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement. Perhaps a replication study that focuses only on the perceived performance enhancement aspect of the current research could be carried out in future. Future research could use different product categories and different endorser types to manipulate levels of perceived performance enhancement. Perhaps energy drinks could be compared with soft drinks to see which product would be more favourably evaluated when paired with a famous athlete endorser.

The demographic characteristics of the celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers used in the advertisements could also be changed for future research. Perhaps new research could present female rather than male endorsers or a combination of both. Future results will no doubt show intriguing results and may or may not validate the findings in the current study.

Secondly, future studies may wish to further explore the cross-cultural differences between New Zealand consumers by investigating the unexpected findings which have been described in this research. This could be achieved by utilizing celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers in advertising stimuli that are of different ethnicities. The current study compared the responses of Pakeha and Pasifika participants towards celebrity sports endorsement. However, both the celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers which featured in the survey material were Pakeha. Perhaps in future research endorsers may vary in terms of their celebrity (non-celebrity) status and also their ethnicity (being similar or different to viewers). Future research may decide that one celebrity and one non-celebrity endorser are Pakeha and one celebrity and one non-celebrity endorser are Pasifika. Based on the discussion of Pasifika culture in chapter three interesting results are likely to be found. Pasifika may show greater positive attitudes

towards celebrity sports endorsers who are of similar ethnicity to them compared with celebrity or non-celebrity endorsers who are of different ethnic backgrounds to themselves. Here, there is a high chance that endorser ethnicity may interact with consumer ethnicity when analysing consumer attitudes.

Thirdly, future studies may wish to limit the scope of the research by selecting a specific Pacific Island group to focus on. Future research may compare the attitudes of Pakeha participants with the attitudes of Samoans only. Future research may include Pakeha and Samoan celebrity and non-celebrity endorsers and could feature advertising copy in English for Pakeha participants and in Samoan language for Samoan participants. Having an advertisement with a celebrity endorser who is Samoan and reading the advertising copy in the Samoan language may produce more favourable attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand for Samoan viewers. This would be compared to Samoan viewers and Pakeha viewers evaluating advertisements which feature an ethnically different endorser and advertising copy in English.

6.6 Conclusion

The aim of the current study was to introduce a new theoretical framework for effective celebrity endorsement in consumer behaviour. The purpose of this was to test the effectiveness of celebrity sports endorsement advertising at influencing consumer attitudes in a number of different advertising situations. In addition, the current study aimed to explore cross-cultural differences of consumer persuasion from celebrity sports endorsement advertising. Review of the literature showed that combining elements of current source characteristic models provided development for perceived performance enhancement as an independent variable to predict consumer attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement advertising. The literature also highlighted the contrasting cultural values of New Zealand Pakeha and Pasifika people in terms of individualism and collectivism. Pasifika showed higher tendencies towards collectivism, whereas Pakeha showed lower collectivist tendencies.

From exploration of the literature it was proposed that advertisements which featured celebrity athletes endorsing products which were perceived to have an enhancing effect on their sporting performance would produce greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand compared with products which were seen to have less of an

enhancing effect. It was also proposed that Pakeha consumers would be more likely to show positive attitudes towards advertisements which featured strong advertising arguments regardless of the featured endorser during situations of high involvement and show positive attitudes towards advertisements which featured a celebrity endorser (regardless of the quality of advertising message arguments) in situations of low involvement. A third expectation, suggested that Pasifika consumers would show different persuasion behaviour. In both high and low involvement situations Pasifika consumers would show greater positive attitudes when exposed to advertising which featured a celebrity athlete endorser.

The results of the analysis found that higher levels of perceived performance enhancement led to greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand compared with products that were perceived to show lower levels of perceived performance enhancement. Analysis did not show statistical support for the two other research predictions. The non-celebrity endorser produced greater positive attitudes in low involvement situations for individualists. In both high and low involvement situations collectivists showed greater positive attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand when exposed to the non-celebrity endorser. While these results are unexpected, they provide valuable insights towards the cross-cultural differences in persuasion from celebrity sports endorsement advertising.

From a theoretical perspective the current research makes strong support for the introduction of perceived performance enhancement as a variable that can influence consumer attitudes towards celebrity sports endorsement advertising. Additionally, the study shows that researchers need to provide a space for the cultural aspects of consumer behaviour where differences in cultural values may determine differences in consumer responses to advertising.

From a practical standpoint, the research findings suggest that marketing and advertising practitioners need to consider levels of perceived performance enhancement when matching products with celebrity athlete endorsers. Furthermore, marketing and advertising practitioners in New Zealand need to consider the differences in consumer behaviour which exists between cultures. Specifically, when targeting Pasifika peoples, marketers may find it more effective to incorporate anonymous model endorsers rather than celebrity endorsers.

Overall, the current study offers further insight into celebrity sports endorsement in advertising. It suggests perceived performance enhancement as a predictor of consumer attitudes. The current study also offers insight into the differences in persuasion that occur from differences in cultural orientation and provides a foundation for further research into marketing to non-Western cultures, specifically Pasifika.

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Appendix A: Ethical approval form



M E M O R A N D U M

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

To: Jungkeun Kim
From: **Dr Rosemary Godbold** Executive Secretary, AUTEC
Date: 19 December 2011
Subject: Ethics Application Number 11/265 **A cross-cultural look at celebrity sports endorsement.**

Dear Jungkeun

I am pleased to advise that the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) approved your ethics application at their meeting on 10 October 2011, subject to the following conditions:

1. Provision of the evidence of consultation described in section B.9.2 of the application;
2. Amendment to the Information Sheet as follows:
 - a. Careful checking of the spelling and grammar;
Please see revised Information Sheet
 - b. Advice in the section title 'An Invitation' that participants may withdraw at any time up to the completion of the survey;
Please see revised Information Sheet
 - c. Alteration of the term 'Pacific Islanders' to either 'Pacific Peoples' or 'Pasifika' throughout the Information Sheet;
I have now used the term "Pasifika" instead of "Pacific Islanders" as recommended by AUTEC.
 - d. In the first sentence in the section about benefits changing the word 'will' to 'may'.

This has been changed. Please see revised Information Sheet.

AUTEC advises the researcher and yourself that the response to point 10 in their memo dated 28 November 2011 is incorrect and that copyright legislation does apply to the use of material for academic research, even though there are some special provisions.

I request that you provide me with a written response to the points raised in these conditions at your earliest convenience, indicating either how you have satisfied these points or proposing an alternative approach. AUTEC also requires written evidence of any altered documents, such as Information Sheets, surveys etc. Once this response and its supporting written evidence has been received and confirmed as satisfying the Committee's points, you will be notified of the full approval of your ethics application.

When approval has been given subject to conditions, full approval is not effective until *all* the concerns expressed in the conditions have been met to the satisfaction of the Committee. Data collection may not commence until full approval has been confirmed. Should these conditions not be satisfactorily met within six months, your application may be closed and

you will need to submit a new application should you wish to continue with this research project.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, we ask that you use the application number and study title in all written and verbal correspondence with us. Should you have any further enquiries regarding this matter, you are welcome to contact me by email at ethics@aut.ac.nz or by telephone on 921 9999 at extension 6902. Alternatively you may contact your AUTEK Faculty Representative (a list with contact details may be found at <http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/research-ethics/ethics>).

Yours sincerely

Dr Rosemary Godbold

Executive Secretary

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: James Anthony Lee Edmund Culbreath jalec14@gmail.com

Appendix B: Survey questionnaire sample



Consumer Attitudes Toward Celebrity Endorsement Questionnaire

Please note:

- By completing this questionnaire, you are indicating your consent to participate in this research.
- Please be assured your identity will be kept anonymous for this survey questionnaire.
- The scenarios featured in this survey are hypothetical only.

The purpose of this study is to examine your preferences in a variety of situations. This study consists of several different decision problems. Note that your responses are anonymous and that there are no right or wrong answers. You do not need to answer any question you do not wish to.

Thank you for choosing to participate in this study.

Participant Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:
12 November 2011

Project Title
A Cross-cultural look at Celebrity Sports Endorsement

An Invitation

My name is James Culbreath, I am postgraduate student in the School of Marketing and Advertising at AUT University. I invite you to participate in my research, "A Cross-cultural Look at Celebrity Sports Endorsement." This research will contribute as partial credit towards my completion of my Master of Business qualification. Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary. You may withdraw at any time up to the completion of the survey.

What is the purpose of this research?

The research seeks to understand differences in consumer responses to advertising. Specifically, the research will address under what situation(s) do consumer perceptions of athlete performance enhancement through an endorsed product affect consumer attitudes toward an ad? Also how does persuasion differ in terms of culture for ads which feature sports celebrity endorsers?

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You have been invited to participate in this research as you are of Pacifika (or New Zealand European cultural upbringing and ethnicity). This research will explore potential differences in responses to advertising across two dissimilar cultures, namely Pacifika culture and Pakeha culture. If you are of neither culture you cannot participate. You will need to be 18 yrs or over to participate.

What will happen in this research?

The research involves a 20-30 minute online survey. You will be asked to read the instructions and respond to each question. Consent for participation in this research will be indicated by completion of the survey questionnaire.

What are the discomforts and risks?

Minimal discomfort or risk is expected for any participant as identities will be kept anonymous. All care will be taken to protect your privacy and the commercial sensitivity of information given. Risk may be perceived in the time that is given up to complete the 20-30 minute survey.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

You may discontinue involvement in this research at anytime.

What are the benefits?

This research may add to theoretical knowledge about consumer attitudes towards advertising. Participants may enjoy the opportunity to participate in an academic research project which will contribute to my Master of Business qualification.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

You will be given three weeks to consider this invitation.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Completion of the survey will be taken as indicating consent to participate in this study.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

A copy of the summarized results of this research will be accessible online at

<https://sites.google.com/site/celebritysportsendorsement/home>

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Dr Jungkeun Kim, jungkeun.kim@aut.ac.nz, phone 09-921-9999 (ext 5091).

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary, AUTEK, Dr Rosemary Godbold, rosemary.godbold@aut.ac.nz, 921 9999 ext 6902.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Researcher Contact Details:

James Culbreath, james.culbreath@aut.ac.nz, phone 027-611-1231

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Dr Jungkeun Kim, jungkeun.kim@aut.ac.nz, phone 09-921-9999 (ext 5091).

1. Please think carefully about your own behaviour and indicate which number on each scale describes you best.

	1: Doesn't describe me at all	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9: Best describes me
Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The well-being of my co-workers is important to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To me, pleasure is spending time with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel good when I cooperate with others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

2. (Following on from Question 1)

Please think carefully about your own behaviour and indicate which number on each scale describes you best.

	1: Doesn't describe me at all	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9: Describes me best
It is important that I do my job better than others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Winning is everything.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Competition is the law of nature.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When another person does better than I do, I get tense.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I'd rather depend on myself than others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often do "my own thing."	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

High Involvement manipulation statement

PLEASE READ CAREFULLY

The main purpose of this study is to evaluate new running shoes.

We are surveying a very small sample of consumers in the main regions of the North Island of New Zealand (these include Auckland, Hamilton and Wellington) on behalf of the manufacturer. This is to gain insight about the new running shoes to be launched in the North Island (and later, in other parts of New Zealand). Every single person's opinion is therefore VERY important. Your opinions will weigh heavily on the launch of these shoes.

The new running shoes will soon be available in your local area. Therefore, please PAY ATTENTION to the following advertisement of the new running shoes as if you were actually thinking about purchasing this product.

Low Involvement manipulation statement

PLEASE READ CAREFULLY

The main purpose of this study is to evaluate new running shoes.

We are surveying a very large sample of consumers across New Zealand and Australia on behalf of the manufacturer. This is to gain insight about the new sports shoes to be launched in Australia. Every single person's opinion will be collected together to form an overall picture. Your opinion will NOT weigh heavily on the launch of these shoes.

The new running shoes will NOT be available in your local area, however please pay attention to the advertisement as if you were actually thinking about purchasing this product.

Celebrity endorser x Strong arguments

Introducing

ZOOM

Running Shoes

Scientifically engineered to prevent ankle sprains

20% lighter than most other running shoes

Inner sole moulds to the shape of your foot

Comes in a range of attractive colours to suit you

Guaranteed to improve performance

visit www.zoomrunning.co.nz

Celebrity endorser x Weak arguments

Introducing

ZOOM

Running Shoes

Designed to minimise injury

Similar weight as most other running shoes

Built with comfort in mind

Comes in two colours

May contribute to improved performance

visit www.zoomrunning.co.nz

Non-celebrity endorser x Strong arguments Non-celebrity endorser x Weak arguments

Introducing

ZOOM

Running Shoes

Scientifically engineered to prevent ankle sprains

20% lighter than most other running shoes

Inner sole moulds to the shape of your foot

Comes in a range of attractive colours to suit you

Guaranteed to improve performance

visit www.zoomrunning.co.nz

Introducing

ZOOM

Running Shoes

Designed to minimise injury

Similar weight as most other running shoes

Built with comfort in mind

Comes in two colours

May contribute to improved performance

visit www.zoomrunning.co.nz

3. Please rate your overall impression of the brand (ZOOM).

-5 = Bad, 5 = Good,

-5 = Unsatisfactory, 5 = Satisfactory,

-5 = Unfavourable, 5 = Favourable

	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
Bad/Good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unsatisfactory/Satisfactory	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unfavourable/Favourable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4. How likely are you to purchase the item advertised next time you need a product of this nature?

	-5: I definitely would NOT Buy it	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5: I definitely would Buy it
Your Purchase Intention	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

5. Please rate your overall impression of the advertisement.

-5 = Bad, 5 = Good,

-5 = Unsatisfactory, 5 = Satisfactory,

-5 = Unfavourable, 5 = Favourable

	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
Bad/Good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unsatisfactory/Satisfactory	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Unfavourable/Favourable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. Rate the extent to which you liked the endorser in the advertisement for running shoes.

	-5: Liked very little	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5: Liked very much
Endorser Likability	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. Can you give the name of the person endorsing the advertisement for running shoes? If "Yes" please state.

No

Yes

(please specify)

8. Rate the 5 reasons as described in the advertisement for running shoes in terms of their persuasiveness. (For example: "Scientifically engineered to prevent ankle sprains.")

	-5: Not very Persuasive	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5: Very Persuasive
Persuasiveness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9. How would you rate the impact of this product on the endorser's sporting performance?

	-5: Reduces Sporting Performance	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5: Enhances Sporting Performance
Product Impact	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. How would you rate the impact of this product on your sporting performance?

	-5: Reduces Sporting Performance	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5: Enhances Sporting Performance
Product Impact	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. Please rate the likelihood that this product will be launched in your area.

	-5: Not very Likely	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5: Very Likely
Likelihood of Launch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

12. Please indicate your Age.

13. Please indicate your Gender:

Female

Male

14. Please indicate your Ethnicity.

- New Zealander/Kiwi/NZ European
- Cook Island
- Fijian
- Niuean
- Samoan
- Tahitian
- Tongan
- Tuvaluan
- Other (Pacific Island)

Thank you very much for your participation.

Prev

Done

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