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From Products to Politics: Understanding the Effectiveness of a Celebrity Political Endorsement

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FROM PRODUCTS TO POLITICS: UNDERSTANDING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A
CELEBRITY POLITICAL ENDORSEMENT

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When it came time to write my acknowledgements, I scoured the Internet for a how-to type template, something I could fill in the blanks and magically have a well-written acknowledgments section to preface this dissertation. I didn't find it. It is not that I didn't want to write this section, but rather, I doubted my own ability to succinctly thank and acknowledge all of the people who have stood beside me, helped me up each time I've fallen, and lifted me to the place I am today. How can I summarize my gratitude to these people in a page or two?

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ABSTRACT

From Scott Baio's endorsement of Donald Trump to Sarah Silverman's endorsement of Bernie Sanders and subsequent rejection of the "Bernie or Bust" crowd at the DNC, celebrities have habitually inserted themselves into the political sphere, however, there has been little empirical research on celebrity endorsements of political candidates.

Rooted in branding theory, this study seeks to understand the effectiveness of celebrity political endorsements by utilizing advertising effectiveness models. The primary model, derived from work done by Amos, Holmes, and Strutton (2008), translates source factors of a celebrity product endorser to those of a celebrity candidate endorser, such as credibility, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. While in traditional advertising research, effectiveness is measured by outcomes such as brand attitude, and intention for product purchase, this study defines effectiveness in terms of attitudes toward the candidate, endorsement believability, recognition, and willingness to engage in electoral and online civic behaviors.

After providing demographic information and information about digital media use and partisanship, participants were provided with a social media post, allegedly from a famous actor, endorsing a fictitious candidate and were asked to rate the actor on 21 attributes of a good endorser (source factors) and answer questions relating to their identification with the celebrity, perceptions of the celebrity-candidate fit, and their perceptions of the candidate's viability in the election. They were subsequently asked to evaluate the candidate, the endorsement's believability, recognize information from the endorsement, and indicate how likely they were to perform nine civic behaviors for the candidate.

The data suggest that the endorser effectiveness model used by advertising researchers is useful for understanding the source factors and other considerations upon which celebrity

political endorsement effectiveness is predicated. The study found that source factors vary in

effectiveness between attitude, cognitive, and behavioral measures, leading to the conclusion that

celebrity endorsers with different characteristics may be useful to political campaigns depending

upon desired voter outcomes, particularly with regard to time during a campaign cycle.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Since the dawn of cinema, the relationship between Hollywood and Washington has been an intricate one. This dissertation seeks to further understand the nuanced relationship between celebrities and politicians through an empirical study of a celebrity political endorsement. Several researchers have expressed the need for more investigation into celebrity politics in general and celebrity political endorsements alike (Brubaker, 2011; Nownes, 2012; Street, 2004, 2012; Veer, Becirovic, & Martin, 2010). While the roots of celebrity politics can be traced to at least the 1920s, today's always-fast, always-on media environment has changed both the way people get information, and how they process that information (G. Johnson, 2006, p. 387; Wellman & Haythornthwaite, 2008). Once relegated to the whims of traditional media and the power of their press agents, through social media, any celebrity can engage in publicly visible political discussion and activity. While celebrities have used their status to promote candidates and add to fundraising efforts in the past, the ubiquity of social media created a new way for celebrities to support candidates, to the extent that nearly 20% of celebrity Blog posts contained political messages (Burns, 2009, p. 50). Political social media posts from celebrities have become newsworthy in their own right (Michaels, 2015). Beyond examining the effectiveness of a celebrity political endorsement, this dissertation also aims to investigate the role of a celebrity social media post in opinion formation.

From studio owners trying to reap massive profits, to movie stars turned politicians, from politicians learning how to look "presidential" for the camera to films and television series centering around the oval office, the business of being a celebrity and the business of being a politician have increasingly become fundamentally linked (Boorstin, 1992; Ross, 2011). Technology shifts over the past century have served to exacerbate the link between celebrities

and politicians. Television, for instance, transformed the entire dynamic of the presidential debates. In 1960, the first televised presidential debates ushered in a new era in which public image and media attention garnered increasing influence. In contrast to the radio broadcast of the debate, "Nixon… suffered a handicap that was serious only on television: he has a light, naturally transparent skin… This camera penetrates Nixon's skin and brings out (even just after a shave) the tiniest hair growing in the follicles beneath the surface… He, therefore, looked haggard and heavy-bearded by contrast to Kennedy, who looked pert and clean-cut" (Boorstin, 1992, p. 43). Just as McLuhan (1964) would go on to state, the medium was the message, with radio debate listeners reporting that Nixon won, while television debate viewers reported that Kennedy won .

The relationship between movie stars and politics is a nearly century-old tradition in the United States (Ross, 2011). The early relationship between Hollywood and Washington was often a strained one. In 1918, William J. Burns and upcoming leader, J. Edgar Hoover, of the Bureau of Investigations, later the FBI, worried so strongly that movie stars could affect the public's political views that they kept surveillance on Hollywood actors and actresses who they deemed to be radicals (Murray, 1955; Ross, 2011, p. 3). Just two years later in 1920, several Hollywood stars of the time, Douglas Fairbanks, Al Jolson, Mary Pickford, and Lillian Russell supported Warren G. Harding in his presidential campaign against James M. Cox (Pease & Brewer, 2008). As the studio system developed in Los Angeles and "Hollywood" was being "born," large studio owners such as Louis B. Mayer of Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer sought influence in politics to better meet the needs of the industry and for financial gain (Ross, 2011, p. 6). "Mayer was responsible for bringing the Republican Party to Hollywood and Hollywood to the Republican Party" (p. 7). Mayer taught Republican candidates how to be more effective in radio,

how to display showmanship in conventions, and began the use of "dirty tricks" in campaigns by creating a fake newsreel against the Democrat, Upton Sinclair in his 1934 gubernatorial race.

Hollywood moguls continued to be the voice of Hollywood in Washington through the 1920s, but following the Great Depression and Roosevelt's election in 1932, stars began to become active in politics. Movie stars used their fame to draw attention to issues that the general public turned a blind eye to, such as Hitler's atrocities and fascism in Europe. Movie stars like Edward G. Robinson, Gene Kelly, and Melvyn Douglas also participated in fundraising and bankrolling progressive causes (Ross, 2011).

Pervasive anticommunist doctrine has permeated American politics since the late 19th century (Heale, 1998). However, in the 1930s, and more prevalently, following World War II, both Washington and Hollywood publicly feared communist penetration of the film industry (Pontikes, Negro, & Rao, 2010). This era, coined the "Red Scare," was marked by "as a widespread series of actions by individuals and groups whose intentions were to frighten Americans with false and highly exaggerated charges of Communist subversion for the purpose of political, economic, and psychological profit" (Carleton, 1987, p. 13). "Red Scare" politics, in particular those tactics associated primarily with Senator Joseph McCarthy, involved "publicly branding hundreds of organizations as communistic" and harassing "those unfortunate enough to be 'named as Communists'" (Heale, 1998, p. 11).

This perceived ideological threat from Moscow led to a series of committees and trials as Washington declared an unofficial ideological war on Hollywood's left, launching the now notorious House Un-American Activities Committee, ("House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC)," 2013; Pontikes et al., 2010; Ross, 2011). Provisionally created in 1938, and made permanent in 1945, the HUAC, famously conducted a probe of Hollywood in 1947,

resulting in the imprisonment of the Hollywood Ten, a group of screenwriters and directors who stood up against McCarthyism and were blacklisted from studios due to their political statements (Heale, 1998). During this era, about 300 entertainers were singled out as communists, essentially destroying their careers, and negatively effecting even those entertainers with whom they had worked in the past (Pontikes et al., 2010). Persecution of Hollywood's far left as a reaction to the New Deal also gave rise back to the Hollywood right, led by George Murphy and Ronald Reagan (Heale, 1998; Ross, 2011).

As the "Red Scare" subsided, Hollywood's left re-emerged, with stars such as Harry Belafonte and Jane Fonda innovatively fighting for civil rights, the Vietnam anti-war cause, and economic democracy. Charlton Heston, "who began his political life on the left and gravitated toward the right" (Ross, 2011, p. 9) served as an interesting example of image and cinematic persona transferring from the screen to a person's public persona. Heston's roles, such as Moses, John the Baptist, Marc Antony, Thomas Jefferson, and Andrew Jackson, allowed him to create a public persona so strong that he regularly used it to validate his expertise as a political spokesman ("Charlton Heston biography," n.d.; Ross, 2011). More recently, politicians and popular culture have come into conflict. George H. W. Bush attacked the TV family, *The Simpsons*, and his vice president, Dan Quayle engaged in a media "war" with a fictional reporter, *Murphy Brown* (Jackson & Darrow, 2005).

Popular culture and politics have also worked collaboratively, as is evidenced by the growing number of celebrity endorsements of politicians, particularly presidential candidates, on both sides of the aisle (Pease & Brewer, 2008). The 2008 and 2012 presidential election cycles saw a huge number of both wanted and unwanted endorsements of candidates, from Bill Nye the Science Guy to adult film star Jenna Jameson, it seemed that anyone who was anyone had a

political message to send to the American voters (K. A. Lee, 2012; McDevitt, 2012). While some politicians are resistant to technology, most have embraced new media technology to some degree (French, 2015). Recognizing the White House's need for new media integration, President Obama, who maintains a social media presence, created a new positions in 2015 for Chief Digital Officer (Reuters, 2015). Through social media use, popular culture and politics have become linked. In 2008, nearly 50 years after the first televised debates, the presidential debates were presented as a joint effort between CNN and YouTube (McKinney & Rill, 2009; Ricke, 2010).

While "historians trace the role of celebrities in politics to the 1920 presidential campaign," there is a dearth of literature on the topic, with the bulk of the extent research having been done in the past decade (Garthwaite & Moore, 2013, p. 355). Celebrity politics is an area in both mass communication and political science that is ripe with possibilities for exploration (Nownes, 2012). In 1961, as television rose as a medium, Boorstin (1992) defined the modern celebrity as "a person who is known for his well-knownness" (p. 57). While Boorstin's interpretation of a celebrity may seem paradoxical, in the new modernity of social media and reality TV, American society has qualified that statement using such phrases as "famous for being famous," professional celebrity, *celebutante*, and *famesque* to describe someone whom one perceives to have gained celebrity status though lacking an identifiable talent (Argetsinger, 2009; "Celebutante," 2015; "Professional Celebrity," 2006).

Why Celebrities Matter

Tiger Woods, Michael Jackson, and Britney Spears might seem to have little in common with one another, but they have been among the most well-known people in the United States (J. Jones & Carroll, 2007; J. Jones & Moore, 2003; J. Jones & Saad, 2013). Their notoriety far

exceeds that of traditionally newsworthy political players like John Boehner, Harry Reid, Nancy Pelosi, or even Pope Francis (J. Jones & Saad, 2013). While different celebrities attain various levels of notoriety in a culture, often denoted by what level they have attained, either formally or informally, on the *Ulmer Scale*, "A survey that ranks on a scale of 1 to 100 the influence of more than 1,400 actors worldwide to generate movie financing," their pervasiveness in society is particularly noteworthy (Treme, 2010; Ulmer, 2014; "Ulmer Scale," 2015). The *Ulmer Scale* categorizes celebrities by their "list" level, such as "A-list," "B-list," and so on, terms which have pervaded American culture, both when referring to traditional celebrities and more recently, new types of celebrities such as Bloggers (Trammell & Keshelashvili, 2005; Ulmer, 2000). The list can also extend to "D-list," or "the famous faces you know, but can't remember why you know them" (Blalock, 2014). "D-list" celebrities, a term popularized by comedian Kathy Griffin and her show *My Life on the D List*, are low in bankability as Ulmer calls it ("Kathy Griffin My Life on the D List," n.d.).

Through interviews with "the world's leading producers, distributors, buyers, sellers, executives, agents, directors – and stars, too," Ulmer (2000) developed a 100-point index of "star power" comparable to sports performance scoring (p. 4). Star power, or bankability differs from box office numbers in that it assesses a star's risk before the cameras roll. In other words, star power refers to the extent to which "an actor's name alone [is] able to raise 100 percent financing to make a major feature film" (Ulmer, 2000, p. 5). While the most critical factor influencing star power is bankability, it is also a function of four additional power factors: 1) willingness to travel/promote, 2) professionalism, 3) career management, and 4) talent (p. 10). From the 100-point index, stars are then assigned a level, A+, A, B+, B, C, and the recently

added D-list (Ulmer, 2000, p. 5; 2014), published annually for professionals as "The Hot List" (Ulmer, 2000, p. 6).

While the Ulmer Scale primarily targets Hollywood professionals, the construct of celebrities attaining a certain letter on an informal list of celebrity is a popular one in American culture. Merriam-Webster defines the A-list as, "a list or group of individuals of the highest level of society, excellence, or eminence," while the B-list is merely "a list or group of individuals who are prominent but not important or popular enough to be on the a-list" (A-List, 2015; "B-List," 2015). The act of ranking celebrities, particularly actors, by their level of celebrity is prevalent in media. In addition to the Ulmer Scale, used by studio professionals, popular media outlets often rank celebrities by whom has the most celebrity. These lists include *Forbes'* list of "The World's Most Powerful Celebrities," *IMDb*'s "STARmeter," *People's* "Top 25 Celebrity Hot List," and Nash Information Systems' multiple celebrity and movie indexes. Popular culture consumers are intrigued by ranking celebrities, as evidenced by frequent list making by media organizations and their consumers alike.

Even a *C-list* celebrity, or "that guy (or sometimes that girl), the easy-to-remember but hard-to-name character actor" can have an important influence on consumers (Podolsky, 2000). Ultimately, individuals know a lot and talk a lot about the lives and careers of people most have never met. D'Onofrio (2013) found that the most talked about topics on Facebook in 2013 included several celebrities (the Royal Baby, Kim Kardashian, Miley Cyrus, and James Gandolfini) as well as celebrity events (the Super Bowl and NBA Finals). Similarly, 2014's most talked about topics again included celebrities such as Robin Williams, and celebrity events such as the Super Bowl and the World Cup (Cameron, Newman, & Yang, 2014). Though not overtly celebrity in nature, the fifth most popular topic of 2014, the Ice Bucket Challenge, was

dominated by the consumption of videos of celebrities such as Will Smith, Shakira, and Lady Gaga dumping buckets of ice water on themselves (Cameron et al., 2014).

Celebrities are powerful. Their power does not manifest in an overt manner such as the power of a political body, but rather it "operates at the very center of culture as it resonates with conceptions of individuality that are the ideological ground of Western culture" (Marshall, 1997, p. x). Beyond their ability to shape popular culture, celebrities also serve as a living embodiment of capitalism's consumer culture (Boorstin, 1992; Marshall, 1997). For better or worse, celebrities are currency. Money, along with power, serves as a method of influencing others to behave in politically and socially desirable ways (Baldwin, 1971; Parsons, 1963).

Beyond their normal vocations through which celebrities make a living, their often-hefty salaries for films, television shows, sports careers, and music performances, celebrities permeate capitalism in other ways. The celebrity gossip website turned television show, *TMZ*, which capitalizes on celebrity faux pas, scandal, and oftentimes the banally newsworthy, transformed itself from a small website less than a decade ago to a $55 million brand (Albiniak, 2013). The *TMZ* brand continues to expand with new shows, celebrity tours in New York and Los Angeles, and even a musical (Albiniak, 2013). *TMZ*'s competitor, *Entertainment Tonight*, boasts an average viewership over five million per episode, while entertainment news program *Inside Edition* averages a little over four million viewers (Albiniak, 2013; Nielsen, 2014).

Beyond large celebrity gossip media outlets, Perez Hilton, a Hollywood-based celebrity news Blogger with over 300 million page views per month, has an estimated net worth above $30 million, earning about $3,500 a day from banner advertisements on *perezhilton.com* ("Bio - Who is Perez Hilton?," 2015; Milford, 2013; "Perez Hilton Net Worth," 2014). According to *Amazon*'s web traffic analysis database, *ALEXA* (*Actionable Analytics for the Web*),

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perezhilton.com is slightly more popular than the political news website *politico.com*, both in the United States, ranked 459 and 461 respectively, and globally, ranked 1335 and 1612 respectively ("Competitive Intelligence," n.d.).

People have a vested interest in all things celebrity, and firms have taken note of this phenomenon with their advertising budgets. *Forbes* contributor Scott Goodson (2013) summarizes the influence of celebrities in advertising by noting advertisers' need for a celebrity spokespersons to gain credibility for their products:

> We've reached a point, it seems, where you probably couldn't hope to sell anything unless it's connected in some way to some piece of some celebrity. Seriously. You could invent a machine that can convert water into wine, but unless you have Robert Downey Jr. to say it works, it might very well just sit in the garage covered in spider webs.

While the idea of using celebrity endorsers is not new, the methods by which celebrities endorse have changed substantially. Additionally, the sheer volume of media of which individuals have to attend to such endorsements has also grown exponentially.

Organization of Chapters

Several academics have called upon researchers to conduct scholarly inquiry of celebrity political endorsements (Brubaker, 2011; Nownes, 2012; Street, 2004, 2012; Veer, Becirovic, & Martin, 2010). While it is clear that celebrity political endorsement is happening, we still know little about the effects and mechanisms through which those effects may be produced. This project seeks to explore the role of a celebrity candidate endorsement in an election through a quasi-experimental manipulation. Chapter II begins by defining and explaining endorsements and building a foundation for the following chapters and then explores the concept of celebrity and conceptualizes the broad term. Finally, Chapter II synthesizes these concepts and investigates the more traditional role of celebrity endorsement in commercial advertising.

Chapter III provides an overview of political participation and civic engagement along with motivations for performing civically or politically-minded actions. Chapter IV explores non-traditional celebrity endorsements, those endorsements that celebrities make that are not for commercial goods, but rather for political ends – political parties or political candidates. Chapter V questions underlying assumptions of this research and previous literature, can a person being endorsed be treated as a brand? What are the motivations for a celebrity endorsing a politician? What motivates a politician to seek endorsement from a celebrity? Detailed explanation of the methods is included in Chapter VI, with the findings presented in Chapter VII. Finally, Chapter VIII covers the implications of the findings of the study as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II: TRADITIONAL CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENTS

Types of Endorsements

In its simplest form, an endorsement is an act of signifying one's approval or support to a person or object publicly ("Endorsement," 2015). Endorsement objects (or endorsees) can include many types of items and constructs such as brands, products, ideologies, laws, and even people, such as politicians. They may come from a variety of sources (or endorsers): celebrities, media, spokespeople, experts, or even the perpetuator or creator of the endorsee, such as a company's CEO.

Endorsements can be categorized effectively by looking at two main attributes: 1) who is doing the endorsing (endorser), or 2) what or who is being endorsed (endorsee). A survey of the literature revealed several categories into which each may fall. The extent research looks at the endorser as a) a celebrity spokesperson, b) a non-celebrity spokesperson, c) an expert, d) a media entity, e) a brand or company, f) another organization, and g) a product user. The product user category includes both third-party endorsements and testimonials.

Reviewing the literature also reveals the endorsee as 1) a brand or product, 2) an ideology, policy, or law, 3) a person, or 4) an organization (Appiah, 2007; Biswas, Biswas, & Das, 2006; D'Alessandro & Chitty, 2011; Fedler, Smith, & Counts, 1985; Grazin & Brazell, 1997; Hain, 1975; Holbert, Shah, & Kwak, 2004; Howes & Sallot, 2013; Hurd & Singletary, 1984; Riesz & Shuchman, 1974; Roshwalb & Resnicoff, 1971; Ryu, Park, & Feick, 2006; Scarrow & Borman, 1979; Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2009; Summary, 2010; Wang & Muehling, 2012; Weaver-Lariscy & Tinkham, 1991; Westover & Randle, 2009; Woo, Fock, & Hui, 2006). The rest of this section is organized based upon this typology with a summary of overall findings following the review.

Non-celebrity Spokesperson Endorser and Brands/Products

One of the most commonly studied endorsement combinations is the non-celebrity spokesperson for a brand or product. These studies primarily focused on the moderating role of endorser characteristics, including body shape/weight (D'Alessandro & Chitty, 2011; Westover & Randle, 2009) and the endorser's ethnic or racial background (D'Alessandro & Chitty, 2011; Ryu et al., 2006; Sierra et al., 2009) on the relationship between endorsement and effectiveness measures.

Experimentally, D'Alessandro and Chitty (2011) found that thinner spokespersons performed best, while Westover and Randle (2009) found that thin models did not outperform larger models on all dependent measures of effectiveness. A heavier endorser was particularly effective and perceived more positively than a thinner model in non-diet soda advertising as compared to diet soda, as there was a greater perceived fit between a heavier model and non-diet soda. Conversely, a thinner model was perceived to have more expertise than the heavier model with regard to diet soda. Ryu et al. (2006) found that a mismatch between an endorser's national origin and the country of origin of a product had the best results for advertisers, hypothesizing that schema incongruity may be the underlying mechanism. Understanding endorser ethnicity through a lens of Social Identity Theory, Sierra et al. (2009) found that ethnic identification of the consumer with the endorser led to increased purchase intentions.

Expert Endorser and Brands/Products

Expert endorsers are often used to transfer credibility from the source to the product, such as Michael Jordan's advertisements for Nike. Expert endorsers are most useful in situations where a product is highly technical (Biswas et al., 2006) or when consumers are already familiar with or are users of other products within the product's category (Riesz & Shuchman, 1974;

Wang, 2005). Technical products draw credibility from expert endorsements when consumers have low knowledge and can be more influenced by a perceived expert. They may also draw upon the credibility of past endorsers in the product category (Wang, 2005). Consumers with low levels of education or knowledge are more likely to be influenced by expert endorsers (Biswas et al., 2006; Riesz & Shuchman, 1974). The influence of expert endorsers, however, is mitigated by prior product interest (Wang, 2005), indicating that familiarity with a product is more important than who advertises for it.

Media Entity Endorser and Person (Politician)

"When newspapers endorse they take sides, and endorsements usually come at critical times in the campaign. Endorsements are a conscious political act" (Ansolabehere, Lessem, & Snyder Jr, 2006, p. 2). Simultaneously, politicians often seek media endorsements as one of the few ways they can gain campaign exposure at no cost (Weaver-Lariscy & Tinkham, 1991). In local races, politicians, particularly incumbents are often friendly or acquainted with editors, giving them indirect negotiating power in obtaining endorsements (Ragland, 1987; St. Dizier, 1986).

Because research of newspaper endorsements effects on candidates occurs in a natural experiment setting, it is difficult to isolate the endorsement as a key factor contributing to voting for the candidate, although the existing research suggests that newspaper endorsements can move an election 1 to 5 percentage points (Ansolabehere et al., 2006). When it comes to voting, researchers agree that in order to consider the influence of a media entity's endorsement, consumers must have at bare minimum awareness or recall of the endorsement (Fedler et al., 1985; Hain, 1975; Hurd & Singletary, 1984; Roshwalb & Resnicoff, 1971; Scarrow & Borman, 1979; Summary, 2010). After controlling for other variables that affect voting such as party

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identification (Ragland, 1987; Scarrow & Borman, 1979), candidate selection process (Summary, 2010), campaign momentum (Summary, 2010), campaign appearance frequency (Summary, 2010; Weaver-Lariscy & Tinkham, 1991), newspaper endorsements appear to have a marginal, but significant effect on election outcomes.

Product User Endorser and Brands/Products

Product user endorsers, or third-party endorsers, are consumers who have already tried the product. Their endorsement carries the connotation that if they liked it, other consumers should too. Third-party endorsers are generally more effective than other types of endorsers, as consumers believe them to be more credible sources (Howes & Sallot, 2013; Wang, 2005). Consumers place more stake in reviews that are well-written and report higher purchase intentions for products with more reviews (Park, Lee, & Han, 2007). Race also influences the effectiveness of third-party endorsers, at least for black consumers who had no higher evaluations of a product with a white testimonial than they did with no testimonial at all due to a lack of identification (Appiah, 2007).

Third-party endorsements also have a larger pay off for underdog or less popular brands than they do for category leaders, as consumers search for information that "proves" advertising claims (Wang & Muehling, 2012). Overall, third-party endorsers are often more useful for brands than any other endorser. In a new media environment, they also have potential to devastate a brand when a product-user posts negative information online, with high-involvement individuals particularly influenced by high quality negative reviews (J. Lee, Park, & Han, 2008).

Product User Endorser and Ideology/Policy

There is little research on how product-users influence the adoption of ideology and policy. Grazin and Brazell (1997) suggest that the process relies upon an interconnected set of

ideological agreements that theoretically precede the ideological target. Holbert et al. (2004)

also identify theoretically connected constructs that must precede the ideological target, as well

as cognitive factors such as fear.

Organization Endorser and Brand/Product

Tying a well-liked organization's name to a product capitalizes on individuals' goodwill

toward the organization (Woo et al., 2006). Transfer of positive attitude from a liked

organization increases both beliefs about and attitude toward about the product endorsed by the

organization, in turn, increasing intention to use the product. Because of the positive multi-

directional relationships, Woo et al. (2006) consider these types of situations, particularly in

reference to affinity cards as the product, as "win-win-win" situations for all parties involved (p.

110).

Similarly, in political campaigns, politicians often tie themselves to other politicians who

exert great influence though they are not in the running for the office themselves. These

kingmaker politicians may include previous primary competitors, high-profile politicians in other

offices, or politicians of the same party as part of a coalition, often used to appeal to a different

segment of the party, such that "if a Republican candidate cannot win the support of Dixie's

kingmakers, he is most likely doomed" (McKee & Hayes, 2009, p. 415). Political pundits and

Bloggers may also serve as kingmakers through their role as opinion leaders (Campus, 2012).

Understanding Celebrity

As Boorstin (1992) explains, a celebrity is most simply "a person who is known for his

well-knownness" (p. 57). Rojek (2004) treats the term *celebrity* as "the attribution of glamorous

or notorious status to an individual within the public sphere" (p. 10). Such attribution is

contingent upon maintaining a cohesively evolving narrative of celebrity (Gabler, 2001) which is

constantly in flux, as celebrities live in a here-and-now world where there is space for new

celebrities to make it big (Cooper, 2008). Given that there is so much space for new celebrities,

Lamport (2006) explains, "Fame is being known. Celebrity is being known by your first name.

Monica Lewinsky became famous when people learned of her presidential activities. She became

a celebrity when people called her Monica" (p. 1).

While the concept of well-knownness is not new, technology has increased the quantity

of well-known individuals, as "the Graphic Revolution suddenly gave us, among other things,

the means of fabricating well-knownness" (Boorstin, 1992, p. 47). Celebrities have existed

throughout man's history, however, modern communication enterprises have thrown the

production and idolization of celebrities into overdrive,

> Shakespeare, in the familiar lines divided great men into three classes: those born
> great, those who achieved greatness, and those who had greatness thrust upon
> them. It never occurred to him to mention those who hired public relations
> experts and press secretaries to make themselves look great (Boorstin, 1992, p.
> 45).

In this sense, the traditionalist argues that today's celebrities have accomplished nothing. Most

celebrities though, regardless of their public relations teams, have accomplished something: they

are great athletes, entertainers, artists, musicians, and captains of industry (Gabler, 2001).

Critics of celebrity, like Boorstin (1992), reflect with nostalgia upon a time when they

believe heroes were great men of great accomplishment and valor, insisting that celebrities in the

postmodern era lack the qualities that make a hero truly great. They point to warriors, gladiators,

political leaders, and successful Olympic athletes in ancient Greece – the type of characters who

live on in history, folklore, myths, and legends, disappointed that there has not, in their view,

been a great man since Napoleon (Boorstin, 1992, pp. 46-47). They contend that we have turned

from lauding those who reveal God to us, and in turn admire those who "reveal and elevate

ourselves" (p. 50). Yet, audiences are fascinated with characters who are more exciting than they are – more wealthy and fashionable, younger, and more attractive (McQuail, 2010, p. 360). "Stars by virtue of being stars come equipped with the first two prerequisites for celebrity," publicity and most importantly, their narrative (Gabler, 2001, p. 6). The celebrity's narrative, or story of being a celebrity, is crucial to maintaining celebrity status.

The celebrity need not be born royalty or slay dragons to attain notoriety. Nor is the celebrity's value contingent upon the opportunities for greatness being thrust upon her. The celebrity may indeed be manufactured, but this process is not just one of a publicity factory pumping out new celebrities for magazines to sell stories about and movies to feature. The celebrity is collaboratively created by himself and the masses who choose to consume media about him. The celebrity co-creates a personal narrative that intrigues audiences while simultaneously taking on characteristics of characters she has played and creating narratives that capture public interest (Gabler, 2001). While the process of celebritization can be seen as "a mode of exploitation or objectification," it can also be understood "as a form of enfranchisement and empowerment" (Turner, 2010, p. 13).

The heroes of the past may, indeed, have done "great things," but the very concept of great things is limited by place, time, and culture. While the media industry, particularly film, may have a long history of reifying stereotypes, distorting cultural images, and favoring those with white skin, celebrities have also made political statements through both their art and their actions (Cooper, 2007, 2008; Engle, 2012; Fraser & Brown, 2002; Wheeler, 2011).

While the growing number or media outlets seems to amplify the number of celebrities one may know, nostalgia for a time when people did not use public relations to enhance their own public persona is unfounded. The very etymologic nature of the term "celebrity" is Latin,

referring to fame (Boorstin, 1992). While Bernays may have been the first to outline the

foundations of public relations and call them such, the underlying process of self-promotion was

not a novel idea. Julius Caesar, for example, had mastered the art of public relations, publicizing

his military victories and using public forums to gain support for his ideas (Du Plessis, 2001; R.

Smith, 2011).

       While Boorstin (1992) acknowledges those who have historically obtained fame through

the arts, he places a value judgment on the contemporary celebrity, asserting that an ever

declining proportion of celebrities now come from the "serious arts," but rather from "light

entertainment" (p. 59). While all forms of entertainment may not be the most serious, comedic

delight in entertainment and entertainment for the masses are not new art forms (BBC, 2003).

Privileging "serious art," or even labeling it as such places undue judgment on those who lack

the education or resources to access it. The democratization of information and access has

blurred the line. Simply "because a form of expressive culture was widely accessible and highly

popular it was not therefore necessarily devoid of any redeeming value or artistic merit" (Levine,

2009, p. 233).

       While Boorstin (1992) approaches the contemporary celebrity from an angle of tragedy,

Goldman's (2011) interpretation allows for understanding of celebrities both as a comedy for the

audience, and a tragedy for their psychological selves:

> Like modernism, celebrity is not all fun and games. My epigraphs above,
> respectively comic and tragic, illustrate two persistent aspects of twentieth-
> century celebrity discourse, both of which find a correspondence in modernist
> literature. The exchange between Simpson père and Simpson fils imagines
> celebrity as a glorious way of rising above the masses and transcending the
> anonymity that settles on ordinary citizens of society. However, the consequence
> of such exceptionalism, as the über-famous Valentino lamented just two years
> before his death at the age of thirty-one, may be that celebrity makes the self-
> contingent; identity depends on an audience for its continued existence, turning
> the individual into a stereotype, condemned to perform itself until death. This

process, we might say, turns the psychological subject into an object, something that lacks agency over itself (p. 1).

Irony ensues as "people aspire to fame, just as they aspire to political power, wealth, income, education, and health" (Van de Rijt, Shor, Ward, & Skiena, 2013, p. 266). For some, the desire for fame is so strong that they are willing to compromise other achievements to attain it (D'Alessandro & Chitty, 2011, p. 369).

Commodity or Culture?

Analysis and understanding of celebrity can come through different paths. Turner (2010) explains that "'the celebrity-commodity' can be manufactured, marketed and traded – and not only by the promotions, publicity and media industries – and so it can repay investment, development, strategic planning and product diversification" (p. 14), while also addressing the celebrity's cultural value:

> Celebrity is also a cultural formation that has a social function. Not only is celebrity implicated in the production of communities such as fan groups or subcultures, not only does it generate celebrity culture and social networks, it also participates in the field of expectations that many, particularly the young, have of everyday life (p. 14).

While celebrity may sometimes be focused purely on commodity, and other times purely on cultural value, both are inherent functions, particularly in a society often deemed as a consumption culture. "Celebrities' consumption habits become associated with high status and an aspirational lifestyle," and as such, they "can be used as vessels both to celebrate consumption and warn of its dangers" (Sternheimer, 2011, p. 10).

The bulk of research in mass communication journals focuses on the celebrity as a commodity, specifically whether celebrities in advertising can be expected to yield big pay outs for their brands. This type of research treats celebrities as human brands, distilling their value down to a collection of features and attributes that bode well with consumers. At its very

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essence, the 'celebrity-commodity' is the aspect Boorstin (1992) wrote about. Examples of 'celebrity-commodity' are explored in the next section, Celebrity Endorsements of Commercial Goods.

While slightly more prevalent in sociology, lacking in mass communication is systematic understanding of celebrity influence on the social system and culture. While mass communication scholars have plenty of evidence suggesting that one can sell just about anything if it's packaged with the right celebrity, there is little analysis of non-commercial influence, even though it is apparent that celebrities are selling political ideology and action (Cooper, 2008). Research also shows that representation in the media and the gatekeeping choices that the production side makes have real impacts on society, but what of the celebrity's own personality? At the individual level, the identification literature shows us that certain individuals may engage in behavior that they believe benefits a well-liked celebrity (Holmes, 2006; Jin & Phua, 2014; Soukup, 2006; Sun-Young & Moonhee, 2011).

While consumption culture is probably the most obvious and notable aspect of culture that celebrities impact, a less critical reading of the materialism surrounding celebrities suggests that they are agents of demonstrating upward mobility, living the "American Dream." The rags-to-riches, leveraging of legitimate talent to achieve a better life is a common narrative in Western culture that underpins the social, political, and economic system. Celebrities seem to embody that narrative. "By staying focused on individual talent, we can believe that we live in a meritocracy rather than a stratified society based on one's social position at birth" (Sternheimer, 2011, p. 13). The advent of reality television has only exacerbated such escapism, favoring a "privileged reality," suggesting "that the 'ordinary' world must be escaped from" (Holmes, 2006, p. 47).

Celebrity Endorsements of Commercial Goods

In today's saturated media market, individuals are constantly bombarded with celebrities slinging products. On the radio, P. Diddy peddles Ciroc Vodka to listeners. Glossy magazine pages feature clusters of movie stars, TV stars, and prominent models all urging consumers to purchase the newest cut of Guess? Jeans. If one follows celebrities on a social networking site (SNS), exposure to celebrity endorsed products increases. Even if one does not follow celebrities, exposure to Snooki's new perfume or OPI's new Kardashian line spreads through sponsored posts and retweets in one's social network. On the trusted television set, Shakira belly dances while explaining the gastric benefits of probiotics to prime time programming consumers.

Celebrities have been an integral part of advertising since the 1800s (Erdogan, 1999). With the invention and popularization of television, the number of "stars" available to advertisers grew from sporadic use, to 1 in 6 advertisements, to about 25 percent (Erdogan, 1999; Shimp, 2000). Prior to the star system, advertisers had limited celebrities to pull from as they were not as numerous and there was a stigma against endorsing products for commercial gain (Shimp, 2000). However, as things have changed drastically over the past few decades, firms now have to examine and balance many factors in choosing celebrities to endorse their products.

McCracken (1989) defines a celebrity endorser 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" (p. 310). Celebrities are not limited to movie and television stars, but also might include people who have attained public recognition in sports, military, art, politics, and/or business (McCracken, 1989). Relatedly, an endorsement need not necessarily be in the explicit mode. Endorsements can also be implicit, imperative, or copresent. Table 1 provides examples of the different endorsement modes outlined by McCracken (1989).

Table 1: Examples of endorsement modes

Endorsement Mode	Example
Explicit	"I endorse this product."
Implicit	"I use this product."
Imperative	"You should use this product."
Copresent	Celebrity appears with product.

Endorser Effectiveness

Previous research in celebrity endorsements has primarily focused on the effectiveness of celebrity endorsements for commercial products. Researchers have put forth several models to understand the impact that a celebrity endorser has on the endorsement's effectiveness.

Meaning Transfer Model

The process of meaning-making begins in the outside world, culturally constituted through cultural principles and cultural categories. In order for meaning to exist in consumer goods, meaning must be transported from this world and transferred to the consumer goods (McCracken, 1986). The movement of meaning from the culturally constituted world to a consumer good is facilitated by advertisements and the fashion system (McCracken, 1986, 1989; Zwilling & Fruchter, 2013). Such transfer of meaning requires difficult decisions on the part of the creative director, who is often times given a product with a fixed physical appearance.

Conjoining this fixed physical product with the world, which is simultaneously free and constrained, allows creative directors to choose which symbolic properties of the product to highlight and allows for almost infinite possibilities for emphasis, constrained only by budget and brand image (McCracken, 1986). Often times, the creative director will then choose a celebrity to deliver a message about the product (Zwilling & Fruchter, 2013). That message, attached to the celebrity endorser then connects itself to the product or brand being endorsed, thus, the meaning transfer model proposes that this *meaning* attached to a celebrity endorser will *transfer* to the product being advertised, leading consumers to associate a celebrity's qualities

with the product (McCracken, 1986, 1989; Zwilling & Fruchter, 2013). "World and good must seem to enjoy a special harmony- must be seen to go together. When the viewer/reader glimpses this sameness (after one or many exposures to the stimuli), the process of transfer has taken place (McCracken, 1986, p. 75).

Advertisements often use both visual images and verbal (or textual material). It appears however that the visual aspect of an advertisement is the primary route through which the world and product are conjoined. Verbal and textual material then serve to highlight the already salient and explicit points of the advertisement to the consumer (McCracken, 1986). Once the advertisement is complete, the consumer becomes the final "author" in the meaning transfer process. The consumer then must successfully decode the information presented in the advertisement, such that "the director brings the world and the consumer good into conjunction and then suggests their essential similarity. It is left to the viewer/reader to see this similarity and effect the transfer of meaningful properties" (McCracken, 1986, p. 75). The consumer is an essential part of the meaning transfer process, as the consumer is tasked with completing the work of the director (McCracken, 1986; Williamson, 1978; Zwilling & Fruchter, 2013).

Consequently, even McCracken (1989), who elaborated upon and did early celebrity endorsement research using this model states that it is not an ideal model because an advertiser is tasked with determining which celebrity would be best able to convey the intended meaning to audience (McCracken, 1989; Zwilling & Fruchter, 2013). This model also relies upon the consumer to understand the advertiser's intended meaning transfer.

Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

Elaboration likelihood "refers to the likelihood one engages in issue-relevant thinking with the aim of determining the merits of the arguments for a position" (Cacioppo & Petty, 1984,

p. 674). The ELM is grounded in the idea that "people want to form correct attitudes... as a result of exposure to a persuasive communication" (Petty, Kasmer, Haugtvedt, & Cacioppo, 1987, p. 233). The ELM is based on the assumption that attitudes are important because they drive behavior. Figure 1 provides a schematic overview of possible outcomes of the ELM adopted from Petty, Kasmer, Haugtvdet, & Cacioppo (1987).

"The basic tenet of the ELM is that different methods of inducing persuasion may work best depending on whether the elaboration likelihood of the communication situation (i.e. the probability of message- or issue-relevant thought occurring) is high or low" (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983, p. 137). The central route is more effective if elaboration likelihood is high, and conversely, when elaboration likelihood is low, the peripheral route of processing is more effective. If an issue or product has more personal relevance, it becomes more important for people to form a reasoned opinion. Due to this importance of opinion formation, people are more likely to devote a great deal of cognitive effort on the issue or product. Issues of political importance, such as for whom to vote, may require more or less elaboration with regard to personal relevance. Which issues people consider important in voting may require varying levels of elaboration.

The central route is used when individuals need to think about a message, scrutinizing it and considering consequences. The peripheral route is used to make quick, easy decisions that require little to no contemplation. Personal relevance often acts as a motivator to central processing, however, as Petty and colleagues (1987) point out, people are also more motivated to process information via the central route when they are responsible for a decision. Additionally, those who enjoy thinking, or "high need for cognition" individuals, are more likely to process information centrally.
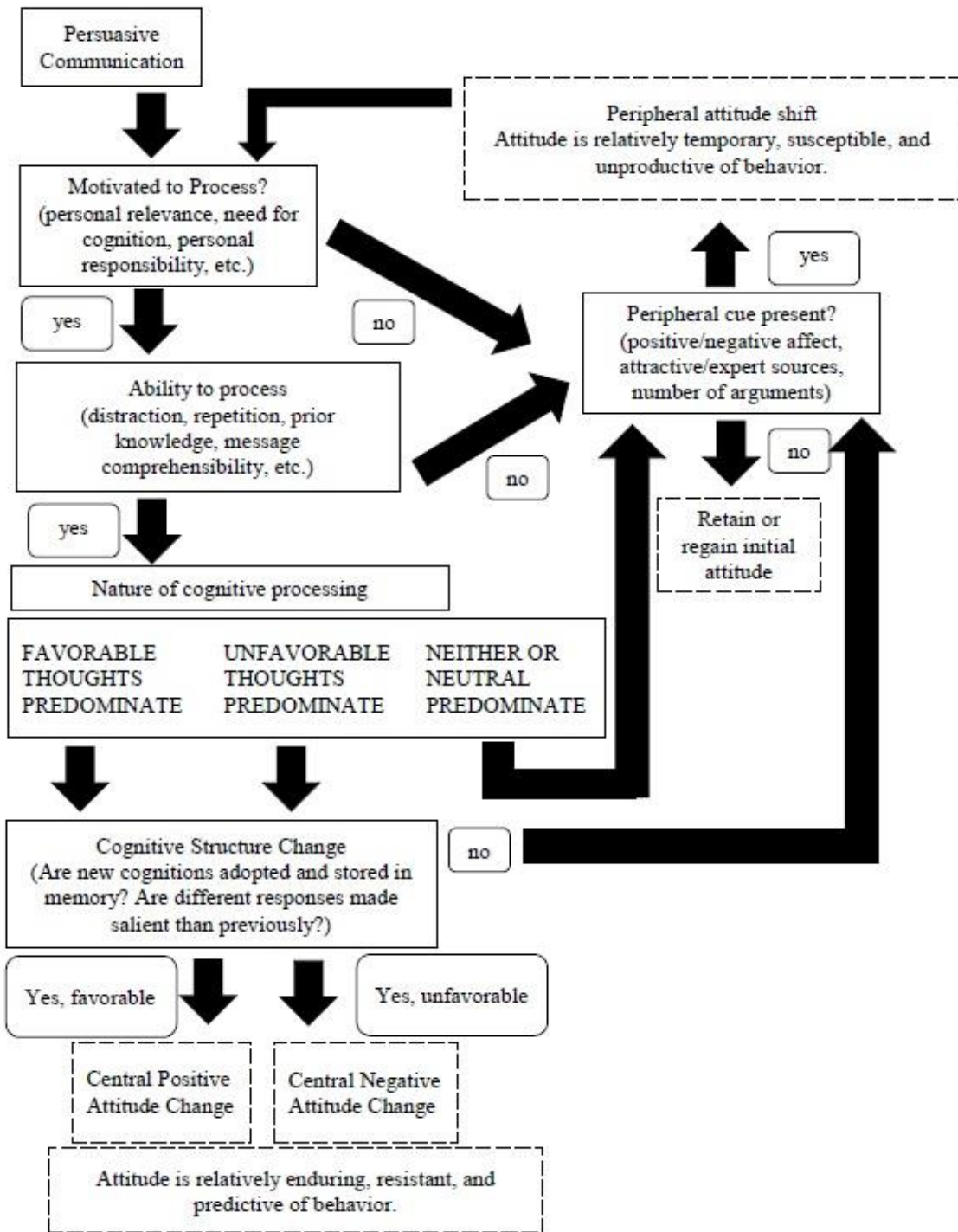
Figure 1. Schematic depiction of the ELM adapted from Petty et al. (1987).

Motivation is not the only factor determining the route information processing takes. Ability to process information is also a key factor in this model. Ability refers to not only physical and cognitive ability to process information (such as literacy), but also environmental factors, such as distractions that take away from a person's ability to think about a situation. Cacioppo and Petty (1984) explain:

> When conditions foster people's motivation and ability to engage in issue-relevant thinking, the elaboration likelihood is said to be high. This means that people are likely to: (a) attend to the appeal; (b) attempt to access relevant associations, images, and experiences from memory; (c) scrutinize and elaborate upon the externally provided message arguments in light of the associations available from memory: (d) draw inferences about the merits of the arguments for a recommendation based upon their analyses of the data extracted from the appeal and accessed from memory; and (e) consequently derive an overall evaluation of, or attitude toward, the recommendation. (p. 673).

Applying the ELM to advertising, it follows that effects differences found in advertising research may be due to the differing levels of motivation and ability in subjects (Petty et al., 1983). Petty and his colleagues (1983) found that in high motivation/ability situations where participants should process information centrally, celebrity endorsers had no effect on outcome. However, in low involvement advertising scenarios, "the celebrity status of the product endorsers was a very potent determinant of attitudes about the product" (p. 144). Zwilling and Fruchter (2013) also note that "the use of celebrity attributes as a source of peripheral stimulation is likely to influence a consumer's processing of the endorsed message" (p. 393)

Source Credibility Model.

The source credibility model has its roots in 1950s psychological studies performed by Hovland and his colleagues (Erdogan, 1999). Like the source attractiveness model, the source credibility model is based on Social Influence Theory and Source Effect Theory, which essentially argue that perceived characteristics of a communication source may have favorable

effects on message receptivity (Erdogan, 1999). The source credibility model follows from the finding that opinion on an issue was directly related to how credible participants believed the source of information was (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). Originally designed to understand interpersonal communication, the model has recently been applied to studying celebrity endorsers.

The source credibility model "contends that the effectiveness of a message depends on perceived level of expertise and trustworthiness in an endorser" (Erdogan, 1999, p. 297). Consumers who receive information from a credible source can be influenced in their beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and/or behaviors through the process of internalization, "which occurs when receivers accept a source influence in terms of their personal attitude and value structures" (Erdogan, 1999, p. 297).

Expertise of an endorser can be defined as how much the receiver perceives the endorser to be "a source of valid assertions" (Erdogan, 1999, p. 297). Expertise is related to the skills, knowledge, or experience an endorser has. The audience's perception of expertise is the relevant consideration in determining source credibility, rather than an endorser's actual expertise in the subject area.

Source Attractiveness Model

According to the source attractiveness model, an endorser's effectiveness in an advertisement depends upon three factors: 1) similarity, 2) familiarity, and 3) liking of the endorser (Erdogan, Baker, & Tagg, 2001):

> *Similarity* is defined as a supposed resemblance between the source and the receiver of the message, *familiarity* as knowledge of the source through exposure, and *likability* as affection for the source as a result of the source's physical appearance and behavior. (p. 40).

Researchers believe that the underlying mechanism that allows physical appearance to influence likability is identification. People attach emotion to artificial experiences, such as engaging in entertainment activities, as Caughey (1978) explains:

> During the course of an entertainment drama, the individual relates to the participants in ways that their situations dictate (e.g., he feels concern for the hero's plight or hatred for the villain's perfidy). People also develop lasting emotional orientations to media beings with whom they are involved on a regular basis. They do not just "know about" politicians, sports figures, and talk show hosts, they feel strongly about them. (p. 77).

When individuals feel a strong identification with a celebrity, they are more likely to engage in behaviors that they perceive that celebrity would engage in, in an attempt to emulate the celebrity (Soukup, 2006). In the case of product endorsements by celebrities, these emulating behaviors may include purchasing products the celebrity endorses.

Match-Up Hypothesis

The match-up hypothesis states that "the message conveyed by the image of the celebrity and the message about the product ought to converge in effective advertisements" (Kahle & Homer, 1985, p. 955). The match-up hypothesis does not exclude other facets of an endorser as relevant to effectiveness, but rather implies that an advertisement with a good match between endorser and product will perform better than an advertisement with a lesser quality match. The matchup hypothesis is closely linked to schema congruity theory, attitude objects that are closely linked to an individual's existing schema, or congruent, are easier to process and accept than are attitude objects that are incongruent, or at a mismatch with existing schema. "People may use social stereotypes… rather than traits… to make sense of people"(Fiske & Taylor, 1991, p. 143). While these stereotypes may often times seem neutral, individuals use them to categorize people, places, objects, and ideas into groups that may be positive or negative.

Which categories people use to evaluate things they encounter later is a function of primacy, salience, accessibility, mood, and power. Because schemas are acquired through learning from others and experience, the more experience one has with an attitude object, the more crystalized a schema becomes, making it more resistant to change (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). When match between endorser and product type exists, researchers have found that the schema used for the endorser more easily transfer to the product, allowing the consumer to utilize the product category in their schema more efficiently (Lynch & Schuler, 1994).

The match-up hypothesis suggests that when an endorser easily fits the same category as the product being endorsed, favorable evaluations will ensue. Misra and Beatty (1990) demonstrated that recall, both immediately and one-week later, was significantly higher in advertisements where the spokesperson was congruent with the brand as opposed to mismatched. When celebrity spokesperson and brand are matched, a transfer of positive affect to the brand takes place (K. A. Lee, 2012). Choi and Rifon (2012) add that in addition to a match between spokesperson and the brand or product, advertisers must also consider the match between consumers of their target demographic and the celebrity spokesperson, "based on the established images the celebrities possess, consumers would perceive them as similar to or different from their ideal image of themselves" (p. 647). Figure 2 illustrates Choi and Rifon's (2012) modified version of the match-up hypothesis.

While most research using match-up hypothesis and schema congruity, suggests that brand evaluations and purchase intentions are higher when the endorser matches the product, some research suggests that moderate incongruity may be more effective (J.-G. Lee & Thorson, 2008; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989), such that consumers may view it "as "interesting and positively valued" in many contexts due to curiosity prompted by the moderate level of

unexpectedness, thereby leading to more positive responses to advertisements" (J.-G. Lee &

Thorson, 2008, p. 435). When considering the match-up hypothesis with regard to political

endorsements by celebrities, the congruence between a celebrity endorser and a politician, as

well as between the individual and the celebrity should then influence attitudes toward the

politician, toward the politician's party, and ultimately vote intention. Figure 3, below, illustrates

Choi and Rifon's (2012) match-up hypothesis adapted to a political context.
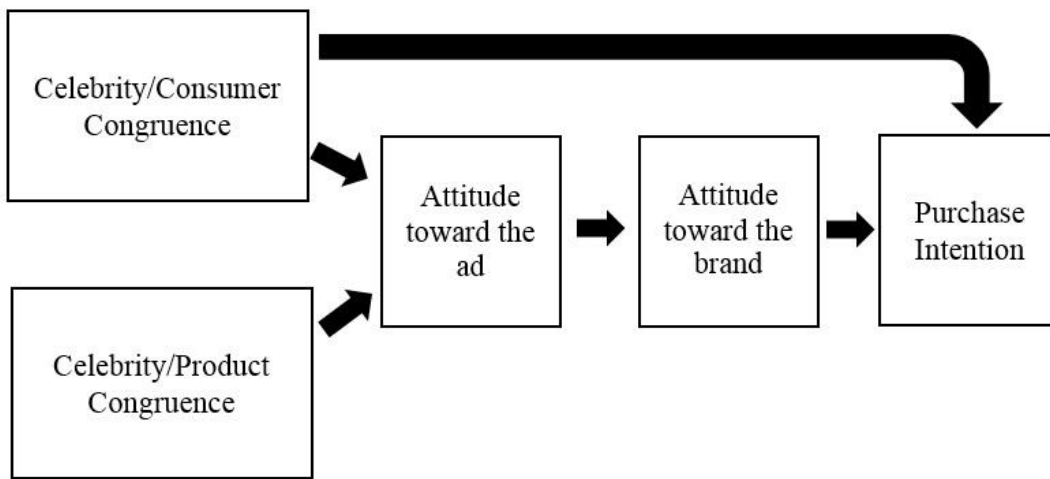
Figure 2. Choi & Rifon's (2012) updated match-up hypothesis
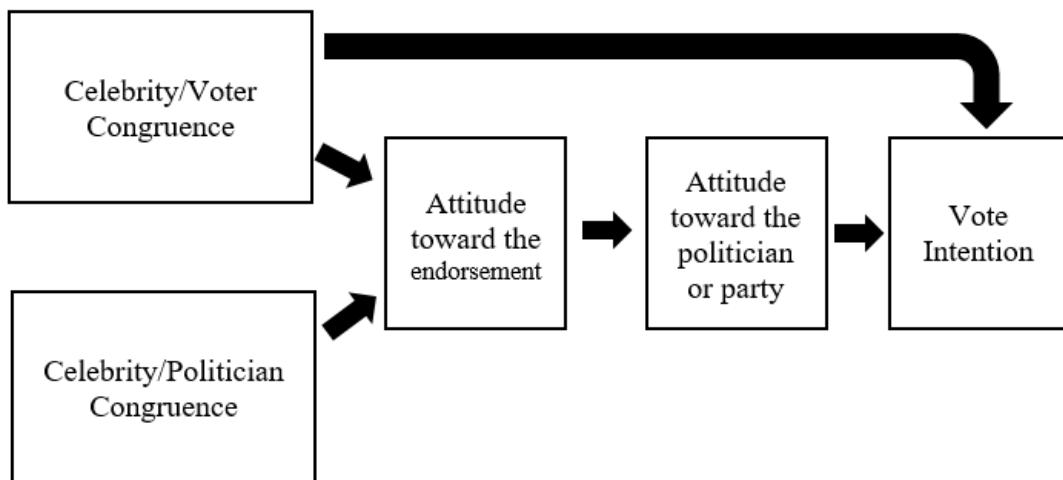
Figure 3. Choi & Rifon's (2012) updated match-up hypothesis adapted to a political context

An Integrated Model

Recognizing the importance of choosing the right celebrity endorser, and noticing how other models provided some of the pieces, but not all of them, Amos, Holmes, and Strutton (2008) synthesized factors found in other studies of celebrity endorsement effectiveness, particularly from the source models. They identified nine key factors from the literature: a) celebrity performance, b) negative information, c) celebrity credibility, d) celebrity expertise, e) celebrity trustworthiness, f) celebrity attractiveness, g) celebrity familiarity, h) celebrity likeability, and i) celebrity/product fit (p. 213). Celebrity credibility, celebrity expertise, and celebrity trustworthiness are derived from the source credibility model. Celebrity familiarity, likeability, and attractiveness, a component of likeability (Erdogan et al., 2001) are derived from the source attractiveness model. Celebrity/product fit is a documented factor particularly within the match-up hypothesis and schema congruity perspective. Amos and his colleagues (2008) identified two additional factors from previous studies in their meta-analysis: celebrity performance and negative information.

"Celebrity performance refers to the level of achievement a celebrity attains at any given time in their chosen profession" (Amos et al., 2008, p. 213). This could be the level of athletic success by an athlete such as play-off or championship attendance; acting success for an actor may be understood through box office sales or number of Academy Awards in a given time period; for musicians, celebrity performance may be understood through Grammy awards, album sales, or iTunes downloads. Celebrity performance may change drastically from a time period to another. In fact, rarely do celebrities maintain a consistent level of performance across their careers. Those who do not continually perform at a consistent or improving level may lead firms to see diminishing returns on their celebrity investment (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995).

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As the meaning transfer model explains, celebrity advertisements work through getting the audience to transfer the meaning or symbolism one has for a celebrity to a product or brand. While generally, this process is meant to be positive (that celebrity is great at basketball, so if I wear Nike basketball shoes, I will be great too), negative information can ruin celebrity endorsements (Erdogan et al., 2001). The longer a celebrity endorses a product for, the stronger the associative link between the celebrity and the product often becomes. This associative link is necessary for a negative impact (Till & Shimp, 1998). However, according to Till and Shimp (2012), the size of peoples' association sets moderates this relationship, such that when people have small association sets for a brand and a celebrity, in other words, they do not associate many things with either the brand or the celebrity except each other, the effect is strong. However, when people have large association sets, their knowledge structures are more developed, diminishing the impact of negative information on a brand's image.

The timing of negative information also plays a moderating role in the relationship between negative information about an endorser and effectiveness. While advertisers generally do not choose endorsers already mired in scandal, negative information may become public before the campaign launches, or information may be considered negative to a subset of the target demographic (Nownes, 2012, p. 74).

The difference in effects between types of negative information may be quite nuanced, as it is in the case of Nike, who retained Tiger Woods after details of his extramarital affairs became public, but "ditched Lance Armstrong as fast as it could after apparently incontrovertible proof surfaced… that the former cyclist cheated on the field of play" (Kay, 2012). In an interview with Kay (2012), economist Andrew Zimbalist noted that there was a profound difference in the type of cheating that occurred. While Tiger Woods cheated on his wife, there

are no allegations that he cheated in his golf career. However, Lance Armstrong cheated to succeed in cycling.

When choosing endorsers, Nike appears to accept off-the-field missteps from its endorsers, apparently understanding the risk when working with athletes as would-be role models. Nike has a history of retaining athletes who have personal scandals and dropping athletes who have professional scandals tarnish their names. Kay (2012) also distinguishes professional from personal scandal, noting that Nike remained loyal to both Kobe Bryant and Ben Roethlisberger in the wake of sexual assault charges. The brand even remained loyal to Joe Paterno while he underwent investigation for covering up child sex-abuse, until the end of the trial.

Commonsensically, Till and Shimp's (2012) findings suggest that negative information attained prior to the association between endorser and brand is more harmful than negative information presented after the endorser and brand are linked. Negative information following a campaign is still more detrimental than no negative information; however, this finding suggests that firms should avoid celebrity endorsers who already have negative associations.

Generally speaking, an increase in the value of these factors, excluding negative information, should produce an increase in positive dependent brand evaluation measurements, although each factor has not shown significance in each study. Overall, Amos and his colleagues (2008) found in over 30 years of celebrity endorsement studies, negative information had the largest effect on endorsement effectiveness (R=-0.62). Negative information was followed in importance by celebrity expertise, celebrity attractiveness, celebrity credibility, celebrity familiarity, and celebrity likeability. "Studies that did not examine celebrity/product fit had a statistically significant higher average ranking (χ^2=77.01, df=1, p < 0.00) than studies that

examined celebrity/product fit" (p. 222). Table 2 presents the correlation coefficients between each factor, and endorsement effectiveness, when controlling for other factors and their ranking out of a possible 266 effect size, as reported by Amos et al. (2008). A higher "ranking" indicates that the source factor was significant in a larger number of models.

Table 2: Correlation and effect sizes of source factors on effectiveness

	R	Ranking
Negative Information	-0.62	189.94
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.46	151.59
No Celebrity/Product Fit	0.44	198.28
Celebrity Expertise	0.38	150.96
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.38	140.94
Celebrity Likeability	0.33	94.25
Celebrity Credibility	0.30	114.11
Celebrity Familiarity	0.26	100.36
Celebrity/Product Fit	0.20	107.65
Celebrity Performance	-0.05	24.04

Other Influences on Effectiveness

In addition to the source factors identified by Amos et al. (2008) that represent the bulk of the other models, several researchers have identified other variables that may influence endorser effectiveness. These additional variables are outlined below for consideration.

Repetition

An important component to consider in understanding the relationship between a celebrity endorser and effectiveness is repetition of the advertisement. Tom et al. (1992) found that adding "originally created material," a spokesperson or music increased memorability of advertisements as compared to those that relied upon popular material (p. 50). They hypothesize that consumers learn the link between the stimulus (spokesperson or song and product) through classical conditioning, and that this link is stronger with original material because people already have other associations with popular material. In order for this link to occur, however, repetition is crucial to classical conditioning with original material.

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There may be a limit to how much repetition is good repetition. Cacioppo and Petty (1979) found that the relationship between message repetition and agreement (and disagreement with the counterargument) followed a curvilinear relationship, such that agreement with the argument is highest at medium levels of exposure to a message. At high ends of exposure, people may begin to reject the message as a means of attacking the "now offensive communication" or stop thinking about the message altogether (p. 105).

Race & Gender

Race and gender can impact a number of variables conventionally understood to influence endorser effectiveness. First, race and gender may impact the celebrity/product fit or match-up. Tom et al. (1992) suggest generally that the endorser's gender should match that of the target market, although Lee and Thorson (2008) assert that in some cases, disturbing the match-up, or providing the audience with schema incongruity makes for more interesting and memorable ads. Some examples of gender mismatch that can be effective would be a female spokesperson in a beer commercial or a male spokesperson in a dish soap commercial, beer being considered a masculine or male product, and dish soap considered a feminine or female product. This incongruence may lead the audience to elaborate further upon what they saw, leading to central processing. Quite commonsensically then, advertisements for ethnicity specific products, such as African-American hair care products should follow the match-up hypothesis.

Race and gender may also influence the identification process, a predecessor of likability. Identification is also related to perceived attractiveness of a source; when similarity and identification increase, so does attractiveness (Watson, DeJong, & Slack, 2009). Watson et al. (2009) found that high prejudice white individuals receiving ads featuring dark-skinned African

American models consistently rated the ads lower on all of their dependent measures (perceived similarity, identification, attractiveness, trustworthiness, expertise, attitude toward the ad, attitude toward the brand) than did low prejudice individuals. They found the same trend for light skinned African-American models, however without statistical significance. Due to this finding, the researchers suggest that rather than studying African-American spokespersons as a monolithic group, spokespersons' race should be viewed on a continuum.

Such a continuum could extend to other minority endorsers. With regard to physical appearance, Hispanics are very diverse, however, as Valdivia (2016) explains, media organizations, such as Disney target Latinx media consumers through a strategy of ambiguity, preferring fairer skinned, racially ambiguous Latinx characters who are fair skinned and often have names that could be conflated with those of ancestry from several Mediterranean or Latin American countries of origin. Summarizing the lack of diversity of Hispanics in entertainment media, Valdivia (2016) adds:

> Disney's Latinas are light and upper middle class, in the case of Gabriella in [High School Musical] and Miranda in Lizzie McGuire. They are ambiguous enough that most members of the mainstream audience do not recognize their Latinidad. Disney does not go out of its way to mention their ethnicity. These ambiguous Latinas are tamed for the mainstream, indeed barely noticeable as Latinas. (p. 74)

Lack of non-African American minority representation extends from entertainment media to product advertising. M. J. Jones and Schumann (2000) found that "the appearance of Asian and Hispanic athletes is almost nonexistent" (p. 70) in their analysis of advertisements featured in *Sports Illustrated*. According to an analysis conducted by the online style community, theFashionSpot, of the Spring 2016 designer fashion campaigns, 4.03% featured Asian models and 3.79% featured Hispanic models (Tai, 2016). The report notes that, "black and Latina models were cast at approximately double the rate of the Fall 2015 season, when percentages

read 4.4 for black models and only 1.7 for Latinas… Asian models saw a slight decrease in representation from 6.2 percent" (Tai, 2016).

While Asian and Hispanic endorsers are less prevalent in advertisements, with some notable celebrity exceptions such as Jennifer Lopez and Eva Longoria (Kowalczyk & Royne, 2013; Löfgren & Li, 2010), Appiah (2001) found that Asian and Hispanic adolescents respond better to advertisements featuring black spokespersons than to those featuring whites, indicating higher attention to minority status and identification with other racial minorities. Advertisers, however, are increasingly paying attention to Hispanic endorsers and their appeal to a variety of audiences. In 2015, Colombian-born actress Sofia Vergara earned over $20 million from endorsement and licensing deals with brands such as Rooms to Go, Quaker Oats, Bally Total Fitness, McDonald's, and Cerveza Aguila (Berg, 2016).

Huston, D'Ouville, and Willis (2003) found that race and gender frequently effect participants' ability to identify a celebrity by name, which appears to be a precursor to identification of the product a celebrity endorses. The "in-group" effect for race was stronger than that for gender. Some celebrities transcend the gender and race gaps in identification, such as Elizabeth Taylor and Whitney Houston, however, are not easily associated with the products they endorse, presumably because "the products endorsed have a differential racial or gender appeal" (p. 92).

An exception to this racial division with regard to endorsements is Oprah Winfrey. Winfrey's endorsements transcend racial and gender lines, superseding normative whiteness (Young, 2001). Perhaps Winfrey's best known endorsements with commercial success are the books she has selected as part of her "Book Club," which began in September of 1996 with a proclamation "that she wanted 'to get the country reading'" (Feldman, 1997). Winfrey's

endorsement of a book as a recommendation on her show "was enough to bring a book up into the top 150 bestsellers in America" (Butler, Cowan, & Nilsson, 2005, p. 32).

In May 2007, Winfrey made a different kind of endorsement; she officially made her first ever political endorsement for Barack Obama on CNN's program Larry King Live (Zeleny, 2007). She proceeded to stump on Obama's behalf throughout the rest of the primary and general election in 2007 and 2008. Garthwaite and Moore (2013) found "strong evidence that Oprah Winfrey's endorsement of Barack Obama prior to the 2008 Democratic primary had an impact on his votes and on the overall number of voters" (p. 381).

Involvement

As described in the elaboration likelihood model, involvement plays a key role in endorser effectiveness. Often celebrity endorsers have differential effects based upon the level of involvement required by a product. High involvement products are often big purchase items, products that require a good amount of research to come to a decision. Low involvement products are often less expensive, less thought intensive items. Involvement can also be manipulated by how accessible a product may be to the individual. The level of involvement each consumer may have with different products can however vary. Individuals with high involvement are more likely to recall a product, regardless of endorser attractiveness. However, for low involvement individuals, pairing a product with an attractive endorser enhanced effectiveness (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Trampe, Stapel, Siero, & Mulder, 2010). The same effect has been found for famous endorsers, such that for low involvement products, there was a substantial difference in the effectiveness between a famous and non-famous endorser, but in high involvement conditions, the difference diminished (Petty et al., 1983).

<u>Power</u>

Power is often used to understand interpersonal and organizational dynamics, however Tom and her colleagues (1992) notably applied the approach to celebrity spokespersons. According to the researchers, the ability of a celebrity endorser to effectively endorse a brand or product may lie in both the type(s) and quantity of power the celebrity holds: 1) expert power, 2) referent power, 3) legitimate power, 4) coercive power, and 5) reward power.

Expert power is very close to, if not the same as expertise in other models and refers to the audience's belief that the spokesperson is an expert on the product type they are endorsing, such as Michael Jordan for Nike. Certain celebrities may hold more expert power than others in the realm of political issues. However, it is important to note, that just like with the expertise factor in other models, the perception of expert power is the important factor, whether a person actually is an expert or not.

Referent power is closely linked to identification. This is when the audience both identifies with and aspires to be like the celebrity spokesperson. When people desire to be like the endorser, they are more likely to buy a product. Michael Jordan for Wheaties is a fitting example for this type of power. Children who look up to Michael Jordan want to eat the cereal so they can be "like Mike." Expert and referent power grouped together can be classified as personal power.

Thrall et al. (2008) also identify "star power," operationally "based on salary, magazine cover appearances, and several other measures of celebrity status" (p. 366) which constructively combines expert and referent power. Star power is closely related to celebrities' political participation and advocacy, such that more famous people are more likely to engage in advocacy

causes and are involved with more causes, as their status provides greater opportunity to get involved with causes (Thrall et al., 2008, p. 368).

Angelina Jolie, for example, translates her star power into support for 26 causes including AIDS and HIV, gender equality, and refugees (Purcell, Purcell, & Saunders, n.d.). Jolie exemplifies celebrity advocacy, having been appointed a Special Envoy by the United Nations' Refugee Agency (UNHCR, 2012), funded a school for girls in Afghanistan (Kelley, 2010), and contributing to the construction of a center for children affected by HIV/AIDS in Ethiopia (Orloff, 2008). Evans et al. (2014) found evidence that Angelina Jolie's issue advocacy can translate into action for individuals. Jolie's announcement that she had undergone genetic testing for breast cancer and decision to undergo a risk-reducing mastectomy served as a precursor to a spike in referrals for breast cancer screenings, with 9% of American women reporting that the story motivated them to do something about their health (pp. 444-445).

Classified as formal power are legitimate, coercive, and reward power. Legitimate power stems from an actual power position, such as holding political office. People with legitimate power are often able to convince people to do things because it's what a good citizen would do. Coercive power is the ability to use fear to convince people to do something – if you do not buy ADT security system your family will be in danger. Finally, reward power, in contrast with coercive power, is having the ability to give people a positive benefit for their actions, such as a spokesperson who proclaims the ability to get a consumer a better price on a product.

Celebrity Product Use

A successful celebrity endorsement will convince consumers that the celebrity is an active user of the product being endorsed, or in the case of political endorsements, that the celebrity really will vote for the candidate being endorsed. While savvy consumers may think to

themselves, "There's no way Beyoncé gets that hair color from box dye," or "Shakira doesn't

stay fit drinking Pepsi all the time," firms may be in danger when it becomes public knowledge

that their spokesperson either has not used their product, or in some cases, overuses the product.

Tom et al. (1992) provide several examples of this public relations nightmare:

> Cybil Shepherd's effectiveness as the spokesperson for the beef industry was
> diluted when she revealed that she did not eat meat. For all the millions that Pepsi
> paid Michael Jackson to dance and sing about Pepsi, Michael Jackson never drank
> Pepsi. Advertisers have also erred in selecting spokespersons who over consumed
> the endorsed product. All the while that Bruce Willis extolled the virtue of
> Seagram's Golden Wine Cooler, the tabloids rumored that he had a drinking
> problem. Ringo Starr spoke on behalf of Sun Country Wine Coolers and then
> entered an alcoholic rehabilitation center. Advertisers also have little control over
> celebrities' personal behavior. Tony Curtis's delivering of the American Cancer
> Society's message to quit smoking rang hollow when he was arrested for
> possession of marijuana. Evel Knievel's potential as a hero for American youth
> was cut short when he went after a reporter with a baseball bat. (p. 47).

More recently, P. Diddy's *Citizen Change* campaign, famous for their "VOTE OR DIE!" apparel

garnered negative attention when news broke that two key promoters in the campaign, rapper 50

Cent and heiress Paris Hilton, were not even registered to vote themselves (Quart, 2004).

Number of Endorsements

Generally speaking, when it comes to endorsements for celebrities, less is more, at least if

the endorsement is to be effective. Credibility decreases when celebrities endorse more than one

product, as consumers see celebrities who endorse multiple products as merely interested in the

financial gain (Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994).

Measures of Effectiveness

Amos et al. (2008) identified the six most frequently used dependent measures of

effectiveness in studies of celebrity endorsement effectiveness: a) purchase intention, b) brand

attitude, c) attitude toward advertisement, d) believability, e) recall, and f) recognition. They

also identified a few lesser used measures, actual purchase behavior, expected excess returns,

and other behavioral intention or attitude measures. To some extent, these measures can be adapted to celebrity endorsements of political candidates as civic engagement outcomes rather than brand engagement outcomes.

CHAPTER III: POLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND CIVIC ENGAGEMENT

The ultimate goals of a celebrity product endorsement often include increased product awareness, engagement with the product, and ultimately purchase. Similarly, the goals of a celebrity political endorsement include civic and political engagement on behalf of the endorsee. "Civic engagement is broadly defined as asserting one's citizenship and the upholding of an individual's civic responsibility" (Kamal, Turcotte, Davis, & Arrazattee, 2012, p. 6). The term civic engagement encompasses a wide variety of behaviors, which in a new media environment is constantly growing as people find new and innovative ways to become involved that were previously unimaginable (Bennett, Wells, & Freelon, 2011; Lagos, Coopman, & Tomhave, 2014; Leung, 2009). Technological optimists like Shirky (2008) welcome the promise of computer-mediated communication (CMC) to promote civic activities, citing "the ease and speed with which a group can be mobilized" (p. 12).

As CMC approaches ubiquity, particularly through social media, citizens have the opportunity to engage with politics and civic life without leaving their homes. Obar, Zube, and Lampe (2012) found that 100% of the advocacy groups they surveyed used social media to communicate with citizens, with almost all of the organizations reporting the use of Facebook and Twitter (pp. 11-12). Organizations perceive that social media technologies, particularly Facebook and Twitter, help them to educate the public about their issues, inform the public about important dates and events, give citizens a place to share their voices, and mobilize citizens through activities such as collecting petition signatures and submitting citizens' comments to government officials (Obar et al., 2012, p. 13). Social media technologies provide citizens that may not otherwise be highly involved in political life, the opportunity to be "brought into the circle of participation by making microlevel contributions to aggregate projects of mediated public advocacy" (Penney, 2015, p. 64).

More traditional views on civic engagement, like Putnam's (2000), stress a cooperative character explaining that "official membership in formal organizations is only one facet of social capital, but is usually regarded as a useful barometer of community involvement" (p. 49). However, Putnam (2000) continues by asserting that being a "card carrying" member of an organization is not enough, but rather individuals should be active in the organizations of which they are members. Based on his understanding of engagement, American society's potential for engagement looks bleak:

> Many Americans continue to claim that we are "members" of various organizations, but most Americans no longer spend much time in community organizations – we've stopped doing committee work, stopped serving as officers, and stopped going to meetings. And all this despite rapid increases in education that have given more of us than ever before the skills, the resources, and the interests that once fostered civic engagement. In short, Americans have been dropping out in droves, not merely from political life, but from organized community life more generally (pp. 63-64).

Putnam (1995) also contends that as civic participation in American life dwindled, political distrust more than doubled across the same period, "the proportion of Americans who reply that they 'trust the government in Washington' only 'some of the time' or 'almost never' has risen steadily from 30 percent in 1966 to 75 percent in 1992" (p. 68). Interested in the relationship that Putnam (1995) found between political trust and participation in civic life, particularly as moderated by increased entertainment media use, Wilkins (2000) sought out to investigate the relationship. Hypothesizing that high political trust should be related to high political participation, Wilkins (2000) found an inverse relationship; people who voiced political distrust were actually more likely to participate in electoral politics. In addition to the role of political trust, he also found that television was not destroying civic life, particularly television news, which the use of was positively related to political participation.

Given Wilkins (2000) findings and changes within the media system over the past two decades, it is important to explore the other ways in which citizens may be exercising their civic and political duties outside of neighborhood organizations. Expressive civic engagement deals with people voicing their opinions on politics and social issues. This definition of civic engagement allows for inclusion of more passive, yet still political activities such as sending an e-mail to the White House or signing a petition (Kamal et al., 2012). Given this understanding, the interpretation of Putnam's (1995; 1995; 2000) findings changes. Civic engagement has not necessarily deteriorated, but merely undergone a metamorphic shift in its appearance:

> …a look at the history of civic participation in the United States (U.S.) shows not only that forms of civic participation have changed but also that ideals of civic participation have been transformed. I suspect that Putnam, Skocpol and others mourn civic practices in decline in part because they are captive of ideas and concepts affixed to, and appropriate to a historical moment that has passed (Schudson, 2006, p. 591).

Toward a New Era of Engagement

Following Schudson's (2006) call for new ways of understanding engagement in a 21st century context, researchers turned to the Internet to understand current trends in engagement in a Web 2.0 environment (Bennett et al., 2011; Campbell & Kwak, 2010; Gil de Zúñiga, Copeland, & Bimber, 2014; Gil de Zúñiga & Valenzuela, 2011; Givskov & Trenz, 2014; Johansen & Givskov, 2014; Kang & Gearhart, 2010; Kim, Hsu, & Gil de Zúñiga, 2013; Lagos et al., 2014; Simmons & Zoetewey, 2012; Xenos & Moy, 2007; Xenos, Vromen, & Loader, 2014). The recent literature on Internet and engagement falls into three general categories: 1) how Internet use affects participation and engagement, 2) analysis of websites for civic engagement potential, and 3) how people use the Internet to participate and engage in political and civic life.

The bulk of recent literature focuses on how the Internet influences engagement much like earlier research investigated the effect of television on involvement. These studies use more

traditional conceptualizations and operationalizations of civic engagement and political

participation. While not concerned with identifying new interpretations of engagement and

participation, researchers have identified new Internet specific co-variates. In addition to typical

demographic variables, researchers have identified a large number of variables that influence

civic engagement and political participation related to new technology. Overall, web use,

including using social media, city websites, and other digital media has a positive effect on

political participation and civic engagement (Gastil & Xenos, 2010; Kang & Gearhart, 2010;

Kim et al., 2013; Xenos & Moy, 2007). This effect is magnified when users are looking for

particular information online or have a preexisting interest in political matters (Kang & Gearhart,

2010; Xenos & Moy, 2007). In relation to social media use, online network size and weak-tie

discussion frequency, more likely in online networks and often purposive in nature, have a

positive effect on civic engagement (Gil de Zúñiga & Valenzuela, 2011). Internet use has been

demonstrated to increase engagement, as has mobile phone use for information sharing,

particularly for those who feel comfortable using the technology (Campbell & Kwak, 2010).

Higher levels of civic engagement have also been associated with higher psychological

empowerment (Leung, 2009) and more frequent Internet use (Jennings & Zeitner, 2003).

Research on new media and civic engagement has also evaluated the ability and

propensity of the Internet to facilitate the growth of engagement and participation (Baggesen,

2014; Givskov & Trenz, 2014; Lagos et al., 2014; Simmons & Zoetewey, 2012). Baggesen

(2014) observed:

> The technological properties of the Internet, which allow for two-way or many-to-
> many conversations, co-authorship, and data-sharing across the globe, have been
> conflated from the outset with a utopian rhetoric around the World Wide Web as a
> common of ideas and democratic ideals. This potential for egalitarian discourse
> has been rendered as an inherent moral quality, which could not help but
> influence the participants and affect societal change (p. 124).

Egalitarian discourse, however, is not the norm on websites for traditional newspapers (Givskov & Trenz, 2014). Rather than providing a forum for free discussion, online versions of print media tend to control the debate, posing specific questions to their readers and reifying the mono-directional flow of information under a guise of participation. Higher quality papers put more distance between their journalists and readers, often not having any feedback mechanism. Contrarily, Lagos et al. (2014) found that an open publishing site, *Indymedia*, while lacking outside support, paid staff, or economic advantages, was able to publish stories that directly influenced protests in Seattle and San Francisco, partially through the process of "gatewatching."

By taking part in the website creation process and asking citizens about their experiences with civic websites, Simmons and Zoetewey (2012) identified four uses for civic Web sites:

1) Enable technical literacies. Users wanted Web sites that gave them the language to investigate and understand an issue or talk with experts and be taken seriously.
2) Allow for productive inquiry activities. Users wanted sites to include interactive tools that would help them do the kind of investigating that results in coproduction of new knowledge.
3) Create a space for community and place. Users needed these spaces, which are critical for aiding citizen conversations outside of scheduled public meetings and for creating a space for resistance, [and]
4) Allow for multiple identities in multiple contexts. Users resisted being forced into specific identities—homeowner, business owner, farmer—and instead preferred approaching an issue from multiple perspectives and interests—that is, different perspectives that depended on the particular situation (p. 260).

Ultimately they concluded that building websites for civic engagement "requires creating a relationship … in which the designer works to develop a site that supports how people really want to use the information at a particular moment in time" (p. 270).

Reoperationalizing Participation

Understanding contemporary participation requires redefining the operationalization of political participation and civic engagement. While there is no dearth of scholars acknowledging

social media's potential effects on engagement, most use the same operational definitions to measure civic engagement and participation that have been used for decades. New media requires new definitions. Changes in family structure require new definitions. Changes in educational values require new definitions. Researchers must "recognize the depth of these changes, their enduring importance, and, for that matter, the extent to which they represent what are arguably advances for human freedom and equality, it will be difficult to know what kinds of civic engagement today are possible, or desirable, or even to determine what civic engagement means" (Schudson, 2006, p. 605).

A smaller portion of the trend in studying online participation and engagement explores these ways of recognizing changes in the way citizens participate. In 2011, Bennett, Wells, and Frelon sought to mend the rift between two competing paradigms in engagement: the old paradigm of the dutiful citizen epitomized by Putnam, and a new paradigm focused on new platforms and networks that change the way youth participate in politics, arguing that "both are partly right in the sense that each describes different parts of a changing citizenship picture: The former accounting for the fragmentation of an old civic order, and the latter bringing emerging civic styles into focus" (p. 836). To strengthen this new understanding of citizenship, they placed *actualizing citizenship*, a "more personally expressive cause-oriented politics based on lifestyle concerns such as consumer behaviors" (p. 838), that focuses on new ways of understanding engagement through social technologies, and *dutiful citizenship*, the traditional paradigm valuing political participation through organized groups, on a continuum. Civic action for the actualized citizen is "rooted in self-actualization through social expression" and includes channeling personal interests through loosely-tied networks and openness "to many forms of creative civic input, ranging from government to consumer politics to global activism" (p. 840).

Comparatively, Xenos, Vromen, and Loader (2014) divided political engagement into two different and distinct measures: 1) individual engagement and 2) collective political engagement. Individual engagement included traditional items such as trying to influence others to vote a particular way or boycotting/buycotting specific goods, a political participation dimension distinctly separate from voting (Gil de Zúñiga et al., 2014). To capture changes in societal emphasis, Xenos and his colleagues also asked respondents about participation in types of groups that were not directly political in nature, such as charitable groups, in addition to the more traditional questions focused on participation in political organizations or in groups to benefit political candidates or parties. To gain a more complete understanding of participation, the researchers asked respondents to report both offline and online participation in both individual and collective political engagement items. In addition to expanding the operationalization of participation, Xenos et al. (2014) "used a series of items that asked participants to indicate the extent to which various kinds of political activities were personally important to them" (p. 158).

Vissers and Stolle (2014) concurrently looked "to make a distinction between activities that can be practiced both online and offline, as well as activities that are unique in the digital realm, particularly Facebook participation" (p. 950), finding that Facebook participation likely serves to mobilize the non-political while reinforcing those who are already politically active. Because mobilization and reinforcement can work through different mechanisms for different people, they advocate examining both offline and online forms of political activity in future research.

Several other researchers have examined the political activities in which people participate on Facebook and other Social Networking Sites (SNS). Vitak et al. (2011) identified fourteen possible political activities that one could participate in on Facebook:

1) adding or deleting political information from profile,
2) adding or deleting an application that deals with politics,
3) becoming a "fan" of a political candidate or group,
4) discussing political information in a Facebook message,
5) discussing political information using Facebook's instant messaging system,
6) joining or leaving a group about politics,
7) posting a status update that mentions politics,
8) posting a photo that has something to do with politics,
9) posting a photo of someone at a political event,
10) posting a wall comment about politics,
11) posting a link about politics,
12) posting a Facebook Note that has something to do with politics,
13) RSVP'ing for a political event, and
14) taking a quiz about politics (p. 111).

Of these possible activities, the mean for having participated was 1.33 activities (SD=1.97) as compared with twelve possible general political activities (M=2.68, SD=1.86). These findings suggest that individuals are likely to perform more traditional civic engagement behaviors than they are to use social media technologies to perform civic behaviors.

Vitak and her colleagues (2011) found that participants did not believe that many forms of political expression on Facebook were appropriate and demonstrated only minimal acceptance of the others. While participants marginally accepted the presence of candidates on Facebook and using Facebook to share political beliefs, they did not accept using Facebook as a tool to persuade others. The degree to which participants indicated Facebook was an appropriate channel for political expression correlated positively with their own Facebook political activity.

Smith, Lehman Schlozman, Verba, and Brady (2009) also found that the majority of participants reported using both offline and online political tools (p. 20). Similarly, they also identified eight online political participation pathways:

1) posting comments about a political or social issue,
2) getting political information on a social networking site,
3) writing about political or social issues on one's own blog,
4) starting or joining a political group or cause on a SNS,
5) friending a candidate on a SNS,
6) posting political news on a SNS,
7) posting pictures online about a political or social issue, and
8) posting a video online about a political or social issue (p. 6).

About one-fifth of adults report participating in at least one of these ways. Skoric, Ying, and Ying (2009, p. 422) also proposed several measures of online political participation activities, including posting comments on discussion groups, reading online newspapers related to politics, reading blogs commenting on politics, and e-mailing others about politics.

While the academic debate over the meaning and usefulness of online participation as political participation continues to flourish, citizens are increasingly turning to the Internet to express their political views and become involved with movements. Scholars may argue that these forms of expression are not true participation, but they are at the very least political expression and a growing set of behaviors that require additional exploration, operationalization, and theoretical inquiry.

CHAPTER IV: NON-COMMERCIAL CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENTS

In addition to endorsing commercial products for profitmaking, celebrities also often endorse in situations without a commercial product, often times for a social cause or a political candidate. Celebrities can engage in politics in many ways, such as donating to a campaign or testifying in congressional hearings. This dissertation focuses specifically on celebrity endorsement of a candidate.

Celebrity Endorsements in Politics

While the study of the use of celebrities in commercial advertising has a long documented history dating back decades, the study of the use of celebrities for political ends is a largely unexplored field (Brubaker, 2011). Of the studies conducted, researchers have found significant results regarding celebrity endorsements and politics, however findings are not consistent across groups and situations. All but one of the six studies available, used student samples. While one of these studies (Veer et al., 2010) did not use a student sample, it is important to note that half of their respondents were under age 28. However, given the nature of the topic, student samples may be more appropriate in this area of research than they are in other areas.

Most of these researchers rely on components of celebrity endorser effectiveness for commercial products and draw from theory and variables used in existing research. In addition to looking at identification, Brubaker (2011) investigated a Third Person Effect of celebrity endorsements of candidates using real endorsements from the 2004 and 2008 Presidential Election cycles. Overall, respondents reported that they did not think they were personally influenced by out-group endorsements (endorsements for candidates in the opposite party), but that the general public would be influenced to have both a better impression of and higher

likelihood of voting for the candidate. In a politically polarized climate, those who are already strong partisans are unlikely to be swayed by celebrity endorsements from either side, as they are already solidified in their vote choice. "Although people knew that they were too knowledgeable to be influenced by the opposing candidate's celebrity endorsement, they were concerned about others, within the general public and their own political party" (p. 19).

Brubaker's (2011) findings regarding partisanship make sense given that politicians often pander to the base to win nominations, and then begin to move more center during the general election to win the votes of non-partisans. Data from the 2004 election suggest "that most respondents reject the notion that celebrities might influence their voting behavior" (Pease & Brewer, 2008, p. 387). However, people are not always aware of the way media messages shape their attitudes and behavior.

Pease and Brewer (2008) explain voting using Popkin's (1991) concept of "low information rationality," that is that for individuals, "when thinking about presidential campaigns: instead of expending a great deal of effort in acquiring knowledge about campaigns, they use information shortcuts" that often come from their daily nonpolitical lives (Pease & Brewer, 2008, pp. 388-389). Voters often assess candidate viability in addition to desirability, particularly in primaries. Interestingly, in this study, liking the celebrity endorser, Oprah, did not lead to more favorability or likeability for Obama as predicted by the meaning transfer model, but did translate to increased vote intentions for Obama. The researchers credit an increase in perceived viability of Obama in the general election garnered through Oprah's endorsement for this effect.

Both Brubaker's (2011) and Pease and Brewer's (2008) studies dealt with real celebrity endorsements of real candidates. St. Dizier (1985) focused on newspaper endorsements rather

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than celebrity endorsements of a fictional candidate and found that in low information context, people look for subtle differences between two apparently similar candidates to make a vote choice. In this case, the only information experimental group participants were provided to differentiate between two candidates was each's party and which the newspaper endorsed. Those who did not receive any information to differentiate the two fictional candidates (control group) generally did not change their votes over the course of the experiment, as they had no new information to warrant a change.

Veer et al. (2010) had similar findings with regard to information and engagement. Looking at endorsement of the Conservative party in Britain by either a celebrity (Kate Winslet) or non-celebrity (selected in a pre-test), drawing from the ELM and source attractiveness models, they found that people who had been manipulated to have high political salience preferred the advertisement featuring the non-celebrity, where as those with low political salience preferred the advertisement featuring Winslet. She was found to be more familiar and likeable than the non-celebrity, however, this did not translate into vote intention for the Conservative party. The study's authors suggest that while celebrity endorsers do little (or even possibly have slightly negative effects) for high political salience voters, they ought to be used in campaigns to increase political salience in the public. From a campaign standpoint, celebrity endorsements appear to only affect those who are not engaged.

Also investigating celebrity endorsements of political parties, Nownes (2012) directly suggested that we think about political parties as brands that celebrities use, in investigating the relationship between celebrity endorsers and politics (p. 497) . While other researchers have used components of the celebrity endorsements for commercial products and brands theory, Nownes (2012) used the meaning transfer model, focusing particularly on identification to study

the impact of information about celebrity support for political parties, namely Jennifer

Anniston's financial contribution to the Democratic party and Peyton Manning's contribution to

the Republican party. Nownes' (2012) findings suggest that when people like a celebrity who

donates to a political party, they also report liking that party more, and conversely when people

do not like a celebrity, they will report liking the party that celebrity donated to less. However,

for partisans, the relationship is slightly more nuanced, as the relationship is a two-way street,

and people who dislike Republicans in turn report more dislike of Peyton Manning after learning

of his contribution, as people who dislike Democrats report more dislike of Jennifer Anniston for

the same reason. For Jennifer Anniston, Democrats liked her more after learning of her

contribution. The same could not be said for Peyton Manning with Republicans. Overall, the

data show meaning transfer occurring in a political endorsement context.

Jackson and Darrow (2005) also used a meaning transfer approach when studying

whether or not celebrity attribution of a statement about a politician affected agreement with that

statement. Respondents in this study, conducted in Canada, were asked their level of agreement

with a series of statements made by Canadian celebrities (Avril Lavigne, Alanis Morissette,

Deryck Whibley, and Wayne Gretzky) about George W. Bush and U.S. policy. The control

group was given no attribution to a celebrity for a statement. The experimental group received

the name of the celebrity who made the statement. Two statements were critical of U.S. policy,

one was supportive of U.S. policy, and one positive about Canada's decision not to go to war.

Attribution of statements to Lavigne, Whibley, and Gretzky increased agreement with the

statements. Morissette had no effect, presumably because she is no longer considered a pop star,

as celebrity is fleeting. With respect to the source credibility model, these findings underscore

previous findings suggesting that moderate credibility is more effective than high credibility in a

spokesperson. With regard to the source attractiveness model, the researchers contend that public perceptions would support the notion that the celebrities chosen are attractive.

In contrast with the other studies, Austin, Van de Vord, Pinkleton, and Epstein (2008) did not focus on feelings toward a politician or political party, but rather toward voting in general. By looking at complacency through a lens of identification with celebrities involved in GOTV campaigns, Austin and colleagues found that receptivity to these campaigns, influenced by admiration for or identification with the celebrities involved, increased self-efficacy which leads to involvement and also decreased complacency, which also leads to involvement. Decreases in complacency are associated with additional gains in self-efficacy.

CHAPTER V: QUESTIONING THE ASSUMPTIONS

To better understand the relationship between celebrity endorsements of consumer products and celebrity endorsements of political candidates, a few key assumptions require exploration regarding the nature of brands, people, and their motivations.

Treating the Politician as a Brand

One of the goals of this project is to investigate how the "rules" that apply to endorsements of goods apply to endorsements of people, more specifically, a political candidate. This project seeks to apply the determinant factors of endorser effectiveness outlined by Amos et al. (2008) to a non-commercial context. Albiniak (2013) supports similar research by focusing on the qualities of celebrity persona:

> Celebrities can influence people's views of political parties just as they influence people's views of products. A celebrity who is politically active has a persona. When this celebrity endorses a party, people who like the celebrity—that is, people who identify with the celebrity and are open to guidance from him or her—transfer the qualities of the celebrity to the political party the celebrity endorses or supports (p. 479).

The transfer of celebrity qualities to products is well documented, but what about the transfer of celebrity qualities to another person?

While the term "brand" is traditionally "applied to firms, products, and services… Celebrities can also be considered brands because they can be professionally managed and because they have additional associations and features of a brand" (Thomson, 2006, pp. 104-105). According to the American Marketing Association, as cited by G. Smith and French (2009), a brand is defined as "a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them which is intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (AMA, 1960, p. 211). Political marketers have been using branding concepts since the 1970s, with an emphasis on image through reputation

and credible promises, "which for politicians is pretty much the only thing of substance that they can offer to voters before election" (Scammell, 2007, p. 188).

The transfer of traditional branding to the political sphere is predicated on two key assumptions: 1) "that the choices voters make at election time are analogous to the choices consumers make between commercial products or services," and 2) "that parallels exist between marketing a consumer product or service and promoting a political party" (Needham, 2006, p. 178). Needham (2006) isolates brand goals and their relevance to political marketing:

> First, brands simplify choice and reduce dependence on detailed product information, in much the same way as party labels relieve voters of the need to familiarise themselves with all the party's policies. Secondly, brands provide reassurance by promising standardisation and replicability, generating trust between producer and consumer, much as parties emphasise unity and coherence in order to build up voter trust. Thirdly, brands, like parties, are aspirational, evoking a particular vision of the 'good life' or holding out the promise of personal enhancement. Fourthly, to be successful, brands must be perceived as authentic and value-based, necessitating congruence between the internal values of the product or company and its external message. In the same way, successful parties must link their external presentational strategies to a set of core values, if they are to retain voter support (p. 179).

While the political equivalent of big ticket item purchases is only required every few years, successful political marketers strive to maintain a brand, as voters "regular choices about which party's version of events or policy options should be accepted and endorsed" (Needham, 2006, p. 179).

Warning that a direct translation from consumer brand to political party has its nuances, G. Smith & French (2009) take a different approach to understanding political parties as brands, the consumer perspective, which "focuses on how consumers learn about and are motivated by brands" (p. 210). The consumer perspective operates through cognitive learning theory; an associative network of information is built through associations with other pieces of information. G. Smith and French (2009) define the political brand, "as an associative network of

interconnected political information and attitudes, held in memory and accessible when stimulated from the memory of a voter" (p. 211). For this model, political brands have three characteristics distinguishable from one another. The party serves the role of the brand; the politician serves as a brand's tangible characteristics; and policies serve as core service offerings (p. 212). Depending upon political climate and individual values, different levels of importance may be placed on each of these aspects.

While the political marketing concept of translating brand theory to political parties is widely used to at least some degree, it is not without criticism. Henneberg (2004) identifies eleven key criticisms of political marketing. Criticisms of the practical application of political marketing generally center on a concern for the idealized process of politics and were almost exclusively voiced by political scientists concerned about the possible commodification of elections. The other five criticisms relate to theory and were raised by both political scientists and marketers. Critics assert:

> Research on political marketing is not focusing on politics but on ephemeral activities like communication tactics and campaigning; All research into political marketing helps in the end to foster the adoption and application of (inherently bad) management practice and thinking in politics. This is not only true of normative research but also of purely descriptive research; Research in political marketing is not sophisticated; it does not utilise the leading edge political science and especially marketing theories available; The political arena is not really part of the 'marketing domain' and should therefore not be researched using marketing concepts; and No theoretical and ethical framework exists that allows (value-) discussions about political marketing (p. 227).

In Henneberg's (2004) response to these criticisms, he advocates cross disciplinary discourse to improve the use of marketing theory in political science and political science theory in marketing.

While viewing the political sphere through the lens of a brand is not without its nuances, given the history and growing trend of using branding techniques in politics, it is perfectly

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reasonable to investigate endorser effects for commercial brands and products with a political candidate. Reflecting on campaign use of celebrity endorsements, G. Smith (2001) hypothesized that, "celebrity endorsers may be developed more proactively in the future… In subsequent elections, celebrities may be targeted for their expertise, trustworthiness and attractiveness more than simple availability/willingness to endorse a party" (p. 1003).

Why do political candidates seek celebrity endorsements?

Political candidates might seek celebrity endorsements for a number of reasons. The end goal for any political campaign is some sort of political action, most importantly, voting for the candidate. Candidates also benefit from other actions such as campaign involvement (time donation) and financial donations.

The Meaning Transfer Path

When candidates seek celebrity endorsements, they hope that the positive characteristics that individuals attribute to the celebrities, such as likability, credibility, trustworthiness, or moral values will transfer to them, the way endorser traits can transfer to brands and products through association. If meaning transfer from the celebrity to the candidate is successful, citizens may take action. However, if they do not see a connection between the celebrity's attributes and the candidate, meaning transfer may not take place or may not be strong (Pease & Brewer, 2008).

The Publicity Path

While campaign spending is an important part of the election process, non-paid campaign activities are also useful to candidates (Weaver-Lariscy & Tinkham, 1991). Non-paid activities include things like small group appearances, newspaper endorsements, canvassing, and newspaper coverage. Weaver-Lariscy and Tinkham (1991) found that congressional candidates

believed free newspaper coverage was the second most useful non-paid campaign activity. By definition, the primary characteristic of celebrities is that their lives and actions are newsworthy. Just as the celebrity's entire existence is a pseudo-event, as is the act of endorsing a candidate (Boorstin, 1992). Candidates can, therefore, take advantage of the celebrity's intrinsic well-knownness while simultaneously enjoying a boost in publicity from the pseudo-event that is endorsement.

Seeking Awareness

To increase voters' political awareness, the information presented must be relevant. Relevance is a factor of both perception of desirable attributes (transferred from the celebrity) and publicity, with repetition of information through media improving relevance. If the citizen finds information about the candidate relevant, awareness of the issues may lead to campaign action.

On Increasing Network Size

Publicity and candidate attributes may also combine to increase the candidate's network size through the process of identification. Individuals who have strong fandom, para-social relationships, and identification with celebrities report engaging in activities that they believe will help the celebrity (Boon & Lomore, 2001; Brown, Basil, & Bocarnea, 2003; Soukup, 2006). Individuals also may, in turn, like the people the celebrity "likes," through the identification process. Such identification leads to network growth for the candidate. Both private citizens and celebrities may then choose action mechanisms once involved in the candidate's network.

Restarting the Loop

The process of gaining support through celebrity endorsements may begin for a candidate independently of another celebrity's endorsement. However, celebrities, as they often do, may

also choose to endorse the same candidate, or endorse together, because groups of celebrities reaffirming their celebrity together promotes their fame even more than doing things individually (Boorstin, 1992). By collecting multiple quality endorsements, candidates may be able to maximize the impacts of their non-paid activities.

Why do celebrities endorse political candidates?

While candidates' motivations for seeking endorsements may appear straightforward, celebrities' reasons for providing them are more nuanced. When celebrities endorse products, it may be for a host of psychological reasons, but first and foremost, they're getting paid to do so. What incentive does endorsing a candidate have when it can ultimately damage a celebrity (Cockcroft, 2008; Nownes, 2012). "While there is a long tradition of political activity in Hollywood, there is an equally long-held fear that being too political can destroy a career" (Ross, 2011, p. 5).

Influence

Street (2012) simplifies the categorization of celebrity politicos into two categories:

> first, the traditional politician who emerges from a background in show business or who uses the techniques of popular culture to seek (and acquire) elected office (for example, Arnold Schwarzenegger or Ronald Reagan); and second, the celebrity who seeks to influence the exercise of political power by way of their fame and status (for example, Bono or Bob Geldof) (p. 347).

The second categorization that Street (2012) illuminates why celebrities choose to endorse candidates at the risk of harming their reputation. Street (2004) elaborates on the characteristics of these celebrity politicos:

> They use their status and the medium within which they work to speak out on specific causes and for particular interests with a view to influencing political outcomes. This includes the many stars of show business who signed the published petitions against the war in Iraq and who used the other platforms to which they had access to draw attention to their political views. Those involved included Hollywood stars like Tim Robbins, Susan Sarandon, Robert Redford,

> Bruce Willis and Cher; or musicians like Madonna, Damon Albarn (Blur), Chris Martin (Coldplay) and Ms. Dynamite, among many others. They also include people like Bono who has had audiences with President George W. Bush, President Chirac and Pope John Paul in his campaign to reduce third world debt, as well as touring Africa with the U.S. Treasury secretary (p. 438).

In understanding how seriously these celebrity politicos can be taken, Street (2004) points to three measures:

> i) Media focus on their politics (as opposed to their art);
> ii) Political attention (e.g. a willingness by politicians to meet to discuss the particular concerns);
> iii) Audience support, measured by a willingness to contribute money to the cause (as with Live Aid) or other gestures beyond those typically required of a fan (p. 438).

The public often forgets that celebrities are human beings with interests, values, and aspirations. Thus some celebrities may endorse politicians because they care about the election and this is their favored candidate. Plenty of lay people are involved in campaigns. Imagine being a celebrity and being able to relay your message of who you plan to vote for to millions more than a phone banking event could reach. Jane Fonda, for example, was very active in the antiwar movement, even injecting the movement's messages into her films. First involved in issue politics, Fonda became involved in electoral politics when her then-husband, Tom Hayden ran for the U.S. Senate. Hayden's confidant, Andy Spahn, described Fonda as "'committed to building an organization and a movement' and to that end she 'endorsed Democratic candidates' that she 'never would have several years earlier'" (Ross, 2011, p. 247).

Whether drawing attention to social causes, lobbying for changes in the system, or merely expressing their own views to a mass audience, it is likely that the main goal of celebrity political endorsers is to influence the process.

Publicity

While most celebrity politicos probably make their endorsements based on personal values, ideology, and their own political/social agendas, it is not outside the realm of reason that others may do so purely for publicity reasons. The act of commenting on politics in and of itself is a publicity generating event for celebrities. Browsing the citations on Wikipedia for examples of people who endorsed Barack Obama reveals some incredibly mundane stories about endorsement ("List of Barack Obama presidential campaign endorsements, 2012," 2014). In many cases, the celebrity merely saying something such as "I'm going to vote for Obama," was media-worthy. This is particularly true when celebrities can do things in groups, since celebrities doing things together is way more interesting for the media than individual celebrity news. Some celebrities might come out in favor of a particular candidate for the attention it draws to themselves.

Research Questions

While the aforementioned research has begun to scratch the surface on celebrity endorsements in the political sphere, Brubaker's (2011) call for additional research is quite warranted, as celebrities and politicians become increasingly involved with one another. Therefore, I pose the following research question with regard to celebrity endorsement of a political candidate:

RQ$_1$: How effective is the integrated model of endorser effectiveness, including those variables outlined by Amos and his colleagues (2008), in predicting effectiveness of a celebrity political candidate endorsement?

This research question investigates how well a model, referred to in this study as the integrated model of endorser effectiveness, containing these celebrity source factors, along with

control variables, endorsement mode, party match-up, and identification, fit, and viability measures predicts effectiveness of the endorser when a political outcome is desired.

H_1: The combined set of variables in the integrated model of endorser effectiveness will significantly predict endorser effectiveness.

With regard to the specific elements within the integrated model of endorser effectiveness, I propose the following hypotheses:

H_2: The celebrity source factors will be positively associated with endorser effectiveness.

H_3: The endorsement modes (explicit, implicit, imperative, or co-present) will be equally effective as predictors of endorser effectiveness.

According to McCracken (1989), an endorsement does not need to be in the explicit mode to be effective.

H_4: A match condition between the candidate's party and the participant's party identification will be positively associated with endorser effectiveness.

H_5: The identification measure will be positively associated with endorser effectiveness.

H_6: The celebrity-candidate fit measure will be positively associated with endorser effectiveness.

H_7: The candidate viability measure will be positively associated with endorser effectiveness.

CHAPTER VI: METHODS

This study was conducted using an experimental manipulation embedded into a survey through the Qualtrics online survey platform. The human subjects testing approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) can be found in APPENDIX E.

Participants and Recruitment

The sample for this study consisted of participants who were U.S. citizens over the age of 18 and eligible to vote. They were recruited during three waves: 1) social network sample (SNS) recruited during the pilot test in early April 2016 (N=17), 2) a subject pool of communication students from Louisiana State University who participate in research projects in exchange for academic credit through the Manship School of Mass Communication's Media Effects Lab (MEL), in late April and early May 2016 (N=21), and 3) Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) who participated in late June and early July 2016 (N=192) for a total of 230 participants. Amazon's MTurk is a network of workers who complete High Intelligence Tasks (HITs) online for a small fee. Researchers can offer small financial incentives to a 24X7 workforce, completing tasks, such as research studies, in their own homes. Berinsky, Huber, and Lenz (2012) explain that MTurk is easy to use, provides a versatile interface, and can produce a sample that looks demographically very similar to the general population and has been found to respond similarly in surveys. Proponents of the MTurk sample recruitment technique argue that the resulting sample is much more representative than a student sample and in some ways, MTurk provides easier data collection. The a priori sample size analysis indicated that a sample of N>149 was required for 18 predictor variables, an effect size of 0.15 and a statistical power level of 0.80. The full sample included 230 participants, and even after filtering responses based on familiarity with the celebrity endorser, the final sample size of 192 exceeded this threshold.

A filter variable, response to the question "I have no idea who Jeff Bridges is," was used to remove participants who would not recognize Jeff Bridges as a celebrity, therefore could not be influenced by a celebrity endorsement, from the analysis. Removal of those who selected "strongly agree" to this question, indicating that they would not be susceptible to a celebrity endorsement from Jeff Bridges because they would not recognize him as a celebrity, left a remaining sample of a size N=192, with 13 from SNS sample subset, 13 from MEL sample subset, and 166 from MTurk sample subset.

Several analyses were run to determine similarities and differences among the sample subsets in order to deduce whether the three waves of sampling could be combined into one sample. Overall findings suggest that while the three subsets had some minor differences among them, particularly with regard to age (MEL participants were younger than the others), they were similar on key characteristics and generally answered in similar ways on the dependent measures. Table 3, below, illustrates the demographic characteristics of each sample subset as well as the full sample.

Table 3: Demographic characteristics of the sample

	SNS (13)	MEL (13)	MTurk (165)	Total Sample (191)
Age				
Mean	27.92	21.54	37.96	36.17
Standard Deviation	10.45	1.39	12.43	12.75
Min/Max	20-57	19-24	19-68	19-68
Gender				
Female	10	8	105	123
Male	2	5	59	66
Education				
Less than High School	0	0	3	3
High School Diploma	6	9	45	60
Associate's Degree	2	0	31	33
Bachelor's Degree	3	4	61	68
Master's Degree	2	0	21	23
Doctoral Degree	0	0	5	5

	SNS (13)	MEL (13)	MTurk (165)	Total Sample (191)
Race				
Caucasian/White	6	11	126	143
African-American/Black	4	1	17	22
Hispanic Any Race	2	1	6	9
Asian	1	0	12	13
Native American	0	0	0	0
Pacific Islander	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	2	2
Voter Registration				
Yes	9	13	149	171
No	4	0	17	21

Materials

The materials for this study consisted of several questionnaire items and a stimulus. All of the materials were presented electronically on the web-based survey platform, Qualtrics.

Stimulus

Participants in this study viewed a fictitious, constructed Twitter page that appeared to be grabbed from Jeff Bridges' Twitter account stating that he had endorsed a particular candidate, Shawn Smith, and also either 1) stated that the candidate is a Democrat, 2) stated that the candidate is a Republican or 3) provided no information as to the candidate's party affiliation. Each Tweet also reflected one of four different endorsement modes: a) explicit, b) implicit, c) imperative, d) co-present, for a total of twelve different manipulations. Participants were randomly placed into one of these twelve manipulations. Two previous Tweets made by Jeff Bridges were also included in the stimulus material to maintain the authentic appearance of the screen grab. One Tweet referred to Bridges' work with the No Child Hungry project. The other referred to his most recent movie at the time of the experiment, *The Giver*. The same name for the fictitious candidate, Shawn Smith, was used for all groups as not to introduce a confounding variable. Examples of stimuli can be found in APPENDIX A.

A number of factors contributed to the decision to use Jeff Bridges as the celebrity endorser in this study. First, while Bridges is known to be a socially conscious humanitarian through his work with the *End Hunger Network*, he has remained politically neutral. During the 2012 campaign, Bridges appeared at both the DNC and RNC, to promote his childhood hunger initiative and did not endorse either candidate (Bridges, 2012; Schillachi, 2012).

Bridges has a demonstrated track record of celebrity status, coming from a Hollywood family and having been in the spotlight since the 1950s ("Jeff Bridges biography," n.d.). He is included in *IMDb*'s top 500, and considered an "A-list" celebrity on the *Ulmer Scale* (Bruze, 2011). Over Bridges' nearly 60-year career he has amassed nearly 100 film credits including recent films such as 2009's *The Men Who Stare at Goats*, 2010's *True Grit* and *Tron: Legacy*, 2011's *Tron: The Next Day*, 2014's *The Giver*, 2015's film adaptation of Antoine de Saint-Exupéry's *The Little* Prince, and 2016's *Hell or High Water*, for which Bridges was nominated for a Golden Globe. Throughout his acting career, Bridges has won 40 awards, including an Oscar, Golden Globe, and SAG award for the 2009 film, *Crazy Heart*, and has been nominated for 57 additional awards ("Jeff Bridges biography," n.d.).

Jeff Bridges has also enjoyed success as a singer-songwriter. Though better known for his acting credentials, his 2011 country album, *Jeff Bridges*, peaked at number 25 on the *Billboard 200*, number five on the *Billboard Top Rock Albums*, number ten on the *Billboard Top Country Albums,* and number two on the *Billboard Top Folk Albums*. The album spent four weeks on the *Billboard 200* and *Billboard Top Rock Albums*, 14 weeks on the *Billboard Top Country Albums* and *Billboard Top Folk Albums* (Billboard, n.d.). Bridges' combination of long-standing and current celebrity status, diversity in professional career, and known activism,

which should positively influence believability in the experiment, made him an ideal celebrity to use as the endorser in this study.

Questionnaires and Measures

Participants were presented with sets of questions to measure demographic characteristics, their use of digital media, identification with Jeff Bridges, their perceived viability of Shawn Smith as a candidate, the "fit" between Jeff Bridges and Shawn Smith, perceptions of Jeff Bridges, and a series of effectiveness measures (dependent variables), explained below.

<u>Demographic Variables/Control Block</u>

<u>Age</u>

Age was included in the model because of its possible influence on digital media use, identification with the celebrity, and willingness to perform civic engagement behaviors. As Delli Carpini (2000) notes, American youth have been declining in political knowledge and willingness to perform traditional civic engagement behaviors, "disconnecting from public life, and doing so at a rate that is greater than for any other age group" (p. 341). While the gap between young and old closes with regard to Internet use, younger Americans, 18-29, are still more likely to use the Internet, approaching complete adoption (Pew, 2017). The age variable was determined from the question, "In what year were you born?" and subtracted from 2016, to create the continuous variable of age. The age variable was fairly normally distributed according to the Q-Q plot. Full sample characteristics can be found in Table 3, above.

<u>Gender</u>

The gender variable was included in this analysis because of its possible influence on identification and civic engagement. First, females may identify less with Jeff Bridges than do

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males. Females also vote differently than males, and are more likely to lean toward the

Democratic Party and consider different factors when making vote choices (Chaturvedi, 2016).

The gender variable was dichotomous, derived from the question, "What is your gender?" For

this analysis, females were coded as 0, and males as 1. Full sample characteristics can be found

in Table 3, above.

Race

Race was included in the model, particularly regarding its close association with

identification, such that white or Caucasian participants may have had a closer identification with

the celebrity, Jeff Bridges than non-white participants. Further, there may be race or ethnicity

based differences in other factors included in the model, such as digital media use as well as the

dependent variables, particularly with regard to civic engagement (Krogstad, 2015). Race was

measured by asking participants to select their racial identification from a pre-selected list of

possibilities which included, 1) white/Caucasian, 2) black/African-American, 3) Hispanic – any

race, 4) Asian, 5) Native American, 6) Pacific Islander, and 7) Other. For the analysis, the non-

white groups were collapsed together, as to provide a larger reference group. Non-white was

coded as zero (N=46), with white coded as a one (N=143). Full sample characteristics can be

found in Table 3, above.

Party Match

To measure political party identification, participants were asked to place themselves on

a continuum from strongly Democrat (0) to strongly Republican (10). This information was

combined with which manipulation each participant saw, such that if a participant's self-

described political party identification matched the candidate in the stimulus, that participant

would be considered having "party match." Conversely, if the participant saw a stimulus in

which the candidate being endorsed belonged to a different political party than the participant's, that was considered non-match. Participants who placed themselves from 0-3 were coded as Democrats (N=86), 7-10 as Republicans (N=45), and 4-6 as moderate/no strict party (N=61). Of the sample, 61 (32%) fell into match conditions (coded as 1), while 131 (68%) fell into non-match conditions (coded as 0). Figure 4, below, illustrates the political identification of the participants.
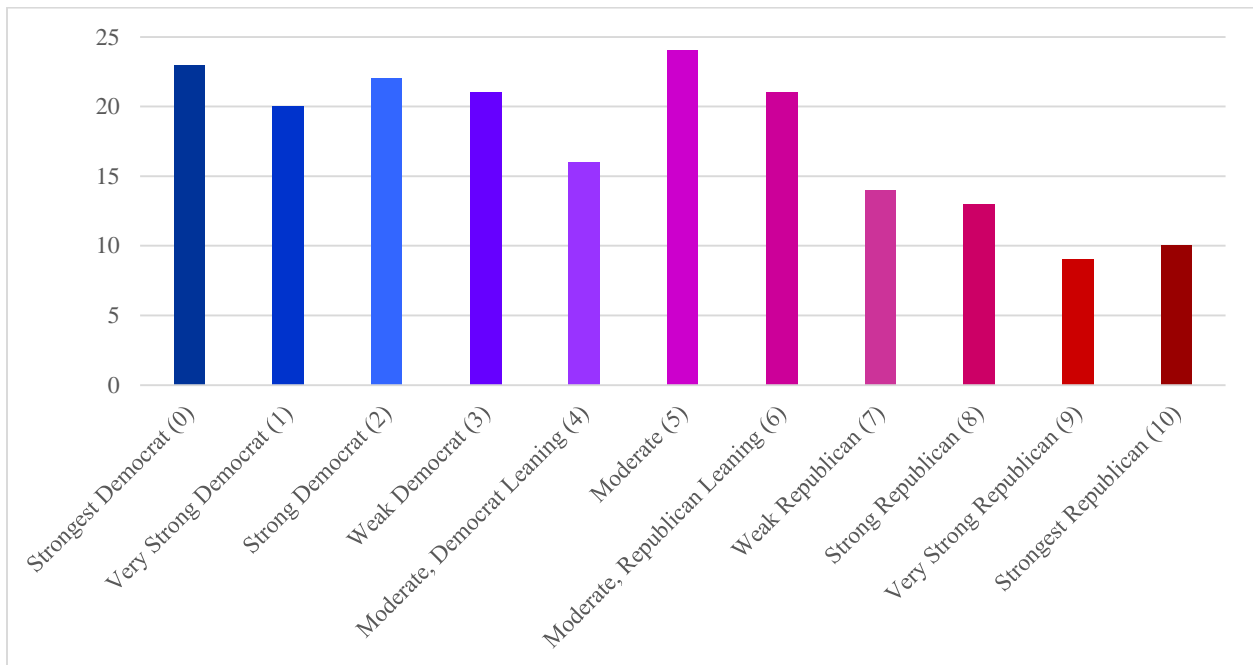
Figure 4: Political identification of participants

Digital Media Use Index

Digital media use refers to how frequently people use the Internet to perform certain actions. This variable was included as a control, particularly with regard to the online civic engagement behaviors to ensure that any influence on these measures came from the predictor variables rather than participants' level of Internet-competency. Subjects were asked to rate their digital media use on a 10-point scale, indicating how often they use the Internet to do nine different activities, including video chatting, online banking, and looking for information. This

scale, used by Gil de Zuñiga et al. (2012), created a general digital media index and has demonstrated reliability (α=.70). This study confirmed Gil de Zuñiga et al.'s (2012) reliability findings for the Digital Media Use Index, α=.748. Participants' scores on each item, which ranged from 0 (never) to 9 (multiple times a day), were summed to create an index measuring digital media use, with theoretical values from 0-81 and an actual range of 11-81, m=56.85, SD=12.93. The full list of questions used in the digital media index is located in APPENDIX B.

Endorsement Mode

Endorsement mode refers to the wording used in the endorsements. This study used stimuli that were manipulated to include one of four different modes of endorsement to determine if the endorsement modes performed equally well. Table 4, below, includes the wording of the experimentally manipulated Tweets for each endorsement mode and the number of participants who received each endorsement mode, N=192.

Table 4: Endorsement mode wording used in Tweets and number of participants per group

	Tweet Wording	N
Explicit	"I endorse [party affiliation] candidate Shawn Smith for President!"	42
Implicit	"I will vote for [party affiliation] candidate Shawn Smith for President!"	46
Imperative	"You should vote for [party affiliation] candidate Shawn Smith for President!"	51
Copresent	"I am very excited to see my good friend and [party affiliation] presidential candidate, Shawn Smith this evening!"	53

Identification, Viability, and Fit

The next block of variables deals directly with impressions of the celebrity endorser and candidate, but are not considered as "source factors" derived from the work of Amos et al. (2008).

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Identification with the Celebrity Endorser

The identification measure consisted of three-items measured on a 5-point Likert scale (0-4) which Watson et al. (2009) found reliable (α=.82), as did the original researchers (Whittler & DiMeo, 1991). The items for agreement, adopted from Whittler and DiMeo (1991, p. 40) are 1) This celebrity is a person whom I want to be like, 2) This celebrity is my type of person, and 3) This celebrity is a person who speaks for a group of which I am a member. This study found good internal consistency among the items (α=.858). The identification variable used in the analyses considers each participant's (N=192) mean of these three items and ranges 0-4, m=1.64, SD=0.788.

Candidate Viability

The viability measure considers whether or not participants believe that the candidate in the stimulus is likely to win the election, measured using the question, "Given the endorsement by Jeff Bridges, how likely do you believe it is that Shawn Smith will win the election?" The viability item ranges from 0 (not at all likely) to 4 (very likely), m=1.22, SD=1.069, with N=192. Pease and Brewer (2008) suggest that perceived viability of the candidate, which is enhanced through a celebrity endorsement, is the mechanism through which a celebrity political endorsement may work.

Celebrity-Candidate Fit

The fit measure investigates the perceived fit or match between the celebrity endorser and the political candidate he endorses. This variable was measured using a five-point scale, ranging from 0 – "They don't fit together at all", to 4 – "They are a perfect fit," (m=1.80, SD=0.657, with N=192), to answer the question "How well do you think that Jeff Bridges and Shawn Smith fit together?"

Source Factors

The source factors block includes information collected from the questions regarding the characteristics Amos et al. (2008) identified as key components in understanding an effective celebrity endorser: a) celebrity performance, b) negative information, c) celebrity credibility, d) celebrity expertise, e) celebrity trust, f) celebrity attractiveness, g) celebrity familiarity, and h) celebrity likeability. The full question list appears in APPENDIX C. Ratings on the source factors represent each individual's perceptions of Jeff Bridges. All questions that were worded in a way that agreement with the statement indicated a negative opinion of Jeff Bridges were reverse coded, such that higher values are associated with positive evaluations of Jeff Bridges. The negative information factor, for example, refers to a lack of negative information about Bridges. Questions like, "I believe that Jeff Bridges is dishonest," were reverse coded, such that a 0 (strongly disagree), became a 4, and so forth, leading the overall construct to consist of variables that ran in the same direction (higher numbers indicate positive attributes of Bridges).

Reliability analysis showed that six of these item categories derived from work by Amos et al. (2008) and Ohanian (1990) could have their composite questions combined into scales with reasonable to good internal consistency of the measures. These items were merged into their respective theoretical source factor categories. Two remaining source factor categories lacked internal consistency among their theoretical measures, negative information (α=.352) and likeability (α=.171).

A factor analysis confirmed that the two questions each for negative information and likeability did not load together. Rather, one likeability measure, "I like Jeff Bridges because he is attractive," loaded with the celebrity attractiveness measures, while two additional questions, "I don't like Jeff Bridges because of the way he acts," and "Jeff Bridges is frequently in the news

for scandals," loaded with the celebrity familiarity measures. The second negative information

item, "I can't remember the last time I heard anything bad about Jeff Bridges," was not closely

related with any other item, and thus was retained as its own measure of negative information.

Through the factor analysis, celebrity likeability was removed from the source factor categories,

being split between attractiveness and familiarity, while negative information was reduced to one

item. Table 5 displays each source factor category with its revised component questions, the

number of items combined into the source factor, inter-item reliability, mean, and standard

deviation. Overall, the items that could be retained with their theoretical categories from

previous research were retained as such, with two items added to celebrity familiarity, and

negative information reduced to one item.

Each source factor's component items were measured using these questions, which asked

participants to evaluate their own perceptions of Jeff Bridges, rather than evaluating him on

objective measures. For example, while one may be hard pressed to objectively find a scandal in

which Jeff Bridges was involved, the participant's perception of Jeff Bridges' scandals, rather

than the objective reality, would influence the effectiveness of the endorsement Erdogan (1999).

Table 5: Source factor composite items and descriptive statistics

	# of items	α	m	SD
Celebrity Performance	3	0.745	2.28	0.69
Jeff Bridges is doing well in his career.				
Jeff Bridges should retire.*				
Jeff Bridges frequently wins awards for his accomplishments.				
Negative Information	1	n/a	2.86	0.90
I can't remember the last time I heard anything bad about Jeff Bridges.				
Celebrity Credibility	2	0.543	1.90	0.71
Jeff Bridges is a credible source of information.				
I would not believe any claims Jeff Bridges made.*				

(Table 5 continued)

	# of items	α	m	SD
Celebrity Expertise	3	0.548	2.21	0.52
Jeff Bridges is well trained.				
Jeff Bridges is uninformed.*				
Jeff Bridges is well educated.				
Celebrity Trustworthiness	4	0.586	2.30	0.48
I believe that Jeff Bridges is dishonest.*				
Jeff Bridges is a reliable person.				
Jeff Bridges engages in unethical behaviors.*				
Jeff Bridges is a pure person.				
Celebrity Attractiveness	4	0.764	1.81	0.68
Jeff Bridges isn't very attractive.*				
Jeff Bridges is classy.				
Jeff Bridges is elegant.				
I like Jeff Bridges because he is attractive. [X]				
Celebrity Familiarity				
I have no idea who Jeff Bridges is.*				
I am familiar with Jeff Bridges' career.				
Jeff Bridges is frequently in the news for scandals. [X]*				
I don't like Jeff Bridges because of the way he acts. [X]*				

[X] indicates item was originally included in a different source factor.
* indicates item was reverse coded.

Celebrity Performance

The celebrity performance source factor measures how well participants believe Jeff Bridges is performing in his career. This source factor consisted of three questions, which were then combined into the celebrity performance measure through their means. Table 5 lists which questions were included in the celebrity performance measure, the scale mean, standard deviation, and inter-item reliability.

Negative Information

The negative information source factor measures how much negative information or scandal participants believe surrounds Jeff Bridges. This source factor consisted of one question, as the other measure of negative information used in this study loaded better with the familiarity

measures. Table 5 lists the question used in the negative information measure, the mean, and standard deviation.

Celebrity Credibility

The celebrity credibility source factor measures how credible or believable participants believe Jeff Bridges is. This source factor consisted of two questions, which were then combined into the celebrity credibility measure through their means. Table 5 lists which questions were included in the celebrity credibility measure, the scale mean, standard deviation, and inter-item reliability.

Celebrity Expertise

The celebrity expertise source factor measures how much of an expert or how knowledgeable participants believe Jeff Bridges to be. This source factor consisted of three questions, which were then combined into the celebrity expertise measure through their means. Table 5 lists which questions were included in the celebrity expertise measure, the scale mean, standard deviation, and inter-item reliability.

Celebrity Trustworthiness

The celebrity trustworthiness source factor measures how much participants feel they can trust Jeff Bridges and how ethical they believe he is. This source factor consisted of four questions, which were then combined into the celebrity trustworthiness measure through their means. Table 5 lists which questions were included in the celebrity trustworthiness measure, the scale mean, standard deviation, and inter-item reliability.

Celebrity Attractiveness

The celebrity attractiveness source factor measures how attractive participants find Jeff Bridges. This source factor consisted of four questions, three of which were originally placed

within the celebrity attractiveness measure, and a likeability question, "I like Jeff Bridges because he is attractive" that loaded with the attractiveness measures in the factor analysis. These four items were then combined into the celebrity attractiveness measure through their means. Table 5 lists which questions were included in the celebrity attractiveness measure, the scale mean, standard deviation, and inter-item reliability.

Celebrity Familiarity

The celebrity familiarity source factor measures how much people know of Jeff Bridges, or how familiar they are with him. This source factor consisted of four questions, two of which were originally placed within the celebrity familiarity measure from the theoretical literature, a likeability question, "I don't like Jeff Bridges because of the way he acts" that loaded with the familiarity measures in the factor analysis, and a negative information question, "Jeff Bridges is frequently in the news for scandal" that also loaded with familiarity. These four items were then combined into the celebrity familiarity measure through their means. Table 5 lists which questions were included in the celebrity familiarity measure, the scale mean, standard deviation, and inter-item reliability.

Dependent Measures

This study seeks to investigate the factors which influence the effectiveness of a celebrity candidate endorsement. Traditional celebrity endorsement literature identifies six key measures of advertising effectiveness a) purchase intention, b) brand attitude, c) attitude toward the advertisement, d) believability, e) recall, and f) recognition (Amos et al., 2008) that were adapted from measures used by Eisend and Langner (2010) to the purposes of this study. The primary way in which this was done was to change references to products or brands to references to the candidate. Additionally, St. Dizier (1986) provided items used to determine electoral

engagement, a construct which is more nuanced than its advertising counterpart, purchase intention. These items include a) voting regularly, b) trying to persuade others to vote for a candidate, c) donating money to a candidate or political party, and d) volunteering for a political candidate or party. In reviewing the extent literature on engagement, questions about online forms of political participation emerged. When taken together, these three types of measures led to the construction of the effectiveness measures for political context that takes into account cognitions, attitudes and behaviors. APPENDIX D contains a full list of the effectiveness measures, their wording, and measurement scales.

Attitude Toward Candidate

This set of questions, comparable to brand attitude in a product endorsement, deals with the participants' attitudes about the candidate. The attitude measure involves six items which are presented as forced-choice items between two opposite constructs, 1) appealing/not appealing, 2) desirable/not desirable, 3) likeable/not likeable, 4) unique/not unique, 5) competent/not competent, and 6) high quality/low quality. These items were coded as 0 for a negative attitude and 1 for a positive attitude about the candidate. Table 6 shows the frequency of responses on these six attitude measures.

Table 6: Frequency of responses on attitude measures

	N	No/Low (0)	Yes/High (1)
Appealing	190	114	76
Desirable	191	115	76
Likeable	191	97	94
Unique	192	104	88
Competent	192	110	82
Quality	192	108	84

Believability

Believability was measured using one question which asked the participants to rate the believability of the endorsement, from 0 (very suspicious) to 4 (very believable), N=192, m=2.18, SD=0.97.

Recognition

Recognition was measured using three items, 1) "What was the name of the political candidate endorsed in the Tweets you just saw?", 2) "Which celebrity's Twitter page did you view?", and 3) "What was the Twitter handle of the Twitter page's owner?". Each of these items had nine decoy or wrong answer choices with the correct answer randomly placed within the list. Table 7 illustrates the frequency of incorrect and correct answers on the recognition measures.

Table 7: Frequency of incorrect/correct answers on recognition measures

	N	Incorrect	Correct
Candidate Name	192	141	51
Celebrity Name	192	35	156
Celebrity Twitter	192	130	62

Civic Engagement Measures

The civic engagement measures used in this study investigated participants' inclination to perform civic-minded behaviors with regard to the candidate endorsed in the Tweet. This study asked nine questions about participants' willingness to engage in civic behaviors for the candidate in the endorsement, including four electoral measures of civic engagement and five new measures of online civic engagement behaviors. Each item was ranked from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). These civic engagement items included:

Electoral civic engagement items:

If the election were held tomorrow, I would vote for Shawn Smith.

(N=192, m=0.92, SD=0.93)

I am likely to try to convince my friends to vote for Shawn Smith.

(N=192, m=0.83, SD=0.98)

I am likely to donate money to Shawn Smith's campaign efforts.

(N=191, m=0.62, SD=0.89)

I am likely to volunteer my time for Shawn Smith's campaign efforts.

(N=192, m=0.61, SD=0.86)

Online civic engagement items:

I am likely to seek out additional information about Shawn Smith through a search engine.

(N=192, m=1.62, SD=1.34)

I am likely to seek out additional information about Shawn Smith through online newspapers.

(N=192, m=1.22, SD=1.22)

I am likely to seek out additional information about Shawn Smith through social networking sites.

(N=191, m=1.19, SD=1.16)

I am likely to "follow" or "like" Shawn Smith on social networking sites.

(N=192, m=0.88, SD=0.944)

I am likely to share information about Shawn Smith through social networking sites.

(N=192, m=0.81, SD=0.98)

A full list of questions used to examine effectiveness is located in APPENDIX D.

Procedure

The first wave of data collection was conducted with 17 participants recruited through social media in March and April 2016, as a pilot test to evaluate question wording and manipulation checks. After reviewing the pilot test data, the second wave of data collection, with participants recruited from the MEL pool and then MTurk, with a posted HIT opportunity, specifically looking for U.S. citizens over the age of 18 who were eligible to vote. The second wave of data collection took place from April 2016 through July 2016.

Upon arriving on the landing page on the Qualtrics website for the study, participants were asked to supply informed consent to participate in the study. After acknowledging their desire to participate, age over 18, and status as a U.S. citizen, participants proceeded to the next page, on which their demographic information was collected, including 1) age, 2) gender, 3) education, 4) primary language spoken in their homes, 5) state of residence, 6) race, 7) voter registration, 8) political identification, and 9) intention to vote in the 2016 election. After providing general demographic information, participants were asked to indicate the frequency of their digital media use, rating nine different items, included in APPENDIX B, from never to multiple times per day.

Following these preliminary questions, participants received one of 12 randomly assigned stimuli as described above. All stimuli were images that appeared to be screen grabs of a Twitter page which contained three Tweets. The "most recent" Tweet in the image was an endorsement from Jeff Bridges for fictitious candidate, Shawn Smith, with Shawn Smith's party and the endorsement mode manipulated. Table 8, below, shows the number of participants who received each stimulus manipulation by endorsement mode and candidate party.

Table 8: Number of participants in each manipulation, endorsement mode X party

	Democrat	No Party	Republican	All Party by EM
Explicit	13	12	17	42
Implicit	15	13	18	46
Imperative	19	17	15	51
Copresent	13	20	20	53
All EM by Party	60	62	70	N = 192

After exposure to the stimulus, participants were asked a series of the three recognition measures. Following recognition measures, participants completed 21 questions relating to the source factors identified by Amos et al. (2008), a believability question, and attitude measures, in which participants had to choose between two semantically opposite items about their attitudes toward the candidate, 1) appealing/not appealing, 2) desirable/not desirable, 3) likeable/not likeable, 4) unique/not unique, 5) competent/not competent, and 6) high quality/low quality. Participants were also presented with the three identification measures, celebrity-candidate fit question, and the viability question. Finally, participants were presented with nine different civic engagement behaviors (four traditional, five online civic engagement items) and asked to indicate their likelihood of performing these civic behaviors. Following these question blocks, participants were debriefed about the manipulation and thanked for their time.

CHAPTER VII: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The goal of this study was to understand how individuals' perceptions of a celebrity endorser influences the effectiveness of that celebrity's endorsement of a political candidate. Using a quasi-experimental design, with a constructed celebrity endorsement of a political candidate, this study aimed to understand what attributes of a celebrity endorser are important for political candidates to receive outcomes in cognition, attitudes, and civic behaviors from voters. This chapter is organized by dependent measure, with discussion of each hypothesis surrounding each dependent measure followed by a summary of the results with regard to the hypotheses.

In order to examine the research question and hypotheses, a series of OLS and logistic regressions were conducted to understand the impact of the model variables (age, gender, race, party match-up, digital media use, endorsement mode, identification, celebrity-candidate fit, candidate viability, and the source factor categories, 1) celebrity performance, 2) negative information, 3) celebrity credibility, 4) celebrity expertise, 5) celebrity trustworthiness, 6) celebrity attractiveness, and 7) celebrity familiarity) on a series of dependent effectiveness measures. OLS and logistic regression models were appropriate for examining the research questions as all participants were exposed to an endorsement from Jeff Bridges, with the party of the candidate and endorsement mode manipulated in the twelve variations of the endorsement.

The first research question addressed the adequacy of adapting this model to a political context, while the hypotheses dealt with the impact of the model variables on each of the effectiveness measures. The logistic regression models presented in this chapter were built using STATA version 14. The OLS regression models presented in this chapter were built using STATA version 14, using the command for robust standard errors, to compensate for the potential violation of the assumption homoscedasticity, particularly with regard to treating

ordinal level independent and dependent variables as continuous in nature. Rhemtulla, Brosseau-Liard, and Savalei (2012) argue that this treatment is appropriate with four or more categories in an ordinal measure, as it provides similar results to treating the variables categorically, but provides a simpler interpretation. Researchers suggest little, if any, harm in treating ordinal variables with five or more categories as continuous (D. R. Johnson & Creech, 1983; Zumbo & Zimmerman, 1993).

Each of the logistic and OLS regression models were conducted to determine if attitude, believability, recognition, and civic engagement effectiveness measures could be predicted from age, gender, race, party match-up, digital media use, endorsement mode, identification with the celebrity, candidate viability, celebrity-candidate fit, and the seven source factors determined through Amos et al.'s (2008) categorization and factor analysis, celebrity performance, (lack of) negative information, celebrity credibility, celebrity expertise, celebrity trustworthiness, celebrity attractiveness, and celebrity familiarity. The null hypotheses tested were that $R^2=0$ and that the regression coefficients were equal to 0. H_2-H_7 tested the significance of the model variables.

Model Assumptions

With regard to assumptions of linearity, scatterplots were examined and determined linear relationships between the predictor variables and dependent variables. Further, multicollinearity was not identified as an issue, as a correlation matrix showed no correlations between variables close to either -1 or 1. Q-Q plots showed normality on the models' residuals. The Breusch-Pagan tests indicated that some of the models had heteroscedasticity when the models were not tested with robust standard errors. This problem was addressed by using robust standard errors in the OLS regression models, reducing the probability of type I error.

Attitude Toward the Candidate

This study included six measures about attitudes toward the candidate, Shawn Smith, endorsed by the celebrity, Jeff Bridges. In order to test the impact of the model variables on the attitude measures, six logistic regression models were constructed using STATA version 14, one for each dependent variable, appealing/not appealing, desirable/not desirable, likeable/not likeable, unique/not unique, competent/not competent, and high quality/low quality, with the positive attribute coded as one and the negative attribute coded as zero. Logistic regression was used for the attitude measures because the dependent variables are binary measures of semantically opposite characteristics about the candidate.

Appealing/Not appealing

The first dependent measure of attitude toward candidate asked whether participants found the candidate presented in the stimulus appealing or not appealing. The model for appealing was significant, $\chi^2(18, N=183)=51.19$, $p<0.0001$, Pseudo $R^2=0.3153$, providing affirmative support for H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. Model variables that were significant at $p<0.05$ were the imperative endorsement mode, identification with the celebrity, candidate viability, and negative information. H_2 was partially supported, in that (lack of) negative information had a positive relationship with appealing. H_5 and H_7 were also supported, as identification and viability increased the probability of an appealing outcome. H_3 was not supported, as the imperative mode was associated with higher probability of unappealing evaluations. H_4 was also not supported, as party match-up did not have a significant influence on the probability of an appealing outcome. Table 9 shows the logistic regression coefficients for appealing/unappealing.

Table 9: Logistic regression coefficients for appealing

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-6.70	2.05	-3.04***
Control Variables			
Age	-0.01	0.02	-0.47
Gender (Female = 0)	-0.75	0.45	-1.61
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.26	0.47	-0.58
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.09	0.46	0.21
Digital Media Use	0.00	.02	0.16
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.15	0.55	-0.29
Implicit	0.09	0.56	0.16
Imperative	-1.76	0.61	-2.91**
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	1.23	0.39	3.32**
Candidate Viability	0.73	0.23	3.34**
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.40	0.39	0.92
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.23	0.42	0.53
Negative Information	0.68	0.23	2.74**
Celebrity Credibility	0.07	0.39	0.23
Celebrity Expertise	0.35	0.56	0.64
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.21	0.59	0.35
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.31	0.37	0.71
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.36	0.37	-0.91

Key: *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$.
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=183, Pseudo R^2=0.3153

Desirable/Not Desirable

The second dependent measure of attitude toward candidate asked whether participants found the candidate presented in the stimulus desirable or not desirable. The model for desirable was significant, $\chi^2(18, N=184)=46.38$, $p=0.0003$, Pseudo R^2=0.3261, providing support for H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. Model variables that were significant at $p<0.05$ were identification with the celebrity, candidate viability, and negative information. H_2, which addressed the source factors in the model had some support, with negative information ($p=0.004$) reaching significance and celebrity credibility ($p=0.078$) approaching significance. The model for desirable/not desirable did not find a significant

difference for which type of endorsement mode individuals were exposed to, providing support

for H$_3$. Party match-up did not have a significant effect on whether participants found the

candidate desirable or not desirable, thus H$_4$ was not supported. H$_5$ and H$_7$ were supported, with

significant impacts of identification and candidate viability, while celebrity-candidate fit was not

significant, therefore providing no support for H$_6$. Table 10 shows the logistic regression

coefficients for desirable/not desirable.

Table 10: Logistic regression coefficients for desirable

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-7.89	2.09	-3.63***
Control Variables			
Age	0.005	0.02	0.28
Gender (Female = 0)	-0.14	0.44	-0.29
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.45	0.47	-0.96
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.21	0.47	-0.48
Digital Media Use	0.02	0.02	0.99
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	0.41	0.56	0.71
Implicit	0.001	0.58	0.00
Imperative	-0.99	0.59	-1.79
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	1.38	0.41	3.25**
Candidate Viability	0.76	0.23	3.28**
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.24	0.39	0.52
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.05	0.43	0.10
Negative Information	0.70	0.24	2.85**
Celebrity Credibility	0.77	0.44	2.09
Celebrity Expertise	-0.12	0.58	-0.20
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.54	0.60	0.84
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.04	0.38	0.08
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.55	0.38	-1.42

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=184, Pseudo R^2=0.3261

Likeable/Not Likeable

The third dependent measure of attitude toward candidate asked whether participants found the candidate presented in the stimulus likeable or not likeable. The model for likeable was significant, $\chi^2(18, N=184)=47.25$, p=0.0002, Pseudo $R^2=0.2154$, providing affirmative support for H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. Model variables that were significant at p<0.05 were identification with the celebrity, and (lack of) negative information. These findings lend support to H_2 and H_5 as well as H_3, which predicted no differences between endorsement modes. H_4, H_6, and H_7 were not supported on the likeability measure. Table 11 shows the logistic regression coefficients for likeable/not likeable.

Table 11: Logistic regression coefficients for likeable

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-5.63	1.82	-2.99**
Control Variables			
Age	0.01	0.02	0.63
Gender (Female = 0)	-0.19	0.39	-0.49
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.29	0.42	-0.69
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.42	0.41	1.05
Digital Media Use	0.03	0.02	1.66
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.54	0.51	-1.09
Implicit	0.24	0.51	0.43
Imperative	-0.99	0.51	-2.06
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.88	0.31	2.97**
Candidate Viability	0.35	0.20	1.74
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.34	0.32	1.05
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.69	0.38	1.85
Negative Information	0.47	0.21	2.30*
Celebrity Credibility	0.20	0.34	0.56
Celebrity Expertise	0.23	0.47	0.45
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-.024	0.52	-0.42
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.04	0.32	0.11
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.59	0.34	-1.75

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=184. Pseudo $R^2=0.2154$

Unique/Not Unique

The fourth dependent measure of attitude toward candidate asked whether participants found the candidate presented in the stimulus unique or not unique. The model for unique was significant, $\chi^2(18, N=185)=40.89$, $p=0.0016$, Pseudo $R^2=0.1703$, providing support for H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. Model variables that were significant at $p<0.05$ were identification with the celebrity, celebrity trustworthiness, and celebrity familiarity. The findings suggest partial support for H_2, however the celebrity familiarity source factor, while significant, was significant in the opposite direction from the hypothesis, indicating that increased familiarity with Jeff Bridges was associated with a lower probability of perceiving Shawn Smith as unique. Celebrity trustworthiness, however, was significant in the hypothesized direction. H_5 was also supported, with a significant influence of identification with Jeff Bridges. H_3 was supported, as the endorsement modes performed the same. H_4, H_6, and H_7 were not supported, with no influence of party match-up, celebrity-candidate fit, or perceived viability. The model for unique was one of the only models in which H_7 was not supported and perceptions of candidate viability were not significant. Table 12 displays the logistic regression coefficients for unique/not unique.

Table 12: Logistic regression coefficients for unique

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-4.38	1.72	-2.62*
Control Variables			
Age	-0.003	0.02	-0.20
Gender (Female = 0)	-0.06	0.38	-0.16
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.11	0.41	-0.26
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.07	0.39	-0.20
Digital Media Use	0.007	0.01	0.50
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	0.07	0.49	0.15
Implicit	-0.28	0.49	-0.55
Imperative	-0.86	0.48	-1.85

(Table 12 continued)

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.59	0.30	2.14*
Candidate Viability	0.22	0.19	1.18
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.09	0.31	0.29
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.12	0.35	0.34
Negative Information	0.34	0.20	1.73
Celebrity Credibility	0.04	0.33	0.13
Celebrity Expertise	0.48	0.47	1.16
Celebrity Trustworthiness	1.01	0.47	1.97*
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.18	0.32	0.57
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.79	0.34	-2.27*

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+]Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, Pseudo R^2=0.1703

Competent/Not Competent

The fifth dependent measure of attitude toward candidate asked whether participants found the candidate presented in the stimulus competent or not competent. The model for competent was significant, $\chi^2(18, N=185)=35.87$, p=0.0073, Pseudo R^2=0.1713, providing support for H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. The only variable in the model that was significant at p<0.05 was candidate viability, thus H_7 was supported. H_3 was also supported, as there was no difference among endorsement modes. H_2, H_4, H_5, and H_6 were not supported. Table 13 shows the logistic regression coefficients for competent/not competent.

Table 13: Logistic regression coefficients for competent

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-3.57	1.73	-1.89*
Control Variables			
Age	0.004	0.02	0.03
Gender (Female = 0)	0.30	0.39	0.76
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.60	0.41	-1.50
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.16	0.39	0.43
Digital Media Use	-0.02	0.01	-1.07

(Table 13 continued)

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	0.54	0.50	1.08
Implicit	-0.03	0.49	-0.06
Imperative	-0.46	0.47	-0.97
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.28	0.29	1.02
Candidate Viability	0.54	0.19	2.76**
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.41	0.29	1.37
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.19	0.35	0.50
Negative Information	0.15	0.20	0.83
Celebrity Credibility	0.22	0.33	0.64
Celebrity Expertise	-0.19	0.46	-0.38
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.77	0.52	1.27
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.01	0.32	0.03
Celebrity Familiarity	0.24	0.33	0.74

Key: *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
$N=185$, Pseudo $R^2=0.1713$

High Quality/Low Quality

The final dependent measure of attitude toward candidate asked whether participants found the candidate presented in the stimulus high quality or low quality. The model for quality was significant, $\chi^2(18, N=185)=49.89$, $p=0.0001$, Pseudo $R^2=0.2656$, supporting H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. Model variables that were significant at $p<0.05$ were imperative endorsement mode, identification with the celebrity, and candidate viability. None of the source factors were significant predictors of quality, therefore H_2 was not supported. H_3 was not supported, as the imperative endorsement mode performed significantly worse than the others. There was no effect of party match-up or identification, therefore H_4 and H_5 were not supported. H_6 and H_7 were supported by the significant findings for fit and viability. Table 14 contains the logistic regression coefficients for high/low quality.

Table 14: Logistic regression coefficients for quality

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-5.73	1.88	-2.69**
Control Variables			
Age	0.01	0.02	0.82
Gender (Female = 0)	0.46	0.40	1.12
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.56	0.45	-1.25
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.52	0.42	1.27
Digital Media Use	0.01	0.02	0.43
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.36	0.53	-0.69
Implicit	-0.28	0.53	-0.52
Imperative	-1.15	0.54	-2.31*
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	1.03	0.35	2.91**
Candidate Viability	0.58	0.20	2.76**
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.15	0.35	0.39
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.07	0.39	0.16
Negative Information	0.23	0.21	1.17
Celebrity Credibility	0.25	0.37	0.67
Celebrity Expertise	-0.10	0.53	-0.20
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.87	0.55	1.37
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.28	0.34	0.68
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.43	0.35	-1.31

Key: *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, Pseudo R^2= 0.2656

Believability of the Endorsement

This study used one measure of believability of the celebrity endorsement. In order to test the impact of the model variables on the believability measure, one OLS regression model was constructed using STATA, version 14, using the robust command for robust standard errors. OLS regression was used for the believability measure, as the dependent variable, believability, was treated as a continuous variable, as Rhemtulla et al. (2012) note provides similar results to interval or ratio level data when five or more categories are present.

The model for believability was significant, $F(18, 166)=3.36$, $p<0.0001$, $R^2=0.1955$, adjusted $R^2=0.1082$, providing support for H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity

political candidate endorsement context. The model variables that reached significance at

$p < 0.05$ level were candidate viability, celebrity-candidate fit, and celebrity attractiveness,

however, celebrity attractiveness performed in the opposite direction from that hypothesized,

therefore H2 was not supported. H3 was supported, as the endorsement modes had no significant

differences among them. H4 and H5 were not supported; party match-up and identification with

Jeff Bridges were not significant predictors of believability. H6 was supported, as celebrity-

candidate fit was significant, as was H7, which predicted candidate viability would positively

relate to believability. Table 15 shows the OLS regression coefficients for believability.

Table 15: OLS regression coefficients for believability

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	1.88	0.56	3.36**
Control Variables			
Age	0.004	0.01	0.62
Gender (Female = 0)	0.33	0.15	0.21
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.08	0.15	-0.55
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.13	0.17	-0.81
Digital Media Use	-0.002	0.01	-0.29
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.01	0.19	-0.03
Implicit	-0.04	0.19	-0.22
Imperative	-0.12	0.20	-0.61
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.18	0.11	1.58
Candidate Viability	0.24	0.08	2.87**
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.31	0.13	2.45*
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.13	0.13	-0.98
Negative Information	-0.16	0.08	-1.95
Celebrity Credibility	0.13	0.10	1.28
Celebrity Expertise	-0.07	0.16	-0.42
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-0.04	0.19	-0.20
Celebrity Attractiveness	-0.22	0.11	-2.04*
Celebrity Familiarity	0.14	0.12	1.15

Key: *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N= 185, R^2=0.1955, adjusted R^2=0.1082

Recognition

Three measures of recognition were used in this study to investigate what participants could remember about the celebrity candidate endorsement. In order to test the impact of the model variables on the recognition measures, three logistic regression models were constructed, one for each dependent variable. The recognition variable was measured as 0/1 for incorrect/correct, making logistic regression a suitable choice for this binary dependent variable.

Candidate Name

The first recognition measure, candidate name, asked participants to correctly identify the name of the candidate they were presented with in the stimulus from a list of 10 names. The model for candidate name was not significant, χ^2(18, N=185)=11.68, p=0.8635, Pseudo R^2=0.0575, suggesting that the factors identified by the model in RQ_1 had no influence on individuals' ability to identify the candidate by name and H_1 is not supported. Because H_1 was not supported on this measure, there was no evidence for H_2-H_7.

Celebrity Name

The second recognition measure, celebrity name, asked participants to correctly identify the name of the celebrity with whom they were presented in the stimulus from a list of 10 names. The model for celebrity name was significant, χ^2(18, N=185)=31.71, p=0.0238, Pseudo R^2=0.1948, providing support for H_1, that the model presented is useful for adapting to a political context. Two source factors, celebrity trustworthiness (p=0.020) and celebrity familiarity (p=0.034) were significant in this model, supporting H_2. There were no statistically significant coefficients for endorsement mode, party match-up, identification, celebrity-candidate fit, or viability, therefore H_3 was supported, while H_4, H_5, H_6, and H_7 were not supported on the

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recognition measure for the celebrity's name. Table 16 displays the logistic regression

coefficients for celebrity name.

Table 16: Logistic regression coefficients for celebrity name

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Constant	-2.17	2.09	-0.87
Control Variables			
Age	-0.03	0.02	-1.29
Gender (Female = 0)	-0.17	0.48	-0.35
Race (Non-white = 0)	0.58	0.51	1.13
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.32	0.50	-0.62
Digital Media Use	0.003	0.02	0.15
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	0.99	0.70	1.40
Implicit	0.19	0.61	0.31
Imperative	0.93	0.64	1.46
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	-0.61	0.41	-1.32
Candidate Viability	-0.43	0.24	-1.76
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.64	0.38	1.87
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.20	0.49	0.38
Negative Information	0.18	0.26	0.79
Celebrity Credibility	-0.43	0.45	-1.12
Celebrity Expertise	-0.72	0.61	-1.23
Celebrity Trustworthiness	1.58	0.68	2.15*
Celebrity Attractiveness	-0.10	0.43	-0.27
Celebrity Familiarity	0.92	0.43	2.43*

Key: *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, Pseudo R^2=0.19

Celebrity Twitter Handle

The final recognition measure, celebrity Twitter handle, asked participants to correctly

identify the Twitter handle of the celebrity they were presented with in the stimulus from a list of

10 handles. The model for celebrity Twitter handle was not significant, χ^2(18, N=185)=27.03,

p=0.0785, Pseudo R^2=0.1093, suggesting that the factors identified by the model in RQ_1 had no

influence on individuals' ability to identify the candidate by name and H_1 was not supported.

Because H_1 was not supported on this measure, there was no evidence for H_2-H_7.

Civic Engagement

The civic engagement outcome variables consisted of nine dependent measures, four of which measured electoral or traditional civic engagement outcomes and five of which measured new ways of thinking about online civic engagement. Nine OLS regression models were constructed using STATA, version 14, using the robust command for robust standard errors to determine if the civic engagement outcomes could be predicted the model variables.

OLS regression was used for the civic engagement measures, as the dependent civic engagement measures were treated as continuous variables, as Rhemtulla et al. (2012) note provides similar results to interval or ratio level data when five or more categories are present. D. R. Johnson and Creech (1983) also note that this treatment of ordinal data in the social sciences and is appropriate and provides a useful way of interpreting results.

Vote Intention

The model for vote intention was significant, $F(18, 166)=8.88$, $p<0.0001$, $R^2=0.4124$, adjusted $R^2= 0.3487$, providing support for H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context. However, it appears that the model's significance was driven almost entirely by candidate viability ($p<0.001$) This model found that individuals' perceptions of a candidate's ability to win an election was the only significant factor in predicting whether an individual was likely to vote for that candidate, therefore H_7 was supported. H_3 was also supported, as there was no difference among the endorsement modes. H_2, which stated that the source factors would be significant was not supported, as H_4, H_5, and H_6 were also not supported with regard to vote intention. Table 17 displays the OLS regression coefficients for vote intention.

Table 17: OLS regression coefficients for vote intention

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	0.15	0.66	0.24
Control Variables			
Age	-0.003	0.01	-0.52
Gender (Female = 0)	0.15	0.13	1.16
Race (Non-white = 0)	0.03	0.14	0.20
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.21	0.15	1.37
Digital Media Use	-0.004	0.01	-0.88
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.10	0.16	-0.66
Implicit	0.01	0.17	0.06
Imperative	-0.05	0.15	-0.36
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.12	0.10	1.24
Candidate Viability	0.42	0.07	6.04***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.18	0.10	1.75
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.15	0.16	-0.89
Negative Information	-0.09	0.06	-1.60
Celebrity Credibility	0.07	0.09	0.80
Celebrity Expertise	0.15	0.16	0.09
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.22	0.19	1.14
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.04	0.09	0.45
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.06	0.11	-0.60

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, R^2=0.4124, adjusted R^2= 0.3487

Convincing Friends to Vote

The model for convincing friends to vote for the candidate was significant, $F_{(18, 166)}$=7.04, p<0.0001, R^2=0.4371, adjusted R^2= 0.3761, providing support for H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context. None of the source factors in this model reached significance, therefore H_2 was not supported. However, identification with the candidate (p=0.033) and candidate viability (p<0.001) were significant, lending support to H_5 and H_7. H_3 was also supported as the endorsement modes were not significantly different from one another. H_4 was supported (p=0.037); individuals who saw a candidate who belonged to their own party were more willing to convince their friends to vote

for that candidate than those who saw an endorsement for a candidate belonging to another

political party. H_6 was not supported, as there was no significant effect of celebrity-candidate fit.

Table 18 displays the OLS regression coefficients for convincing friends to vote for the

candidate.

Table 18: OLS regression coefficients for convincing friends to vote

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	0.23	0.70	0.33
Control Variables			
Age	-0.004	0.01	-0.71
Gender (Female = 0)	0.21	0.14	1.53
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.19	0.15	-1.25
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.32	0.15	2.10*
Digital Media Use	-0.003	0.01	-0.50
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.14	0.16	-0.90
Implicit	-0.16	0.17	-0.93
Imperative	-0.25	0.15	-1.63
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.22	0.10	2.15*
Candidate Viability	0.34	0.07	4.63***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.14	0.10	1.40
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.20	0.16	-1.25
Negative Information	-0.08	0.07	-1.26
Celebrity Credibility	0.09	0.10	0.88
Celebrity Expertise	-0.002	0.15	-0.01
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.28	0.18	1.55
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.17	0.10	1.77
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.17	0.11	-1.60

Key: $*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001$
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, R^2=0.4371, adjusted R^2= 0.3761

Donating Money to the Candidate's Campaign

This model was significant, $F(18, 165)=7.01, p<0.0001, R^2=0.3871$, adjusted $R^2= 0.3202$,

providing support for H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate

endorsement context. None of the source factors in this model reached significance, therefore H_2

was not supported. H_3 was supported in that the endorsement modes performed equally. H_4 was

also supported (p=0.020) in this model, such that individuals who saw a candidate who belonged

to their own party were more willing to donate money to the candidate's campaign. H_5 and H_6

which asked about identification with the celebrity and celebrity-candidate fit were not

supported. However, candidate viability (p<0.001) was significant, indicating that willingness to

convince friends to vote for the candidate is effected by perceived viability of the candidate and

lending support to H_7.

Table 19 displays the OLS regression coefficients for donating money to the candidate's

campaign.

Table 19: OLS regression coefficients for donating money

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	0.82	0.60	1.40
Control Variables			
Age	-0.01	0.004	-1.63
Gender (Female = 0)	0.24	0.13	1.87
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.14	0.15	-0.92
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.32	0.14	2.35*
Digital Media Use	-0.002	0.01	-0.43
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.09	0.13	-0.72
Implicit	0.15	0.16	0.92
Imperative	-0.16	0.14	-1.13
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.09	0.11	0.84
Candidate Viability	0.30	0.07	4.28***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.03	0.09	0.36
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.20	0.12	-1.62
Negative Information	-0.07	0.07	-0.98
Celebrity Credibility	0.11	0.09	1.26
Celebrity Expertise	0.05	0.14	0.39
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-0.05	0.16	-0.32
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.18	0.10	1.90
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.12	0.11	-1.07

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=184, R^2=0.3871, adjusted R^2= 0.3202

Volunteering Time to the Candidate's Campaign

The final electoral measure of civic engagement, willingness to volunteer time to the candidate's campaign, was significantly predicted by the model variables $F(18, 166)=7.53$, $p<0.0001$, $R^2=0.4322$, adjusted $R^2= 0.3706$, providing affirmative support for H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context. Five variables were significant in this model, gender, party match-up, candidate viability, negative information and celebrity attractiveness. The significance of celebrity attractiveness lends support to H_2, however the significance of negative information in the opposite direction from that predicted does not support H_2, such that those participants who believed they had seen less negative information about Jeff Bridges were less likely to volunteer time to the campaign. H_3 was supported as there were no differences among the endorsement modes. H_4 was also supported; participants who saw a candidate who belonged to their own political party were more willing to volunteer their time to the candidate's campaign. H_5 and H_6 were not supported, as there were no significant effects of identification or celebrity-candidate fit. H_7 was supported, as the effect of viability was significant ($p<.001$). Table 20 displays the OLS regression coefficients for volunteering time for the candidate's campaign.

Table 20: OLS regression coefficients for volunteering time

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	0.27	0.55	0.48
Control Variables			
Age	-0.0004	0.005	-0.08
Gender (Female = 0)	0.29	0.12	2.38*
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.16	0.14	-1.13
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.26	0.12	2.13*
Digital Media Use	-0.001	0.005	-0.23
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.18	0.13	-1.45
Implicit	-0.22	0.15	-1.51
Imperative	-0.11	0.14	-0.76

(Table 20 continued)

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.10	0.10	1.07
Candidate Viability	0.31	0.06	5.16***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.15	0.08	1.80
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.12	0.12	-0.96
Negative Information	-0.13	0.06	-2.01*
Celebrity Credibility	0.02	0.08	0.21
Celebrity Expertise	-0.09	0.14	-0.63
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.22	0.16	1.37
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.24	0.09	2.63**
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.18	0.10	-1.83

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, R^2=0.4322, adjusted R^2= 0.3706

Information Seeking – Search Engine

The first online civic engagement dependent effectiveness measure asked participants about how likely they would be to seek information about the candidate in the endorsement using a search engine. H_1 was supported, in that the model for information seeking using a search engine was significant, $F(18, 166)$=2.97, p=0.0001, R^2=0.1825, adjusted R^2= 0.0939. However, none of the model variables reached statistical significance on their own, lending no support for H_2, H_4, H_5. H_6, or H_7. H_3 was supported, as the endorsement modes were not significantly different from one another. Table 21 displays the OLS regression coefficients for seeking information using a search engine.

Table 21: OLS regression coefficients for seeking information using a search engine

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	0.29	0.94	-0.30
Control Variables			
Age	0.0001	0.01	0.02
Gender (Female = 0)	0.07	0.21	0.33
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.27	0.23	-1.20
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.10	0.22	-0.46
Digital Media Use	0.01	0.01	1.22

(Table 21 continued)

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.27	0.29	-0.94
Implicit	-0.44	0.26	-1.65
Imperative	-0.26	0.27	-0.93
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.20	0.16	1.31
Candidate Viability	0.20	0.11	1.92
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.31	0.17	1.82
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.04	0.19	0.21
Negative Information	-0.01	0.13	-0.11
Celebrity Credibility	0.07	0.18	0.37
Celebrity Expertise	0.005	0.25	0.02
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-0.21	0.30	-0.69
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.34	0.18	1.89
Celebrity Familiarity	0.12	0.19	0.65

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, R^2=0.1825, adjusted R^2= 0.0939

Information Seeking – Online Newspapers

The second online civic engagement dependent effectiveness measure asked participants about how likely they would be to seek information about the candidate in the endorsement using online newspapers. H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context, was supported in that the model was significant, $F(18, 166)=3.84$, $p<0.0001$, R^2=0.2437, adjusted R^2= 0.1617. Two control variables, age (p=0.039) and digital media use (p=0.004) were significant in this model, such that older participants and those with higher digital media use were more willing to seek information using an online newspaper. Celebrity-candidate fit (p=0.049) and candidate viability (p=0.027) were also significant, supporting H_6 and H_7 respectively. None of the source factors were significant, lending no support to H_2. H_3 was supported in that the endorsement modes were not significantly different from one another. There was no statistically significant effect of party match-up, therefore H_4

was not supported. H_5 was not supported as there was no effect of identification on seeking

information about the candidate using online newspapers. Table 22 displays the OLS regression

coefficients for seeking information using online newspapers.

Table 22: OLS regression coefficients for seeking information using online newspapers

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	-1.69	0.85	-2.00*
Control Variables			
Age	0.02	0.01	2.08*
Gender (Female = 0)	0.10	0.19	0.54
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.31	0.21	-1.48
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.18	0.19	-0.93
Digital Media Use	0.02	0.01	2.95**
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.36	0.24	-1.53
Implicit	-0.16	0.24	-0.66
Imperative	-0.29	0.24	-1.22
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.21	0.14	1.51
Candidate Viability	0.22	0.10	2.23*
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.29	0.15	1.98*
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	0.01	0.19	0.08
Negative Information	-0.05	0.10	-0.48
Celebrity Credibility	0.05	0.15	0.31
Celebrity Expertise	0.19	0.23	0.85
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-0.17	0.24	-0.69
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.17	0.17	0.97
Celebrity Familiarity	0.08	0.18	0.44

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, R^2=0.2437, adjusted R^2= 0.1617

Information Seeking – Social Networking Sites

The model for seeking additional information using SNS was significant,

$F_{(18, 165)}$=4.36, p<0.0001, R^2=0.2958, adjusted R^2= 0.2190, lending support to H_1, that the

proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context. H_2 was not

supported, as none of the source factors were significant in this model. H_3 was supported, with

the endorsement modes performing statistically the same. H_4 was not supported, as party match-

up did not affect willingness to seek additional information on SNS. Identification with the

celebrity (p=0.042) and candidate viability (p<0.001) were significant, lending support to H_5 and

H_7. Digital media use (p=0.019) was also significant, such that participants who had higher

digital media use were more likely to report a willingness to seek information about the

candidate on SNS. There was no influence of celebrity-candidate fit, hence H_6 was not

supported in this model. Table 23 displays the OLS regression coefficients for seeking

information using SNS.

Table 23: OLS regression coefficients for seeking information using SNS

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	-1.17	0.83	-1.41
Control Variables			
Age	0.01	0.01	1.02
Gender (Female = 0)	-0.09	0.17	-0.50
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.15	0.19	-0.79
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	-0.07	0.17	-0.39
Digital Media Use	0.02	0.01	2.37*
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	0.06	0.22	0.26
Implicit	-0.18	0.23	-0.81
Imperative	-0.07	0.22	-0.32
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.27	0.13	2.05*
Candidate Viability	0.35	0.08	4.23***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.23	0.14	1.69
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.10	0.17	-0.56
Negative Information	-0.04	0.10	-0.45
Celebrity Credibility	0.10	0.13	0.75
Celebrity Expertise	0.07	0.21	0.31
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-0.10	0.23	-0.43
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.25	0.17	1.50
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.37	0.16	-0.23

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=184, R^2=0.2958, adjusted R^2= 0.2190

Like or Follow the Candidate on Social Networking Sites

The fourth online civic engagement measure investigated how willing participants were to "like" or "follow" the candidate on a social networking site. The model was significant in supporting H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context, $F(18,166)=6.38$, $p<0.0001$, $R^2=0.3747$, adjusted $R^2= 0.3069$. H_2 had support in this model, with celebrity attractiveness reaching significance. Endorsement mode was not significant, supporting H_3. H_4, was not supported, as there was no effect of party match-up. There was no significant finding for identification with the celebrity, therefore, H_5 was not supported. H_6 was not supported, although celebrity-candidate fit approached significance ($p=0.066$). Candidate viability was significant in this model ($p<0.001$), providing affirmative support for H_7. Table 24 displays the OLS regression coefficients for liking or following the candidate on SNS.

Table 24: OLS regression coefficients for liking/following on SNS

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	-0.30	0.69	-0.44
Control Variables			
Age	0.0001	0.01	0.02
Gender (Female = 0)	0.11	0.15	0.77
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.18	0.15	-1.17
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.21	0.15	1.39
Digital Media Use	0.01	0.01	1.71
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.13	0.17	-0.75
Implicit	-0.25	0.18	-1.41
Imperative	-0.24	0.17	-1.41
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.17	0.11	1.56
Candidate Viability	0.29	0.07	4.03***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.18	0.10	1.85
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.15	0.14	-1.01
Negative Information	-0.06	0.08	-0.83
Celebrity Credibility	0.04	0.11	0.38
Celebrity Expertise	0.11	0.15	0.74

(Table 24 continued)

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Celebrity Trustworthiness	-0.18	0.20	-0.93
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.37	0.11	3.48**
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.06	0.11	-0.55

Key: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
N=185, R^2=0.3747, adjusted R^2= 0.3069

Share Information about the Candidate on Social Networking Sites

The final online civic engagement measure asked about how willing participants would be to share information about the candidate on SNS. This model provided support for H_1, that the proposed model is adaptable to a celebrity political candidate endorsement context, $F_{(18,165)}$=6.61, p<0.0001, R^2=0.4061, adjusted R^2= 0.3413. H_2 had partial support, with celebrity attractiveness reaching significance. However, celebrity familiarity was significant in the opposite direction than what was hypothesized, indicating increased familiarity with the celebrity decreased willingness to share information. This finding indicates that familiarity with a celebrity does not necessarily imply a positive result for an endorsement, such that familiarity may have negative consequences for a candidate. All of the identification, viability, and fit measures were statistically significant in this model, supporting H_5, H_6, and H_7. H_3 was also supported as the endorsement modes were not statistically different from one another. H_4 was not supported as this model found no influence of party match-up. Table 25 displays the OLS regression coefficients for sharing information about the candidate on SNS.

Table 25: OLS regression coefficients for sharing information on SNS

	coefficient	robust s.e.	t
Constant	-0.94	0.68	-1.38
Control Variables			
Age	0.003	0.005	0.68
Gender (Female = 0)	0.02	0.15	0.11
Race (Non-white = 0)	-0.02	0.16	-0.14
Party Match-Up (Match =1)	0.16	0.15	1.06
Digital Media Use	0.01	0.005	2.46*

(Table 25 continued)

	coefficient	s.e.	z
Endorsement Mode Dummy Variables[+]			
Explicit	-0.18	0.17	-1.02
Implicit	-0.28	0.17	-1.62
Imperative	-0.16	0.17	-0.98
Identification, Viability, and Fit			
Identification with Celebrity	0.28	0.09	2.92**
Candidate Viability	0.31	0.07	4.32***
Celebrity-Candidate Fit	0.19	0.08	2.22*
Source Factors			
Celebrity Performance	-0.10	0.12	-0.78
Negative Information	-0.03	0.08	-0.40
Celebrity Credibility	-0.02	0.12	-0.14
Celebrity Expertise	0.06	0.16	0.35
Celebrity Trustworthiness	0.06	0.17	0.37
Celebrity Attractiveness	0.33	0.16	2.10*
Celebrity Familiarity	-0.27	0.13	-2.13*

Key: *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$
[+] Copresent serves as the reference point
$N=184$, $R^2=0.4061$, adjusted $R^2= 0.3413$

Summary of Results

Research Question and Hypothesis 1 asked about the applicability of the integrated model

of endorser effectiveness, which contained source factors derived from work by Amos et al.

(2008), control variables including demographic information, along with a digital media use

construct derived from work by Gil de Zúñiga and Valenzuela (2011), political party match-up,

and identification, viability, and celebrity candidate-fit measures, to a political context. The

results suggest that this model is useful for understanding key endorser source factors and

characteristics that lead to a successful celebrity endorsement of a political candidate, with the

model variables significantly predicting the desired effectiveness measure in seventeen of

nineteen models. The model was not significant in predicting recognition of the candidate's

name or whether participants could correctly identify the celebrity's Twitter handle.

Combinations of the factors successfully predicted all of the attitude, believability, and civic

engagement outcomes, as well as the recognition measure of identifying the celebrity's name.

H_2 dealt with the effectiveness of the source factors, explicated in the meta-analysis of

celebrity product endorsement literature by Amos et al. (2008) and predicted that the source

factors would be positively associated with each of the effectiveness measures, such that higher

values assigned to Jeff Bridges' characteristics would translate to more positive evaluations of

and more willingness to engage with Shawn Smith. There was some support for H_2, with at least

one source factor reaching significance in the predicted direction in eight of the models.

However, there were also four instances in which a source factor was significant in the opposite

direction from predicted, indicating that positive attributes of the endorser were associated with

lower effectiveness in some cases. Table 26 displays the frequency of significance for each of

the source factors in the predicted direction and the opposite direction from predicted along with

the number of models the source factor was not significant in among the seventeen significant

models.

Table 26: Frequency of significance for source factors

	p<.05 predicted	p<.05 opposite	p>.05
Celebrity Performance	0	0	17
Negative Information	3	1	13
Celebrity Credibility	0	0	17
Celebrity Expertise	0	0	17
Celebrity Trustworthiness	2	0	15
Celebrity Attractiveness	3	1	13
Celebrity Familiarity	1	2	14

These findings compare closely to those of Amos et al. (2008) who found that the source

factor with the largest effect size in studies of celebrity product endorsements was negative

information, followed by celebrity trustworthiness. Table 27, below, compares frequency of

significance in this study against Amos et al.'s (2008) rank weights of the source factors, with number of significances in parentheses for this study.

Table 27: Comparison of rank of source factors between this study and Amos et al. (2008)

	Rank in this Study	Rank by Amos et al. (2008)
Negative Information	1 (3)	1
Celebrity Attractiveness	1 (3)	4
Celebrity Trustworthiness	3 (2)	2
Celebrity Familiarity	4 (1)	6
Celebrity Performance	5 (0)	8
Celebrity Credibility	5 (0)	5
Celebrity Expertise	5 (0)	3
Celebrity Likeability	8 (Not Included)	7

Of these significant cases of source factors, most performed in the theoretically expected direction, such that a positive evaluation of the celebrity endorser produced positive effectiveness outcomes for the candidate. However, familiarity performed in the opposite direction from predicted for both believing the candidate was unique and willingness to share information on SNS, while negative information performed in the opposite direction for volunteering time to the candidate's campaign, and increased perceptions of celebrity attractiveness lowered believability.

Further, Amos et al. (2008) suggest that brands pay particular attention to the source credibility model, consisting of celebrity trustworthiness, celebrity expertise, and celebrity attractiveness. While this study did not find influence of celebrity expertise, celebrity attractiveness was the most frequently significant source factor, tied with negative information, and followed by celebrity trustworthiness. Further, this study affirms Amos et al.'s (2008) findings regarding the importance of negative information as a key source factor.

H_3 asked about the influence of endorsement mode on endorsement effectiveness. McCracken (1989) suggested that endorsement mode does not matter, and the existence of an

endorsement is enough to produce some desirable outcomes. While this study did not investigate a no endorsement condition, it appears that this study partially supports McCracken's (1989) findings, in that endorsement mode was only significant in two of the seventeen significant models. In both cases, the imperative endorsement mode was associated with lower effectiveness (for appealing and quality attitude measures). Thus, the support for H_3 in this study partially supports McCracken's (1989) assertion that an endorsement does not need to be in the explicit mode.

H_4 dealt with the influence of party match-up on endorser effectiveness and predicted that participants who viewed an endorsement of a candidate who was said to be of their own political party would have higher evaluations on the effectiveness measures. H_4 found limited support in the seventeen significant models, with party match-up only significant for three of the four electoral engagement items. Party match-up did not have a significant impact on attitudes about the candidate, believability, recognition, or willingness to perform online engagement behaviors. While the data only support H_4 in these limited circumstances, the substantive meaning of this finding appears reasonable, such that individuals can have positive attitudes toward candidate in other parties (or negative attitudes toward candidates in their own party) and may seek information about the opposite party's candidates, but are more willing to do electoral engagement behaviors (convincing friends to vote for the candidate, donating money, and volunteering their time) for candidate of their own party.

H_5 predicted that identification with Jeff Bridges would be positively associated with the effectiveness outcomes. H_5 was partially supported, with identification significant in eight of the models. Identification was particularly important in predicting the attitude measures (five of six), indicating that those who identified with Jeff Bridges had more positive evaluations about

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the candidate he was endorsing. This finding relates closely to the application of the meaning transfer model in celebrity endorsements, as individuals who identify strongly with Jeff Bridges should have more positive evaluations of his endorsement object, as they view themselves as similar to Jeff Bridges in some way. Identification also influenced social engagement behaviors, convincing friends to vote for the candidate, searching for information on SNS and sharing information about the candidate on SNS. The data suggest that those who identify with a celebrity endorser are therefore more likely to think positively about the endorsed candidate and are more likely to engage in discourse about the candidate.

H_6 dealt with the influence of celebrity-candidate fit on the effectiveness of the celebrity candidate endorsement. H_6 was supported in three of the models, indicating a modest influence of celebrity-candidate fit on endorser effectiveness. Celebrity-candidate fit was an important consideration in the model for believability, indicating that individuals who did not believe a celebrity and candidate fit together were less likely to find the endorsement believable. Those individuals were also less willing to seek out information about the candidate using online newspapers or share information about the candidate on SNS.

H_7 predicted that individuals' perceptions of the candidate's viability would be positively associated with the effectiveness measures. H_7 was well supported by the data, with candidate viability significant in 14 of the 17 significant models. Overall, candidate viability was the single most frequent predictor of endorser effectiveness, reinforcing Pease and Brewer's (2008) findings that a celebrity endorsement of a political candidate may derive its effectiveness from increasing individuals' perception that the candidate could win the election, rather than through source factors alone. While this study did not include a control group and, therefore, cannot draw conclusions about a no endorsement condition, the overwhelming significance of candidate

viability compared to other model variables suggests support for both H$_7$ and Pease and Brewer's (2008) findings. Further, viability was the only significant variable in the model for vote intention, suggesting that when presented with an endorsement, the participants' main consideration in deciding how willing they would be to vote for the candidate was their perception of whether or not he could possibly win the election.

The findings of this study suggest that the integrated model of endorser of effectiveness, tested in this study using nineteen desirable effectiveness outcomes for endorser effectiveness, is useful in understanding the factors that influence the effectiveness of a celebrity candidate endorsement. Negative information, celebrity attractiveness, and celebrity trustworthiness emerged as the most important source factors. Candidate viability was overwhelmingly the most important endorsement characteristics in determining effectiveness. Identification with the celebrity and perceptions of celebrity-candidate fit were also important. Party match-up was only an important consideration for willingness to perform traditional civic engagement behaviors. Endorsement mode was not a key consideration, however, the imperative mode did perform worse in two of the models, suggesting that endorsers of political candidates would be wise to avoid using a commanding tone in their endorsements, and that a co-present mode may be marginally more effective than the other modes.

CHAPTER VIII: DISCUSSION

On November 9, 2016, millions of Americans woke up and learned that businessman and reality TV star turned politician, Donald Trump, had been elected as the 45th president of the United States. While Trump is arguably most infamously tied to his real estate business and side ventures, his television and film ventures have earned him notoriety in the entertainment industry as well, best known for his reality series, *The Apprentice* ("Donald Trump biography," n.d.). As of January 2017, before his inauguration, Trump had 272 credits as producer, actor, or self on IMDb, including his latest role as the producer of a new season of *The Celebrity Apprentice*. President Barack Obama, in contrast, had 220 credits as self, most of which were appearances after being elected President, with no television or film credits before being elected as a senator in 2004 ("Barack Obama biography," n.d.).

Trump's electoral victory came just days after he proclaimed to a crowd in Hershey, Pennsylvania that unlike Hillary Clinton, Trump did not need endorsements or campaign help from A-list celebrities like Beyoncé and Jay-Z (AP, 2016). Trump was not however without his own celebrity endorsements, from actor Scott Baio, who opened the RNC, to MySpace model turned MTV reality star, Tila Tequila (D'Zurilla, Kim, & Emamdjomeh, 2016). While Trump's campaign did not amass the sheer number of celebrity endorsements and the caliber of celebrities supporting his campaign did not reach the level of Clinton's "entourage," Trump in effect served as his own celebrity endorser, tying his entertainment industry fame to his political career as other entertainer-politicians such as Ronald Reagan and Arnold Schwarzenegger have done in the past.

This study is rooted in understanding how a celebrity endorsement of a political candidate might work, or not work, like a celebrity endorsement of a commercial product. Just

as consumers make purchase decisions based on a host of factors unrelated to celebrity

endorsements of products, this study does not suggest that celebrity endorsement is the only, or

even the most important consideration voters have when making political decisions. Scott Baio's

public support did not win Trump the election, and there is some evidence that it did him no

favors (Doty & Rossi, 2016). Twitter users reacted exceptionally harshly to Baio, mocking his

less than A-list celebrity appeal, comparing him to Clint Eastwood, Kirk Cameron, and others

(Elliot, 2016; Nevins, 2016). Figure 5 showcases two of these negative reactions to Scott Baio at
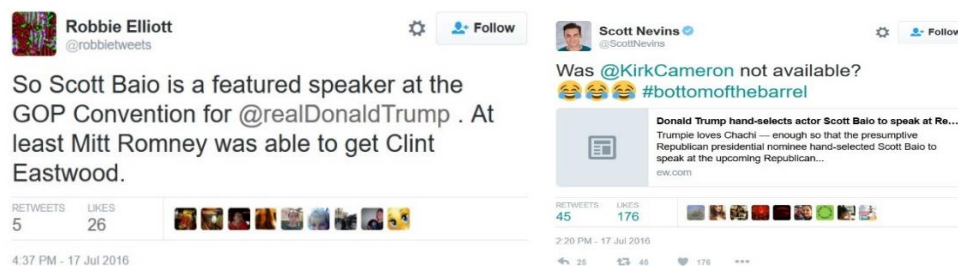
the RNC.

Figure 5: Examples of negative reactions to Scott Baio at the RNC

How Do Celebrity Political Endorsements Compare to Celebrity Product Endorsements?

The primary focus of this study was to understand how a celebrity endorsement of a

political candidate might function compared to a celebrity product endorsement. Firms invest in

celebrity endorsements of their products and brands with the expectation that they will positively

impact the firm, particularly with regard to revenue. Since celebrity endorsers of products are

paid, firms hope to make more money from product sales than what the celebrity endorsement

cost.

Traditional research on endorser effectiveness, studies rooted in advertising and branding

with a product or goal in mind, contains several models from which researchers can understand

the characteristics that make an effective product endorser. This study adapted those models,

through the integrated model of endorser effectiveness, to a political context to understand what

characteristics are important in an effective celebrity candidate endorser. Trends emerged in which characteristics of the celebrity endorser yielded effectiveness outcomes; some performed as expected. Others did not.

Which Endorser Characteristics Matter the Most?

In an endorsement utopia, brands and politicians alike would have perfect celebrities to endorse them, individuals who were objectively "flawless." Beyond the subjectivity of celebrity evaluations, there is no perfect celebrity endorser. This research, along with previous research of celebrity product endorsements, demonstrates that all endorser source factors and characteristics do not have the same level of influence on candidate or product evaluations. Amos et al. (2008) found in their meta-analysis that negative information about the celebrity endorser was the most important source factor contributing to endorser effectiveness. This study found a similar influence of negative information, as the most important source factor (tied with celebrity attractiveness). However, other predictor variables within the models were more important than the source factors, particularly viability, identification, and to some extent, celebrity-candidate fit.

Viability

Building upon the findings of Pease and Brewer (2008), participants' perceived viability of the candidate was overall the most important predictor of endorser effectiveness in this study. Pease and Brewer (2008) found that exposure to an endorsement from Oprah Winfrey for Barack Obama in the 2008 primary influenced participants' evaluations of Obama's viability as a candidate. This study builds on those findings, suggesting that one's perception of a candidate's viability is a key driving force behind evaluations of the candidate and willingness to engage. The importance of candidate viability across almost all effectiveness measures gives support to

the "bandwagon effect," "the phenomena where people might vote for a candidate just because he or she is likely to win the election" (Morton, Muller, Page, & Torgler, 2015, p. 30). This is particularly important with regard to the four traditional civic engagement measures, which are arguably what campaigns rely upon most heavily.

While research suggests that the information many voters use to make their assessments about candidate viability, particularly polls, may depress turnout for elections, those who do vote often rely on the bandwagon effect and the shortcut of viability, such that if they do vote, they "are more likely to vote for the expected winner" (Morton et al., 2015, p. 35). Lanoue and Bowler (1998) found that perceptions of viability impacted both strategic and bandwagon voting:

> As expected, strategic voting seemed especially strong among voters who opted for their second-favorite party. Many of these voters apparently did so only after calculating that their favorite party was unlikely to win in their home district. Faced with the prospect of a wasted sincere vote, they chose instead to settle for the next-best alternative. Other voters seemed to be motivated simply by the desire to back a winner. This phenomenon was particularly apparent in the case of voting for the least-favorite party (an act that, from a rational or tactical point of view, makes little sense). Clearly, not all voters are strategic in their decision making: some simply want to ride the bandwagon (p. 376).
> While this study did not provide for any mechanism to determine the motivation behind

viability assessments, of which there are many possible answers including altruism, strategy, and a desire to win, it is clear that perceptions of candidate viability within the context of a celebrity endorsement influence cognitions, attitudes, and behavior intentions of voters. Individuals have better character evaluations of candidates who they believe will win an election, are more likely to find an endorsement believable, remember details about the endorsements, and are more willing to perform civic engagement behaviors on the candidate's behalf.

Identification

Identification with the celebrity endorser, closely linked to likeability through the meaning transfer model, was frequently significant in this study. As Tom et al. (1992) indicates,

the combination of identification with a celebrity and aspiring to be like that celebrity spokesperson, increases that celebrity's referent power. With an increase in referent power, people are more likely to buy a product endorsed by the celebrity. Watson et al. (2009) also explain that identification with a celebrity spokesperson translates into increased attitudes about attractiveness about the endorser, which would in turn influence participants' willingness to hold views in line with or perform behaviors they think the celebrity endorser would.

The influence of identification in this study persisted in eight models even when controlling for age, race, and gender, important components of identification. This finding suggests that there are other aspects of Jeff Bridges with which participants were able to identify, regardless of demographic considerations. Possibly, characters he has played in movies were particularly noteworthy to these individuals. The nuance is that different participants may identify with different "versions" of Jeff Bridges, different characters in different movies throughout his decades-long career. This study used a celebrity endorser with a multi-decade long film career, with nearly 100 different "versions" of himself in film, in addition to a music career and humanitarian cause with which participants could have identified.

Celebrity-Candidate Fit

As Amos et al. (2008); Ohanian (1990) and others have identified, the perceived "fit" between an endorser and an endorsement object is an important consideration in effectiveness. This study demonstrated that with regard to a celebrity political endorsement, fit was fairly important for effectiveness, with those perceiving a better fit between the celebrity endorser and the candidate finding the endorsement most believable and more willing to perform online civic engagement activities, seeking information about the candidate with online newspapers and sharing information about the candidate on SNS. Chang and Ko (2016) suggest that while fit

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may generate positive evaluations at a superficial level, mismatch may produce behavioral effects. This study found no effect of fit with regard to attitude measures, but increased willingness to perform at least some civic engagement behaviors.

Americans are generally uninterested in social media posts about politics (Duggan & Smith, 2016). Beyond a general sense of disapproval toward posting political information on SNS, individuals' willingness to share information on SNS is a function of their own self-image management, whether formally codified by the individual or informally adopted rules for posting online. "The hyperpersonal communication model suggests that limited cues and the asynchronous nature of CMC enable selective self-presentation wherein individuals emphasize attractive characteristics and conceal unattractive ones" (Rui & Stefanone, 2013, p. 111). Because of the selective self-presentation inherent in online social media sharing, individuals may rely on cues about how a message aligns with their own self-presentation. Celebrity-candidate fit would thus be a mechanism for understanding one's own alignment within the political sphere.

Source Factors

Amos et al.'s (2008) meta-analysis found significant impacts of 69.55% of the source factors included on various measures of effectiveness. This study found significance for 10.92% of the source factors. However, as Amos et al. (2008) noted, many studies included in that meta-analysis only included subsets of these source factors, such as the items found in the source credibility model (celebrity trustworthiness, attractiveness, and expertise), and "if researchers were better able to identify the most influential source effect(s), they could focus investigations on models composed of superior explanatory variables" (p. 211). This study took a different approach and considered all of the source factors explicated by Amos et al. (2008), as suggested

by those researchers. Further, the meta-analysis investigated effects within a long tradition of advertising research. This study attempted to adapt that theory into a political context.

One explanation for the modest influence of the source factors on effectiveness in this study is an extension of the argument postulated by Pease and Brewer (2008), that perceptions of candidate viability, swayed by a celebrity endorsement, may increase civic engagement on behalf of the candidate. Comparing these findings to those of Pease and Brewer (2008), with regard to the model for vote intention, viability was the only statistically significant factor in the model, suggesting that participants' perceptions of backing the winning candidate were the most influential in determining whether they would be willing to vote for the candidate.

The modest relationship among the source factors and viability suggests that source factors contribute to the effectiveness of a celebrity candidate endorsement through a combination of their impact on perceived viability of the candidate with meaning transfer also serving to translate the attributes individuals attach to the celebrity endorser to the candidate and themselves. While viability is not a direct concern for product consumers, related constructs, such as brand reputation and expectations, contribute to purchase intentions in consumers (Shukla, 2009).

Of the significant source factors, celebrity attractiveness was tied as the most commonly significant, reaching $p < 0.05$ in three instances, all of which were for the civic engagement measures. While the proposition that attractive endorsers are effective is well documented, many contend that the effect of attractiveness is particular to attitude and recall rather than action-based outcomes such as purchase (Amos et al., 2008; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Till & Busler, 1998). This study, however, found a stronger influence of attractiveness on action-based outcomes

rather than attitudes, such that participants who found Jeff Bridges more attractive were more willing to engage with the candidate Bridges endorsed.

Verhulst, Lodge, and Lavine (2010) found a halo effect of candidate attractiveness, such that candidate attractiveness breeds positive assessments of the candidate's other traits while influencing perceptions of the candidate's competence. Competence, in turn, improves actual votes. While this study did not include any images of the fictitious candidate, participants who were retained after filtering out those who had no idea who Jeff Bridges was, presumably would have had an idea of what Jeff Bridges looked like. Verhulst et al.'s (2010) findings, when paired with the meaning transfer model, such that Jeff Bridges' attractiveness was presumed to "match" the candidate, could partially explain why celebrity attractiveness outperformed other source factors on action based outcomes.

Figure 6, below, displays the halo effect of attractiveness proposed by Verhulst et al. (2010, p. 114). In this model, evaluations of candidate attractiveness influence voters' perceptions of the candidate's other traits such as likeability and ambition, which increase overall positivity about the candidate. Attractiveness also influences evaluations of competence, which are in turn responsible for votes. Celebrity endorsements use the meaning transfer model to transfer celebrity characteristics to the product or candidate, such that, individuals who believe the celebrity endorser is attractive would transfer that belief to the candidate and therefore believe the candidate is more competent and be more willing to engage on that candidate's behalf.

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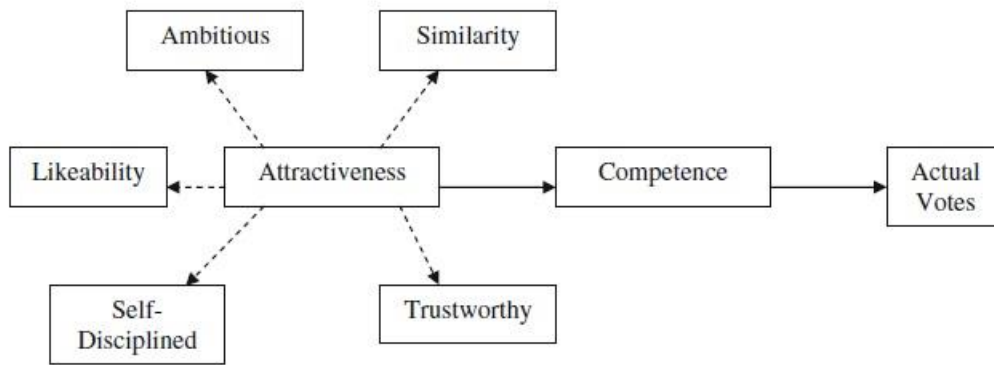
Figure 6: Halo effect of attractiveness from Verhulst, Lodge, and Lavine (2010)

The importance of negative information in this research underscores Amos et al.'s (2008) finding that negative information is extremely important in celebrity endorsements. The effectiveness of celebrity endorsements relies upon the transfer of meaningful characteristics about the celebrity endorser to what (or whom) the celebrity is endorsing. While the intent is generally to transfer the meaning of positive attributes, negative attributes are also subject to transfer. This study furthers the findings of other researchers in that it found an effect of negative information without any objective negative information present. It appears that the perception of scandal (or lack thereof) is enough to influence evaluations of the endorsement object. This finding also highlights the risk that political candidates take when they are endorsed by celebrities, particularly when they did not ask for the endorsement. Candidates are generally quick to disavow endorsements from scandalous endorsers, however, for some voters, the link between a scandalous endorser and a candidate may stick.

Several researchers point to the influence of negative information as a key problem when using celebrity endorsers. Amos et al. (2008), as well as others, point to the novel solution of using well-liked celebrity endorsers posthumously. While prima fasciae this may seem an impossibly viable solution for candidates, due to the contemporary nature of campaigns, candidates may benefit from linking themselves to well-liked deceased celebrities and politicians

of the past, given that the potential for negative information about these celebrities is less likely to materialize. The use of a celebrity endorser postmortem would be one instance in which the copresent endorsement mode may be a desirable choice, if not the only choice.

Endorsement Modes

The findings of this study support McCracken's (1989) assertion that endorsements do not need to be explicit to be effective. In most of the models, all four endorsement modes performed equally well, with the exception of the imperative mode in two attitude measures, suggesting that, at least with regard to attitudes about the candidate, participants preferred subtler suggestions, rather than a directive from the celebrity endorser. When it comes to political information, citizens are generally informed by cues of information, which explains why they would be least receptive to the imperative mode of endorsement. While the differences in endorsement modes were not statistically significant across the board, the copresent endorsement mode out performed other endorsement modes on civic engagement outcomes. This may be related to the way the media cover celebrity endorsements and the way candidates use celebrity endorsements, often appearing at events with their endorsers. Celebrities often appear either alongside candidates or as surrogates for candidates, alongside the campaign (Kelly, 2016).

In the political context a potential fifth endorsement mode has arisen in the wake of the 2016 election that was not tested in this study; that is the negative endorsement. In every campaign, surrogates and endorsers campaign on behalf of candidates, however, the level of campaigning against a candidate has reached extraordinary levels in the 2016 election and its aftermath. Future research should investigate the effectiveness of a negative endorsement, one that does not say directly to vote for a candidate in particular, but rather to reject the opponent. This type of endorsement may have differential effects from the other four endorsement modes,

and in an era of highly partisan and emotionally charged elections, this type of endorsement may become more prominent in the next few election cycles.

Party Effects

Party match-up, that is the relationship between each participant's stated political affiliation and that of the candidate as conveyed by the endorsement, was only significant in three of the four electoral civic engagement outcomes. This finding seems rather commonsensical in nature. Individuals' party affiliations are relevant concerns when deciding whether to actively engage in a campaign, however, they can still have positive attitudes toward and seek information about candidates of the opposite party without wanting those opposite-party candidates to win an election. For activities that involve a lot of effort or resources, however, individuals are only willing to do these activities when it is for a candidate of their own party. Interestingly, party match-up was not a significant predictor of vote intention, as viability was a much stronger consideration.

Advice for Campaigns

While political campaigns do not always have control over which celebrities endorse a candidate, they have control over how they respond to and use those endorsements. Campaigns have several options of what they can do with unsolicited endorsements. They can accept the endorsement and "double down" on it, using the endorsement in their campaigns to enhance their salience and reputation with voters. Campaigns can also accept endorsements and do nothing. They may also choose to ignore endorsements all together, and often there are so many endorsements that campaigns cannot respond to all of them. Finally, campaigns can full out reject endorsements, an option most exercise when an endorsement comes from a person or organization with whom the candidate does not want to be linked.

An excellent example of endorsement rejection comes from November 2016, when the Ku Klux Klan's official newspaper, *The Crusader*, endorsed Donald Trump for President. Trump's campaign quickly disavowed the endorsement, issuing a statement "to news outlets reading, 'Mr. Trump and the campaign denounces hate in any form. This publication is repulsive and their views do not represent the tens of millions of Americans who are uniting behind our campaign'" (Detrow, 2016). This statement came after Trump repeatedly faced criticism for not immediately disavowing another endorsement, one from Former KKK leader, David Duke.

While the findings of this study suggest that negative information is an important consideration when choosing a celebrity endorser, it is important to consider the type of negative information voters deliberate. As Zhou and Whitla (2013) explain, moral assessments potentially mediate the relationship between negative information and evaluations. With regard to individuals with negative information which voters attribute to the celebrity's internal locus, or the celebrity's inherit character, negative information may be much more damaging than it is for external loci of attribution. Societal damage is also a consideration. The KKK's endorsement, had the Trump campaign not disavowed it, could have been incredibly damaging because of how much societal damage many Americans believe the KKK does. Celebrity scandals often do not escalate to the level of systematic hate and destruction. However, association with such individuals or groups may harm the celebrity and the endorsed candidate. Therefore, campaigns should promptly disavow endorsements from individuals who the public perceives as trapped in societal damaging scandals, particularly those scandals within the endorser's sphere of control.

While disavowing endorsements from overtly scandalous endorsers is important for campaigns, seeding through the plethora of less controversial celebrity endorsements and

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deciding which ones to embrace and actively use is perhaps a more relevant and complicated consideration. Campaigns may rely on an endorser's star power alone, without paying much attention to the attributes that make an effective endorser. When choosing which endorser(s) to embrace, campaigns should consider their desired outcomes. Early in an election season, particularly in down ballot races, campaigns focus more on publicizing that a candidate is running for the position, then engaging voters in campaigning, and finally, shifting focus toward getting out the vote. With regard to differential emphasis on outcomes during the election cycle, different endorsers may provide benefits in stages during the race.

Early in the race, when recognition is important, campaigns ought to consider celebrity trustworthiness and familiarity. Additionally, early impressions of the candidate are important. Endorsers who are void of negative information provide the most benefit to attitudes toward the candidate. As the campaign progresses, and engagement becomes more important, attractiveness emerges as an important source factor. However, perceptions about a candidate's viability, influenced by the source factors, are the most important concern. According to Pease and Brewer (2008), the act of endorsing a candidate by a liked celebrity may be enough to increase perceptions of viability in some individuals.

Celebrity-candidate fit and identification with the celebrity should be important considerations of campaigns throughout the process in choosing which celebrities to embrace as endorsers and potentially even seek out for endorsements. Such considerations are often more difficult for Republican campaigns, considering the general liberal air of Hollywood as a whole. "Whenever a celebrity — especially a top-40 pop star — supports a Republican or says something even slightly conservative, it's always a huge news story, as we tend to think of musicians and HollyWEIRD types to be flaming heart liberals" (Kurp, 2012). Given the

characterization of the entertainment industry as a whole to be liberal-leaning, Republican candidates might have to work harder to convince voters that a celebrity endorser does in fact "fit" with the candidate.

For conservative candidates, even those celebrities who do align with them may not provide the kickback campaigns expect. Meyer (1995) explains:

> Even those celebrities who are willing to risk or compromise their image may find that their audiences are not. Celebrities bring with them their own peculiar relationships to audiences. The dynamics of the particular industry in which a celebrity is engaged restrict opportunities to forge an identity (p. 201).

The audience perception that entertainers are generally liberal thus may negatively impact Republican candidates' ability to find and use celebrity endorsers with high levels of "fit." It may also limit the pool of celebrities from which Republican candidates can choose, as anecdotally evidenced by the prominent role of Scott Baio in Donald Trump's 2016 campaign.

Limitations and Future Research

This study sought to investigate the characteristics of a celebrity endorsement of a political candidate that make the endorsement effective. The primary limitation of this study is in the lack of external validity. First, the study used an experimental manipulation embedded in a Qualtrics survey. This method, while maintaining the look of an authentic Twitter page, could not replicate the way individuals consume political information in their daily lives. Additionally, to avoid the effects of prior opinions about the actual 2016 election candidates, this study used a fictitious candidate. Participants, particularly those who were highly politically engaged, may have known that the candidate did not exist.

Jeff Bridges was chosen as the celebrity endorser because of his political nature without being inherently partisan. As a white male, the use of Jeff Bridges also helped to mitigate some of the possible lack of identification that white participants experience when encountering

minority endorsers. Because of the normative representation of Caucasians in the media, minorities are able to identify with white endorsers more so than white individuals are able to identify with minority endorsers. Future research should examine the effect that endorser race, ethnicity, sex, and gender have on candidate endorsement effectiveness, particularly in an experimental setting.

As Meyer (1995) noted, it may be difficult for audiences to separate entertainers as individuals from the characters they have portrayed. Therefore, it is possible that participants, particularly with regard to their age, generational cohort, educational history, or other social and personal factors, were thinking about different "versions" of Jeff Bridges. Younger Gen-Xers and Millennial college students may be most familiar with Jeff Bridges' role in *The Big Lebowski*, or more recent films such as *The Giver* or *The Little Prince*, whereas Baby Boomers and older members of Generation X may be more familiar with Jeff Bridges in roles such as Wild Bill Hickok in *Wild Bill* or as Jack Prescott in the 1976 remake of *King Kong* ("Jeff Bridges biography," n.d.). While this study asked two questions about familiarity with Bridges, it did not ask more specific questions about which characters of Bridges' participants remembered or had top of mind, which may have impacted their evaluations of both Bridges as a celebrity endorser and Shawn Smith as a candidate. Future research, particularly when using a television or film star as an endorser, should investigate the impact that top of mind characters might have in influencing endorser and candidate evaluations.

With regard to desired civic engagement outcomes, this study is limited in that asking people how likely they are to perform a behavior is not analogous to assessing whether or not they actually would or did. While this is a common issue when studying both civic engagement and advertising effectiveness, self-reported intentions in an experimental setting do not

necessarily reveal individuals' true intentions. Additionally, overall intention to participate in civic engagement behaviors was low, with mean scores on these measures hovering around one (disagree). While this study found significant endorser effects on civic engagement, the substantive meaning of moving from strongly disagree to disagree or disagree to neither agree nor disagree may have little real world impact for campaigns.

While this study used experimental manipulation of both the endorsement mode of the Tweet and party identification of the candidate, there was no control group. Therefore, while this study is useful for understanding differences in perceptions about the celebrity endorser and the impacts of those differences on the effectiveness measures, this study cannot draw conclusions about differences between endorsement and no endorsement conditions. This study does not suggest or imply that an endorsement from Jeff Bridges is likely to get a candidate elected, but rather shows that perceptions about the celebrity endorser are related to perceptions about and willingness to engage for the candidate.

Future research should continue to build upon new ways of investigating civic engagement without directly asking participants their likelihood of voting. While this information might be what campaigns think they want, measures of vote intention are inherently biased and do not necessarily explain the nuanced relationships between endorsers and candidates. As society becomes more tied to online social networks, sharing information on SNS may become more important for campaigns than traditional engagement activities, such as putting up yard signs. Researchers and practitioners alike would be wise to continue to investigate the civic engagement behaviors individuals perform online.

Future research should also investigate how campaigns choose the celebrity endorsers that they embrace and highlight in their campaigns. Paul and York (2015) investigated

differences in the types of candidates that use celebrity endorsers in political advertisements, however the realm of understanding the selection of these celebrity endorsements, particularly with regard to presidential elections, where candidates have large numbers of endorsers to choose from, is ripe for investigation. In that regard, it is important for future research to focus on the effectiveness of actual celebrity endorsers in real campaigns. While it is impossible to isolate impacts of endorsements within the scope of all of the other political communications voters are exposed to, researchers can continue to investigate how traditionally advertising-based endorser effectiveness source factors apply to celebrity endorsers of political candidates.

Conclusion

Using an experimental design with a fictitious candidate endorsement made by a celebrity, this study sought to understand the how endorser characteristics influence endorser effectiveness. Applying advertising effectiveness models to a political context showed potential for continuing to adopt these models to political communication research, while simultaneously demonstrating that the importance individuals place upon certain characteristics for celebrity product endorsers does not directly translate to celebrity political endorsers. While political communication researchers would benefit from investigating politicians and political parties like brands, there are some key differences between brands and politicians that create distinctions in investigation, primarily with regard to the acquisition process. This study likened purchase intention to vote intention, as these are perhaps the most important outcomes of endorsements respectively. However, when individuals make a purchase decision, they have relative certainty that they will acquire the good or service they intend to purchase. With regard to political candidates, a vote still leaves relative uncertainty with regard to "acquisition," which potentially hinders the meaning transfer process and allows perceptions of candidate viability to influence

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political judgements. Overall, the endorser effectiveness model presented in this study provided

new insights into how individuals might use celebrity endorsements as heuristic shortcuts to

make political decisions.

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APPENDIX A: EXAMPLES OF STIMULI

Endorsement Mode 1

Endorsement Mode 2

Endorsement Mode 3

Endorsement Mode 4

APPENDIX B: DIGITAL MEDIA USE INDEX

The items in the digital media use index are derived from Gil de Zuñiga et al.'s (2014) study on political consumerism. Participants are asked to rate their frequency of these activities on a 10-point scale with end points of "never" and "almost always."

1. Send/receive emails

2. Get information for work or school

3. Use a search engine

4. Find difficult information

5. Get entertainment and sports information

6. Instant messaging

7. Video chatting

8. Making phone calls

9. Do banking or obtain financial information

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONS FOR SOURCE FACTORS BLOCK

This appendix includes questionnaire items and how they are measured. An asterisk next to the questionnaire item indicates reverse coding is necessary. These items should be presented in a random order, so as not to produce order effects. Each item should be scored on a 5-point agreement scale, 0 (strongly disagree) → 4 (strongly agree), such that a high score, when accounting for reverse coding, indicates a positive evaluation of a source's characteristics. The items in the questionnaire are derived from Ohanian's (1985) and Amos et al.'s (2008) operational definitions, factor analyses, and explanations.

Source Factor	Questionnaire Item(s)
Celebrity Performance	X is doing very well in his/her career.
	X should retire.*
	X frequently wins awards for his/her accomplishments.
Negative Information	X is frequently in the news for scandals
	I can't remember the last time I heard anything bad about X.
Celebrity Credibility	X is a credible source of information.
	I would not believe any claims X made.*
Celebrity Expertise	X is well trained.
	X is uninformed. *
	X is well educated.
Celebrity Trustworthiness	I believe that X is dishonest.*
	X is a reliable person.
	X engages in unethical behaviors.*
	X is a pure person.
Celebrity Attractiveness	X isn't very attractive.*
	X is classy.
	X is elegant.
Celebrity Familiarity	I have no idea who X is.*
	I am familiar with X's career.
Celebrity Likeability	I like X because s/he is attractive.
	I don't like X because I don't like the way s/he acts.*

APPENDIX D: EFFECTIVENSS VARIABLES FOR POLITICAL ENDORSEMENTS

1) Attitude about political candidate [derived from brand attitude]

   Scales adapted from Eisend and Langner (2010), forced choice semantic differentials:

The political candidate endorsed is:

Affect based attitude	Cognitive based attitude
Appealing/not appealing	Unique/not unique
Desirable/not desirable	Competent/not competent
Likeable/dislikeable	High quality/low quality

2) For believability: The endorsement is: believable/suspicious

3) For recall/recognition   Identify from a list of choices, recoded as 1 = correct, 0 = incorrect.

   a. What was the name of the political candidate?

   b. Who was the celebrity endorser?

   c. What was the Twitter handle of the celebrity?

4) Electoral civic engagement items:

   a. If the election were held tomorrow, I would vote for the endorsed candidate. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

   b. I am likely to try to convince my friends to vote for the endorsed candidate. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

   c. I am likely to donate money to the endorsed candidate's campaign efforts. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

   d. I am likely to volunteer my time for the endorsed candidate's campaign efforts. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

5) Online civic engagement items:

    a. I am likely to seek out additional information about the candidate through a search engine. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

    b. I am likely to seek out additional information about the candidate through online newspapers. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

    c. I am likely to seek out additional information about the candidate through social networking sites. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

    d. I am likely to "follow" or "like" the candidate on social networking sites. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

    e. I am likely to share information about the candidate through social networking sites. [0-4, strongly disagree – strongly agree]

APPENDIX E: IRB APPROVAL

ACTION ON EXEMPTION APPROVAL REQUEST

LSU

Institutional Review Board
Dr. Dennis Landin, Chair
130 David Boyd Hall
Baton Rouge, LA 70803
P: 225.578.8692
F: 225.578.5983
irb@lsu.edu | lsu.edu/irb

TO: Melissa Kamal
Mass Communication

FROM: Dennis Landin
Chair, Institutional Review Board

DATE: March 28, 2016

RE: **IRB#** E9847

TITLE: Celebrity Endorsement of a Political Candidate

New Protocol/Modification/Continuation: New Protocol

Review Date: 3/28/2016

Approved_____X_____ Disapproved_____

Approval Date: 3/28/2016 **Approval Expiration Date:** 3/27/2019

Exemption Category/Paragraph: 2a, b

Signed Consent Waived?: Yes

Re-review frequency: (three years unless otherwise stated)

LSU Proposal Number (if applicable):

Protocol Matches Scope of Work in Grant proposal: (if applicable)

By: Dennis Landin, Chairman _____

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING –
Continuing approval is CONDITIONAL on:
1. Adherence to the approved protocol, familiarity with, and adherence to the ethical standards of the Belmont Report, and LSU's Assurance of Compliance with DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects*
2. Prior approval of a change in protocol, including revision of the consent documents or an increase in the number of subjects over that approved.
3. Obtaining renewed approval (or submittal of a termination report), prior to the approval expiration date, upon request by the IRB office (irrespective of when the project actually begins); notification of project termination.
4. Retention of documentation of informed consent and study records for at least 3 years after the study ends.
5. Continuing attention to the physical and psychological well-being and informed consent of the individual participants, including notification of new information that might affect consent.
6. A prompt report to the IRB of any adverse event affecting a participant potentially arising from the study.
7. Notification of the IRB of a serious compliance failure.
8. **SPECIAL NOTE: When emailing more than one recipient, make sure you use bcc.   Approvals will automatically be closed by the IRB on the expiration date unless the PI requests a continuation.**

*All investigators and support staff have access to copies of the Belmont Report, LSU's Assurance with DHHS, DHHS (45 CFR 46) and FDA regulations governing use of human subjects, and other relevant documents in print in this office or on our World Wide Web site at http://www.lsu.edu/irb

VITA

Melissa Sanati was born in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. After attending Simon's Rock College of Bard's Early College program, she completed her undergraduate education at Saint John's University in Queens, New York, earning her B.A. in Psychology in 2004. She earned an M.A. from the University of Central Florida's Nicholson School of Communication in 2010. Melissa began her doctoral studies in Media and Public Affairs at Louisiana State University's Manship School of Mass Communication in 2010. Her research focuses on the intersection of race, gender, religion, and identification in traditional and social media-facilitated news and advertisements.