The Impact of Negative Endorser Information and their Facial Appearance on Advertising Effectiveness for Profit and Not-for-profit Organizations

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Abstract

This study compared consumer reactions to positive and negative information about endorsers. We analysed the effects of positive versus negative publicity about a fictitious male or female endorser with either a cold or warm facial appearance in two conditions: an ad for a profit organization versus an ad for a non-profit organization. The results show that consumers’ attitude towards the ad and the brand/charity organization is negatively affected by negative information about the endorser. Moreover, the impact of negative information of the same endorser is significantly greater for ads of profit organizations than for ads of not-for-profit organizations especially for endorsers with a warm facial appearance. These results suggest that the risk of negative endorser information is much higher for profit organizations than for not-for-profit organizations.

Keywords: Endorsement; Negative information; Consumer reactions; Facial appearance; Not-for-profit organizations

Overview of the Literature

Endorsement - celebrity endorsement - dates back to the late nineteenth century but it was only in the late 1970’s that the use of celebrities became a popular advertising strategy for marketers [1]. Before 1980 approximately one in every six advertisements featured celebrities [1]. Gradually that figure increased to 25 percent [2-4]. Nowadays, celebrity endorsements are a booming multimillion-dollar business [5]. The media regularly report on athletes, models, movie stars and pop singers who sign lucrative endorsement deals. Roger Federer, for instance, annually earns more than 30 million dollars through his endorsements deals with Nike, Rolex, Wilson and Credit Suisse (cf. http://www.therichest.org).

Celebrity endorsement is not limited to the profit sector. Charity organizations such as UNICEF, the Red Cross and Amnesty International engage famous people as their 'ambassadors' hoping the celebrity gives them more visibility and brings in donations. In a world where advertising plays such a key role, also non-profit organizations spend billions of dollars on media campaigns and publicity [6].

Selecting the right celebrity to front advertising and promotional campaigns is not an easy task [3,7]. Many parameters and criteria have to be taken into account. In the past decades, several celebrity endorsement strategy models have been developed and put forward in the literature. These theoretical frameworks all emphasize different salient characteristics of the celebrity. The source-credibility model contends that the effectiveness of the advertising message depends on the perceived trustworthiness, objectivity and expertise of the celebrity endorser [8]. The source attractiveness model asserts that the perceived resemblance between the celebrity and the receiver of the message, the degree of familiarity with the 'star' and his or her attractiveness are key determinants of endorsement effectiveness [9]. Many studies have shown that physically attractive endorsers are more successful in creating positive attitudes towards the ad and brand than their less attractive counterparts [1]. However, there is no conclusive evidence that attractive celebrity endorsers are able to create purchase intentions [3]. Wheeler is one of the few researchers who studied the effect of attractive and less attractive endorsers in a non-profit context [10]. He found that the attractiveness of the celebrity endorser influenced the intention to volunteer time or donate money. The product match-up model is based on the idea that the celebrity's image and the product message should be congruent [1,11]. The balance theory combines the principles of the source-attractiveness model and the match-up hypothesis. According to this theoretical framework, celebrity endorsers can serve as a marketing tool when two conditions are met: (1) the endorser is well-liked by the consumer and (2) there is a match between the celebrity and the endorsed brand or product. When both conditions are fulfilled, consumers transfer their positive feelings about the celebrity to the product and are more likely to buy it [12]. However, Lee and Thorson demonstrated that moderate celebrity-product incongruence results in higher purchase intention than celebrity advertising with either a complete match or an extreme mismatch between the endorser’s image and the product’s image [13].

According to the meaning-transfer model the process of celebrity endorsement consists of three subsequent stages [14]. First, the positive feelings associated with the famous person are passed on to the product or brand. In the second stage, the positive feelings become associated with the product or brand in the consumer’s mind. Finally, the consumer identifies himself with the symbolic properties of the product. The process of meaning transfer is now completed.

The benefits of celebrity endorsement in advertising have been well established. Research shows that celebrities attract the attention of the customer, make the advertisement believable, create positive attitudes and feelings towards the advertising message and enhance

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brand awareness, but celebrity endorsement is not always a winning formula [4,15,16]. High endorsement fees can create a hole in the organization’s marketing budget as large as several millions of dollars. This was the case for telecommunications giant T-mobile in 2006. The company closed a multimillion-dollar endorsement deal with Hollywood star Catherine Zeta-Jones, but decided to remove the actress from its print and TV ads in favour of a more man-on-the-street marketing approach [17]. Furthermore, there is always the risk that the celebrity gets entangled in a scandal. Louie et al. proved that companies experience losses in stock market value when their celebrity endorser is culpable for the negative event [18]. An example of this is Tiger Woods who was an endorser for Nike, Tag Heuer, Gillette and other companies [7]. After it became public that Woods had had numerous extramarital affairs, his sponsor companies lost between 2.3 percent or about 12 billion dollars of their shareholder value [19]. Short after the doping story broke, Nike, electronics retailer RadioShack and AB InBev ended their sponsor deals with Lance Armstrong [20]. Only time will tell what influence the doping scandal will have on the brands he endorsed.

To date, only a few studies have explored whether negative information about the celebrity endorser are transferred to the brand and influence customers’ purchase intentions [21]. Till and Shimp’s experimental studies showed that negative information about the celebrity resulted in a decline in attitude towards the endorsed brand, but only for fictitious celebrities [22]. Bailey investigated whether consumers (76 percent of the sample was 24 years or younger) pay attention to negative celebrity publicity and whether their attitudes towards the endorsed brands are affected when the celebrity gets involved in controversies or scandals [23]. In a first study, over 70% of the respondents indicated that the involvement of a celebrity endorser in a negative event had little or no effect on their attitudes towards the endorsed brands or the companies associated with these embattled celebrities. A second study proved the opposite. Participants who read a news article that contained negative information about a celebrity endorser, were more sceptical about using the celebrity for the endorsement process, had less favourable attitudes towards the company and had lower purchase intentions than participants who read an article that contained either neutral or positive information about the celebrity. Money et al. examined whether the form of negative information about a famous spokesperson influences purchase intentions for a new brand [24]. First, they exposed a sample of Japanese and American undergraduate business students to an advertisement for a new fictitious product that was endorsed by a famous Hollywood star. Then, the students read a narrative text about the celebrity in which the concluding paragraph entailed either the fact that he was not a very good student and often cut classes (control group) or the fact that he had a history of drug abuse (both experimental groups). In the first experimental condition the text stated that the endorser’s drug abuse caused him considerable pain and anguish (self-oriented negative information condition). In the second experimental condition the text stated that the endorser’s drug abuse caused considerable pain and anguish for his family and close friends (other-oriented negative information condition). For both societies, self-oriented negative information led to stronger purchase intentions. According to Money et al. this finding suggests that participants identified with the celebrity’s feelings and experienced some kind of sympathy for the famous endorser [24]. Money et al. study thus shows that negative information about a celebrity endorser does not necessarily damage a business’s reputation [24]. Their findings are supported by Louie et al. who found that negative events for which the celebrity endorser is not (at all) to blame for even increase firms’ stock returns [18]. Finally, the meta-analysis of Amos et al. shows that negative information has a larger impact on celebrity endorsement effectiveness than trustworthiness, expertise, attractiveness, credibility, familiarity and likeability [21].

**Aim of the Study**

The present study contributes to the research stream on endorser effects in two important ways. As far as we know, this is the first study that compared the effects of positive and negative endorser information for both profit and not-for-profit organizations. Previous studies focused their attention almost exclusively on profit organizations. Second, we examined the impact and interaction of negative versus positive publicity about endorsers, their gender and their facial appearance on consumers’ attitudes towards the advertisement, their attitudes towards the brand or the not-for-profit organization and their purchase intention or intention to donate money. Previous research either explored the impact of different kinds of information or the effects of attractive versus less attractive endorsers. Our study therefore sought to answer the following two research questions:

RQ1: *What is the influence of negative/positive information of male and female endorsers and their facial appearance on the effectiveness of print advertisements? Does the influence differ for advertisements of profit and not-for-profit organizations?*

Effectiveness of the advertisements was assessed by consumers’ attitude towards the ad, consumers’ attitude towards the brand/the organization and consumers’ purchase intention/intention to donate money.

RQ2: *Is there an interaction effect between type of information about the endorsers and their facial appearance in print advertising on consumers’ attitude towards the ad, consumers’ attitude towards the brand/the organization and on consumers’ purchase intention/intention to donate money? Does this interaction effect differ for male and female endorsers and for profit and not-for-profit organizations?*

**Method**

It is not easy to isolate and/or control the exact influence of negative publicity about a celebrity on the endorsement process. Many factors can re-enforce or weaken the endorsement relation. Therefore, we decided to use fictitious endorsers. In this way, we could control for knowledge, preferences and other possible distortions caused by prior exposure to the endorsers. Fictitious endorsers also have the advantage that you can choose the information you ‘publish’ about them.

**Material**

We ran two pre-tests to select the material for the questionnaire. In a first pre-test, we presented twelve pictures to twenty Dutch-speaking Belgian men and women. All pictures were royalty free Internet colour photos with the same size. They presented either a male of female in their twenties against a neutral background. The hair colours of the men and women in the pictures were limited to blond, brown and black. None of them wore glasses and all models looked in the lens of the camera. The composition of the picture was also taken into account. When people judge the overall attractiveness of a person, the face is especially important [25-27]. Therefore, we selected pictures that depicted only the face and shoulders of the models. The participants rated the facial appearance of the twelve people in the photographs on a 7-point bipolar adjectival scale based on Till and Shimp [22]. The scale consisted of five pairs of items: ‘cold/warm’, ‘aggressive/calm’, ‘cruel/mild’, ‘negative/
positive’ and ‘unreliable/reliable’. The results of an exploratory factor analysis showed that all items loaded on one underlying factor (69.67% of the total variance was explained). The internal consistency for the scale was α = .89. The six ‘cold’ endorsers were found to have lower scores than the three male and female endorsers designated as ‘warm personalities’. The average scores ranged from 2.59 (SD=0.83; N=20) to 4.41 (SD=0.61; N=20). For the experiment, we selected the pictures with the highest and the lowest scores. The ‘warm’ endorsers were a happy smiling blond male and female dressed in white against a bright background. Both ‘cold’ endorsers were a black haired man and woman dressed in black and wearing a black hood. They were projected against a dark background and looked sternly into the camera. In Figure 1 both ‘warm’ and ‘cold’ endorsers are shown.

In a second pre-test, we determined the content validity of 21 examples of negative and positive celebrity endorsement information. The examples were depicted from previous experimental studies on the effects of negative publicity surrounding celebrity endorsers and celebrity news stories [5,18,23]. Twenty-two respondents were asked to score the news items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very negative information about a person) to 5 (very positive information about a person). Table 1 shows the average scores for the 21 statements that were used in the pre-test.

The four statements with the highest and the lowest scores were incorporated in four short news articles. The body of the article entailed either two positive or two negative statements about the endorser. One of the statements was also incorporated in the headline of the news item. All articles were written in Dutch (the mother tongue of the participants) and contained less than 100 words.

All participants in the main study were presented with a series of four news articles and four advertisements. Each ad included a picture of the endorser, a Dutch headline and a footnote mentioning the name of the endorser. The two ads for the for-profit products also contained a picture of the product (either a watch or perfume). Both for-profit products were situated in the second quadrant of the Foot-Cone-Belding (FCB) grid [28]. In this quadrant, the feeling towards the product is more important in the purchase decision process than specific product information [28]. Celebrities are often used to endorse this type of products as they can evoke positive affective responses from customers. Only in the case of a positive emotional response, consumers will feel an urge to collect information about the product.

For the not-for-profit organizations we choose a fictitious child care and an environmental care organization because celebrities are often involved with these types of charity organizations. We used fictional brand names and not-for-profit organizations to rule out negative or positive associations based on familiarity, previous knowledge and previous experience with the brand and or organization. In Figure 2A an example of a negative news article of a female endorser is presented. Figure 2B shows an example of a positive news article of a male endorser.

**Participants**

Participants were recruited by using social networking and/or sending e-mails containing a hyperlink to Qualtrics. 208 subjects completed the questionnaire. Their mean age was 41.29 years (SD=14.35). 57.7% of the respondents were women.

The four versions of the questionnaire (see the following section) were randomly assigned to the respondents. Participants in the four versions did not significantly differ in age ($F [3, 204]=0.385, p = .764$) and gender (χ² [3, N=208]=2.325, $p = .508$).

**Research design**

The experiment used a within-subjects design: all participants judged four advertisements. One of the greatest advantages of this within subjects’ design is that it reduces the errors associated with individual differences of the participants because all the respondents are exposed to all the different endorsers and their information which means that each respondent serves as his or her own baseline. A within subjects’ design reduces the error variance because any factor that may influence the dependent variable is exactly the same for the different conditions (in our case: the different ‘shown’ pictures of the endorsers and their ‘positive/negative’ news article), because the respondents are the same group of people for the different conditions. Another main advantage is that the within subjects’ design does not require a large sample. This is why we have opted for a within subjects’ design. However, carryover effects (participants are tested several times to the same kind of treatment which can affect their answers) and fatigue (i.e. the total length of the questionnaire increase) could be significant major drawbacks. Each version (Table 2) included two news articles with positive information and two news articles with negative information about an endorser, two ads for a profit organization and two ads for a not-for-profit organization, two male endorsers and two

![Figure 1: From left to right, two ‘cold’ and two ‘warm’ endorsers.](image-url)
female endorsers and two 'cold' endorsers and two 'warm' endorsers. This design was chosen to rule out possible order effects.

**Measures**

We constructed a multipage online questionnaire. The introductory page contained general information about the study and an invitation to participate. In the instruction section participants were informed that the questionnaires were anonymous and that there were no rights or wrong answers. The next page contained a news article on the top left side of the page and an ad on the top right side of the page. The questions were displayed underneath the article and the advertisement. First, attitude towards the ad (Aad) was measured on a five-item seven-point semantic differential scale based on Babin and Burns [29]. The items were anchored by 'positive/negative', '(not) attractive', '(not) convincing', '(not) credible' and '(not) attracts me'. The scale was found to be reliable: α = .96. Principal components analysis of the five items produced a one factor solution. The factor explained 85.97% of the total variance. Next, attitude towards the brand/the not-for-profit organization (Ab/Aorg) was measured using five seven-point semantic differentials based on Spears and Singh: 'unappealing/apppealing', 'bad/good', 'unpleasant/pleasant', 'unfavourable/favourable' and 'unlikable/likable' [30]. The scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .96. Factor analysis revealed that a one-factor solution accounted for 86.86% of total variance. Subsequently, respondents indicated their positive attitude towards the endorser in the advertisement and evaluated the fit between the endorser and the brand/not-for-profit organization. Participants were also asked to rate their overall impression of the endorser. These three measures were used as manipulation check. Attitude towards the endorser (α = .96) was measured using three 7-point semantic differentials based on Bailey (2007): '(not) appropriate endorser', 'does (not) fit with ad', 'good/bad model'. Factor loadings on the three items ranged from 0.94 - 0.97. One dominant factor emerged and accounted for 92.20% of the variance. The fit between the endorser and the brand/not-for-profit organization was checked with a 1-item 7-point semantic differential: 'good/bad' fit. Respondents’ average impression of the endorser was measured using three 7-point semantic differentials based on Roozen and Claeys: 'negative/positive endorser'; '(not) reliable endorser'; 'good/bad endorser' (α = .96). A principal components factor analysis was run on the three items, yielding a one-factor solution that accounted for 94.49% of the total variance. Purchase intentions for the for-profit product and donation intentions for the not-for-profit organization (PI-ID) were measured on a 7-point scale using the following adjective pairs based on Roozen and Claeys: 'If I could choose I would consider this brand/If I could choose I would consider a donation to the organization', 'I would like to try this brand/I would like to donate to this organization' and 'if I had the chance I would buy this brand/if I had the chance I would donate an amount of money to this organization' (α = .88) [31]. Factor loadings on the four items ranged from 0.85 - 0.94. One dominant factor emerged and accounted for 80.85% of the variance. Finally, the fit between the respondent and the endorser was checked. This measurement was based on Bower and Landreth and consisted of three 7-point Likert items: 'I feel that the model in the advertisement and I are very much alike', 'I can identify myself with the person in the ad' and 'I think that the person in the ad looks like me' [11]. The scale had an alpha reliability of 0.81 (controlled for gender of the respondent). Principal components analysis of the three items produced a one factor solution. The factor explained 73.87% of the total variance. The questionnaire ended with questions about participants’ gender and age. The average time to complete the questionnaire was approximately 15 minutes.

**Results**

**Manipulation checks**

As a manipulation check we compared the participants' scores for attitude towards the endorser, the fit between the endorser and the brand/not-for-profit organization and their overall impression of the endorser for the eight different treatments: (1) a 'warm' female endorser associated with positive information, (2) a 'warm' female endorser associated with negative information, (3) a 'cold' female endorser associated with positive information, (4) a 'cold' female endorser associated with negative information, (5) a 'warm' male endorser associated with positive information, (6) a 'warm' male endorser associated with negative information, (7) a 'cold' male endorser associated with positive information, (8) a 'cold' male endorser associated with negative information. The means and standard deviations (between brackets) of the manipulation check variables are displayed in Table 3.
The results in Table 3 show that the ‘warm’ male endorser associated with positive information received the highest scores for all manipulation check variables. The ‘cold’ female endorser linked to negative information received the lowest scores from the participants. The results further show that the average scores for both male endorsers were significantly higher than the average scores for both female endorsers (p < 0.001, for all t-values). Participants also had significantly less favourable evaluations of the male and female endorser associated with negative information compared to the endorsers associated with positive information (p < 0.001, for all t-values). Both ‘cold’ endorsers were also evaluated lower than both ‘warm’ endorsers. These findings apply to ads for both profit and not-for-profit organizations. Hence, the manipulation was successful, as the ‘warm’ endorsers linked to positive information significantly outscored the ‘cold’ endorsers associated with negative information.

### Research results

For the first research question, a one-way repeated-measures MANOVA was conducted to examine the overall main effects of type of information about the endorser (positive/negative), their facial appearance (warm/cold) and gender (male/female) on the following dependent variables: attitude towards the ad, attitude towards the brand, attitude towards the organization, purchase intention and intention to donate money. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation and sample size per treatment for each of the dependent variables.

The MANOVA revealed a significant main effect of type of information (positive/negative) on attitude towards the ad (F[1, 896] = 77.562, p < 0.001), attitude towards the brand/not-for-profit organization (F[1, 896] = 45.366, p < 0.001) and purchase intention...
intention to donate money (F[1, 907]=63.909, p < .001). All results showed the same trend: negative information about the endorser resulted in lower advertising effectiveness. We also found a significant main effect of facial appearance on attitude towards the ad (F[1, 896]=18.890, p < .001), attitude towards the brand/not-for-profit organization (F[1, 896]=10.707, p < .001) and purchase intention/intention to donate money (F[1, 907]=6.273, p < .001). Ads with a picture of a severe looking male of female endorser yielded lower scores than ads endorsed by a happy smiling person.

Moreover, a comparison of the mean scores for endorsers associated with negative information reveals that advertising effectiveness was almost always lower for profit organizations compared to not-for-profit organizations endorsed by the same endorser. Furthermore, the average scores presented in Table 4 show that the ‘warm’ male endorser associated with positive information was significantly more effective than the other endorsers for the non-profit organizations. For both profit brands the ‘warm’ female endorser associated with positive information generated the highest scores. No significant differences were found between male and female participants and participants of different age groups.

To answer the second research question we ran a MANOVA. The results showed three-way significant interaction effects between type of information, the facial appearance of the endorser and his/her gender on Aad (F[3, 894]=12.047, p = .001), Ab/Aorg (F[3, 894]=9.312, p = .004) and PI/DI (F[3, 894]=22.888, p < .001). In Figure 3 these three-way interaction effects are visualized.

On the right side of the figure, the interaction patterns for the for-profit print advertisements are depicted. The three graphs on the left side of the figure display the interaction patterns for the not-for-profit advertisements. As can be seen in the figure, the interaction patterns for the profit and not-for-profit organizations are not the same. For the for-profit advertisements, differences in attitude towards the ad, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention are largest for the female endorser with a warm facial appearance; whereas for the ads for the not-for-profit organizations the differences in ad effectiveness are smallest for this type of endorser. For the ‘warm’ male endorser we see a similar but less pronounced pattern. Second, the differences in ad effectiveness for the ‘cold’ male endorser are very small or not existing for the profit advertisements. Negative information about the same endorser, however, had a very negative impact on participants’ intention to donate money. For the ‘cold’ female endorser we see a stronger negative effect of negative information on all three advertising effectiveness measurements in the not-for-profit context compared to the profit advertisements. The graphs show that negative publicity surrounding the ‘warm’ endorsers had a strong negative impact on advertising effectiveness for the profit organizations. In a non-profit context, however, negative information surrounding the same endorsers had relatively less negative impact for the charity organization. Based on the patterns in Figure 2, we can also conclude that for the profit organizations negative information had a greater negative impact on ad effectiveness especially when the endorsers had a ‘warm’ facial appearance, whereas negative information had a greater negative impact for the ‘cold’ endorsers associated with a not-for-profit organization.

Conclusion and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine and compare the effects of negative celebrity endorser information on advertising effectiveness for both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. We found that negative information about a fictitious endorser was harmful for both for-profit and not-for-profit organizations. Endorsers surrounded with negative information had a negative impact on participants’ attitude towards the advertisement, their attitude towards the product or organization and their purchase intention or intention to donate money. Our research results are consisted with the findings reported in previous experimental studies on celebrity endorsement [21-23]. Our study adds to this body of work by examining the interaction effects of type of information (positive or negative) surrounding the endorser, his/her gender and his/her facial appearance on advertising effectiveness. We found different interaction patterns for the same endorsers in a profit context and in a not-for-profit context. Our findings seem to indicate that advertisers should choose a male model with a warm facial appearance to endorse their products in print advertising. For not-for-profit organizations a ‘warm’ female model tends to incorporate the smallest risk. Our analysis further suggests that ad effectiveness decreases significantly more when ‘warm’ endorsers of profit products fall into discredit compared to ‘warm’ endorsers of not-for-profit organizations. Because advertisers mostly include pictures of happy, smiling people in their advertising messages, we can conclude that endorsers who fall into discredit entail a greater risk for profit brands than for not-for-profit organizations. Endorsement contracts may involve a huge financial risk because companies have limited control over the celebrity’s actions or personality. Therefore,

Figure 3: Average scores for the attitude towards the advertisement (Aad), the attitude towards the brand/organization (Ab/Aorg) and purchase intention/intention to donate money (PI/ID) for the not-for-profit organizations (left) and profit organizations (right); according to type of endorser and type of information.

advertisers could consider developing and using advertising campaigns built around fictitious celebrities with their own ‘story’.

**Limitations and Future Research**

There are a number of limitations to our study. First, as in most other studies, we limited our selection of endorsers to relatively young fictitious celebrities. Further research is necessary to establish whether our findings also apply to older and well-known celebrities. Second, we only examined the effects of negative publicity for two products and two types of non-profit organizations. It would be useful to extend the scope of research to a wide range of different products and to different kinds of not-for-profit organizations. Third, our research results are obtained from a convenience sample of the Belgian population. The analysis has to be replicated in different countries and across different population segments to check whether the results can be generalized.

Another potential research area is the impact of celebrity endorsement through social media. Celebrities are getting paid, sometimes up to 5,000 dollars or more, for sending a tweet endorsing a product [32]. Future research could explore whether customers believe that celebrities actually use the products they tweet about and whether tweets of celebrities influence their followers’ attitude towards the brand and their purchase intentions. Like any endorsement process, a celebrity tweet comes with the risk that the behaviour of the star does not match with the company’s image and therefore can damage the brand’s credibility. In addition, future research could also examine the impact of negative information for the endorsement process in social media settings.

**References**