# Examining the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility, and corporate credibility

**Shahzeb Hussain**
*Middlesex University*


**TC Melewar**
*Middlesex University*


**Constantinos-Vasilios Priporas**
*Middlesex University*


**Pantea Foroudi**
*Middlesex University*

**Examining the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility**

## Abstract

Drawing on signalling theory, this study aims to fill a gap in knowledge by examining the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, both directly and based on the moderating variables of age, gender and ethnicity. The research has three objectives: (i) to explore the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility; (ii) to explore the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, based on the moderating effects of consumer demographics; and (iii) to explore the effects of the other constructs on each other, i.e. advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility, and brand credibility on corporate credibility. For this purpose, a survey of 625 respondents was conducted in London. The empirical results show that celebrity trust has a positive effect on both advertising credibility and brand credibility, and that these effects are moderated by consumers' ethnicity, with no obvious effects of age or gender. No effect was found on corporate credibility. The effects of advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility, and of brand credibility on corporate credibility, were found to be significant. The significant implications for managers and researchers are highlighted.


**Keywords** - Celebrity trust; cognitive trust; affective trust; advertising credibility; brand credibility; corporate credibility.

## 1. Introduction

The use of celebrity endorsers is one of the most popular strategies used by advertisers. Celebrities can bring visibility to advertisements and break through the clutter of competing brands. Firms invest substantial amounts of money to gain consumers' attention and to acquire a competitive position in the market. A rough estimate suggests that as much as 10 per cent of a firm's annual budget is spent on celebrity endorsements (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). These huge costs make this area of decision-making and spending highly risky (Um and Kim, 2016). Marketers use various techniques to reduce these risks, including hiring celebrities based on an understanding of trust within the context of celebrity endorsement consumers (Erdogan, 2001; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

The importance of celebrity trust has also led several researchers to study its effectiveness in greater detail (Ohanian, 1990). A related but conceptually and operationally distinct construct, celebrity trustworthiness, has already been explored (Ohanian, 1990). Celebrity trustworthiness is conceived from celebrity credibility, which consists of two other dimensions, so-called expertise and attractiveness (Yoo *et al.,* 2018). Previous research suggests that although all three credibility dimensions have significance in stimulating consumers' recall rates and buying behaviours, celebrity trustworthiness is the most important, and also makes the highest contribution to increasing consumers' confidence in the brand and firm (Frieden, 1986; Deshpande and Douglas, 1994; Erdogan, 2001; Bekk and Sporrle, 2010). This importance, alongside the fact that celebrity trust has different meanings, conceptual characteristics, dimensions, components and effects from celebrity trustworthiness (Yu *et al.,* 2015; Dadzie *et al.,* 2018; Roy *et al.,* 2018; Franklin and Marshall, 2019), demonstrates the need to study celebrity trust in more detail and particularly, as suggested by previous researchers (Delgado-Ballester *et al.,* 2003; Soh *et al.,* 2009), on its own.

The aim of this research is therefore to extend the current knowledge by examining the effects of celebrity trust on other credibility constructs. The study has three objectives: (i) to explore the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility; (ii) to explore the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, taking consumer demographics into account; and (iii) to explore the effects of the other constructs on each other, i.e. advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility, and brand credibility on corporate credibility. To examine these effects, signalling theory has been used to establish whether celebrity trust or other credibility constructs can be used to send credible signals, and how these signals affect each of the relationships being examined.

The paper starts with an explanation of the background of celebrity trust, before presenting the conceptual model and a series of hypotheses. It then sets out the research method and the details of a large-scale field survey investigation that was undertaken to test the hypotheses. Finally, the discussion and conclusions are presented.

## 2. Research background

Celebrity endorsers are individuals who enjoy high public recognition and use this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement (McCracken, 1989). They are considered to be an effective marketing communication tool (Spry *et al.,* 2011; Singh and Banerjee, 2018). They lead to higher advertisement and brand recall by cutting through the clutter in a competitive market and improving communication with consumers.

The use of celebrity endorsements as a marketing practice has a distinguished history dating back more than 150 years. However, since the 1980s, it has become standard practice. Today, 25 to 30 per cent of advertisements in Western countries use celebrity endorsers, while the figure is 60 to 70 per cent in countries like China, India and Japan (Jain *et al.,* 2016;

Yoo *et al.,* 2018). Marketers spend an enormous amount of money on celebrity endorsement contracts. Estimates suggest that as much as 10 per cent of a firm's annual budget is spent on celebrity endorsements (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). In return, celebrities deliver a huge positive impact on advertising effectiveness and brand recall, and increase the level of consumers' purchase intention (Chan *et al.,* 2013; Singh and Banerjee, 2018).

These success rates have led to a number of researchers studying the effectiveness of celebrity endorsements. They have found that a successful celebrity endorsement campaign requires the celebrity to be among the top performers in his or her field, to have an ability to bring attention to the advertising and brand, and, most importantly, to know how to bring trust to the brand and consumers (Erdogan, 2001; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Celebrity trust has been an area of interest for several researchers. Using a similar construct to celebrity trust, i.e. celebrity trustworthiness, several researchers (e.g. Spry *et al.,* 2011; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Roy *et al.,* 2018; Yoo *et al.,* 2018) have studied its effects on other constructs. Some of the earlier studies on celebrity trustworthiness examined its effects on valued outcomes, such as message effectiveness, brand recall, attitude towards an advertisement, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention (Erdogan, 2001; Lafferty *et al.,* 2002). More recent studies have suggested that celebrity trustworthiness has a positive effect on advertising appeal, social media advertising, brand credibility, brand equity, brand loyalty, attitude towards the corporation, corporate loyalty, corporate image and corporate reputation (Spry *et al.,* 2011; Dwivedi and Johnson, 2013; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Samat *et al.,* 2015; Yoo *et al.,* 2018).

The literature reveals that trust and trustworthiness are distinct constructs with different meanings and conceptual characteristics (Soh *et al.,* 2009; Bauer, 2015; Alarcon *et al.,* 2018). Trust is explained as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of

another party, based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action that is important to the trustor (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Bauer, 2015; Franklin and Marshall, 2019). This definition reveals that trust is based on trusting beliefs, trusting intentions/willingness, confidence, expectation and risk (Soh *et al.,* 2009; Alarcon *et al.,* 2018). Trusting belief is based on two dimensions: cognitive and affective (Morrow *et al.,* 2004; Roy *et al.,* 2018; Franklin and Marshall, 2019). The cognitive dimension represents the rational part of human judgement (Ha *et al.,* 2016; Roy *et al.,* 2018). It is accumulated from knowledge or experience that allows one to make predictions with some level of confidence regarding the likelihood that a partner is competent, responsible and reliable (Johnson and Grayson, 2005; Ha *et al.,* 2016; Franklin and Marshall, 2019). The affective dimension represents the emotional part of human judgement. It is the confidence one places in a partner on the basis of feelings generated by the level of reciprocity, care and concern (Dowell *et al.,* 2015; Dadzie *et al.,* 2018; Roy *et al.,* 2018). It becomes vital when trust is studied in the business-to-consumer context (Terres and Santos, 2013; Terres *et al.,* 2015). Since this context involves fewer contractual safeguards, a leap of faith from consumers towards the business becomes an essential requirement (Johnson and Grayson, 2005; Dadzie *et al.,* 2018; Roy *et al.,* 2018). The importance of the affective dimension increases when consumers are expected to make high-consequence decisions or have little knowledge about their purchases (McAllister, 1995; Terres and Santos, 2013; Terres *et al.,* 2015). In such situations, a well-known personality such as a celebrity endorser can be used to create empathy and concern about consumers' fear regarding the purchase decision and thus decrease the level of uncertainty (Terres and Santos, 2013; Terres *et al.,* 2015). Care and concern from a celebrity endorser are significant factors in building trust with consumers and are major requirements of trust (Hupcey and Miller, 2006; Terres and Santos, 2013; Dadzie *et al.,* 2018).

Trustworthiness, on the other hand, is defined as the honesty, integrity and believability of a source (Erdogan, 2001; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). It is based on secondary information, such as the characteristics or reputation of the trustee (Sekhon *et al.,* 2014; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). This suggests that trustworthiness is based on the cognitive dimension and does not take the affective dimension into consideration (Yu *et al.,* 2015; Roy *et al.,* 2018). A clear difference between celebrity trustworthiness and celebrity trust can therefore be demonstrated, making it evident that one cannot be substituted for the other.

Differences also exist in terms of the elements that each construct contains. Celebrity trustworthiness consists of items such as honesty, reliability, trustworthy, dependability and sincerity (Magnini *et al.,* 2008; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). These are completely different from the items of celebrity trust given in Appendix 1, which clearly demonstrates that celebrity trustworthiness and celebrity trust are distinct constructs with different meanings and conceptual characteristics (Johnson and Grayson, 2005; Akrout and Diallo, 2017; Lu *et al.,* 2017).

The differences in meanings, dimensions and items also result in celebrity trust having a different effect on other constructs (Yu *et al.,* 2015; Roy *et al.,* 2018). As celebrity trust holds items based on both the cognitive and affective dimensions (i.e. it consists of reliability, commitment, ability, integrity, accuracy, receptivity, confidence, emotional feelings, admiration, appreciation, liking and acceptance, whereas celebrity trustworthiness is based only on the cognitive dimension, consisting of honesty, reliability, trustworthy, dependability and sincerity), it clearly has different effects from those of celebrity trustworthiness (Hardin, 1996; Ashraf *et al.,* 2006; Colquitt *et al.,* 2011; Yu *et al.,* 2015; Dadzie *et al.,* 2018). These distinctions have been elucidated by some previous researchers, who have clearly suggested that celebrity trust and celebrity trustworthiness have different

effects (Ashraf *et al.,* 2006; Colquitt *et al.,* 2011; Yu *et al.,* 2015; Dadzie *et al.,* 2018; Roy *et al.,* 2018). However, despite these differences, the recent literature reveals that there is very little evidence available on the effects of celebrity trust (Johnson and Grayson, 2005; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Akrout and Diallo, 2017). Although some previous researchers (Spry *et al.,* 2011; Singh and Banerjee, 2018) have examined the effects of celebrity trustworthiness, limited research is found on the effects of celebrity trust, especially on the other credibility constructs.

The main purpose of a trusted celebrity endorser is to enhance the credibility of all the associated entities (Seno and Lukas, 2007; Kim *et al.,* 2014). When a trusted celebrity endorser is linked to an advertisement, brand or corporation, positive signals are passed towards the connected sources and enhance their credibility (Dwivedi and Johnson, 2013; Dwivedi *et al.,* 2015; Karanges *et al.,* 2018; Pecot *et al.,* 2018). For example, film star Cate Blanchett is seen as a trusted source owing to her support for environmental causes. When Blanchett is linked to other sources such as advertising, a brand or a corporation, it is likely that her positive effects move to these connected sources, which enhances their credibility (Soh *et al.,* 2011; Singh and Banerjee, 2018). Overall, it can be suggested that a higher level of celebrity trust leads to higher levels of advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, while a lower level of celebrity trust badly damages their reputation and credibility (Seno and Lukas, 2007; Soh *et al.,* 2011; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Yoo *et al.,* 2018). Although a few previous studies have examined the effects of celebrity trustworthiness on similar constructs, there is a gap in the literature when it comes to examining the effects of celebrity trust. To fill this gap in the knowledge, the first objective of this study is to examine the effects of celebrity trust, based on both its cognitive and affective dimensions, on other credibility constructs, i.e. advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, based on signalling theory.

The second objective is to examine the impact of consumer demographics on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, again based on signalling theory. The past literature (Jones, 2010; Bhutada and Rollins, 2015; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017) reveals that consumers with different demographics have different reactions towards celebrity endorsers, which could have different effects on other constructs. Consumers who are younger, female and black have been found to be more influenced than other groups by celebrity endorsers (Biswas *et al.,* 2009). This raises the question of whether consumers, based on their demographics, show any difference towards a trusted celebrity endorser and whether this has any effects on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility (Kim *et al.,* 2014; Rifon *et al.,* 2016; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017; Ferchaud *et al.,* 2018). To answer these questions, the second objective is therefore to examine the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, based on consumers' age, gender and ethnicity.

Thirdly, also using signalling theory, this study examines the effects of advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility, and of brand credibility on corporate credibility. Previous research (Kia, 2016; Nisar *et al.,* 2016; Karanges *et al.,* 2018; Pecot *et al.,* 2018) suggests that credibility from one construct affects the credibility of others, such that advertising credibility can affect brand credibility and corporate credibility, while brand credibility can affect corporate credibility. However, given that there is little evidence on this topic, this study examines the effects of these constructs on each other.

**3. Conceptual framework and hypotheses development**

The conceptual framework proposed in this study uses signalling theory – which is itself based on information asymmetry theory – to provide a roadmap through which consumers can make judgements about a brand and/or a firm's characteristics. When consumers are uncertain about the quality of a brand or firm, marketers use signals to inform

them about the outstanding characteristics of the brand or firm (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Karanges *et al.,* 2018). Various marketing mix elements can be used to signal brand and firm quality: for example, charging a higher price, offering a certain warranty or distributing via certain channels. Each of these signals may or may not be credible, and there is therefore no guarantee that they will work. However, signals conveyed through a credible source differ from other marketing mix elements, and embody a firm's past and present marketing mix strategy and activities (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Ghorban and Tahernejad, 2012).

Previous researchers using signalling theory have studied the credibility of various sources (Ohanian, 1991; Ghorban and Tahernejad, 2012; Karanges *et al.,* 2018). They have demonstrated that credible sources enhance consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement and brand, purchase intention, price sensitivity, choice, consideration, satisfaction, loyalty and word of mouth (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Sweeney and Swait, 2008; Singh and Banerjee, 2018). Alongside these studies on the credibility of sources, a number of researchers have also studied celebrity trustworthiness (Spry *et al.,* 2011; Dwivedi *et al.,* 2015; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Their results reveal that celebrity trustworthiness has a positive effect on attitudes towards advertising and brand, purchase intention, brand credibility, corporate credibility, brand equity and corporate image (Dwivedi and Johnson, 2013; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

Although previous researchers (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Dwivedi and Johnson, 2013; Karanges *et al.,* 2018) have used signalling theory to examine the effects of celebrity trustworthiness on other constructs, there is very little evidence concerning the effects of celebrity trust, especially its effects on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility. Using signalling theory, this study has therefore developed a conceptual model to investigate the effects of celebrity trust on all three credibility constructs, as shown in Figure 1.

<<<**Insert figure 1**>>>

*3.1. The effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility*

The previous literature reveals that celebrity endorsement is an effective strategy to gain consumers' attention, make advertisements believable, enhance message recall, increase market share and foster positive word of mouth (Atkin and Block, 1983). These outcomes encourage firms to extend the use of celebrity endorsers in marketing-related activities, in the hope that the positive feelings of fans towards the celebrities will be transferred to the endorsed brands. However, celebrities do not always come without risks. Researchers (Ohanian, 1991; Erdogan, 2001; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018) have used different strategies to overcome these risks, including a celebrity credibility model. Celebrity credibility refers to the extent to which a source is perceived as possessing expertise and can be trusted to give an objective opinion on the subject (Goldsmith *et al.,* 2000). The celebrity credibility model consists of expertise and trustworthiness as its main components (Ohanian, 1990; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Expertise is defined as the extent to which a celebrity is perceived to possess knowledge, skills or experience, and is thereby considered to provide accurate information, while trustworthiness is defined as the honesty, integrity and believability of an endorser as perceived by the target audience (Ohanian, 1991; Singh and Banerjee, 2018). Information from both dimensions is influential in shaping consumers' attitudes and beliefs.

Although previous studies agree that both determinants of the celebrity credibility model are important, most researchers have found trustworthiness to be of greater significance than expertise (Friedman and Friedman, 1978; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Celebrity trustworthiness has been a major area of interest for many

researchers, owing to the fact that transactions are frequently made once consumers establish trust in a celebrity (Vincent *et al.,* 2008; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

The importance of celebrity trustworthiness can also be observed in the literature, which reveals its positive impact on consumers' attitudes towards advertisement, brand and firm, and purchase intention (Lafferty *et al.,* 2002). Later studies indicate its positive effects on advertising effectiveness, brand image, brand loyalty, corporate image and corporate loyalty (Dwivedi and Johnson, 2013; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Chin *et al.,* 2019). The empirical evidence (Kim *et al.,* 2014; Nisar *et al.,* 2016) also reveals that signals from trusted celebrities can transfer credibility to other related constructs, including advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility. As celebrities appear to gain influence in society, investments and communications made through highly trusted celebrity endorsers can be used as a powerful mechanism to create a positive impact in consumers' minds and leave a positive evaluation regarding the celebrity (Nelson, 2010; Susanto and Setiowati, 2015). This means that when consumers think of the trusted celebrity, they think of these elements, and, as a result, also view them as credible (Vincent *et al.,* 2008; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

Although a huge amount of literature is available on the impact of celebrity trustworthiness on attitudes towards advertisement, brand and firm, there is very little evidence concerning the relationships between celebrity trust and advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility (Susanto and Setiowati, 2015; Singh and Banerjee, 2018; Chin *et al.,* 2019). This study, therefore, using signalling theory, examines the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility. According to signalling theory, credibility is moved from one source to another, and as a result increases the credibility and effectiveness of other connected sources (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Kia, 2016; Singh and Banerjee, 2018). Therefore, the first hypothesis is:

*H1: Celebrity trust has a positive effect on advertising credibility (H1a), brand credibility (H1b) and corporate credibility (H1c)*

*3.2. The impact of consumers' age on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility*

Studies in marketing (La Ferle and Morimoto, 2009; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017) show that, as people age and move through different life stages, their decision-making styles change. These changes have an impact on the preferences of their self-concepts and alter the way they identify with other social groups, including celebrity endorsers (La Ferle and Morimoto, 2009). The literature (Biswas *et al.,* 2009; Jain *et al.,* 2011; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017) includes studies that show how consumers in different age groups react to celebrities differently. Atkin and Block (1983) revealed a higher susceptibility to celebrity endorsements among younger participants than among older participants. More recently, Biswas *et al*. (2009), McCartney and Pinto (2014) and Djafarova and Rushworth (2017) also found that celebrity endorsers had a higher impact on the purchase intentions of younger consumers than on those of older consumers. Chan *et al*. (2013) mentioned that, compared to older consumers, adolescents had a higher persuasive intention towards celebrity endorsers and held less sceptical attitudes towards them. Isaksen and Roper (2008) found that low-income teenagers were more attracted than other subgroups to celebrity endorsers. Kumar *et al*. (2011) observed that 91.7 per cent of consumers under the age of 18 found celebrity endorsers attractive and influential, a higher rate than in other age groups. Mostly, the outcomes of these studies suggest that younger consumers are more highly influenced than those in other age groups by celebrity endorsers, and use them as a key reference to enhance their image (Yurdakul-Sahin and Atik, 2013; McCartney and Pinto, 2014). Young consumers view celebrities as credible role models and admire them (Martin and Bush, 2000; Jain *et al.,* 2011; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017). They adopt their attitudes, incorporate their opinions

and buy brands that are endorsed by their favourite celebrities (Martin and Bush, 2000; Jain *et al.,* 2011; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017).

Greene and Adams-Price (1990) state that in the transition from childhood to adulthood, young people try to disengage from parental authority in order to construct and define their identities and lifestyles in ways accepted by society. This complex process directs young adolescents to search for references within their social environment (Yurdakul-Sahin and Atik, 2013; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017). In order to be socially acceptable and likeable, they try to adopt the general norms of society. As celebrities are highly influential and communicate the traits that are important to changing and building societal norms, young adolescents follow celebrities as role models in order to gain an idealised image within society. However, over time, as these adolescents grow and become mature, their self-identity with celebrities changes, and rather than liking or trusting these celebrities, they create a space between their self-identity and the celebrities (Kroger *et al.,* 2010). Evidence from studies on neuro-imaging also indicates that younger adults, compared to their older counterparts, use different areas of the brain to assess celebrities, but, as they grow and become mature, their thinking abilities (or beliefs) change, which also alters their feelings towards celebrities (Keel and Nataraajan, 2012).

Despite the importance placed by some researchers (Keel and Nataraajan, 2012; Yurdakul-Sahin and Atik, 2013; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017) on the relationship between consumers' age and the influence of celebrity endorsers, only a minority of researchers have examined this. There has also been little focus on the impact of consumers' age on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility. To minimise these gaps, this research uses signalling theory to examine these effects, and observes whether signals like celebrity trust have any effect on the other credibility constructs, particularly based on consumers' age. Thus, the next hypothesis is:

*H2: The effect of celebrity trust on advertising credibility (H2a), brand credibility (H2b) and corporate credibility (H2c) will be stronger among younger consumers than among older consumers*

*3.3. The impact of consumers' gender on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility*

As well as exploring the impact of consumers' age, this study also examines the role of consumers' gender in the influence of celebrity endorsements. The approach used is heavily influenced by previous studies based on selective hypothesis theory, which suggests that men and women process promotional information differently (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991; Bhutada and Rollins, 2015). According to this theory, men use salient cues to process information and are therefore described as selective processors, while women use relevant information and are described as comprehensive processors (Bhutada and Rollins, 2015). The relevant literature (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991; Bhutada and Rollins, 2015) on this topic suggests that women are more easily persuaded and accepting of claims than men. They prefer a detailed elaboration of message cues and prefer both subjective and objective claims, while men prefer an absence of objective or detailed claims in the message cues.

The importance of gender within the topic of celebrity endorsement has also been observed in the current literature. Although the literature in this field is not extensive, researchers have covered the main topics. The findings from these studies promote two opposing ideas. Most earlier studies suggested that the gender of celebrity endorsers did not result in any major influence on consumers' attitude towards products, whereas later research suggests that the endorsers' gender has a significant influence on this attitude (Bush *et al.,* 2004; Klaus and Bailey, 2008). Frieden (1984) examined the influence of endorsers' gender on the attitudes of consumers towards different advertisements, and did not find any

significant differences in the level of influence on consumers of different genders. Ohanian (1991) examined the effect of consumers' gender on their purchase intention, but did not find any significant gender-based effect on their likelihood to purchase the celebrity-endorsed product based on the three credibility dimensions. In contrast, Boyd and Shank (2004) investigated the effect of gender-matching between celebrity endorsers and consumers to examine whether this had any effect on consumers' perceptions of the endorsers. They found that women rated female endorsers more favourably than male endorsers, and male consumers rated male endorsers more favourably than female endorsers.

Peetz *et al*. (2004) conducted a related study in which they asked consumers to identify celebrities. They found that male participants were four times more likely than female participants to identify all the endorsers correctly. They also found that male endorsers were more influential than their female counterparts. Bush *et al*. (2004) also investigated the impact of consumers' gender on their receptiveness to celebrity endorsers. They found that female consumers exhibited more favourable word-of-mouth behaviour and brand loyalty than their male counterparts. However, Ferchaud *et al*. (2018) did not find any difference between gender and celebrity endorsers' parasocial attributes.

These findings suggest that the effect of celebrity trust based on consumers' gender has received very little attention in the literature. However, based on the earlier findings, female consumers have been found to be more influenced by celebrity endorsement than is the case for their male counterparts. Based on this, it could be suggested that the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility are greater among female consumers than among male consumers. Hence, using signalling theory, this study examines whether the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs are higher for female consumers than for male consumers. The next hypothesis, therefore, is:

*H3: The effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility (H3a), brand credibility (H3b) and corporate credibility (H3c) will be stronger among female consumers than among male consumers*

*3.4. The impact of consumers' ethnicity on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility*

The major purchasing power of ethnic minority consumers leads marketers to give particular attention to targeting them as a separate segment (Bush *et al.,* 2007). As ethnic minority consumers grow up in a particular subculture and become accustomed to that subculture's values and beliefs, their perceptions become different (Paek, 2005). In these situations, marketers use various approaches to create core meanings for these consumers in order to relate their businesses to the consumers' values. One of the many approaches that have been found to be useful is to employ ethnic minority celebrity endorsers who fit well with the target audience (Kim and Cheong, 2012).

The significance of ethnic minority celebrities leads marketers to recruit them for advertisements targeted at ethnic minority groups. Firms including Coca-Cola, DaimlerChrysler, Nike and L'Oréal have doubled their investments in ethnic minority celebrity endorsers in order to target these groups. In the United States, the number of ethnic minority celebrity endorsers is almost in proportion to the overall ethnic minority population. It is estimated that in 2004, marketers spent $1.8 billion on ethnic minority celebrity endorsers to communicate specifically with African-American consumers (Torres and Luna-Nevarez, 2012).

The importance of marketing to ethnic minority groups has led some researchers to study this topic in more detail. Most of these studies can be divided into three eras. In the majority of the early studies, researchers used content analysis to study the use of ethnic minority celebrities in television and the print medium (Colfax and Sternberg, 1972). The

next generation of studies measured ethnic minority representation in television advertisements (Zinkhan *et al.,* 1990). Finally, in the most recent literature, researchers have tried to analyse the importance that the ethnicity of celebrity endorsers has for ethnic minority consumers (Zinkhan *et al.,* 1990; Kim and Cheong, 2012). Using social identity theory, researchers have demonstrated that targeting ethnic minority groups through the use of ethnic minority celebrities brings about a positive attitude towards advertisements, which later becomes a reason for a positive attitude towards products and brands (Sierra *et al.,* 2009; Kim and Cheong, 2012).

While consumers' preferences for celebrity endorsers from their own ethnic backgrounds has been demonstrated, there is also some evidence suggesting that crossover celebrities, i.e. those from dissimilar ethnic backgrounds, are acceptable in various ethnic groups (Jones, 2010). The results suggest that in respect of some consumers, identification may not occur on the basis of ethnicity, but rather can be based on similar self-concepts, preferences and tastes, etc. (Jones, 2010). There can be many reasons for these factors, including the celebrity endorser's success rate, popularity, achievements or goals (Jones, 2010). These factors contribute significantly towards consumers' self-image and enable them to use celebrities for self-reference (Appiah, 2001; Sierra *et al.,* 2009).

The literature also reveals that these above-mentioned attributes are more highly evident in white, Hispanic and Asian consumers than in consumers of black ethnicity (Appiah, 2001; Lee *et al.,* 2002). Consumers from white, Hispanic and Asian groups do not generally think of themselves as a distinct part of a particular ethnic group, and are less concerned with and less conscious of the celebrity endorser's race (Appiah, 2001). They equally like endorsements from celebrities of different ethnic backgrounds. These consumers tend to consider that although they are racially dissimilar to celebrities from other ethnic backgrounds, they have social and occupational characteristics in common with them, which

inspires them in their daily decision-making routines (Sierra *et al.,* 2009). Compared to these other ethnic groups, the black ethnic group has a stronger racial identity, which increases the preference of black consumers for celebrity endorsers of a similar ethnic background and their liking for advertisements, brands and firms backed by black celebrity endorsers (Appiah, 2001).

These differences have led researchers in this study to examine the effects on black consumers and non-black consumers of black and non-black celebrities, and to analyse how the differences impact on the effects of celebrity trust on other credibility constructs. This study examines these effects using signalling theory, and measures whether the effects of celebrity trust on other constructs are influenced by consumers' ethnicity, and furthermore whether consumers show any preference for endorsers from similar or different ethnic backgrounds. Thus the next hypothesis is as follows:

> *H4: There will be differences between black and non-black consumers in terms of how celebrity trust affects advertising credibility (H4a), brand credibility (H4b) and corporate credibility (H4c), such that black consumers will prefer black celebrities, while non-black consumers will show no preference*

*3.5. The effects of advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility*

Advertising credibility is defined as consumers' perception of the truthfulness or believability of an advertisement (Haghirian *et al.,* 2005). It refers to the extent to which consumers perceive that a message or claims about a brand in an advertisement are believable, and is largely based on the trust consumers place in the advertisement (Okazaki, 2004). Like celebrity credibility (and other credibility constructs), advertising credibility consists of two main components, trustworthiness and expertise, both of which are taken from the study on source credibility by Hovland *et al*. (1953). Trustworthiness implies that an

advertiser (or source) is willing to deliver what is promised, while expertise implies that the advertiser (or source) is capable of delivering what is promised.

Despite its importance, advertising credibility has been examined by only a few studies (Prendergast and Wong, 2009; Yakoop *et al.,* 2013; Hasanah and Wahid, 2019). The literature covers four main areas: the impact of advertising credibility on consumers' attitudes; the effect that different products and services have on advertising credibility; the effect that the use of different media has on advertising credibility; and the impact of different demographic groups on advertising credibility.  Researchers who examined the first of these areas found that advertising credibility had a positive impact on consumers' attitudes and values (Delafrooz and Zanjankhah, 2015; Hasanah and Wahid, 2019); and that higher levels of advertising credibility produced higher levels of impact or persuasion on attitudes, while lower levels produced lower levels of impact or persuasion (Aydin, 2016). A higher level of advertising credibility increases the positive impact on attitudes towards advertising, brand, corporation, purchase intention and consumers' willingness to accept credible information (Yakoop *et al.,* 2013; Hasanah and Wahid, 2019).

Regarding the second area, the impact that different types of products and services have on advertising credibility, researchers (Prendergast and Wong, 2009) have found varying levels of credibility depending on the product or service concerned. For example, advertisements for weight-loss products or services have a lower level of credibility and a higher level of criticism because of the issue of false claims (Prendergast and Wong, 2009).

In terms of the third area, the impact on advertising credibility of different media, research has shown that consumers view some communication media and methods as more credible than others (Logan *et al.,* 2012). Sutherland (1982) also investigated the effects of humour on the perceived credibility of advertisements and found that serious messages were likely to be judged as more credible and authentic than those using humour. Celebi (2007)

examined the credibility of both advertising and publicity, and concluded that consumers found publicity more credible than advertising. Moore and Rodgers (2005) and Prendergast and Wong (2009) investigated the impact on advertising credibility of different media. Their results indicated that advertising credibility had different levels in different media, with traditional outlets such as television, radio and print having higher credibility than modern outlets including the internet. These results were further validated by Yakoop *et al*. (2013), who also found a relationship between advertising credibility and attitudes towards advertising in modern media. However, these findings were not validated by Okazaki (2004) or Haghirian and Madlberger (2005).

In the fourth area, a few researchers have explored the impact of different demographic groups on advertising credibility, with mixed results. Liu (2002) found that better-educated consumers were more likely than less-educated consumers to find advertising credible. In contrast, Liu (2002) and Moore and Rodgers (2005) found that consumers who were young, from ethnic minority backgrounds, less-educated or on lower incomes, found advertising more credible than those in other groups. Meanwhile, Greer (2003) and Celebi (2007) did not find any impact on advertising credibility based on gender, age, income or education.

Although some studies (MacKenzie and Lutz, 1989; Soh *et al.,* 2009, Hasanah and Wahid, 2019) have provided a huge amount of evidence regarding the impact of advertising credibility on constructs like attitudes towards advertising, brand and firm, and purchase intention, there is very little evidence regarding its impacts on other credibility constructs. It is debatable from the literature whether credible advertising can influence the credibility of an associated brand and firm (Choi and Rifon, 2002; Kim *et al.,* 2014). The signals from credible advertising may serve as a signal of a firm's commitment to form consumers' attitudes towards the brand and firm, and as a marketing mix tool may enhance the credibility

of the advertised brand and firm (Baek *et al.,* 2010; Nelson, 2010). Therefore, the next hypothesis is:

> *H5: Advertising credibility has a positive effect on brand credibility (H5a) and*
>
> *corporate credibility (H5b)*

*3.6. The effects of brand credibility on corporate credibility*

Brand credibility is considered to be one of the most important characteristics of the brand (Ok *et al.,* 2011). It is defined as the perceived believability of whether a brand has the ability, dedication and willingness to continuously deliver what has been promised (Baek *et al.,* 2010). Brand credibility originated from Hovland *et al.*'s (1953) work on source credibility and was defined within the context of brand management by Erdem and Swait (2004). It represents the cumulative effect of a firm's past marketing activities to attract more consumers and keep them for longer (Ghorban and Tahernejad, 2012). It is a latent multi-dimensional construct, which consists of two dimensions: trustworthiness and expertise (Baek *et al.,* 2010; Pecot *et al.,* 2018). Trustworthiness implies that a brand is willing to deliver what is promised, while expertise implies that it is capable of delivering what is promised (Sallam, 2014; Jeng, 2016).

Although research on this topic is sparse (Baek *et al.,* 2010; Pecot *et al.,* 2018), researchers have managed to analyse this construct with respect to other important constructs. It has been found that brand credibility minimises risk and creates confidence and trust with customers (Kia, 2016). It has a positive influence on consumers' future brand consideration and choice perceptions (Erdem and Swait, 2004). It significantly relates to emotions and reasons in consumers' decision-making (Maathuis *et al.,* 2004). Furthermore, brand credibility decreases price sensitivity and increases consumers' willingness to make a purchase (Wang and Yang, 2010; Sheeraz *et al.,* 2016; Pecot *et al.,* 2018). It exerts a positive

influence on consumers' brand purchase, both directly, and through brand awareness and brand image (Wang and Yang, 2010). Brand credibility guarantees a long-term plan to offer products and services to consumers, and develops satisfaction, loyalty commitment and continuance commitment (Ghorban and Tahernejad, 2012), which further results in positive word of mouth (Ghorban and Tahernejad, 2012). The previous literature (Spry *et al.,* 2011; Hanzaee and Taghipourian, 2012; Sallam, 2014; Pecot *et al.,* 2018) has demonstrated that brand credibility positively affects (or increases) other expected benefits like perceived value for money, positive image, information costs saved, self-brand connection, brand alliances, brand equity and consumer expected utility, while decreasing perceived risk, expected costs and switching behaviour.

In all the above studies, researchers have used signalling theory to discuss the importance of brand credibility for products, services and firms. Erdem and Swait (2004) mentioned that when asymmetric information was available on the market, consumers became reluctant to use the firm (Jeng, 2016). To solve this problem, firms use various individual marketing mix elements to communicate and reduce information asymmetry; however, the signals conveyed through a credible brand differ from those conveyed through marketing mix elements. The reasons for this could be that a credible brand embodies and represents a firm's past marketing mix strategies, activities and, most importantly, its reputation (Kia, 2016). Credibility is higher for firms that have higher brand credibility and higher levels of investment in their marketing mix (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Pecot *et al.,* 2018). Higher brand credibility has a positive effect on the firm as a whole; whereas higher investments through all practices and aspects of marketing communications, such as using celebrity endorsers, helps spread positive information (related to brand credibility) to consumers and increases consumers' evaluations that the firm has a higher level of credibility (Kia, 2016).

Despite these previous studies, there is little evidence concerning the effect of brand credibility on a firm's credibility. Therefore, using signalling theory, this study examines the effect of brand credibility on corporate credibility, resulting in the final hypothesis:

*H6: Brand credibility has a positive effect on corporate credibility (H6)*

## 4. Method

*4.1. Context and data collection*

This study followed Churchill's (1979) procedure to gain an in-depth knowledge of the topic by understanding the research questions, generating hypotheses, creating a scale for celebrity trust, and refining or purifying the measures for other scales. These procedures are divided into three phases (Foroudi *et al.,* 2014; Melewar *et al.,* 2017). In the first phase, the researchers reviewed the existing literature on each of the constructs, and conducted exploratory interviews and focus groups with consumers, academics and marketers to generate an initial pool of items. Ten such interviews and four focus groups were conducted to create a celebrity trust scale and purify other scales' items.

A protocol based on the previous literature was designed, whereby questions on each of the constructs' definitions, items and effects, based on the conceptual model, were asked. Semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted in London during August and September 2016, ranging in length from approximately 35 minutes to 50 minutes. All the interviews and focus groups were recorded in order to ensure accuracy and were later transcribed verbatim (Priporas and Mylona, 2008).

The data was analysed using thematic analysis, a method that does not require the theoretical commitments of grounded theory, which is appropriate when researchers do not intend to develop a fully worked-up theory (Braun and Clarke, 2006). A contextualist approach was used, which is also framed as critical realism. This acknowledges the way

individuals make meanings of their experiences, and in turn, the ways the broader social context impinges on those meanings, while retaining a focus on the material and other limits of reality (Braun and Clark, 2006, p. 9). All six steps, i.e. becoming familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining and naming the themes, and producing the report, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), were used.

The second step conducted in line with Churchill's (1979) procedure was to verify the codes and themes, and to make sure that they were reliable. To do this, an additional researcher was involved in order to ensure reliability in the identification of the codes (Weber, 1985). The items from the qualitative study were combined with those found in previous studies, and were distributed to eight academics in the area of marketing and advertising, who were asked to comment on the suitability and clarity of the content validity and face validity of the items, and to remove any that were identical or equivalent. Content validity and face validity were assessed overall to ensure that the items in each scale were representative of the domain. Only a few suggestions were put forward by the content validity and face validity participants: to remove grammatical mistakes, to use full words rather than abbreviations and to give real life examples of celebrity endorsers and their endorsed advertising, brands and corporate bodies. In all, 13 new items were added based on the qualitative study.

The measures of dependent variables, i.e. advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility, were adopted as a result of the qualitative study and literature review, which meant that these constructs were purified in this study (Goldsmith *et al.,* 2000; Erdem and Swait, 2004; Prendergast *et al.,* 2009; Terres *et al.,* 2015; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). The previous literature has suggested purifying items in order to improve the measurement properties of both new and existing scales, especially when the research is done in different settings (Churchill, 1979; Frohlich, 2002; Asaad *et al.,* 2015; Wieland *et al.,* 2017; Jain *et al.,*

2019). As this study was carried out in the UK, and all the previous scales on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility were created in the setting of the United States, the researchers in this study purified the independent constructs by means of a thorough analysis of the literature and qualitative studies (Churchill, 1979; Frohlich, 2002; Asaad *et al.,* 2015; Wieland *et al.,* 2017; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Constructs and scales that are developed in different cultural or country contexts suffer from flaws such as lack of equivalence, due to various factors such as culture, values, psychometric properties, etc. (Malhotra *et al.,* 1996). Phenomena that are manifested in one culture or country may differ from similar phenomena in other countries or cultures, as they are unique to a given or specific country (Jain *et al.,* 2019). Thus, an extension or replication of scale may not work, as borrowed scales are developed in a particular context, which may lead to deceptive and inaccurate explanations, miss out on important information and limit the research (Malhotra *et al.,* 1996; Jain *et al.,* 2019). To reduce the biases, independent constructs such as advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility were purified in this study and Churchill's (1979) paradigm was followed.

The next step in the second phase was to examine the suitability, validity and freedom from errors of the measures developed, by conducting a pilot study with 70 consumers. For this purpose, a questionnaire on the four constructs (celebrity trust, advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility) was designed, based on a seven-point Likert scale, and a reliability test was performed. The Cronbach's alpha for all the constructs stood at more than 0.80, which, being greater than the threshold of 0.70, suggested that the constructs were sufficiently reliable for research purposes (Hair *et al.,* 2006).

In the third and final phase, the main data was collected, using a self-structured seven-point Likert scale (from 0, "strongly disagree", to 7, "strongly agree"). Data was collected from the 32 London boroughs between 1 September 2017 and 31 December 2017. It was

ensured that the participants came from different backgrounds including age, gender, ethnicity, education level and income. London was chosen because it is the second-largest global financial centre, the second-placed global city, the second most multicultural city, and the third-largest fashion city in the world (Fashion-Schools, 2016; Long Finance, 2019; The Culture Trip, 2019). The questionnaires were sent out by the researchers using online methods, e.g. Google forums, social media and emails, or were distributed outside public places such as shopping centres and libraries. The Likert scale was used to increase construct variance and decrease measurement error variance (Churchill and Peter, 1984). Small incentives like sweets or souvenirs were given to the respondents to increase their willingness to participate. The questionnaires were 10 pages long, including a cover page explaining the aims and objectives of the study, the voluntary nature of people's participation, and the guaranteed anonymity of their responses. They included 72 questions on the four constructs (celebrity trust, advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility) and an additional three on the participants' demographics (age, gender and ethnicity). It took an average of less than 10 minutes to answer all the questions.

The data was collected by means of a non-probability convenience sampling method, chosen as it is one of the easiest ways to gather data. The only demerit of this kind of sampling method is that some units in the population are more likely than others to be selected. To reduce this problem, it was made clear that a representative sample would be chosen, due to the nature of the research. The sample comprised 52.3 per cent younger consumers and 47.7 per cent older consumers; 45.7 per cent males and 54.3 per cent females; and 57.3 per cent non-black consumers and 42.7 per cent black consumers.

A total of 625 questionnaires were distributed, of which 615 were used for this study. The sample size was chosen on the basis of recommendations given by previous researchers (Roscoe, 1975; Hair *et al.,* 2006; Malhotra, 2010), who have made suggestions concerning

non-response bias, multivariate analysis, the number of items and the use of structural

equation modelling. Based on these recommendations, a sample of more than 600 responses

was suitable. Of the 625 responses, 20 had missing data: 10 of these were rejected completely

as more than 10 per cent of the data was missing and was missing non-randomly (Hair *et al.,*

2006; Malhotra, 2010), while the other 10 responses were substituted based on mean value as

less than 10 per cent of the data was missing and was missing randomly – they were used in

the study (Hair *et al.,* 2006; Malhotra, 2010). A non-response bias test was also carried out to

examine whether those who responded differed in any apparent systematic way from non-

respondents (Hill *et al.,* 1995, p. 203). This approach requires the comparison of

observations, and suggests that bias does not exist if there is no significant difference

between the observations on all the variables (Whitten *et al.,* 2010). For this purpose, a

Mann-Whitney U-test was used, the results of which are given in Appendix 5. To carry out

this test, the first 302 observations were taken as early respondents and the last 303 were

taken as late respondents. The results showed that no significantly different values between

the observations was shown in any of these variables, suggesting that there was no major

difference in the early and late respondents' replies, and therefore that no non-response bias

concern was found in this study (Malhotra, 2010).

Participants were asked to choose one celebrity endorser they trusted, from a selection

of five celebrities shown with the brands and corporations they endorse: Angelina Jolie's

Louis Vuitton, Beyoncé's Pepsi, Brad Pitt's Chanel, David Beckham's H&M and Michael

Jordan's Nike. These five were chosen for the study because they were seen as possessing

trustworthy characteristics, both worldwide and in the UK, and had a record of successful

brand endorsements. They included males and females, both sports and showbusiness

celebrities, and both black and non-black celebrities. To make the choice, the researchers

went through various databases (i.e. Biography Online, 2015; Celebrity Endorsement Ads,

2015; FHM, 2015; The Richest, 2015), in addition to asking consumers, academics and practitioners during the interviews and focus groups to provide the names of celebrity endorsers they believed were highly trustworthy. More than 80 per cent of the participants in the interviews and focus groups provided similar names to those drawn from the databases. Since the main focus of this research was highly trusted celebrity endorsers, the brands and corporations they endorsed were only chosen as linked examples for this study (Delgado-Ballester *et al.,* 2003; Soh *et al.,* 2009; Zhu *et al.,* 2019). As can be seen, the brands and corporations are categorically different, but the focus of this study is on celebrity endorsers themselves, rather than on the brands or corporations being endorsed.

The researchers considered three different types of bias: common method bias, self-selection bias and social desirability bias. To resolve any common method bias issue, procedural and statistical approaches were used (Whitten *et al.,* 2010, p. 35; Roni, 2014, p. 32). The procedural measures were used to develop scale items that were unambiguous and simple; to format the questionnaire in such a way that the dependent constructs were placed before the independent constructs; to obtain measures of the predictor and criterion variables from different sources; to ensure participants' anonymity; and finally to reduce evaluation apprehension (Whitten *et al.,* 2010, p. 35; Roni, 2014, p. 32). The statistical measures used were the Harman one-factor test and common latent factor test, which are elaborated on in the analysis section (Hultman *et al.,* 2009; Roni, 2014).

Regarding self-selection bias, it was seen as a possibility that a few participants would not trust a particular type of celebrity endorser and could therefore cause undesirable results. To reduce the level of self-selection bias, the researchers, in addition to using databases, chose celebrity endorsers with different attributes (e.g. sports and showbusiness backgrounds), and different genders, to enable participants to select an endorser they trusted the most (Keeble *et al.,* 2015). A further safeguard was the inclusion of participants from

different demographic backgrounds (Keeble *et al.,* 2015).

The study tried to reduce social desirability bias in a number of ways: by means of reducing questions on social desirability concerns; by reassuring participants that their anonymity would be protected and the findings would not be used for any other purpose; by providing a self-completion questionnaire that required minimal involvement by the researchers; by using few personal questions; and by providing statements that suggested nothing was right or wrong (Gordon, 1987).

*4.2. Survey measures*

The questionnaire used in this study was based on measures from the previous literature, which had been further purified by the qualitative study, and was designed to elicit responses on all four constructs (celebrity trust, advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility), as shown in detail in Appendix 1.

Celebrity trust is defined as consumers' willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of a celebrity based on the beliefs, confidence and expectation that the celebrity is reliable, honest, committed and competent, and that the celebrity will not only genuinely take customers' welfare into consideration, but also will also show care and concern towards the customers (Day *et al.,* 2013; Alarcon *et al.,* 2018). It is based on both the cognitive and affective dimensions. Twenty-three items were chosen for celebrity trust.

Advertising credibility, defined on the basis of honest, reliable, complete and accurate information (Haghirian *et al.,* 2005; Prendergast and Wong, 2009; Yaakop *et al.,* 2013), and delivering what is promised about the products/services, was measured using 13 items.

The third construct, brand credibility, was the focus of 15 items. It is defined on the basis of a brand having a positive value, image, quality and reputation, and on it being a reliable and honest source with the ability to make promises (Wang and Yang, 2010; Sheeraz *et al.,* 2012; Pecot *et al.,* 2018).

Finally, corporate credibility was measured using 10 items and is defined on the basis that a corporation is ethical, truthful, reliable, honest and caring (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2004; Featherman *et al.,* 2010; Jahanzeb *et al.,* 2013).

Most of the items used in this study had already been used by previous researchers as, for example, trust has been operationalised based on different items including likeability, appreciation, admiration, etc. (Twing-Kwong *et al.,* 2013; Terres *et al.,* 2015; Franklin and Marshall, 2019).

*4.3. Analysis*

The study used a two-step approach, which, unlike a one-step approach, tests the measurement and structural sub-models separately and reduces interpretational confounding. The study first carried out a reliability test and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using SPSS 21.0, and then ran confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 21. The data was split randomly into two halves: the first half was used for the reliability test and EFA, while the second half was used for CFA (Soh *et al.,* 2009; Foroudi *et al.,* 2014).

EFA was performed to reduce the items and identify any patterns in the data (De Vaus, 2002). For this purpose, communalities, Eigenvalues and the rotated matrix were examined. As a result, some items relating to all four constructs were deleted on the basis of low communality (Hair *et al.,* 2006). Previous researchers have suggested limiting or deleting questionable items in order to improve the measurement model (Hatcher, 1994; Li and Petrick, 2008). The Eigenvalues showed that celebrity trust had two factors, while advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility each had one. Based on the Eigenvalues, the rotated matrix was used to determine the number of variables loaded onto each factor. The results from the Eigenvalues and rotated matrix confirmed that celebrity trust had two dimensions, as suggested by the previous literature (Lewis and Weigert, 1982; Terres at al., 2015), while the other constructs had one dimension. Therefore, celebrity trust was

used as a second-order construct (Awang, 2012; Awang *et al.,* 2015). Furthermore, one item on celebrity trust was deleted from the rotated factor owing to its low value (rotated loading matrix <0.50) (Matsunaga, 2010).

In the second stage, CFA was used to check the unidimensionality of the constructs and the validity of the measures (Hair *et al.,* 2006). Reliability tests were used to assess internal consistency at the items and constructs level, using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability respectively. The results suggested that both had values over 0.7, which confirmed the reliability requirements (Hair *et al.,* 2006; Malhotra, 2010). In addition, validity tests using convergent, discriminant and nomological tests were used. Average variance extracted (AVE) was used to assess the convergent validity (see Appendix 1). The results indicated that AVE was higher than 0.5, suggesting an adequate convergent validity. Additionally, discriminant validity (also shown in Appendix 1) was used by comparing the AVE for the focal measure with a similar but conceptually different construct; and the square of the correlation between the two factors (Li and Petrick, 2009; pp. 79-80). Discriminant validity indicated that the relationships between the research factors were less than the suggested value of 0.92, as shown in Appendix 1 (Malhotra, 2010; Melewar *et al.,* 2017, p. 584).

Nomological validity was carried out by means of goodness-of-fit indices, which indicate how well the specified model fits the observed or sample data. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), non-normed fit index (NFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), root mean square residual (RMSR), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), root mean square of approximation (RMSEA), incremental fit index (IFI), and Tucker Lewis index (TLI) were used to examine the model fit. In general, higher values (i.e. above 0.80) of GFI, CFI, NFI, AGFI, IFI and TLI, and a lower value (i.e. below 0.08) of RMSEA, indicate a good fit (Hair *et al.,* 2006). In this study NFI (0.93), CFI (0.96), IFI (0.96), TLI (0.952), GFI (0.91), and AGFI (0.901) were equal to or higher than 0.90, as is

desirable, while RMSEA (0.06) was found to be lower than 0.08, as is also desirable. Other values for $\chi^2$ were 3054.042, df = 833. Overall, the model therefore indicates a good fit (Hair *et al.,* 2006).

Furthermore, due to the multi-group data, configural and metric invariance were also measured for age, gender and ethnicity. The results suggested that there was adequate configural invariance (see Appendix 2), while metric invariance (see Appendix 3) suggested that there were significant differences between the constrained and unconstrained model, which required further analysis. Hence, a delta test between the two models was performed to examine where the differences lay. The results suggested that the differences were not very large and therefore no items were deleted (Vandenberg and Lance, 2000).

Harman's one-factor test (1967) was performed to determine the common method bias. All the items were entered into a principle component analysis with varimax rotation. According to Harman's method, if no single factor emerges with more than 50 per cent of variance, the results suggest there is no common method bias (Podsakoff *et al.,* 1984, p. 35). The results showed a maximum of 41 per cent variance, which was lower than the common method bias threshold value (Podsakoff *et al.,* 2003). In addition, a common latent factor (CLF) test was performed using a $\chi^2$ difference test between the constrained model and the unconstrained model (Hultman *et al.,* 2009). The $\chi^2$ difference test suggested that the two models were significantly different and showed a significant shared variance – as given in Appendix 4. This led the researchers to retain the CLF and impute it in the study. The model was imputed due to the significant shared variance between the constrained model and unconstrained model. The CLF was included or retained in the study (by imputing the data), before the structural model was drawn. The new data set, i.e. the data set after imputation, was used for further analysis in the structural model and accounted for the shared variance in the constructs (i.e. celebrity trust, advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate

credibility) explained by the CLF. This procedure was performed in order to reduce the complexities and complications in future analysis (i.e. the structural model), which could have occurred due to the presence of the CLF.

The fit statistics of this model suggested a good model fit (Hair *et al.,* 2006). NFI = 0.949, CFI = 0.97, IFI = 0.97, TLI = 0.967, GFI = 0.91 and AGFI = 0.90 were equal to or higher than 0.90, while RMSEA = 0.043 was found to be lower than 0.08: hence all were found desirable. Other values were: $\chi^2$ = 2494.913 and df = 790.

The last stage was to examine the research model and the hypotheses (both direct and moderating). Firstly, the model fit for the structural model was calculated. The results again suggested a good model fit (Hair *et al.,* 2006). NFI = 0.969, CFI = 0.96, IFI = 0.961, TLI = 0.96, GFI = 0.91 and AGFI = 0.90 were equal to or higher than 0.90, while RMSEA = 0.069 was found to be lower than 0.080, and all were therefore found desirable. Other values were: $\chi^2$ = 2037.160 and df = 747. Next, the direct hypotheses were examined. Table 1 shows the results for the structural path coefficients, standard error and *p*-value, and the results for the direct hypotheses (see Table 1 and Table 2). H1a and H1b suggested that celebrity trust had a significant effect on advertising credibility ($\gamma$ = 0.64, t-value = 7.715, *p* = 0.000) and brand credibility ($\gamma$ = 0.75, t-value = 7.354, *p* = 0.000) and were therefore supported. Next, advertising credibility's effects on brand credibility (H5a: $\gamma$ = 0.12, t-value = 1.838, *p* = 0.032) and corporate credibility (H5b: $\gamma$ = 0.48, t-value = 7.092, *p* = 0.000) were found to be statistically significant. Furthermore, the results for brand credibility's effect on corporate credibility (H6) were found to be statistically significant ($\gamma$ = 0.66, t-value = 7.927; *p* = 0.000). The only direct hypothesis that was not supported was that regarding celebrity trust's effects on corporate credibility (H1c: $\gamma$ = 0.062, t-value = 0.636, *p* > 0.05).

**<<<Insert Table 1>>>**

Next, the moderating hypotheses were examined. This involved adopting a split-group approach, whereby the initial sample was divided into sub-groups on the basis of the cut-off values of each individual moderator (Leonidou *et al.,* 2013, p. 407). For consumers' gender, the sample was split into male and female groups. Next, for consumers' age, the sample was split into older consumers and younger consumers by means of a median-split. The median value was 37 years old. The group below the median included 321 subjects and the group above the median included 284 subjects. The two groups were classified as younger consumers and older consumers, respectively. Finally, for consumers' ethnicity, the sample was split into four groups: black consumers who like black celebrities, black consumers who like non-black celebrities, non-black consumers who like black celebrities, and non-black consumers who like non-black celebrities. Two models were estimated for each of the moderating hypotheses, i.e. a constrained model, where the paths affected by the moderating variable were fixed to one; and a free model, where the paths of the structural model were allowed to be freely estimated (Leonidou *et al.,* 2013; p. 407). The $\chi^2$ difference test between the two models was used to suggest whether the moderator variables had a significant effect on the hypothesised relationships, indicating whether or not the groups were different.

In the following stage, all the moderators were examined. Firstly, the moderating role of consumers' age on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility was examined (H2a, H2b and H2c, respectively). It was hypothesised that the effects of celebrity trust on each of the other constructs would be stronger among younger consumers than older consumers. The results suggested that the consumers' age did not make a significant difference to the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 2.696$, not supported), brand credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.568$, not supported) and corporate credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.157$, not supported). Hence, it was shown that

consumers' age does not play a moderating role in the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs.

The next few hypotheses related to the moderating role of consumers' gender on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility (H3a, H3b and H3c, respectively). It was hypothesised that the effects of celebrity trust on each of the other constructs would be stronger among female consumers than among male consumers. Again, the results suggested that consumers' gender did not make a significant difference to the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.455$, not supported), brand credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.043$, not supported), and corporate credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.258$, not supported). Hence, consumers' gender does not play a moderating role in the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs.

Finally, the study examined the moderating role of consumers' ethnicity on the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility, brand credibility and corporate credibility. It was suggested that black consumers would prefer black celebrities, while non-black consumers would not have any preference, when examining the effects of celebrity trust on each of the other constructs. The results from H4a and H4b suggested that consumers' ethnicity had a significant impact in relation to the celebrity's ethnicity, when the effect of celebrity trust on advertising credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 10.296$, $p < 0.05$) and brand credibility ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 15.983$, $p < 0.05$) was examined. The results from H4a suggested that black consumers preferred black celebrities ($\beta = 0.32$, $t = 3.042$, $p < 0.05$) to non-black celebrities ($\beta = .11$, $t = 1.489$, $p > 0.05$); while non-black consumers had an equal liking for black celebrities ($\beta = .154$, $t = 2.392$, $p < 0.05$) and non-black celebrities ($\beta = 0.58$, $t = 5.205$, $p < 0.05$), when the effect of celebrity trust on advertising credibility was examined. The results from H4b also suggested that, when the effect of celebrity trust on brand credibility was examined, black consumers preferred black celebrities ($\beta = 0.90$, $t = 4.58$, $p < 0.05$) to non-black celebrities ($\beta = 0.16$, $t = 1.52$, $p$

>0.05), while non-black consumers had an equal preference for black celebrities ($\beta = 0.25$, $t = 3.040$, $p < 0.05$) and non-black celebrities ($\beta = 0.145$, $t = 2.392$, $p < 0.05$). The results revealed no significant linkage between consumers' and celebrities' ethnicity when the effect of celebrity trust on corporate credibility was examined ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.601$, not supported). Hence, consumers' ethnicity does not have a moderating effect on the link between celebrity trust and corporate credibility.

**<<<Insert Table 2>>>**

## 5. Discussion and theoretical implications

The findings of this study suggest that celebrity trust has a significant effect on advertising credibility and brand credibility. These findings are consistent with most of the previous studies in which researchers (Kim *et al.,* 2014; Dwivedi *et al.,* 2015; Yoo *et al.,* 2018; Hasanah and Wahid, 2019) examined the effects of celebrity trustworthiness on similar constructs to advertising credibility and brand credibility. However, no effects of celebrity trust on corporate credibility were found, which is not consistent with the current literature (Kim *et al.,* 2014; Ghotbivayghan *et al.,* 2015; Yoo *et al.,* 2018). This unexpected finding could arise because consumers usually associate celebrity endorsers with advertising and brand, and ignore the connection with corporate bodies. Furthermore, in most situations consumers do not know which celebrity endorser is connected with which corporate body. In sum, if consumers are uninterested in or unaware of the corporate bodies concerned, there is likely to be less or no effect of celebrity trust on corporate credibility.

This study also examined the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs when consumers' age, gender and ethnicity were taken into account. H2a, H2b and H2c predicted that the positive effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs would be higher among

younger consumers than among older consumers. The literature (Jain *et al.,* 2011; Yurdakul-Sahin and Atik, 2013; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017) shows that younger consumers pick celebrities as their role models, adopt their attitudes and buy the brands they endorse, but when consumers grow older, their liking for and trust towards the celebrities change and they no longer trust them. However, the findings of this study are not consistent with the previous literature (Keel and Nataraajan, 2012; Yurdakul-Sahin and Atik, 2013; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017) and suggest that consumers' age makes no difference to the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs. One of the reasons could be that celebrity trust is based on both the cognitive and affective dimensions, in contrast to celebrity trustworthiness, which is only based only on the cognitive dimension, and is therefore likely to have a different effect on other constructs (Johnson and Grayson, 2005; Terres *et al.,* 2015; Ha *et al.,* 2016). The affective dimension of celebrity trust, which includes elements such as intuition, feelings, care and concern, etc., is missing from the more limited celebrity trustworthiness dimension, and thus the findings of this current study are not directly comparable to, but are richer than, previous studies (Terres *et al.,* 2015; Ha *et al.,* 2016).

Next, H3a, H3b and H3c examined the moderating role of consumers' gender on the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs, to analyse whether the effects of celebrity trust are higher among female consumers than among male consumers. Previous literature on similar topics suggests that men and women process information differently (Bhutada and Rollins, 2015; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017). Men make decisions based on important cues, while women use all the available information and make decisions based on the interpretation of several cues, so they make strong associations between different aspects of knowledge and make decisions based on them (Edwards and La Ferle, 2009; Bhutada and Rollins, 2015; Djafarova and Rushworth, 2017). However, the findings of this study do not provide empirical support for the differences asserted in previous literature, and rather

suggest that consumers' gender has no impact on the effects of celebrity trust on other constructs (Ferchaud *et al.,* 2018). Again, this could be for similar reasons to those identified as factors in the case of consumers' age, i.e. that unlike celebrity trustworthiness, celebrity trust is based on both the cognitive and affective dimensions, and therefore results in different effects on the other constructs.

H4a, H4b and H4c meanwhile predicted that ethnicity would have a moderating role in the effects of celebrity trust on the other constructs. The results are significant and confirm that black consumers prefer black celebrities, while non-black consumers show equal preference towards non-black and black celebrities, when the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility and brand credibility are examined. Unlike the first two sub-hypotheses, the last sub-hypothesis was not confirmed, i.e. no significant linkage was found between consumers' and celebrities' ethnicity when examining the effect of celebrity trust on corporate credibility. The reason for the confirmation of H4a and H4b may be that black consumers are emotionally attached to ethnic minority celebrity endorsers, and have greater trust and belief in them than non-black consumers, who do not show any preference between black and non-black celebrities. These findings largely support similar studies, and there is strong support in the literature for this inter-relationship between consumer and celebrity ethnicity (Sierra *et al.,* 2009; Kim and Cheong, 2012). However, in the case of sub-hypothesis H4c, the results were not in line with the previous literature (Kim *et al.,* 2014; Ghotbivayghan *et al.,* 2015). This could be for similar reasons to those suggested earlier in relation to hypothesis H1c, i.e. that consumers usually associate celebrity endorsers with advertisements and brands, and ignore their connection with corporate bodies. In most situations, they are not aware of which celebrity endorser is connected with which corporate body, usually because they are less interested in this aspect, and also because of the brands

each corporate body is responsible for. This all contributes to lessening or eliminating the effect of celebrity trust on corporate credibility.

H5a and H5b examined the effects of advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility. Previous researchers (Choi and Rifon, 2002; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Hasanah and Wahid, 2019) have examined the effects of advertising credibility on similar constructs to brand credibility and corporate credibility. It is evident from prior studies (Nelson, 2010; Hasanah and Wahid, 2019) that credible advertising serves as a signal of a firm's commitment and can transfer credibility to the brand and firm. This study confirms the significant effects of advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility, and has extended the previous knowledge.

This study additionally confirms the positive effects of brand credibility on corporate credibility, as hypothesised in H6. Most previous researchers (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Sweeney and Swait, 2008) have suggested that a credible brand differs from other marketing mix elements. In particular, a credible brand embodies and represents a firm's past marketing strategies and conveys a firm's reputation to the consumers. These outcomes confirm the assertions of previous researchers and contribute to the existing literature.

The confirmation of most of the direct effects confirms the contributions made by the theoretical model. It has been confirmed that celebrity trust can be used as a signal and can enhance the credibility of associated constructs. Similarly, advertising and brand credibility have also been found to have a positive direct effect on other associated constructs. However, most of the moderating effects were not confirmed, which suggests that the theoretical model is unable to support a role for these moderating factors in the effects of celebrity trust on other credibility constructs.

## 5.1. Managerial contributions

This study has a number of implications for managers and advertisers. First and

foremost, it helps managers to understand the complex phenomenon of celebrity trust based on both its cognitive and affective dimensions. This could help them to hire celebrities on the basis of the combined effects of their characters and emotional traits, as both are highly significant. Consumers do not only use the cognitive dimension, but they equally use the affective dimension to trust a celebrity regarding their endorsement. They judge celebrity endorsers based on their credible characteristics and the goodwill that celebrities create through their endorsements. Marketers can use this phenomenon by recruiting celebrity endorsers in the light of an understanding of the importance of both dimensions.

Secondly, this study provides guidance to managers wishing to understand the importance of the effects of celebrity trust on advertising credibility and brand credibility. Based on the outcomes from this study, managers can understand how important a highly trusted celebrity can be in building the credibility of advertising and brand. A highly trusted celebrity can have a positive effect on advertising and brand, while a celebrity with low levels of trust can badly damage linked constructs or entities. However, this study has not shown that celebrity trust has any effect on corporate credibility. One of the reasons could be that each corporation has many brands, making it harder to associate a celebrity with the corporation. Managers can earn fruitful lessons in understanding how a celebrity endorser can be useful for corporations with different and similar names to the brands. It can also help them in understanding the benefits and limitations of each scenario.

Thirdly, this study helps managers to understand the impact of consumer demographics on the effects of celebrity trust. This can assist them in recruiting celebrities who match consumers' requirements. For example, the outcomes suggest that black consumers prefer black celebrities, while non-black consumers have equal preference for both black and non-black celebrities. On the basis of these findings, it becomes essential for marketers to include black celebrities among their celebrity endorsers in multi-ethnic

countries or in countries where there is a significant minority of black consumers, such as the US, UK, France, and so on. It will also help brands and corporations to illustrate ethical norms and gain respect from consumers with diverse backgrounds. In addition, brands and corporations can improve their access to a diverse and enormous market, which can also help them to come up with new lines and brand extensions for the vast number of ethnic minority consumers.

Furthermore, this study helps managers to understand the effects of advertising credibility on brand credibility and corporate credibility, and the effects of brand credibility on corporate credibility. This helps managers to understand the importance of the effect that each credibility construct can have on the other. This also helps managers to make decisions regarding the advertising, brand or corporation according to the importance and credibility of each relationship. Based on the findings, marketers will be able understand the importance of related links and can examine how each construct can increase or decrease the credibility of the others.

*5.2. Limitations and future research*

This study has a few limitations that provide avenues for future research. Firstly, generalisability and validity are "must" requirements. A future study could be carried out in different research settings. It is possible that the outcomes of studies in other cultures would be different, as each culture imbues celebrities with different levels of importance. A future study could also gather data using probability sampling, rather than the convenience sampling used in this study. Additionally, a forthcoming study could gather data based on the experimental method and could examine the differences between the results.

Furthermore, future research could also include celebrity endorsers of different levels or in different conditions, since this study included only international celebrities who are famous at the global level, and there is some empirical evidence suggesting that celebrities of

different levels or classes have a different effect (Toncar *et al.,* 2007; Zhu *et al.,* 2019). Hence, a future study could include local and national celebrities, and could re-examine the topic on this basis. Similarly, a future study could also examine the impact of different levels of celebrity trust: the celebrity endorsers included in this study are highly trusted, but it could be suggested that celebrity endorsers with different levels of trust could have a different influence on the relationships that were examined.

The impact of different types of brands, for example hedonistic versus utilitarian, or local versus international; and different types of corporations, for example large versus medium versus small, or global/international versus local, etc., could be examined (Zhu *et al.,* 2019).

Future research could also consider the effects of celebrity trust on attitudinal and behavioural constructs. For example, some researchers (Goldsmith *et al.,* 2002; Lafferty *et al.,* 2002; Yoo *et al.,* 2018) have focused on basic constructs like attitude towards the advertisement, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention. Furthermore, attention could be given to the effects of celebrity trust on other constructs, for example on advertising effectiveness, advertising image, brand recall, brand loyalty, brand equity and corporate loyalty, etc. (Spry *et al.,* 2011; Kim *et al.,* 2014; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

Next, using signalling theory, a future study could explore factors such as signal quality, image clarity and consistency as potential moderators, and could examine the effects of celebrity trust on other constructs. The previous literature has a gap in this area, and the moderating effects of signalling theory have not been researched (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Baek *et al.,* 2010; Spry *et al.,* 2011). Hence, this gap could be filled by examining the celebrity trust topic using these moderating effects.

A final limitation in this study is that some results differ from some of the previous literature. One of the reasons could arise from the purification of the constructs, which

included different and modified measures compared to previous constructs (Kim *et al.,* 2014; Dwivedi *et al.,* 2015; Jain *et al.,* 2019). As a result, the results in this study may not be fully comparable with the previous literature (Dwivedi *et al.,* 2015; Ghotbivayghan *et al.,* 2015; Jain *et al.,* 2019). Nonetheless, the authors consider that this study benefits from rigorous methodology and builds upon previous research to make a substantial contribution to theory.

## References

Appiah, A. (2001). Black, White, Hispanic and Asian American adolescents' responses to culturally embedded ads. *Howard Journal of Communications, 12*(1), 29-48.

Akrout, H., & Diallo, M.F. (2017). Fundamental transformations of trust and its drivers: A multi-stage approach of business-to-business relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *66*(1), 159-171.

Alarcon, G.M., Lyons, J.B., Christensen, J.C., Klosterman, S.L., Bowers, M.A., Ryan, T.J., Jessup, S.A., & Wynne, K.T. (2018). The effect of propensity to trust and perceptions of trustworthiness on trust behaviors in dyads. *Behavior Research Methods*, *50*(5), 1906-1920.

Atkin, C., & Block, M. (1983). Effectiveness of celebrity endorsers. *Journal of Advertising Research, 23*(1), 57-61.

Asaad, Y., Melewar, T.C., & Cohen, G. (2015). Export market orientation behaviour of universities: The British scenario. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, *25*(1), 127-154.

Ashraf, N., Bohnet, I., & Piankov, N. (2006). Decomposing trust and trustworthiness. *Experimental Economics*, *9*(3), 193-208.

Awang, Z., Afthanorhan, A., Mohamad, M., & Asri, M.A.M. (2015). An evaluation of measurement model for medical tourism research: The confirmatory factor analysis approach. *International Journal of Tourism Policy*, *6*(1), 29-45.

Awang, Z. (2012). *Structural equation modeling using AMOS graphic*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit University Technology.

Aydin, G. (2016). Attitudes towards digital advertising: Testing differences between social media ads and mobile ads. *International Journal of Research in Business Studies and Management, 3*(2), 1-11.

Baek, T.H., Kim, J., & Yu, J.H. (2010). The differential roles of brand credibility and brand prestige in consumer brand choice. *Psychology and Marketing, 27*(7), 662-678.

Bauer, P. (2015). Conceptualizing and measuring trust and trustworthiness. *European University Institute,* 1-33.

Bekk, M., & Sporrle, M. (2010). The influence of perceived personality characteristics on positive attitude towards and suitability of a celebrity as a marketing campaign endorser. *The Open Psychology Journal, 3*(1), 54-66.

Bergkvist, L., & Zhou, K. (2016). Celebrity endorsements: A literature review and research agenda. *International Journal of Advertising, 35*(4), 642-663.

Bhutada, N.S., & Rollins, B.L. (2015). Disease-specific direct-to-consumer advertising of pharmaceuticals: An examination of endorser type and gender effects on consumers' attitudes and behaviours. *Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy, 11*(6), 891-900.

Biography online. Famous Americans. (2015).

http://www.biographyonline.net/people/america/famous-americans.html/ Accessed 10 September 2015.

Biswas, S., Hussain, M., & Donnell, K. (2009). Celebrity endorsements in advertisements and consumer perceptions: A cross-cultural study. *Journal of Global Marketing, 22*(2), 121-137.

Boyd, T.C., & Shank, M.D. (2004). Athletes as product endorsers: The effect of gender and product relatedness. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 13*(2), 82-93.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77-101.

Bush, R.F., Resnick, A.J., & Stern, B.L. (2004). Sports celebrity influence on the behavioral intentions of Generation-Y. *Journal of Advertising Research, 44*(1), 108-118.

Bush, V.D., Bush, A.J., Shannahan, K.L., & Dupuis, R.J. (2007). Segmenting markets based on sports orientation: An investigation of gender, race and behavioral intentions. *The Marketing Management Journal, 17*(1), 39-50.

Celebi, S. (2007). The credibility of advertising vs publicity for new FMCGs in Turkey. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 12*(2), 161-176.

Celebrity Endorsement Ads. The Latest Celebrity Endorsement Ads. (2015). http://www.celebrityendorsementads.com/celebrity-endorsements/ Accessed 6 September 2016.

Chan, K., Leung Ng, Y., & Luk, E.K. (2013). Impact of celebrity endorsement in advertising on brand image among Chinese adolescents. *Young Consumers, 14*(2), 167-179.

Chin, P.N., Isa, S.M., & Alodin, Y. (2019). The impact of endorser and brand credibility on consumers' purchase intention: the mediating effect of attitude towards brand and brand credibility. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 1-17.

Choi, S.M., & Rifon, N.J. (2002). Antecedents and consequences of web advertising credibility: A study of consumer response to banner ads. *Journal of Interactive Advertising, 3*(1), 12-24.

Churchill, A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research,* 16(1), 64-73.

Churchill, A., & Peter, P. (1984). Research design effects on the reliability of rating scales: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *21*(4), 360-375.

Colfax, J.D., & Sternberg, S.F. (1972). The perpetuation of racial stereotypes: Blacks in mass circulation magazine advertisements. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 36*(1), 8-18.

Colquitt, J.A., LePine, J.A., Zapata, C.P., & Wild, R.E. (2011). Trust in typical and high-reliability contexts: Building and reacting to trust among firefighters. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(5), 999-1015.

Dadzie, K.Q., Dadzie, C.A., & Williams, A.J. (2018). Trust and duration of buyer-seller relationship in emerging markets. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*, *33*(1), 134-144.

Day, M., Fawcett, S., Fawcett, A., & Magnan, G. (2013). Trust and relational embeddedness: Exploring a paradox of trust pattern development in key supplier relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *42*(2), 152-165.

Delafrooz, N., & Zanjankhah, Z. S. (2015). Investigation of psychological factors affecting consumers' intention of accepting mobile advertising. *QScience Connect, 1*(6), 1-10.

Delgado-Ballester, E., Munuera-Aleman, J.L., & Yague-Guillen, M.J. (2003). Development and validation of a brand trust scale. *International Journal of Market Research*, *45*(1), 35-56.

Deshpande, R., & Douglas, S., (1994). A tale of two cities: Distinctiveness theory and advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research, 31*(1), pp 57-64.

De Vaus, D. (2002). *Surveys in Social Research.* London: Routledge.

Djafarova, E., & Rushworth, C. (2017). Exploring the credibility of online celebrities' Instagram profiles in influencing the purchase decisions of young female users. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *68*, 1-7.

Dowell, D., Morrison, M., & Heffernan, T. (2015). The changing importance of affective trust and cognitive trust across the relationship cycle: A study of business-to-business relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management, 44*, 119-130.

Dwivedi, A., Johnson, L.W., & McDonald, R.E. (2015). Celebrity endorsement, self-brand connection and consumer-based brand equity. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 24*(5), 449-461.

Dwivedi, A., & Johnson, L.W. (2013). Trust commitment as a mediator of the credibility endorser brand equity relationship in a service context. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, *21*(1), 1-7.

Edwards, S.M. and La Ferle, C. (2009) Does gender impact the perception of negative information related to celebrity endorsers? *Journal of Promotion Management*, *15*(1-2), 22-35.

Erdem, T., & Swait, J. (2004). Brand credibility, brand consideration and choice. *Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(1), 191-198.

Erdogan, B. (2001). Selecting celebrity endorsers: The practitioner's perspective. *Journal of Advertising Research,* 41(3), 39-49.

Fashion-schools. Top 10 Global Fashion Capitals. (2016). http://www.fashionschools.org/articles/top-10-global-fashion-capitals/ Accessed 12 September 2016.

Featherman, M. S., Miyazaki, A.D., & Sprott, D.E. (2010). Reducing online privacy risk to facilitate e-service adoption: The influence of perceived ease of use and corporate credibility. *Journal of Services Marketing, 24*(3), 219-229.

Franklin, D., & Marshall, R. (2019). Adding co-creation as an antecedent condition leading to trust in business-to-business relationships. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *77*(1), 170-181.

Ferchaud, A., Grzeslo, J., Orme, S., & LaGroue, J. (2018). Parasocial attributes and YouTube personalities: Exploring content trends across the most subscribed YouTube channels. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *80*, 88-96.

Frieden, J.B. (1984). Advertising spokesperson effects: An examination of endorser type and gender on two audiences. *Journal of Advertising Research, 24*(5), 33-41.

Friedman, H.H., & Friedman, L. (1979). Endorser effectiveness by product type. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *19*(5), 63-71.

Frohlich, M.T. (2002). E-integration in the supply chain: barriers and performance. *Decision Sciences, 33*(4), 537–556.

Foroudi, P., Melewar, T.C., & Gupta, S. (2014). Linking corporate logo, corporate image, and reputation: An examination of consumer perceptions in the financial setting. *Journal of Business Research,* 67(11), 2269-2281.

Ghorban, Z.S., & Tahernejad, H. (2012). A study on effect of brand credibility on word of mouth: With reference to internet service providers in Malaysia. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 4*(1), 26-34.

Ghotbivayghan, B., Hoseinzadehshahri, M., & Ebrahimi, M. (2015). Effect of celebrity endorsement on consumer's perception of corporate image, corporate credibility and corporate loyalty. *Case Study in Business and Management, 2*(1), 51-68.

Goldsmith, R.E., Lafferty, B.A., & Newell, S.J. (2000). The influence of corporate credibility on consumer attitudes and purchase intent. *Corporate Reputation Review, 3*(4), 304-318.

Gordon, R.A. (1987). Social desirability bias: A demonstration and technique for its reduction. *Teaching of Psychology*, *14*(1), 40-42.

Greene, A.L., & Adams-Price, C. (1990). Adolescents' secondary attachments to celebrity figures. *Sex Roles, 23*(7), 335-47.

Greer, J. (2003). Evaluating the credibility of online information: A test of source and advertising influence. *Mass Communication and Society, 6*(1), 11-28.

Ha, H., John J., & Chung, Y. (2016). Temporal effects of information from social networks on online behaviour. *Internet Research, 26*(1), 213-235.

Haghirian, P., & Madlberger, M. (2005). Consumer Attitude Toward Advertising via Mobile

    Devices - An Empirical Investigation Among Austrian Users. Paper presentation at

    the meeting of European Conference on Information System, Regensburg.

Haghirian, P., Madlberger, M., & Tanuskova, A. (2005). Increasing Advertising Value of

    Mobile Marketing - An Empirical Study of Antecedents. Paper presentation at the

    meeting of Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Hawaii, HI.

Hair, J., Babin, B., Anderson, R., & Tatham, R. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (6th ed.).

    New York: Prentice Hall.

Hanzaee, K.H., & Taghipourian, M.J. (2012). The effects of brand credibility and prestige on

    consumers' purchase intention in low and high product involvement. *Journal of Basic*

    *and Applied Scientific Research*, *2*(2), 1281-1291.

Hardin, R. (1996). Trustworthiness. *Ethics*, *107*(1), 26-42.

Hasanah, R., & Wahid, N.A. (2019). The mediating role of consumer's attitude toward

    advertising on the relationship between advertisement content credibility and attitude

    toward brand: The case of beauty soap in Indonesia. *International Journal of*

    *Multicultural and Multireligious Understanding*, *6*(9), 12-21.

Hatcher, L. (1994). *A step-by-step approach to using the SAS system for factor analysis and*

    *structural equation modeling.* North Carolina: SAS Institute Inc.

Hill, A., Roberts, J., Ewings, P., & Gunnell, D. (1997). Non-response bias in a lifestyle

    survey. *Journal of Public Health*, *19*(2), 203-207.

Homburg, C., and Giering. A. (2001). Personal characteristics as moderators of the

    relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty - an empirical

    analysis. *Psychology & Marketing, 18*(1), 43-66.

Hovland, C.I., Janis, I.L., & Kelley, H.H. (1953). *Communication and Persuasion.* New

    Haven: Yale University Press.

Hultman, M., Robson, M.J., & Katsikeas, C.S. (2009) Export product strategy fit and

 performance: An empirical investigation. *Journal of International Marketing*, *17*(4),

 1-23.

Isaksen, K.J., & Roper, S. (2008). The impact of branding on low-income adolescents: A

 vicious cycle? *Psychology and Marketing, 25*(11), 1063-1087.

Jain, V., Jain, V., Roy, S., & Roy, S. (2016). Understanding meaning transfer in celebrity

 endorsements: A qualitative exploration. *Qualitative Market Research: An*

 *International Journal, 19*(3), 266-286.

Jain, V., Merchant, A., Roy, S., & Ford, J.B. (2019). Developing an emic scale to measure

 ad-evoked nostalgia in a collectivist emerging market, India. *Journal of Business*

 *Research*, *99*, 140-156.

Jain, V., Roy, S., Daswani, A., & Sudha, M. (2011). What really works for teenagers: Human

 or fictional celebrity? *Young Consumers,* 12(2), 171-183.

Jahanzeb, S., Fatima, T., & Mohsin, B.M. (2013). How service quality influences brand

 equity: The dual mediating role of perceived value and corporate credibility.

 *International Journal of Bank Marketing, 31*(2), 126-141.

Jeng, S. P. (2016). The influences of airline brand credibility on consumer purchase

 intentions. *Journal of Air Transport Management, 55*(1), 1-8.

Johnson, D., & Grayson, K. (2005). Cognitive and affective trust in service relationships.

 *Journal of Business Research, 58*(4), 500-507.

Jones, V. (2010). It's not black and white: Advertising and race in cultural context. *Journal*

 *of Global Marketing, 23*(1), 45-64.

Karanges, E.R., Johnston, K.A., Lings, I., & Beatson, A.T. (2018). Brand signalling: An

 antecedent of employee brand understanding. *Journal of Brand Management, 25*(3),

 235-249.

Keeble, C., Law, G.R., Barber, S., & Baxter, P.D. (2015). Choosing a method to reduce selection bias: A tool for researchers. *Open Journal of Epidemiology*, *5*(3), 155-162.

Keel, A., & Nataraajan, R. (2012). Celebrity endorsements and beyond: New avenues for celebrity branding. *Psychology and Marketing, 29*(9), 690-703.

Kia, T. (2016). Brand credibility and brand prestige on influencing purchase a mobile brand. *The Social Sciences, 11*(9), 2200-2205.

Kim, K., & Cheong, Y. (2012). The effects of athlete-endorsed advertising: The moderating role of the athlete-audience ethnicity match. *Journal of Sport Management, 25*(2), 143-155.

Kim, S.S., Lee, J., & Prideaux, B. (2014). Effect of celebrity endorsement on tourists' perception of corporate image, corporate credibility and corporate loyalty. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 37*(1), 131-145.

Klaus, N., & Bailey, A.A. (2008). Celebrity endorsements: An examination of gender and consumers' attitudes. *American Journal of Business, 23*(2), 53-61.

Kroger, J., Martinussen, M., & Marcia, J.E. (2010). Identity status change during adolescence and young adulthood: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Adolescence, 33*(5), 683-698.

Kumar, A., Noida, G., Gangal, D.V.K., & Singh, K. (2011). Advertising and consumer buying behaviour: A study with special reference to Nestle Ltd. *International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management*, *2*(10), 83-87.

Lafferty, B.A., & Goldsmith, R.E. (2004). How influential are corporate credibility and endorser attractiveness, when innovators react to advertisements for a new high technology product? *Corporate Reputation Review, 7*(1), 24-39.

Lafferty, B.A., Goldsmith, R.E., & Newell, S.J. (2002). The dual credibility model: The influence of corporate and endorser credibility on attitudes and purchase intentions. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 10*(3), 1-11.

La Ferle, C., & Morimoto, M. (2009). The impact of life-stage on Asian American females' ethnic media use, ethnic identification, and attitudes toward ads. *Howard Journal of Communications, 20*(2), 147-163.

Lee, E.J., Fairhurst, A., & Dillard, S. (2002). Usefulness of ethnicity in international consumer marketing. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 14*(2), 25-48.

Leonidou, C., Kvasova, O., Leonidou, C.N., and Chari, S. (2013). Business unethicality as an impediment to consumer trust: The moderating role of demographic and cultural characteristics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *112*(3), 397-415.

Li, F., Zhou, N., Kashyap, R., and Yang, C. (2008). Brand trust as a second order factor: An alternative measurement model. *International Journal of Market Research, 50*(6), 817-839.

Li, X., & Petrick, J. F. (2008). Re-examining the dimensionality of brand loyalty: A case of the cruise industry. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *25*(1), 68-85.

Liu, W. (2002). Advertising in China: Product branding and beyond. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 7(2), 117-25.

Long Finance. The Global Financial Centres Index 25. (2019). https://www.longfinance.net/media/documents/GFCI_25_Report.pdf/ Accessed 12 September 2019.

Logan, K., Bright, L.F., & Gangadharbatla, H. (2012). Facebook versus television: Advertising value perceptions among females. *Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing, 6*(3), 164-179.

Maathuis, O., Rodenburg, J., & Sikkel, D. (2004). Credibility, emotion, or reason? *Corporate Reputation Review, 6*(4), 333-345.

Magnini, V.P., Honeycutt, E.D., & Cross, A.M. (2008). Understanding the use of celebrity endorsers for hospitality firms. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *14*(1), 57-69.

Malhotra, N. (2010). *Marketing research: An applied orientation* (6th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Martin, C.A., & Bush, A.J. (2000). Do role models influence teenagers' purchase intentions and behaviors? *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 17*(5), 441-454.

Matsunaga, M. (2010). How to factor-analyze your data right: Do's, don'ts, and how-to's. *International Journal of Psychological Research*, *3*(1), 97-110.

McCartney, G., & Pinto, J.F. (2014). Influencing Chinese travel decisions: The impact of celebrity endorsement advertising on the Chinese traveler to Macao. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 22*(3), 1-14.

McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the celebrity endorser? Cultural foundations of the endorsement process. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 16(3), 310-21.

Melewar, T.C., Foroudi, P., Gupta, S., Kitchen, P.J., & Foroudi, M.M. (2017). Integrating identity, strategy and communications for trust, loyalty and commitment. *European Journal of Marketing*, *51*(3), 572-604.

Meyers-Levy, J., & Sternthal, B. (1991). Gender differences in the use of message cues and judgments. *Journal of Marketing Research, 28*(1), 84-96.

Moore, J.J., & Rodgers, S.L. (2005, January). An Examination of Advertising Credibility and Skepticism in Five Different Media Using the Persuasion Knowledge Model. Paper presentation at the meeting of American Academy of Advertising Conference, Texas, TX.

Morgan, R.M., & Hunt, S.D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *58*(3), 20-38.

Morrow Jr, J.L., Hansen, M.H., & Pearson, A.W. (2004). The cognitive and affective antecedents of general trust within cooperative organizations. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 16*(1), 48-65.

Nelson, O. (2010). Celebrity advertising and its effectiveness on brand loyalty. *Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 1*(9), 79-89.

Nisar, A., Shaheen, S., & Bhatti, A. (2016). Do attributes of celebrity influence corporate loyalty and corporate image? Mediating role of corporate credibility. *Journal of Management Information, 11*(1), 71-90.

Ohanian, R. (1990). Construction and validation of a scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. *Journal of Advertising*, *19*(3), 39-52.

Ohanian, R. (1991). The impact of celebrity spokespersons' perceived image on consumers' intention to purchase. *Journal of Advertising Research, 31*(1), 46-54.

Ok, C., Choi, Y.G., & Hyun, S.S. (2011). Roles of Brand Value Perceptions in the Development of Brand Credibility and Brand Prestige. Paper presented at the meeting of I-CHRIE Annual Conference and Expo, Colorado, CO.

Okazaki, S. (2004). How do Japanese consumers perceive wireless ads? A multivariate analysis. *International Journal of Advertising, 23*(4), 429-454.

Paek, J. (2005). Understanding celebrity endorsers in cross-cultural contexts: A content analysis of South Korean and US newspaper advertising. *Asian Journal of Communication*, *15*(2), 133-153.

Pecot, F., Merchant, A., Valette-Florence, P., & De Barnier, V. (2018). Cognitive outcomes of brand heritage: A signaling perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, *85*, 304-316.

Peetz, T. B., Parks, J.B., & Spencer, N.E. (2004). Sport heroes as sport product endorsers: The role of gender in the transfer of meaning process for selected undergraduate students. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 13*(3), 141-150.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Lee, J.Y., & Podsakoff, N.P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879-903.

Prendergast, G., Liu, P.Y., & Poon, D.T. (2009). A Hong Kong study of advertising credibility. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *26*(5), 320-329.

Prendergast, G., & Wong, C. (2009). Parental influence on the purchase of luxury brands of infant apparel: An exploratory study in Hong Kong. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 20*(2), 157-169.

Priporas, C.V., & Mylona, I. (2008). Mobile services: Potentiality of short message service as new business communication tool in attracting consumers. *International Journal of Mobile Communications*, *6*(4), 456-466.

Rempel, J.K., Holmes, J.G., & Zanna, M.P. (1985). Trust in close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49*(7), 95-112.

Rifon, N.J., Jiang, M., & Kim, S. (2016). Don't hate me because I am beautiful: Identifying the relative influence of celebrity attractiveness and character traits on credibility. *Advances in Advertising Research, 6*(1), 125-134.

Roni, S. *Introduction to SPSS*. Preliminary data analysis: An analysis before the analysis SOAR Centre, Edith Cowan University. (2014). https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Saiyidi_Mat_Roni2/publication/262151892_Introduction_to_SPSS/links/0a85e53902ad1f1c54000000/Introduction-to-SPSS.pdf/ Accessed 10 January 2017.

Roscoe, J.T. (1975). *Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences*. New York: Rinehart and Winston.

Roy, S.K., Balaji, M.S., Soutar, G., Lassar, W.M., & Roy, R. (2018). Customer engagement behavior in individualistic and collectivistic markets. *Journal of Business Research*, *86*, 281-290.

Sallam, M. (2014). The effects of brand credibility on customer's WOM communication: The moderator role of brand commitment: A conceptual paper. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, 6*(5), 1-7.

Samat, M.F., Hashim, H., & Yusoff, R.N. (2015). Endorser credibility and its influence on the attitude toward social media advertisement in Malaysia. *Review of Integrative Business and Economics Research, 4*(1), 144-160.

Sekhon, H., Ennew, C., Kharouf, H., & Devlin, J. (2014). Trustworthiness and trust: Influences and implications. *Journal of Marketing Management, 30*(4), 409-430.

Seno, D., & Lukas, B.A. (2007). The equity effect of product endorsement by celebrities: A conceptual framework from a co-branding perspective. *European Journal of Marketing*, *41*(1/2), 121-134.

Sheeraz, M., Iqbal, N., & Ahmed, N. (2012). Impact of brand credibility and consumer values on consumer purchase intentions in Pakistan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 2*(8), 1-10.

Sheeraz, M., Khattak, A.K., Mahmood, S., & Iqbal, N. (2016). Mediation of attitude toward brand in the relationship between service brand credibility and purchase intentions. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences, 10*(1), 149-163.

Sierra, J.J., Hyman, M.R., & Torres, I.M. (2009). Using a model's apparent ethnicity to influence viewer responses to print ads: A social identity theory perspective. *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 31*(2), 41-68.

Singh, R.P., & Banerjee, N. (2018). Exploring the influence of celebrity credibility on brand attitude, advertisement attitude and purchase intention. *Global Business Review*, *19*(6), 1622-1639.

Soh, H., Reid, L.N., & King, K.W. (2009). Measuring trust in advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, *38*(2), 83-104.

Spry, A., Pappu, R., & Cornwell, T.B. (2011). Celebrity endorsement, brand credibility and brand equity. *European Journal of Marketing, 45*(6), 882-909.

Susanto, M., & Setiowati, R. (2015). Celebrity endorsement, brand credibility and brand equity of smartphone in Jakarta. *International Business Management, 9*(3), 221-231.

Sutherland, J. (1982). The Effect of Humor on Advertising Credibility and Recall. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism, Ohio, OH.

Sweeney, J., & Swait, J. (2008). The effects of brand credibility on customer loyalty. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 15*(3), 179–193.

Terres, M.D.S., & dos Santos, C.P. (2013). Consumer trust in high consequence decisions: A study of medical services. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical and Healthcare Marketing, 7*(2), 120-141.

Terres, M.D.S., dos Santos, C.P., & Basso, K. (2015). Antecedents of the client's trust in low- versus high-consequence decisions. *Journal of Services Marketing, 29*(1), 26-37.

The Culture Trip. The 10 Most Multi-Cultural Cities in the World. (2019). https://theculturetrip.com/north-america/usa/california/articles/the-10-most-multicultural-cities-in-the-world/ Accessed 12 September 2019.

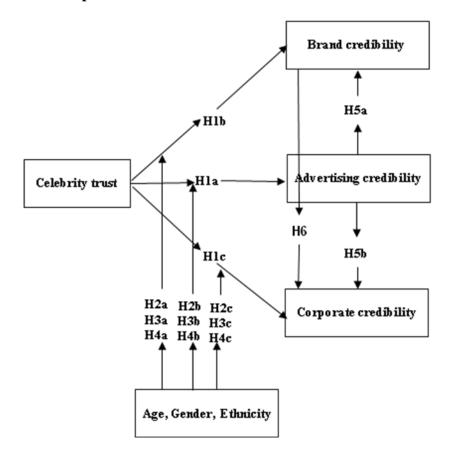The Richest. Top 20 Highest Paid Celebrities of 2015. (2015). http://www.therichest.com/expensive-lifestyle/money/top-20-highest-paid-celebrities-of-2015/ Accessed 9 September 2015.

Toncar, M., Reid, S., & Anderson, E. (2007). Effective spokespersons in a public service

    announcement: National celebrities, local celebrities and victims. *Journal of*

    *Communication Management, 11*(3), 258-75.

Torres, I.M., & Luna-Nevarez, C. (2012). What products can benefit from African American

    advertising appeals? The moderating role of product involvement. *Journal of Current*

    *Issues and Research in Advertising, 33*(1), 37-55.

Twing-Kwong, S., Albaum, G.L., & Fullgrabe, L. (2013). Trust in customer-salesperson

    relationship in China's retail sector. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution*

    *Management, 41*(3), 226-248.

Um, N.H., & Kim, S. (2016). Determinants for effects of celebrity negative information:

    When to terminate a relationship with a celebrity endorser in trouble? *Psychology and*

    *Marketing*, *33*(10), 864-874.

Vandenberg, R.J., & Lance, C.E. (2000). A review and synthesis of the measurement

    invariance literature: Suggestions, practices, and recommendations for organizational

    research. *Organizational Research Methods*, *3*(1), 4-70.

Vincent, M., Honeycutt, E., & Cross, A. (2008). Understanding the use of celebrity endorsers

    for hospitality firms. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 14*(1), 57-70.

Wang, X., & Yang, Z. (2010). The effect of brand credibility on consumers' brand purchase

    intention in emerging economies: The moderating role of brand awareness and brand

    image. *Journal of Global Marketing, 23*(3), 77-188.

Wang, S.W., & Scheinbaum, A.C. (2018). Enhancing brand credibility via celebrity

    endorsement: Trustworthiness trumps attractiveness and expertise. *Journal of*

    *Advertising Research*, *58*(1), 16-32.

Wieland, A., Durach, C.F., Kembro, J., & Treiblmaier, H. (2017). Statistical and judgmental criteria for scale purification. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, *22*(4), 321-328.

Weber, R.P. (1985). *Basic Content Analysis*. Sage Publications: Beverly Hills.

Whitten, G.D., Green, K.W., & Zelbst, P.J. (2012). Triple-A supply chain performance. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, *32*(1), 28-48.

Yakoop, A., Anuar, M.M., & Omar, K. (2013). Like it or not: Issue of credibility in Facebook and advertising. *Canadian Center of Science and Education, 9*(3), 154-164.

Yoo, J.W., Lee, H.S., & Jin, Y.J. (2018). Effects of celebrity credibility on country's reputation: A comparison of an Olympic star and a political leader. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *21*(3), 127-136.

Yu, P.L., Balaji, M.S., & Khong, K.W. (2015). Building trust in internet banking: A trustworthiness perspective. *Industrial Management and Data Systems, 115*(2), 235-252.

Yurdakul-Şahin, D., & Atik, D. (2013). Celebrity influences on young consumers: Guiding the way to the ideal self. *Izmir Review of Social Sciences, 1*(1), 65-82.

Zinkhan, G.M., Quails, W.J., & Biswas, A. (1990). The use of blacks in magazine and television advertising: 1946 to 1986. *Journalism Quarterly, 67*(3), 547-553.

Zhu, X., Teng, L., Foti, L., & Yuan, Y. (2019). Using self-congruence theory to explain the interaction effects of brand type and celebrity type on consumer attitude formation. *Journal of Business Research*.

**Figure 1. Conceptual Model**

**Table 1. Direct effects**

| Hypotheses | Estimate | S.E. | C.R. | P | Results |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H1a | 0.641 | 0.083 | 7.715 | *** | Supported |
| H1b | 0.749 | 0.102 | 7.353 | *** | Supported |
| H1c | 0.062 | 0.098 | 0.636 | 0.525 | Not supported |
| H5a | 0.121 | 0.066 | 1.838 | 0.032 | Supported |
| H5b* | 0.483 | 0.068 | 7.092 | *** | Supported |
| H6 | 0.664 | 0.084 | 7.927 | *** | Supported |

**Table 2. Multi-group analysis**

| H | DF | CMIN | P | Result |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **H2a** | **1** | 2.696 | 0.101 | Not supported |
| **H2b** | **1** | 0.568 | 0.451 | Not supported |
| **H2c** | **1** | 0.157 | 0.692 | Not supported |
| **H3a** | **1** | 0.453 | 0.501 | Not supported |
| **H3b** | **1** | 0.043 | 0.835 | Not supported |
| **H3c** | **1** | 0.258 | 0.612 | Not supported |
| **H4a** | **3** | 10.296 | 0.001 | Supported |
| **H4b** | **3** | 15.983 | 0.001 | Supported |
| **H4c** | **3** | 0.601 | 0.896 | Not supported |

**Appendix 1. Constructs, factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, AVE, Discriminant validity, composite reliability**

| Construct | Factor loadings | Cronbach's alpha | AVE | Discriminant validity √AVE | Composite reliability | Reference |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Celebrity trust* | | 0.922 | 0.653 | 0.808 | 0.812 | |
| Cognitive dimension | 0.814 | 0.911 | | | | |
| I have confidence in the information provided by the celebrity endorser | 0.716 | | | | | Twing-Kwong et al. (2013) |
| I think the celebrity endorser is one of the best in his/her endorsed area | 0.75 | | | | | Terres et al. (2015) |
| Celebrity endorser shows high level of commitment to the consumers | 0.738 | | | | | Qualitative data |
| Celebrity endorser has an ability to endorse the brand | 0.71 | | | | | Morrow et al. (2004), Johnson and George (2005), Twing-Kwong et al. (2013), Terres et al. (2015) |
| Celebrity endorser has high | 0.783 | | | | | Ding et al. (2013), Dwivedi and Johnson |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| integrity | | | | | | (2013), Twing-Kwong et al. (2013), Kim et al. (2014), Terres et al. (2015) |
| Celebrity endorser is highly reliable | 0.809 | | | | | Ohanian (1991), Morgan and Hunt (1994), Spry et al. (2011), Kim et al. (2014), Terres et al. (2015) |
| Celebrity endorser provides valid information | 0.734 | | | | | Qualitative data |
| Celebrity endorser is very receptive in the provided information | 0.701 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| Affective dimension | 0.824 | 0.877 | | | | |
| My instincts tell me that celebrity endorser is honest | 0.703 | | | | | Morrow et al. (2004), Terres et al. (2015) |
| Celebrity endorser cares and is concerned about the consumers | 0.701 | | | | | Mishra (1996), Ding et al. (2013), Twing-Kwong et al. (2013), Terres et al. (2015) |
| Celebrity endorser is liked by the | 0.715 | | | | | Twing-Kwong et al. (2013) |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| consumers | | | | | | |
| Celebrity endorser is highly appreciated by the consumers | 0.797 | | | | | Twing-Kwong et al. (2013) |
| Celebrity endorser is highly admired by the consumers | 0.808 | | | | | Twing-Kwong et al. (2013) |
| Celebrity endorser is highly accepted by the consumers | 0.7 | | | | | Twing-Kwong et al. (2013) |
| Celebrity endorser is friendly | 0.71 | | | | | Terres and Santos (2013) |
| *Advertising credibility* | | 0.895 | 0.582 | 0.762 | 0.768 | |
| Advertising provides accurate information about the product/service | 0.703 | | | | | Yakoop et al. (2013) |
| Advertising provides complete information | 0.74 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| Advertising provides warranty about the product/service | 0.703 | | | | | Qualitative data |
| Advertising delivers what it promises about the | 0.832 | | | | | Qualitative data |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| product/service | | | | | | |
| Advertising provides honest information about the product/service | 0.853 | | | | | MacKenzie and Lutz (1989), Greer (2003), Haghirian and Madlberger (2005); Haghirian et al. (2005), Prendergast and Wong (2009); Prendergast et al. (2009) |
| Advertising provides reliable information about the product/service | 0.726 | | | | | Cotte et al. (2005) |
| *Brand credibility* | | 0.936 | 0.587 | 0.7661 | 0.701 | |
| The brand is honest | 0.705 | | | | | Erdem and Swait (2004), Baek et al. (2010), Spry et al. (2011), Ghorban and Tahernejad (2012) |
| The brand is reliable | 0.707 | | | | | Erdem and Swait (2004), Baek et al. (2010), Wang and Yang (2010), Ok et al. (2011), Spry et al. (2011) |
| The brand has a high reputation | 0.805 | | | | | Qualitative study |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The brand has the ability to deliver | 0.713 | | | | | Erdem and Swait (2004), Sweeney and Swait (2008), Baek et al. (2010), Spry et al. (2011), Ghorban and Tahernejad (2012) |
| The brand is committed to delivering on its claims | 0.765 | | | | | Baek et al. (2010), Ok et al. (2011) |
| The brand has a positive value | 0.873 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| The brand is very attractive to me | 0.805 | | | | | Wang and Yang (2010) |
| The brand has a positive image | 0.848 | | | | | Wang and Yang (2010) |
| The brand is of good quality | 0.818 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| The brand has an experience | 0.76 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| *Corporate credibility* | | 0.936 | 0.640 | 0.800 | 0.886 | |
| I like the corporation very much | 0.817 | | | | | Li et al. (2008) |
| The corporation is honest | 0.82 | | | | | Goldsmith et al. (2000), Lafferty et al. (2002), Featherman et al. (2010), Kim et al. |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | (2014) |
| The corporation makes truthful claims | 0.818 | | | | | Goldsmith et al. (2000), Lafferty et al. (2002), Lafferty and Goldsmith (2004), Jahanzeb et al. (2013) |
| The corporation is reliable | 0.877 | | | | | Featherman et al. (2010) |
| The corporation has experience | 0.789 | | | | | Goldsmith et al. (2000), Lafferty et al. (2002), Lafferty and Goldsmith (2004), Balboni (2008) |
| The corporation is transparent | 0.805 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| The corporation cares for the world | 0.802 | | | | | Qualitative findings |
| The corporation is very attractive | 0.765 | | | | | Qualitative findings |

**Appendix 2. Model fit for moderators**

| Goodness-of-fit | Age | Gender | Ethnicity |
|---|---|---|---|
| X² | 5103.239 | 5160.254 | 4937.202 |
| Df | 1666 | 1666 | 1666 |
| RMSEA | 0.047 | 0.047 | 0.045 |
| GFI | 0.815 | 0.810 | 0.816 |
| NFI | 0.871 | 0.875 | 0.873 |
| CFI | 0.937 | 0.936 | 0.948 |
| AGFI | 0.806 | 0.801 | 0.807 |
| IFI | 0.939 | 0.938 | 0.95 |
| TLI | 0.917 | 0.916 | 0.929 |
| RMR | 0.0676 | 0.0698 | 0.092 |

**Appendix 3. Metric invariance for moderators**

| Metric invariance test for age | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Unconstrained | 5103.299 | 1666 | |
| Fully constrained | 5177.751 | 1709 | |
| Number of groups | | 2 | |
| Difference | 74.452 | 43 | 0.002 |
| Metric invariance test for gender | | | |
| Unconstrained | 5160.254 | 1666 | |
| Fully constrained | 5248.858 | 1705 | |
| Number of groups | | 2 | |
| Difference | 88.604 | 43 | 0.000 |
| Metric invariance test for ethnicity | | | |
| Unconstrained | 4937.202 | 1666 | |
| Fully constrained | 5027.986 | 1709 | |
| Number of groups | | 2 | |
| Difference | 90.784 | 42 | 0.000 |

**Appendix 4. Common method bias test**

| Models | χ2 | Difference | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Unconstrained | 2494.913 | 790 | |
| Constrained | 3054.042 | 833 | |
| Difference | 559.129 | 43 | 0.000 |

**Appendix 5. Mann-Whitney U-test**

|  | Celebrity trust | Advertising credibility | Brand credibility | Corporate credibility |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mann-Whitney U | 41675.500 | 41941.500 | 45588.000 | 43099.500 |
| Wilcoxon W | 88035.500 | 88301.500 | 91948.000 | 89459.500 |
| Z | -1.921 | -1.876 | -.076 | -1.287 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | 0.055 | 0.061 | 0.939 | 0.198 |