

Celebrity Endorsement Effectiveness, Perception, Attitude and Behavioural Intentions of Consumers: A Cross-cultural Study

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Abstract

This research conceptualises the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions and investigates the mediating role of perceptions and attitudes. Using a cross-cultural comparative approach and a multi-item scale of Islamic behavioural religiosity developed and operationalised with the Pakistani sample, it analyses how consumer responses to celebrity-endorsed advertising differ across England and Pakistan when they are exposed to nonsexual and sexual advertising.

Post-positivist approach and mixed-methods are employed, starting with semistructured interviews developing the multi-item scale. Next, a questionnaire survey is administered to British and Pakistani participants to test and validate the conceptual model using multi-group analyses. Each questionnaire consists of two studies and a within-subject experimental design to investigate the impact of nonsexual and explicit sexual content. The newly developed scale is included in the survey with the Pakistani sample to evaluate validity and practical usefulness. Consumer focus groups are used to triangulate findings. Results show perception and attitude towards both advert and endorsed brand mediate the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions. Culture and religious involvement significantly impact consumer response to celebrityendorsed advertising - particularly when the advert features explicit sexuality. Findings from interviews show that explicitly sexual content negatively influences purchase intentions of Pakistani consumers.

This study diverges from existing research with a cross-cultural approach and contributes to theory by researching under-represented markets, contributing a validated conceptual model to celebrity branding literature, plus a fully developed and tested multi-item scale to measure behavioural religiosity with the Islamic faith. Furthermore, the need for theoretical consideration of both cognitive and affective elements is highlighted. Practical contributions postulate the need for international marketers using celebrity endorsement to refrain from using explicit sexuality within South Asian markets and to consider salient cultural and religious values within the source market to enhance effectiveness of marketing campaigns.

i

ii

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Declaration

I, the author, confirm that the Thesis is my own work. I am aware of the University's Guidance on the Use of Unfair Means (<u>www.sheffield.ac.uk/ssid/unfair-means</u>). This work has not been previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, university.

Please ensure that any publications arising from the thesis are acknowledged in this section.

| Abstract | i |
|--|------|
| Acknowledgements | iii |
| Declaration | v |
| Contents | vi |
| List of Figures and Images | xii |
| List of Tables | xiii |
| Chapter 1 Introduction and Background | 1 |
| 1. Chapter overview1 | |
| 1.1 Research background and context1 | |
| 1.1.1 Celebrity endorsement and consumer perception | |
| 1.1.2 The Pakistani market and cultural comparisons | |
| 1.1.3 Fashion marketing context7 | |
| 1.2 Research aims and objectives11 | |
| 1.3 Contributions of the study13 | |
| 1.3.1 Theoretical contributions13 | |
| 1.3.2 Practical contributions14 | |
| 1.4 Chapter concluding remarks and thesis structure15 | |
| Chapter 2 Literature Review | 16 |
| 2. Chapter overview | |
| 2.1 Celebrity endorsement and impact on consumer behaviour 16 | |
| 2.1.1 Developments in celebrity endorsement literature | |
| 2.1.2 Definition and use of celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing | |
| 2.1.3 Models of celebrity effectiveness24 | |
| 2.1.3.1 Source models 24 | |

Contents

| 2.1.3.2 Match-up hypothesis | 29 |
|--|---------|
| 2.1.3.3 Meaning transfer model | 31 |
| 2.1.3.4 Summarisation of critique of celebrity models | 37 |
| 2.1.4 Negative publicity | 39 |
| 2.1.5 Impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer behaviour | 41 |
| 2.1.6 Theoretical frameworks | 46 |
| 2.1.6.1 Stimulus response theory | 48 |
| 2.1.6.2 Cognitive-affective theory of personality | 50 |
| 2.1.6.3 Theory of planned behaviour | 52 |
| 2.1.6.4 Cognitive-affective approach | 56 |
| 2.1.6.5 Synthesis of conclusions drawn | 58 |
| 2.2 Culture and Pakistani context | 58 |
| 2.2.1 Impact of culture on celebrity endorsement | 58 |
| 2.2.2 History and background of Pakistani market | 62 |
| 2.2.3 Analysing Pakistani culture | 63 |
| 2.2.3.1 Pakistani culture in Hofstede's model | 64 |
| 2.2.3.2 Halls high-context and low-context communication culture | 67 |
| 2.2.4 Islam | 68 |
| 2.2.4.1 An overview of Islamic religion | 68 |
| 2.2.4.2 The Five Pillars of Islam | 69 |
| 2.2.4.3 Religious involvement | 71 |
| 2.2.5 Salient Pakistani cultural values and the influence of Islamic religious | beliefs |
| | 74 |
| 2.2.5.1 Izzat | 74 |
| 2.2.5.2 Family and relationships | 75 |

| 2.2.5.3 Modesty | |
|---|----|
| 2.2.6 Cultural issues relating to celebrity endorsement within the Pakistani market | |
| | |
| 2.2.6.1 Beauty and fashion in Pakistan | |
| 2.2.6.2 Perception of sexuality | |
| 2.2.6.3 Local vs. foreign celebrity-endorsed adverts in Pakistan | |
| 2.3 Synthesis of research issues | |
| 2.4 Conceptual model and hypothesis | |
| 2.4.1 Development of conceptual model | |
| 2.4.2 Hypotheses for testing | |
| 2.5 Chapter concluding remarks | |
| Chapter 3 Methodology and Research Design | 91 |
| 3. Chapter overview | |
| 3.1 Research philosophy and approach91 | |
| 3.2 Perspectives for mixed-methods research | |
| 3.3 Quantitative research design 101 | |
| 3.3.1 Preliminary steps 101 | |
| 3.3.1.1 Adapting existing measurement scales | |
| 3.3.1.2 Selection of celebrity 107 | |
| 3.3.1.3 Advert design and experiment 108 | |
| 3.3.1.4 Advert design process 110 | |
| 3.4 Qualitative phase 112 | |
| 3.4.1 Sampling 114 | |
| 3.4.2 Analysis approach 117 | |
| 3.4.3 Focus group to test initial design and results | |

| 3.4.4 Key informant interviews to develop religious involvement measures and | |
|--|-----|
| results 122 | |
| 3.5 Finalising and piloting the research tool128 | |
| 3.6 Main data collection and analysis procedure130 | |
| 3.6.1 Sampling | |
| 3.6.2 Administration of questionnaire132 | |
| 3.6.3 Data entry and cleaning133 | |
| 3.6.4 Data analysis procedure134 | |
| 3.7 Code of ethics | |
| 3.8 Chapter concluding remarks137 | |
| Chapter 4 Data Analysis Results | 138 |
| 4. Chapter overview | |
| 4.1 Demographics | |
| 4.2 Data normality and distribution139 | |
| 4.3 Selection of approach and software to perform structural equation modelling140 | |
| 4.4 Preliminary analysis 142 | |
| 4.4.1 Common method variance 142 | |
| 4.4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis, scale validation and assessment of | |
| measurement model 142 | |
| 4.4.3 Validation of scales for measuring involvement with religious practices 152 | |
| 4.4.4 Measurement invariance 154 | |
| Measurement invariance: religious involvement | |
| 4.4.5 Conceptualisation of celebrity effectiveness | |
| 4.5 Structural equation modelling: Study 1 and Study 2 | |
| 4.6 Multi-group structural equation modelling | |

| | 4.6.1 Analysis across groups | . 161 |
|---|---|-------|
| | 4.6.2 Path relationships between constructs | . 162 |
| | 4.6.3 Mediating effects | . 164 |
| | 4.6.4 Multi-group comparisons | . 166 |
| | 4.6.4.1 Approach to multi-group analysis | . 166 |
| | 4.6.4.2 Multi-group analysis results | . 168 |
| | 4.6.5 Impact of religious involvement | . 173 |
| | 4.7 Chapter concluding remarks | . 177 |
| C | hapter 5 Discussion of Findings | 179 |
| | 5. Chapter overview | . 179 |
| | 5.1 Evaluating the model for impact of celebrity effectiveness on purc | hase |
| | intentions | . 179 |
| | 5.2 Cross-cultural comparisons and the impact of sexuality in advertising | . 183 |
| | 5.2.1 British consumers' response to sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts | . 184 |
| | 5.2.2 Comparisons between British and Pakistani consumers | . 184 |
| | 5.2.3 Pakistani consumers' response to sexuality in celebrity-endorsed advert | s 187 |
| | 5.3 Impact of religious involvement | . 190 |
| | 5.3.1 Nonsexual celebrity-endorsed advertising | . 190 |
| | 5.3.2 Celebrity-endorsed advertising containing explicit sexuality | . 191 |
| | 5.4 Overall discussion | . 193 |
| | 5.5 Chapter concluding remarks | . 195 |
| C | hapter 6 Conclusion and Implications | 197 |
| | 6. Chapter overview | . 197 |
| | 6.1 Evaluation and synthetisation of research aim and objectives | . 197 |
| | 6.2 Implications | . 202 |

| 6.2.1 Theoretical implications | |
|--|---|
| 6.2.2 Practical implications 205 | |
| 6.3 Contributions 211 | |
| 6.3.1 Theoretical contributions 211 | |
| 6.3.2 Practical contributions 212 | |
| 6.4 Limitations and future research directions | |
| 6.5 Chapter concluding remarks 217 | |
| Reference List | 8 |
| Appendix 1 Celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing25 | 7 |
| Appendix 2 Sexuality in celebrity-endorsed in fashion marketing258 | 8 |
| Appendix 3 Traditional and modern Pakistani fashion and beauty | 9 |
| Appendix 4 Examples of local and foreign celebrity-endorsed adverts in Pakistan | D |
| Appendix 5 Celebrity endorsement adverts used for design of advert in Study 1 | 2 |
| Appendix 6 Advert designs for Study 1 and Study 2263 | 3 |
| Appendix 7 Questionnaire used in main study264 | 4 |
| Appendix 8 Questionnaire to measure religious involvement | 2 |
| Appendix 9 Informed consent form for qualitative research | 3 |
| Appendix 10: Sample statements from group interview with Islamic religious leaders 270 | 6 |
| Appendix 11: Sample statements from group interview with academic scholars27 | 7 |
| Appendix 12: Sample statements from focus groups and illustration of initial analysis 27 | 8 |
| Appendix 13 Mean comparisons and descriptive statistics | 9 |

List of Figures and Images

| Figure 1: Fashion products and services (adapted from Easey, 2009) | 8 |
|---|-----|
| Figure 2:Meaning tranfer model (adapted from McCracken, 1989) | 32 |
| Figure 3: Stimulus response model (adapted from Solomon et al., 2010) | 49 |
| Figure 4: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) | 52 |
| Figure 5: Proposed conceptual framework | 84 |
| Figure 6: Standardised path loadings: Study 1 and Study 2 | 160 |
| Figure 7: Standardised path loadings and significance Study 1 | 162 |
| Figure 8: Standardised path loadings and significance Study 2 | 163 |
| Figure 9: Final proposed conceptual model | 179 |

List of Tables

| Table 1: Table of items and measures utilised in the research (developed by | |
|---|-----|
| researcher based on the literature) | 105 |
| Table 2: Evaluation of non-probability sampling techniques | 115 |
| Table 3: Scale items used to measure involvement in Islamic religious practices | 127 |
| Table 4: Summary of demographic information for sub-samples | 139 |
| Table 5: Study 1: Results of confirmatory factor analysis and scale validity | 145 |
| Table 6: Study 2: Results of confirmatory factor analysis and scale validity | 147 |
| Table 7: Study 1: Standardised implied correlations among the constructs | 149 |
| Table 8: Study 2: Standardised implied correlations among the constructs | 149 |
| Table 9: Study 1: Discriminant validity using paired constructs test | 150 |
| Table 10: Study 2: Discriminant validity using paired constructs test | 151 |
| Table 11: Weight of first-order factors on second-order factor | 151 |
| Table 12: Validation of scales to measure religious involvement | 152 |
| Table 13: Measurement invariance: CFA model | 155 |
| Table 14: Measurement invariance: Study 1 low/medium RI and high RI | 157 |
| Table 15: Measurement invariance: Study 2: low/medium RI and high RI | 158 |
| Table 16: Mediation analysis | 165 |
| Table 17: Findings: multi-group analysis for British and Pakistani respondents | 169 |
| Table 18: Findings: Multi-group analysis by religious involvement | 175 |
| Table 19: Hypothesis testing results and summary of key findings and | |
| implications | 209 |

Chapter 1 Introduction and Background

1. Chapter overview

This chapter discusses the rationale for researching the chosen topic. The importance and background of the study is outlined and insight is provided into the subject areas and geographical locations. The significance and relevance of the research context is then discussed. Research aims and objectives formulated for the study are presented along with the intended theoretical and practical contributions expected to be made. The chapter is concluded with a brief outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Research background and context

1.1.1 Celebrity endorsement and consumer perception

The use of endorsement in marketing communications is an established and popular practice (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Although dynamic social trends can give rise and fall to different types of endorsers, the use of celebrities to showcase a product or service remains a prevalent communications strategy used across the globe (Carrillat, O'Rourke and Plourde, 2019). Despite the high investment the strategy often entails, the use of celebrities in product advertising has seen a significant increase over the past 50 years (Knoll and Matthes, 2017). Every fourth to fifth advertisement showcases a celebrity and an estimated 25 percent of adverts in western markets now use celebrity endorsement (Carrillat, O'Rourke and Plourde, 2019). This figure is reportedly even higher in Asian countries (Carrillat, O'Rourke and Plourde, 2019). These statistics are perhaps not surprising when the impact that celebrities have on consumers is examined and the advantages inherent in using celebrity endorsements are considered.

A study by Stallen et al. (2010) found that images of famous individuals together with products results in enhanced brain activity in the orbitofrontal cortex – the area of the brain which plays a role in decision making and emotional processing and leads to enhanced positive emotions. Celebrities, often idolised for their perceived personality,

talent, physical attributes, popularity and symbolic associations, can embody aspirational qualities worthy of emulation and showcase beliefs, values and norms of the culture to which they belong (Roy and Mishra, 2018; Shchimmelpfennig, 2018). When employed successfully, celebrity endorsement increases brand recall, brand loyalty, brand recognition and enhances believability of advertising claims (Um and Lee, 2015; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016). Additionally, celebrity endorsement can elicit positive attitudinal responses from consumers and influence decision making (Choi and Rifon, 2012; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Theory on celebrity endorsement states that for an endorsement to be successful, the chosen celebrity must be perceived by consumers as credible, likeable and attractive (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). It is also advisable to have a degree of congruence between the celebrity and the endorsed brand, wherein there is a logical and appropriate fit (Wright, 2016). The meaning transfer model iterates that effectiveness of celebrity endorsement depends on the meaning an endorser brings to the endorsement process and how effectively those meanings and associations transfer from a celebrity to the consumer through the process of endorsement the efficacy of which is influenced by the content and context of the advert design (Campbell and Warren, 2012; Roy and Jain, 2017). Literature dictates that one of the key identifiable variants for celebrity endorsement to be successful is favourable consumer perception of the celebrity and the manner of endorsement (Campbell and Warren, 2012; Schimmelpfennig, 2018). When an unsuitable celebrity is used it can cause irreversible damage to brand image and decrease purchase intention (Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016).

To successfully employ celebrity endorsement, marketers need to understand the manner in which attributes, characteristics and associations of a celebrity, which can be intangible in nature, will be observed and interpreted by consumers. Marketing communications is often reliant on the consumer interpretation of the context and content of the advertising (De Mooij, 2019) and thus, ensuring that the design, vision and message of the endorsed advertising translated in the intended manner is paramount. When celebrity endorsement is employed, another layer of symbolic

meaning is added to the advertising message (and thus the brand), making it critical to understand all aspects of the culture in which a company is operating. This necessitates comprehension of; values, beliefs, belief systems, ethics and social norms, how they can influence consumer perceptions and preferences of celebrity endorsers, and the manner in which they are portrayed in advertising. As evidenced by the literature, each culture consists of its own unique symbols and signs (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Celebrities and their associations and attributes, therefore, do not exist in a vacuum but rather are cultivated and understood through a cultural lens.

Celebrities are "bundles of cultural meaning" and often signify and showcase the prevalent values of the culture to which they belong (McCracken, 1989, p. 320). Cultural values can determine the perception and interpretation of stimuli of consumers and form the spectrum through which an individual views the world (Solomon et al., 2010). Understanding the influence of culture on consumer perception of stimuli is therefore essential for both the selection of an appropriate celebrity endorser and in designing an effective endorsement campaign to create synergy. While it is true that mass media can allow for some celebrities to have cross-cultural appeal and be successful and popular in various markets, studies which examine the transferability of celebrity endorsement strategies across different countries and the consumer response they generate are limited (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Biswas, Hussain and O'Donnell, 2009; Schimmelpfennig, 2018). Interpretations of celebrity behaviour and associations are heavily influenced by culture (De Mooij, 2019), and therefore it is possible for celebrity attributes to be perceived positively in one country but not translate well in another. Companies with an international presence will often utilise the same celebrity endorser to advertise across different countries and markets. Though global communications is often thought to create a homogenous consumer culture (De Burgh-Woodman, 2014), it is argued that the widespread use of global symbols does not necessarily lead to homogeneity in the values of individuals (Berry, 2015; Sethna and Blythe, 2019). Though the globalisation of people, products and brands can possibly lead to a convergence of consumption choices on a macro level,

countries retain distinct values and beliefs inherent within their culture and still remain divergent (Taylor and Johnson 2002; De Mooij, 2019; Sethna and Blythe, 2019). However, despite celebrity endorsement being one of the most popular global advertising techniques, to date very little comparative research has been conducted on its cross-cultural impact and transferability. Academic research within the field has mainly concentrated on identifying attributes needed for a celebrity to be a successful endorser, the effects of value congruence on endorsement effectiveness, transfer of associations from the celebrity to the brand, impact of endorsement on brand equity and on understanding the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumers. However, research and findings can be fragmented at times and the topic still lacks a comprehensive framework which can be utilised to predict and analyse the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumers (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020).

1.1.2 The Pakistani market and cultural comparisons

This research chooses to conduct a comparative study between the markets of England and Pakistan. Located in South Asia, Pakistan has been chosen as the focus of this study for two main reasons. Firstly, Pakistan is a developing country with impressive GDP growth rates, which have been increasing annually (Trading Economies, 2018). Pakistan has been identified by Procter & Gamble as one of the top ten emerging markets (P&G in Pakistan, 2013) and as one of the fastest-growing economies in the world (The World Bank, 2018). It is also identified as one of the 11 countries which have the potential to become the biggest economies in the world (World Atlas, 2019).

Fast economic growth has led to a substantial increase in consumer spending power amongst the upper and middle classes in the country (Saddiq, 2013). Furthermore, households categorised as middle class have seen substantial growth since 2000, with over 50 percent being categorised as such due to their purchasing power (Ghani, 2014). Consequently, there has been a substantial increase in the number of local businesses and brands within the country and the past two decades have also witnessed an influx of foreign companies and brands in the market (Business Book, 2020). This has caused an increase in advertising, including the use of celebrities to sell products as one of the most popular advertising techniques (Carrillat, O'Rourke and Plourde, 2019).

Secondly, as a nation Pakistan was established with a religious identity, hence its official name, The Islamic Republic of Pakistan (Government of Pakistan, 2020). The national identity of Pakistan is therefore, first and foremost Islamic. The dominant cultural values stem from the highly collectivist culture within the country (Hofstede Insights, 2020) and this strong religious identity. A dominant cultural and religious value in Pakistan is the maintaining and showcasing of 'sexual modesty' for both genders (Talbot, 1998; Hussain and Jordan, 2006). There is often some degree of overlap between culture and religion, with eastern cultures often showing less of a distinction between secular society and religious philosophy than western ones (Zimmermann, 2012). This is particularly true in Pakistan, where theology studies have found that cultural and religious elements can at times be indistinguishable (Jalal, 2012; Beyers, 2017). This overlap between religion and culture is highly visible in Pakistani art, history, landmarks, poetry, fashion and in festivals and ceremonies within the country which are often rooted in religious history. The importance of religion within the daily life of consumers is also visible in the advertising within the country. Adverts and marketing campaigns in Pakistan often incorporate cultural and religious values within the content and context of adverts (Salman, 2019).

Pakistan is a multicultural society and there can be inherent differences between the values, beliefs, behaviour, consumption choices and practises of individuals within the same social class and circle. Some individuals have a strong belief in conservative and traditional values and practices whereas others adopt more liberal and modern ones (Yousaf and Huaibin, 2013). There is also an overlap between the two; very traditional values can exist alongside modern ones (Saddiq, 2013; Yousaf and Mailk, 2013). These differences are likely to influence interpretation of stimuli and influence preferences for celebrity endorsers. However, as a country, Pakistan is very patriotic and despite the differences Pakistani consumers retain a national identity on a macro level (Rehman, 2019). This can be an important influencing factor in influencing consumer choices.

In Pakistan, globalisation has led to an increased exposure to western news channels and media which has consequently led to a high level of consumption of western entertainment and celebrity culture (Zubair and Yaqoob, 2012). This, combined with the presence of foreign brands in the market, has led to behavioural and psychological changes within individuals and has influenced consumption (Saddiq, 2013). Both foreign and local celebrities are popular in Pakistan and both are often used as endorsers.

Despite these societal changes and the adoption of western culture and values, religious identity is an important factor in the county (Saddiq, 2013). An estimated 95 percent of the population in Pakistan identifies as Muslim (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2019). However, there can often be a disconnect between belief in the religion and in the practice and adoption of the values belonging to that religion (Khraim, 2010; Akhter, Sattar and Umar, 2011). As Pakistani culture is heavily influenced by Islam, it is possible that the level of religiosity could be a valuable factor in understanding and categorising consumer behaviour in Pakistan and could prove to be an effective method of segmenting the market.

Similarly to culture, religious values are often embedded in deep emotions. They guide values and can influence ethics, attitudes, consumer choice and behaviour (Solomon et al., 2010; De Mooij, 2019). This makes it necessary for marketers to be respectful and aware of religion, as individuals can perceive stimuli from a religious perspective leading to the advertising message being distorted or not communicated as intended (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). The diverse culture of Pakistan, which is a blend of societal values influenced by the Islamic religion, can influence the perception and interpretation of stimuli in celebrity-endorsed adverts and affect consumer attitudes. This further demonstrates the need for research into Pakistani consumers.

The aforementioned reasons make Pakistan an interesting country for academic study. There is a need for insight into the culture and religious practices to determine their impact on consumer behaviour. However, despite its substantial potential as a consumer market, Pakistan has received limited attention in academic research –

especially in the field of marketing and consumer behaviour. There is also a need for appropriate scales to measure cultural and religious values in Pakistan (El-Menouar, 2014).

Located in Western Europe and forming part of the United Kingdom, England is one of the largest economies in the world and an attractive consumer market for businesses (International Monetary Fund, 2019). In contrast to the eastern market of Pakistan, the British market is well represented in academic research as existing literature and theory on celebrity endorsement has largely been developed and validated by conducting research in western markets (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Biswas, Hussain and O'Donnell, 2009; Schimmelpfennig, 2018).

A survey of the communications channels in Pakistan and England shows that multinational brands using celebrity endorsers often standardise their adverts between the two countries. This is most apparent in the fashion and beauty industry. The markets of England and Pakistan can be exceedingly diverse in theory (Minkov et al., 2017). The dominant beliefs and values within the country can differ and possibly lead to significant differences between the behaviour of consumers residing within the western and eastern cultural markets. Furthermore, England has a highly individualistic culture (Hofstede Insights, 2020) which responds well to a low-context communication style (Hall, 1976; De Mooij, 2017; De Mooij, 2019); Pakistan in contrast would be more suited to a high-context communication style (Hall, 1983; Minkov et al., 2017; De Mooij, 2019). The diversity between the two markets can make for an intriguing comparative study.

1.1.3 Fashion marketing context

This research focuses on celebrity endorsement from a cross-cultural perspective within the context of fashion marketing. This context is chosen due to the prevalence of the communications technique within the industry. The fashion industry is one of the most profitable industries in the world (Amed et al., 2016), and encompasses a wide range of product categories.

At times, a distinction is made between the fashion and beauty industry. The fashion industry is used to refer to textiles and footwear whereas the beauty industry encompasses cosmetics, fragrance and skin and hair products. However, the British Fashion Council categorises the beauty industry as a part of the fashion industry, as does academic literature on fashion marketing (Easey, 2009). This categorisation has therefore been adopted for this study. The complete list of fashion services and products is shown in Figure 1.

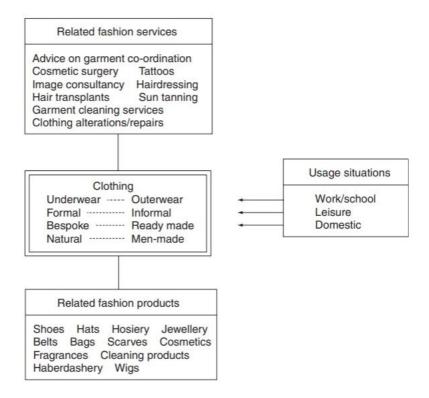


Figure 1: Fashion products and services (adapted from Easey, 2009)

Fashion remains a truly competitive industry. This is partly because what is perceived as 'fashionable' is temporary and constantly evolving (Easey, 2009; Matthews, 2010). The fashion house Christian Dior is reported to have the largest market share in the industry, with approximately one percent of the global market (Easey, 2009), signifying that brands and companies constantly face hyper-competition, therefore increasing the need for effective marketing strategies. When advertising fashion products, one of the most important elements is the need to showcase them on a human model (Easey, 2009). The current fashion trends within a culture can be determined by luxury fashion brands and haute couture houses. Haute couture is generally advertised through runway fashion shows and by styling celebrities for prestigious events (Easey, 2009). These haute couture fashion trends are used as inspiration for high-end luxury fashion brands and these in combination are used to determine high street fashion (Easey, 2009, Pitchers, 2019). Fashion trends in society are consequently often derived from celebrities who are popular within a particular country (O'Connor, 2017).

Fashion products are often purchased for their symbolic value and the implied meanings associated with their consumption within society (Matthews, 2010). This is evidenced by the popularity of branded fashion products, which have symbolic cues, over non-branded ones (Carroll, 2009). Both celebrities and fashion brands largely influence aspects of the ideal self of consumers. They have an impact on the standards of beauty within society and can affect consumer aspirations (Carroll, 2009). Purchasing celebrity-endorsed fashion products also enhances consumers' self-esteem and helps craft the desired image within society (Carroll, 2009; Sood, Quintal and Phau, 2017).

The high level of product-brand congruence between celebrities and fashion products makes the use of celebrity endorsement an ideal strategy in fashion marketing. Fashion brands also often collaborate with celebrities to design fashion and beauty products. Examples include Stella McCartney and singer/songwriter Taylor Swift, Tommy Hilfiger collaborating with actress Zendaya and model Gigi Hadid (Bramley, 2019), Victoria Beckham's collection with Estèe Lauder (Rosenstein, 2017) and actress and singer Selena Gomez's collaboration with Coach (Liao, 2019). Using celebrity endorsers with the desired characteristics and relying on the meaning transfer process via the endorsement is an effective and efficient way for fashion brands to use symbolism and association to craft the desired brand image. Furthermore, as celebrity endorsement also enhances brand image, recall and attitude, it helps marketers cut through the advertising clutter of the saturated fashion market. This synergy has made celebrity endorsement one of the most widely used communication techniques in fashion marketing (Chiosa, 2013) around the world, including the markets of England and Pakistan. However, despite this, studies specifically researching the impact of celebrity endorsement on fashion marketing are limited.

The distinct culture within the countries of England and Pakistan creates diversity between the eastern and western markets (Solomon et al., 2010). Comparing celebrity-endorsed adverts for fashion products between local and foreign brands in Pakistan reveals distinct differences in the portrayal of the celebrity and the context of the adverts (Faiza and Farooqi, 2013). Western and eastern countries can have different responses to the context of celebrity-endorsed adverts (Liu and Liu, 2019) especially when the advertising content and context uses sexuality. The use of sex appeal in advertising is a successful strategy in England and is especially dominant within the fashion industry (Attwood, 2005). The inclusion of sex appeal can increase persuasion of the advertising message, attract consumer attention, increase brand recall, help differentiate brand and product, boost the believability of the advert and lead to greater emotional attachment to the product in western markets (Clow and Baack, 2007; Putrevu, 2008; Anabila, Tagoe and Asare, 2015; Black and Morton, 2017). In direct contrast, Pakistani culture and the Islamic religion both strongly discourage behaving and dressing in a manner that is perceived as sexual in nature, while sexuality is associated with immoral and unethical behaviour (Faiza and Faroogi, 2013; Jan and Abdullah, 2015). Moreover, Muslims in general have shown a negative attitude towards the inclusion of sexuality in adverts and believe sex appeal is overused (Bayraktar, 2012; Ismail and Melewar, 2014). However, sexuality is still present in the media, entertainment and fashion industries in Pakistan.

This direct contrast between consumer perceptions of sexuality in England and Pakistan makes it an interesting and compelling context for research. However, current studies on the topic are limited in Pakistan. It is also worthwhile to analyse the similarities and differences on the actual impact of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed advertising between the two markets and analyse its effect on consumer perceptions, attitudes and any subsequent effect on consumer purchase intention. Due to the aforementioned culture and religion within the country, identifying the connection between consumer behaviour within Pakistan and involvement with Islamic religious practices would also be constructive.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

This research conducts a cross-cultural comparative study to investigate the impact of celebrity-endorsed advertising on consumer perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions within the context of fashion marketing. The aim is to develop a conceptual model which can be used to predict the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions across cultures and use the model to identify similarities and differences between consumer response to both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising across the cultural markets of England and Pakistan. In addition to expanding the literature on celebrity endorsement and addressing the need for research into the field from a cross-cultural perspective, this research further aims to enhance understanding of Pakistani Muslim consumers by identifying how behavioural religiosity can impact on consumer response to celebrity-endorsed advertising with the overarching purpose to further comprehension of an underrepresented market. Due to the relative lack of available scales that can be used in this study to categorise and measure Islamic behavioural religiosity, a multi-item scale is developed, tested and operationalised to realise the aim of this research.

As this link between culture, consumer perceptions, attitudes and behaviour intentions towards the use of celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing is studied, the research aims to provide fresh, valuable insight into the field of consumer behaviour and its link to cultural anthropology. The following three research objectives have been formulated for this study to address the overall aim of the research:

Objective 1: Develop and test a conceptual model that predicts the impact of celebrity-endorsed advertising on consumer purchase intentions.

The conceptual model is developed after conducting a review of the literature and models that are of relevance to the focus and topic of this research. The developed model will be tested using structural equation modelling to assess and establish its validity. This research also tests the mediating role of consumer perceptions and attitudes in predicting the aforementioned relationship. The cross-cultural nature of this study will also test the suitability of the developed model across British and Pakistani culture to determine whether it is applicable across cultures.

Objective 2: By comparison of the developed model amongst British and Pakistani consumers, investigate whether paths within the model differ among the consumer groups when both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising is utilised.

In order to create successful advertising and communications strategies, it is critical for marketers to ensure that the manner in which advertising content is perceived within different cultures and belief systems is as intended (De Mooij, 2019). This objective will highlight differences and similarities in the manner that individuals from the diverse western and eastern cultures interpret and perceive stimuli of both an explicitly sexual and nonsexual nature. It will also shed light on whether the intended message of marketers can be effectively translated to the Pakistani culture in a manner that is similar to countries with western cultures.

Objective 3: Identify whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices can account for differences between consumer response to both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising in the Pakistani market.

Pakistan is a country founded with an Islamic religious identity which strongly discourages sexuality. This objective is used to investigate whether religiosity within the country can account for differences within consumer response to both explicitly sexual and nonsexual celebrity-endorsed adverts. Using multi-group analysis, comparisons between Pakistani consumers will be conducted on the basis of behavioural religiosity. This objective is used to provide insight into the Pakistani market thus furthering understanding of an under-researched market.

1.3 Contributions of the study

1.3.1 Theoretical contributions

This research hopes to extend and add to the body of literature on celebrity endorsement by examining the influence of culture and religion on the practice. Established theories and models on celebrity endorsement are subjected to testing and cross-cultural validation. Source models, the match-up hypothesis and the meaning transfer model are examined and their transferability and applicability across markets is determined. By selecting the markets of Pakistan and England, this study aims to understand the similarities and differences between the two countries, and the subsequent implications for theory.

This research expects to make an empirical contribution by developing scales to measure consumer involvement with the Islamic religion. By their practical utilisation, the scales are also subjected to testing and validation. Using the developed measures in the study also contributes to the literature on cross-cultural consumer research.

Although there is substantial literature on the topics of celebrity endorsement, perception, attitude and purchase intention, the relationship between the different research streams is limited and has not been analysed robustly (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). This research creates a conceptual model by reviewing and examining existing theory and modelling the relationships between the different concepts and topics. The developed model will then be amended and presented according to research findings thereby making a conceptual contribution. The cross-cultural study will also examine the impact of culture on this model to determine its cross-cultural validity and applicability. Additionally, despite celebrity endorsement being widely used in fashion marketing, few studies on celebrity endorsement are conducted within the specific context. This research aims to connect the disciplines to enhance understanding.

This study also expects to add to and extend the literature on culture and its impact on consumer behaviour. Pakistan is a culturally diverse market, selecting the country for research helps to analyse aspects of the unique blend of culture and religion within the

country and further understanding into a market that is under-represented in academia. The approach is to study existing concepts from a new perspective to widen knowledge on the subject areas. Furthermore, the results of the study will also provide valuable insights into other South Asian markets and help in the understanding of the behaviour of Muslim consumers more generally.

1.3.2 Practical contributions

It is anticipated that the research will also provide valuable information for practitioners. The cross-cultural study will produce usable data on the British and Pakistani markets which can aid marketers operating within the two countries in developing advertising strategies using celebrity endorsement. The research will also help identify whether there are cross-cultural differences between the perception and preference of celebrity endorsers. This can guide companies in the selection of endorsers and in determining whether they are likely to be transferable across the two chosen countries.

Information on the similarities and differences between British and Pakistani consumers' perceptions of the advertising content and context will be provided, along with information on consumer response to sexuality in fashion advertising with the purpose to help and enable marketers to design advertising campaigns which are more suited to their consumers. It will also help determine whether companies should standardise or adapt celebrity endorsement adverts between the markets and the strategy that would prove most suitable. Information regarding the impact of celebrity endorsement on brand attitudes and consumer purchase intention will allow for the data to be used strategically to maximise the impact of marketing efforts. More broadly, this research expects to provide a rationale for the need for more thorough market research with regard to the impact of culture and religion on society and consumer practices (Berry, 2015) to determine the need for ensuring cultural sensitivity in advertising across borders.

Finally, examining whether religious involvement accounts for significant differences in consumer behaviour will also help marketers determine its use in market

segmentation. Islam is deemed the fastest-growing religion in the world and is currently the second-largest religion globally (BBC, 2017; Sherwood, 2017). This makes it critical for companies around the world to consider its impact for advertising.

1.4 Chapter concluding remarks and thesis structure

This chapter provided an overview of the background and impact of the topic being researched along with the importance of the chosen markets. The rationale of the chosen context of the study was discussed to determine its relevance. The aims and objectives of the thesis are outlined and expected contributions to knowledge and practice are presented. The next chapter will review and critique the existing literature on the topics inherent in this study and a conceptual framework will be developed for testing. The research questions and developed hypotheses will also be outlined and escribed. Chapter 3 will explain and justify the methodology adopted by the study and present and analyse the qualitative research process used to develop scales for measuring religious involvement. Details will also be provided on sampling and data collection.

The data analysis and results of hypothesis testing will be included in Chapter 4 and the discussion of the findings will be presented in Chapter 5. The conceptual framework will be evaluated and its applicability in the British and Pakistani markets will be reviewed in these chapters. The thesis will conclude with Chapter 6, which will summarise the study and present the implication of findings and actual contributions made by the research. Limitations of the study will also be discussed and recommendations for further research will be made.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2. Chapter overview

This chapter examines and critically reviews the available literature on the various topics included in this study. Primarily, a background and overview of the literature within the field of celebrity endorsement is carried out. Theory within the field, which forms the basis of this study, is reviewed, examined and critiqued. The impact of celebrity endorsement on consumers is then investigated and relevant models within the field of consumer behaviour are reviewed. The purpose is to conceptualise the manner in which celebrity endorsement can impact on consumer purchase intentions from a theoretical perspective.

The overall impact of culture on the manner in which consumers can respond to celebrity-endorsed advertising is considered. As the vast majority of theories have been mainly developed and validated in western markets, an exploration of the eastern market of Pakistan is undertaken. Cultural influences within the country are considered and a review of the Islamic religion, its entailment, and how it can impact on consumers is investigated. This will provide a wider understanding of how the salient values and beliefs within the country may influence response to celebrity endorsement, and help enable insight into Pakistani consumers in general. This chapter will conclude by outlining the development of a working model that conceptualises the effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention. The objectives for this study are then revisited in detail and hypotheses are developed for testing.

2.1 Celebrity endorsement and impact on consumer behaviour

2.1.1 Developments in celebrity endorsement literature

Since the 1950s there have been a multitude of studies in the field of celebrity endorsement with varying focus on different aspects of the practice. Firstly, initial focus was on what constitutes a successful endorser and the process celebrity endorsement follows when it is successful (Hovland and Weiss, 1951; McCracken,

1989; Kamins, 1990). There was then a shift towards the advantages of endorsement for the brand (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 1999; Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). As this research became extensive and models were established in the western context, there was a shift in focus to negative celebrity behaviour (and portrayals) and how this could impact on the brand (Till and Shimp, 1998; Halonen-Knight and Hurmerinta, 2010; Thwaites et al., 2012). This could be due in part to the rise of social media, tabloids, gossip magazines and a celebrity culture which resulted in the personal, private and public lives of celebrities being showcased and scrutinised on public, often global, platforms (Johnson, 2005). In recent years, literature on celebrity endorsement has focused on celebrity attractiveness and on researching a societal shift in the manner in which negative celebrity endorsement is perceived (Sääksjärvi, Hellén and Balabanis, 2015). There has also been a fresh wave of research on re-visiting celebrity endorsement models and evaluating their impact on brand equity and consumer response (Knoll and Matthes, 2017; Proctor and Kitchen, 2019; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Research within the field remains ongoing, elaborate and plentiful in western markets, however, although some research has been conducted in eastern countries and cultures, these centre on East Asian markets and remain limited (Biswas, Hussain and O'Donnell, 2009; Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011). South Asian markets are, till date, largely under-represented as are cross-cultural studies in general.

In the following review, primarily, the definition of celebrity endorsement is discussed and evaluated and the use of the strategy within fashion marketing is analysed. Next, models of celebrity effectiveness within the endorsement literature and findings on how the practice can impact consumer response and behaviour is reviewed and critiqued and the theorised influence that culture may have on the practice is highlighted. The impact of celebrity endorsement on aspects of consumer behaviour is analysed to conceptualise the effects of the practice on consumer perceptions, attitudes and ultimately purchase intentions.

2.1.2 Definition and use of celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing

In marketing communications, endorsement is defined as a testimonial stating that the endorser approves of or supports a particular brand or product (McCracken, 1989). Literature in the field has traditionally categorised endorsers into different categories. There are four main types; typical consumers, professional experts, company officials and celebrities (Friedman, Termini and Washington, 1976). These categories are still adopted in more recent literature (Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Schimmelpfennig, 2018).

Typical consumers are generally classified as individuals who have no specialised skill or knowledge in regard to the endorsed product and brand but represent the average consumer who makes up the end user (Friedman and Friedman, 1979). Using typical consumers as endorsers can increase believability and familiarity with brands as they represent the general public (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Professional experts are viewed as possessing specialised skills or knowledge relating to the endorsement and are generally deemed to be very credible as a result (Friedman and Friedman, 1979). Company officials are sometimes categorised as professional experts, however, company officials can be company presidents and CEOs or workers who are employed by or have a personal stake in the brand or corporation that is being endorsed. They can often be viewed as having knowledge regarding the inner workings of the endorsed product or its manufacturing process (Friedman, Termini and Washington, 1976).

All endorsers have proven to have a positive impact on promoting the brand, and different types of endorsers often help serve different marketing objectives or are most effective when paired with different categories of products (Friedman and Friedman, 1979; Knoll and Matthes, 2017). Although there are instances where one of the other types of endorsers has proven to be more successful, research has shown that, when employed successfully, it is celebrity endorsers who have the most significant effect on consumer behaviour (Wang, Cheng and Chu, 2012; Proctor and Kitchen, 2019). Celebrity endorsers have been shown to increase brand awareness,

enhance believability in the advertising message, create brand equity, lead to enhanced positive attitudes towards brands and increase consumer purchase intention (Till and Busler, 2000; La Ferle and Choi, 2005; Cobb-Walgren, Ruble and Donthu, 2013; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

Despite celebrity endorsement becoming a widespread practice and the vast research conducted on the topic, there is still a lack of consistency on the definition of celebrity endorsement. Although in the 1980s and 1990s there were efforts made to categorise, differentiate and clearly define what constitutes the term, there is still no consistent definition that has been adopted by academics and practitioners. More recent studies such as; Fong and Wyer (2012), Keel and Nataraajan (2012), use the term without providing a definition. However, investigation into the definition of celebrity endorsers becomes critical not only for selecting a suitable endorser, but also in robustly categorising the practice and ensuring research is more concise and focused. This ensures that vast studies within the field are investigating the same phenomenon. Consequently, definitions provided in earlier research are evaluated and scrutinised to provide a rationale for the categorisation used in this study.

Friedman and Friedman (1979) define a celebrity endorser as a person who advertises a product and is well known for achievements in areas which are different from the advertised product category. This definition is adopted by some recent studies (Choisa, 2013; Roy and Mishra, 2018). However, real-life examples evidence that celebrity endorsers can, in fact, be known for achievements related to the product category being endorsed e.g. model Cara Delevingne endorsing Dior (Dior, 2019) and Rimmel (Rosseinsky, 2016). Furthermore, according to Friedman and Friedman's (1979) definition of celebrity, a well-known sports figure endorsing an athletic product e.g. Michael Jordan endorsing Nike would also not be classified as a form of celebrity endorsement. This demonstrates that the definition does not encompass the practice in a holistic manner.

McCracken (1989) offers another definition, classifying a celebrity endorser as "any individual who enjoys public recognition and uses this recognition on behalf of a

consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement" (McCracken, 1989, p. 310). This definition is also accepted and still used in academic research i.e. Biswas, Biswas and Das (2006), Hassan and Jamil, (2014) and Schimmelpfennig (2018). The aforementioned definition of celebrity endorser is also more inclusive and effective in capturing the multifaceted nature of celebrities, acknowledging that there can exist an overlap between the different types of endorsers. Company presidents and professional experts can also be classified as celebrities if they enjoy public recognition (McCracken, 1989). This can be witnessed by looking at the examples of individuals like Steve Jobs, Walt Disney, Serena Williams, Michael Jordan and Elon Musk, who are company presidents and/or professional experts while simultaneously being well known to qualify as celebrities. Celebrities can also be classified as consumers of a product or brand, however, their celebrity status prevents them from being viewed as 'typical'. This ability of celebrities to possess attributes of different types of endorsers makes them unique and enhances their effectiveness (Moulard, Garrity and Rice, 2015). The definition by McCracken (1987; 1989) is adopted for this research as it provides a more holistic encapsulation of the practice and is consistent with the use of celebrity endorsement and overcomes the limitations posed by the definition provided by Friedman and Friedman (1979).

Research finds that fame has a higher impact in invoking an emotional response than beauty (Stallen et al., 2010) which importantly indicates that it is the public recognition which is essential and forms the core from which the effectiveness of a celebrity stems from. This signifies that celebrities who are well known are likely to have more of an impact than lesser-known celebrities. This suggests that there might be limitations to the transferability of celebrity endorsers across different markets, and that celebrities might not have the same impact on consumer response across cultures. The impact of fame on consumer emotions also evidences that individuals who have universal recognition and are global celebrities would be more likely to have cross-cultural transferability. Digital and print media is saturated with pictures and news of celebrities, consequently giving them a high profile, idiosyncratic qualities and a glamorous image in the eyes of the public (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005). The Celebrities often personify an image people aspire to be, appealing to a consumer's ideal self and forming part of the consumer's extended self (Solomon et al., 2010; Choi and Rifon, 2012). This gives celebrities the potential to influence consumer decisions (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Winterich, Gangwar and Grewal, 2018). The process through which a celebrity is given a certain image is often done in the same manner in which a brand image is formed, as celebrities are essentially brands (Ambroise et al., 2014; Proctor and Kitchen, 2019).

As previously noted, the use of celebrity endorsement is particularly prevalent in the fashion and beauty industry. Celebrities have an impact within the fashion industry as their aspirational images can lead consumers to emulate their fashion and beauty choices. In this manner, celebrities can determine what is seen as fashionable within a particular society, influencing fashion and beauty trends (Easey, 2009; Sood, Quintal and Phau, 2017). This creates substantial congruence between celebrities and fashion brands and products which creates synergy between the two. As such, celebrities are frequently used in the fashion industry to create, develop and change brand personality (Hatch and Schultz, 2001; Choisa, 2013). Celebrities not only influence fashion trends but can also determine and influence the notion of what exactly is classified as fashionable and determine the notion of beauty (Sood, Quintal and Phau, 2017). However, limited research has looked at the use of celebrity endorsement and the manner in which it impacts consumer response within the fashion industry and there is no clear categorisation of the different ways in which celebrities can implicitly or explicitly endorse fashion and beauty products and brands. For this reason an effort is made to categorise the different ways in which celebrities and the fashion and beauty industry can be associated with one another by reviewing the use of the practise within the industry in practise.

Looking at celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing allows for five different types of endorsements to be identified (Appendix 1 illustrates the examples given for each identified category):

- Unofficial or unintended endorsement: this occurs when the celebrity has purchased the product and is consuming the product in public, for example Prince Charles and Princess Diana seen wearing Burberry in the 1980s or, more recently, Kate Middleton wearing a Burberry trench coat and fashion model Miranda Kerr wearing Isabel Marant footwear.
- Unpaid endorsement: a fashion brand or designer may choose to showcase their product on a celebrity at an event to gain exposure. For example; singer/actor Harry Styles wearing Gucci at the Met Gala.
- Official celebrity endorsement: a celebrity endorses a product by appearing with it in an advert (e.g. Taylor Swift for CoverGirl and Emma Watson for Burberry, Johnny Depp for Dior).
- 4. Collaboration: celebrities collaborate with brands to create their own product lines, for example the actress and singer Hilary Duff with Femme for DKNY JEANS and Britney Spears for Candies at Kohl's, Selena Gomez for Coach and Taylor Swift for Stella McCartney.
- Self-endorsement: celebrities can also endorse their own brands. Some examples include; The Row by actresses Mary-Kate and Ashley Olsen, Fenty by Rihanna and Kylie Cosmetics by Kylie Jenner.

In all of the above examples, the celebrities have showcased their approval and support of a fashion brand. This classification also helps further understand the practice and categorisation of celebrity endorsement – particularly when it comes to the context of fashion marketing.

Fashion and beauty products have become items that celebrities need to utilise in their public lives regardless of endorsement contracts (McQuarrie, Miller and Phillips, 2013). Information regarding a celebrity and their various types of associations with a brand can be widely published in print and digital media platforms across markets and cultures (Proctor and kitchen, 2019). This classification helps understand and demonstrate that, first, celebrities and the fashion industry are interconnected in multiple ways; and second, as celebrities and brand associations can form in numerous ways, the endorsed brand needs to consider the wider international implications of

these associations – especially when advertising across cultures, where perceptions of the various associations and types of endorsement may be different.

As noted, in western markets, the use of sexual content and images in advertising is an established practice used within a multitude of diverse industries (Sengupta and Dahl, 2008). In the fashion and beauty industry, this strategy is widely used across brands and product categories (Easey, 2009). Sexuality is often seen as a desirable physical trait within western cultures (Jan and Abdullah, 2015). Fashion and beauty products can be purchased by consumers to create or enhance their own sexual appeal (Attwood, 2005; Easey, 2009). The widespread use of sexuality in advertising and celebrity-endorsed adverts stems from the underlying notion that sex appeal is a desirable trait and therefore elicits a positive response from consumers (Till and Busler, 2000; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). These factors work in congruence with each other to further increase the use and success of sexual content in celebrity-endorsed adverts. Appendix 2 displays celebrity-endorsed adverts from multiple brands in the fashion and beauty industry which help illustrate the frequency of the use of sexually explicit content.

Sexuality can also lead to an increased emotional response, which can create stronger connections and memory recall (Black and Morton, 2017). Sexuality in adverts can lead to consumers focusing their attention on the executional style of an advert, thus bypassing other elements regarding the brand, leading to favourable attitudes and higher purchase intentions (Clow and Baack, 2007; Putrevu, 2008; Anabila, Tagoe and Asare, 2015). Findings from research also indicate an overall favourable response to nudity in fashion marketing, which can lead to the advert being seen as eye-catching, distinctive, interesting and more appealing (Black and Morton, 2017).

However, sexuality is perceived through the interpretation and classification of stimuli, which are guided by situational and cognitive beliefs, and as such can be culturally dependent (Solomon et al., 2010). Studies have found that the consumer response to sexuality in advertising can be dependent upon cultural background, with Asian consumers showing reduced acceptability of sexuality in adverts (Ismail and Melewar,

2014). Furthermore, Pakistani culture and Islamic religious values discourage sexuality as a concept (Akhter, Sattar and Umar, 2011; Jan and Abdullah, 2015). This signifies the presence of cross-cultural differences between the response to the inclusion of sexuality in advertising across British and Pakistani consumers.

2.1.3 Models of celebrity effectiveness

Since the study into endorsement began, research has focused on identifying the aspects which maximise the success of celebrity endorsement (Hovland and Weiss, 1951; Atkin and Block, 1983; Kahle and Homer, 1985). The most notable and widely established of these are the source models and the match-up hypothesis. These are reviewed and evaluated in turn through the prism of the aim of this research

2.1.3.1 Source models

Substantial research has been carried out to analyse the psychological effect of celebrity endorsement on consumer behaviour with the objective of identifying and categorising the reasons for its effectiveness and success. Numerous theories have been developed to identify the endorsement process and the manner in which it enhances the advertising process i.e. Lafferty (2002), La Ferle and Choi (2005), Wang and Scheinbaum (2018). To understand the reasoning behind the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers, research has distinguished the desirable characteristics of the source the information is coming from (Liu, Haung and Minghua, 2007). This source, in the case of celebrity endorsement, is the celebrity itself.

The source models state that effectiveness of a celebrity endorser depends on their perceived level of credibility and attractiveness, i.e. the source credibility model and the source attractiveness model.

Source attractiveness

The source attractiveness model has roots in social psychology (and states that the effectiveness of an endorser is dependent on the attractiveness of the celebrity endorser (the source), and can be categorised by the celebrity's physical attractiveness and perceived level of likeability along with the consumer's level of familiarity with and similarity to the celebrity (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). It is important to

acknowledge that each of these aspects can influence the other, but that they often have varying levels of influence on the overall effectiveness of the source (Ohanian, 1990; Till and Busler, 2000; Knoll and Matthes, 2017). The literature further indicates that source attractiveness is a determining factor in enhancing celebrity effectiveness particularly when attractiveness-related products are endorsed (Till and Busler, 2000; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). This would suggest that within the fashion and beauty industry, source attractiveness would directly impact the suitability and likelihood of celebrity making a successful and suitable endorser.

Research in the social sciences has found that the initial perception of individuals is heavily influenced by physical appearance and physical appeal. Opinions on whether a celebrity is perceived as beautiful can directly influence attractiveness (Eisend and Langner, 2010). Even when information is limited, individuals tend to make extensive inferences depending only on visual signals (Carrillat and Ilicic, 2019). The physical attractiveness of a celebrity is comprised of desirable physical attributes and other aspects such as how beautiful, classy, elegant and sexy the celebrity is perceived to be (Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).

Similarity is categorised by how alike consumers perceive the celebrity to be with themselves. This not only increases the attractiveness of the source but also enables individuals to better envision themselves consuming the product and benefiting from its associations (Till and Busler, 2000).

The familiarity of the celebrity endorser is determined by how 'known' the celebrity is. This usually increases along with the popularity of the celebrity (Schimmelpfennig, 2018). If consumers have been frequently exposed to the celebrity it is likely to enhance their level of exposure to the celebrity and thus increase familiarity (Bower and Landreth, 2001; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Although the literature categorises familiarity as increasing endorser effectiveness, it is useful to note that being well known is not in itself a positive trait – it needs to be supplemented with other attributes to be advantageous. The likability of the celebrity can be influenced by multiple factors such as charisma, social approach, mannerisms and other personal traits. The perceived level of physical attractiveness, similarity and familiarity of the celebrity all contribute to the likability of the source (Till and Busler, 2000; Bergkvist, 2016). Additionally, the product category being endorsed has also found to have an impact on the specific attributes which would form the overall attractiveness of an endorser (Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007).

Although all traits of attractiveness are beneficial to an endorsed brand, physically attractive endorsers can increase acceptance (Baker and Churchill, 1977; Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018), facilitate attitude change and increase brand recall more effectively than celebrities who are likeable but not as physically attractive (Kahle and Homer, 1985; Till and Busler; 2000). Furthermore, physical attractiveness has been found to positively enhance other endorser attributes (Till and Busler, 2000; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016). Overall, an attractive source has also been found to directly influence consumers and increase their intention to purchase the endorsed product (Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007).

The review of the source attractiveness model reveals that although more recent literature has evaluated the usefulness of the model, the underpinning conceptualisation has remained the same over time. However, findings are concentrated within western markets and the model has not been adequately tested across diverse markets to establish cross-cultural validity. There is little known in relation to whether the attractiveness of celebrities can transcend cultural markets. From more general studies within the field of consumer behaviour and culture, it is evident that culture can determine what physical attributes are perceived as attractive (Solomon et al., 2010) and additionally, that cultural dimensions – such as whether a country has an individualistic or collectivist culture – can influence whether aspirational or relatable beauty is more effective when it comes to selecting a celebrity endorser (De Mooij, 2019). Additionally, as attributes which enhance source attractiveness are also influenced by the product category being endorsed, in the context of fashion marketing, cross-cultural research becomes essential. Furthermore,

research finds that physically attractive celebrities often emanate sexuality, and this can have a fundamentally positive effect on information processing (Liu, Haung and Minghua, 2007; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). As noted, sexuality is particularly prevalent within the fashion industry but findings suggest it is not necessarily a universally desired attribute. The need to evaluate the conceptualisation of the source models across-cultures is evident and the findings within the literature itself indicate the need for research into the transferability of celebrity endorsers across markets and identify whether the same source can indeed be perceived as physically attractive and likable by diverse consumer groups.

Source credibility

Stemming from social psychology, another early established model within the field of endorsement which is still utilised within studies is the source credibility model. The model suggests that celebrities who are perceived as trustworthy and demonstrate expertise are seen as being credible, and thus make for more effective endorsers (Hovland and Weiss, 1951). This finding is still echoed in recent studies (Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020).

Source expertise is the extent to which a celebrity is perceived as having specialised knowledge on and in relation to the product category being endorsed. A celebrity that is viewed as being experienced, qualified and skilled in a related field of work will make for a more effective endorser (Lee and Thorson, 2008; Winterich, Gangwar and Grewal, 2018). This suggests that in marketing fashion products, the celebrity being viewed as an expert on the fashion market will also correlate highly with the celebrity being perceived as aesthetically pleasing and desirable by target consumers.

Trustworthiness is the extent to which the source of endorsement is perceived as being believable and can be relied upon to give information in an unbiased and honest manner (Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007; Fleck, Korchia and Roy, 2012). It can be categorised by multiple factors such as the extent to which a celebrity is viewed as being moral, honest, dependable, and having integrity (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Trust, in turn, also appears to be positively correlated with celebrity likability. The likeability of the celebrity is positively correlated by the public's perceived similarity with the celebrity (Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Knoll and Matthes, 2017). Source trustworthiness is found to be a critical factor enhancing the credibility of an endorser (Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Carrillat and Ilicic, 2019). A celebrity who is deemed as trustworthy is often a less questionable source and will therefore increase faith and believability in the advertising message and product claims. Further research also found additional variables which influence the believability of the endorser. Factors such as whether the celebrity is seen to be a consumer of the products themselves, whether they are endorsing a multitude of products, whether the celebrity genuinely supports the advertising message or has accepted the endorsement for financial reasons all contribute to the overall trustworthiness of the message (Goldsmith, Lafferty and Newell, 2000; Chang, 2014).

Although both source expertise and source trustworthiness enhance credibility and can influence each other, there is not necessarily always a covariance between these two. The rationale for this is that although a celebrity may be deemed as an expert, they might not be perceived to be trustworthy by the public. Similarly, even though a celebrity may be trustworthy, they may lack the perceived expertise for endorsing a specific category of product (Lee and Thorson, 2008). Previously, source attractiveness was found as an essential factor in establishing and enhancing overall credibility, however, further research determined that using a celebrity who is seen to be very physically attractive can, in fact, lower believability in the advert if it is not essential to the product category being endorsed (Dean and Biswas, 2001).

The source credibility model has been used frequently in the literature on celebrity endorsement, and results have shown that credible celebrities do in fact make for effective endorsers (La Ferle and Choi, 2005; Lord and Putrevu, 2009; Knoll and Matthes, 2017). Research finds that although credibility can increase the effectiveness of the endorsement, in the case of endorsement, the information source is not solely the celebrity but also the company that is producing the product (Goldsmith, Lafferty and Newell, 2000; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016). These findings would indicate that for the endorsement to be successful in influencing consumer purchase intentions, both the celebrity and the company must be perceived as credible. This illustrates the need to consider the role of the brand when investigating the impact of celebrities on consumers' intention to purchase the endorsed product or brand.

Upon reviewing the source credibility models it is emergent that, similarly to the source attractiveness model, there is little available research on whether different cultures will have the same perception regarding the perceived credibility of the same celebrity. Furthermore, although research in western markets has shown that source trustworthiness is not a critical factor in ensuring successful endorsement, it is unclear whether these findings are universal. Research shows that individuals will perceive a source in line with their value structures (Schwartz, 2012) and cultural research finds that Eastern cultures can have different moral values to Western ones (Sethna and Blythe, 2019). This is particularly true in Pakistan, where Islamic teachings of morality can potentially have a significant impact on the belief system. Furthermore, the Islamic teachings of modesty might lead to a display of sexuality being perceived as immoral, reducing the trustworthiness of the celebrity and, therefore, the effectiveness of the endorsement. It thus stands to reason that trustworthiness of a celebrity may be weighed differently across cultures and that consumer perception of what is classified as moral may be different across markets necessitating the need for research to bridge this gap between findings and their practical application.

2.1.3.2 Match-up hypothesis

Another widely used theory on the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement is the 'match-up hypothesis' (Kamins, 1990; Kamins and Gupta, 1994; Chang and Yong, 2016). This states that, for an endorsement to be successful, there must be a high level of congruence or 'fit' between the celebrity and the product and brand being endorsed (Till and Busler, 2000; Wright, 2016).

The model suggests that the characteristics of an endorser directly interact with the product category being endorsed (Kamins, 1990; Törn, 2012). Selecting a highly credible or attractive celebrity in isolation does not ensure that an endorsement will

be successful. For the celebrity to be considered as an effective endorser, the distinguished attributes and meanings of a celebrity should supplement and complement the product category being i.e. there should be a high level of congruence between the endorser and the endorsed product (Chang and Yong, 2016; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Reviewing more recent literature reveals that these earlier findings are still applicable. Although physical attractiveness enhances the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement, this is found to only hold true for specific product categories (Fleck, Korchia and Roy, 2012; Bergkvist, 2017). Attractive celebrities, when paired with attractiveness-related products, significantly increased the perceived credibility and attitude of the advert in comparison to physically unattractive celebrities (Till and Busler, 2000; Wright, 2016; Knoll and Matthes, 2017).

Studies which have subjected the effectiveness of the 'match-up hypothesis' to field testing have found that a high product match-up, even with a lesser attractive endorser, leads to higher purchase intention in comparison to using an endorser who is perceived as attractive but has a low level of match-up to the product category being endorsed (Liu, Haung and Minghua, 2007; Choi and Rifon, 2012 Törn, 2012). This is further reflected in studies measuring the importance of attractiveness which have found strong evidence to support the notion that an attractive celebrity will positively impact consumers' responses to attractiveness-related products – even products that are purchased for symbolic reasons, such as luxury cars (Till and Busler, 2000; Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007; Proctor and Kitchen, 2019). These findings would signify that for advertising fashion and beauty-related products, a physically attractive celebrity would be considered as having a high level of product-brand congruence which is supportive of the source attractiveness model reviewed earlier. An emergent theme stemming from the review of the findings is perception. Consumers must perceive there to be a match-up between the celebrity and endorsement signifying that, due to the influence of culture on perception, findings may differ across markets. However, the reviewed findings have yet to be robustly tested for validation across cultures. Interesting, Choi and Rifon (2012) find that for an advert to be successful, there not only needs to exist celebrity-brand congruence, but celebrity-consumer

congruence as well. Celebrities that are perceived as being similar to a consumer's self are likely to be more effective endorsers. However, as literature on the self-concept identifies culture as playing a role in shaping an individuals' sense of self and finds it to be a determining factor in consumers' motivation to maintain consistency between the self and consumption choices (Vignoles et al., 2016), it stands to reason that cultural variances in celebrity-endorsed advertising effectiveness may exist.

The success of using celebrities within fashion marketing can further be explained by the match-up hypothesis. As illustrated, whether intentionally or unintentionally, celebrities can be associated with fashion products in various ways and influence fashion and beauty trends. It stands to reason that the level of product-brand congruence can be enhanced by fashion brands selecting celebrities who are well known and admired for attributes which supplement the fashion product being endorsed, and are viewed as style or beauty icons with direct connections to the industry. However, whether the celebrity endorser is perceived as a suitable endorser can be subjective and unique to each target group. Furthermore, fashion is also impacted by media influence, traditions, social freedoms and aspirations, beauty standards and religious influences and beliefs (Easey, 2009). This signifies that to ensure a high level of product-brand congruence, it is critical to consider the cultural perception of the celebrity endorser

2.1.3.3 Meaning transfer model

An alternative model used to illustrate the effectiveness of celebrity endorsing is the meaning transfer model, which outlines how meanings and associations transfer from the celebrity to the consumer through the process of endorsement. The model iterates that the effectiveness of celebrity endorsement depends on two main factors: the meaning an endorser brings to the endorsement process and how efficiently and effectively meanings and associations transfer from a celebrity to the consumer through the process of endorsement (McCracken, 1989). This model, though dated, has formed the basis for a vast majority of the studies that have researched into the impact of endorsement on consumers' e.g. Batra and Homer (2004), Choi and Rifon (2012) and Arsena, Silvera, and Pandelaere (2014), and the principles underpinning the

meaning transfer model have been applied to a multitude of research contexts (Campbell and Warren, 2012; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020).

The meaning transfer model illustrates the three-step process through which various attributes and meanings associated with a celebrity endorser are transferred onto the consumer via the endorsement process (Roy and Jain, 2017; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Figure 2 shows the meaning transfer model. The model has three distinct stages and each is reviewed in turn.

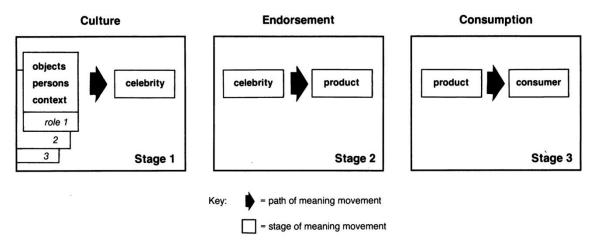


Figure 2: Meaning transfer model (adapted from McCracken, 1989)

Stage 1: Culture The first stage of the meaning transfer model is 'Culture'. This stage is concerned with explaining how the celebrity develops their image, attributes and associations. It also identifies the different variables which can have an impact on said associations. In contrast to the source models, in Stage 1 the meaning transfer model does not solely identify the desired celebrity attributes but illustrates the aspects which play a role in developing the attributes (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016). Celebrities are essentially brands themselves, and are rich in cultural meaning and associations that they cultivate over time (Ambroise et al., 2014). The meaning transfer model iterates that the source models provide limited assistance in capturing the multifaceted variables that can influence the associations the public forms regarding a celebrity which are harvested and bred (Jain and Roy, 2016; Roy and Jain, 2017). This

would suggest that attributes of a celebrity endorser are not necessarily objective in nature signifying potential inconsistencies across diverse markets depending on the popularity and familiarity of the celebrity.

What makes celebrities unique is that they are embedded with detailed and powerful meaning which is known to the public. This differentiates them from anonymous endorsers, as they give the advert not only demographic meanings but also a special image they have assimilated from their cultural surroundings (Jain and Roy, 2016). Celebrities further create their public personality in interviews, press releases and by interacting with fans. Celebrities personify the image they have created publicly and their meanings have been embedded in the mind of the public through their continuous presence in the media (Knoll and Matthes, 2017). In this first stage of the model, these various roles pass onto the celebrity and become part of their image.

Initial findings suggested celebrities as undertaking a passive role in their image creation (McCracken, 1989). However, from more recent findings we can gather that celebrities - especially global celebrities - have a management team including a publicist, and the image is often carefully crafted (Bergkvist, 2017; Suddath, 2017). A case can be made that the image of most multinational celebrities is carefully cultivated and managed in a strategic manner. This image is often utilised to secure endorsement deals and contracts, suggesting that celebrities might in fact be aware of the role they play in the endorsement process or at least in raising their demand as a desirable endorser. This further emphasises the question as to the cross-cultural transferability of the endorser, as celebrities often use social cues - which can be culturally specific – to build and develop their image. This can lead to undesirable associations being transferred onto the endorsed product (as in Stage 2 of the meaning transfer model). The stage of the model is called 'culture' as emphasis is placed on culture playing a significant part in assigning and cultivating the role and image of a celebrity. This showcases the importance of studying whether a celebrity whose role is culturally cultivated will have the same appeal across countries and markets with diverse cultures. Therefore, the need to consider perceptual differences across consumers is essential.

Stage 2: Endorsement Stage 2 of the model shows the movement of meaning from the celebrity to the product though the process of endorsement (Batra and Homer, 2004; Roy, 2018). This stage outlines the importance of aligning celebrity associations with the product to ensure that the desired image is transferred, and this can be done in multiple ways (Roy and Jain, 2017). From the review of endorsement literature, the most significant of these appears to be by the designing of the marketing campaign and the content and context of the advert featuring the celebrity.

Successful transfer of meaning from the celebrity to the product is critical in developing the brand image and personality and in increasing aspects of brand equity (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). The success of the transfer and endorsement process is directly impacted by the earlier stage of the model and by the selection of an endorser with the desired meanings and associations. Findings suggest that marketers need to capitalise on the public perception and memory recall of the various roles of the celebrity endorser (Roy and Jain, 2017). These findings would imply that in the event of successful meaning transfer across different markets, there needs to be cross-cultural homogeneity in the perceptions of the meanings and associations of an endorser and the attributes and symbolic properties of both the endorser and the product.

Another aspect identified for the success of an endorsement, as stemming from the review of the meaning transfer model, is the need for the marketing campaign and advertisement design to isolate, identify and reflect only the desired meanings from the celebrity onto the endorsed product which can be achieved by depicting the advertisement with contexts, objects and people that embody the same cultural significance as the chosen celebrity. This helps in extracting only the desired meaning from the celebrity and the use of the advert context helps in filtering out unwanted cultural significance that celebrities can potentially retain. Research shows that adverts should be designed to reflect or suggest the similarities between the celebrity and the product, enabling consumers to make the connection in a natural, unforced manner (Allen, Fornier and Miller, 2008). However, within the instance of products pertaining to the fashion and beauty industry, oft-used associations are physical attractiveness

and the desirability of the celebrity, which as identified, are frequently supplemented by adverts of a sexual nature.

As the second stage of the meaning transfer model is effective if consumers believe that characteristics of the celebrity are transferred onto the product, it stands to reason that celebrity-endorsed advertising that uses attributes related to sexuality might not have cross-cultural transferability. Furthermore as the literature suggests that the stage is reliant on consumers effectively translating the advertising message in the intended manner and being convinced that the associations have been transferred onto the endorsed product and, preferably, the brand, it would signify that consumers' interpreting, identifying, categorising and responding to stimuli in the intended manner is critical to the success of celebrity endorsement. However, as culture can form a filter through which stimulus is interpreted it therefore stands to reason that diverse markets will perceive the advert differently. Furthermore, memory recall is also highly influenced by perceptual selectivity, which can differ significantly across cultures (Solomon et al., 2010). Additionally, as noted, this key stage is extensively influenced by culture; despite this, studies investigating this impact across cultures remain limited.

Stage 3: Consumption The third stage illustrates how the meaning and associations which were transferred from the celebrity to the product in the previous stage are transferred onto the consumer through the act of consumption. However, the meaning of the product is not passed onto the consumer solely by purchasing the product. Rather, the meaning is transferred by the consumer claiming the product as their own, caring for it, and thus effectively 'consuming' the product (McCracken, 1989; Roy, 2018). Literature on consumption has found that consumers frequently seek products which bestow desirable meaning on their lives. Products are purchased to enhance consumers' sense of self and to help achieve the ideal self (Jobber, 2010). Consumers develop an attachment to material products and view possessions as part of themselves – possessions form part of the extended self of an individual (De Mooij, 2019).

Celebrities help facilitate the final stage of the model, as they have created their 'self' in the foremost stage of the model. Celebrities have clear, cohesive and coherent personas that appeal to the public (Choi and Rifon, 2012; Roy, 2018). This is seen as aspirational because celebrities have already cultivated a personality through the act of role-playing the consumption choices of consumers. As such, celebrities are viewed as exemplary individuals who directly influence consumer aspirations and ideals of the self (De Mooij, 2019). Consumers, viewing products as part of their extended selves, wish to purchase the product in the final stage of the model in an attempt to emulate a celebrity's associations, which they believe are passed onto the product in the second stage through the process of endorsement (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). This is particularly true in the fashion and beauty sector, where celebrities are seen as an authority on the products within this industry. It can therefore be said that celebrities essentially transfer cultural meanings into a tangible form which can be purchased and consumed and transferred onto the purchaser.

Synthesising findings from the review of the relevant literature, the usefulness of the meaning transfer model in identifying the process through which celebrity associations transfer onto the endorsed product/brand and thus the consumer is manifest. Studies also evidence that symbolic meanings and associations of a celebrity are critical for overall success the overall success of the endorsement (Miller and Allen, 2012; Wang, Cheng and Chu, 2012; Roy and Jain, 2017; Proctor and Kitchen, 2019; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020) and as such, the model is also useful in providing underlying reasoning behind the success of celebrities over other types of endorsers. However, emergent from the review of the literature are three main queries and gaps; first, despite culture playing a dominant role in the effectiveness of endorsement, there is an inherent lack of research on how the stages or meaning transfer are impacted across cultures and on whether the model itself is applicable across diverse cultures. Second, there is limited emphasis on consideration of social, cultural and environmental factors which can influence consumer perceptions, attitudes and behavioural intentions to consume an endorsed product. Third, despite the extensive application of the model across

academic research, there is a lack of consistency between resultant findings stemming from the studies in relation to the impact on celebrity endorsement on consumers.

2.1.3.4 Summarisation of critique of celebrity models

The review of the literature on models of celebrity endorsement reveals that even as research in the field of celebrity endorsement has progressed and shifted, the fundamental underpinnings of the theory have remained the same. In fact, the earliest research on the topic still forms the basis upon which more recent research builds (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Evaluation of the literature also reveals that the effectiveness of a celebrity endorser is not adequately captured or conceptualised by one single model but rather by collation of the models.

The source models can increase effectiveness if used in conjunction with the match-up hypothesis; while the match-up and credibility of an endorser can be enhanced if an attractive and likable source is used – if it is of relevance to the product category being endorsed. The meaning transfer model in turn, is most effective when the celebrities and the endorsed products possess similar, if not common, attributes indicating covariance with the match-up hypothesis. The collation of models also helps offset the limitations inherent in using them in isolation. Criticism of the source models, which suggests that rather than specified by objective attributes, celebrity characteristics and the success of celebrity endorsers can be cultivated by the roles that celebrities play in the media and on public platforms, can be minimised by use of the meaning transfer model which does emphasise on the aforementioned aspects. The source models in turn work with the match-up hypothesis to help facilitate the selection of an endorser and bring the desired attributes to the meaning transfer process and enhance its effectiveness. Upon review, it is clear that the models work best when used in conjunction with each other and taken together they can be better used to holistically encapsulate the overall effectiveness of a celebrity endorser.

Furthermore, the review of the celebrity models reveals emergent themes and gaps; first; that consumer perception is central to the effectiveness of a celebrity endorser and the process of endorsement, second; there could be cross cultural variances in the

perceived effectiveness of celebrity endorsers and third; there is a lack research on how culture can impact on the models and indeed whether the models themselves have cross-cultural transferability. A critical aspect of the models is that celebrity attributes and more importantly, the desirable celebrity attributes can be highly subjective in nature. The reported level of source attractiveness and source credibility can differ according to different consumer groups and how they interpret the various attributes associated with an endorser. Research into the models also suggests that consumers within the same society can have varying opinions due to the discussed subjectivity inherent within the interpretation of attributes. This would signify that consumers' response to a celebrity can be even more volatile across countries and markets due to the influence of culture on consumer perception (Solomon et al., 2010). There is, therefore, a need for investigating whether celebrities can have crosscultural appeal and identify whether the models are applicable across cultures to ensure effective celebrity selection. Further, the meaning transfer process is critically dependent on the assumptions that associations of a celebrity endorser are observed and identified by the target consumers, as well as be interpreted as being desirable in nature. This necessitates the need for thorough understanding of all consumer groups which form part of the target market of the celebrity-endorsed adverts. Despite this, although the models have been refined and updated periodically within academic research, their cross-cultural validity is yet to be robustly established.

There have been some studies which have researched into how celebrity-endorsed advertising can impact consumers across diverse cultures. However, these studies remain far and few and there still remains a vacuum where South Asian countries like Pakistan are concerned. Although the progression of research on celebrity endorsement has enriched the understanding of the widely used global practice in western countries, knowledge on the transferability of the models and theories in nonwestern countries is needed, especially in markets such as Pakistan, which are economically valuable and can be culturally unique and diverse (Ghani, 2014). As limited existing cross-cultural studies have shown, cultural factors can have a significant impact on the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumer behaviour (Biswas, Hussain and O'Donnell, 2009; Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011; Um and Lee, 2015; Schimmelpfennig, 2018). Therefore, research into diverse cultures is needed to further the literature on celebrity endorsement and address this under-researched area and help establish how the practice should be employed effectively across markets and also to provide a more holistic understanding of the robustness and applicability of models within celebrity endorsement.

In addition to a lack of cross-cultural studies and assessment of transferability of the practice across South Asian countries, despite the extensive representation in academic literature, there still lacks a consistent framework which within the field of celebrity endorsement which can be utilised to effectively conceptualise its effects on consumer purchase intentions (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). For this reason it is beneficial to consider the literature on the different topics which can directly or indirectly impact the process of celebrity endorsement. As reviewed, research finds that using celebrity endorsement effectively can make the brand stand out, lead to higher brand recall, and lead to a desirable brand personality. It has also been found to create a positive consumer attitude and increased purchase intention. These aspects will be reviewed in more details in the sections which follow.

2.1.4 Negative publicity

Before evaluation of the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer cognition and behaviour, it is fruitful to evaluate the effect that negative consumer perceptions and negative publicity can have on the endorsement process. Although this research does not conduct research into the effects of negative publicity directly, it does investigate the effects of sexuality in advertising content. Sexuality is deemed immoral in the Pakistani market and Islamic religion, thus categorising it as a negative association and attribute (Leighton, 2017). Thus the effects of sexuality could emulate the effects of negative publicity in relation to endorsement. This review can thus help in providing context on the effects of sexuality on Pakistani and Muslim consumers.

Negative publicity relating to a celebrity is any information, associations or behaviours that are deemed as unfavourable. It can include the celebrity engaging in immoral

behaviour – such as extra marital affairs, drug use, theft, dishonesty or harassment (Greene and Haidt, 2006). Studies researching the consequences of negative publicity have found that negative associations can reduce reported source attractiveness and source credibility (Thwaites et al., 2012). Due to the associated learning and the meaning transfer process, negative publicity also has wider implications for the advert and the endorsed product (Um and Lee, 2015). Furthermore, the degree of impact is not always proportionate to the severity of the negative publicity. Studies have reported contradictory findings as to the impact negative publicity can have on consumers. Negative information does not always lead to ill effects and can at times even prove to be an asset (Money, Shimp and Sakano, 2006) as it can make the celebrities seem more relatable by demonstrating their humanity (Halonen-Knight and Hurmerinta, 2010). Research on the endorsement of beauty-related products shows that using celebrities with negative public images can be more successful in increasing purchase intention as they can help enhance consumers' self-esteem and feelings of similarity (Sääksjärvi, Hellén and Balabanis, 2015). However, it is noted that the focus of the various literature on negative publicity can be diverse which indicates that difference in research findings could potentially be due to the fact that each case of endorsement is often of a unique and dynamic nature, and therefore findings are harder to generalise without extensive controlled research. This reasoning is further evidenced as studies have found that a range of factors such as; the source of the negative information, endorsement type, product category, existing brand image, type of negative association, perceived level of attractiveness, likeability and popularity of the celebrity, level of perceived similarity and consumer commitment can all can make the consumer more accepting of negative behaviour (Um, 2013; Um and Kim, 2016).

Studies looking into the impact of negative publicity in different countries have found that culture can be an influencing factor in how negative celebrities associations are evaluated, due to a difference in how meanings are attributed across countries (La Ferle and Choi, 2005; Um and Lee, 2015). Information that is perceived as negative can vary across cultures as individuals will filter information through their own value systems (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Since countries have their own value systems which can influence consumer information processing (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011), it stands to reason that without research, it can be difficult for marketers to know what information, meanings and associations might be considered negative across cultures and countries (De Mooij, 2019). Furthermore, as religion can guide consumer beliefs and provide a moral code of conduct (Schwartz, 2012), it may also play a part in the impact that negative publicity may have.

Despite research regarding the impact of negative publicity on consumer perceptions, attitudes and behaviour being inconclusive and conflicting, it is established that negative perceptions can have a more significant impact on consumer behaviour than positive ones (Campbell and Warren, 2012). This could suggest that the celebrity endorser showcasing explicit sexuality could have adverse effects in the Pakistani market and be perceived as negative. Negative information can cause a heightened emotional response which can lead to adverse attitudes being developed (Amos, Holmes and Strutton., 2008). Negative emotions can also lead to stronger memory recall, and the associations formed can be stronger and longer lasting (Um and Kim, 2016) making it increasingly crucial to identify cross-cultural perceptions of endorser associations and attributes.

2.1.5 Impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer behaviour

The celebrity endorsement models reviewed earlier are useful in evaluating the effectiveness of using a celebrity as an endorser; however, they prove limited in encapsulating the impact of the technique on consumers. Furthermore, studies within the field which have researched into the effects of endorsement on consumers have frequently found inclusive and contradictory results. Synthesising findings within the field reveal three key variants: firstly, as identified earlier, perception plays a key role in the success of endorsement. Second, that celebrity endorsement can influence consumer attitudes in select cases. And third, that using celebrity endorsement can lead to higher purchase intention.

Models in the field of celebrity endorsement all stem from the same overarching premise: That the attributes and meanings associated with a celebrity endorser need

to be interpreted in the intended manner. The source models state that celebrities must be perceived as attractive and credible. The match-up hypothesis predicts that the success of celebrity endorsement stems from a high level of perceived congruence between the celebrity and the endorsed brand. Research on negative publicity demonstrates that perception will determine how consumers react to negative information. And finally, the meaning transfer model demonstrates that perceived symbolic meanings and associations are what gives a celebrity meaning, and that these associations are what will be transferred onto the product. However, even if the aforementioned aspects are considered effectively, it is then consumer cognition and the manner in which the celebrity is perceived that will influence the interpretation of the content and context of the advert.

However, from research on advertising it is apparent that it is not just perception of the celebrity but also consumer perception of stimulus within the advert that will have an impact on overall consumer response. This perception of the celebrity and advert by consumers in the intended manner is needed to form strong associations between the celebrity and the endorsed product and elicit a purchase. The need to understand consumer perception to ensure the success of celebrity endorsement is eminent. Therefore, this research uses the findings from the literature on celebrity endorsement and takes into account additional theories within the field of consumer behaviour to conceptualise the effects of the practice and add to the available literature within the field, and address the need for a framework. Findings within the literature on the three key aspects of consumer behaviour; perceptions, attitudes and behavioural intentions, that celebrity endorsement can impact on are reviewed in turn.

Perception is defined as the process by which sensory stimuli are selected, organised and interpreted to provide meaning (Jobber, 2010). Perception is not objective but rather highly subjective in nature and can be influenced by a multitude of factors. Education, past and present experiences, financial and social experiences and identity can all influence perception (Sethna and Blythe, 2019) and a key determinant of perception is culture (Hall, 1983; Bates and Plog, 1990; De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011; De Mooij, 2019). Each culture consists of its own unique symbols and signs (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Culture forms the spectrum through which an individual views the world and guides the manner in which external stimuli are processed (Solomon et al., 2010). Values and norms and political, moral and religious beliefs can all play a part in the interpretation of cognitive cues (Pylyshyn, 1999; Schwartz, 2012). This further illustrates the importance of validating celebrity endorsement models across cultures and ensuring the cross-cultural transferability of celebrities is effectively researched.

The second key finding within the literature is that the use of celebrity endorsement has the ability to influence consumer attitudes towards the endorsed brand. Successful use of celebrity endorsement leads to positive consumer attitudes about the endorsed brand and can lead to an increase in brand equity (Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Dwivedi, Johnson and McDonald, 2015). Simply put, attitude is the feeling and opinion generated by stimuli and the extent to which an individual likes or dislikes something (Jobber, 2010).

Desirable associations and meanings of the celebrity endorser will help develop a brand image and personality through the process of meaning transfer and, if appealing, will lead to positive attitude towards the advert and brand (Roy and Moorthi, 2012; Knoll and Matthes, 2017). When celebrity attributes are aligned with the type of product being endorsed, it can lead to higher brand awareness and develop positive brand associations, leading to the brand being viewed as more desirable, high quality and dependable. This increase in aspects of brand equity has found to further help ensure positive consumer attitudes (Yoo, Donthu and Lee, 2000; Gordon, James and Yoshida, 2016). Celebrity endorsement also helps develop a strong brand personality that is appealing to consumers (Bergkvist, 2017).

The review reveals that research regarding the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer attitudes remains volatile. Although specific celebrity attributes, such as; celebrity attractiveness, credibility, expertise and level of match-up are found to have the potential to influence product and brand evaluations by a multitude of studies over the years such as Ohanian, (1991), Till and Busler (2000); Rifon, Jiang and Kim (2016),

Roy and Jain (2017), and Winterich, Gangwar and Grewal (2018) the extent to which they individually influence attitude – remains inconclusive (Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). However, a key objective of celebrity endorsement has remained to positively influence consumer attitudes towards the endorsed brand. This research suggests that from the literature it is manifest that, rather than endorser attributes, it is the perception of these attributes which can impact attitude. Furthermore, it is also posited that existing studies are lacking in effectively considering the role that advert content and context can have on the overall impact of celebrity endorsement. The limited studies such as Silvera and Austad (2003) and Bergkvist, Hjalmarson and Mägi (2017), which have considered this impact, albeit by studying specific celebrity attributes, have found that attitude towards advert that the design of the endorsed advert does have an influential impact on the overall success of a celebrity endorsement.

Studies have illustrated that celebrity endorsement can lead to an increase in purchase intentions for the endorsed brand (Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). The efforts made by companies to influence consumer attitudes and increase brand equity are often to provide a competitive advantage to the brand, increase consumer loyalty and convince customers to elicit a single, or more desirably repeat purchase (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble and Donthu, 2013; Knoll and Matthes, 2017; Proctor and Kitchen, 2019).

Celebrity endorsers who are perceived to be credible and trustworthy have found to increase purchase intention in comparison to celebrities who are considered as experts due to consumers perceiving the claims as more believable (Lafferty, 2002; La Ferle and Choi, 2005). Attractive celebrities, especially when paired with attractiveness-related product categories, have also been found to lead to a positive increase in purchase intention (Till and Busler, 2000), and a high level of match-up between the celebrity and the endorsed product category and brand has also found the same results (Knoll and Matthes, 2017). The meaning transfer model also demonstrates that brands endorsed by celebrities are more likely to be purchased, as consumers wish to transfer the symbolic and cultural meanings, associations and attributes onto themselves (Jain and Roy, 2016). The ability of celebrity endorsement to break through

advertising clutter, increase memory recall and create associations that consumers will want to transfer onto themselves, all lead to an increase in the purchase intention (Pringle and Binet, 2005; Hassan and Jamil, 2014). However, not all use of celebrity endorsement has found to lead to an increase in purchase intention, and research has identified that, in certain cases, celebrity endorsement may even lead to purchase intention being negatively impacted (Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011; Rifon, Jiang and Kim, 2016)

It stands to reason that if the meanings attributed with a celebrity endorser are undesirable, it can lead to reduced purchase intention due to consumers wanting to distance themselves from the endorsed brand. In the same manner, negative publicity can also lead to consumers boycotting endorsed brands due to the associations between the celebrity and the brand. Purchase intention has also been found to be reduced if a celebrity endorses multiple brands, as over-endorsement can lead to a reduction in the endorser's perceived level of credibility (Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011).

As with attitude, studies attempting to robustly link endorser attributes to an increase in purchase intention have found inconclusive results (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Despite the hypothesised and theorised impact of celebrity endorsement leading to positive consumer attitudes and an increase in purchase intention towards the brand, over the course of the study into the field, a multitude of studies such as Baker and Churchill, 1977, Friedman and Friedman (1979, Wang, Cheng and Chu (2012) and Rifon, Jiang and Kim (2016) have been unable support this conclusion. It is proposed that a possible reason behind these research findings could be that each case of endorsement can be diverse - as the celebrity endorser, the advertising strategy used and the brand endorsed - can vary and the combination of all three can make each case quite unique.

Furthermore, emergent from the review are the findings that, few studies have considered the influence of attitude towards the advert in determining consumer purchase intention. It is critical to ensure adverts are effectively designed to appeal to target consumers and capitalise on the attributes of the celebrity endorser in a manner

that creates synergy. When analysing the impact of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention, advert perception and attitude towards the celebrity-endorsed advert need to be considered. Although only a few studies on celebrity endorsement have considered the advert design in researching the overall impact of celebrity endorsement on consumers, literature on advertising, some of which can be dated, has found that the perception and attitude towards an advert does play a critical role in overall effectiveness of marketing communications (Gelb and Pickett, 1983; Gresham and Shimp; 1985; Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986; De Pelsmacker, Geuens and Van den Bergh, 2010). Furthermore, the limited studies which have considered this impact, albeit by studying specific celebrity attributes, have found evidence of an existing relationship between attitudes towards adverts and responses to celebrity endorsement (Silvera and Austad, 2003; Bergkvist, Hjalmarson and Mägi, 2017). This could therefore also account for the variances in findings, as the methodologies used for each study rarely accounts for this advert execution style.

Stemming from the above review we can deduce that perception, attitude and purchase intention are critical to the success of celebrity endorsement. Research within the field of celebrity endorsement has generally looked at the effectiveness of endorsers in relation to specific aspects, and can often focus on either attitude or purchase intention. However, reviewing and combining the various studies conducted demonstrates a large degree of variance between the findings. Conceptualisation of the manner in which celebrity endorsement impacts purchase intentions can be fragmented and lacking in comprehensive cohesiveness. In predicting the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions, the need for consideration of mediators is emergent.

2.1.6 Theoretical frameworks

From the celebrity endorsement literature it is apparent that the manner in which the practice can impact on consumer attitudes and purchase intention has been the subject of a multitude of studies, but results of the studies can be conflicting and inconclusive. From the review of the literature, it is emergent that perceptions

regarding the attributes of the celebrity endorser, as well as the perceptions of the celebrity-endorsed advert and brand, play a critical part in the effectiveness of the practice. However, limited attention has been given to this aspect. Furthermore, as identified, there is a lack of a comprehensive framework within the literature which can be used to robustly conceptualise the effect of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions. There is also a need for consideration of factors which could act as mediators on the effect that celebrity endorsement has on consumers. However, in spite of this, limited studies within the field have researched the practice of celebrity endorsement with these aspects collectively to robustly conceptualise and combine this connection with existing findings in the field. This further illustrates the need for research to add to the body of available literature and connect the different findings within the field.

To overcome limitations within the literature and add to the field of celebrity endorsement, an objective of this thesis is to identify the manner in which the practice can impact on consumer purchase intentions to develop a conceptual model which can be used to predict this impact. To aid in the development of the model, this research reviews existing theories and models within the field of marketing and more specifically, consumer behaviour, which can be utilised to explain and conceptualise the prediction of consumer behavioural intentions. Four main models are reviewed to inform the conceptualisation of the model with the purpose to provide a robust theoretical underpinning and further analyse and support the role that perceptions and attitude can have on consumer purchase intentions. The models reviewed are: the stimulus response theory, the cognitive-affective theory of personality, the theory of planned behaviour and the cognitive-affective approach to attitude. Although the aforementioned theories are, at times, used in distinguished manners, it is argued that they can be complementary in nature and are thus reviewed to obtain a holistic understanding of the manner in which perceptual cognition, beliefs, values, emotions and associated connotations can impact on an individual's intention to inform behaviour.

The stimulus response theory is reviewed to understand how the content and context of celebrity-endorsed adverts consequently influences consumer response. Walter Mischel's theory of personality is reviewed in turn to highlight the consideration of situational factors on purchase intention. Despite its criticisms, the theory of planned behaviour is frequently used to support the link between attitude and purchase intentions, and its widespread use necessitates consideration; therefore, the theory in relation to this research is subsequently reviewed. The theory is also considered due to its supplementary nature to the cognitive-affective approach to attitude.

2.1.6.1 Stimulus response theory

The stimulus response model is utilised within the field of marketing to understand the factors which could influence and impact on the consumer decision-making processes in relation to buying behaviour (Kanagal, 2016). The model forms part of behavioural theory and proposes that behaviour is the resultant outcome of the manner in which stimulus is observed by individuals and the subsequent response it can invoke (Chang, Eckman and Yan, 2011; Nazir, 2018). Marketing research states that the encoding of sensory stimuli can be reinforced by cognitive aspects and thus the model encompasses a broader approach to examining responses (Solomon et al., 2010; Kotler and Keller, 2016). Although research can, at times, adopt either a cognitive or behavioural approach to learning, the stimulus response model would evidence that one approach does not negate the other. The model is useful for gaining a broader more general overview of consumer response to stimulus within advertising and the comprehensive nature of the model allows for it to be successfully applied to a range of research contexts. Stimuli can be classified as any aspect or 'thing' that can arouse an individual. Consumer perceptions, predisposed conditioning, associative learning, knowledge and memory recall will all play a part in the manner that stimulus is observed, interpreted and coded (Solomon et al., 2010; Kotler and Keller, 2016). These aspects can be influenced by a multitude of factors including cultural, environmental, social, personal, lifestyle and psychological factors (Solomon et al., 2010; Kotler and Keller, 2016). Response is the resultant outcome of interactions between these different components. Figure 3 illustrates the basic stimulus response model.



Figure 3: Stimulus response model (adapted from Solomon et al., 2010)

Examining the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumers through the stimulus response approach allows for three aspects to be identified. First, when celebrity endorsement is utilised, in accordance with the endorsement literature, the dominant stimuli can be the celebrity itself, as they are at the forefront of the endorsement process. The manner in which the effectiveness of the celebrity is evaluated will then impact on consumer responses to the endorsement. However, from a range of studies on advertising and its impact on consumers, it is evident that in addition to the endorser, the endorsed brand and the design of the endorsed advert also form stimuli which will be evaluated and interpreted to invoke a response (Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986; Jobber, 2010). Therefore, the following are likely to act as mediators in the overall effect of celebrity endorsement on consumers. The stimulus will affect the internal state and attitude of an individual in a favourable or unfavourable manner (Chang, Eckman and Yan, 2011).

Second, it is this favourable or unfavourable attitudinal response that will then influence individual responses, such as behavioural responses (Chang, Eckman and Yan, 2011; Buxbaum, 2016). This would further evidence that, rather than evaluating the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer predisposition to perform behaviour in a direct manner, it is likely to be more effectively explained by consideration of observation and interpretation of stimulus as mediating the effects. Third, due to the multitude of factors which influence the response that stimulus can elicit, it is reasoned that the manner with which stimulus will be observed and interpreted, i.e. perceived, can vary across cultures, especially between western and eastern cultures, as research finds that values and beliefs between those cultures can be diverse (De Mooij, 2019). Furthermore, the model also highlights that response to

the context and content within advertising, such as sexuality, is likely to take place in accordance with its perception within the cultural markets. The model would also suggest that the interpretation of stimulus is influenced by various factors and therefore is not necessarily universal, especially when diverse consumer groups exist. Although the terms 'perception' and 'attitude' can, at times, be used interchangeably in the literature, based on consumer research and the stimulus response model, this research distinguishes between the two by adopting the viewpoint that perception is observation while attitude is the judgement formed regarding that observation. However, although the broad approach of the model is advantageous to gain a wider understanding of consumer behaviour, it proves limited in identifying precise insight into the specific factors which can influence or further mediate the impact of communications on diverse consumer groups and effect on behaviour. For this reason additional models are further reviewed to supplement comprehension of how celebrity endorsement can impact on consumer purchase intentions.

2.1.6.2 Cognitive-affective theory of personality

The cognitive-affective perspective was first introduced in the late 1960s by Walter Mischel in the area of personality psychology. Previously, existing theories within the field were based on the trait theory approach i.e. suggesting that an individual's traits or characteristics – such as conscientiousness and sociability – are the determining influencing factor when it comes to performing or engaging in a particular behaviour, leading to consistency in behaviour (Mischel and Ayduk, 2002). This approach was widely adopted while conducting research into consumer purchase decisions. Mischel, however, argued that the trait theory approach did not effectively help understand or predict behaviour in its entirety as a set of personality traits stating that personality is not as structured as previously thought and that the theory only partially helped explain behaviours and that too in a limited manner. Alternatively, the cognitive-affective approach was proposed (Mischel and Ayduk, 2002).

The cognitive-affective personality model puts forward that situational factors, rather than traits, prove to be more influential in an individual's decision to perform behaviour (Mischel and Shoda, 1995). Consumer personality is not always consistent with behaviour performed across different situations under varying circumstances. However, studying situational cues and context does reveal correlations between the behaviour of an individual and is therefore a more robust way of understanding and analysing behaviour (Mischel and Ayduk, 2002; Shoda and Smith, 2004). Subsequent studies have successfully replicated the findings and the approach is now applied to understanding individuals across research fields (Im and Ha, 2011).

The cognitive-affective perspective can be applied to help explain the link between cognitive perception and purchase intention within the context of this research to enhance comprehension. Consumer perception will be influenced by situational and environmental cues; in the context of celebrity endorsement, 'situational cues' can be categorised as stimulus and associations of the celebrity endorser along with the content and context of the advert. As situational cues can influence behaviour, it can be theorised that it is these factors which will in part influence the purchase behaviour of individuals.

The cognitive-affective theory would also evidence and help provide rationale for cross-cultural differences in consumer cognitional processes and behaviours across countries. Culture and religion can have an impact on the encoding process of situational cues and stimulus (De Mooij, 2019). As the theory would signify, behaviour is not solely dependent on inherent personality traits but rather on situational factors and cues, it therefore stands to reason that consumer behaviour can be inconsistent – especially where diverse environments are concerned. Expectations of behaviour which can be influenced by macro and micro cultural variables can also influence behaviour. This supports the hypothesis that celebrity endorsement may not necessarily be transferable across different cultures.

However, as the reviewed theory is developed to explain psychology of personality, it is used to solely supplement understanding of how different situational environments and cues can lead to differences in consumer response to celebrity endorsement. This research adopts the rationale that situational cues can indeed influence behaviour and further argues that this is done via the attitudinal response to situational cues. The

cognitive-affective approach to attitude and the theory of planned behaviour are reviewed to further comprehension of the theoretical reasoning behind the hypothesised relationship between consumer attitudes and purchase intentions.

2.1.6.3 Theory of planned behaviour

This research takes into consideration the theory of planned behaviour and its use in analysing and modelling the link between perceptions of celebrity advertising endorsements, attitude and purchase intention. The theory of planned behaviour suggests that attitude has a significant impact on an individual's intentions, which in turn are a good predictor of their behaviour (Ajzen, 2001). The theory of planned behaviour was developed as an extension to the theory of planned action with the purpose of raising the predictive validity by inclusion of the construct – 'perceived behavioural control' in the model (Ajzen, 2011). The theory assumes behaviour to be a deliberate and planned phenomenon and thus indicates that it can essentially be observed and predicted. The theory outlines that behaviour is dependent on the likeliness of an individual to perform the behaviour, i.e. their intentions (Cheng and Huang, 2013). This research does not investigate actual behaviour, but the intention to perform behaviour i.e. the intention of consumers to purchase the product and brand being endorsed by a celebrity. The theory of planned behaviour is displayed in Figure 4.

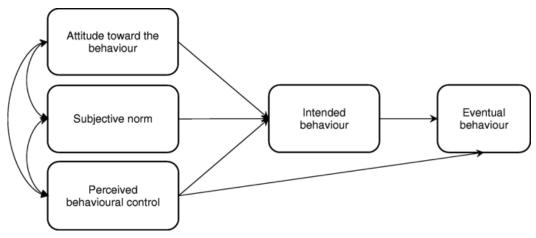


Figure 4: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

According to the theory of planned behaviour, intention to perform behaviour is formed and influenced by three constructs; attitude towards behaviour, the subjective norms linked to performing the behaviour, and the perceived behavioural control, which is the perception of the ease of difficulty associated with performing the behaviour in question (Ajzen, 2001). These three influencing components and what they entail are reviewed briefly and then evaluated through the lens of the context of this research.

Attitude towards behaviour is influenced and determined by behavioural beliefs, which are an individual's evaluation of the predictability or expectancy of specific outcomes of performing the act (Armitage and Conner, 2001). It is the extent to which engaging in the behaviour is viewed positively or negatively (Kwong et al., 2003) which forms the associated desirability and consequence of engaging in the behaviour. Attitude can be formed by three components, as illustrated by the ABC model. These are affective, behavioural and cognitive (Jain, 2014).

Subjective norms refer to the perception that individuals have on the social pressures associated with performing the behaviour (Armitage and Connor, 2001). According to the expectancy-value model of attitude, subjective norms are seen to be determined by normative beliefs (Ajzen 2011). Normative beliefs refer to the opinions of significant others (such as family, friends and society). The influence of these referents is determined by an individual's motivation to adhere to them and their perceived authority (Ajzen, 2011).

Perceived behavioural control refers to an individual's perception of their ability to perform the behaviour in question. This is influenced by assessable control beliefs and the individual's perception of their power. Control belief is the impact of factors which facilitate or restrict engagement in the said behaviour (Ajzen, 2001).

All three constructs are considered to be influential over each other. Attitude is not seen as being the sole determinant of behaviour, and it is acknowledged that uncontrollable factors inhibit prediction of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2011). However, due to the covariance within the factors, subjective norms and perceived behavioural

control all have an influence on the different components of attitude (Xu and Lin, 2018). The influence of the three components will also vary depending on the behaviour being predicted and the context the model is utilised in.

In evaluating the impact on celebrity-endorsed advertising on consumer purchase intention using the theory of planned behaviour, it would emerge that an individual's evaluation of the outcome of purchasing the endorsed product and the overall affective attitude formed towards the endorsement will both have an impact. The impact of subjective norms on behavioural intentions would indicate that the consumer purchase intentions towards an endorsed product can be influenced by the values and beliefs within a culture indicating the presence of cross-cultural differences between consumers across countries. Furthermore, the control that individuals have over their behaviour could be influenced by not just the availability and ease of access to the endorsed brand but also by cultural values and norms. It should also be noted that behaviour, in terms of buying decision behaviour, can also be influenced by the level of consumer involvement in decision making (Jobber, 2010). Consumer involvement can be defined as an individual's state of mind, level of interest, and/or engagement with the decision making process (Solomon et al., 2010). Applying the possible identified factors which can influence level of consumer involvement in decision making as identified by O'Cass (2020), for fashion products, the level of consumer involvement is likely to be influenced by a multitude of factors including; whether the purchase is routine, limited or extended and whether the purchase is classified as habitual or complex - both of which could be influenced by perceived cost investment, previous purchases, the availability of choice or products/brands and the availability of alternatives.

Of the three components identified by the theory of planned behaviour, research on advertising would indicate that the attitude component is the most malleable by marketers through the use of communication techniques (Jobber, 2010). The model finds that when analysing the impact of marketing communications on consumers, the stronger the attitude, the easier it becomes to predict intention, and thus behaviour (Ajzen, 2011; Jain, 2014). Therefore it can be concluded that ideally, markets would

need to influence consumers' attitudes towards the endorsement in order to induce purchases and that the intent to purchase a product or brand, is a desirable aspect.

However social and environmental stimuli are not inherently positive or negative in themselves (Anabila, Tagoe and Asare, 2015; Khalid et al., 2017), these aspects must be observed, after which a judgement and reaction to them is developed and formed, a process which might be subconscious and occur almost instantaneously. This would support that celebrity attributes, especially, the physical appearance and characteristics of a celebrity endorser, are not inherently attractive or unattractive in themselves, rather, these variables will first be observed (i.e. perceived) and then judged. This judgement is likely to be in accordance with the individual's notion of beauty. As previously reviewed, the judgement – in this case regarding attractiveness of a celebrity – will be influenced by consumer associations with the stimulus, past and present circumstances and experiences and also by social and cultural beliefs. This provides further rationale for the notion that even though perception influences attitude, it is essential to separate and distinguish between the two.

Upon review of the research which has subjected the relationship between attitude and behaviour to testing, contradictory findings emerge. Certain studies have successfully applied the theory of planned behaviour to research and established a strong relationship between attitude and purchase intention (Hsu et al., 2006; Ajzen, 2011; Cheng and Huang, 2013), however, not all studies have been able to replicate these findings. The theory has been criticised within the literature for not effectively and robustly capturing the elements which can have an influence on behaviour in their entirety (Araújo-Soares et al., 2013). Research analysing this relationship within diverse fields have found mixed results. Examining the literature reveals that there exist two gaps: first, attitude does not necessarily lead to behaviour or even behavioural intentions, rather, studies find that beliefs have a higher predictive value of intention (Conner et al., 2013). Second, intention to perform behaviour is not necessarily a good indication of whether the actual performance of said behaviour will take place (Sutton, 2002; Falko, Presseau and Araújo-Soares, 2013). This research acknowledges the challenges posed by these findings and the following measures are taken to address the limitations and enhance the robustness of the hypothesised link between the researched constructs within the context of this study. First, this research does not investigate the link between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour. Increased consumer purchase intentions towards an endorsed product or brand is viewed as desirable and used as a measure of evaluating consumer response to endorsement. It remains a useful component to measure and it is important for marketers to understand the impact that marketing communications have on consumer purchase intention as it can lead to deeper consumer knowledge. Second, to enhance understanding of factors which can impact on behavioural intentions, different consumer models have been reviewed to enable a more holistic comprehension. The cross-cultural setting of this study is used to investigate the aforementioned situational, cultural and religious cues and how they would impact on the relationship between the constructs. And lastly, to enhance predictive capabilities of the impact of celebrity advertising on consumer purchase intentions, a multicomponent view of attitude is adopted by consideration of both cognitive and affective elements. This approach has found to elicit better results and help bridge this gap (Ajzen, 2011; Cheng and Huang, 2013; Hsu et al., 2006; Ketabi, Ranjbarian and Ansari, 2014; Moon, Habib and Attiq, 2015).

2.1.6.4 Cognitive-affective approach

To overcome limitations and maximise the predictive ability of purchase intention, research finds that adopting a multi-component view of attitude and understanding the cognitive-affective elements in particular yields maximum efficiency (Zhou, Dovidio and Wang, 2013). Affective attitude can entail an individual's feelings and emotions, while cognitive attitude is influenced by beliefs (Hogg and Vaughan, 2005). Cognitive-affective attitude theory places importance on the role of personal beliefs and their ability to guide and influence attitude in combination with the emotional response of individuals (Zhou et al., 2009; Jain, 2014). This approach also proved to be more successful when applied across cultures and has proved more effective in predicting behavioural intentions (Zhou, Dovidio and Wang, 2013; Moon, Habib and Attiq, 2015),

and is suggested as an extension to supplement the successful application of the theory of planned behaviour (Wolff et al., 2011).

The cognitive-affective approach to understanding attitude is also more consistent with the cognitive-affective model reviewed earlier, as it acknowledges that attitudes does not predict intention in isolation, but rather is influenced by situational beliefs and variables. Applying the aforementioned approach to this study, it can be assumed that consumer attitudes will be influenced by an effective attitude towards the celebrity-endorsed advert and brand in combination with the cognitive elements and beliefs of an individual. The cognitive components of attitude can be influenced and impacted by culture. Together these will influence overall attitudes which can be used to predict purchase intention towards the celebrity-endorsed product.

The theory of planned behaviour and the cognitive-affective approach to attitude have been applied to consumer behaviour and utilised to link consumers' positive or negative disposition to a brand or advert to help determine their intention to purchase a product (Xu and Lin, 2018). As noted from the review of the literature on celebrity endorsement, although select studies within the field have found that favourable or unfavourable consumer attitude towards a celebrity directly influence their intention to perform behaviour, the findings are not consistent or replicable when only a correlation between celebrity and attitude or celebrity and purchase intention is investigated. This current study proposes that the conflicting findings are due to critical influential aspects being overlooked. As mentioned, a celebrity possessing the attributes identified in the source model and match-up hypothesis are not objective in nature, but dependent on the target market perceiving the attributes as positive and desirable. Furthermore, it is not just the celebrity endorser but also the content and context of the advert which must be perceived in a positive manner. Therefore, the emotions invoked by the advert design need to be considered when investigating purchase intentions. This distinction between perception and attitude, along with the consideration of the constructs on both the advert and the brand, allows for consumers' cognitive and affective attitudinal responses to celebrity endorsement to be more holistically considered.

2.1.6.5 Synthesis of conclusions drawn

Synthesizing the literature within celebrity endorsement reveals that finding regarding the effects of using celebrities in advertising and its usefulness in positively influencing consumer response and behaviour can be fragmented at times. There is a lack of consideration of comprehensive mediating factors which can impact on the relationship between effectiveness of using celebrity endorsement and the consumer response it is likely to elicit. For this reason, this study combines models within celebrity endorsement with consumer models to effectively analyse the link between celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions. The cognitive-affective approach can be employed to investigate how a chosen celebrity endorser can impact consumer response. This research proposes that the aforementioned effect can be best predicted and understood by consideration of both the advert and the brand as mediators to enable a more holistic comprehension of the factors which can govern consumer response to celebrity endorsement. The approach also helps to distinguish between perceptual cognition and the affective attitudinal response that stimuli in the content of the advert, such as sexuality, can elicit. This is critical as cultural factors can impact on mental processes and influence observation of stimuli and on the manner in which the observed stimuli is interpreted – an aspect which is further impacted by culture. Furthermore, upon review and consolidation of the aforementioned literature on different topics, despite this influence of culture on the use of celebrity endorsement on consumers being manifest, the field is lacking in cross-cultural research. The emergent impact of culture on the communications technique is outlined in the sections that follow. Further details pertaining to the development of the conceptual model are provided in a subsequent section.

2.2 Culture and Pakistani context

2.2.1 Impact of culture on celebrity endorsement

As reviewed, there are multiple models and theories within the field of celebrity endorsement which help illustrate the effects of the practice on consumers. However, these theories and models have largely been developed and tested in western markets mainly the US and the UK (Roy and Mishra, 2018). There is a clear need for research in the eastern context. Emergent from the review of the literature, it is identified that culture can have a potential impact on celebrity endorsement models and also impact and influence the perception of a celebrity. Furthermore, culture can also determine the success of a celebrity endorser and its impact on consumer attitudes and purchase intention. This demonstrates the need for examination of the practise from a crosscultural perspective.

Both the match-up hypothesis and the source models are criticised for not adequately capturing the multifaceted associations of celebrity endorsers. The influence of reference groups, culture dimensions and perception are not clarified or considered. It is essential for marketers to fully understand the manner in which their target audience perceives and relates to the celebrity used of endorsement. Furthermore, due to the role of culture in the assignment of symbolic meanings of an endorser and on the endorsement process (Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011; Roy, 2018), there is likely to be inherent differences between preference of celebrity endorsers and their impact on consumers across cultures. It cannot therefore be taken for granted that findings from one country or culture can be applied across markets. Even if cultures are similar, the interactions of macro and micro cultural values, beliefs and norms need to be studied to effectively and robustly analyse the impact of celebrity endorsement and its subsequent impact on consumer perceptions, attitudes and purchase intention towards the endorsed product and brand.

The literature states that celebrities with the desired attributes will lead to positive consumer attitudes, however a vital factor is overlooked. Due to the cultural influence on perception, it is arguable that attributes will be perceived through a cultural lens, and are not in themselves necessarily categorised as positive or negative. Both cognitive and affective elements need consideration to adequately predict behavioural intentions. Research illustrates that beliefs, thoughts and feelings towards stimuli are impacted by culture (Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz, 2012). Therefore, it should not automatically be presumed that attributes will be perceived in the same manner across countries. Furthermore, finding which illustrate that consumers can assign

meanings to the celebrities, adverts and brands through their personal and social interactions and their cultural values and beliefs (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008), necessitate the importance of investigating the cultural effect on perception and attitude towards celebrity-endorsed advertising.

Before analysing culture, it is essential to gain a brief understanding of the term. Culture is deemed to be "one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language" by Raymond Williams (1983, p. 87) this is not only due to its intricate historical development but also because it is used for concepts across various disciplines and in numerous distinct and incompatible systems of thought (Williams, 1986). Within the field of anthropology, culture can be defined as a learned system of knowledge, which encompasses; behaviours, attitudes, beliefs, values and norms that are shared by a group of individuals (Schwartz, 2012). Hofstede (1984) distinguishes between two aspects of culture. The first is civilisation, which encompasses education, manners, arts and crafts and their products, making up the domain of a 'ministry of culture' (Hofstede, 1984). The second aspect denotes culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 1984, p. 21). Culture can encompass nations, regions, ethnicities, occupations, religions, genders and any other groups as long as meaning is shared. Culture is a set of shared and enduring meaning, values, and beliefs that characterise national, ethnic, or other groups and orient their behaviour (Bates and Plog, 1990; De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). The common shared cultures values and beliefs can also impact views on the manner in which the world should be structured (Solomon et al., 2010).

The various definitions enable the vast nature of culture to be further appreciated and help with gaining a more holistic understanding of the term and the various aspects it can encompass. Primarily, it is useful to examine each of the terms beliefs, attitudes, norms and values, in some detail:

Belief is an acceptance that something exists or is true. It is a firmly held opinion and can also be a religious conviction (Bates and Plog, 1990; Hofstede, Hofstede and

Minkov, 2010). Many beliefs are culturally learned and become embedded as facts within an individual (Bourdieu, 1973). Beliefs have a significant impact on individuals and often govern the reasons and motives behind attitudes and behaviour.

Attitude is defined as "an individual's predisposition to evaluate objects or aspects of the world in a favourable or unfavourable manner" (De Mooij, 2019, p. 133). Attitudes are often also by-products of beliefs and can be representative of values (Faulkner et al., 2006; Schwartz, 2012). Within eastern cultures, attitudes are greatly influenced by surroundings, past events and by the cultural context within which they are formed (Faulkner et al., 2006).

Norms are defined as "the informal rules which govern what is right or wrong" in a society (Solomon et al., 2010, p. 396). Norms also include the customs and conventions of a culture, such as appropriate ways of behaving in given contexts. Norms have two dimensions: the exhibited behaviour and the approval of the said behaviour within that culture or subculture. Some norms can be uniform across various cultures, while others can be polar opposites (De Mooij, 2019).

Values are enduring beliefs that one mode of conduct or end-state of existence is preferable to another (Rokeach, 1973). In a cultural context, this definition is applicable in a broader sense, i.e. values which are commonly held by members of the culture (Schwartz, 2012). Often acting as catalysts for guidance on what is right or wrong, some values are universal in nature, such as freedom (Schwartz, 2012). Values are not genetically inherited but are shared by members of a society (Hall 1976), thus it is dynamic in nature and continuously changes over time, from one generation to the next (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010; Berry, 2015).

As discussed earlier, perception is heavily influenced by culture (De Mooij, 2019). In terms of marketing, McCort and Malhotra state "culture impacts virtually every construct of concern to marketers" (1993, p.120). This further evidences that in order to fully understand and illustrate the impact of celebrity endorsement in different countries; a working knowledge of the cultures of those countries becomes fundamental. This study examines the cross-cultural differences and similarities on the

practice of celebrity endorsement and its impact on consumer behaviour in the markets of England and Pakistan. Although the research is also conducted in the British market, this specific cultural review is carried out mainly on Pakistani culture. This is because the western market of England is adequately represented in academic literature, and the reviewed literature and models have been developed and tested within the British market (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Um and Lee, 2015). In contrast, literature on the Pakistani market and culture within the field of marketing and consumer behaviour is limited, and even more so where celebrity endorsement is concerned. A review of the culture of Pakistan is therefore carried out. After an initial overview of the background of Pakistan, cultural frameworks are used as a lens to analyse the national culture within the country and the manner in which it impacts on consumer behaviour. Next, the Islamic religion and faith is explored and its subsequent influence on culture is analysed. The review is concluded by an examination of the salient values and beliefs – and the manners in which they are impacted by the Islamic religion - that can influence consumer cognitive and affective response to advertising are reviewed.

2.2.2 History and background of Pakistani market

Pakistan is a country in South East Asia. It has a unique history which impacts the macro culture of the region. Pakistan gained independence from the Indian subcontinent in the year 1947. Before independence, Pakistan, as part of India, was colonised by the British Empire, which had the effect of intermixing some western values within society (Qureshi, 1992). The reasoning and rationale behind Pakistan being recognised as a separate nation stemmed from the proposed 'Two-Nation Theory'. This argued that India, as it was before partition, consisted of two diverse nations and civilisations (Qureshi, 1992). The Two-Nation Theory argued that Hindus and Muslims within India had different religious philosophies, social customs and heritage, which led to conflicting ideologies encompassing various aspects of living (Kermani, 2017). Pakistan became one of the first countries to be created with a religious identity (Kermani, 2017) hence its official name; The Islamic Republic of Pakistan (Government of Pakistan, 2020). This insight into the formation of the nation

illustrates that different influences can intermingle to influence and impact on the salient cultural values within the country.

A critical emergent factor is that due to its identity as a religious nation; the culture of Pakistan is heavily influenced by Islamic religious values. Although there is religious freedom in the country, the dominant religion within Pakistan is Islam. Additionally, the legal system in Pakistan is also based on Islamic law, which emphasises the influence Islamic religion has on the macro and micro culture in the region.

2.2.3 Analysing Pakistani culture

Culture can be analysed through the use of different models and frameworks. The selection of a framework which is used as a lens to analyse culture is largely guided by the objectives of the study and the level at which culture is being studied. Culture can exist at different levels such as national, organisational, regional or geographical clusters (Hofstede, 2001). This research looks at culture at a national level to further understanding of Pakistani consumers. Within the field of consumer behaviour, a popular way to analyse culture at a national level to enhance understanding is by utilisation of frameworks which analyse the dimensions of culture (De Mooij, 2019). Amongst the most widely used frameworks which can be used to analyse culture and dimensions are; Edward Hall's high and low context communication culture and dimensions of time (Hall, 1983), Geert Hofstedes' dimensions of national culture (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010) and Shalom Schwartz seven value types or motivational domains (Schwartz, 2012). This research uses Hofstede's' dimensions of national culture as well as Hall's high and low context communication framework to gain an insight into the culture within the Pakistani market.

Although all the listed frameworks have their inherent advantages, Schwartz framework is not used in this particular study primarily due to the reason that the framework is found to be comparatively less useful than Hofstede's dimensions within the field of marketing, and studies which have applied the two frameworks have found less consistency between findings in relation to the dimensions identified by Schwartz (De Mooij, 2019). Additionally, the model also covers lesser countries in comparison to

Hofstede's framework and the results are not as easily accessible. Hofstede's cultural dimensions model is widely used in academia and is useful in providing insights into the variables and underlying reasons for understanding consumer behaviour (Bond et al., 2004; Minkov et al., 2017). Although the framework has been criticised within literature (Fang, 2007), majority of this is based on the methodology used in the initial development of the framework. Despite the criticism, the model has been successfully used across a wide range of studies such as; Azevedo, Dorset and Mullen, (2002), Myers and Tan (2002), Choi, Lee and Kim (2005) and Minkov et al., (2017). The interdisciplinary approach which is used by the framework to understand cultural dimensions proves useful in gaining a more holistic understanding of consumption and consumer behaviour within a country (De Mooij, 2019). Furthermore, Hofstede's dimensions of culture have been updated and refined in accordance with findings by academic studies such as the addition of the long vs. short-term Confucian Dynamism and the indulgence vs. restraint dimension (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov 2020). In addition to analysing the Pakistani culture using Hofstede's model, further evaluation of Pakistani culture is carried out by using Hall's high vs. low context communication culture dimensions. Hall's theory is used to gain a comprehensive understanding on how consumer preferences of content within advertising, and the executional style may different across the markets of England and Pakistan. This aids in providing a useful basis for understanding the cross-cultural transferability of advertising containing explicit content across the two markets.

2.2.3.1 Pakistani culture in Hofstede's model

Hofstede's cultural dimensions framework analyses value differences between countries on five dimensions: power distance, collectivism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term vs. short-term orientation. Although this model was used to explain variances in work-related values, it has been adapted in cultural consumer research by De Mooij (2019) to consider consumption related values and motives within and across different cultures. In this instance, the model is used to provide a brief overview to further understanding of Pakistani culture. **Power distance:** Pakistan has a Power Distance Index score of 55, indicating that individuals accept a hierarchical order and that society has learnt to accept that wealth and power is unequally distributed (Hofstede Insights, 2020). This can be witnessed by the vast difference between the spending power of individuals within Pakistan. As is typical in countries with high power distance, there is increased importance placed on appearance, image and public perception (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). Pakistani consumers, especially those with higher statuses, are therefore more likely to purchase products based on a brand image that indicates wealth and elevates or maintains their status (De Mooij, 2019). A high level of power distance also implies that adverts that reflect dependence on older family members and the importance of authority, and celebrities which symbolise high class and status, are likely to be well received. However, this is in contrast to Islamic values which promote equality and discourage status consumption (O'Cass, Lee and Siahtiri, 2013).

Individualism/collectivism: In keeping with Islam's values of charity, community, brotherhood and respect, Pakistani culture is highly collectivist (Hofstede Insights, 2020). Family values are paramount, as is trust, loyalty, social responsibility and 'keeping face'. Celebrities that display very distinct personalities or are often the subject of controversy may not be well perceived. There is also a tendency to follow the norm and thus look up to celebrities who show similar values and do not challenge the status quo (De Mooij, 2019). Fashion is also likely to be similar according to an individual's reference group, making acceptance and approval key elements of consumption choices in Pakistan (Solomon et al., 2010).

Masculinity/femininity: Pakistan rated midrange on this dimension (Hofstede Insights, 2020) suggesting that importance is likely to be placed on both achievement and success and also on caring and promoting empathy (De Mooi, 2019). This could influence the preference of celebrity endorsers and advertising content which contains a blend of values pertaining to both masculine and feminine attributes.

Uncertainty avoidance: Pakistan has a strong uncertainty avoidance score of 70 (Hofstede Insights, 2020). This is reflected by Islamic religious beliefs, as manifested

within the country, which promote formal rules and structured life through practices, such as *Salat* (prayers) and fasting (Armstrong, 2007). Individuals in high uncertainty avoidance cultures have a higher level of anxiety and therefore try and exercise control over situations and minimise risk thus showed a reserved response to change (De Mooi, 2019). This makes high-uncertainty avoidance cultures sceptical when trying out innovative products as they prefer to see familiarity in advertising (De Mooij, 2019). Celebrity attributes would therefore need to stress expertise and relevance. Well-known and well-liked celebrities are also likely to be preferred as they promote familiarity. Humorous or controversial adverts may be perceived negatively.

Long-/short-term orientation: This dimension is based on 'Confucian Dynamism'. Pakistan scores midrange on this dimension (Hofstede Insights, 2020). However, there is an increase in the consumption of status symbols in Pakistan (Walsh, 2006), an aspect which is associated with countries which are classified as short-term orientation. This could be attributed to reference groups and social structures within the country and the increasing importance of status (Saddiq, 2013). Usually in long-term orientation cultures, celebrities and adverts which display traditional values are more successful than contemporary adverts (De Mooij, 2019).

Indulgence vs. Restraint: This dimension was added to the model upon further review (Minkov et al., 2017). In a country with a high indulgence score, there is relatively free gratification of the basic human needs of having fun and enjoying life (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Restraint, on the other hand, stands for a society that believes in delayed gratification and often regulates it by strict social reforms. Pakistan has a score of '0' on this dimension (Hofstede Insights, 2020). Although this is consistent with Islamic religious values, there is a high level of luxury consumption amongst the upper- and middle-class consumers residing in the country (Walsh, 2006). Therefore, there is uncertainty in the manner in which celebrities who display a lifestyle of indulgence, or adverts which portray indulgent values, would be perceived.

2.2.3.2 Halls high-context and low-context communication culture

Cultural factors are likely to influence the type of content and context within advertising that will appeal to a market (De Mooij, 2019). As noted, although there is plenty of literature available on western markets, this framework is used to gain a comparative insight into how consumer preferences of celebrity-endorsed advertising may differ across the two countries.

Research on the context of culture shows the two countries to be divergent. In England, owing to high level of individualism there is an emphasis on the independent self, self enhancement and a desire for lack of conformity (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; De Mooij, 2017), all which would indicate that a wide array of celebrities would make for effective endorsers and be considered as physically attractiveness. Additionally, celebrities that outwardly display a strong identity and personality are likely to be preferred (Solomon et al., 2010). In contrast, belonging to a highly collectivist culture, Pakistani consumers are likely to conform to popular beauty ideals within the country and perceive celebrities which showcase those ideals as being physically attractive (De Mooij, 2019). Celebrities and celebrity-endorsed adverts that contradict cultural beliefs, values and norms are thus unlikely to elicit a favourable response within the market. Fashion is likely to be similar according to an individual's reference group, making acceptance and approval key elements of consumption choices of eastern consumers (Jan and Abdullah, 2015).

Classified by low context culture, British consumers are likely to respond well to lowcontext communication styles (Hall, 1983; De Mooij, 2019). Advertising containing factual, clear, distinct and explicit messages and content is likely to be most successful (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; De Mooij, 2019). In contrast, Asian countries demonstrate preference for high context communication styles and subtler and implicit advertising content (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Um and Lee, 2015). Eastern cultures are also more likely to have diverse cultures which can uniquely influence consumer behaviour (Akhter, Sattar and Umar, 2011). Pakistani salient cultural values of Izzat (face saving), family and relationships and modesty all promote conformity and place enhanced

importance on public perception and maintaining harmony and not challenging social norms (Baig, Ting-Toomey and Dorjee, 2014; Mumtaz and Mitha, 2016).

Applying Hall's high vs. low-context communication cultural framework reveals that there are likely to be significant differences in the preference of communication styles across the two countries and therefore, celebrity-endorsed advertising is unlikely to elicit a similar response across the two countries.

2.2.4 Islam

2.2.4.1 An overview of Islamic religion

Evident from the historical background and identity of the nation of Pakistan, many of the core Pakistani values stem from Islam itself. The culture of Pakistan was heavily influenced by religion in the early developing stages, to an extent that the two can often be embedded and perceived as one, making it hard to distinguish between them (Jalal, 2012). This makes it essential for the Islamic religion, as practiced in Pakistan, to be reviewed, as it would help explain values and beliefs within the country. Religious values can also help provide rationale behind consumer perceptions. Religious values are often embedded in deep emotions, guide values and can influence ethics, attitudes, choice and behaviour (De Mooij, 2019). Thus it is necessary for marketers to be respectful and aware of religion as individuals can perceive stimuli from a religious perspective which can at times lead to the message being distorted or misscommunicated as it can be perceived through the filter of moral standards within religion.

Islam is the second-largest religion in the world with approximately 1.9 billion follower's worldwide (World Population Review, 2020). Originating from the teachings of Prophet Mohammad (peace be upon him) it is based on a monotheistic faith. Muslims believe the Quran contains the literal word of God (Khraim, 2010; Al-Qazwini, 2020). The Quran provides a code of conduct and a way of living for Muslims around the world (Armstrong, 2001). At the centre of the religion are the Five Pillars of Islam, which are the core practices all Muslims should follow as they provide a framework of a Muslim's life (Al-Qazwini, 2020). These will be examined in turn and then the Islamic

and cultural values will be assessed in turn. Although the five pillars may be regarded as part of practice or ritual, they have also been classified as values by Muslims (Armstrong, 2007).

2.2.4.2 The Five Pillars of Islam

Shahadah – This is the word for 'profession of faith': done through recitation of the verse "there is no God but God and Muhammad (peace be upon him) is the messenger of God". It is not solely the recitation but belief in this core concept that signifies a Muslim's acceptance of Islam (Armstrong, 2007).

Salah – Prayer (called 'Namaz' in Pakistan). Salah is meant to be undertaken five times a day and includes the recitation of *Surahs*, i.e. passages from the Quran, and praises and gives thanks to God (Qara'ati, 2020). Guidance is provided on the times when Salah should be performed. This practice also promotes the value of community as individuals are turning collectively in the direction of Mecca. Moreover, Salah provides a structure for the day, teaches discipline and gratitude (Tabatabai, 1977).

Zakat – This concept stems from the word '*zaka*' which signifies growth and purity (Armstrong, 2007). Zakat involves giving a percentage of earned income and/or certain possessions as charity or 'tax' annually (Sistani, 2020). The concept is often viewed as charity/almsgiving and ensures and encourages Muslims to be socially responsible, as it is considered a part of an individual's service to God (Armstrong, 2007). Zakat ensures that every Muslim follows this duty where possible (Armstrong, 2007).

Sawm – fasting. The fourth pillar of Islam is fasting (abstaining from food and drink) during the month of Ramadan (Khraim, 2010). Fasting is seen as an act of deep personal worship to God and its intent is to teach self-control, patience, gratitude and appreciation for things that are often taken for granted (Sistani, 2020). Although fasting is only obligatory during the month of Ramadan, fasting as a general practice is encouraged. The practice is also intended to heighten sensitivity to the suffering of the less fortunate, which reinforces the importance of Zakat (Tabatabai, 1977; Sistani, 2020). There are instances where an individual is exempt from fasting, i.e. during

travelling, or if it would be medically unsafe. This is one of the most widely observed practices in Pakistan. It also has a significant impact on advertising within the country.

Hajj – Pilgrimage. The fifth pillar makes it obligatory for every Muslim who is physically and financially capable of making a journey to Mecca to perform Hajj (Tabatabai, 1977; Armstrong, 2001). Again, a strong emphasis is placed on community, as Hajj ensures that Muslims from around the world gather in one place (Armstrong, 2007).

Although these five acts are universally accepted by Muslims, they are not necessarily engaged in and performed by every Muslim. Additionally, Muslims can believe that regular observation of other practices, such as going to the mosque or place of worship to pray, reading the Quran regularly are encouraged (Al-Qazwini, 2020). Islamic values also place an increased importance on education and acquiring knowledge (Mutahhari, 2010).

Some additional dominant Islamic values are patience, peace, forbearance, restraint, respecting nature and humanity, compassion, humanity, generosity and equality (Armstrong, 2007; Mutahhari, 2010). Hoarding, violence and usury are all heavily discouraged in the Quran and seen as immoral acts. The values of restraint and patience can be theorised to influence consumer indulgence in purchasing material possessions and impulse buying. In Islam, a strong emphasis is also placed on community and 'brotherhood', whereby society is supposed to look after and help each other where needed regardless of differences (Khraim, 2010; Shomali, 2010). This value is likely to influence the level of collectivism in Pakistan and thus have an impact on consumer responses to advertising and also possibly on their purchase intentions. Another important value within the Pakistani culture, stemming from Islamic religious beliefs, is respecting parents, family, relatives and elders (Tabatabai, 1977). Elder members within society are meant to be respected and given special considerations and parents and guardians are held in very high esteem (Armstrong, 2007). The identified values can directly affect the type of celebrity attributes preferred in Islamic countries. Celebrities who display immoral behaviour or contradict Islamic values have been the subject of media controversies and are likely to lose their credibility and appeal. Thus, marketers need to be careful when considering a celebrity and ensure that the way the celebrity is portrayed is not considered immoral.

Islam also encourages the concept of maintaining and observing 'hijab' by both men and women. Although the term hijab is commonly used to refer to a headscarf, hijab encompasses a wider meaning pertaining to modesty (Syed, Ali and Winstanley, 2005; Rashid, 2017). Of interest and relevance to this study, hijab pertains to the discouragement of sexuality and of exhibiting sexual behaviour for all genders (Rashid, 2017). This illustrates that the use of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts is likely to lead to negative responses from Muslim consumers. However, there can be differences amongst Pakistani consumers as to the understanding and concept modesty (Saddiq, 2013) which might lead to differences between consumers within the country. This could be partly attributed to the influence of and exposure to western culture in metropolitan cities and partly due to the increased level of education in bigger cities, which is based on the British and the American education system (Zubair and Yaqoob, 2012; Saddiq, 2013).

Another aspect identified is that there can often be inherent differences between cultural and Islamic values in Pakistan when compared with other countries where Islam is the dominant religion. This evidence shows that religious values have, in turn, been influenced by culture. Furthermore, identifying as belonging to a particular religion does not necessarily signify belief in the religion or its practices (Beyers, 2017). Although an individual categories and identifies themselves as belonging to a particular religion, there can be disconnect between their identity and the practice of the said religion, this is evidenced by examination of findings emergent from various studies over the years such as; Schwartz and Huismans (1995), Ramasamy, Yeung and Au (2010) and Curtis and Olson (2019).

2.2.4.3 Religious involvement

Research has found that it is not just culture, but also religion that can alter perception of stimuli. Beliefs can alter information processing and create a filter through which information and stimuli are processed and interpreted, altering the judgement formed

(Mortimer and Prideaux, 2018; Hommel and Colzato, 2019). Part of the aim of this research is to identify whether Pakistani consumers level of religious involvement with Islamic religious practices is an influential factor in consumer preferences and perceptions of celebrity-endorsed advertising and response to the use of explicit sexuality in advertising. Within the context of this research, religious involvement is used to indicate the extent to which individuals or consumers perform and undertake behavioural religious practices. The term is used to refer to the actual level of consumer engagement with the behavioural dimension of religiosity.

Literature has identified various components and dimensions to conceptualise religiosity. These can be categorised as pertaining to three overarching aspects which can be classified as: religious affiliation, beliefs (Schwartz and Huismans, 1995; Ramasamy, Yeung and Au, 2010). This research is interested in the practice component, also referred to as the behavioural dimension of religiosity. As noted, the vast majority of individuals in Pakistan classify and identify as Muslims; therefore, affiliation is established. Furthermore, belief in the values of the religion can prove limited in assessing religiosity as individuals belonging to a religion often support the overarching universal beliefs of their religion (Khraim, 2010). This can be particularly true for the Islamic religion, where belief in the core religious values is essential and should apply to all Muslims (Khraim, 2010). This makes the belief component of religiosity not a particularly informative aspect to help explain differences in consumer behaviour within Pakistan. Therefore, the third dimension of religiosity, which pertains to religious practices, is utilised in this study to investigate the effects of religiosity on the developed conceptual model. It should be noted that this research does not seek to comment on whether the level of religious involvement of consumers is correlated with a 'stronger' or 'weaker' belief or affiliation with the Islamic religion, but solely investigates whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices has an impact on consumer response to celebrity endorsement of both a nonsexual and explicitly sexual nature.

To investigate the influence of religion on consumer perception and preference of celebrity endorsement and establish whether religion does account for variances in

consumer perception and response, it is essential to have measures which can be used to analyse the level of religiosity of individuals. Although traditionally, scales have been created to measure religiosity for Christianity, or are created to be generally applied in the field of religious studies (Hackett, 2014), multiple studies such as; Khraim (2010), O'Cass, Lee and Siahtiri (2013) and Ilter, Bayraktaroglu and Ipek (2017) have either developed, or adapted these scales to measure aspects of religiosity in relation to the Islamic faith. However, despite the widespread research into religion, there is a lack of universal multi-item scales within the literature which can utilised across studies looking to measure religious involvement with varying objectives. The scales used in these studies are also often specifically developed to address the particular aims and requirements for the study being conducted e.g. Dasti and Sitwat (2014), Hackett (2014) and Mrdjenovich (2020). Although this is partially due to the complex and multifaceted nature of religiosity, it also means that scales are often not transferable to other research contexts.

As mentioned, this study investigates whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices has an impact on the developed conceptual model. Although studies have looked into measuring religiosity in regards to different religions including the Islamic faith, the scales in these studies have mainly measured cognitive aspects of religion, mainly pertaining to affiliation and belief or measure the perceived or intended level of involvement with religious practices. Due to the aforementioned reasons, this research creates and proposes scales that can be used to measure the actual level of involvement in the behavioural dimension of religiosity to investigate a link between level of religious involvement and consumer preferences and perceptions of celebrity endorsement within the Pakistani market, and to further investigate how it might impact consumer response to explicit sexuality. In light of the current limitations relating to the transferability of available measures, the scale to measure involvement with religious practices is developed to be more general to enable it to be used across studies which aim to investigate the effects of this dimension of religiosity in relation to the Islamic religion. The process used to design and develop the scale is outlined in the following chapter.

2.2.5 Salient Pakistani cultural values and the influence of Islamic religious beliefs

The dominant values which form the national culture of Pakistan stem from its religious identity as an Islamic nation and are influenced by its historical background (Jalal, 2012) and from the high level of collectivism within the society (Hofstede Insights, 2020). As limited academic literature is available on cultural values in Pakistan, a combination of sources is used to categorise the dominant values within Pakistani culture which are of relevance to this study and can help understand the cultural influences on the practice of celebrity endorsement and the use of sexuality in advertising. The prevalent values within Pakistani culture are Izzat, family and relationships and modesty. These are reviewed below.

2.2.5.1 Izzat

One of the salient values of Pakistan is 'Izzat', which when directly translated, means reputation or honour (Baig, Ting-Toomey and Dorjee, 2014). However, the term encompasses a wider meaning and is similar to the Asian value of 'saving face' Baig, (Ting-Toomey and Dorjee, 2014). Izzat refers not just to reputation, but the maintenance of dignity, grace, respect, prestige, pride, self-respect and the avoidance of humiliation and embarrassment. It also encompasses public perception of an individual's choices and actions while keeping dignity and self-esteem intact. Pakistan being a collectivist culture would indicate that Izzat is applicable on an individual level and also on a national level. Izzat encompasses not just an individual's perception about their own self but rather the public's perception of an individuals' family or social affiliations. Similar to the concept of 'saving face', Pakistani consumers are likely to forego their own personal interests in order to avoid public humiliation (Mumtaz and Mitha, 2016). However, standards of Izzat are different according to different cities, societies and families in Pakistan; usually it is the reference group which determines perceptions of Izzat. Contrary to the Islamic teachings of discouragement of materialism, maintaining Izzat in society now also consists of possessing material wealth according to the social standing of an individual (Saddiq, 2013). This has encouraged consumer indulgence in purchasing luxury brands in an attempt to showcase wealth to enhance social status (Walsh, 2006).

2.2.5.2 Family and relationships

One of the core values in Pakistan is the importance of family. Extended family relationships are of increased importance in comparison to western cultures (De Mooij, 2013). This is illustrated by consideration of language; which is representational of the values of the society and provides insight into core beliefs (Musson, Cohen and Tietze, 2007). The different languages in Pakistan contain specific kinship terms which are used to refer to specific family relationships, and do not have equivalents in the English language (Read, 2001). This value is also stressed and supplemented by the Islamic values of respecting and maintaining good relations with family members (Hussain and Jordan, 2006).

The importance of family values within Pakistani culture is further intensified by the 'joint family system' which, similarly to other Asian countries, exists in Pakistan (Mumtaz and Mitha, 2016). Within the country, several generations of family and extended family reside together. This would influence the structure of households and family hierarchies and in turn the decision-making process and family unit. This can impact on the marketing strategy best suited within the country. Furthermore, the importance of respecting family could also indicate that individuals might prioritise the preferences of family members rather than their personal ones. The family structure in Pakistan also implies that individuals residing within a household have to adhere by specific standards according to their extended family to maintain their Izzat – in some cases this may indicate the fashion they adopt. This can cause a possible disconnect between attitude towards advertising and purchase intention, as individuals may refrain from intended behaviour which is not deemed as appropriate by family members or not seen as maintaining the Izzat of the family.

2.2.5.3 Modesty

Another dominant value within the culture is modesty. Modesty can be defined as simplicity and moderation (Hussain and Jordan, 2006). In Pakistani society, modesty mainly refers to behaving and dressing in a manner which is non-controversial and is not perceived as exuding sexuality. The value of modesty is dynamic in nature and different social groups within Pakistan can have a different notion of what being modest comprises (Khawaja, 2013). Due to the discouragement of sexuality, it is likely that celebrity-endorsed adverts which feature a celebrity that is viewed as sexual, or adverts for fashion and beauty products which contain sexuality in the advertising content, could be perceived in a negative manner in the Pakistani market as they may not be deemed as maintaining modesty. However, from the examination of the evolution of Pakistani fashion and beauty trends (Appendix 3), it can be evidenced that the concept of modesty, and what is considered as being sexual, may be changing. It is therefore possible that preferences for celebrity-endorsed advertising could be influenced by western media and may be divided amongst consumers within the country.

2.2.6 Cultural issues relating to celebrity endorsement within the Pakistani market

2.2.6.1 Beauty and fashion in Pakistan

Over time the traditional dress and fashion in Pakistan has evolved and changed as Pakistani designers have introduced variations to differentiate their products and introduce fashionable alternatives. Pakistani fashion now includes an adapted dress style which demonstrates incorporation of dress styles from other eastern, as well as western, markets (Appendix 3). Due to the convergence of cultures, globalisation and Pakistan's exposure to western entertainment media, fashion is inspired by western designers (Feerasta, 2013). However, the way women dress seems to differ according to the geographical location in Pakistan, with rural regions within still retaining a more traditional style of dressing (Saddiq, 2013). Research would suggest that advertising should portray fashion in such a way that it appears adaptable to the culture so as to avoid a negative response. Furthermore, even if the celebrity-endorsed advertising appeals to the target market, if the product being marketed is not culturally acceptable to be worn in public; the advert is unlikely to induce a purchase in case it leads to loss of Izzat. It is also noted that even if an individual is accepting of western fashion - due to the strong family values in Pakistan - if additional family members living in the household do not approve of the choice or it is not accepted in the reference group, consumers may not adopt a western style of fashion. Furthermore, if a brand has advertisements which display fashion items as being seductive and appealing to the

opposite sex, as is common in celebrity endorsement adverts in western markets (Atwood, 2005; Sengupta and Dahl, 2008), it would be seen as contradictory to the Islamic and Pakistani cultural value of modesty.

Solomon et al., state: "a person's satisfaction with the physical image they present to others is affected by how closely that image corresponds to the image valued by their culture" (2010, p. 161). Therefore, the specific influence of culture on beauty standards may have a direct influence on the source attractiveness models and consequentially, different celebrities might be preferred across the markets of England and Pakistan.

2.2.6.2 Perception of sexuality

Analysis of the cultural values and beliefs within Pakistani culture demonstrates that sexual behaviour and dress is not appropriate within the country. However, from the review of literature, it is evidenced that sexuality, like other variables, is likely to be perceived through the interpretation and classification of stimuli and can be guided by situational and cognitive beliefs. Pakistani consumers can be conditioned to adversely respond to explicit sexuality due to its discouragement within Pakistani culture and Islam (Syed, Ali and Winstanley, 2005; Rashid, 2017). This would suggest that Pakistani consumers are likely to have negative cognitive and affective attitudes towards the use of sexuality in advertising. However, the extent to which an advert is perceived as sexual or inappropriate may differ across the market. Research has found that globalisation can create similarities amongst consumers from different cultures (Raval and Subramanian, 2004; Sam and Berry, 2010; De Burgh-Woodman, 2014). Reviewing the images of popular fashion and dress within Pakistani culture and their influence of western fashion demonstrates a shift in the preferences of consumers within the country. Furthermore, some of the fashion showcased in the images of fashion shows (Appendix 3) can also be classified as 'sexy'. It should also be noted that, due to the increase in global media and information access, Pakistani consumers may have become more accepting of sexuality. Therefore, this study emphasises that consumer response to celebrity-endorsed adverts needs to be understood through conducting

primary research to effectively understand consumer response to sexuality within the market.

Furthermore, due to the Islamic teaching of modesty and the religion's strong discouragement of overt displays of sexuality (Bayraktar, 2012; Jan and Abdullah, 2015), it is worthwhile to investigate whether acceptance of sexuality is further impacted and influenced, not just by the culture, but also by the level of consumer involvement in with the Islamic religion. Additionally, individuals can be quick to form lasting impressions when presented with negative aspects or behaviours they consider inappropriate (Amos, Holmes and Strutton., 2008). This means that if individuals respond negatively to sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertising within the Pakistani market, it may lead to long-term avoidance of the celebrity and brand.

2.2.6.3 Local vs. foreign celebrity-endorsed adverts in Pakistan

Appendix 4 shows local and foreign celebrity-endorsed adverts that have appeared in the Pakistani market. As noted, there exists a variation between the content and the context of adverts. Most of this difference is evident between the advert designs used by global brands and local brands within the market. However, there is limited information available which can be used to measure the level of success these celebrity-endorsed adverts have had in the Pakistani market and how consumer attitudes and purchase intentions were impacted. This information is essential, as some of the adverts displayed in the country are contrary to the beliefs and values within Pakistani culture and Islamic values. Choi and Rifon (2012) found that celebrities and celebrity-endorsed brands should ideally appeal to an individual's self to be successful. This would suggest that if Pakistani consumer's actual and ideal self does not include a desire to be perceived as sexual, it is likely that the foreign adverts containing explicit sexuality are not having the intended outcome within the market. As noted, although it may be possible that Pakistani consumers are becoming more accepting of sexuality, due to belonging to an eastern cultural market, it is likely that consumers would show preference towards high-context communication styles. This would further indicate that even if sexuality in celebrity-endorsed advertising is accepted, explicit sexuality is not likely to elicit a favourable response.

Research finds that consumers can be less forgiving of foreign brands and companies which do not respect local culture, and that increased emotional connections to brands can be an influencing factor in Pakistani consumers' intention to purchase products (Akhter, Sattar and Umar, 2011; Niazi et al., 2012). As mentioned, celebrity endorsers who are perceived as displaying similar values to consumers and signify values and meanings from an individual's culture are most effective in creating strong emotional attachments. Furthermore, literature on negative information shows that negative emotions can prove to be longer lasting than positive ones. This necessitates that investigation into the manner in which celebrity-endorsed advertising is being perceived is critical to ensuring success of the communications strategy in the Pakistani market.

2.3 Synthesis of research issues

The review of the literature on celebrity-endorsed advertising reveals limitations and areas which need to be explored further. Academic research on celebrity endorsement in western markets is quite vast and has extensively focused on identifying the attributes which are most likely to make a celebrity a successful endorser. There is also an emphasis on understanding the endorsement process and the transfer of associations from the celebrity to the brand. Over the years, although a multitude of research has analysed the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer attitudes and/or purchase intentions, the results and findings regarding tangible positive impact of using celebrity endorsement on consumer behaviour have been inconsistent and inconclusive. The topic still lacks a comprehensive framework which can be utilised to predict and analyse the effect of celebrity endorsement on consumers.

To enable development of a comprehensive theoretical framework, consumer models used within the field of marketing and consumer behaviour were reviewed and used as a lens through which the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions could be predicted. Synthesization of the findings revealed that the aforementioned effects can be best understood and predicted by consideration of perceptions and attitudes as mediating the relationship between celebrity effectiveness and purchase intention. This was evidenced by the following; first, it was noted that the literature on celebrity endorsement itself provided a basis for consideration of perception and attitude when the findings of the various theories, models and studies were taken consolidated. However, limited research within the field has considered all aspects in collaboration. Studies have often investigated the impact of the source models or the match-up hypothesis directly on brand attitudes or purchase intentions without adequate consideration of factors which can have mediating effects. Second, existing theories and models within consumer behaviour and consumer psychology support and demonstrate that perception, attitude and purchase intention do not exist in isolation and are not mutually exclusive, but rather inter-related. Therefore, if the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumer behavioural intentions are studied directly, vital constructs are being overlooked by the lack of focus on consideration of these mediators.

The aforementioned rationale for consideration of the mediating effects of perception and attitude is provided from review and consideration of various theories within the field of consumer behaviour, and in particular the cognitive-affective approach to attitude. Additionally, certain perceptions of stimuli or observations regarding an advert or brand are often automatically assumed to elicit a favourable response. However, due to the impact of culture on perception, it is argued that different consumer groups may not necessarily respond to stimuli in the same manner. Additionally, emergent from the review is the finding that it is not just consumer perceptions and attitudes towards the endorsed brand but also towards the design of the celebrity-endorsed advert that will impact on consumer purchase intentions; however, few studies have taken this into account. It is therefore put forth that this consideration of mediators such as perception and attitude towards both the endorsed advert and the brand can help overcome and explain inconsistencies within the findings with regard to the effects of celebrity endorsement on attitude and purchase intention.

The review of the literature on celebrity endorsement also revealed that, despite being one of the most popular global advertising techniques, to date very little comparative

research has been conducted on its cross-cultural impact and transferability. Although the models of celebrity effectiveness have been refined and updated periodically, their cross-cultural validity is yet to be robustly established. However, as the effectiveness of a celebrity is the main identifying factor in determining their suitability as an endorser, it is important to know whether the developed models are applicable across cultures. Furthermore, an emergent key factor from the review is that consumer perception plays a critical role in both the overall effectiveness of a celebrity endorser and the overall effectiveness of the communications technique. Cultural research finds that consumer values and beliefs can impact on consumer perceptual cognition and attitudinal response to stimuli further evidencing the need for cross-cultural research. However, despite literature demonstrating the theoretical importance of understanding culture when using celebrity endorsement, studies in non-western countries remain few and studies conducted in South Asian countries are especially scarce. Despite being a significant economic market with a large presence of global brands and a diverse culture, Pakistan has largely been overlooked in this field of study. Research into the Pakistani market is essential to establish the reliability of the models on celebrity endorsement in the country. Although western culture may have an impact within the country, without specific knowledge on the perceptions and preferences of Pakistani consumers, understanding consumer behaviour and designing effective advertising strategies remains challenging. Research finds that knowledge on consumer perceptions of the content and context of celebrity-endorsed adverts is needed to understand its impact and enhance consumer appeal. Due to the significant impact of Islam within the Pakistan, identifying any direct correlation between the perceptions and purchase intentions of Pakistani consumers and their religious involvement is worthwhile to consider as a method of understanding consumer behaviour. This can potentially help in determining effective methods of market segmentation to categorise consumers and enable optimum targeting strategies.

In western markets, a popular strategy used by marketers in the use of sex appeal and sexualised advertising content and context, this strategy is particularly prevalent in celebrity-endorsed adverts within the fashion and beauty industry and is often used to

build a more desirable and appealing brand image and enhance sales (Anabila, Tagoe and Asare, 2015; Black and Morton, 2017). However, whereas western markets have often been found to respond favourable to this, sexuality is discouraged in Pakistani culture and the Islamic religion. As identified, in order to create successful advertising and communications strategies, it is critical for marketers to ensure that the manner in which advertising content is perceived within different cultures and belief systems is as intended. Therefore, research is needed to understand the manner in which explicit sexual content within celebrity-endorsed advertising will impact on consumer purchase intentions. This will aid in optimising communications strategy across the markets and identify the extent to which advertising can be standardised across western and eastern markets.

This study deviates from existing research within the field of celebrity endorsement in three main ways. First, this study proposes a comprehensive model to take the aforementioned aspects into account to effectively conceptualise the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention. This development of a conceptual model addresses the current challenges and limitations in the field which contains various models and extensive literature but is lacking in a rigorous framework which can be utilised across studies. Second, this research investigates the cross-cultural transferability of the developed model in the western and eastern cultural markets of England and Pakistan when both nonsexual and explicitly sexual celebrity-endorsed adverts are utilised. This not only adds to the limited literature on celebrity endorsement within a cultural context, but also provides an insight into the Pakistani market which is under-researched in academia. It also investigates the effects of sexuality in advertising across the two cultures. Due to the religious values within Pakistan, the impact of consumer level of involvement with Islamic religious practices on the developed model is also assessed to enable further understanding of the Pakistani market. The research into the Pakistani market also provides insight into the effects of culture and religiosity on consumer behaviour and advertising. Third, this study uses an experiment in the research design to provide novel insight into the field

and addresses the need for methodological innovation within the field as identified by Bergkvist and Zhou (2016).

2.4 Conceptual model and hypothesis

2.4.1 Development of conceptual model

A review of literature and models within the field of celebrity endorsement, consumer behaviour, culture, and cross-cultural advertising that are of relevance to the focus of this study is carried out. Findings from the review are collated to enable a multifacetted and comprehensive approach to inform and guide development of a conceptual model which collates available models to enable prediction of the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions.

To conceptualise the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions the cognitive-affective approach to attitude is applied to guide rationale behind inclusion of both the observations, thoughts perceptions and idea respondents may have towards stimuli and the emotional reaction or feeling that cognitive perception would elicit within the developed model (Hsu et al., 2006; Ajzen, 2011; Cheng and Huang, 2013; Ketabi, Ranjbarian and Ansari, 2014; Moon, Habib, and Attiq, 2015). This consideration of both cognitive and affective elements was deemed as particularly important as this research was conducted across cultures and the manner in which information is perceived can be guided by cultural beliefs (Um and Lee, 2015; De Mooij, 2019). Furthermore, the cognitive-affective approach was also deemed suitable for this research as it enabled the hypothesized impact of respondent's beliefs regarding stimuli, and the potential impact they may have on the impact on consumer response to celebrity-endorsed advertising and relationships within the model to be more effectively considered. This is critical in examining both objective 2 and objective 3 of this study to and as it allows for identification of the observational and emotional response to the use of explicit sexuality within the advert content. The hypothesized moderating role of country of origin and religiosity on the relationships between constructs within the model is further indicated. The proposed conceptual model is presented in Figure 5.

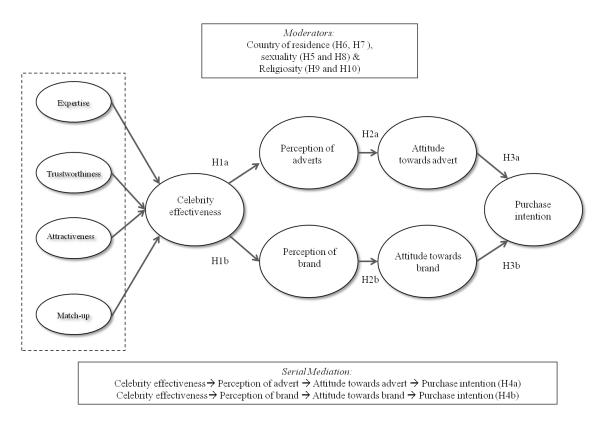


Figure 5: Proposed conceptual framework

In addition to using the cognitive-affective theory, the relationships between constructs within the model are further supported by and are grounded in theory. This is discussed in detail below;

Theory on the source models and match-up hypothesis guides the overall conceptualisation of the construct celebrity effectiveness. Literature on the source models states that a celebrity being viewed as an expert and trustworthy and as physically attractive and likeable directly impacts their effectiveness as an endorser (Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). Additionally, the match-up hypothesis and literature on product-brand congruence finds that the perceived level of match-up between the celebrity endorser and the endorsed product category and brand also has a direct influence on celebrity effectiveness (Till and Busler, 2000; Törn, 2012; Wright, 2016). This study investigates celebrity endorser effectiveness in the context of fashion and cosmetics marketing. As this is related to physical attractiveness, research suggests that source credibility models will have a reduced impact (Bower and Landreth, 2001; Liu, Huang

and Minghua, 2007). However, these findings are not tested across eastern markets, and their cross-cultural transferability is yet to be established and therefore, source expertise and source trustworthiness are utilised in conceptualising celebrity effectiveness. In the initial stages of the data analysis, the relevance of celebrity expertise and trustworthiness in the structural model will be determined. Depending on results from the analysis, the factors will either be retained or removed before the rest of the analysis is carried out.

The meaning transfer model states that associations from a celebrity get transferred onto the brand through the process of endorsement (McCracken, 1989; Miller and Allen, 2012; Roy and Jain, 2017). The attributes and associations of an endorser are viewed as influencing the associations of the celebrity-endorsed advert and brand. This theory is used to hypothesise that celebrity effectiveness will impact on consumer perceptions of the advert and brand. This study further hypothesizes that perception will impact attitude and makes a distinction between the two. As reviewed, perception is used to refer to observation of stimuli while attitude is used to refer to the response to the stimuli (Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986; Solomon et al., 2010; Chang, Eckman and Yan, 2011). In this context of this study, the distinction is important because, as noted, the research is being conducted under diverse cultural conditions which can influence the manner in which stimuli are understood and interpreted (Hall, 1983; Bates and Plog, 1990; Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Therefore, separating the two constructs will ensure that observations are not inherently deemed as eliciting a favourable or unfavourable response across the two markets.

The proposed conceptual model puts forth that attitudes towards the endorsed advert and attitude towards the endorsed brand will influence consumer purchase intention towards the endorsed product and brand. It is noted that, although cognitive-affective approach to understanding behavioural intentions is the overarching theory used for the conceptualisation of the model, support for the model and the link between the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions, through the consideration of perceptions and attitudes is further guided by the stimulus response theory (Chang,

Eckman and Yan, 2011; Buxbaum, 2016). The theory of planned behaviour forms the basis for the relationship between attitude and purchase intentions (Ajzen, 2011).

This study proposes that celebrity effectiveness impacts purchase intention across two distinct paths: (a) perception and attitude towards the celebrity-endorsed advert and (b) perception and attitude towards the celebrity-endorsed brand. The model is developed to acknowledge that both can independently but simultaneously influence purchase intention towards an endorsed product. This distinction allows for consumer beliefs, opinions and emotions regarding both the advert design and brand to be accounted for, thus allowing for cognitive and affective elements in relation to both to be better considered. It further enables a more comprehensive approach to understanding the different factors which can play a mediating role on consumer behavioural intentions.

2.4.2 Hypotheses for testing

Based on the review of the available literature, hypotheses have been developed to allow investigation into each of the objectives that are used to satisfy the overall aim for this study. This study uses a mixed-methods approach which is detailed in the following chapter. Research hypotheses have been developed due to the nature of this study which warrants a deductive approach. The following section outlines the hypotheses along with the research objectives they help investigate. Detail on how they will be tested is also provided;

Objective 1: Develop and test a conceptual model that predicts the impact of celebrity-endorsed advertising on consumer purchase intentions.

H1a: Celebrity effectiveness has a significant and positive impact on perception of advert.

H1b: Celebrity effectiveness has a significant and positive impact on perception of brand

H2a: Perception of advert has a significant and positive impact on attitude towards advert

H2b: Perception of brand has a significant and positive impact on attitude towards brand

H3a: Attitude towards advert has a significant and positive impact on purchase intention

H3b: Attitude towards brand has a significant and positive impact on purchase intention

The above hypotheses have been developed to analyse relationships between constructs in the developed model. The developed conceptual model and proposed relationships between constructs will be tested for significance through the use of structural equation modelling. The model is tested across the cultures of England and Pakistan under two different celebrity-endorsed adverts. One advert is designed to be nonsexual in nature and the other advert incorporates explicit sexuality within the content of the advert design. Testing the developed hypotheses will aid in investigating the role of consumer perceptions and attitudes in predicting the impact of celebrityendorsed advertising on consumer purchase intentions. Qualitative methods will aid in supplementing the quantitative analysis and allow for the objective to be investigated using an alternative method.

Additionally, this research hypothesizes that celebrity effectiveness impacts purchase intention through two distinct paths within the model – each of which mediates the effects between the aforementioned constructs. This will be conducted using the Bayesian approach to test the significance of the mediated paths within the structural model (Hayes, 2009; Zhao, Lynch and Chen, 2010). The following hypotheses are used to test the mediating effects to identify whether they are statistically significant:

H4a: The impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated by perception of advert and attitude towards advert

H4b: The impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated by perception of brand and attitude towards brand

Objective 2: By comparison of the developed model amongst British and Pakistani consumers, investigate whether paths within the model differ among the consumer groups when both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising is utilised.

H5: The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention varies across the nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs.

H6: The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 1.

H7: The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 2.

H8: The model for the prediction of Pakistani consumers' purchase intention varies across the nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs.

The cross-cultural aspect is addressed by carrying out the research in two countries, England and Pakistan, which will aid in highlighting whether the model differs across consumers residing within the western and eastern cultural markets and identify similarities and differences. Additionally, this research will conduct two studies. Study 1 will contain a nonsexual advert while Study 2 will contain an advert which includes sexuality within the advertising content. This study design is explained in detail in the following chapter. Comparisons between Study 1 and Study 2 will be conducted to highlight the effects that sexuality within the advertising content has on British and Pakistani consumers. The aforementioned comparisons will be conducted through the use of multi-group structural equation modelling on the quantitative data. Analysing the data from the qualitative focus groups will enable triangulation of findings and aid in enriching understanding of consumer response to both nonsexual and explicitly sexual celebrity advertising.

Objective 2 will highlight differences and similarities in the manner that individuals from the diverse western and eastern cultures interpret and perceive stimuli. By investigating the effects of celebrity-endorsed adverts containing both nonsexual and

explicitly sexual content this objective will further identify consumer response to sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts across England and Pakistan. The investigation of how sexuality impacts the developed conceptual model will help identify whether the intended message of marketers can be effectively translated to the Pakistani culture in a manner that is similar to countries with western cultures. This will aid in determining whether a standardisation or adaptation strategy is more appropriate and suitable between the markets of England and Pakistan.

Objective 3: Identify whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices can account for differences between consumer response to both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising in the Pakistani market.

Sexuality is not only discouraged within the Pakistani culture but also within the Islamic religion. The influence of global media can impact consumers and change cultural values over time. This objective is used to identify whether behavioural religiosity accounts for differences within the Pakistani market.

Primarily, a multi-item scale is confirmed through qualitative analysis with religious leaders and Pakistani academic scholars to measure the behavioural dimension of religiosity and categorise consumers' level of involvement with Islamic religious practices. This measure is then operationalised in the research and utilised to categorise respondents into low-medium levels of religious involvement and high levels of religious involvement. A multi-group analysis, using the same method as in the previous objective, is utilised to test the developed hypotheses for this objective which are as follows:

H9: The model for the prediction of purchase intention is different amongst Pakistani consumers according to religious involvement for nonsexual advert design.

H10: The model for the prediction of purchase intention is different amongst Pakistani consumers according to religious involvement for explicitly sexual advert design.

2.5 Chapter concluding remarks

This chapter reviewed the available literature on the various topics that this research draws upon. Models within the field of celebrity endorsement were reviewed and the possible impact of cultural differences on their cross-cultural transferability is investigated and highlighted. Models within consumer behaviour are researched and used to theorise the possible mediating role of perception and attitude towards the advert and brand in conceptualising the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions. This review differs from existing ones as it addresses the limitations within the subject area and combines models from other areas within consumer behaviour to help explain and overcome the identified limitations within the field.

An overview of the Pakistani market is provided and the religious and cultural values within the country are highlighted and discussed. This is used to enable a better understanding of an under-researched market, help provide a contextual understanding of Pakistani consumers and explore how these values might influence and impact perception of celebrity endorsement and the use of sexuality in advertising. Religiosity within the country is also reviewed and the need for a scale which can be utilised to measure the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices is raised and discussed.

Based on the review, the areas within the literature that need to be addressed are highlighted and the development of the proposed conceptual model for testing is explained. The objectives of this study are reviewed and hypotheses for testing are formed. The following chapter will explain the methodology of this research and how the study will be designed to effectively test the developed objectives and hypotheses.

Chapter 3 Methodology and Research Design

3. Chapter overview

The following chapter outlines and explains the methodological approach and process undertaken for this study. Details relating to the research philosophy, design and instruments are provided and discussed.

This research employs a mixed methods approach using both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Research is conducted within the countries of England and Pakistan with female respondents to gather data that will enable testing of the proposed conceptual model and allow for cross-cultural comparisons to be carried out. To investigate the impact of sexuality within celebrity-endorsed adverts, and how this affects consumer response, this research conducted two studies using an experiment: one which does not include explicit sexuality within the advertising content and one which incorporates explicit sexuality into the design. The process used for the experimental design is outlined. The chapter ends by outlining the research process and the ethics framework used.

3.1 Research philosophy and approach

The philosophical foundation or worldview of researchers is a critical informant of the manner in which research is carried out. It acts as a lens through which the nature of reality and knowledge is viewed and proves instrumental in identifying and informing the research strategy and methodology while ensuring validity and robustness in the study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). The research paradigm chosen by a researcher is concerned with and influenced by the assumptions made on the manner in which the world operates and the commitment held to particular beliefs on the nature of reality in the social world (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Antwi and Hamza, 2015).

A research paradigm consists of four elements; ontology, the nature of reality, epistemology, how knowledge can be gained, methodology, the manner in which knowledge is/can be obtained, and axiology, the role of value in research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Shannon-Baker, 2016). The topic of philosophical worldview positions

and beliefs regarding the nature of inquiry is widely debated amongst researchers (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). Diverse beliefs can at times lead to vast differences among the meaning, nature and classification of different research paradigms and their appropriateness within different disciplines of research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Guba and Lincoln, 2005; Trochim, 2020). Based on the categorisation by Guba and Lincoln (2000), the main research paradigms that guide and influence the manner in which the reality can be understood are; positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and Interpretivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This research adopts a post-positivist paradigm. The following section briefly discusses the aforementioned paradigms and provides reasons as to why these are not suited for this particular research. The philosophical approach used in this study is then outlined. The main paradigmatic perspectives pertaining to mixed-methods research are also evaluated to provide a more critical evaluation of the research paradigm within which this study is situated and explain how and why a mixed-methods approach is used in this study.

Positivism refers to an assumption that reality is objective and exists independently from the social entities in the world (Creswell, 2014). It entails the belief that the purpose of knowledge is to study what can be measured and observed in an objective manner (Snape and Spencer, 2003; Trochim, 2020). As such, positivists adopt a realist ontological position (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). Positivists tend to favour quantitative or highly structured research methods and believe research can be conducted in a value-free manner independently of the researcher (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). This research adopts a realist worldview; however, the position of this research deviates from a positivist position as a critical approach to realism is adopted. This study is carried out with the belief that although it is possible to gain an approximation of reality by employing scientific methods of inquiry, there are limits in the researcher's ability to accurately capture it in an infallible and holistic manner (Trochim, 2020).

The post-positivist movement came about as a result of the criticisms of the positivist assumption that existing reality can be understood and measured in its entirety (Creswell and Path, 2018). As such, it is viewed as an extension, variation or shift within the positivist paradigm (Creswell, 2014). However, while post-positivism does

not reject the positivism approach in its entirety, there are significant differences between the two paradigms (Trochim, 2020). These differences inform the selected paradigm in this study and are thus discussed. Similarly, to positivists, post-positivists are also realists and reject the notion of relativism however they hold the belief that obtaining a complete understanding of reality is not possible (Creswell and Path, 2018). Rather, researchers can only aim to obtain an approximation of reality and are constrained by their own limitations (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). As such, the majority of post-positivists are constructivists, believing in the notion that perceptions influence the manner in which individuals view the world and as cognition processes can be fallible, the construction would consequently be so as well (Trochim, 2020). However, post-positivists reject the notion that there is no common measure for different perspectives and believe that reality can be measured, albeit imperfectly, by employing rigorous methods (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Creswell, 2011; Trochim, 2020). This research acknowledges this fallibility and thus employs mixed-methods to enable enhanced understanding of the phenomenon being studied by using diverse techniques to investigate an issue in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of reality to enhance overall robustness (Trochim, 2020). Under the post-positivist paradigm, although it is acknowledged that a clean separation between the researcher and the research is not possible, this research is approached in a neutral and dispassionate manner in an attempt to enhance objectivity (Lincoln and Guba, 2000).

Critical theory, also sometimes known as the transformative approach or paradigm (Mertens, 2003), is concerned with not just investigating reality to enhance understanding but is further concerned with critique and social change (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). Critical theorists view the world from a position of historical realism, taking reality to be historically created, and believe reality is influenced by power dynamics and shaped by a range of influences including economic, cultural and social values (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Thus Critical theorists view reality and gaining knowledge to be on a continuum which is historically and politically influenced and formed by various human interests (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). At the core of critical

theory is the desire to drive and stimulate change with the predominant motivation to combat and overcome social inequalities and injustices. This is manifest in the different critical movements such as feminism and Marxism (Crawford and Unger, 2000). The role of the researcher is one that is laden with value where the researcher plays a critical part in the research process (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This research does investigate the appropriateness of using explicit sexuality within celebrityendorsed advertising across cultures and provides recommendations on how the needs of diverse consumer groups can be best met while remaining respectful of cultural and religious beliefs. However, the key aims and objectives of this research are not to bring about change but rather investigate the phenomenon being studied with the aim to enhance understanding of the topic in question and area of research and therefore, the critical theory paradigm is also not suitable

The central tenet of the ontological position of Interpretivism is relativism (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). It is rooted in the belief that reality and meaning are socially constructed phenomena and are therefore multi-faceted and subjective in nature (Robson, 2002; Guba and Lincoln, 2005). This research adopts an objectivist epistemology believing reality to be something that exists and as such, does not subscribe to a subjective or relative ontological position. Interpretivism rejects the positivist belief in the existence of a one true reality and thus the ability of obtaining knowledge in an entirely objective and scientific manner (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Consequently, Interpretivists emphasise the investigation of phenomenon through representational actions and meaning behind the experience of individuals and attempts to obtain enhanced understanding of the complexity and diversity of reality along with the social interactions between individuals (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This research views perception, attitudes and behavioural intentions to be observable constructs and culture is viewed as a phenomenon that can be studied and thus measured. This view is evidenced and supported by studies on cross-cultural consumer behaviour (Hofstede, Hofstede and Monkov, 2010; Schwartz, 2012; Barmeyer, Bausch and Moncayo, 2019). As the constructs are viewed to 'exist' they are thus viewed possible to capture through the employment of rigorous methods (albeit in

approximation). This research aims to make generalisations between consumer perceptual cognition and attitudinal response to different stimuli used within advertising. Therefore, the interpretivist paradigm is unsuitable for this particular research. Interpretivists further believe that the research and the researcher are inherently linked and therefore be shaped by the researchers own biases stemming from their experiences (Blaikie, 2000). This research adopts a value-free approach and, as noted, the researcher adopts a passive role.

To summarise, this research is situated within the post-positivist paradigm and as such adopts the post-positivism view of the nature of reality, knowledge, and the manner in which it can be measured as outlined earlier. This study attempts to analyse the factors which govern aspects of consumer behaviour across different markets. Consistent with post-positivism research techniques, the focus of this study is to investigate the manner in which causes determine effects. An advanced understanding pertaining to the topic and focus of this research was obtained by reviewing relevant literature and was used in a reductive manner to develop a theoretical based conceptual model, which uses latent variables, for testing and theory verification. The causes pertaining to consumer response to sexuality, i.e. the outcome, are also investigated in advance. The ensuing primary research is used to test the hypothesis pertaining to the objectives of the study. Although the research is theory-laden which could induce bias, a neutral dispassionate approach is adopted by the researcher, additionally, where methods allow, validity and reliability tests are also carried out on the data to detect potential bias. Owing to the acknowledgement of fallibility and stemming from the belief that outcomes can stem from a range of causation factors, rather than linear cause and effect, which can be interactive in nature; this research employs a mixed-method research design.

3.2 Perspectives for mixed-methods research

The research paradigms reviewed above provide a useful understanding of the manner in which ontological and epistemological beliefs guide the researcher. Although traditionally there were two approaches to research, quantitative and qualitative, over time, as the combining of these two approaches within a single study increased, mixed-methods research was identified and classified as a third approach (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2006; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). As the use of mixed-method research has gained traction, additional perspectives which pertain to and inherently explain the purpose of using mixed-methods have been outlined. Some of these align with the paradigms reviewed earlier while others advocate for adopting a more pragmatic philosophical viewpoint or argue in favour of combining beliefs. In addition to the post-positivism perspective, some of the other perspectives which employ a mixed-method approach are pragmatism, dialectic, transformative-emancipation and critical realism (Shannon-Baker, 2016; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). Although this research is carried out with a post-positivist stance, it is useful to briefly evaluate the different perspectives of mixed methods research and examine why they are not suited for this particular research.

Pragmatism is concerned with adopting more practical rather than theoretical or rigid approaches to inquiry, emphasizing the importance of research questions and critiquing the positivist viewpoint that reality can scientifically be measured (Biesta, 2010; Creswell, 2011). However, that is not to say pragmatics rejects the use of theoretical importance but rather that at the centre of the pragmatism approach is the desire for identifying practical solutions and meaning (Morgan, 2007). There is some debate as to whether pragmatism is a research paradigm or better classified as an approach due to pragmatism not aligning with a particular philosophical system (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006), regardless, pragmatism is suitable to employ as an approach to use mixed-methods (Biesta, 2010). The approach advocates the importance of communication and the role of shared meaning in addressing social issues and places the nature of the inquiry at the forefront of the research (Morgan, 2007). The researcher can adopt an objective or subjective position, or both, depending on the nature of inquiry. An abductive approach is used to connect the theory to the data and an emphasis is placed upon transferability of results by evaluating their specified level of context and generalisability (Shannon-Baker, 2016). With the emphasis on shared meaning and actions, it combines both qualitative and

quantitative approaches for the purpose of complimenting the strengths and drawbacks inherent within each method (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Pragmatism is not suitable for this study as the researcher does subscribe to specific ontological and epistemological beliefs viewing reality with a realist viewpoint, albeit a critical one.

The dialectic stance advocates using two or more research paradigms within a single research with the purpose to create a "respectful dialogue" (Green, 2007, p. 124). The objective is to investigate the variance or differences that arise from adopting more than one philosophical stance in order to enhance validity in conclusions drawn by examining a phenomenon from different perspectives (Greene, 2007). An emphasis is placed on practicality of what does, or does not, work in response to the context and evaluation of circumstances (Maxcy, 2003). Consequentially, within the dialectic stance, a mixed-methods approach is used in the manner that best enables crosscomparisons to be carried out across the quantitative and qualitative findings (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Thus, the dialectic stance is best suited for studies which aim to use mixed-methods to examine the manner in which findings can diverge or converge along with critically assessing the reasons for divergence (Greene and Hall, 2010; Shannon-Baker, 2016). Although different perspectives or conflicting findings are viewed as being of value to gain insight, rather than focus on identifying reasons for divergence this research aims to analyse the data to examine causation and commonalities within the findings to enable generalisations to be made, and therefore the dialectic stance is not suitable for this study.

Transformative-emancipation is a perspective that seeks to drive change for minority or marginalized groups and seeks social justice (Mertens, 2003). Although it is sometimes viewed as a paradigm within its own right (Shannon-Baker, 2016), the transformative-emancipation perspective aligns with the critical theory paradigm (Shannon-Baker, 2016). As such, although qualitative methods are often prioritised within the perspective (Cresswell, 2011), the specific aims of the research and the social justice and issues being addressed guide the research process and the manner in mixed-methods are employed (Shannon-Baker, 2016). As noted, this research does not seek to drive social change or emancipate individuals by investigation of factors which lead to inequality but rather to investigate social phenomenon.

The critical realism stance is evaluated distinctly from post-positivism by some researchers (Shannon-Baker, 2016). However it stems from the post-positivism movement and thus subscribes to the same ontological and epistemological beliefs (Trochim, 2020). Reality is viewed from a critical realist position and although critical realists believe that individual cognition can construct reality they also adhere to the belief that reality can also exist outside of perception (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018; Shannon-Baker, 2016). Similarly, it seeks to overcome the rigidity of the positivist approach and supplement it with constructivism (Maxwell and Mittapalli, 2010). Critical realism perspective for mixed-methods research was considered for this study due to the similarities it shares with a post-positivist paradigm. However, critical realism is more suited for research that places an enhanced focus on "particular situations and events, rather than addressing only general patterns" (Maxwell and Mittapalli, 2010, p. 156) whereas this study, while also acknowledging and investigating the influence of contextual factors, places and importance on identifying general patterns and causation and hence, best aligns with a post-positivist paradigm for conducting mixed-methods research.

Mixed-methods research can be defined as "a type of inquiry that is philosophically grounded where an intentional mixture of both qualitative and quantitative approaches is used in a single research study" (Shannon-Baker, 2016 p, 321). Depending on the manner of employment, a mixed-methods research design provides the benefit of enhancing the depth of comprehension regarding the researched phenomenon (McLeay and Wesson, 2014). The approach can also provide a more robust investigation and understanding of a phenomenon in comparison to solely relying on quantitative or qualitative analysis (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). This research uses a mixed-methods approach and employs both quantitative and qualitative methods. The mixed-methods design is used to enhance rigorousness in the measurement of reality, encompasses explanations and place an emphasis on the different measures and observations with the purpose to obtain a more robust grasp on the observed phenomenon thus following the post-positivist paradigm (Creswell, 2011; Gamlen and McIntyre, 2018; Trochim, 2020). Consequentially, consistent with the post-positivism belief in fallibility of measurement, the goal is to obtain a better approximation of reality. The quantitative research is carried out to test the hypothesis pertaining to the objectives of this study as outlined in the previous chapter, thus enabling a scientific method of inquiry which will allow for statistical analysis to be carried out. Using quantitative methods will enable the developed model to be tested for cross-cultural validity using structural equation modelling and allow for multi-group analysis to investigate the impact of culture and behavioural religiosity on consumer response to nonsexual and explicit sexual content in celebrity-endorsed advertising. The statistical methods will allow for identification of patterns within the data in a scientific manner allowing for generalisation to be made. The use of qualitative methods are viewed as providing a vital role in enabling a more rigorous research design and allow investigation of the objectives using a different method which would enhance in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being studied to allow for stronger, more informed and holistic conclusions to be drawn enabling a better approximation of reality (Teddlie and Tashakkori; 2003; Giddings and Grant, 2006; Creswell, 2011; Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011; Trochim, 2020). As such, the use of mixed-methods serves two main purposes; development and triangulation.

The qualitative research is carried out using focus group interviews and group interviews which are used to inform and serve two purposes; first, for development of a multi-item scale to include in the quantitative research - the group interviews are used to identify and provide insight into the manner that consumer level of engagement with religiosity, particularly in regards to the behavioural dimension, can influence consumers; aiding in identifying commonalities and universal practises across the Islamic faith. Second, the qualitative methods are used to enable investigation of the same phenomenon through employment of different methods and also provide a richer understanding of the concepts under study to enhance accuracy and robustness in conclusions drawn. The focus group interviews were used to examine the research objectives pertaining to; the manner in which celebrity-endorsed advertising impacts

on consumer perceptions and attitudes towards the advert and brand, and the manner in which they impact on purchase intentions, and to identifying cross-cultural similarities and differences in consumer response to both nonsexual and explicitly sexual advertising content. The focus group interviews were also used to assess validity of the inclusion of sexuality in the research design and ensure that the developed questionnaire is understood by both British and Pakistani consumers. The questionnaire was designed by using existing measures within the literature, and as such, the evaluation of the research tool was not to develop the questionnaire but rather to ensure that the design was understood by individuals across both the countries of England and Pakistan in the intended manner and to fine-tune the instrument to the participants under study (Creswell, 2014). Due to the partially exploratory purpose of the qualitative research the mixed-methods were employed sequentially with the focus groups and group interviews being conducted first. Thus due to the resulting sequential format, this research would appear to most closely resemble an exploratory sequential mixed-method research design (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018; Olya et al., 2020).

However, as outlined, the mixed-method approach was also used with the purpose of investigating the research objectives from a different viewpoint to enhance confidence in findings and obtain richer in-depth information regarding the objectives of the research. As such, it contains elements of a convergent parallel research design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2018). Primarily, it should be noted that although the different paradigms and perspectives guide the purpose of conducting mixed-methods research, there is no common consensus, discourse or agreement as to the manner in which mixed-methods can be employed under each paradigm (Creswell, 2011). Second, according to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003), the mixed-methods approach is continually evolving and being developed as its use within research becomes increasingly popular. Therefore, it can be said that the classification of approaches to mixed-method research designs are not exhaustive but rather approaches which are commonly applied. Therefore, this section has outlined the purpose of using a mixed-

method research design and explained why it is appropriate and effective in achieving the objectives of this research.

3.3 Quantitative research design

The quantitative research in this study was conducted through the use of a survey which was administered with British and Pakistani consumers. A multitude of steps were involved in the design process and the different elements incorporated are tested and validated through a number of stages. The survey is administered in the form of a questionnaire to collect data which will be used to address the objectives of this study. The use of a questionnaire and quantitative analysis enables greater credibility, validity, reliability and clarity to the research at large (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). A questionnaire will also enable a significant amount of quantifiable data to be collected, allowing for statistical analysis to be conducted and generalisations to be made (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Surveys have been used in previous cultural studies (Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz, 2012) and can enable the measurement of a range of variables such as attitude, beliefs, intention and behaviour (Ajzen, 2001; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). A survey will also enable anonymity in the research process, adding validation to the study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019).

The use of inferential statistics to analyse the collected data will allow for the relationships between the developed conceptual model to be robustly analysed and determined, which will aid in deriving logical conclusions regarding the effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention. The comparison of the model across the cultures can also be investigated and determined to identify differences and similarities. Details and processes undertaken relating to questionnaire design are discussed.

3.3.1 Preliminary steps

3.3.1.1 Adapting existing measurement scales

This study measures nine main latent constructs in total, as displayed in the conceptual model: celebrity expertise, celebrity trustworthiness, celebrity attractiveness, match-

up, perception of advert, perception of brand, attitude towards advert, attitude towards brand and purchase intention. These constructs are used in the questionnaire to address the objectives of this research. Each construct is measured using a multiitem scale. To enhance reliability, validity and robustness in the research instrument, the items used were taken from existing literature and are thus validated in previous research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Although items for each construct were generally taken from one study, items measuring the same construct in different studies were used to compliment and fine-tune the wording of questions in the survey. Details regarding each construct and how it is measured are provided. Details regarding the scale utilised to measure involvement with Islamic religious practices are provided in section 3.2.3.

Four latent constructs are used to conceptualise the second-order construct, 'celebrity effectiveness', these are; expertise, trustworthiness, attractiveness and the match-up hypothesis. Existing research has extensively measured construct, and although some studies use constructs of expertise, trustworthiness and attractiveness as manifest variables (Atkin and Block, 1983; Zhou and Whitla, 2010) and take celebrity effectiveness as the latent construct, most research treats them as latent constructs themselves (Ohanian, 1990; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). Although there exist some differences between studies as to items used to conceptualise each construct, the overarching aspects in regard to celebrity effectiveness remain consistent (Money, Shimp and Sakano, 2006; Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008). Table 1 lists the items used in this study and the corresponding research, which uses the same or very similar measures. The items used to measure celebrity match-up were also directly adopted from existing studies (Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011).

The items chosen to measure perception towards the advert and brand were also adapted from existing literature. Overall, various attributes have been used in different studies to investigate associations and observations towards the advert and brand, which can form perception (Faircloth, Capella and Alford, 2001). The attributes and associations used to conceptualise perception have differed across the literature and have frequently depended on the context of the study and the research objectives. Both Likert scales and semantic differential scales were used to measure the items and both have been found to be effective in measuring associations and responses towards the advert and brand (Gordon, James and Yoshida, 2016). For this research, items used to investigate perceptions of the adverts were shortlisted by examining variables mentioned in the literature regarding the impact of celebrity endorsers on perceptions of advertisements, along with aspects of the advert which are deemed desirable to enhance attitudes and purchase intention (Olney, Holbrook and Batra, 1991). Literature on the meaning transfer model and how celebrities transfer associations onto the endorsed advert were also utilised.

Similarly, the items used to measure perception towards the brand were selected based on multiple factors. Literature on celebrity endorsement and the transferability of attributes to the brand was utilised and items measuring aspects of brand equity were also used (Aaker, 1997; Spears and Singh, 2004). Studies have also used human personality characteristics to conceptualise perception towards brands (Gardner and Levy, 1955; Sirgy, 1985; Aaker, 1997; Faircloth, Capella and Alford, 2001) and these studies heavily influenced the attributes selected to measure perception of brands in this study. The wording of the questions was also adapted from existing studies and kept as consistent as possible.

The literature used to develop and adapt items to measure perception of adverts and perception of brands is listed in Table 1. The displayed items are already validated within the literature. The items were further confirmed through the use of focus groups and from findings of a pilot study. This method of finalising and short-listing items to measure a construct is consistent with the methods adopted by the existing literature (Spears and Singh, 2004).

This study makes a distinction between perception and attitude, as reviewed in the literature. Whereas perception was largely conceptualised by associations and observations regarding the advert and brand, items used to measure attitude were taken to investigate judgement formed towards the advert and brand. This is consistent with the distinction made between perception and attitude adopted by this

103

study. Four items were used to measure attitude. The selected items were taken directly from existing literature and were deemed suitable to measure aspects of the judgement formed towards the advert and brand (Kahle and Homer, 1985; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 1999; Choi and Rifon, 2012). To enhance consistency in the conceptualisation of attitude as a construct, the same three items were used to measure attitudes towards the advert and attitudes towards the brand. Details of the source of the items utilised are provided in Table 1.

There exist numerous studies which look at purchase intention in relation to various contexts. There is often also a difference in the scale and number of items that have been used to measure the construct. Some studies have employed multi-item measures, whereas others have used a single-item scale to investigate purchase intention. A multi-item approach was preferred for this study to fulfil and satisfy requirements of the data analysis technique to be used in this study to investigate the developed model (Hair et al., 2010). Purchase intention is measured using five items in this study, to measure the construct in a holistic manner. The items used were taken directly from literature, and preference was given to studies which specifically measure purchase intention in relation to celebrity-endorsed products and brands. Table 1 lists the studies that each of the items was adapted from.

Table 1: Table of items and measures utilised in the research (developed by researcher based on the literature)

| Construct | Item | Source |
|--------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| Celebrity Effectiveness | | |
| Expertise | 1. Not talented – talented | Ohanian (1990) |
| (7-point semantic differential | Inexperienced – experienced* | Lord and Putrevu (2009) |
| scale) | 3. Not an expert – expert | Spry, Pappu and Cronwell (2011) |
| | 4. Unskilled – skilled | |
| | 5. Unqualified – qualified | |
| Trustworthiness | 1. Insincere – sincere | Ohanian (1990) |
| (7-point semantic differential | 2. Untrustworthy – trustworthy | Lord and Putrevu (2009) |
| scale) | 3. Undependable – dependable | Spry, Pappu and Cronwell (2011) |
| | 4. Dishonest honest* | |
| | 5. Unreliable – reliable | |
| Attractiveness | 1. Ugly – beautiful | Baker and Churchill (1977) |
| (7-point semantic differential | 2. Not classy – classy | Ohanian (1990) |
| scale) | 3. Not likeable – likeable | Spry, Pappu and Cronwell (2011) |
| | 4. Not sexy – sexy | |
| | 5. Plain – elegant* | |
| | 6. Not appealing – appealing | |
| Match-up | 1. Bad fit between celebrity and brand – good fit between celebrity and brand | Keller and Aaker (1992) |
| (7-point Likert scale) | 2. Not logical for the celebrity to endorse – logical for the celebrity to endorse | Spry, Pappu and Cronwell (2011) |
| | Not appropriate for the celebrity to endorse – appropriate for the celebrity to endorse | |
| Perception of Advert | 1. Not classy – classy | Adapted from: |
| (7-point semantic differential | 2. Not tasteful – tasteful | Baker and Churchill (1977) |
| scale) | Does not capture attention – captures attention | Friedman and Friedman (1979) |
| | 4. Not appropriate – appropriate | Atkin and Block (1983) |
| | 5. Not sexy – sexy | Kahle and Homer (1985) |
| | Does not signify beauty – signifies beauty | Olney, Holbrook and Batra (1991) |

| Construct | Item | Source |
|---------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|
| | 7. Not trendy – trendy* | Lee and Thorson (2008) |
| | 8. Does not stand out to me – stands out* | |
| Perception of Brand | 1. This brand is desirable | Adapted from: |
| (7-point Likert scale) | 2. This brand high quality | Gardner and Levy (1955) |
| | 3. This brand is classy | Sirgy (1985) |
| | 4. This brand is fun* | Olney, Holbrook and Batra (1991) |
| | 5. This band is tasteful | Aaker (1997) |
| | 6. This brand is reliable | Yoo, Donthu and Lee (2000) |
| | 7. This brand is sexy | Faircloth, Capella and Alford (2001) |
| | 8. This brand is fashionable | Lee and Thorson (2008) |
| | | Gordon, James and Yoshida (2016) |
| Attitude Towards Advert | 1. Feel positive about advert | Freiden (1984) |
| (7-point Likert scale) | 2. The advert is appealing | Kahle and Homer (1985) |
| | 3. Favourable attitude towards advert | Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999) |
| | | Choi and Rifon (2012) |
| Attitude Towards Brand | 1. Feel positive about brand | Freiden (1984) |
| (7-point Likert scale) | 2. The brand is appealing | Kahle and Homer (1985) |
| | 3. Favourable attitude towards brand | Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999) |
| | | Choi and Rifon (2012) |
| Purchase Intention | 1. With regard to the product itself, how would you feel this product compares to | Osgood, Suci and Tannerbaum (1957) |
| (10-point semantic differential | similar products by other brands? (Ordinary – Distinctive) | Kamins (1990) |
| scale) | 2. The next time I buy this product, I intend to buy this brand | Netemeyer et al. (2004) |
| | 3. I would seek out this product in a store to purchase it | Baker and Churchill (1977) |
| (10-point Likert scale) | 4. I am willing to buy the brands endorsed by this celebrity | Hung, Chan and Tse (2011) |
| | 5. I am interested in purchasing this brand | Baker and Churchill (1977) |

Note: *Items removed during pilot study based on results from exploratory factor analysis

In addition to the items used to measure each construct, the questionnaire included basic questions regarding demographics. This included; age, education, country of residence, religion and ethnic background.

3.3.1.2 Selection of celebrity

This study measured the constructs in relation to specific advert designs that featured a celebrity endorser. It was decided to use a real celebrity endorser in the study, rather than a fictional one, to enhance the validity of the study (Lee and Thorson, 2008). To decide which celebrity to feature in the study, multiple factors were considered and used in the selection process. First, the social media platform Instagram was used to produce a list of the 50 most-followed female celebrities. Instagram was chosen as it is extensively used as a promotional tool in the fashion industry and it is more of an influencer platform in comparison to other social media outlets such as Facebook and Twitter (Lee, 2009).

A shortlist was produced by selecting the celebrities who were associated with the fashion industry in some manner. This was to ensure a certain level of celebrity-product congruence. The celebrities in the list had all previously endorsed fashion or beauty-related products for multinational brands. Although previous or multiple endorsements can reduce celebrity effectiveness in certain cases (Tripp, Jensen and Carlson, 1994) this realistically emulates real-life examples of celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing, where celebrities often endorse a multitude of brands (Chen et al., 2013). The final list was shortened to the top 15 celebrities. This list consisted of celebrities of varying ages, ethnicities and known professions within the entertainment industry. This section process also ensured that the chosen celebrity is indeed well known and would be classified as a celebrity in accordance with the reviewed definition and categorisation.

Next, a survey was carried out with 500 participants in total; 250 respondents each within the markets of England and Pakistan. To enhance simplicity and enable a quick response, the survey was structured as similarly to a poll as possible (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Respondents were provided with an A5-size paper which listed all

15 celebrities. They were asked to circle the top three celebrities they thought were most suitable to endorse fashion and beauty products. They were then asked to number the celebrities (1 through 3) in order of preference. The poll was carried out in popular shopping centres in the city of London in England and the city of Lahore in Pakistan for ease of access. A random sampling was used; the poll was conducted with every third female, aged 18 and above, approached, greeted and asked if they were willing to participate. The overall approach used to select the celebrity endorser is consistent and similar to the methods other studies have utilised (Lee and Thorson, 2008; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). From the survey, the celebrity that was most frequently selected by respondents across both markets was Kendall Jenner, who was therefore chosen to feature in the advert. Brief information about the chosen celebrity is provided below.

Kendall Jenner is a fashion model and 'reality star', she is the fifth most-followed female on Instagram and has over 24 million followers (Kelleher, 2015). She first gained popularity and became known as a celebrity on the reality show Keeping Up with the Kardashians. Kendall Jenner began modelling professionally in 2012 and has gone on to feature in numerous fashion shows. She has endorsed multiple global fashion and beauty brands and is one of the highest-paid models (Rutherford, 2015). She has also been featured on magazine covers across western and eastern countries (Borovic, 2016). This makes her an appropriate celebrity to endorse fashion and beauty products, and her selection fits the rationale behind the results of the survey, as there is a high level of celebrity congruence with fashion products and brands.

3.3.1.3 Advert design and experiment

The use of an actual or designed advert is common practice in research and is widely used within the field of celebrity endorsement and consumer research (Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). This study used adverts designed by the researcher to expose participants to both nonsexual and explicitly sexual content in celebrity-endorsed advertising. Primarily, this allows investigation into objective 1 by studying the cause and effect relationship between constructs within the developed conceptual model and assess overall model validity. Second, the exposure to both nonsexual and sexual stimuli enables data to be collected under controlled conditions pertaining to objective 2 and objective 3 of this study by employment of a within-subject experimental research design. An experiment will enable investigation into identifying and observing the manner in which the inclusion of explicit sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertising impacts on consumer perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions. It also enables investigation of how this may differ across the different research samples of British and Pakistani consumers.

Two studies were conducted with every participant within the sub-samples of British and Pakistani respondents; Study 1 and Study 2. Each study featured a different advert. Study 1 featured a celebrity-endorsed advert which was designed not to be sexual in nature while Study 2 featured an advert which incorporated explicit sexuality in the advert content. Both studies use the same items and measures. Conducting the two studies with each respondent from England and Pakistan produces four groups which are referred to in the study as follows:

- B1: British Study 1
- P1: Pakistani Study 1
- B2: British Study 2
- P2: Pakistani Study 2

Multi-group analysis (MGA) is performed across and within the aforementioned groups to test hypothesis **H5-H10** and investigate how British and Pakistani consumers respond to both nonsexual and explicitly sexual celebrity-endorsed advertising and identify how sexuality in the advert leads to a change between relationships in the developed conceptual model within each country.

Although the main reason for employing an experimental design was to enable investigation of objectives 2 and objective 3, the research design incorporating two studies provided the added benefit of enabling testing of the developed conceptual model, as pertaining to objective 1, to be carried out under diverse conditions thus enhancing validity and robustness in the findings.

3.3.1.4 Advert design process

The effectiveness of an experimental study design is dependent on the ability to associate the change between the pre-test and post-test data to the variable or condition being studied. For this reason, the process adopted to design the adverts for the study was guided by the need to maintain consistency between the stimuli used across both studies and isolate and alter the manner in which sexuality was incorporated in the advert design.

Foremost, the stimuli used to feature in the advert design were selected. These were the image of the celebrity endorser, a brand name and logo and the featured/endorsed product. Real-adverts used by multinational brands across markets which were used to inform the design of the adverts are displayed in Appendix 5. Details pertaining to the selection of stimuli are provided in turn;

Image of celebrity endorser: The celebrity endorser featured in the advert was previously selected through primary research with the participants. Existing images of Kendall Jenner, the selected celebrity, were searched to shortlist suitable full-length images appropriate for the purpose of the study. The final image was selected as it displayed sexuality in a similar manner to existing advertising and contained partial nudity thus encompassing explicitly sexual stimuli (Choi et al., 2016). Details regarding the classification of explicit sexuality are provided in the latter section. The selected image did not contain any identifiable product endorsement which could influence study results.

Brand name and logo: A brand name was included in the study to further emulate a more realistic advert design. Rather than create a fictional brand for the purpose of this study, a real brand was used as this approach as using a known brand in experimental studies can increase validity (Choi and Reid, 2018). Although consumers may have preconceived notions towards real-life brands, featuring an existing brand is further suitable for this study as it is the relationships between constructs, and comparisons between the different advertising contexts that are of interest. The brand [brand redacted], which sells skincare, makeup and fragrances, was selected as; the

brand has used both nonsexual, implicit and explicit sexual stimuli in advertising [reference redacted], is a global brand which is available across international markets including both the countries of England and Pakistan [reference redacted] and is a brand that has previously used Kendell Jenner as an endorser.

Featured/endorsed product: An image featuring a lipstick collection by [brand redacted] which showcased a range of colours was chosen to feature in the advert design. This helped emulate a more realistic advert to aid participants in visualising the product being endorsed by the celebrity while illustrating that consumption choice could be tailored to suit preferences. This feature of an endorsed product was essential as the survey contained questions relating to purchase intention.

Adobe Photoshop software was used to incorporate the selected stimuli into two adverts. Appendix 6 shows the advert designs used in Study 1 and Study 2 respectively.

Inclusion of sexuality in advert design

As the main purpose of the experiment was to create controlled conditions that effectively allowed any changes between participant response to Study 1 and Study 2 to be attributed to the inclusion of explicit sexuality within the advert, the main difference between the advert designs across the two studies lay in the image portrayal of the celebrity endorser which was used to manipulate the sexual content within the advert design. Sexual appeal in advertising is referred to as stimuli which is arousing in nature and contains sexual cues which consumers may find sexually stimulating (LaTour and Henthorne, 1994). Explicit or overt sexuality in consumer research is categorised by sexualised portrayal of sensory stimuli and, in the case of an endorser, is often determined by the level of nudity portrayed in the advert (Choi et al., 2016; Choi and Reid, 2018). To design advert featured in Study 1, which was used as the pre-test in the experimental design, the selected image of the celebrity was cropped to showcase solely the face of the endorser. This ensured that Advert 1 did not include any explicit or overt sexual cues, stimuli, nudity or body language in the design and therefore be categorised as not including explicit or overt sexuality. Study 2, which formed the post-test, featured the selected image of the celebrity in its entirety to incorporate explicit sexuality in the content of the advert design by the inclusion of partial nudity. Aside from satisfying the categorisation of explicit sexuality, the manner in which sexuality was included in the advert was further informed by existing adverts in the fashion industry (Appendix 2).

Aside from sexuality, all other environmental conditions, in this case the stimuli within the advert design were kept consistent between Study 1 and Study 2. Both adverts incorporated the brand name and brand logo in an identical manner and used the same colour scheme. Additionally, the selected product was also featured across the two adverts in a similar manner. This consistency between the two advert designs allowed for increased robustness in attributing any changes in the cause and effect relationships between constructs within the model across the two studies and samples to the inclusion of explicit sexuality.

3.4 Qualitative phase

Focus group interviews and semi-structured group interviews were used to carry out the qualitative research for this study. In addition to providing insight on the research objectives pertaining to cross-cultural perception of celebrity endorsement and the use of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed advertising, findings from the qualitative research also informed development of the religious scale that was utilised in the questionnaire administered to the Pakistani sample. This section outlines the rationale for employing these specific qualitative methods and provides details pertaining to the structure, sampling and analysis procedure.

Two semi-structured focus group interviews were carried out, one with British respondents residing in England and the other with Pakistani respondents residing in Pakistan. The focus groups were used to identify the perception of British and Pakistani consumers towards the celebrity endorser and observations and evaluation of the two advert designs. The overarching purpose was to gain detailed insight into the consumer response to celebrity-endorsed advertising of both a nonsexual and explicitly sexual nature and how this impacted on attitudes towards the endorsed brand and purchase intentions. In addition, the focus groups were also utilised to

evaluate the design of the questionnaire and assure it was understood by participants from both countries in a similar manner. Employing focus groups, as opposed to oneon-one or small group interviews were deemed most suitable or this study as they provided the advantage of stimulating discussion stemming from group interaction and participant responses allowing for a greater level of discourse which enabled a more holistic and comprehensive understanding of the underlying reasoning behind participant response (Morgan and Krueger, 1998). Furthermore, in regards to the evaluation of the questionnaire, the group interaction afforded by provided the advantage of any potential changes, amendments or issues in relation to the questionnaire design, mentioned by one participant, to be discussed and evaluated by all participants within the group in a real-time setting. This opportunity in particular, would not have been present in one-on-one interviews as any comments in regards to the evaluation of the quantitative research tool which were made by participants in the latter interviews could not have been discussed with participants interviewed previously (Morgan, 2007).

The focus group interviews used a semi-structure format. This allowed for freedom in participant responses while ensuring adequate focus was placed on the issues which were of relevance to the objectives of the study (Mason, 2004; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Having an interview guide and semi-structure, as opposed to an unstructured format, allowed for the same probing, open ended and closed questions to be asked from participants across the two focus groups ensuring that data was collected on and around the same general areas of interest (Galletta, 2012). This degree of structure was essential in allowing for comparative analysis between the British and Pakistani samples to be conducted on the cross-cultural similarities and differences on consumer response to sexual and nonsexual celebrity-endorsed advertising. Additionally, to effectively evaluate the questionnaire design having a degree of control was essential to ensure feedback was obtained on the desired attributes.

Two semi-structured group interviews were carried out to develop a multi-item scale which could be used to measure the level of involvement with Islamic religious

113

practices in this study. The group interviews served the purpose of providing insight into universally accepted Islamic religious practices, the manner in which they are perceived and practised within Pakistan and their usefulness in categorising individuals as low/high involvement groups scale development. As such they were also used to provide insight into Islamic religious practises and the manner in which they might differ within or be impacted by Pakistani culture. The first interview was carried out with Islamic religious leaders, known as 'Maulana' in South Asia and the second was carried out with Pakistani Muslim academic scholars. To effectively investigate the above, group interviews were selected as the preferred format to enable an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being researched. The group interaction between the participants allowed for any variances between the participants' responses to be debated and discussed allowing for consensus or non-consensus to be reached. This was essential to inform the development of the scale and ensure that universally accepted Islamic religious practises regardless or sectarian beliefs. The discourse further enabled for the adoption of the identified religious practices to be deliberated and reflected upon admitting more comprehensive exploration of the topics.

Both unstructured and semi-structured interview formats are valid and appropriate to gather in-depth data. However, an unstructured format is most appropriate when nondirectional open-ended exploration of a topic is required. This research required indepth insight into specific areas within behavioural religiosity as pertaining to the Islamic faith and Pakistani culture. Therefore, although broad open-ended questions were asked, the use of an (albeit broad) interview guide was essential as retaining a degree of structure allowed for discussion to be brought back and focused on the topics being researched and on the desired areas of interest. This use of follow up semi-structured interviews is suitable for scale development purposes (Taheri, 2016).

3.4.1 Sampling

A non-probability sampling approach was used for the qualitative research. Data from the focus groups and group interviews were not used to make statistical inferences but rather used to gain an understanding into the objectives of the research by use of

114

qualitative methods and additionally to inform development of a religious scale. As such, it was not essential to employ probability sampling (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Table 2 outlines characteristics of the four main non-probability sampling techniques.

| | Key characteristics | Advantages | Disadvantages |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| Quota sampling | Tailored approach Usually specific in terms of sizes and proportions of sub-samples Relevant quotas need to available Participants recruited until the prescribed quota is reached | Suitable for large populations Can be carried out with relative ease Can entail a degree of representativeness in comparison to other non- probability sampling | Requires higher availability of resources in comparison to other non-probability sampling methods Selection is not always random Can be hard to obtain quotas |
| Purposive sampling | Uses researchers judgement to select cases Allows for selection of participants best suited to aim of research Can focus on one particular sub-group | Allows relevant data to be collected Relevance of sample allows for generalisations to be made Allows for reliable conclusions to be drawn | Cannot guarantee representativeness Dependent on judgement of researcher Can be open to selection bias and human error |
| Snowball sampling | Initial participants provide referrals to recruit additional ones Sometimes referred to as chain referral sampling Makes use of the social networks of participants | Useful in accessing hard to reach populations Can enable examination of rare characteristics | Low control over sample contents Low representativeness Can potentially have lead to a certain level of homogeneity in the beliefs of participants |

Table 2 Evaluation of non-probability sampling techniques

Adapted and developed from: Govindarajulu; 1999; Patton, 2014; Lewis, Saunders and Thornhill, 2019

Selection of a sampling method is guided by the objectives of the reason nature of inquiry (Patton, 2014). This research employed a purposive sampling approach for both the focus groups and the group-interviews as it allowed for inclusion of participants that best helped meet the needs of the study. This made it more likely to yield relevant information thus enabling better understanding the phenomenon under

study by allowing data which informed the objectives of the study to be collected (Palinkas et al., 2015). A purposive sampling technique was also deemed the most suitable approach for this study as participant expertise was needed for the group interviews to help development and evaluation of a measurement scale for religious involvement. Expert sampling is a subset of purposive sampling and is employed when expert views are required, as was the case in this research.

For the focus groups, recruitment ads in the form of flyers were left at various departmental stores and supermarkets in London and Lahore to generate an initial pool of participants. Participants that got in contact were screened in accordance with the required characterises and selected if they satisfied the criteria. To enable understanding of the consumer group relevant to this study. Pakistani female participants were sought for the first focus group and British Female participants for the second. Respondents which belonged to different age groups were selected. Each focus group consisted of six participants of varying age groups (starting from 18-65). A varied age group of participants was included for the purpose of gaining a more holistic understanding.

Within the subcontinent of south Asia, religious leaders associated with Mosques who have direct contact with the population are broadly split into two categories; *Maulvi and Maulana*. These terms are titles which are meant to denote their level of expertise on Islamic religious matters or jurisprudence (Jones, 2011). *Maulvi* are religious speakers and can at times have no formal or official qualification, *Maulana* are more learnt individuals who often have formal education on Islamic studies (Jones, 2011). *Maulanas* were selected for the group interview due to their increased level of expertise. *Maulanas* also form a preferred point of contact for Muslims within Pakistan and were therefore suited to provide insight into the practices of Muslims within Pakistan. To select the participants, leaders of different mosques which form part of the religious committee within Pakistan were contacted. The Mosques chosen to contact were selected by: association with the Religious Committee of Pakistan, size, and prominence of representation in national religious debates. The two *Maulanas* selected, at time of research, led prayers at Mosque, gave sermons and frequently

partook in debates. To maintain confidentiality, names of the mosques and religious affiliations are not disclosed (more detail on code of ethics is provided in section 3.5).

Participants for the group interviews with Islamic religious scholars were selected by contacting academics who were researchers or associate lecturers at Universities in Pakistan. Three participants were included in the group interview, two participants were Lecturers in Religious Studies and one participant was a lecturer in Research Methods. Aside from their academic expertise, selecting academics belonging to the Islamic faith ensured they would have knowledge and be familiar with the religious practices.

There is no consensus on a set sample size for qualitative research, rather, focus should be on ensuring saturation is reached (Patton, 2014). Rather, researchers should stop adding cases up until the point of saturation after which incremental learning will be minimal (Ellram, 1996; Patton, 2014). In practise the numbers of cases included in a study are also often dependent on factors such as availability of time and resources (Romono 1989; Patton, 2014). For reasons outlined previously, this research decided to conduct the qualitative research using methods which would allow for richer discourse despite the increased time and resources they would entail. This placed priority on quality over quantity meant a smaller sample size was feasible in comparison to other methods. Ideally a larger sample size would have been utilised to enhance rigorousness, however, the total number of participants in the focus groups and group interviews, in combination with the qualitative methods used and employment of purposive sampling helped adequately serve the purpose of conducting qualitative research and allowed for comprehensive understanding pertaining to the objectives of the study.

3.4.2 Analysis approach

The qualitative data was initially transcribed and read through multiple times to gain familiarity with the data set (Creswell and Path, 2018). The use of software such as NVivo, MAXQDA and MAATLAS to carry out the analysis was considered but ultimately a largely manual (semi-digital) method was used. Although each software has their

117

own advantages that they lend to the analysis procedure such as; ease of access and organisation of data and prove particularly useful for larger data sets, the quality of qualitative analysis is based on the researchers ability to effectively employ analytical reasoning, critical thinking and cognitive analysis and thus a manual approach is also acceptable (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019).

Qualitative data can be analysed using a multitude of approaches which can provide useful insight into the data set. All approaches generally retain the purpose of extracting meaning from the data collected by employment of the method best suited to serve the objectives of the research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Amongst the most common methods qualitative data analysis are; narrative analysis, which focuses on extracting meaning from stories or narratives of participants within the context of the research, grounded theory analysis, which is best suited when the researchers seeks to develop theory from the data, thematic analysis, which analysis the data in terms of the principle themes or concepts and content analysis, which examines common trends in data and is also often used when quantifying qualitative data is required (Marshall and Rossman, 2015; Vaismoradi and Snelgrove 2019). Both content analysis and thematic analysis approach were considered for analysing the qualitative data, ultimately, content analysis was used in this study. This particular approach was selected as the qualitative data was used to inform inferences on the consumer response to celebrity-endorsed advertising and the inclusions of explicit sexuality in advert context across-cultures. Although content analysis does include an element of sorting data using themes (Creswell, 2007), it is also concerned with the frequency of occurrence. Qualitative content analysis was also suitable in evaluation of the advert and questionnaire design as it allowed for a quantifiable element. The analysis of the focus group interviews also included an element of semiotics analysis due to the inclusion of the advert designs (Carter and Fuller, 2016). Furthermore, the use of content analysis is also used to inform scale development (Taheri, 2016).

Analysis was conducted using a largely deductive approach. Although studies employing qualitative methods can often be inductive in nature, content analysis can be carried out using both a deductive and an inductive approach (Braun and Clarke,

118

2006). Literature and existing theory were used to formulate the research objectives and create a conceptual framework which helped provide a direction for the data analysis. To develop the scale used to measure level of involvement with Islamic religious practices, a list of items was generated from the literature evaluated by findings from the group interviews. To enhance robustness in the analysis, the deductive approach was supplemented by an inductive approach and the data was also screened and searched for emergent themes so as not to limit understanding or exploration of the topics (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Schreier, 2012). Findings from the qualitative analysis which pertain to the evaluation and feasibility of the quantitative design and scale development are discussed in the following section to facilitate comprehension of the design process.

3.4.3 Focus group to test initial design and results

In regards to assessing the suitability of the questionnaire, the focus groups were used as follows; firstly, to confirm items and measures used in the questionnaire and ensure they are legible and understood by participants in the intended manner across the two countries and second; obtain feedback on the designed adverts used in Study 1 and Study 2. The findings from each of the focus groups are detailed in turn below.

The items used to measure endorser attributes in relation to expertise, trustworthiness and attractiveness were understood by all participants. However, participants in the focus group with Pakistani respondents indicated confusion regarding the wording of the semantic differential scale for certain items. They stated the use of polar opposite words such as 'plain – elegant' was not equivalent; they also indicated a preference for using 'not experienced – experienced' in comparison to 'inexperienced – experienced'. In the focus groups with the British sample, participants were questioned regarding the wording of the scale. Four of the participants expressed strong agreement in accordance with the Pakistani participants regarding the wording of the semantic scales, while two stated no preference between the wordings. The original wording of the semantic differential scale to measure endorser attributes was taken directly from existing studies. However, other studies have slightly altered

wording to investigate the same item. For this reason, as the meaning and purpose of the items stayed consistent, the wording of the semantic differential scales of all items was adapted according to findings from the focus groups to enhance clarity and consistency between the items.

Participants in both focus groups stated that questions measuring perception towards the advert and brand would be clearer if the semantic differential scale, similar to the one used for endorser attributes, was used in place of the Likert scale. Upon elaboration and further investigation, it was found that respondents showed a clear preference for questions to be rephrased to be more condensed; it was stated by the British participants that they preferred: *"one-word questions and not reading a sentence"* in regard to items measuring perception. Specific questions or items were therefore altered accordingly. Studies measuring perception and attributes in relation to the advert and brand have often used semantic differential and bipolar scales, thus inducing the validity of the adapted scale (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957; Malhotra, 1981; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Gordon, James and Yoshida, 2016).

No issues were raised relating to items measuring celebrity-brand congruence, attitude towards the advert, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention in either of the focus groups. Both British and Pakistani respondents preferred the use of a '7-point scale' across the items measured. Respondents from both focus groups expressed that a 10-point scale was "overwhelming", with one British respondent stating: "it makes me want to pick a number at random and not think". For this reason, all items were measured using a 7-point scale.

Design of advert

To assess that the advert in Study 2 effectively incorporated sexuality in the content, participants in the focus group were asked three semi-structured questions. The relevant findings and responses are summarised below.

First, participants in the focus groups were asked to describe or state words they thought best explained the advert in Study 1 and Study 2. This was to serve the purpose of identifying attributes or words that described the two adverts and cross

reference them with the intended context of the adverts to ensure they came across in the intended manner to participants within both focus groups.

The Pakistani focus group described the advert in Study 1 as: "<u>beautiful</u>", "appropriate" "nice" "I like her" (referring to the celebrity), "pretty", "expensive", "professional", "sensual" and "convincing, it makes me want to buy the lipstick". The advert in Study 2 was described as: "<u>sexy</u>", "still pretty", "<u>sexual</u>" and "<u>very sexy</u>".

The focus group with the British participants described the advert in Study 1 as: "<u>beautiful</u>", "beautiful but usual", "it goes with the product", "I'm not sure about Kendall but it's a good advert". The advert in Study 2 was described as "beautiful", "<u>sexier</u>", "essentially the same as the first advert just <u>sexier</u>" (referring to the advert in Study 1). One participant stated: "I think both the adverts are sexy, one is just '<u>in your</u> <u>face' sexy</u> (referring to the advert in Study 2) but it's more interesting and I like it more".

After participants had finished describing and giving their opinion regarding both adverts, they were asked whether they thought one advert was more sexual than the other; although this question had been indirectly answered, it was asked as a confirmatory step. Respondents in both focus groups unanimously agreed that the advert in Study 2 contained content of a more explicit sexual nature than the advert in Study 1. A participant in the British focus group stated: *"the second advert is sexier but I'm not a fan of the Jenners"*.

Third, and lastly, respondents were asked whether they thought the adverts in Study 1 and Study 2 were similar to advertisements or campaigns they had seen previously, and whether the adverts sufficed in providing enough context to enable participants to respond to the questionnaire. All participants from the Pakistani focus group concurred that the advert in Study 1 was *"very commonly used"*. Five of the participants stated that they have seen adverts very similar to the one in Study 2 in *"magazines, shops and online"*. One participant stated, *"I don't pay attention when I see an advert like this"*. Participants in the British focus group were in agreement that they had seen very similar adverts to the ones created for Study 1 and Study 2. The findings from the focus groups confirmed that the design of the advert used in Study 2 effectively incorporated sexuality in the content. Furthermore, as both adverts effectively emulated real-life advertisements and were deemed suitable to the questions being asked in the survey, no alteration was made to the adverts used in Study 1 and Study 2.

3.4.4 Key informant interviews to develop religious involvement measures and results

This study investigates whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices has an impact on perceptions, attitudes and purchase intention of celebrityendorsed adverts. Religiosity consists of different components and can be categorised into cognitive and behavioural aspects. This study is concerned with the behavioural aspects and therefore scales used to measure the behavioural component of religiosity are of interest. As reviewed, there is a lack of available scales which can be adapted directly for this study. The existing studies have tended to focus on the intended level of involvement rather than actual level of involvement. For this reason, this study created and developed a multi-item scale formed of certain Islamic religious practices which can be used to measure individuals' level of engagement. The scales are then operationalised to investigate whether the level of involvement will influence the developed model and the effect of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention. This practical use of the scales also subjects them to testing and thus helps to establish validity (Monkhouse, Barnes and Pham, 2013). A multi-step approach is used to develop the scale, utilising both secondary and primary research. After identifying and developing initial scale items, qualitative research was carried out to evaluate and finalise the measure.

Foremost, existing literature on Islamic practices is used to identify the items to use in the scale. The Islamic religion consists of various schools of thought known as 'sects'. The different sects often comprise contradictory beliefs which can lead to a difference in the manner in which religion is practiced (Khraim, 2010). As a consequence, for the purpose of this study, the prevalent religious practices in Pakistan were either selected

122

from the obligatory or encouraged acts mentioned in the Quran or from acts that all sects encourage. This was to ensure the uniform acceptance of religious practices by all Muslims. Existing scales within the literature used to measure behavioural intent are also considered (Akhter, Abassi and Umar, 2011).

Eight items in total were identified to measure the construct. Four of these items were based on the Five Pillars of Islam which were reviewed in the previous chapter: Salah, fasting in Ramadan, Zakat and performing Hajj (Tabatabai, 1977; Hussain and Jordan, 2006; Armstrong, 2007). Two items were adapted from existing studies: attending religious services and going to the mosque (Ramasamy, Yeung and Au, 2010). These items have been used across studies to measure behavioural aspects of religiosity and are therefore suitable for this research. The wording of the item is adapted to the Islamic faith in particular. The final two items were based on encouraged acts across the sects: reading the Quran and the act of covering hair (Armstrong, 2007; Syed, Ali and Winstanley, 2005; Mutahhari, 2010).

After developing the initial multi-item scale, first, a semi-structured group interview was carried out with the religious leaders (*Maulanas*) as previously outlined. In the interviews, the religious leaders were presented with the list of items and were asked to consider whether (a) they were in agreement with the practices used to conceptualise religious involvement, (b) whether the practice was universally accepted across Islamic religious sects, (c) whether they could suggest additional uniformly accepted religious practices to use in the measure and (d) the extent to which practices should be undertaken by Muslims.

The items identified were confirmed and supported by both the religious leaders as effective in measuring level of engagement with the Islamic religion. It was further agreed that Muslims, regardless of specific sectarian beliefs, would accept that the identified practices are encouraged to be undertaken according to the Islamic faith. It was advised to alter the item relating to Hajj (pilgrimage) to include performing *Umrah*. Umrah is also used to refer to pilgrimage to Mecca, however, the key difference is that while Hajj has to be performed within a certain time during the

123

Islamic calendar, the latter can be undertaken any time. Two additional practices which could be considered for inclusion in the measure were raised. The first was relating to consumption of halal food. However, upon further discussion, this item was considered unsuitable as only halal food is available in the Pakistani market. The second practice raised for consideration was related to the consumption of alcohol. It was discussed that there can be discord regarding belief in this practice as it is 'intoxication', which is mentioned in the Quran as not being permissible. Although intoxication is viewed as pertaining to alcohol, alcohol itself is not mentioned within the text. This item was further deemed unsuitable as although alcohol is consumed in Pakistan, it is considered a taboo subject in the nation and Pakistani laws prohibit Muslims within the country to drink. The level of engagement for each practice was discussed as the final question in the interview. Low level of involvement was deemed to be limited engagement with the identified practices. High involvement refers to individuals who actively and frequently engage in the aforementioned religious practices. The criterion listed under high involvement for certain items has been developed through consideration of the extent to which the act is encouraged in the Islamic faith.

The review of the literature and findings from the interviews with the religious leaders were used to create a multi-item scale to measure consumer level of involvement with Islamic religious values. Ramasamy, Yeung and Au (2010) have used a single item to measure behavioural dimension of religiosity: "Apart from weddings and funerals about how often do you attend religious services these days?" (2010, p. 66). The item was measured on an incremental categorical scale '(1) Never, practically never (2) Less often (3) Only on special days (4) Once a year (5) Once every 6 months (6) Once a month (7) Once a week (8) More than once a week' (Ramasamy, Yeung and Au, 2010). This incremental categorical scale was adapted to measure involvement with the identified practices. As the scale was general and not specific to Islamic practices in general, the options used for each item were altered in accordance with the Islamic literature and findings of the interviews and specified to each practice.

Final interviews were conducted with Muslim academic scholars to evaluate the measure and determine its practical and theoretical usefulness (Monkhouse, Barnes, Stephan, 2012). The expertise of these scholars was further used to ensure appropriate phrasing of the questions and improve the measures. A group interview was conducted with three Pakistani academic scholars who identified with the Islamic religious faith. To select the participants, contact details of potential suitable academic scholars were obtained through secondary research. To maintain confidentiality, details regarding affiliated to institutions are omitted and not disclosed.

As with the earlier interviews, the scholars were presented with the developed scales and asked to evaluate (a) whether the measure was useful in conceptualising the behavioural dimension of religiosity, (b) whether the items used would be effective in differentiating between low level and high level of involvement for Muslims, (c) comment on the phrasing of the items, (d) evaluate the incremental ordinal scale options provided and whether the increments for each option was equivalent and comparable across the items used. As the research was being conducted with academic scholars who are familiar with conducting research, the discussion points were used solely to inform them of the purpose of the interview; the group interview was otherwise unstructured so as to not restrict the discussion (Zikmund, 2000). The overall and main findings which helped refine the developed measure are provided below.

Overall, the items used were considered effective in conceptualising the behavioural dimension of religiosity in relation to the Islamic faith. The practices used to create the multi-item scale were viewed as being universally accepted by Muslims across sects and across different cultures in terms of practices or actions which should be followed or performed. In-depth discussion ensued on each item to establish its usefulness in the measure and to ensure the working and phrasing would be suitable to consumers. The item relating to Hajj/Umrah (pilgrimage) was deemed to be dependent on, and subject to, multiple uncontrollable factors which could influence the level of involvement with the practice. Whereas the other behaviours could be undertaken by Muslims with relative ease if it was so desired, performing Hajj or Umrah could be

influenced by factors such as; level of income, access to travel, travel restrictions, mobility etc. Upon discussion it was decided to drop the item to refine the scale and enhance robustness in the overall measure. It was noted that fasting in Ramadan, might not be closely associated with the other items. Although it is a core value and required practice in the religion, it was discussed that level of consumer involvement with the practice could be heavily influenced by societal pressures and the desire for conformity in the Pakistani culture. In Pakistan, fasting in Ramadan can become an event around which socialising and celebrations can become centred. This could provide a motivation for fasting other than the desire to engage in the practice for religious reasons. This societal pressure was not viewed as being relevant to the other items in measure. It was viewed that in the event that family or societal influence did play a part in the other identified practices, the same influence would also likely lead to a change in response to advertising and sexuality in advertising. However, one of the scholars raised the viewpoint that individuals can partake in the social activities without engaging in the practice and that the societal pressures were not relevant in the modern context. It was therefore advised by all scholars to retain the item related to fasting in the measure and evaluate its validity in the measure via the use of statistical analysis.

The use of incremental ordinal scales was deemed appropriate to investigate the level of involvement. It was advised that the maximum upper threshold listed should encompass a high frequency of involvement rather than the exact level of engagement advised for the practices. The exact level, e.g. praying Salah five times a day, would be too restrictive, and the upper limit of 'more than once a day' for items would suffice to identify high involvement. Although the option 'never, practically never' was deemed necessary to include in the scale to determine no or very low levels of involvement with religious practices, the scholars were of the opinion that a vast majority of respondents would engage with the practices to a certain level due to the embedding of Islamic religion in Pakistani society and culture. Therefore, this should be considered when categorising respondents into low- and high-involvement groups. The wording of options provided in the ordinal scales was advised to be kept consistent when possible;

however, it was advised that to factor in the specific elements of the practice should be prioritised to enhance clarity in the scale for respondents and enhance ease in filling out the survey. Where needed, alterations were made to ensure equality of the scale across the items measured. On the questionnaire, respondents were further given the option of selecting 'other' for each item and provided with a space to explain their response.

| No: | Item | Scale |
|-----|---|---|
| 1. | How often do you attend religious services (not including weddings and funerals)? | 1 = Never, practically never, 2 = Sparingly through the year, 3 = Approx. once a month, 4 = Several times a month, 5 = Approx. once a week, 6 = Several times a week, 7 = Usually every day, 8 = At least once a day |
| 2. | How often do you go to the mosque/other place of worship? | 1 = Never, practically never, 2 = Sparingly through the year, 3 = Approx. once a month, 4 = Several times a month, 5 = Approx. once a week, 6 = Several times a week, 7 = Usually every day, 8 = At least once a day |
| 3. | How often do you read the Quran? | 1 = Never, practically never, 2 = Sparingly through the year, 3 = Approx. once a month, 4 = Several times a month, 5 = Approx. once a week, 6 = Several times a week, 7 = Usually every day, 8 = At least once a day |
| 4. | How often do you pray Salah (Namaz)? | 1 = Never, practically never, 2 = Sparingly through the year, 3 = Approx. once a month, 4 = Several times a month, 5 = Approx. once a week, 6 = Several times a week, 7 = Usually every day, 8 = At least once a day |
| 5. | How many days do you fast in Ramadan? | 1 = I don't fast, 2 = Usually 1–4, 3 = Usually 4–8, 4 = Usually 8– 12, 5 = Usually 12–16, 6 = Usually 16–20, 7= Above 20, 8 = All (that I am allowed) |
| 6. | How (on what sources of income) do you give Zakat? | 1 = I don't give Zakat, 2 = I sometimes give Zakat on my savings/cash, 3 = I give Zakat on my savings/cash every year, 4 = I give Zakat on my savings/cash every year and sometimes on any shares and saving bonds I have, 5 = I give Zakat on my savings/cash and on any shares or saving bonds I have every year, 6 = I give Zakat on the above and on any other funds under my name, 7 = I give Zakat on the above and sometimes on any gold or silver I have 8 = I give Zakat on all my possessions without fail every year |
| 7. | Please select which best applies: I cover my hair: | 1 = Never, practically never, 2 = Only in religious ceremonies/at mosque, 3 = The above and while praying, 4 = The above and when culturally required, 5 = The above and in selected company/places, 6 = Whenever I leave the house 7 = Practically all the time, 8 = All the time |

Following this step, and factoring in the findings from the interviews, the final construct to measure religious involvement was produced. This is provided in Table 3. As noted, the developed scales to measure Islamic values were constructed to use ordinal scales to provide respondents with clearer options when filling out the survey. This also ensured their actual involvement, not the intended or perceived involvement, with the values to be specified. Although different options are utilised to measure each value, the increments between the scales are developed to be in proportion to each other. This enables them to be comparable, thus allowing the responses to be analysed as interval Likert scale questions. The finished scale will be subjected to pilot testing to ensure any issues are identified and corrected before the final research is conducted

3.5 Finalising and piloting the research tool

The developed questionnaire was subjected to pilot testing before the main data collection took place. Feedback obtained from respondents had already been used to amend and alter the questionnaire. The pilot study was carried out to ensure any issues with the final developed instrument were identified and corrected via a trial run (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). The main purpose was to obtain feedback on the questionnaire design and establish the feasibility of the study across England and Pakistan. Preliminary analysis on the data collected was limited to testing the validity of the scales and confirming the items used for each construct through the use of a factor analysis and no hypothesis testing was carried out on the collected data (Leon, Davis and Kraemer, 2011).

To conduct the pilot study, the questionnaire was administered to 200 respondents in total; 100 British respondents residing in England and 100 Pakistani respondents residing in Pakistan. Each respondent was requested to complete the survey, which included both Study 1 and Study 2. This sample size is considered acceptable for pilot testing in accordance with the purpose of the pilot study in this instance (Hair et al., 2010; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). A convenience sampling method was utilised and the data collection took place in centrally located shopping malls in the cities of London and Lahore, with female respondents over the age of 18. The survey

administered to the Pakistani respondents included the developed scale to measure religiosity as the final page of the survey. After completion of the survey, participants were asked for feedback on the instrument.

Overall, the time taken to complete the survey was under ten minutes. Participants did not think the survey caused respondent fatigue as the inclusion of the designed adverts provided engaging content and prevented the survey from being viewed as tiresome. The survey instructions were clearly understood by all participants and the layout was easily followed. Participants did not feel any of the questions or instructions induced bias in their responses and felt comfortable answering all questions in the survey. The Pakistani respondents also felt comfortable with the questions used to investigate religious constructs. The items used to measure each construct were also clearly understood by all participants. Participants also did not report that completing Study 1 before Study 2 biased or influenced their response to the second study in any form. Three participants in the British sample stated that they did not wear make-up and were therefore confused about how to address the questions relating to purchase intention. This feedback was taken into consideration and addressed in the questionnaire used for main data collection. The question: 'Do you wear make-up/use make-up products?' was included amongst the questions relating to demographics. This helped ensure that participants were consumers of beauty products and formed part of the market targeted, thus reducing external influence on the response to the questions regarding purchase intention.

First, a factor analysis was conducted to further confirm and refine the items used in the survey. As the items used had theoretical underpinnings, a confirmatory approach was utilised. Items measuring celebrity effectiveness all had loading ($\lambda >$.7) which is above the accepted threshold (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Results demonstrated that the items 'expert' and 'experience' for construct expertise; 'honest' and 'sincere' for contrast trustworthiness; and items 'elegant' and 'classy' for construct attractiveness all had very similar loadings. The difference between loadings was less than .01. Therefore, to improve robustness of the constructs (Hair et al., 2010), the items 'experience', 'honest' and 'elegant' were removed from the final survey. This

change is supported by the literature, where four items or less have been used to conceptualise the source models based on data reduction techniques (Kamins, 1990). The particular items were removed and retained based on the items which are more frequently used in the literature to refer to celebrity attributes. Items 'trendy' and 'stands out' had weak loading on perception of brand λ <.4. They were therefore removed from the final survey. Item 'Fun' also had loading λ <.4 on perception of brand and was therefore also removed. No changes were made to items used to measure match-up, attitude towards the advert, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention and all loading were above the accepted threshold (λ >.7). Factor analysis for the developed scale to measure religiosity showed all items had acceptable factor loading above the cut-off threshold of λ >.4 (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010; Olya, Alipour and Gavilyan, 2018). A factor analysis is appropriate to investigate robustness of developed scales and assess their validity (Schmitt, 2011).

Cronbach's alpha was calculated to establish and determine internal consistency of the items within each scale. Alpha values for all constructs were above α >0.85. This result provided a measure of initial scale validation across the markets and demonstrated their applicability across the two countries for cultural applicability and validity (Hair et al., 2010; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

3.6 Main data collection and analysis procedure

In accordance with the findings from the qualitative research and after incorporating the aforementioned changes into the research instrument, the final questionnaire was developed. Details regarding the sampling method, timeframe of study and administration of the questionnaire are provided and discussed in this section.

3.6.1 Sampling

This research conducts a cross-cultural study in the markets of England and Pakistan with female respondents aged 18 and above. Although all genders are consumers of fashion and beauty products, females are selected for this study for three main reasons. First, women make up a significant percentage of consumers in the fashion and beauty industry, which makes them a valuable and profitable market (Easey, 2009;

Amed, et al., 2016). Second, markets can be segmented by gender and advertising is created specifically to target either males or females in particular (Wolin, 2003; Cramphorn, 2011). Lastly, genders can respond differently to celebrity endorsement (Wei and Lu, 2013; Bergkvist and Zhou; 2016; Knoll and Matthes, 2017) and can have significantly different responses to the inclusion of sexuality in advertising (Lanseng, 2016).

Random probability sampling was utilised to undertake the survey. The data collection with the Pakistani sample took place in the cities of Karachi, Lahore, Faisalabad and Islamabad. In England, the research was conducted in London, Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield. The cities were selected as they were amongst the most metropolitan in their respective countries (World Population Review, 2018a; World Population Review, 2018b). The cities in Pakistan were also selected as they are amongst the most developed and urban cities with a large presence of multinational firms (Trading Economies, 2018). The data collection was carried out in public places within each city; on high streets and shopping centres, at varying time points to better account for changes of adequate population representation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Further details regarding how participants were approached and recruited are outlined in section 3.5, which details research ethics.

The sample size of the study was mainly determined by the nature of the data analysis required to conduct hypothesis testing (Hair et al., 2010). In order to test the developed conceptual model, factor analysis and statistical equation modelling needed to be carried out. The literature states that varying sample sizes can be suitable to perform this analysis (Hox and Maas, 2001; Kline, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). This study aimed for a usable sample size of 500 British respondents and 600 Pakistani respondents, aiming for a total combined sample size of 1,100 for each Study 1 and Study 2. The Pakistani sample required a larger sample size due to the inclusion of the scale to measure religious involvement which led to a higher number of items in the questionnaire. The sample size would ensure ten cases for each item in the research model (Kline, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010). This sample size is also comparable to the sample size used in published academic studies within the field

as similar research on celebrity endorsement, consumer behaviour and cross-cultural research, which have generally ranged between 203 to 969 respondents (Money, Shimp and Sakano, 2006; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Li, Tsai and Soruco, 2013).

3.6.2 Administration of questionnaire

The questionnaire administered across both markets was in the English language. There exist multiple dialects in Pakistan. Although Urdu is the official language of Pakistan, it is only spoken by eight percent of the population (Central Intelligence Agency, 2020). Written and spoken language can vary widely across regions within the country (Nordquist, 2018). English was previously the official language of Pakistan and is now viewed as a co-official language along with Urdu (Nordquist, 2018). The English language is taught across schools and is the language of government communications and commerce in Pakistan (Nordquist, 2018). To this end, conducting the questionnaire in English language is deemed more suitable than translating the research instrument to carry out the data collection with the Pakistani sample. Furthermore, the researcher is proficient in Urdu and competent in some other regional languages spoken within Pakistan, and this enabled communication issues within the administration process to be identified and addressed as appropriate. Pilot testing the questionnaire in English had also not resulted in any issues with the language of the research instrument.

The main data collection was conducted over a 15-month period, starting from September 2016, using the final questionnaire which had been updated to reflect relevant changes and incorporate feedback in accordance with findings from the qualitative analysis and pilot study. The survey used is shown in Appendix 7. Copies of the questionnaire, which included Study 1 and Study 2, were printed in black and white ink, while the adverts in both studies were printed in colour. All questionnaires were administered face-to-face with participants. This procedure was adopted as it can lead to a higher response rate and encourage participation (Olya, Alipour, and Gavilyan, 2018), adds a level of robustness to the participant screening process and also allows for any confusion regarding the instruction or content of the research instrument to be clarified (Fowler, 2002). To recruit participants, every fifth individual who appeared to match the required characteristics was approached, greeted and asked if they would like to participate in the survey. This helped ensure objectivity in the respondents chosen (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). Participants were requested to fill out the questionnaire in the order presented and fill out each page in turn. No personal identifying details were requested, and participants were informed that their responses would remain anonymous. This helped in minimising social desirability bias, thus helping in encouraging results which are more representative of actual opinion (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As mentioned, each questionnaire contained both Study 1 and Study 2, separated by a page break. This allowed for paired data to be collected which could be utilised to measure whether the inclusion of sexuality in the advert led to a change in the response between Study 1 and Study 2 for participants, if required. Study 1 was placed at the forefront to reduce the potential bias on responses to Study 2. The questionnaire conducted with the Pakistani sample included a final page containing the developed measure to investigate religious involvement (Appendix 8).

3.6.3 Data entry and cleaning

The primary statistics software used to analyse the data was SPSS and IBM Amos 26. Further details pertaining to the reasons guiding software selection are provided in the following chapter. The number of questionnaires conducted totalled 1,400. This higher number of surveys was conducted to increase the chances that there would be enough usable questionnaires for the study. This also offset any potential issues with reaching the required sample size in advance, as the cross-cultural nature of the study, with data collection taking place in different cities, posed challenges in collecting additional data due to travelling requirements.

Data from all questionnaires conducted was coded and manually entered into SPSS. The entered data was double-checked for errors. Questionnaires where respondents did not meet the required demographics were removed. As this research measures purchase intention, surveys from respondents who indicated that they did not use make-up products were also discarded to minimise factors external to the study which could influence the recorded purchase intention. A few surveys contained missing values, but as the number was too small to provide insight into patterns on what variables had prompted non-responses, these surveys were discarded (Hair et al., 2010). After cleaning the data, the total number of usable surveys equalled 1,302. As the total number of surveys administered was 1,400, the response rate was 93 percent.

3.6.4 Data analysis procedure

The data analysis procedure pertaining to the qualitative research was provided earlier within the chapter. Below, a brief outline of the data analysis methods is provided to enhance familiarity with the statistical tests that were used to investigate the research objectives of this study by conducting hypothesis testing. This information is elaborated upon in the following chapter. Initially, confirmatory factor analysis was carried out for both Study 1 and Study 2 and validity tests were performed. The scales developed for the purpose of measuring the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices were also assessed. As this analysis conducts comparisons between the two studies and also between and across the sub-samples of British and Pakistani respondents, measurement invariance is tested across the aforementioned data sets to ensure robustness in the comparisons (Hair et al., 2010). As comparisons were also conducted for the Pakistani samples as per their level of religious involvement, for Study 1 and for Study 2, measurement invariance was also established for the two groups respectively for each study.

The collected data was analysed and displayed in accordance with the objectives of the study and formulated hypothesis for testing. First, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test and examine the validity of the developed conceptual model and answer the hypothesis regarding casual relationships between variables (Schreiber et al., 2006). As this research examines relationships between latent constructs, SEM, and not path analysis, is considered appropriate. Next, multi-group analysis was used to determine whether path relationships between the SEM models were significantly

different between the subgroups of British and Pakistani respondents for Study 1 and Study 2. Collectively, this section assesses the validity of the conceptual model in the western and eastern markets of England and Pakistan and investigates whether culture and the inclusion of sexuality in the advert affects relationships between the models to identify cross-cultural similarities and differences. The mediating effects of perception and attitude towards the advert and brand in predicting the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions are also tested for each sample for both Study 1 and Study 2. Lastly, the scales developed to measure consumer involvement with Islamic religious practices, were utilised to conduct multi-group comparisons within the Pakistani sample on the basis of level of involvement with Islamic religious practices. This was done in order to investigate whether it accounts for differences between the consumers and changes in the model for prediction of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions.

3.7 Code of ethics

This research operated within the code of ethics and was conducted in accordance with the procedural requirement ensuring that guidelines were adhered to. The utilitarian framework of ethics, which contains three core concepts; confidentiality, informed consent and avoidance of harm was used for this study to ensure that varying degrees of ethical consideration were considered at each step of the research (Flinders, 1992). The use of the utilitarian framework also ensured that the core concepts of the UK Economic and Social Research Council; minimising the risk of harm, obtaining informed consent, protecting confidentiality, integrity and transparency and providing the right to withdraw were incorporated and considered (ESRC, 2019). An ethics form detailing information regarding the research process was submitted and approved in advance of any data collection being conducted.

To maintain confidentiality in the qualitative data-collection process, each participant was assigned an acronym and geographical cues are used. No names or personal identifying characteristics are reported in the study. Although participants in the focus groups were not concerned about maintaining anonymity, confidentiality was ensured

135

to enhance honesty and freedom in responses provided (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). The anonymity of the religious leaders and academic scholars is maintained, and any particular detail regarding their employment has not been discussed or disclosed. Any data collected will be disposed of in the appropriate manner. The survey conducted during the quantitative study maintained the anonymity and confidentiality of participants at all stages. No identifying characteristics were requested. After completing the survey, participants could insert their questionnaire into an envelope and hand it back to the researcher.

To obtain informed consent for the qualitative research, an email containing details regarding the topic of discussion was emailed to all participants in advance of the research taking place. This helped ensure transparency in the process. A copy of the form used to obtain informed consent before the focus groups and interviews took place was also attached with the email so participants would have clarity regarding the process. This also ensured that respondents would have the information in advance and could make an informed decision without feeling any pressure (Cacciattolo, 2015). Respondents were assured that participation was on an entirely voluntary basis and they were free to withdraw from the study at any stage during the process without the need to provide a reason. Informed consent was taken from all participants using a consent form (Appendix 9) before the research took place. For the quantitative research, informed consent was primarily obtained in a verbal manner. When participants were approached, they were informed of the purpose of the study, nature of the questions used in the survey and assured participation was on an entirely voluntary basis. Informed consent was further obtained from participants who choose to take part in the study via a passage provided at the beginning of the survey.

All research was conducted in a public setting. The focus group with the Pakistani respondents and the interview with the religious leaders took place in the classroom of a private school that was centrally located in the city of Lahore. The focus group with the British respondents took place in the cafeteria of a public library in London. The interviews with the academic scholars took place at a university. All places were agreed upon in advance and were in accordance with the preferences of the

participants. It was assured that participants were comfortable with the locations and settings. Avoidance of harm was further ensured by the voluntary nature of the research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2019). The qualitative research was conducted in an objective and unbiased manner. Participants were made to feel comfortable by creating an open and friendly environment. Potential participants for the quantitative research were approached in a friendly manner and greeted. Any questions from participants were addressed in an honest and open manner.

3.8 Chapter concluding remarks

This chapter provided details regarding the research methodological design for this study. The research paradigm within which this research is situated was outlined and discussed. This was followed by explaining mixed-method design in this research. The qualitative data is carried out using focus group and group interviews while the quantitative research is carried out using a questionnaire which uses existing measures within the literature. Rationale was provided on why the specific methods were used in this study to conduct the quantitative and qualitative research along with a detailed explanation of how they were designed and employed. Results from the qualitative research which pertained to the development of the religious scales used in the questionnaire administered to Pakistani respondents are presented.

Results from the data analysis are provided in the following chapter. The data analyses are conducted in two main stages. First, preliminary tests will be conducted to establish the validity of the measures. This is followed by using inferential statistical analysis to conduct hypothesis testing. Discussions on the results obtained and any consequential implications of the findings will be provided in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4 Data Analysis Results

4. Chapter overview

This chapter outlines the process and steps undertaken to conduct data analysis for the study. First, demographic information is provided and the data distribution is assessed. This is followed by providing rationale for selection of the primary software used to carry out the analysis. The data analysis is conducted in two main stages. Preliminary tests are conducted to investigate and determine validity of the measures and establish measurement invariance. This ensures the data is suitable to conduct the required analysis. Inferential statistical analysis; SEM and multi-group analysis, are then performed to conduct hypothesis testing to investigate the research objectives. This chapter displays the results of the analysis and discussions on the findings and consequential implications are provided in the following chapter.

4.1 Demographics

Univariate non-graphical exploratory data analysis was conducted on categorical data to gauge the demographic spread of respondents for the sub-samples of British and Pakistani respondents. As the same respondents filled out the survey for both Study 1 and Study 2, the demographic information is consistent between the two studies. A summary of these is provided in Table 4.

Over 94 percent of the respondents were below 41 years of age, with the majority being between 18 and 33, showing the data to be skewed towards younger respondents. The education level in Pakistan was, on average, slightly higher than in the UK. Over 90 percent of the consumers correctly identified the celebrity. This would indicate that respondents are likely to have some preconceived notions and evaluations of the celebrity. These could be positive, neutral or negative.

| | BRI | TISH | PAKIST | ANI |
|--|-----|-------|--------|-------|
| | Ν | % | Ν | % |
| Variable | | | | |
| SAMPLE SIZE | 626 | 48.1 | 676 | 51.9 |
| AGE | | | | |
| 18–25 | 194 | 31.0 | 212 | 31.4 |
| 26–33 | 295 | 47.1 | 356 | 52.7 |
| 34–41 | 106 | 16.9 | 88 | 13.0 |
| 42–49 | 31 | 5.0 | 20 | 3.0 |
| EDUCATION LEVEL | | | | |
| Less than High School | 2 | .3 | 1 | .1 |
| High School | 238 | 38.0 | 131 | 19.4 |
| University: Bachelors | 316 | 50.5 | 440 | 65.1 |
| University: PG/Masters | 65 | 10.4 | 93 | 13.8 |
| Doctorate | 5 | 0.8 | 11 | 1.6 |
| RELIGION | | | | |
| Islam | 35 | 5.6 | 676 | 100% |
| Christianity | 299 | 47.8 | 0 | 0 |
| Other | 163 | 26.0 | 0 | 0 |
| N/A | 129 | 21.0 | 0 | 0 |
| CELEBRITY FAMILIARITY | | | | |
| Yes, the celebrity is (Identified celeb) | 492 | 78.6 | 496 | 73.4 |
| The celebrity is familiar | 109 | 17.4 | 143 | 21.2 |
| No | 25 | 4.0 | 37 | 5.5 |
| USE MAKE-UP PRODUCTS | | | | |
| Yes, the celebrity is (Identified celeb) | 626 | 100.0 | 676 | 100.0 |

Table 4: Summary of demographic information for sub-samples

4.2 Data normality and distribution

Both univariate non-graphical and univariate graphical exploratory data analysis was carried out to determine distribution of the data and check for errors and outliers.

Skewness was and kurtosis showed a z-value of between -1.96 and +1.96. The Shapiro-Wilk test showed a value <0.01 for the majority of the variables, indicating that the data was normally distributed. Univariate graphical tests; histograms, normal Q plots and box plots showed that the data was not perfectly normally distributed. However, this was predictable as most of the questions were assessed on the Likert scale, and such data is rarely ever normally distributed and often a very large sample size is needed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Though the data did not follow a classical distribution, the visual indicators showed that data did form a bell curve.

There is debate amongst experts as to whether parametric or non-parametric tests are most suited even in the case of non-normally distributed data (Sullivan and Artino, 2013). It is argued that parametric tests can be utilised on Likert scale data and are in fact sufficiently robust to provide accurate results and largely unbiased analysis – even when the required assumptions about the data are violated to an extreme degree (Norman, 2010).

Non-parametric tests have their own assumptions and additional requirements of the data and often prove to be limited in providing robust results when assessing variability between different groups (Hair et al., 2010). As this research aims to analyse results from different research samples and hypotheses, variability between the groups parametric tests have the advantage of providing more accurate results (Norman 2010). Due to the combination of results from normality tests indicating a rough normal distribution, the type of analysis required to investigate the set research questions and hypothesis, the adequately large sample size and the debate in the literature, it was decided that mostly parametric tests would be carried out on the data.

4.3 Selection of approach and software to perform structural equation modelling

There are different analytical approaches that can be used to carry out model testing (Olya, 2020). This research tests validity of the developed conceptual model using structural equation modelling. Two popular methods of SEM used within social sciences are; covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) and partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) (Hair et al., 2017). Both are evaluated in-turn to select the one best suited for use in this study.

CB-SEM is a parameter oriented method based on the common factor model and is most appropriate to use in studies which aim to test existing theory (Hair et al., 2017). The approach can be used for complex models and achieves model fit by using a maximum likelihood estimation and reproducing the covariance matrix (Olya, 2020). As such, the resulting analysis produced is based on the common variance in the data (Hair et al., 2017). The approach enables the direct, indirect and total effects to be evaluated with ease and is suitable to assess the error in the structural model and to evaluate model fit. In CB-SEM, there is a lack of focus on explained variance and a large sample size is needed to reduce the possibility of errors (Olya, 2020).

In contrast to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM is based on the composite model and is prediction oriented rather than fit oriented (Hair et al., 2017). The method uses a regression-based ordinary least squares estimator is best suitable for prediction-based research as it aims to investigate the key driver variables and evaluates the predictive capability of the model by using the coefficient of determination (Olya, 2020). PLS-SEM uses composite scores for latent variables when performing subsequent analysis and has the benefit of being capable of incorporating multiple independent variables within a model and works with small sample sizes (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2011; Olya, 2020). However, the use of small sizes in PLS-SEM can lead to the results obtained to be questioned for validity and further, the approach and can be dubious on account of the use of a correct estimator (Olya, 2020).

Although every method can have inherent disadvantages, both CB-SEM and PLS-SEM provide useful approaches to model testing using SEM. Often the selection of an approach is guided by the objectives of the research and the accessibility of software (Olya, 2020). This research performs structural equation modelling for theory testing. The overarching purpose is to evaluate model fit to assess and test the theoretically developed conceptual model. Furthermore, the sample size of this research which is over 600 respondents per data set is suitable for CB-SEM (Bollen, 1989; Hair et al., 2017). Therefore, in this particular study, CB-SEM is deemed most suitable and therefore chosen as the selected method

To carry out SB-SEM, different data analysis software such as AMOS, LISREL and M-PLUS can be used (Olya, 2020). Ultimately, the main reasons for selecting the particular CB-SEM software for use in this study was resultant from reasons relating to feasibility. Obtaining M-PLUS or LISREL was not possible due to availability of resources. AMOS was selected to carry out the analysis as it was readily accessible to the researcher and was suitable to perform the analysis required to test the developed research hypothesis and address the objectives of this study.

4.4 Preliminary analysis

4.4.1 Common method variance

The research has been carried out in two countries, with British and Pakistani respondents making up the sub-samples. Each questionnaire administered to every participant contained both Study 1 and Study 2. Therefore, common method variance was calculated across Study 1 and Study 2 for each of the sample groups. Harman's single-factor test was utilised to test for presence of common method variance and assess what percentage of variance can be explained by a single factor (Harman, 1976; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Fuller et al., 2016; Taheri et al., 2020). This test is suitable for determining bias for survey-based marketing research (Fuller et al., 2016). To perform the test, all items were entered into an unrotated principal components analysis and the number of factors to extract was fixed at 1. For both the British and Pakistani samples, the various explained by a single factor results by Fuller et al. (2016). As the results of both the Pakistani and the British sample are under this level, common method bias is not deemed to be an issue in this study.

4.4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis, scale validation and assessment of measurement model

A series of tests were carried out on the measurement model in order to assess the model and establish; construct reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Validity tests were carried out through calculating and examining factor loadings, composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha, cross-correlations and average variance extracted (Hair et al., 2010; Taheri et al., 2020). The measures and scales utilised in the survey to measure celebrity effectiveness, attitude and purchase intention were taken from the literature, and as such their validity is already established in the British market, albeit, various studies have employed different scales to measure the different constructs (Spears and Singh, 2004). Additionally, all items were further confirmed through calculating Cronbach's alpha on data collected in the pilot study. The results demonstrated internal consistency within the scales used in the study and also for

both the sub-groups of British and Pakistani respondents. Therefore, a confirmatory approach is now adopted.

Although both Study 1 and Study 2 use the same measures and survey format, validity tests are calculated separately for each study. The results are displayed in Table 5 and Table 6. This approach will allow for increased robustness in establishing validity and accessing applicability across different advertising content. To ensure the reliability of the measures used to test and confirm internal consistency of the scales (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011), Cronbach's alpha is calculated for Study 1 and Study 2. Cronbach's alpha is commonly used and accepted for examining and determining internal validity amongst items within a scale, it was conducted to validate scales before progressing onto further analysis. Cronbach's alpha was calculated using Equation 1 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011):

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot \bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N-1) \cdot \bar{c}}$$
 (Equation 1)

 α = >.90 for all constructs for Study 1 and Study 2 collectively and for each of the samples, meaning items within all constructs were found to be highly reliable. For Cronbach's alpha α > 0.9 is excellent and α >0.8 is good (DeVellis, 2012). This establishes the validity of the scales for Study 1 and Study 2. Although additional validation measures are utilised in the next section to further investigate the reliability and validity between constructs, Cronbach's alpha provides an initial measure of scale validity. In addition to Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability is also calculated internal consistency with the scale. As composite reliability does not assume unidimensionality amongst the items but takes different factor loadings into consideration, and is commonly used as a pre-calculation before conducting path analysis. Composite reliability was conducted using Equation 2:

$$CR = \frac{\left(\sum \lambda_{i}\right)^{2}}{\left(\sum \lambda_{i}\right)^{2} + \sum Var(\varepsilon_{i})}$$
 (Equation 2)

Composite reliability (CR) for all items in both studies is higher (CR>.85) than the accepted threshold of CR>.6 (Hair et al., 2010). Constructs yielded a high score for internal scale validity, which is acceptable due to the design of the study and the theory predicting high correlation between the items utilised (Taber, 2018). As Cronbach's alpha and composite validity scales are acceptably close for all items, it demonstrates that the items are measuring a single construct.

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for all items and standardised factor loading was obtained; acceptable factor loading is commonly (λ >.40) (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Four factors were used to measure the second-order factor, celebrity effectiveness. Items measuring celebrity expertise, trustworthiness, attractiveness and level of match-up showed strong factor loading, with λ >.80 for each item across both Study 1 and Study 2. Items measuring attitude towards advert, attitude towards brand and brand attitude and purchase intention had high loading λ ≥.87. Items for perception of brand all had acceptable loading across the two groups (λ >.50).

Average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated by $\lambda ^2/n$. This was utilised to establish the level of variance that was explained by the latent constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Spears and Singh, 2004). For all constructs, AVE = 0.5 and was less than the CR. This demonstrates support for internal consistency and scale and item validity as the items have similar factor loadings, and low error variances and suggests that variance is caused by the constructs rather than the measurement error (Spears and Singh, 2004). Correlations for the measurement model were significant: p<.001 between all latent variables across the sub-samples and studies (Table 7 and Table 8). Together, the different tests conducted illustrate support of CR and convergent validity across Study 1 and Study 2 (Bagozzi, Yi and Phillips, 1991; Hair et al., 2010; Olya, Alipour and Gavilyan, 2018).

| Itom | Easter Leadings | Cronbach's alpha | Composite reliability | Average variance |
|---|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| Item | Factor Loadings | Cronbach's alpha | composite reliability | extracted |
| Celebrity Effectiveness | | | | |
| Expertise | | .97 | .97 | .88 |
| 1. Talented | .95 | | | |
| 2. Expert | .93 | | | |
| 3. Skilled | .95 | | | |
| 4. Qualified | .92 | | | |
| Trustworthiness | | .96 | .96 | .87 |
| 1. Moral | .90 | | | |
| 2. Trustworthy | .94 | | | |
| 3. Dependable | .94 | | | |
| 4. Reliable | .94 | | | |
| Attractiveness | | .96 | .97 | .85 |
| 1. Beautiful | .91 | | | |
| 2. Classy | .93 | | | |
| 3. Likeable | .96 | | | |
| 4. Sexy | .87 | | | |
| 5. Appealing | .93 | | | |
| Match-up | | .94 | .94 | .84 |
| 1. Good fit between celebrity and brand | .90 | | | |
| 2. Logical to Endorse | .93 | | | |
| 3. Appropriate to Endorse | .92 | | | |
| Perception of advert | | .92 | .91 | .63 |
| 1. Classy | .93 | | | |
| 2. Tasteful | .75 | | | |
| 3. Captures attention | .89 | | | |
| 4. Appropriate | .52 | | | |
| 5. Sexy | .79 | | | |
| 6. Signifies beauty | .93 | | | |
| Perception of Brand | | .96 | .96 | .78 |

Table 5: Study 1: Results of confirmatory factor analysis and scale validity

| Item | Factor Loadings | Cronbach's alpha | Composite reliability | Average variance extracted | |
|--|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----|
| 1. Desirable | .93 | | | | |
| 2. High quality | .93 | | | | |
| 3. Classy | .93 | | | | |
| 4. Fashionable | .94 | | | | |
| 5. Tasteful | .55 | | | | |
| 6. Reliable/dependable | .93 | | | | |
| 7. Sexy | .91 | | | | |
| Attitude towards advert | | .96 | | .96 | .89 |
| 1. Feel positive about advert | .95 | | | | |
| 2. The advert is appealing | .94 | | | | |
| 3. Favourable attitude towards advert | .94 | | | | |
| Attitude towards brand | | .94 | | .94 | .85 |
| 1. Feel positive about brand | .91 | | | | |
| 2. The brand is appealing | .93 | | | | |
| 3. Favourable attitude towards brand | .92 | | | | |
| Purchase Intention | | .97 | | .97 | .85 |
| 1. Intend to buy next time | .94 | | | | |
| 2. Seek out to buy | .94 | | | | |
| Willing to buy endorsed by celeb | .89 | | | | |
| 4. Interested in buying | .91 | | | | |
| 5. Compare to other brands | .93 | | | | |

| Item | Factor Loadings | Cronbach's alpha | Composite reliability | Average variance extracted |
|---|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Celebrity Effectiveness | | | | |
| Expertise | | .97 | .97 | .88 |
| 1. Talented | .94 | | | |
| 2. Expert | .94 | | | |
| 3. Skilled | .94 | | | |
| 4. Qualified | .94 | | | |
| Trustworthiness | | .97 | .97 | .90 |
| 1. Moral | .95 | | | |
| 2. Trustworthy | .96 | | | |
| 3. Dependable | .94 | | | |
| 4. Reliable | .94 | | | |
| Attractiveness | | .96 | .96 | .84 |
| 1. Beautiful | .91 | | | |
| 2. Classy | .96 | | | |
| 3. Likeable | .96 | | | |
| 4. Sexy | .82 | | | |
| 5. Appealing | .93 | | | |
| Match-up | | .94 | .94 | .84 |
| 1. Good fit between celebrity and brand | .91 | | | |
| 2. Logical to Endorse | .93 | | | |
| 3. Appropriate to Endorse | .91 | | | |
| Perception Of Advert | | .94 | .94 | .70 |
| 1. Classy | .95 | | | |
| 2. Tasteful | .90 | | | |
| 3. Captures attention | .87 | | | |
| 4. Appropriate | .73 | | | |
| 5. Sexy | .77 | | | |
| 6. Signifies beauty | .95 | | | |
| Perception of Brand | | .97 | .97 | .83 |

Table 6: Study 2: Results of confirmatory factor analysis and scale validity

| Item | Factor Loadings | Cronbach's alpha | Composite reliability | Average variar extracted | nce |
|--|-----------------|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|-----|
| 1. Desirable | .95 | | | | |
| 2. High quality | .96 | | | | |
| 3. Classy | .96 | | | | |
| 4. Fashionable | .90 | | | | |
| 5. Tasteful | .79 | | | | |
| 6. Reliable/dependable | .93 | | | | |
| 7. Sexy | .89 | | | | |
| Attitude towards advert | | .97 | | .97 | .90 |
| 1. Feel positive about advert | .95 | | | | |
| 2. The advert is appealing | .96 | | | | |
| 3. Favourable attitude towards advert | .95 | | | | |
| Attitude towards brand | | .95 | | .95 | .87 |
| 1. Feel positive about brand | .92 | | | | |
| 2. The brand is appealing | .95 | | | | |
| 3. Favourable attitude towards brand | .93 | | | | |
| Purchase Intention | | .97 | | .97 | .87 |
| 1. Intend to buy next time | .96 | | | | |
| 2. Seek out to buy | .96 | | | | |
| Willing to buy endorsed by celeb | .87 | | | | |
| 4. Interested in buying | .92 | | | | |
| 5. Compare to other brands | .95 | | | | |

| Variable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Expertise | (.94) | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Trustworthiness | .72* | (.93) | | | | | | | |
| 3. Attractiveness | .91* | .68* | (.92) | | | | | | |
| 4. Match-up | .78* | .58* | .74* | (.92) | | | | | |
| 5. Perception | .75* | .57* | .81* | .74* | (.80) | | | | |
| Advert | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Perception brand | .67* | .49* | .69* | .74* | .79* | (.89) | | | |
| 7. Attitude advert | .78* | .59* | .84* | .75* | .94* | .83* | (.94) | | |
| 8. Attitude brand | .63* | .47* | .68* | .70* | .75* | .93* | .77* | (.92) | |
| 9. Purchase | .60* | .51* | .67* | .68* | .71* | .80* | .73* | .82* | (.92) |
| Intention | | | | | | | | | |

Table 7: Study 1: Standardised implied correlations among the constructs

Note: *p <.001, AVE² shown in diagonal

Table 8: Study 2: Standardised implied correlations among the constructs

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. Expertise | (.94) | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Trustworthiness | .70* | (.95) | | | | | | | |
| 3. Attractiveness | .92* | .67* | (.92) | | | | | | |
| 4. Match-up | .65* | .60* | .65* | (.92) | | | | | |
| 5. Perception | .60* | .48* | .62* | .72* | (.84) | | | | |
| advert | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Perception brand | .59* | .44* | .60* | .71* | .80* | (.91) | | | |
| 7. Attitude advert | .55* | .44* | .59* | .69* | .95* | .78* | (.95) | | |
| 8. Attitude brand | .62* | .36* | .64* | .62* | .66* | .87* | .67* | (.93) | |
| 9. Purchase | .47* | .34* | .50* | .64* | .69* | .71* | .69* | .73* | (.93) |
| Intention | | | | | | | | | |

Note: *p <.001, AVE² shown in diagonal

Discriminant validity was determined using two different approaches. It is noted that due to the nature of this study, inter-correlations between the variables will be significant. First, the widely used Fornell and Larcker method, which states discriminate validity, is achieved if the square root of AVE is larger than the inter-correlations between the constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010; Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2015).

Results show that the AVE² of latent variables is larger than their subsequent correlations amongst the factors for expertise, trustworthiness, attractiveness, matchup, advert attitude, brand attitude and purchase intention for Study 1 and Study 2 respectively; discriminant validity is therefore supported for these factors (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Discriminant validity is also supported for perception Brand in Study 2. As mentioned in the previous chapters, this high inter-correlation between perception and attitude is theoretically supported and expected. However, due to the aims of this study, and support from literature, these factors are distinguished from one another. To investigate whether these constructs would work better as a single factor, the variables were subjected to further testing through a chi-square differences test (Bagozzi, Yi and Phillips, 1991; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). A chi-square difference test is an additional or alternate method to determine discriminant validity; here, the constrained model and unconstrained model are compared in terms of their chi-square difference (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Franke, 2015). If the unconstrained model, with one less parameter, shows a significant chi-square difference, when compared to the constrained model, then discriminant validity is supported between the two variables at (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Farrell, 2010). Table 9 and Table 10 show the results of the paired constructs test for Study 1 and Study 2 respectively. For consistency in method used, comparisons between the constrained and unconstrained model are calculated across all pairs.

| | Constraine | d | Unconstra | ined | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-----|----------------|------|-----------------|-----|-----|
| | Model | | Model | | | | |
| Factors | x ² | df | x ² | df | Δx ² | ∆df | р |
| Study 1 | | | | | | | |
| C _E – perception advert | 1702.9 | 205 | 1479.0 | 204 | 223.9 | 1 | *** |
| C _E – Perception brand | 1379.4 | 226 | 1270.2 | 225 | 109.2 | 1 | *** |
| C _E – attitude advert | 1097.2 | 148 | 841.0 | 147 | 256.2 | 1 | *** |
| C _E – attitude brand | 989.9 | 148 | 906.0 | 147 | 83.9 | 1 | *** |
| C_{E} – purchase intention | 1176.7 | 185 | 1105.7 | 184 | 71.0 | 1 | *** |
| Perception Advert – Perception | 637.9 | 65 | 522.6 | 64 | 115.3 | 1 | *** |
| brand | | | | | | | |
| Perception Advert – attitude advert | 702.0 | 27 | 360.1 | 26 | 341.9 | 1 | *** |
| Perception Advert – attitude brand | 362.4 | 27 | 299.9 | 26 | 62.5 | 1 | *** |
| Perception Advert – purchase | 498.6 | 44 | 438.1 | 43 | 60.5 | 1 | *** |
| intention | | | | | | | |
| Perception brand – attitude advert | 395.3 | 35 | 215.8 | 34 | 179.5 | 1 | *** |
| Perception brand – attitude brand | 444.1 | 35 | 201.1 | 34 | 243.0 | 1 | *** |
| Perception brand – purchase | 366.6 | 54 | 246.4 | 53 | 120.2 | 1 | *** |
| intention | | | | | | | |
| Attitude advert – attitude brand | 102.8 | 9 | 10.1 | 8 | 92.7 | 1 | *** |
| Attitude advert – purchase intention | 261.8 | 20 | 170.1 | 19 | 91.7 | 1 | *** |
| Attitude brand – purchase intention | 220.9 | 20 | 107.6 | 19 | 113.3 | 1 | *** |

Table 9: Study 1: Discriminant validity using paired constructs test

Note: C_E =celebrity effectiveness***: P is significant at the .001 level

The chi-square difference is significant for the observed pair's p <.001 across Study 1 and Study 2 this indicates that the two-factor (constrained) model is a better fit than the constrained model (Table 9 and Table 10). Discriminant validity is therefore supported for Study 1 and Study 2 (Farrell, 2010; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011).

Table 10: Study 2: Discriminant validity using paired constructs test

| | Constrained Model | | Unconsti Model | rained | Differen | ce | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|----|-------------------|--------|----------|-----------------|-----|-----|
| Factors | x ² | df | | x^2 | df | Δx ² | ∆df | р |
| Study 2 | ~ | ui | | X | u | | 201 | Ρ |
| $C_{\rm F}$ – perception advert | 2163.1 | | 205 | 1985.0 | 204 | 178.1 | 1 | *** |
| $C_{\rm E}$ – Perception brand | 1818.0 | | 226 | 1692.6 | 225 | 125.4 | 1 | *** |
| $C_{\rm F}$ – attitude advert | 1295.8 | | 148 | 1168.2 | 147 | 127.6 | 1 | *** |
| $C_{\rm F}$ – attitude brand | 1170.6 | | 148 | 1043.4 | 147 | 127.2 | 1 | *** |
| $C_{\rm F}$ – purchase intention | 1330.3 | | 185 | 1288.1 | 184 | 42.2 | 1 | *** |
| Perception advert – Perception | 1462.7 | | 65 | 1034.0 | 64 | 428.7 | 1 | *** |
| brand | | | | 200 | • | | - | |
| Perception advert – attitude advert | 1427.3 | | 27 | 402.9 | 26 | 1024.4 | 1 | *** |
| Perception advert – attitude brand | 401.6 | | 27 | 257.1 | 26 | 144.5 | 1 | *** |
| Perception advert – purchase | 552.4 | | 44 | 316.3 | 43 | 236.1 | 1 | *** |
| intention | 552.1 | | •• | 510.5 | 10 | 200.1 | - | |
| Perception brand – attitude advert | 676.1 | | 35 | 295.1 | 34 | 381.0 | 1 | *** |
| Perception brand – attitude brand | 940.9 | | 35 | 536.6 | 34 | 404.3 | 1 | *** |
| Perception brand – purchase | 588.8 | | 54 | 347.9 | 53 | 240.9 | 1 | *** |
| intention | 500.0 | | 54 | 547.5 | 55 | 240.5 | - | |
| Attitude advert – attitude brand | 247.2 | | 9 | 103.5 | 8 | 143.7 | 1 | *** |
| Attitude advert – purchase | 362.0 | | 20 | 132.9 | 19 | 229.1 | 1 | *** |
| intention | 502.0 | | 20 | 132.9 | 19 | 229.1 | Ŧ | |
| Attitude brand – purchase intention | 266.9 | | 20 | 55.4 | 19 | 211.5 | 1 | *** |

Note: C_E =celebrity effectiveness***: P is significant at the.001 level

Four constructs: expertise, trustworthiness, attractiveness and match-up were used to measure overall celebrity effectiveness as a second-factor model. The weight of first-order constructs; expertise, trustworthiness, attractiveness and match-up on the second-order factor is calculated for Study 1 and Study 2 respectively.

Table 11: Weight of first-order factors on second-order factor

| | | Study 1 | р | Study 2 | р |
|-------------------------|--------------------|---------|-----|---------|-----|
| Second -Order Factor | First-Order Factor | Weight | | Weight | |
| Celebrity Effectiveness | Expertise | .98 | *** | .97 | *** |
| | Trustworthiness | .73 | *** | .70 | *** |
| | Attractiveness | .94 | *** | .96 | *** |
| | Match-up | .80 | *** | .68 | *** |

Note: ***: P is significant at the.001 level

P<.001, therefore, the effects of the construct celebrity effectiveness on all indicators significantly support the notion of one higher order underlying construct (Table 11).

In conundrum, the fit statistics of the measurement model indices indicate an acceptable fit for the empirical data for both Study 1 and Study 2 (Hair et al., 2010).

4.4.3 Validation of scales for measuring involvement with religious practices

The scales used to measure consumers' level of involvement with Islamic religious practices were constructed through a combination of utilising existing literature on Islamic religious practices and through the qualitative research –group interviews – with academics and Islamic religious scholars in Pakistan. Sample statements and the findings from the group interviews along with an illustrative example of how analysis was carried out are displayed in Appendix 10 and Appendix 11. The scales were included in the surveys administered to the Pakistani respondents. These scales are subject to statistical testing to allow for their validity to be determined and established before they are utilised in the analysis.

| | Standardised | Standardised | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|--------------|-------------|-----------|--|--|--|
| | Factor | Cronbach | Composite | Variance | | | |
| Items | Loadings | alpha | Reliability | Extracted | | | |
| | | .92 | .92 | .70 | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| 1. Attend religious ceremonies | .91 | | | | | | |
| 2. Go to Mosque/place of worship | .87 | | | | | | |
| 3. Pray Salah | .89 | | | | | | |
| 4. Read Quran | .78 | | | | | | |
| 5. Fast | .38* | | | | | | |
| 6. Give Zakat | .43* | | | | | | |
| 7. Cover Hair | .75 | | | | | | |

Table 12: Validation of scales to measure religious involvement

*Note: *Items removed based on results from factor analysis*

Factor analysis shows factor loading for most items >.75 which is categorised as very high (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The two exceptions were Fasting and Zakat, which have a factor loading of .38 and .43 respectively. Fasting was dropped as the factor loading was poor (Hair et al., 2010). , The qualitative analysis revealed that although the item represents a universally accepted Islamic religious practice, there is likely to be inconsistency in the adoption of those two practices due to societal influences. Additionally, although factor loading of >.40 is acceptable (Hair et al., 2010), the item Zakat was also dropped as the qualitative group interviews revealed that level of involvement with the practice may vary by sectarian beliefs and there is an overall lack of consensus and understanding on how Zakat should be given. This is best encapsulated by the following statement provided by one of the Pakistan academic scholars:

"No question that Zakat is obligatory. It is accepted by all Muslims all over even if they have differences... You see it is less clear-cut, to give example, praying five times a day is clear and everyone will agree even if they do not pray. People are not knowledgeable on how to give Zakat. And the way people think it should be given, or to better say, what it is paid on or the amount given, can be different by different sects. We see this in the country, it is discussed very often".

After deletion of the two items, Cronbach's alpha was primarily conducted to test internal consistency amongst the scales, and results showed α =.92, demonstrating high consistency within the created measure as the accepted alpha level is: α >.70. Internal consistency within the scale was further tested by calculating CR =.92 and AVE =.76 for the factor. AVE shows that variance is caused by the constructs rather than a high measurement error (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Results of tests are displayed in Table 12. Taken together, these tests demonstrate a strong support for validation and internal consistency within the developed measures (Hair et al., 2010). In conjunction, these tests establish the validity of the developed construct (Hair et al., 2010).

To conduct multi-group analysis and investigate the impact of religious involvement on the relationships in the developed conceptual model, scores from the multi-item scale were utilised to create a composite variable. This variable was then re-coded and converted into a categorical variable. Values were coded as: G1 = Low/Medium Level of Involvement (values 1–5) and G2 = High Level of Involvement (values 5–8). The range of values and the manner of coding was informed by the findings of the qualitative research and takes into account the cultural influence on engagement with practices. Recoding of the variable allowed for the moderating effects of religious involvement to be investigated by using it as a grouping variable. Although there was a difference between the number of respondents in each category, multilevel statistical equation modelling can be conducted on unequal sample sizes if the group size is above 100 (Hox and Mass, 2001). As each group had over 150 respondents upon recoding the variable, unequal group size is not deemed an issue in this instance.

4.4.4 Measurement invariance

Measurement invariance is assessed at the configural, metric and scalar level to evaluate whether the measures utilised in the study are conceptually similar across the different groups being compared (Kline, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). This serves as a preliminary step to conducting the multi-group analysis employed in this study. In this research, multi-group analysis is used to conduct comparisons across the British and Pakistani sub-samples and across Study 1 and Study 2. This is to explore objective 2, which seeks to investigate cross-cultural differences or similarities across the British and Pakistani markets, and also within each sub-sample, to identify the effects of sexuality within each of the countries. As comparisons are conducted between and across the four groups: British Study 1, British Study 2, Pakistani Study 1 and Pakistani Study 2, measurement invariance is assessed across all four groups (Table 13).

First, configural invariance was tested by running a multi-group analysis using all four groups simultaneously. This meant that parameters were estimated for all four groups at the same time (Bryne, 2004). The model was estimated freely without imposing any constraints (Bryne, 2004). Fit indices: $x^2 = 703.225$, df = 1772, $x^2/df = 4.460$, GFI =.832, CFI =.948, RMSEA =.036, indicate a good model fit (Chen, 2007). Configural invariance is supported and it can be concluded that the overall factor structure is similar, meaning that latent constructs can be explained by the same manifest variables across the four groups (Xu and Tracey, 2017). The results of this model are utilised as a basis on which the constrained models will be compared.

Invariance was further assessed at the metric and scalar level. Metric invariance evaluates the notion that factor loadings of items are equivalent across groups and were calculated by constraining the factor loading in the measurement model to be the same across the four different groups (Bieda et al., 2017). Scalar invariance tests whether mean differences are captured by the three latent constructs (Putnick and Bornstein, 2016). Scalar invariance was evaluated by retraining the factor constraints in the model and by constraining item intercepts to be the same across all four groups.

Different studies have utilised different criteria to establish invariance. Traditionally, measurement invariance was determined by evaluating the chi-square difference between the nested models (Jiang, Mai and Yuan, 2017). However, it is noted that chisquare values can be overly sensitive wherein even minor deviations and differences that are largely irrelevant can show up as being statistically significant - this is particularly the case where larger sample sizes are concerned (French and Finch, 2006; Putnick and Bornstein, 2016; van de Vijver et al., 2019). Measurement invariance is alternatively evaluated through comparison of the root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker Lewis index (TLI) of the nested models as these fit indices have been found to be less dependent on sample size and model complexity (Chen, 2007; van de Vijver et al., 2019). Although there exists some discrepancy as to the cut-off values of these indices, changes in CFI and TLI of.02 or less and changes in RMSEA of.03 or less are acceptable to support metric invariance (Chen, 2007; Comsa, 2010; Putnick and Bornstein, 2016; van de Vijver et al., 2019). For establishing scalar invariance, a difference of -.01 is between CFI, TLI and .01 between RMSEA values is preferred (Putnick and Bornstein, 2016). For the aforementioned reasons, for this study, the CMIN/DF value is reported; however, measurement invariance is assessed by comparing the aforementioned fit indices.

| | Comparison | x²/df | RMSEA | ΔRMSEA | CFI | ΔCFI | TLI | ΔTLI |
|------------|------------|-------|-------|--------|------|------|------|------|
| Configural | - | 4.460 | 0.036 | | .948 | | .942 | |
| Metric | 1 vs 2 | 4.912 | 0.039 | .003 | .938 | 010 | .934 | 008 |
| Scalar | 2 vs 3 | 6.075 | 0.044 | .005 | .915 | 023 | .914 | 002 |

 x^2 /df= chi-square/degrees of freedom; RMSEA=Root mean square of error of approximation at 95% confidence interval; CFI=Comparative Fit Index, TLI= Tucker Lewis Index

Results of the metric and scalar invariance tests are shown in Table 13. Fit indices for the metric invariance model provides support for full metric invariance between all four groups. The difference between RMSEA of the configural and metric model is below .03 (Δ RMSEA =-.003) and differences in both CFI and TLI between the models are below the cut-off range of .02 (Δ CFI=-.01 and Δ TLI=-.008). Full scalar invariance is not adequately supported across the groups; although the difference between RMSEA is below .01 (Δ RMSEA =-0.005) and the difference between TLI is <.01 (Δ TLI=-.002), which satisfies the cut-off criteria for the two values, the difference between CFI value is above >.02. For this reason, partial scalar invariance is assessed. In practical terms, measurement invariance can be very stringent, full invariance is not essential for further tests of invariance and substantive to be meaningful if partial invariance is achieved. Partial invariance is supported if "at least one item (other than the one fixed at unity to define the scale of each latent construct) is metrically invariant." (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Podsakoff, 2011, p. 325). Full scalar invariance can often be unachievable, but support for partial scalar invariance is sufficient to enable robust reliability in results of group comparisons (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Podsakoff, 2011; Marsh et al., 2018).

To establish partial scalar invariance, primarily, factor loadings were compared across the groups. The factor 'appropriate' showed varied factor loadings on latent construct 'perception of advert' across groups: British Study 1; λ =.29, British Study 2; λ =.43, Pakistani Study 1: λ =.80, Pakistani Study 1: λ =81. Due to the varied loading and factor weight being below the accepted threshold, this item was deleted. Constraints were removed from one item from each of the constructs 'perception of advert' and 'Perception of brand' in turn and monitoring the fit indices. This approach was adopted as it reduces the chance of a Type I error rate in comparison to releasing multiple paths simultaneously (Putnick and Bornstein, 2016). This reduced the differences amongst the models to the accepted threshold; Δ RMSEA =<0.01, Δ CFI=<.01 and Δ TLI=<.01. Partial scalar invariance is therefore supported. As partial measurement invariance is supported at the metric and scalar level, it can be concluded that multigroup analysis can be carried out at the structural level and it is acceptable to carry out comparisons (Chen, 2007; Davidov, 2008; Comsa, 2010).

Measurement invariance: religious involvement

This research also investigates the impact of the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices can have on the relationships between variables in the developed conceptual model for both Study 1 and Study 2, i.e. in the context of both the nonsexual and sexual advert. Comparisons are conducted between low-medium religious involvement respondents and high-religious involvement respondents. As multi-group analysis is performed between the groups for Study 1 and Study 2, measurement invariance is assessed for each of the studies in turn. Comparison of model fit indices are used to assess measurement invariance at the configural metric and scalar level (van de Vijver et al., 2019). This maintains consistency with the method previously utilised to establish invariance between the British and Pakistani sub-samples and across the studies.

Table 14: Measurement invariance: Study 1 low/medium RI and high RI

| | Comparison | x²/df | RMSEA | ΔRMSEA | CFI | ΔCFI | TLI | ΔTLI |
|------------|------------|-------|-------|--------|------|------|------|------|
| Configural | | 2.908 | .053 | | .940 | | .932 | |
| Metric | 1 vs 2 | 2.915 | .053 | - | .937 | 003 | .932 | _ |
| Scalar | 2 vs 3 | 3.271 | .058 | 005 | .923 | 014 | .919 | 013 |

x²/df= chi-square/degrees of freedom; RMSEA=Root mean square of error of approximation at 95% confidence interval; CFI=Comparative Fit Index, TLI= Tucker Lewis Index

For Study 1, fit indices of the baseline model are acceptable and the difference between the baseline model and the metric model is: Δ RMSEA =<.001, Δ CFI=-.002 and Δ TLI=<.001 (Table 13). Therefore, configural invariance and full metric invariance are supported in Study 1. Full scalar invariance is not supported as Δ TLI=-0.013 between which is higher than the preferred cut-off of .01 (Putnick and Bornstein, 2016). In accordance with the process outlined earlier, a constraint was removed from one item from the construct 'perception of advert' which produced acceptable differences between fit indices of the metric and scalar models (Δ RMSEA =<.01, Δ CFI=<.01 and Δ TLI=<.01), partial scalar invariance is therefore supported.

| Comparison | x²/df | RMSEA | ΔRMSEA | CFI | ΔCFI | TLI | ΔTLI |
|------------|--------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|---|--|
| | 3.000 | .054 | | .947 | | .940 | |
| 1 vs 2 | 2.999 | .054 | <.001 | .945 | 002 | .940 | <.001 |
| 2 vs 3 | 3.299 | .058 | 004 | .935 | 01 | .931 | 009 |
| | 1 vs 2 | 3.000 1 vs 2 2.999 | 3.000 .054 1 vs 2 2.999 .054 | 3.000 .054 1 vs 2 2.999 .054 <.001 | 3.000 .054 .947 1 vs 2 2.999 .054 <.001 | 3.000 .054 .947 1 vs 2 2.999 .054 <.001 | 3.000 .054 .947 .940 1 vs 2 2.999 .054 <.001 |

Table 15: Measurement invariance: Study 2: low/medium RI and high RI

x²/df= chi-square/degrees of freedom; RMSEA=Root mean square of error of approximation at 95% confidence interval; CFI=Comparative Fit Index, TLI= Tucker Lewis Index

Results of measurement invariance for Study 2 demonstrate that model fit indices of the baseline model are acceptable (Table 15) (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The difference between the configural and metric model is Δ RMSEA =<.001, Δ CFI=.002 and Δ TLI=<.001. The difference between the metric and scalar models is Δ RMSEA =-.004, Δ CFI=-.01 and Δ TLI=-.009. Configural, metric and scalar invariance are therefore supported by the results (Chen, 2007; Comsa, 2010; Putnick and Bornstein, 2016; van de Vijver et al., 2019). As measurement invariance is supported across the groups for Study 1 and Study 2, multi-group analysis can be conducted.

4.4.5 Conceptualisation of celebrity effectiveness

Before testing the developed hypothesis to address the objectives of the study, predictors of celebrity effectiveness in the context of this study are confirmed as a preliminary step. The structural model was run for Study 1 and Study 2 respectively, with all four constructs for celebrity effectiveness included. The path coefficients, their strength, direction and significance were used to confirm the conceptualisation of celebrity effectiveness (Kline, 2005).

Results showed attractiveness had a positive path loading of β =.72 for Study 1 and β =.33 for Study 2. Both of these loadings were significant *P*<.001 showing attractiveness has a statistically significant positive effect on celebrity effectiveness for Study 1 and Study 2. Match-up also had significant path loading *P*<.001 of β =.45 and β =.70 for Study 1 and Study 2 respectively.

Results showed that construct expertise on the second-order factor celebrity effectiveness had a regression weight of β =-.04 (*P*=.039) showing a negative path

coefficient in Study 1. In Study 2, expertise on celebrity effectiveness has a regression weight β =.08 (*P*=.001), demonstrating a positive direction of the path coefficient. Due to the variance in the results of Study 1 and Study 2, the difference in direction of the path coefficients of expertise on celebrity effectiveness and in combination with the literature on celebrity endorsement, expertise is deemed to not be an adequate predictor of celebrity effectiveness in the context of fashion marketing.

The regression weight for trustworthiness in the prediction of celebrity effectiveness was not significant for Study 1 or for Study 2 (β =.02, *P*=.306 and β =-.03, *P*=.080 respectively). Trustworthiness is therefore not a statistically significant predictor for celebrity effectiveness in the structural model for either of the studies. Thus, only attractiveness and match-up are significant formative factors for celebrity effectiveness in the structural model for the studies approximately for the structural model for the structural sectors for celebrity effectiveness in the structural model for the context of this research as per the results of the analysis.

4.5 Structural equation modelling: Study 1 and Study 2

Statistical equation modelling in IBM Amos was used to test the structural model and analyse the conceptualised relationships between the latent variables and conduct hypothesis testing. Across the analysis, the model was tested using the maximum likelihood estimation; SEM is used to examine how well the data fits the structural model.

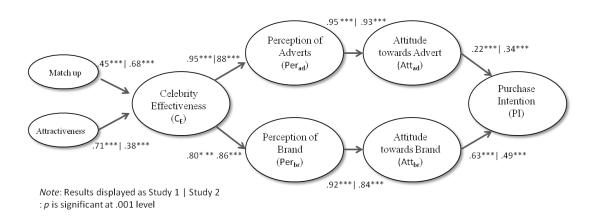
SEM analysis was performed to test the conceptual model which is for evaluating the first objective. This was done first for Study 1 and then for Study 2 to evaluate and determine model fit across the two studies. The regression paths were significant p<.001 for all paths within the model in both Study 1 and Study 2 (Figure 6). Fit statistics for both studies are provided below:

Study 1: x²= 3239.188, df=426, x²/df=7.604, GFI=.874, RMSEA=.071.

Study 2: x²= 3837.908, df=426, x²/df=9.009, GFI=.844, RMSEA=.078.

Although the x^2/df is higher than the usually accepted level of 5, the chi-square value is very sensitive to large sample sizes (Hair et al., 2010). Samples larger than 250 are generally considered to be large and can lead to a significant increase in the value, additionally; the chi-square is also further inflated by the number of parameters in the model (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Sivo et al., 2006). Due to the sensitivity of this statistic, it should not be used as a basis for acceptance or rejection and instead, other fit indications should be taken into account to evaluate model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger and Müller, 2003; Vandenberg 2006). Study 1 and Study 2 each have a sample size of 1302 and 72 parameters – as this classifies it as a 'large' sample size, it is likely to yield a large chi-square x^2 value. For this reason, additional fit indices were considered and the values are thus reported:

Study 1: NFI =.942, RFI=.937, IFI=.950, TLI=.945, CFI=.950.



Study 2: NFI=.937, RFI=.931, IFI=.943, TLI=.938, CFI=.943.

Figure 6: Standardised path loadings: Study 1 and Study 2

Additional fit indices for the model collectively demonstrate a good model fit (Brown, 2006). Taken together, the fit indices support that the collected data is an acceptable/good fit for the developed model.

4.6 Multi-group structural equation modelling

4.6.1 Analysis across groups

This study is concerned with investigating the conceptual model across the subsamples of British and Pakistani respondents in both Study 1 and Study 2. This serves the purpose of validating the proposed conceptual model across the British and Pakistani market as per objective 1, and further allows for comparisons to be conducted between the cultural groups as per objective 2, and investigate whether relationships between celebrity effectiveness, perception, attitude and purchase intention are impacted by cultural differences when both nonsexual and explicitly sexual celebrity-endorsed advertising are utilised. A sample of the qualitative data analysis from the focus group interviews pertaining to the aforementioned objectives is provided in Appendix 12.

To conduct multi-group analysis, the data set for Study 1 and Study 2 was split by country of residence; i.e. England and Pakistan. This yielded four groups in total; British Study 1 (B1), Pakistani Study 1 (P1), British Study 2 (B2) and Pakistani Study 2 (P2). In total, the sample size for each of the data sets met the required threshold of at least five cases per parameter (Kline, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010).

All four groups were entered simultaneously into Amos and statistical equation modelling was run. As this research has established measurement invariance, a prerequisite for multi-group analysis (Olya, Alipour and Gavilyan, 2018) and accessed model fit across Study 1 and Study 2, it is acceptable to investigate the conceptual model across the four groups (Kline, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). It was decided to enter all groups instead of running the model separately across the groups, as when multiple groups are added simultaneously, one model fit is obtained which indicates the overall fit of the model while controlling for the different groups (Grace and Jutila, 1999).

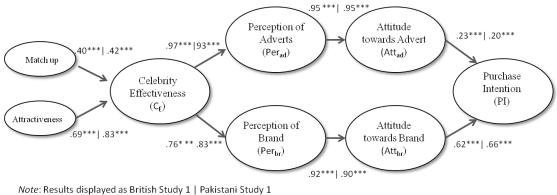
Performing statistical equation modelling across the four groups showed fit indices; x^2 =9660.246, df=1704, x^2 /df=5.669, GFI=.812, RMSEA=.042. NFI=.918, RFI=.910, IFI=.931, TLI=.951, CFI=.931. The results support that data for each of the sub-samples of British and Pakistani consumers for Study 1 and Study 2 is a good fit for the

developed model. As the model fit is established, it is permissible to access the significance of path coefficients across the four groups (Kline, 2005).

4.6.2 Path relationships between constructs

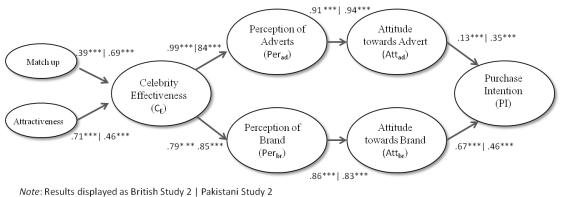
The first objective developed for the study investigates the relationships between constructs within the developed conceptual model. The relationship between celebrity effectiveness, its impact on perception and attitude towards the advert and endorsed brand, and whether these relationships impact purchase intention towards the endorsed product is assessed by evaluating the path loadings across the four groups. The related hypotheses are tested.

Results showed that all paths between constructs were statistically significant *P*<0.001 for Study 1 and for Study 2 while controlling for country of residence. Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the results for the different groups. Celebrity effectiveness increases perception of advert for sample British Study 1 (β =.97, p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (β =.93, p<.001), sample British Study 2 (β =.99, p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (β =.84, p<.001). Therefore, hypothesis **H1a:** 'Celebrity effectiveness has a significant and positive impact on perception of advert' is supported.



***: p is significant at .001 level

Figure 7: Standardised path loadings and significance Study 1: by British and Pakistani sub-groups



: p is significant at .001 level

Figure 8: Standardised path loadings and significance Study 2: by British and Pakistani sub-groups Celebrity effectiveness increases perception brand for sample British Study 1 (β =.76, p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (β =.83, p<.001), sample British Study 2 (β =.79, p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (β =.85, p<.001). Hypothesis **H1b:** 'Celebrity effectiveness has a significant and positive impact on perception of brand' is therefore supported.

The next set of hypotheses tests the effects of perception on attitude for the advert and the brand. Perception advert increases attitude advert for samples British Study 1 (β =.95, p<.001), sample British Study 1 (β =.95, p<.001), sample British Study 2 (β =.91, p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (β =.94, p<.001).

H2a: 'Perception of advert has a significant and positive impact on attitude towards advert' is therefore supported. Hypothesis **H2b:** 'Perception of brand has a significant and positive impact on attitude towards brand' is also supported. Perception brand increases attitude brand for samples British Study 1 (β =.92, p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (β =.90, p<.001), sample British Study 2 (β =.86, p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (β =.83, p<.001).

The results show that attitude towards advert and attitude towards brand are both significant indicators of purchase intention. An increase in attitude towards the advert will lead to an increase in purchase intention towards the endorsed product. Attitude advert increases purchase intention for samples British Study 1 (β =.23, p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (β =.20, p<.001), sample British Study 2 (β =.13, p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (β =.35, p<.001). Hypothesis **H3a:** 'Attitude towards advert has a

significant and positive impact on purchase intention' is supported. Attitude brand increases purchase intention for samples British Study 1 (β =.62, p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (β =.66, p<.001), sample British Study 2 (β =.67, p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (β =.46, p<.001). Hypothesis **H3b:** 'Attitude towards brand has a significant and positive impact on purchase intention' is thus also supported.

4.6.3 Mediating effects

In line with the theory, it is hypothesised that celebrity effectiveness has an impact on purchase intention through two distinct paths; via perception and attitude towards the advert and through perception and attitude towards the brand.

The statistically significant path coefficients in the developed conceptual model and results of hypotheses H1–H3 allow for the conclusion that celebrity effectiveness influences perception of the advert, perception of the advert influences attitude towards the advert and attitude towards the advert impacts purchase intention. In the developed model, perception and attitude of the advert are taken to mediate the effects of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention. Similarly: celebrity effectiveness influences perception of the brand, perception of the brand influences attitude towards the brand and attitude towards the brand impacts purchase intention. In the conceptual model, perception and attitude towards the brand are seen to mediate the effects of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention.

It is theorised that the mediators, perception and attitude, help explain why consumers may or may not intent to purchase the product and help explain the variance between celebrity effectiveness and purchase intention, i.e. the impact of celebrity effectiveness on construct purchase intention can be better explained through the use of the mediating variables.

The paths between the latent constructs having been found as significant, allows for the mediating effects of aforementioned variables to be tested for statistical significance. It should also be noted that, as previously established, the model has a good fit and all constructs had substantial R squared values across the studies (R²>.40). Mediation was analysed using the Bayesian approach through the use of user-defined estimands in IBM Amos (Hayes, 2009; Zhao, Lynch and Chen, 2010; Woody, 2011). In line with the method, bootstrapping was used. Iterative bootstrapping was set at 2000 times to help increase reliability in the estimates, Bias was corrected confidence intervals at 90 percent to help reduce some of the inflation of measures that can be caused due to bootstrapping (Fritz and MacKinnon, 2007; Woody, 2011). The results of mediation analysis are displayed in Table 16.

Table 16: Mediation analysis

| Mediation sequence | S.E. | Bias | Estimate | Lower | Upper | Р | | | | |
|--|------|------|----------|-------|-------|---------|--|--|--|--|
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention | | | | | | | | | | |
| British Study 1 | .033 | 001 | .127 | .077 | .187 | .001*** | | | | |
| British Study 2 | .033 | .001 | .070 | .019 | .130 | .015* | | | | |
| Pakistani Study 1 | .046 | .001 | .140 | .074 | .228 | .001*** | | | | |
| Pakistani Study 2 | .023 | .000 | .146 | .112 | .188 | .001*** | | | | |
| Celebrity effectiveness $ ightarrow$ perception brand $ ightarrow$ attitude brand $ ightarrow$ purchase intention | | | | | | | | | | |
| British Study 1 | .034 | .000 | .268 | .216 | .329 | .001*** | | | | |
| British Study 2 | .034 | 001 | .273 | .221 | .335 | .001*** | | | | |
| Pakistani Study 1 | .050 | 001 | .399 | .320 | .485 | .001*** | | | | |
| Pakistani Study 2 | .023 | .000 | .173 | .137 | .214 | .001*** | | | | |

Note: C_E = celebrity effectiveness, $Per_{ad=}$ perception advert, $Per_{br=}$ Perception brand, Att_{ad} = attitude advert, Att_{br} = attitude brand, PI= purchase intention, S.E.=Standard Error, ***P is significant at. 001 level, *p is significant at. 05 LEVEL

The effects of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention are mediated through perception of advert and attitude towards advert across the British and Pakistani sample for both Study 1 and Study 2 for each of the sub-samples. The direction of the indirect effect is correct and significant; sample British Study 1 (p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (p<.05), sample British Study 1 (p<.001) and sample Pakistani Study 2 (p<.001). Therefore, hypothesis **H4a**: 'The impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated by perception of advert and attitude towards advert' is thus supported.

It is found that perception of brand and attitude towards brand mediate the effects of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention for both Study 1 and Study 2 for each of the sub-samples. The direction of the indirect effect is correct and significant; sample British Study 1 (p<.001), sample Pakistani Study 1 (p<.001), sample British Study 2 (p<.001) Hypothesis **H4b:** 'The impact of

celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated by perception of brand and attitude towards brand' is therefore supported by the findings.

Analysis of the qualitative data also revealed that consumer cognitive perception and attitudinal response towards both the brand can help explain the impact of celebrity endorsement on intention to purchase the products. This is reflected in the sample statements by two participants provided below:

"Since so many brands use celebrities, the ad needs to be 'wow' to make me save it and make a note of buying the thing... I would buy this, as I said. The ad is quite interesting and different isn't it".

"The brand has to be good, I will think that Kendall knows make-up so she will know the brand but it still has to be good... I mean I have to know I'm getting a good deal and I like the brand".

4.6.4 Multi-group comparisons

4.6.4.1 Approach to multi-group analysis

This research is also concerned with conducting comparisons between the chosen cultures to investigate and identify similarities and differences within paths in the conceptual model. It therefore investigates whether relationships between celebrity effectiveness, perception, attitude and purchase intention, are impacted by culture and the inclusion of sexuality in advert content. To assess this, comparisons within and across the sub-groups of British and Pakistani respondents are conducted for Study 1 and Study 2. As the purpose is to assess and determine whether the paths are statistically different from each other for each of the sub-samples, a multi-group analysis is considered appropriate (Kline, 2005; Taheri et al., 2020). As measurement invariance is established and additionally, the model has been validated for both Study 1 and Study 2, comparisons to investigate effects of moderating variables can be made (Hair et al., 2010).

As outlined previously, each participant responded to both Study 1 and Study 2. Different adverts were featured in each study. The advert in Study 1 solely featured a

close-up of the celebrity while Study 2 featured an advert that was created to be of a sexual nature. The design of the study was to enable the investigation of the response to inclusion of sexuality in the advert content for the British and Pakistani markets. This response to sexuality in the advert content, and whether it impacts for differences between the relationships of constructs in the conceptual model, is analysed through the comparison of Study 1 and Study 2 for each of the sub-groups in turn i.e. multi-group analysis is conducted between British Study 1 and British Study 2 to identify whether the inclusion of sexuality in the advert causes variance in the conceptual model in the British market, and multi-group analysis is conducted between Pakistani Study 1 and Pakistani Study 2 to identify whether the inclusion of sexuality in the advert causes variance of sexuality in the advert causes variance in the conceptual model in the British market, and multi-group analysis is conducted between Pakistani Study 1 and Pakistani Study 2 to identify whether the inclusion of sexuality in the advert causes variances of sexuality in the advert causes variances to Study 1 and Study 2 to enable a basic understanding of consumer response to Study 1 and Study 2 for each of the samples being compared. These are displayed in Appendix 13.

Multi-group analysis is also conducted for Study 1 and Study 2 by using 'country of residence' as a moderating variable. Comparisons are conducted between British Study 1 and Pakistani Study 1 to identify whether the model differs for the British and the Pakistani samples. Further multi-group analysis is conducted between British Study 2 and Pakistani Study 2 to identify whether the model differs across the British and Pakistani consumers for Study 2. The purpose is to investigate whether culture influences the relationships between the paths across the two studies.

There exist different approaches to statistically testing variances across different groups as witnessed by existing studies that have conducted analysis with this objective (Hair et al., 2010; Olya, Alipour and Gavilyan, 2018; Munim and Schramm, 2018; Her, Shin and Pae, 2019; Olya, Shahmirzdi and Alipour, 2019; Taheri et al., 2020). This study conducts multi-group comparisons by calculating differences between regression paths in the SEM model. Bootstrapping at 2000 iteration is used and bias is corrected at 90 percent confidence level. A user-defined estimand is used and the difference in regression weights, associated error and confidence intervals are

calculated and used to calculate and produce a p value which is used to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists (Kruse et al., 2001; Hair et al., 2010). This method is, arguably, a more direct method of comparing paths between groups than using a chi-square difference test (Kruse et al., 2001).

4.6.4.2 Multi-group analysis results

Multi-group analysis using the outlined method was conducted. Table 17 shows results of the multi-group analysis between all of the four groups. Using the results, hypothesis H5–H8 can be tested. Comparing the groups British Study 1 and British Study 2 showed there are no statistically significant differences in the conceptualised relationships between any of the latent variables. The inclusion to sexuality in the advert content did not lead to any significant change in path relationships (*p*>.05) across the constructs. Hypothesis **H5**: 'The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention varies across the nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs.' is not supported. This result was also supplemented by the qualitative analysis of the focus group interview with the British participants. Analysis revealed consumer response to both adverts to be comparable.

| Table 17: Findings: multi-group analysis for British and Pakistani respondents – Study 1 and Study 2 |
|--|
|--|

| $\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $ | | β | β | Δβ | Estimate | Lower | Upper | P value | Result |
|--|--|---------|---------|-------|----------|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness .685*** .713*** 028 .074 725 .902 .859 B1 = B. Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception .968*** .990*** 003 106 .108 .979 Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand .760*** .792*** .032 .029 .058 .111 .583 B1 = B. Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert .951*** .999*** .042 .060 .008 .119 .150 B1 = B. Perception brand \rightarrow attitude advert .951*** .999*** .042 .060 .008 .119 .150 B1 = B. Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention .225*** .128*** .097 .097 .033 .239 .208 B1 = B. Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness .396*** .416*** .02 .093 .150 .555 B1 = P. Attractiveness \rightarrow perception brand .760*** .830*** .02 .093 .150 .555 B1 = P. Attractiveness \rightarrow perception brand .760*** .830*** .030 .200 .035 | British S1 – British S2 | B1 | B2 | | | | | | |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .396*** | .388*** | .008 | 025 | 310 | .245 | .861 | B1 = B2 |
| advert.022.003.106.108.979Celebrity effectiveness → perception brand.760***.792***.032.029.058.111.583B1 = B.Perception advert → attitude advert.951***.909***.042.060.008.119.150B1 = B.Perception brand → attitude brand.924***.856***.068.011042.063.734B1 = B.Attitude advert → purchase intention.620***.672***.052.062.204.062.403B1 = B.Attitude brand → purchase intention.620***.672***.052.062.204.062.403B1 = B.Match-up → Celebrity effectiveness.396***.416***.002.093150.353.555B1 = P.Attractiveness → celebrity effectiveness.685***.831***16336.1243.568.560B1 = P.Attractiveness → perception.968***.933***171281065.014*B1 > P.advert035171281065.014*B1 > P.Celebrity effectiveness → perception brand.924***.904***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > P.Perception advert → attitude advert.951***944***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > P.Perception brand → attitude brand.924***.904***.003.030107246B1 = P.Perceptio | Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .685*** | .713*** | 028 | .074 | 725 | .902 | .859 | B1 = B2 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | | .968*** | .990*** | - 022 | 003 | 106 | .108 | .979 | B1 = B2 |
| $\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $ | | .760*** | .792*** | | .029 | 058 | .111 | .583 | B1 = B2 |
| Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.924***.856***.068.011042.063.734B1 = B.Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.128***.097.097.033.239.208B1 = B. <i>ititis 51 Pokistani 51</i> B1P1 | | | | | | | | | B1 = B2 |
| Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.128***.097.097.033.239.208B1 = B.Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.672***.052.062.204.062.403B1 = B.Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.396***.416***.02.093.150.353.555B1 = P.Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.396***.831***.146336.1.243.568.560B1 = P.Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.968***933*** <t< td=""><td>•</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>B1 = B2</td></t<> | • | | | | | | | | B1 = B2 |
| Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.672***.052.062.204.062.403B1 = Biritish S1 - Pakistani S1B1P1 <td< td=""><td>•</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>B1 = B2</td></td<> | • | | | | | | | | B1 = B2 |
| B1P1Match-up >celebrity effectiveness.396***.416***.02.093.150.353.555B1 = P.Attractiveness >celebrity effectiveness.685***.831***.146.336.1.243.568.560B1 = P.Celebrity effectiveness > perception.968***.933***.171.281.065.014*D14*Celebrity effectiveness > perception brand.760***.830***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > P.Perception advert > attitude advert.951***.948***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > P.Perception brand > attitude brand.225***.195***.03.020.129.153.848B1 = P.Attitude advert > purchase intention.225***.195***.03.020.129.153.848B1 = P.Attitude brand > purchase intention.620***.658***.038.107.247.042.246B1 = P.Match-up >celebrity effectiveness.388***.694***.306.889.3961.630.001***B2 < P. | • | | | | | | | | B1 = B2 |
| Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.685***.831***.146.336.1.243.568.560B1 = P:Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.968***.933***.035.171.281.065.014*B1 > P:advert.035.171.281.065.014*B1 > P:Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.760***.830***.007.105.200.005.081B1 > P:Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.951***.948***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > P:Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.924***.904***.02.029.096.031.423B1 = P:Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.195***.033.020.129.153.848B1 = P:Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***.038.107.247.042.246B1 = P:Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***.038.107.247.042.246B1 = P:Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.713***.461***.252.686.1.075.350.001***B2 > P:Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.990***.835***.127.030.231.028*B2 > P:advert.155.127.030.231.028*.24 > P:Perception brand \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.826***.033.045.014.144 <td< td=""><td>British S1 – Pakistani S1</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></td<> | British S1 – Pakistani S1 | | | | | | | | |
| Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.685***.831***.146.336.1.243.568.560B1 = P:Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.968***.933***.035.171.281.065.014*B1 > P:advert.035.171.281.065.014*B1 > P:Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.760***.830***.007.105.200.005.081B1 = P:Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.951***.948***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > P:Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.924***.904***.002.029.096.031.423B1 = P:Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.195***.03.020.129.153.848B1 = P:Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***.038.107.247.042.246B1 = P:Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.713***.461***.252.686.1.075.350.001***B2 > P:Celebrity effectiveness.713***.461***.252.686.1.075.350.001***B2 > P:advert.155.127.030.231.028*.62.92Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.792***.848***.056.058.024.144.249B2 = P:Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.337***.028.019.038 <td>Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness</td> <td>.396***</td> <td>.416***</td> <td>02</td> <td>.093</td> <td>150</td> <td>.353</td> <td>.555</td> <td>B1 = P1</td> | Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .396*** | .416*** | 02 | .093 | 150 | .353 | .555 | B1 = P1 |
| advert | | .685*** | .831*** | 146 | 336 | -1.243 | .568 | .560 | B1 = P1 |
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.760***.830***07105200005.081B1 = PPerception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.951***.948***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > PPerception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.924***.904***.02029096.031.423B1 = PAttitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.195***03020129153.848B1 = PAttitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***038107247.042.246B1 = PAttitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***038107247.042.246B1 = PAttitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***0368893961.630.001***B2 < P | Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception | .968*** | .933*** | .035 | | | | .014* | B1 > P1 |
| Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.951***.948***.003.080.020.138.028*B1 > PPerception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.924***.904***.02029096.031.423B1 = PAttitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.195***.03.020.129.153.848B1 = PAttitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***038107247.042.246B1 = PAttitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***036.889.3961.630.001***B2 < P | Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand | .760*** | .830*** | | 105 | 200 | 005 | .081 | B1 = P1 |
| Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.225***.195***.03.020129.153.848B1 = PAttitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***038107247.042.246B1 = Pritish S2 - Pakistani S2B2P2< | | .951*** | .948*** | .003 | .080 | .020 | .138 | .028* | B1 > P1 |
| Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention.620***.658***038107247.042.246B1 = Pritish S2 - Pakistani S2B2P2 | Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand | .924*** | .904*** | .02 | 029 | 096 | .031 | .423 | B1 = P1 |
| <i>B2P2</i> Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.388***.694***.306.889.3961.630.001***B2 < P2 | Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention | .225*** | .195*** | .03 | .020 | 129 | .153 | .848 | B1 = P1 |
| Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.388***.694***306.889.3961.630.001***B2 < P2Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.713***.461***.252686-1.075350.001***B2 > P2Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.990***.835***.127.030.231.028*B2 > P2advert.155.127.030.231.028*B2 > P2Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.848***056.058024.144.249B2 = P2Perception advert \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P2Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P2 | Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention | .620*** | .658*** | 038 | 107 | 247 | .042 | .246 | B1 = P1 |
| Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness.713***.461***.252.686-1.075.350.001***B2 > P2Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.990***.835***.127.030.231.028*B2 > P2advert.155.127.030.231.028*B2 > P2Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.792***.848***056.058024.144.249B2 = P2Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.937***028.019038.086.517B2 = P2Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P2Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.128***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P2 | British S2 – Pakistani S2 | B2 | P2 | | | | | | |
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception.990***.835***.127.030.231.028*B2 > P2advert.155.155.155.127.030.231.028*B2 = P2Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.792***.848***056.058024.144.249B2 = P2Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.937***028.019038.086.517B2 = P2Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P2Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.128***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P2 | Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .388*** | .694*** | 306 | .889 | .396 | 1.630 | .001*** | B2 < P2 |
| advert.127.030.231.028*Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand.792***.848***056.058024.144.249B2 = P2Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.937***028.019038.086.517B2 = P2Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P2Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.128***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P2 | Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .713*** | .461*** | .252 | 686 | -1.075 | 350 | .001*** | B2 > P2 |
| Perception advert \rightarrow attitude advert.909***.937***028.019038.086.517B2 = P2Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P2Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.128***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P2 | , , , | .990*** | .835*** | .155 | .127 | .030 | .231 | .028* | B2 > P2 |
| Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P2Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.128***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P2 | Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand | .792*** | .848*** | 056 | .058 | 024 | .144 | .249 | B2 = P2 |
| Perception brand \rightarrow attitude brand.856***.826***.03.045014.104.197B2 = P.Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention.128***.351***223234355101.003**B2 < P. | | .909*** | .937*** | | | 038 | .086 | .517 | B2 = P2 |
| Attitude brand → purchase intention .672*** .464*** .208 .157 .030 .276 .049* B2 > P2 | • | .856*** | .826*** | | | 014 | .104 | .197 | B2 = P2 |
| Attitude brand → purchase intention .672*** .464*** .208 .157 .030 .276 .049* B2 > P2 | Attitude advert $ ightarrow$ purchase intention | .128*** | .351*** | 223 | 234 | 355 | 101 | .003** | B2 < P2 |
| akistani S1 – Pakistani S2 P1 P2 | • | | .464*** | | | | | .049* | B2 > P2 |
| | Pakistani S1 – Pakistani S2 | P1 | P2 | | | | | | |

| | β | β | Δβ | Estimate | Lower | Upper | P value | Result |
|--|---------|---------|------|----------|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .416*** | .694*** | 278 | 804 | -1.161 | 494 | .001*** | P1 < P2 |
| Attractiveness → celebrity effectiveness | .831*** | .461*** | .37 | 1.299 | .726 | 2.144 | .001*** | P1 > P2 |
| Celebrity effectiveness → perception advert | .933*** | .835*** | .098 | .295 | .190 | .399 | .001*** | P1 > P2 |
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand | .830*** | .848*** | 018 | .192 | .101 | .289 | .002** | P1 < P2 |
| Perception advert $ ightarrow$ attitude advert | .948*** | .937*** | .011 | 001 | 065 | .054 | .925 | P1 = P2 |
| Perception brand $ ightarrow$ attitude brand | .904*** | .826*** | .078 | .084 | .014 | .153 | .048* | P1 > P2 |
| Attitude advert $ ightarrow$ purchase intention | .195*** | .351*** | 156 | 158 | 291 | 022 | .062 | P1 = P2 |
| Attitude brand \rightarrow purchase intention | .658*** | .464*** | .194 | .202 | .068 | .324 | .015* | P1 > P2 |

Note: $C_E = \beta$ = Standardised regression weight, *p significant at.05, **p significant at.005, ***p significant at.001

The moderating effects of 'country of residence' on path relationships within the conceptual model is analysed through comparing British Study 1 with Pakistani Study 1 and British Study 2 with Pakistani Study 2. It is investigated whether the created model for prediction of purchase intention will be significantly different amongst consumers residing in the diverse cultures of England and Pakistan.

Multi-group comparison of the British and Pakistani sub-samples in Study 1 showed differences amongst two paths within the conceptual model. British and Pakistani consumers had statistically significant variance p<.05 in the relationships between celebrity effectiveness and perception of advert. The predictive value of celebrity effectiveness on perception advert is higher for the British market in Study 1. The relationship between perception advert and attitude towards advert is also significantly different p<.05, with the predictive value of perception on attitude towards advert being stronger for the British consumers. The relationships between the other constructs were not significantly different p>.05. Hypothesis H6: 'The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 1' is thus partially supported.

Study 2 included sexuality in the advert, an aspect discouraged in the Pakistani culture. Multi-group analysis was used to compare results between British Study 2 and Pakistani Study 2 to investigate whether respondents in the two countries, England and Pakistan, had statistically significant differences in path relationships when an advert of a sexual nature is concerned. Result showed differences amongst multiple paths. Paths between match-up and celebrity effectiveness and attractiveness and celebrity effectiveness were significantly different at p<.001 level. Match-up had a higher predictive value for celebrity effectiveness while attractiveness had a lower predictive value on celebrity effectiveness for the Pakistani sample in comparison to the British sample. The relationship between celebrity effectiveness and perception of advert is also significantly different p<.05 between the British and Pakistani samples. Celebrity effectiveness showed a lower predictive value on perception of advert for the Pakistani sample in comparison to the British sample. Attitude towards advert had a stronger relationship with purchase intention for the Pakistani sample (p<.005) while the relationship between attitude towards brand and purchase intention was higher for the British market, significant at p<.05 level. **H7**: 'The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 2' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 2' is thus partially supported. Findings from the qualitative focus groups interviews also evidence substantial differences between consumer response to the use of explicit sexuality across the British and Pakistani sample groups. The following statements in regards to the advert in Study 2 help illustrate this contrast and provide context to the findings:

British participant 2: "I like the advert as well, and it's sexy but still fashionable and it's not like all the other ones these days. The jacket makes it high fashion."

British participant 3: "Essentially the same as the first advert just sexier but I think that makes it stand out more you know. It's got a better image".

Pakistani participant 3: "She's (referring to the celebrity) still pretty, but I like the other one (advert 1), this is just not my taste. It is sexual".

Pakistani Participant 5: "It's very Sexy, I personally, I don't really like it".

Multi-group comparison between Pakistani Study 1 and Pakistani Study 2 was used to analyse whether inclusion of sexuality in the advert leads to a change in path relationships in the Pakistani market. Results showed the inclusion of sexuality in the advert led to match-up having a higher predictive value on celebrity effectiveness compared to Study 1 ($\Delta\beta$ =.278, p<.001). The regression weight of attractiveness, which had a strong predictive value on celebrity effectiveness for Study 1 β =.831, decreased significantly (p=.001) with the inclusion of sexuality in the advert $\Delta\beta$ =.37. The predictive value of celebrity effectiveness on perception of advert decreased in Study 2 *p*<.001 while the predictive value of celebrity effectiveness on perception brand increased *p*<.005. The predictive value of perception brand on attitude towards brand was also negatively impacted by the inclusion of sexuality in the advert, significant at the .05 level. Results also showed that sexuality in the advert led to a statistically significant decrease in the predictive value of attitude towards brand and purchase intention $\Delta\beta$ =.194 significant at *p*<.05. **H8**: 'The model for the prediction of Pakistani

consumers' purchase intention varies across the nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs' is partially supported. Variances in the relationship between celebrity effectiveness, perceptions, attitudes and consumer purchase intentions was also evidenced and supported by the qualitative analysis. The following statements provide interesting insight into the weakened relationship between attitude towards the brand and consumer purchase intentions:

"As I said, [brand redacted] is still good and I like it. And Kendall is still pretty, but seeing the way it is shown I do not feel that I need it. I like [brand redacted] but am not attracted to buy it".

"I think the brand is nice also and it is but I don't know... I don't like it too much I don't think I'll buy it if I see this. As we discuss, the brand has very nice makeup but this is not a good way to show that it does".

4.6.5 Impact of religious involvement

This study investigates whether consumer involvement with Islamic religious practices can lead to significant differences and cause variances between paths in the conceptual model within the Pakistani market. This set of multi-group analysis is used to further understanding of the Pakistani sample and how Islamic religion within the country can influence response to celebrity endorsement, and the use of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts, and impact consumer perception, attitude and purchase intention.

Using religious involvement as a grouping variable, multi-group analysis was carried out for Study 1 and Study 2 to investigate objective 3 and test the hypothesis. As stated: Group 1=Low/Medium Level of Involvement and Group 2=High Level of Involvement. The same method that was previously used to conduct multi-group comparison between the British and Pakistani samples was utilised at this stage to maintain consistency in the method used across the comparisons conducted. Bootstrapping at 2000 iteration, with bias corrected at 90% confidence intervals, was performed. Differences in the regression paths, their associated errors and confidence intervals were used to calculate a p value for differences between paths which is used to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists (Hair et al., 2010; Kruse et al., 2001).

Study 1 was designed to be non-controversial and appropriate in accordance with the overall culture in the Pakistani market. Results of multi-group comparisons between low/medium-involvement and high-involvement respondents showed differences in three paths within the conceptual model, significant at p<.05 level (Table 18). The effects of attractiveness and match-up on celebrity effectiveness differed for the low/medium and high-religious involvement groups. Attractiveness of celebrity had a significantly higher impact on celebrity effectiveness for Group 1 in comparison to Group 2 ($\Delta\beta$ =.396) while match-up had a lower impact on celebrity effectiveness for Group 1 in comparison to Group 2 ($\Delta\beta$ =-.338). Although there was no significant difference between the impact of celebrity effectiveness on perception of advert, celebrity effectiveness had a significantly higher predictive effect on perception of brand for Group 2 ($\Delta\beta$ =.137). There is no statistically significant difference in relationships between perception and attitude for either the advert or brand between the two groups. Level of involvement with religion also did not have a significant impact on relationships between attitude advert and purchase intention and attitude brand and purchase intentions. Religious involvement therefore, has some moderating impact in Study 1. Hypothesis H9: 'The model for the prediction of purchase intention is different amongst Pakistani consumers according to religious involvement for nonsexual advert design' is partially supported.

Table 18: Findings: Multi-group analysis by religious involvement

| | β | β | Δβ | Estimate | Lower | Upper | P value | Result |
|---|---------|---------|------|----------|---------|-------|---------|---------|
| Study 1 | - | - | | | | | | |
| Low/Med RI -High RI | G1 | G2 | | | | | | |
| Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .354*** | .692*** | 338 | -1.065 | -3.554 | 190 | .023* | LI < HI |
| Attractiveness →celebrity effectiveness | .882*** | .486*** | .396 | 1.854 | .739 | 3.535 | .020* | LI > HI |
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception advert | .933*** | .956*** | 023 | 238 | 483 | 031 | .064 | LI = HI |
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception brand | .801*** | .938*** | 137 | 315 | 570 | 091 | .019* | LI < HI |
| Perception advert $ ightarrow$ attitude advert | .974*** | .985*** | 011 | 014 | 200 | .136 | .886 | LI = HI |
| Perception brand $ ightarrow$ attitude brand | .896*** | .927*** | 031 | .091 | 026 | .206 | .201 | LI = HI |
| Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention | .186*** | .351*** | 165 | 145 | 497 | .111 | .366 | LI = HI |
| Attitude brand $ ightarrow$ purchase intention | .643*** | .569*** | .074 | .119 | 127 | .480 | .475 | LI = HI |
| Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | | | | | | | | |
| | G1 | G2 | | | | | | |
| Attractiveness \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .684*** | .644*** | .04 | -2.261 | -15.283 | 404 | .028* | LI < HI |
| Celebrity effectiveness \rightarrow perception advert | .525*** | .188* | .337 | .513 | .107 | .839 | .048* | LI > HI |
| Celebrity effectiveness $ ightarrow$ perception brand | .834*** | .980*** | 146 | 403 | 614 | 226 | .001*** | LI < HI |
| Perception advert $ ightarrow$ attitude advert | .837*** | .831*** | .006 | .030 | 109 | .165 | .638 | LI = HI |
| Perception brand $ ightarrow$ attitude brand | .922*** | .968*** | 046 | 1.754 | .504 | 2.215 | .001*** | LI < HI |
| Attitude advert \rightarrow purchase intention | .786*** | .902*** | 116 | 171 | 270 | 077 | .002** | LI < HI |
| Attitude brand $ ightarrow$ purchase intention | .326*** | .515*** | 189 | 070 | 258 | .128 | .545 | LI = HI |
| Match-up \rightarrow celebrity effectiveness | .498*** | .121* | .377 | .482 | .308 | .637 | .001*** | LI > HI |

Note: Low/Med RI = Low/medium religious involvement, High RI= high-religious involvement, β= Standardised regression weight, RI=religious involvement, *p significant at.005, ***p significant at.001

Results of Study 2 showed that involvement with religion does account for significant differences between paths within the developed conceptual model. Similar to Study 1, attractiveness of celebrity had a significantly higher effect on celebrity effectiveness for Group 1 in comparison to Group 2 ($\Delta\beta$ =.337, p<.05), however, in Study 2, the predictive effects of match-up of celebrity effectiveness was also higher for Group 1 in comparison to Group 2 ($\Delta\beta$ =.04, p<.05). This shows an overall reduction in attractiveness and match-up on celebrity effectiveness in the model for respondents with a high level of involvement with Islamic religious practices when sexuality is included in the advert. Increased religious involvement led to higher predictive effect of celebrity effectiveness on perception advert ($\Delta\beta$ =-.146) significant at p<.001 level and also lead to an increase in the path coefficient between perception of advert and attitude towards advert, significant at p<.001 level. The results indicate that although the inclusion of sexuality in the advert has an impact on low/medium religious involvement respondents, the effects on the celebrity endorser is less significant in comparison to high-involvement respondents. However, this less significant impact of sexuality on celebrity effectiveness does not necessarily translate on perception of advert and the effect of perception of advert on attitude towards adverts in the same manner. There was no significant difference in the relationship between celebrity effectiveness and perception of brand between the two groups. The predictive effects of perception brand on attitude brand is higher for Group 2 in comparison to Group 1 $(\Delta\beta=.171, p<.01)$. Perception of advert on attitude towards advert also significantly decreased p<.05, lowering the predictive value of perception on attitude towards advert. Increased religious involvement also led to a significant change p<.05 in the predictive value of attitude towards brand on purchase intention. The predictive effects of attitude towards advert on consumer purchase intention are the same across both groups. Religious involvement accounts for significant differences between the effects of attitude towards brand and purchase intention, with the inclusion of sexuality in the advert, attitude towards brand has lower statistically significant effect on consumer purchase intention. Consequently, results show that the predictive relationship between attitude towards brand and purchase intention is significantly lower for high-religious involvement respondents ($\Delta\beta$ =.377, *p*<.001) in comparison to respondents who have a low/medium level of involvement with Islamic religious practices.

Hypothesis **H10**: 'The model for the prediction of purchase intention is different amongst Pakistani consumers according to religious involvement for explicitly sexual advert design' is partially supported based on results of the multi-group analysis.

4.7 Chapter concluding remarks

This chapter analysed the data collected in the quantitative research in accordance with the objectives and developed hypothesis of this study. Findings from the qualitative analysis were also discussed. Further evidence of the qualitative data analysis is provided in the appendix to illustrate the findings and analysis procedure.

The developed conceptual model was supported across the British and Pakistani sample across both Study 1 and Study 2. It supported that the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is successfully mediated through perception and attitude towards the advert and brand. Multi-group comparisons showed that, while the inclusion of sexuality did not lead to significant changes in relationships between constructs in the developed conceptual model for the British market, it did lead to significant changes for the Pakistani sample, with the inclusion of sexuality eliciting an adverse response. Multi-group analysis between the samples showed that there do exist significant differences in relationships between the developed model across the two markets of England and Pakistan and that these differences are significantly increased with the inclusion of sexuality in the advert context. Operationalising the developed scale to measure the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices allowed their validity to be assessed and supported. Utilising the scale to investigate the effects of religious involvement on the developed model showed that the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices accounts for significant changes between the Pakistani respondents, and thus helped provide further insight into the market.

Whereas this chapter mainly focused on displaying and presenting results from the data analysis, the following chapter will discuss these findings in greater detail with the purpose of analysing and identifying the resultant implications for both theory and practice.

Chapter 5 Discussion of Findings

5. Chapter overview

This chapter discusses the results obtained from the data analysis. Primarily, results from statistical equation modelling are reviewed and the proposed conceptual framework is evaluated to ascertain its validity across markets. Results pertaining to the second objective are then discussed and examined to identify the within-culture and cross-cultural differences and similarities between consumer response to both nonsexual and explicit sexual content and stimuli within celebrity-endorsed advertising. The findings regarding scale development for religious involvement and the resultant impact of religious involvement on Pakistani consumers is then discussed.

5.1 Evaluating the model for impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions

Findings from the data analysis support validation of the conceptual model. Results demonstrate support for all hypothesised causal paths between constructs in the model. The model was developed through consideration of the theory and findings within the literature on celebrity endorsement and their combination with findings from models within consumer behaviour. Figure 9 shows the final validated model.

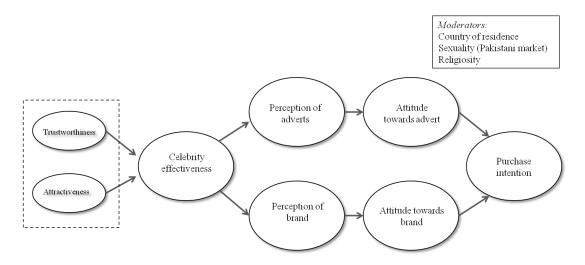


Figure 9: Final proposed conceptual model

Primarily, as a preliminary step, the second-order factor celebrity effectiveness was evaluated. In conformance with the literature, it is supported that source expertise, source trustworthiness, source attractiveness and the match-up hypothesis, can all be used to conceptualise celebrity effectiveness (Ohanian, 1990; Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018). However, results show that, in the structural model, source attractiveness and level of match-up emerge as the main formative indicators of celebrity endorser effectiveness. This is consistent with existing literature which states that, for attractiveness-related products and categories, as is the case in this study, rather than an expert or trustworthy celebrity, it is more important to select a celebrity that is perceived as physically attractive and likeable (Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007). The formative value of expertise in the model was inconsistent between the studies. Furthermore, trustworthiness did not emerge as a significant informative indicator of celebrity effectiveness in either Study 1 or Study 2 and therefore it is found that for beauty products, celebrity trustworthiness is not an essential celebrity characteristic for the overall research samples in both a nonsexual and sexual advertising context. This further supports that attributes of the source are in sync and relevant to the endorsement, and that the match-up hypothesis model should be used in conjunction with the source models (Till and Busler, 2000; Dean and Biswas, 2001; Lee and Thornson, 2008; Törn, 2012; Wang and Scheinbaum, 2018).).

The attractiveness of a celebrity and the level of congruence between the celebrity endorser and the product category/brand being endorsed i.e. celebrity effectiveness, are found to directly influence perception of the endorsed advert and perception of the endorsed brand. This supports that celebrity associations can transfer onto the advert and celebrity-endorsed brand (McCracken, 1989; Miller and Allen, 2012; Roy and Jain, 2017). Consumer attitudes formed towards both the advert and brand are in turn, directly impacted by the manner in which they are perceived. The impact of celebrity effectiveness on both the advert and endorsed brand is supportive of existing literature. This finding supports research which finds that celebrity endorsement leads to enhanced consumer attitudes when used effectively (Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011). Attitudes towards both the advert and the brand both influence consumer purchase intentions towards the endorsed product, thus supporting that attitudinal components regarding the endorsement can be used to effectively predict behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 2001; Jain, 2014).

These results supporting validation of the conceptual framework also further correspond with findings from literature on celebrity endorsement, which state that an attractive source can increase purchase intentions for attractiveness-related product categories (Till and Busler, 2000; Liu, Huang and Minghua, 2007), and that when a suitable endorser is utilised, it can lead to enhanced consumer attitudes (Amos, Holmes and Strutton, 2008; Lee and Thornson, 2008). Furthermore it also supports studies which found that using celebrity endorsement in general, can lead to an increase in purchase intentions in certain instances (Lafferty, 2002; La Ferle and Choi, 2005; Pringle and Binet, 2005; Cobb-Walgren, Ruble and Donthu, 2013; Jain and Roy, 2016).

Of notable importance are the findings from the data analysis which show that both the advert and the brand mediate the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention. This finding demonstrates a cause-and-effect relationship between the constructs and helps illustrate the conditions under which consumers may, or may not, intend to purchase products and brands endorsed by celebrities. Rather than influencing purchase intention directly, the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers influences perception of the endorsed advert and brand. The observation of stimulus being perceived in a positive manner increases the likelihood of consumers developing positive attitudes towards the advert and brand respectively. The attitude formed is an effective predictor of consumer purchase intentions.

This impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention through two distinct paths is supported when various literature is considered together. The findings regarding the significance of the advert content and context design when using celebrity endorsement and its impact on purchase intentions are supportive of the wider research within marketing communications, which states that the advert and campaign design play a critical role in influencing consumer attitudes and eliciting a

purchase (Gresham and Shimp, 1985; Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986; Silvera and Austad, 2003; Bergkvist, Hjalmarson and Mägi, 2017). The significance of the mediating role of the endorsed brand on the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is also in agreement with existing studies. Although, the conceptualisation can be variant, the overall wide range of studies which have researched the impact of celebrity endorsement on the endorsed brand have found that when an effective celebrity endorser is used, it results in a desirable brand image, stronger brand personality, an increase in perceived quality and enhanced overall brand credibility – all which lead to positive consumer attitudes (Yoo, Donthu and Lee, 2000; Roy and Moorthi, 2012; Dwivedi, Johnson and McDonald, 2015; Gordon, James and Yoshida, 2016).

The findings illustrate that it is not only the brand but also the advert design that needs to be factored into analysing and predicting the effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intentions. Even though consumers may have a positive response towards an endorsed brand which would lead to enhanced purchase intentions, it is not the sole determinant of purchase intention. The advert utilise will also influence consumer attitudes, which can be positive, negative or neutral, and this will also have a simultaneous effect on purchase intention. This finding supports literature on the meaning transfer model which states that the successful transference of associations from a celebrity endorser onto the endorsed product and brand is at the forefront of reasons why consumers intend to purchase an endorsed brand and synergy is essential (McCracken, 1989; Cobb-Walgren, Ruble and Donthu, 2013; Roy and Jain 2017; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020).

Findings from the results supporting the necessity for consideration of the mediating effects of perception towards the advert and brand along with consumer attitudes towards the advert and brand, in predicting the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions corresponds with literature on cognitive-affective theory, which states that an individual's affective attitudinal response, informed by cognitive elements, will impact their intention to perform a behaviour (Hsu et al., 2006; Arvola et al., 2008; Cheng and Huang, 2013; Zhou, Dovidio and Wang, 2013;

Ketabi, Ranjbarian and Ansari, 2014; Moon, Habib and Attiq, 2015). This shows that the effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intentions are better understood by incorporating additional consumer models into the conceptualisation of the practice. In addition to providing support for results from the literature on celebrity endorsement on aspects of consumer behaviour, this finding also helps address inconsistencies. It provides a possible reasoning into why findings within the field of celebrity branding and its impact on attitude and purchase intentions have found inconclusive, and at times contradictory results (Baker and Churchill; 1977; Wang, Cheng and Chu, 2012; Rifon, Jiang and Kim, 2016; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020) by suggesting that the mediating effects of perception and attitude towards both the advert and the brand have not been considered and this is needed to robustly investigate the practice.

The aforementioned findings are consistent across Study 1 and Study 2. They also remain consistent when the overall model is divided as per the British and the Pakistani samples. This shows that the proposed conceptualisation for the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions is supported under diverse conditions, i.e. celebrity-endorsed adverts of a nonsexual nature, celebrity-endorsed adverts which incorporate sexuality, British consumers and Pakistani consumers. This replication of the data enhances robustness in the findings relating to validation of the developed conceptual model.

5.2 Cross-cultural comparisons and the impact of sexuality in advertising

The second objective of this research was to investigate the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention and identify whether it differs across the western and eastern cultural markets of England and Pakistan across the studies. This is to identify the similarities and differences that exist when both a nonsexual celebrityendorsed advert and a celebrity-endorsed advert which incorporates sexuality into the advert content and context is concerned. To facilitate discussion on the resultant findings from the analysis, the effect of sexuality on British consumers is primarily discussed. This is followed by consideration of findings from comparisons between the British and Pakistani markets for both Study 1 and Study 2. Results of the analysis to identify the effects sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts on consumers within the Pakistani culture are then discussed. This sequence helps illustrate the findings in relation to cultural influences with enhanced clarity.

5.2.1 British consumers' response to sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts

Findings of comparisons between nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs show that the inclusion of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts does not lead to any significant changes in relationships between constructs in the developed conceptual model for the British market. The effects of both attractiveness and match-up on celebrity effectiveness remain the same, as does the impact of celebrity endorsement on the perception of the advert and perception of the brand. The impact of these perceptions on subsequent attitudes formed towards the advert and the brand are also comparable and do not significantly differ. Consistent to other findings, attitude towards the advert and attitude towards the brand impact purchase intention in the same manner, regardless of advert design. These findings illustrate that British consumers are not stimulated by the inclusion of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts in either a positive or negative manner. While this finding does support literature stating that sexuality is accepted and utilised successfully in western cultures (Attwood, 2005; Clow and Baack, 2007; Putrevu, 2008), interestingly, it also demonstrates that celebrity-endorsed adverts of a more sexual nature do not lead to enhanced positive attitudes or purchase intentions.

5.2.2 Comparisons between British and Pakistani consumers

Nonsexual celebrity-endorsed advertising

The findings show that when celebrity-endorsed advertising is nonsexual in nature there exist some differences between the British and the Pakistani market on the relationships between constructs in the model for impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions. Celebrity effectiveness has a greater impact on the perception of the advert for British consumers in comparison to Pakistani consumers. The effect of perception of the advert on subsequent attitude towards it is also higher for British consumers and comparatively lower for Pakistani consumers. In conjunction, the two differences illustrate that there is an increased level of impact of endorser attributes and associations on observation and interpretation of the advert and an increased resultant effect on the subsequent attitude formed towards that advert in the British market. Meanwhile, in the Pakistani market, although celebrity attributes and associations impact the endorsed advert, the manner in which stimuli regarding the endorsed advert are observed have a lessened impact on subsequent attitudes towards the advert among Pakistani consumers. The analysis shows no significant differences amongst other findings, demonstrating that there are similar views and shared responses between the two cultures researched. The effect of both attractiveness and match-up between the celebrity endorser and the endorsed product and brand on celebrity effectiveness is consistent for both British and Pakistani consumers which supports that the source attractiveness model and the match-up hypothesis are transferable across the two countries, indicating validity across cultures. The positive response to the celebrity within the Pakistani market which was evidenced by both the qualitative and quantitative analysis, also demonstrates that western celebrities can be deemed appropriate within the culture. The interaction between celebrity effectiveness on perception of the endorsed brand is also consistent across the two markets, as is the effect of brand perception on the subsequent attitude towards the brand, thus showing further similarities. Purchase intention towards the endorsed brand and product is impacted by the attitude formed towards the advert and brand in the same manner across the two markets. Interestingly, this illustrates that there are minimal differences between respondents from the two cultures, and that celebrity-endorsed adverts can have cross-cultural appeal within the British and Pakistani markets when the advert does not include or highlight sexuality in the context. This is consistent with research that finds advertising cultures can adopt from one another (Sam and Berry, 2010). The findings demonstrate that western influence does exist within the Pakistani market and has led to shared similarities between consumers belonging to the two cultures. This could be explained by the widespread use of celebrities across international markets and the global

entertainment media which can often lead to a certain degree of homogeneity across diverse western and eastern cultures (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; De Burgh-Woodman, 2014).

Celebrity-endorsed advertising containing explicit sexuality

In contrast, there exist several differences between British and Pakistani respondents when the celebrity-endorsed advert contains explicit sexuality in the advert content. Interestingly, the attractiveness of the celebrity has a lesser impact on overall celebrity effectiveness, while the level of match-up becomes a more important factor in determining the effectiveness for the Pakistani respondents in comparison to British respondents. This shows that although the celebrity endorser might still be perceived as likeable and physically attractive by Pakistani consumers, its impact lessens. Furthermore, the subsequent impact of celebrity effectiveness on the manner in which the advert is perceived also becomes comparatively lower for respondents within the Pakistani market in relation to respondents residing in England. Contrary to Study 1, there are no differences in the manner in which perception of the advert influenced the attitude formed across the two respondent groups, showing that the manner in which the advert is observed will have an equal impact on the subsequent attitude developed. On the other hand, regardless of country of residence, British and Pakistani respondents have shared views on the manner in which celebrity effectiveness impacts perception of the brand and the manner in which this impacts the attitudes formed towards the endorsed brand.

Findings show that, regardless of the advert context, the effect of celebrity endorsers on observations and attributes of the brand, their subsequent interpretations, and the manner in which attitudes towards the brand are impacted, are consistent across the markets of England and Pakistan. Even though both attitude towards the advert and brand significantly impact on consumer purchase intentions across the two markets, for the Pakistani consumers, the inclusion of sexuality in the advertising context leads the attitudes formed towards the advert to have a greater impact on purchase intentions, and the attitude towards the brand to be of lesser importance in comparison to British consumers. Interestingly, this supports findings from studies

which have noted a reduced link between attitudes towards the brand and purchase intention (Kwong et al., 2003), while illustrating that the change could be attributed to additional cognitive factors relating to attitude. The findings further support the cognitive-affective approach to attitude which stresses the ability of feelings, emotions and personal beliefs in influencing overall consumer attitudes (Hsu et al., 2006; Arvola et al., 2008; Cheng and Huang, 2013; Zhou, Dovidio and Wang, 2013). This demonstrates that to effectively enhance purchase intentions towards the endorsed brand and product, it is essential to ensure a favourable attitude towards the celebrityendorsed advert – which is influenced by cognitive beliefs – in the Pakistani market. Consequently, in congruence with studies on culture, these findings support that culture and situational factors do have an impact on the manner in which stimulus is interpreted and the response it elicits (Mischel and Ayduk, 2002; Hogg and Vaughan, 2005; Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010; Lin, 2018; De Mooij, 2017; De Mooij, 2019). Additionally, although there were minimal differences when a culturally neutral celebrity-endorsed advert, one which does not include sexuality in the context was concerned, the two cultures do have significant differences when the celebrityendorsed advertisement includes sexuality. This signifies unpredictability in the transference of celebrity-endorsed advertising across the two countries when the advert includes stimuli within its context and content which could be deemed inappropriate or controversial in Pakistani culture. These findings are in support of research that emphasises the necessity of consideration of dominant cultural values, norms and beliefs in cognition (Hall, 1983; Bates and Plog, 1990; Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010; Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011; Schwartz, 2012).

5.2.3 Pakistani consumers' response to sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts

Findings from the data analysis and successive multi-group comparisons between Pakistani consumers identified that the inclusion of explicit sexuality in celebrity endorsements adversely impacts consumers and leads to changes in relationships between constructs in the developed conceptual model. With the inclusion of sexuality in the advert, Pakistani consumers still find both attractiveness and match-up as determining celebrity effectiveness. However, the attractiveness of the celebrity is not as influential in impacting overall celebrity effectiveness, while the impact of match-up is increased.

Interestingly, findings show that with the inclusion of sexuality in the advert, while celebrity effectiveness has a lesser impact on the manner in which the advert is perceived, the effects of perception of the advert on attitude remain the same. This demonstrates a reduced ability of celebrity endorsement in influencing the manner in which stimulus, in relation to the advert, is observed and shows that the adverse effects of the observation of sexuality in the context will have a consequential effect on attitudes towards the advert in much the same manner as a nonsexual advert.

In contrast to the reduced impact of celebrity effectiveness on the manner in which the advert is perceived, celebrity effectiveness has an increased impact on the perception of brand when sexuality is utilised in the advert context. This could be explained due to the increased impact of match-up on celebrity effectiveness, which, although influential in shaping perceptions and attitudes towards the advert, impacts on celebrity–brand congruence (Till and Busler, 2000; Törn, 2012; Schimmelpfennig and Hunt, 2020). Furthermore, while the impact of attitude towards the advert on purchase intentions remains consistent, attitudes towards the brand has a lesser effect on consumer intentions to purchase the endorsed product and brand. This shows that consumers within the Pakistani culture are less inclined to purchase a product based on their attitudes towards the brand if the advert used is of a sexual nature.

These findings illustrate that the inclusion of sexuality in advertising leads to significant changes in how celebrity endorsement impacts on consumer perceptions, attitudes and ultimately purchase intentions in the Pakistani market. This is explained by the discouragement of sexuality within the overall Pakistani culture in general and further by the values of modesty and Izzat within the culture which stress sexuality as being inappropriate. The adverse response to sexuality in the celebrity-endorsed advert is in accordance with literature on culture which states that advertising which contradicts cultural values and beliefs will elicit unfavourable outcomes (Solomon et al., 2010; De Mooij, 2019). These findings support that dominant overarching cultural and religious beliefs within the county are retained. Furthermore, the findings also support that the response to celebrity-endorsed advertising is directly impacted by the stimulus within the advert and the manner in which it is perceived by consumers within different cultures. As the cultural and religious values in Pakistan have led to Pakistani consumers being conditioned to perceive sexuality as controversial and inappropriate, the overall response to Study 2 was adversely impacted, and intention to engage in behaviour relating to purchasing was reduced. These findings are in accordance with the literature on stimulus response theory (Chang, Eckman and Yan, 2011; Buxbaum, 2016) which proposes that the response of an individual is resultant on the exposure to stimulus and the manner in which it is interpreted.

When taken collectively, the multi-group comparisons show that it is possible for celebrities to have cross-cultural appeal. A western celebrity can be successfully used in the Pakistani market and be viewed as attractive within the culture. This showcases that the notion, ideals and standards of beauty within Pakistan are impacted by western ideals of beauty. However, findings demonstrate that, while celebrities may be transferable across cultures, not all celebrity-endorsed adverts are transferable across western and eastern cultures. The manner in which stimuli are perceived and interpreted in Pakistan is through a cultural lens. When an advert does not conflict with salient values and beliefs within the Pakistani culture, an advert can elicit responses from Pakistani consumers which are similar to those of British consumers. However, the comparisons show that when advertising does conflict with cultural values and beliefs it leads to significant variances. In direct contrast to consumers from England, consumers residing within the Pakistani cultural market are stimulated by sexuality in a negative manner. This finding is in agreement with literature that states Asian cultures demonstrate a reduced acceptability of sexuality in advertising (Sawag, 2010). It is also in accordance with theoretical findings that the explicit use of sexuality in the advertising context, which relates to a low-context communication style, is not likely to be suitable within Asian cultural markets (Hall, 1983; Anabila, Tagoe and Asare, 2015; Um and Lee, 2015; De Mooij, 2019). The disparity between the results of the multi-group comparisons demonstrates and supports literature stating that generalisations regarding advertising within different cultures should be avoided and specific research is needed into the manner in which culture, values and norms may converge or diverge (DeMooij, 2019).

5.3 Impact of religious involvement

Findings show that although the inclusion of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts does not cause significant changes within the British market, it does lead to significant variances on consumers residing in the Pakistani market. As reviewed, Pakistan incorporates Islamic religion into the forefront of the country's identity. However, the manner in which Pakistani consumers display and manifest their religion can differ. To provide further insight into these differences, multi-group comparisons are used to further understanding of Pakistani consumers and the manner in which the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices affect the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions within the Islamic nation. Furthermore, operationalising the scale used to measure the level of involvement with Islamic religious is practical ability in assessing the behavioural component of religiosity. Overall findings show that the negative effect of sexuality on Pakistani consumers is further escalated by religious involvement.

5.3.1 Nonsexual celebrity-endorsed advertising

The findings of analysis for Study 1 show that a celebrity-endorsed advert that does not overtly display sexuality or an otherwise controversial element, elicits a largely comparable response from all Pakistani consumers, and the variances between paths in the developed model are minimal. The main variances occur in how celebrity effectiveness is impacted. Although the physical attractiveness and likeability of the celebrity is important to all consumers, high-involvement consumers deem the attractiveness of the celebrity as less influential in determining overall celebrity effectiveness and match-up as more impactful on effectiveness of the endorser in comparison to low-involvement consumer groups. Additionally, although the impact of celebrity attractiveness on perception of the advert is consistent between low- and

high-involvement consumers, the latter show an increased impact on celebrity effectiveness on the endorsed brand. Similarly as before, this can be explained due to consumers placing a higher importance on the level of celebrity-brand congruence (Till and Busler, 2000). Findings show that the level of religious involvement does not cause any change in the manner in which perception of the advert and perception of the brand affects subsequent attitudes towards each respectively. Furthermore, it also does not lead to any changes in how purchase intention is influenced by attitude towards the advert and brand. These minimal differences in findings are explained and expected; both consumer groups are from the same cultural market and furthermore, the advert does not include explicit sexuality or any other stimuli which consumers may deem to be controversial or explicitly inappropriate. The overall response of Pakistani consumers, regardless of their level of religious involvement, was positive and the celebrity was perceived as attractive and having a high level of match-up to the endorsed brand. This further demonstrates the cross-cultural transferability of western celebrities in the overall Pakistani market and illustrates they can be successfully used to endorse fashion and beauty products in Pakistan.

5.3.2 Celebrity-endorsed advertising containing explicit sexuality

Overall, Pakistani consumers in general, regardless of their level of involvement with Islamic religious practices, are adversely stimulated by the inclusion of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts. However, findings from the results of multi-group analysis for Study 2 show that the level of involvement with religion exacerbates this effect. Consistent with Study 1, high-involvement Pakistani consumers deem attractiveness of the celebrity as less influential, and the level of match-up of the celebrity endorser in comparison to low-involvement consumers. This showcases that source attractiveness has a reduced impact if involvement with religion is higher. High religious involvement also leads to the impact of celebrity effectiveness on perception of the brand remains the same across both groups. This shows that although, comparatively, the low-involvement group view the physical attractiveness and likability of the celebrity

as more important than the high-involvement group, this does not translate onto the manner in which the advert is perceived.

Interesting, while the impact of perception towards the advert and brand on respective attitudes is still significant across both groups, the manner in the advert and brand is perceived has less of an impact on the overall attitude formed towards the former and the latter for Pakistani consumers who have a lower level of involvement with Islamic religious practices in comparison to high-involvement Pakistani consumers. The attitude towards the advert is adversely affected across all Pakistani consumers and the effect of attitude towards the brand on purchase intention is consistent for low-mid religious involvement and high religious involvement groups, thus leading to an overall reduction on purchase intention.

The impact of attitude towards the brand on purchase intention is significantly altered by the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices. Multi-group analysis results show that the attitude of low-level involvement Pakistani consumers towards the brand will affect their intention to purchase the product. However, high religious involvement Pakistani consumers will largely base their purchase intention for an endorsed product on the attitude that is formed towards the advert. Their attitude towards the brand will have reduced influence on purchase intention when the celebrity-endorsed advertising includes explicit sexuality in the content. This illustrates that the adverse effects of sexuality are intensified by increased religious involvement, and that consumer evaluation of the brand has a significantly reduced effect on the intention to purchase a celebrity-endorsed brand. It also demonstrates that while Pakistani consumers who do not actively engage with Islamic religious practices have a negative response to the inclusion of sexuality in advertising, they are still more inclined to intend to purchase the endorsed brand, in comparison to the highinvolvement consumers – even if the advert includes sexuality. This is explained by the reduced impact that the negative perception of the brand, which was offset by the inclusion of sexuality in the advert, has on the overall attitude towards the brand from low-involvement consumers. This lower impact of perception on attitude towards the brand in combination with the still significant effect of attitude towards the brand on

purchase intention means that in contrast to high-involvement consumers (who have low purchase intentions), Pakistani consumers classified as having low religious involvement have a neutral purchase intention.

5.4 Overall discussion

From findings of the results of the study, it is identified that Pakistani respondents demonstrate a distinction between the sexuality associated with a celebrity endorser and sexuality in advertising. The majority of Pakistani respondents correctly identified or were familiar with the celebrity, Kendall Jenner, featured in the survey. In addition, during celebrity selection, Kendall Jenner emerged as the most-suited celebrity in the Pakistani market. However, the celebrity has cultivated an image and association which includes sexuality, and often displays sexuality in an explicit manner in fashion, clothing and style. Furthermore, fashion and beauty brands previously endorsed by the celebrity have incorporated sexuality into advert design (Baxter-Wright, 2020). However, in Study 1, Pakistani respondents – regardless of their level of religious involvement – had an overall favourable response to the celebrity, viewing her to be attractive, likeable and a good fit with the endorsed brand. This indicates that Pakistani consumers as a whole are accepting of the fact that western celebrities can often display or showcase sexuality in an explicit manner, and do not filter and evaluate a foreign celebrity's lifestyle and behaviour through their own cultural and religious values. Overall, this demonstrates that Pakistani consumers are accepting of sexuality in the lifestyle or behaviour of a western celebrity. This also highlights that research showcasing the importance of a high level of congruence between consumer 'self' and the celebrity endorser (Choi and Rifon, 2012) may not be applicable to Pakistani consumers.

Findings demonstrate that Pakistani consumers, regardless of their religious involvement, have an adverse response to the inclusion of explicit sexuality in advertising. This shows that while sexuality in the image associations of a celebrity are acceptable to Pakistani consumers, they are not accepting of brands using explicit sexuality in the advertising context and context to promote their products within the

Pakistani market. This validates the notion that Pakistani consumers expect advertising to respect and not contradict their cultural and religious values and beliefs, and is in accordance with literature stating that consideration of cultural values is essential for effective marketing (Raval and Subramanian, 2004; Akhter, Sattar and Umar, 2011; Anabila, Tagoe and Asare, 2015; Berry, 2015). Interestingly, this indicates that within the Pakistani market, consumers demonstrate a more selective transference of the meanings and associations of a celebrity endorser onto the advertisement and brand. For successful endorsement of fashion and beauty products in Pakistan, the necessity of cultural and overall image associations of the celebrity being at the forefront of successful endorsement as stipulated by the meaning transfer model (Mcracken, 1989; Roy and Jain, 2017; Roy, 2018) becomes less influential in comparison to the attractiveness and match-up of the celebrity.

The findings show that while religious involvement has minimal impact on the manner in which Pakistani consumers respond to nonsexual celebrity-endorsed adverts, it does account for significant changes when sexuality is used in the advertising context. Sexuality is discouraged in both Pakistani culture and within the Islamic religion. Importantly, it is noted that all respondents in the Pakistani market identify as Muslims, and therefore religious affiliation is universal across the entirety of the sample. This is in accordance with findings that suggest Muslim consumers in general are of the opinion that sex appeal is overused and show an adverse response to its inclusion in advertising (Bayraktar, 2012; Ismail and Melewar, 2014; Jan and Abdullah, 2015). However, findings support that although all Pakistani Muslim consumers are adversely impacted by the use of sexuality in the advert, high religious involvement intensifies this adverse response. These findings demonstrate that the manner in which religious affiliation and engagement with religious practices manifest within consumers residing in the same country can cause significant variances in response to sexuality.

The results illustrate that the behavioural component of religiosity is a valuable moderating variable in understanding Pakistani consumers to identify the effects of religiosity in comparison to the other dimensions. This is supported by studies stating that there can be disconnect between religious identity and practice (Tabatabai, 1977; Schwartz and Huismans, 1995; Ramasamy, Yeung and Au, 2010; Curtis and Olson, 2019). It also supports findings that it is not solely culture, but religion which can alter perception and impact consumer judgement (Mortimer and Prideaux, 2018; Hommel and Colzato, 2019). However, this study demonstrates that within the Pakistani market, rather than religious belief, it is the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices that account for differences in consumer responses to the inclusion of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts. Furthermore, this research finds how culture and religion, within a country that was formed with a religious identity, interact – an element which has been scarcely researched. Based on the multi-group comparisons, it is identified that although globalisation and the widespread use of western media does have an impact on Pakistani consumers, this impact remains limited. Pakistani consumers largely retain their cultural values and display an adverse response to sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts. This effect is exacerbated by the consumer's level of religious involvement with Pakistani consumers.

Overall, the findings further showcase that consumers will perceive the celebrity, content and context of the advert design, i.e. the stimuli, through their cultural and religious values and beliefs. This will elicit either a negative or positive response depending on their interpretation of the stimuli response thus further supporting findings of the stimulus response theory (Chang, Eckman and Yan, 2011; Buxbaum, 2016). It is therefore essential to ensure cultural values and beliefs within a country and understand.

5.5 Chapter concluding remarks

This chapter discussed the findings from the data. The results of this study find and demonstrate that the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions are best predicted by the consideration of the mediating effects of perception and attitude towards both the advert and brand. This illustrates that, aside from the need to consider both the advert and the brand, the practice of celebrity

endorsement can be effectively understood when consolidated with models within consumer behaviour.

Findings show that cross-cultural differences do exist between British and Pakistani consumers and that the use of sexuality in advertising leads to an adverse response in the Pakistani market. These effects are exacerbated by Pakistani consumers' level of involvement with Islamic religious practices. These results supporting their findings were evaluated and discussed. After a summarisation of the research aim and objectives, the resultant implications and contributions stemming from the study, and a review of the limitation, the following chapter will conclude this thesis.

Chapter 6 Conclusion and Implications

6. Chapter overview

This chapter concludes the thesis by outlining how the research aim has been addressed and achieved. Each of the three objectives set for this research are revisited and evaluated and key resultant findings are highlighted and synthesised. This is followed by outlining the implications and contributions made by this study. The limitations of this research are then considered and suggestions are made for areas of future research. The chapter closes by providing brief overall remarks.

6.1 Evaluation and synthetisation of research aim and objectives

The focus of this research was to investigate the findings from the literature on celebrity endorsement and combine it with theories and models within consumer behaviour to identify the link between perceptions, attitudes and consumer behavioural intentions. The resultant aim was to identify the manner in which celebrity endorsement impacts consumer purchase intentions towards the endorsed product and brand and thus enable the development of a model which could be used to conceptualise the effect. It was desired to conduct a comparative study in the markets of England and Pakistan to test the cross-cultural validity of the developed model and identify differences and similarities between the two consumer groups with regard to different advertising contexts. In particular it was of interest to determine how the inclusion of sexuality – a frequently used strategy within celebrity endorsement and marketing communications in general - impacts on consumers residing within the western and eastern cultural markets of England and Pakistan. To further understanding of Pakistani consumers, an under-represented group within academic literature, it was aimed to investigate whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices within the predominantly Muslim nation leads to differences between consumers. This overall aim of the study was achieved by investigation into the three set objectives for this research.

The first objective served the purpose of conceptualising and developing a model for testing which could be used to predict the impact of celebrity endorsement on purchase intentions. Primarily, a review of the relevant literature allowed for theoretical reasoning to guide the development of the conceptual model.

Literature on celebrity endorsement revealed that a physically attractive and likeable celebrity who was viewed as being relevant and related to the fashion and beauty industry, i.e. one with a high level of match-up, would be most effective and suitable. Findings illustrated that the expertise and trustworthiness of the celebrity would be largely unimportant within the context of this study. However, these findings lacked cross-cultural validity. Literature on the capability of celebrities to influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions were found to be inconclusive and, at times, contradictory. The review also identified that, despite the endorsed advert being critical in effectively transferring the desired meaning from endorser to brand (McCracken, 1989; Roy and Jain, 2017; Roy, 2018), any mediating effects of advert design were not robustly considered by existing literature. Furthermore, past studies within advertising, although dated, stressed the importance of consideration of advert design (Gresham and Shimp, 1985; Mackenzie, Lutz and Belch, 1986). Stimulus response theory and the cognitive-affective approach to attitude allowed for a multifaceted insight into the reasoning behind aspects which can guide interpretation stimulus and impact on consumer evaluation and response. It also further showcased the importance of making a distinction between perceptions and attitudes.

Taking the aforementioned resultant findings from the literature review in conjunction, it was concluded that, rather than celebrity endorsement impacting on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions directly, it would be more beneficial and appropriate to consider the relationship as being mediated by the endorsed advert and brand. It was, therefore, conceptualised that the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated through two distinct paths: a) perception of the advert and attitude towards the advert, and b) perception of the brand and attitude towards the advert, and b) perception of the brand and attitude towards the brand. Each construct within the model was measured as a latent factor using multi-item scales. To enhance robustness in the measurement process, established

scales within the literature were adopted and adapted for use in the study. In addition to attractiveness and match-up, a decision was made to include the constructs of expertise and trustworthiness to conceptualise celebrity effectiveness due to an identified lack of cross-cultural research. It was deduced that these constructs could be dropped in the preliminary stages of the analysis if they indeed did not prove relevant in the structural model. However, including all variables would act as a contingency method in case cross-cultural differences in the preference and suitability of celebrity attributes did manifest. As a further objective of this research was to investigate crosscultural influences on the model and also to identify the impact of sexuality in the context, the research design was thus formulated to include two studies designed by the researcher. One study featured a culturally neutral advert design which did not include explicit sexuality in the content and the other, which did include explicit sexuality in the advert design.

Using structural equation modelling, the developed conceptual model was validated across the two advert designs in Study 1 and Study 2. Findings showed that source expertise and trustworthiness did not determine celebrity effectiveness in the structural model within the context of this study. This validation of the model across both Study 1 and Study 2 supported that the model is applicable across diverse advertising contexts. Furthermore, multi-group structural modelling while controlling for country of residence across Study 1 and Study 2, also showcased validation; fit indices supported the developed model, all conceptualised paths within the developed model were significant illustrating a cause-and-effect relationship between the identified constructs and mediation effects of both the advert and brand were significant in predicting the impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention. These findings were further supplemented by the qualitative data analysis.

The first objective of this study was thus addressed and a validated conceptual model that can be used to predict the impact of celebrity effectiveness to consumer purchase intentions across the western an eastern markets of England and Pakistan under diverse conditions is presented. This is important as it synthesises the available theory within the field of celebrity endorsement and consumer behaviour and, utilising

theoretical foundations, helps extend understanding in the field. It also enhances robustness into the different factors which need consideration when utilising celebrity endorsement.

Resultant findings from the first objective validated the conceptual model across the different groups. Multi-group analysis was used to conduct comparisons and enable investigation into identifying the cross-cultural impact on the model for prediction of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions as per objective 2, and further analyse how the inclusion of sexuality impacted on consumers in western and eastern markets.

As existing available research has been tested and validated within western countries and this research desired to enhance understanding of an under-represented market, during the literature review for the study, a review into the cultural and religious values within Pakistan was conducted. This enabled an understanding of the country and provided comprehension as to the possible response of Pakistani consumers to celebrity-endorsed advertising and to the use of sexuality within the advert design.

Comparison between Study 1 and Study 2 for the British sample group showed that the consumers were not stimulated by the inclusion of sexuality in advertising and showcased very similar responses to both sexual and nonsexual advertising. In direct contrast, Pakistani respondents were found to be adversely stimulated by the inclusion of sexuality within advertising. Data analysis and multi-group comparisons between the British and Pakistani consumer groups found that there exist similarities within groups of consumers from the two countries when celebrity endorsements do not include explicit sexuality in the advert design. However, when celebrity endorsement does include explicit sexuality, there exist multiple significant differences between the two markets. The multi-group comparisons illustrate that Pakistani consumers retain their dominant cultural values which influence their perception and preference of advertising context, illustrating the necessity of cross-cultural research and understanding.

Marketers and practitioners need to be mindful of the advertisements they are utilising across cultures and need to ensure their advertising content is appropriate.

This is not just needed for ensuring the success of celebrity endorsement, but also for intangible purposes. Consumers' beliefs and values need to be respected to ensure sensitivity is maintained in advertising and brands and companies are not causing offence within the country they are operating in by not adhering to cultural norms.

The final objective, objective 3, was developed to further understanding of consumers residing in the Pakistani market, to enrich the analysis. Due to the history of Pakistan, the country maintains and operates with an Islamic religious identity. This provided rationale to investigate whether religiosity could account for differences between Pakistani consumers. A review into relevant literature revealed that the vast majority of studies used religious affiliation or religious beliefs to investigate how religion can impact on consumers. However, due to the overwhelming majority of consumers within Pakistan identifying as Muslims, affiliation and religious association was not deemed a suitable dimension which could be used to conduct comparisons. Furthermore, within the Islamic religion, belief can often be associated with affiliation, which can make it difficult to separate the two dimensions.

To overcome the identified limitations and complications, the behavioural dimension of religiosity was deemed most appropriate to conduct the multi-group comparisons and obtain insight into the impact of religiosity on Pakistani consumers and their response to celebrity branding. However, available measures to investigate this dimension remain limited and tend to measure intended or perceived level of involvement as opposed to actual involvement with religion. To overcome this constraint and adequately investigate the objective, this study utilised the review of Islamic religion in combination with existing scales within measuring religiosity in different faiths to create scales which could be utilised to measure the actual level of involvement with Islamic religious practices. The multi-item scale was validated and further improved by using quantitative methods and conducting group interviews with Islamic religious leaders and Pakistani academic scholars. This scale was then operationalised to enable religious involvement to be used as a moderating variable used to conduct multi-group analysis. Results show that Pakistani consumers are not entirely homogeneous. Their level of involvement with Islamic religious practices does lead to differences in how consumers react to the inclusion of sexuality in celebrityendorsed adverts. Explicit sexuality is discouraged in Pakistani culture and further discouraged within the Islamic religion. Findings showed that consumers who displayed high levels of involvement with Islamic religious practices demonstrated an increased level of aversion to the inclusion of sexuality in advertising. Resultant findings from this objective are particularly important as they illustrate that the behavioural aspect of religiosity is an appropriate dimension to consider while conducting comparisons with consumers from a predominantly religious country and also in conducting comparisons between Muslim consumers in general. The findings also demonstrate the need for understanding consumers from a cultural and religious perspective.

Collectively, these objectives allowed for the aim of this research to be realised. The effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention are found to be mediated through perception and attitude towards the advert and through perception and attitude towards the brand. This conceptualisation can be applied across cultures. Celebrities can have cross-cultural appeal and, although there exists a level of convergence between western and eastern consumers in the markets of England and Pakistan, cultural and Islamic religious values and beliefs account for significant differences within the two markets – especially in the response that explicit sexuality within advertising elicits. It is therefore concluded that adverts across the two markets should be adapted. If practitioners wish to standardise celebrity-endorsed advertising across the two cultures, adverts should be designed to be neutral, i.e. not include any aspects which could be deemed inappropriate or controversial, across the cultures.

6.2 Implications

6.2.1 Theoretical implications

This research stipulates theoretical implications across the topics of celebrity endorsement, culture and religiosity. This empirical study addresses limitations within the field of celebrity endorsement and branding and furthers understanding into the topic by conceptualising the manner in which the practice impacts on consumer purchase intentions, and by conducting the research from a cross-cultural perspective.

Findings from invariance testing illustrate that the models of celebrity effectiveness; the source models and the match-up hypothesis are conceptualised in the same manner across the western and eastern cultures of England and Pakistan and therefore can be used in cross-cultural studies. It is also found that in the context of fashion marketing, the source attractiveness model and the match-up hypothesis are of most relevance and the attractiveness of the source (i.e. the celebrity) is determined by perceived physical attractiveness and perceived likeability across the two cultures. This validation and assessment of the models across cultures has not been previously determined (Choi, Lee and Kim, 2005; Hung, Chan and Tse, 2011; Roy and Mishra, 2018).

This research finds that to effectively conceptualise the impact of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions towards the endorsed brand across cultures, three distinct factors need to be considered. First, celebrity endorsement does not lead to purchase intention in a direct manner; rather, it affects consumer perceptions, which in turn impact consumer attitude. It is this attitude that subsequently leads to purchase intention towards the celebrity-endorsed product. This supports that the prediction of purchase intention for a celebrity-endorsed product is best explained through the utilising of principles from cognitive-affective theory, which illustrates that the consideration of affective attitude is a necessity for determining behavioural intentions (Hsu et al., 2006; Arvola et al., 2008; Cheng and Huang, 2013; Zhou, Dovidio and Wang, 2013). Second, it illustrates that although perceptions impact on attitude, it is essential to make a distinction between the two. Observations should not automatically be deemed as eliciting a favourable or unfavourable response, especially where diverse markets, cultures and consumer groups are concerned, as individuals can interpret the same stimuli, observations and associations in different manners. Third, this study demonstrates the necessity of consideration of the mediating effects of perception and attitude of not solely the brand but also the advert in predicting the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumer purchase intentions.

Perceptions and attitudes towards the advert are not synonymous with the perceptions and attitudes of the celebrity endorser and the endorsed brand, but rather are distinct concepts which need to be factored in. Although existing studies have previously analysed celebrity endorsement from various perspectives, including but not limited to branding, associative learning and value investing (Seno and Lukas, 2007; Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011; Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016), to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no studies have considered all three aforementioned aspects into a conceptualisation of the effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention. The development of a conceptual model and consideration of factors which could elicit mediating effects also help address two areas for future research which have been highlighted in endorsement literature (Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016).

This research validates the conceptualisation of celebrity endorsement on purchase intention through the mediating effects of perception and attitudes towards the advert and brand by replicating the findings across two countries, one with a western culture and the other with an eastern culture, and under the existence of two diverse conditions: nonsexual and sexual celebrity-endorsed adverts. This enhances legitimacy of the developed conceptual model and provides robustness for the proposed theoretical implications. The validation of the model also provides an explanation for inconsistencies and at times fragmented results within existing research regarding the effects of celebrity endorsement on consumer attitudes and purchase intention. It consolidates findings within the field and illustrates the usefulness and importance of incorporating consumer models to further understanding of how celebrity endorsement impacts on aspects of consumer behaviour.

Although globalisation has led to some similarities across countries, cultural values and religious beliefs are still retained within the South Asian culture of Pakistan. These guide consumer behaviour and account for significant differences between consumer groups. This study adds to the understanding of the Pakistani cultural market and furthers the available knowledge of how culture and religion can impact on consumers. Importantly, this provides research into celebrity endorsement from a cross-cultural perspective in an area which is under-researched within the field (Choi, Lee and Kim,

2005) and demonstrates the existence of cross-cultural differences between markets. It also demonstrates the need for further academic research into under-represented cultures due to the finding that inherent differences can exist within those markets in comparison to western countries.

The development and operational use of a scale to measure actual level of involvement with Islamic religious practices, posits methodological implications by demonstrating the suitability of using the behavioural component of religiosity to understand differences between consumers. This need for using the behavioural dimension of religiosity, rather than affiliation or belief, is particularly necessary within countries like Pakistan, where one dominant religion exists. All Pakistani respondents in the study identified as Muslims and therefore, affiliation with the Islamic religion was universal. As previously discussed, belief in the core values and teaching of Islam are largely viewed as essential for all individuals affiliated with the religion, and therefore the belief component of religiosity is largely present across all consumers who identify as Muslims (Tabatabai, 1977; Armstrong, 2001; Khraim, 2010). This research finds that in the Islamic nation of Pakistan the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices can account for differences between consumers residing within the same culture. The negative effects of sexuality within the country are exacerbated by the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices. Importantly, the inclusion of sexuality drastically reduces purchase intention towards the endorsed product due to the cognitive effects on attitude. This furthers understanding of measuring religiosity within Islamic nations. The scale utilised also stresses the practicality of using macro aspects of the Islamic religion to overcome differences in sectarian practices within the Islamic religion. This research in relation to culture and religion also furthers understanding within the field of anthropology and religious studies.

6.2.2 Practical implications

The findings from this research have implications for practitioners and marketers for national and multinational and brands and companies operating within the markets of

England, Pakistan, across the two countries or generally across different cultural markets. In addition to implications for utilising celebrity endorsement as a communications technique, the results also have implications for the design of the content and context of adverts across different markets.

Celebrity endorsement can be successfully employed across different cultures. When selecting a celebrity to endorse fashion and beauty products, practitioners should prioritise the physical attractiveness and likeability of the celebrity over trustworthiness and expertise, as it will directly impact the overall effectiveness of the celebrity endorser. It is also essential to ensure that there exists a high level of match-up between the celebrity and the product category being endorsed. Due to the match-up having a greater impact on Pakistani consumers, the celebrity-product congruence should be prioritised within the market. The use of an effective celebrity is not sufficient to directly predict purchase intentions, and consideration needs to be placed on both the advert design and the endorsed brand. The manner in which consumers observe and interpret the advert and brand will consequently influence their attitudes. If these attitudes are favourable it will eventually lead to consumers intending to purchase the celebrity-endorsed brand.

A western celebrity can have cross-cultural appeal and can be successfully transferable across western and eastern cultures. This finding is of particular importance, as utilising established and successful celebrities as endorsers can be a significant investment for firms as witnessed by real-life examples (Suddath, 2017). Cross-cultural transferability of a celebrity means that marketers need not choose local celebrities in each market. However, while celebrities can have cross-cultural transferability, it should be noted that advertising content is not necessarily transferable across cultures. An important implication for markets to consider is the difference between the manner in which sexuality in advertising is evaluated and interpreted by British and Pakistani consumers.

In the British market, practitioners can utilise both nonsexual celebrity-endorsed adverts and also adverts which contain explicit sexuality with success. Priority should

be given to ensuring that the design of the celebrity-endorsed advert is in line with the overall marketing strategy. In direct contrast, in the Pakistani market, sexuality does stimulate consumer response to celebrity endorsement and elicits an adverse reaction. Pakistani consumers still retain the prevalent values within their country and this influences the manner in which sexuality within advertising is perceived and therefore marketers need to consider the salient values within the Pakistani culture and understand the subsequent impact on consumers. Furthermore, the identified difference between Pakistani consumers on the basis of religious involvement imply that Pakistani consumers' response to sexuality, although largely adverse, is not entirely homogeneous in the way it affects the overall manner in which celebrity endorsement impacts consumer purchase intentions. However, it should be noted that due to evidence of Pakistan being a largely collectivist culture, and the prevalent value of family and relationships within it, consumers might alter purchase intention to enhance conformity with their social and reference groups. This highlights the importance of ensuring advertising is perceived positively across the different consumer groups within Pakistan. Furthermore, the finding of sexuality eliciting an adverse response in the Pakistani market has particular implications for marketers. Currently, the use of sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts is prevalent and these adverts are being used across cultures and within the Pakistani market. The findings of this study evidence that these celebrity-endorsed adverts do not elicit positive effects on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions as is likely to be the intention of marketers. Practitioners are therefore strongly discouraged from using explicit sexuality within the Pakistani market as it will not only elicit an adverse response but the sexual content of the advert is likely to outweigh the benefits of using celebrity endorsement.

Depending on the marketing and communications strategy, it is possible for marketers to adopt either a standardised or adapted approach to advertising across the markets of England and Pakistan. Marketers can largely standardise celebrity-endorsed adverts across the markets if the advert is designed to be neutral and not include or isolate any aspects which would be conflicting with dominant cultural values and beliefs. In this

event, the differences between the two markets are minimised and the same advert can possibly appeal to both British and Pakistani consumer groups. However, to ensure the advert has cross-cultural appeal, this understanding of the cultures remains essential. In the event that an advert is specially designed to appeal to the western market in particular, or includes explicit sexuality, the celebrity-endorsed advert should not be standardised across western and eastern markets of England and Pakistan, and the advert should be adapted and designed in accordance with the cultural values in Pakistan.

The overall findings of this study also have wider implications for marketers in relation to cross-cultural advertising. Despite the similarities that globalisation can lead to (Raval and Subramanian, 2004; Sam and Berry, 2010; De Burgh-Woodman, 2014), it should not be presumed that homogeneous consumers exist and that all types of advertising will lead to similar responses. This research finds that consumers do filter advertising through a cultural lens and that consumers can differ in their response to advertising, furthermore, these responses can even differ within one country. This highlights the necessity for marketers to be conscious of the overarching cultural and religious beliefs within the country they wish to operate in, and understand the manner in which those aspects will interact with consumer perceptions and thus attitudes and purchase intention. This research deems this as essential to making an informed decision, ensuring that communication techniques, such as celebrity endorsement, yield maximum benefits.

Table 19 provides a summarisation of the results of hypothesis testing along with the resultant key findings and implications stemming from the data analysis as they pertain to each objective for this study.

Table 19 Hypothesis testing results and summary of key findings and implications

| Objec | tive 1: Develop and test a conceptual model that predicts the impact of celebrity-endo | rsed advertising on consumer purchase intentions. | |
|-------|--|---|-----------------------------|
| | Hypothesis | | Status |
| H1a: | Celebrity effectiveness has a significant and positive impact on perception of advert | Supported | |
| H1b: | Celebrity effectiveness has a significant and positive impact on perception of brand | Supported | |
| H2a: | Perception of advert has a significant and positive impact on attitude towards adver | Supported | |
| H2b: | Perception of brand has a significant and positive impact on attitude towards brand | Supported | |
| H3a: | Attitude towards advert has a significant and positive impact on purchase intention | Supported | |
| H3b: | Attitude towards brand has a significant and positive impact on purchase intention | Supported | |
| H4a: | a: The impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated by perception of advert and attitude towards advert Suppo | | Supported |
| H4b: | The impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intention is mediated by percepti | on of brand and attitude towards brand | Supported |
| | Resultant key findings | Key implications | |
| | Source attractiveness and match-up hypothesis are relevant | Celebrity endorsement models have cross | -cultural validity |
| | determinants of celebrity effectiveness | • The impact of celebrity effectiveness on co | onsumer purchase |
| | Effectiveness of the celebrity endorser has a significant impact on | intentions is best understood by consolida | tion of endorsement and |
| | consumer perceptual cognition towards both the advert and the | consumer models. | |
| | endorsed brand | • To better predict consumer purchase inter | ntion, cognitive perception |
| | Affective attitude is impacted by cognitive perception | and affective attitude towards both the ad | vert design and the |
| | Affective attitude towards both the advert and brand influence | endorsed brand need to be considered. | |
| | consumer purchase intentions | • The model for prediction of celebrity effec | tiveness on purchase |
| | • The impact of celebrity effectiveness on purchase intentions is mediated | intentions has cross-cultural validity and validity | • |
| | through consumer perceptions and attitudes towards both the advert | of England and Pakistan | |
| | and the brand | - | |

Objective 2: By comparison of the developed model amongst British and Pakistani consumers, investigate whether paths within the model differ among the consumer groups when both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising is utilised.

| Hypothesis | |
|------------|--|
|------------|--|

| H5 | The model for the prediction of British of | consumers' purchase intention varies acros | ss the nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs |
|----|--|--|---|
| | | | |

- H6 The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 1
- H7 The model for the prediction of British consumers' purchase intention is different from Pakistani consumers in Study 2
- H8 The model for the prediction of Pakistani consumers' purchase intention varies across the nonsexual and explicitly sexual advert designs

Status

Not supported

Partially supported

Partially supported

Partially supported

| esultant key findings | Key implications |
|---|--|
| British consumers respond comparatively to both nonsexual and exp sexual content and are not positively or negatively stimulated by the inclusion of explicit sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertising. | |
| There are minimal differences in relationships between constructs w the conceptual model across British and Pakistani consumers when celebrity-endorsed advertising does not include explicit sexual content/stimuli. | international appeal Advertising can be standardised across the markets of England and Pakistan if nonsexual content/stimuli are used and advertising adheres to beliefs within the Pakistani market. |
| The inclusion of explicit sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertisin content leads to significant differences between British and Pakistani consumer response to advertising. | |
| Pakistani consumers are stimulated by the inclusion of explicit sexual celebrity-endorsed advertising which causes a negative change in the perceptions and affective attitude towards the advert and brand. | • |
| The inclusion of explicit sexuality in advertising leads to a reduction in purchase intentions of Pakistani consumers. | n the • The inclusion of explicit sexuality with adverts negatively offset the benefits of using celebrity endorsement. |

Objective 3: Identify whether the level of involvement with Islamic religious practices can account for differences between consumer response to both nonsexual and sexually explicit celebrity-endorsed advertising in the Pakistani market.

Hypothesis

- H9 The model for the prediction of purchase intention is different amongst Pakistani consumers according to religious involvement for Partially supported nonsexual advert design
- **H10** The model for the prediction of purchase intention is different amongst Pakistani consumers according to religious involvement for explicitly Partially supported sexual advert design.

Resultant key findings

- Celebrity-endorsed advertising that does not contain explicit sexuality elicits a largely comparable response from Pakistani Muslim consumers regardless of religious involvement.
- Celebrity attractiveness has a reduced impact on celebrity effectiveness for high involvement consumers regardless of advertising content
- High religious involvement consumers demonstrate an increased adverse response to the inclusion of explicit sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertising.
- Although explicit sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertising causes an overall reduction in attitude towards the advert and subsequent purchase intention of Muslim consumers - high religious involvement consumer are even less likely to purchase the endorsed product.

Key implications

• There are differences amongst individuals belonging to the same cultural market, and identifying with the same religious faith, on the basis of their level of engagement with religious practices.

Status

- The behavioural dimension of religiosity is a useful component to understand differences between Muslim consumers belonging to a predominately Muslim country.
- When using celebrity-endorsed advertising intended to appeal holistically to Pakistani Muslim consumers, practitioners should;
 - Place enhanced importance on advertising content over celebrity attractiveness to influence consumer response
 - Prioritise creating positive affective attitude towards the endorsed advert to increase consumer purchase intentions

6.3 Contributions

This section outlines the specific contributions made by this study. The theoretical, and practical contributions discussed below stem mainly from the overall findings and implications from the data analysis for this study. The subsequent contributions to social policy and advice to practitioners is also briefly presented.

6.3.1 Theoretical contributions

This research contributes to the literature within the field of celebrity endorsement in various ways; by combining findings from existing studies on celebrity endorsement with theoretical models within consumer behaviour, this research has provided a validated model which can be used to predict the effects of celebrity endorsement on purchase intentions, thus making a conceptual contribution. This adds to the body of literature and consolidates findings from various studies within the field which have investigated the effects of the practice on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. It also verifies the suitability of the cognitive-affective approach to analyse the impact of attitudes on behavioural. Within the field of celebrity endorsement in particular, the addition of a conceptual model helps, in part, to address the lack of available frameworks within the field. This research also contributes to the literature by conducting the research from a cross-cultural perspective and thus adding to an underresearched area in the field. Models of celebrity effectiveness - in particular, the source attractiveness model and the match-up hypothesis – are successfully utilised across the markets of England and Pakistan, thus helping establish their cross-cultural validity. The developed model is also validated and compared across two diverse cultures. By choosing the particular context of fashion marketing, this study also provides information on using celebrity endorsement within an industry that widely employs the communications technique and enriches literature on the topic. The chosen context also addresses the lack of studies available which connect the two research disciplines.

Research was carried out in the South Asian country of Pakistan, a significant, yet under-represented market within academic literature. This contributes by widening the literature on not just celebrity endorsement but also adds to the body of the literature on consumer behaviour across cultures from a novel perspective. The comparative nature of this study extends findings on cross-cultural research on two diverse consumer groups and helps present a comparative perspective which illustrates how an eastern county differs in relation to an established western market. In addition, this study contributes to the overall literature on advertising across diverse western and eastern cultures and on advertising in South Asian countries in general.

The research further contributes to the field of celebrity branding addressing the need for methodological innovation within the field of celebrity endorsement as identified by Bergkvist and Zhou (2016). The experiment design used within the study to conduct multi-group comparisons and investigate the impact of sexuality on consumer cognitive response provides a fresh perspective of investigation into how stimuli within celebrity-endorsed adverts interact with consumer response to the technique.

Lastly, this research contributes a new multi-item scale, pertaining to the Islamic faith in particular, which can be used to investigate the behavioural dimension of religiosity by measuring the level of consumer involvement with religious practices. The scale has been tested and validated in this study to determine and establish its theoretical and practical usefulness. As the scale determines consumer level of involvement with religious practices through items which measure engagement with universally accepted Islamic religious practices it can be used across Muslim consumers regardless of their cultural background or country of residence

6.3.2 Practical contributions

This research has contributed what is believed to be usable information for local, international and multinational companies and brands looking to use celebrity endorsement. In particular, it contributes practical knowledge on advertising in the markets of England and Pakistan and also more generally across diverse cultures. The findings of this research help provide guidance on the differences and similarities between western and eastern cultures and how consumer perceptions and attitudes towards advertising may differ in relation to Pakistani consumers' cultural and religious

beliefs. It also provides information on consumers within the Pakistani market which could be utilised when developing segmentation and targeting strategies. Information is contributed on the cross-cultural transferability of celebrities in combination with details on which attributes should be prioritised when selecting suitable celebrities to endorse products and brands within the fashion and beauty industry. Importantly, this research outlines the conditions under which standardised and adapted marketing communications strategies may be employed by companies to maximise their efforts when operating across diverse cultures. By the aforementioned contribution of practical usable information, this research helps address criticism of research within the field of celebrity endorsement which, according to Choi and Rifon; 2012; Pham, 2013; and Bergkvist and Zhou, 2016 is lacking in providing relevant data on practical matters such as celebrity selection and managing celebrity-endorsed campaigns.

From the resultant implications discussed previously which stem from the findings of this research, this study also posits social policy contributions. Currently, as reviewed, the use of explicit sexuality is heavily prevalent in celebrity-endorsed advertising within the fashion industry. This research finds that this inclusion of sexuality within advertising elicits a diverse response across cultures with Pakistani Muslim consumers demonstrating an adverse reaction to explicitly sexual stimuli. Due to globalisation and the prevalence of global media platforms (DeMooij, 2019), an advert designed for one particular country can be viewed across markets. It is therefore proposed that practitioners prioritise the use of cross-culturally accepted advertising content and maintain harmony between cultural and religious values and the content used within advertising when diverse consumer groups are targeted. In particular, practitioners are discouraged from using explicit sexuality within celebrity-endorsed advertising for cosmetics marketing to avoid causing offense to consumers and maintain cultural and religious sensitivity. As both nonsexual and explicitly sexual stimuli elicited a comparatively similar response from British consumers, adoption of this strategy ensures marketers better meet the needs of consumers living in a global environment while maximising advertising efforts across cultures.

6.4 Limitations and future research directions

While this study investigated the set research aims and objectives in a detailed manner and made what are believed to be valuable contributions, it contains some limitations. These are primarily related to the generalisability of the findings and to the conceptualisation of advert and brand perceptions. Firstly, this research is carried out with female consumers in particular. Although this allowed for more precise insight into a valuable consumer group, it also means the findings of this study are not necessarily applicable across genders. Therefore, further research is needed to establish and investigate whether the findings would differ if the research focused on male consumers.

Next, demographic information demonstrated that all respondents who took part in the quantitative research were under the age of 50, with the overwhelming majority being between the ages of 18 and 41. This held true for both of the sample groups. However, while conducting the research, a randomised approach was undertaken and age was not a factor used in deciding which respondents to approach for recruitment in the study. Two explanations could provide reasoning for reduced participation by older respondents which could have resulted in the skewed age group of the samples; first, it is possible that older respondents have varied family and social structures when compared to younger respondents which could impact the pool of participants present at the time of survey administration and second, it is possible that older respondents were less interested in the nature and focus of the study and thus less inclined to take part in the research. However, none of these reasons can be conclusively used to explain the limitation as they are speculative in nature. It is therefore worthwhile to investigate the reasoning behind this in future research to enhance understanding.

This study focused on celebrity endorsement in the context of fashion marketing and developed a model which was validated across cultures in relation to two different adverts. However, as celebrity endorser attributes are influenced by the product category being endorsed, it stands to reason that celebrity effectiveness could be contextually dependent (Till and Busler, 2000). Future research, therefore, could test

the developed model across diverse industries. In particular, it would be worthwhile to test if, aside from the attributes to form celebrity effectiveness, the mediating effects of perception and attitude towards both the advert and the brand in predicting the impact of the practice on purchase intentions remain consistent. Additionally, it is critical to reiterate that existing research evidences a gap between both attitude and behaviour as well as between intended and actual behaviour. As noted previously, this study does not investigate actual behaviour but the intention to engage in an action or behaviour. In this research, increased consumer purchase intention towards an endorsed product was taken to signify a positive response and viewed as a desired element of endorsement. Investigating the relationship between attitudes and purchase intention was imperative in enhancing comprehension of consumer response to celebrity-endorsed advertising and the inclusion of sexuality in the advert content. Furthermore, analysing the manner in which the relationships between variables in the conceptual model, including the relationship between attitude and intention, changed between the sample groups and advert designs provided critical insight into identifying the impact of culture and religiosity on the model. However, although the developed conceptual model is useful to predict the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions, due to the attitude-behaviour gap, it cannot conclusively be stated that consumer intent to purchase the endorsed product will ultimately translate into an actual purchase and is thus noted as a limitation. It is noted that although the aforementioned limitations limit the generalisability of the findings, it does not limit their validity.

This research chose to emulate the methodological approach of existing studies within celebrity endorsement and conduct the study in relation to a particular advert which, in this study, featured a beauty and cosmetics product. Although the developed model and findings of this research should be transferable and applicable across different attractiveness-related products, due to the vastness of the fashion industry, there is a possibility that if a different product category was used it would have yielded different results. Further studies could, therefore, apply the methodological approach to different product categories within the industry and see if findings are replicated.

However, it is important to mention that, while this approach of including a specific advert has limitations, it helps to minimise external variances which is one of the reasons why it is widely utilised (Spry, Pappu and Cronwell, 2011).

Measures within existing literature were utilised and adapted to conceptualise perception of the advert and brand. This was to instil validity and robustness in measuring the construct in relation to this study. However, due to the vast nature of possible stimuli and associations which can influence perception and thus observations, this research had to limit conceptualisation of the construct and chose the items deemed most suitable for the nature of this cross-cultural study and fashion marketing context. Additional research could consider the effects of other contextual variables which are deemed to be of interest. In particular, specific attributes of brand equity could be considered. This would also help the theoretical underpinning for the cause-and-effect relationship between constructs within the validated model to be further tested with distinct factors which could influence perception.

This research conducted comparisons between British and Pakistani consumers, and focused on identifying the manner in which consumer response changes with the inclusion of explicit sexuality in celebrity-endorsed adverts. This provides valuable insight into a frequently used advertising strategy from a cross-cultural perspective and illustrates the impact of culture, values and involvement with behavioural aspects of Islamic religion on Pakistani Muslim consumers. Future studies could investigate how other marketing strategies are impacted by culture and religion. Furthermore, researching the effects of negative publicity in the predominantly Muslim country of Pakistan could prove intriguing and reveal insightful findings.

Using the developed and adapted scale to measure religious involvement helped evaluate its overall usefulness and validity. Although the measure incorporates universal Islamic practices, its ability to robustly measure the behavioural dimension of religiosity across Muslim consumers who are residing in countries other than Pakistan cannot be conclusively assumed. Utilisation of the scale by future research with

Muslims residing in other countries will allow for its application across countries to be assessed.

A further avenue of interest which could be explored by future research is to investigate the effects of acculturation on consumers. Of particular interest would be to identify the manner in which British Pakistani consumers compare in relation to both British and Pakistani respondents. This would allow for precise insight into the effects of acculturation. Furthermore, analysing the effects of Islamic religious involvement for British Pakistani consumers would make for innovative findings on how acculturation impacts on behavioural religiosity and whether it affects consumer behaviour in a diverse manner across countries. This research would also be valuable due to the increasing level of multiculturalism across various countries.

6.5 Chapter concluding remarks

This research has tested and validated a conceptual model which can be utilised to predict the impact of celebrity effectiveness on consumer purchase intentions towards the endorsed product and brand within the context of fashion marketing. Application of the model to British and Pakistani consumer sample groups established crosscultural validity. Findings from analysis and multi-group comparisons demonstrate diversity between cultures and illustrate that success of celebrity-endorsed adverts can be culturally dependent. Results also illustrate that advertisement should be designed in accordance with dominant cultural and religious values and beliefs.

Overall, despite some limitations, this study makes a contribution to the field of celebrity endorsement. It also furthers understanding of the western and eastern markets of England and Pakistan, thus helping to provide fresh insights into the field of consumer behaviour across cultures.

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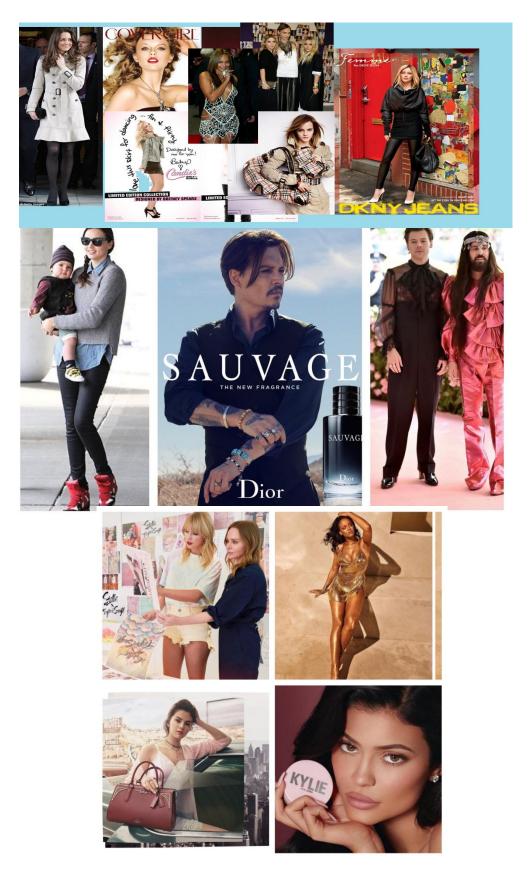
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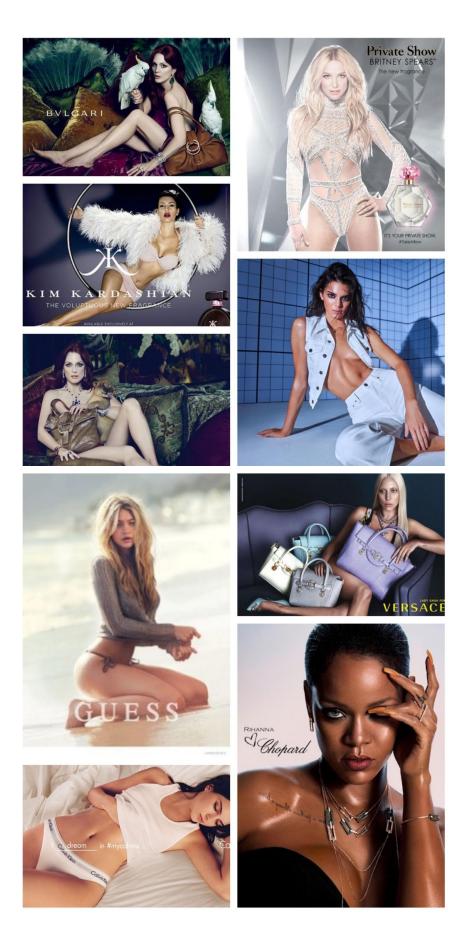
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Appendix 1 Celebrity endorsement in fashion marketing

Appendix 2 Sexuality in celebrity-endorsed in fashion marketing



Appendix 3 Traditional and modern Pakistani fashion and beauty

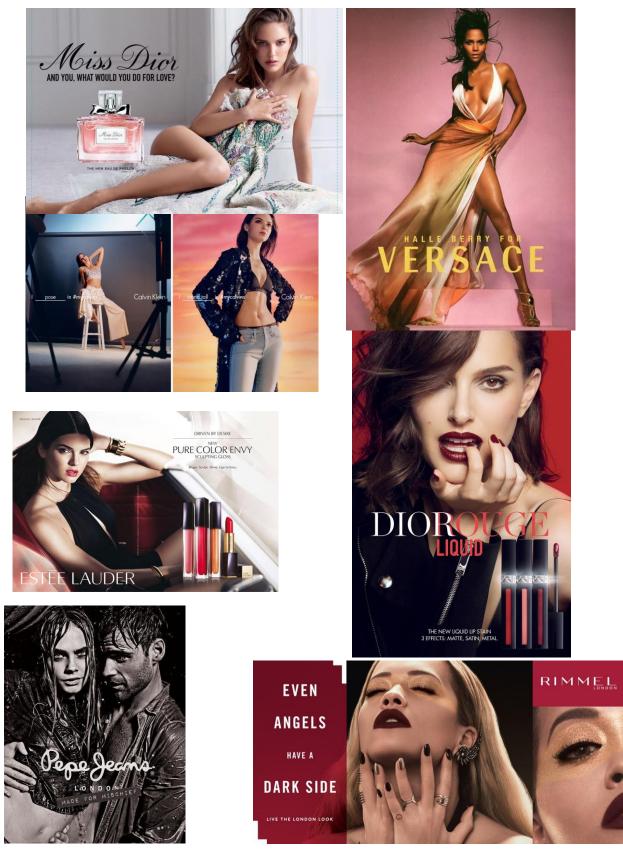


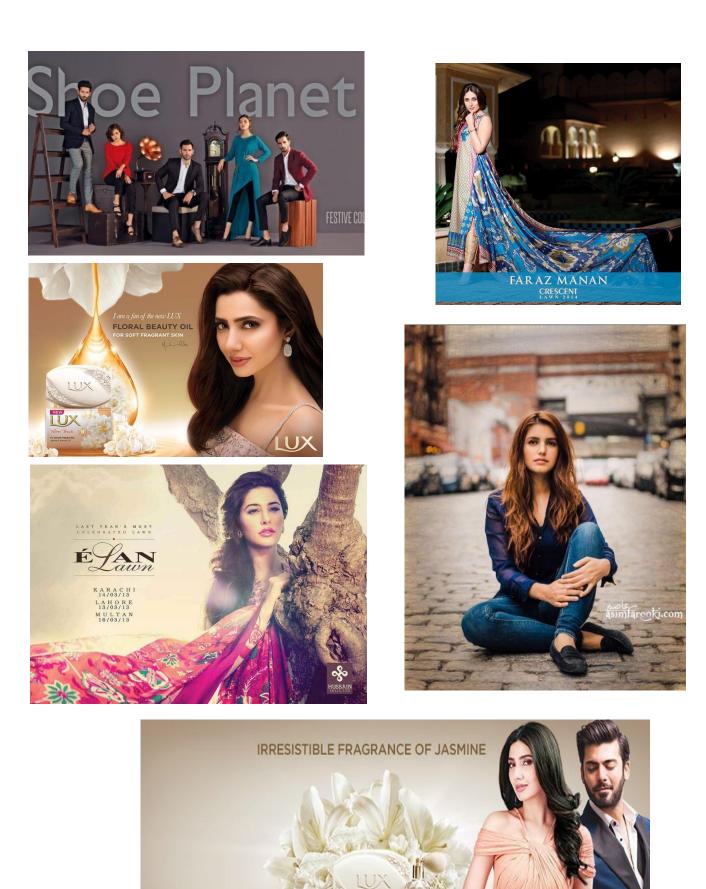




Appendix 4 Examples of local and foreign celebrity-endorsed







Appendix 5 Celebrity endorsement adverts used for design of







Appendix 6 Advert designs for Study 1 and Study 2



Advert design for Study 1



Advert design for Study 2

Appendix 7 Questionnaire used in main study

OPINIONS ON ADVERTISING

Hi, my name is Zahra Shah, and I am a Doctoral Researcher at the University of Sheffield. I am conducting research on how consumers from different countries and communities prefer the use of celebrity endorsement in advertising fashion and makeup products, and how this might influence their thoughts and opinions on the celebrity, the advert and the brand.

This survey consists of questions in relation to adverts which have been designed for the purpose of this study (they do not represent actual advertising by the brand or celebrity). Please note that one of the image features the celebrity wearing clothing which could be considered sexual.

I would be grateful if you could complete my survey. It should take approximately 10 minutes, or less, to fill.

Your participation is completely voluntary. The answers will remain anonymous so please answer them as honestly and openly as possible. You can withdraw at any time if you wish to do so. Answers provided will be used in my study and may be used for publications.

Thank you so much for your time and help!

I am freely willing to participate in this research and agree for the answers provided to be used as outlined.

PLEASE VIEW THIS ADVERT

Please answer the following questions in regards to this advert. You can refer back to it as often as you want.



| 2A. Please comment on the suitability of this endorsement? | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bad fit between celebrity and brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Good fit between celebrity and brand | | | | | | |
| Not Logical for celebrity to endorse 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 logical for celebrity to endorse | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Not appropriate for the celebrity to endorse1234567Appropriate for celebrity to endorse | | | | | | | | | | | |

3A. This CELEBRITY is:

| Not Beautiful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Beautiful |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| Not Talented | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Talented |
| Not Classy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Classy |
| Not Likable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Likable |
| Not Sexy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sexy |
| Not Trustworthy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Trustworthy |
| Not Appealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appealing |
| Not an Expert | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Expert |
| Not Skilled | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Skilled |
| Not Dependable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Dependable |
| Not Sincere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sincere |
| Not Reliable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Reliable |
| Not Qualified | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Qualified |

| | 4A. This ADVERT is: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Classy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Classy | | | | | |
| Does not Signify Beauty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Signifies Beauty | | | | | |
| Not Tasteful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Tasteful | | | | | |
| Does not capture my attention | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Captures my attention | | | | | |
| Not Appropriate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appropriate | | | | | |
| Not Sexy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sexy | | | | | |

| | Stron | ngly Di | sagree | Strongly Agree | | | | |
|--|-------|---------|--------|----------------|---|---|---|--|
| I feel positive about the advert | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| The advert is appealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| I have a favourable attitude towards the advert | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

Please indicate the extent you agree/disagree with the following statements regarding the BRAND after you have seen the advert:

| | 5A. This BRAND is: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-----|---|---|---|---|--------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Desirable | 1 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Desirable | | | | | | |
| Not High Quality | 1 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | High Quality | | | | | | |
| Not Classy | 1 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Classy | | | | | | |
| Not Fashionable | 1 2 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Fashionable | | | | | | |
| Not Tasteful | 1 2 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Tasteful | | | | | | |
| Not Reliable | 1 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Reliable | | | | | | |
| Not Sexy | 1 | 2 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sexy | | | | | | |

| | Stron | ıgly Di | sagree | Strongly Agree | | | | |
|---------------------------------|-------|---------|--------|----------------|---|---|---|--|
| I feel positive about the brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| The brand is appealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| I have a favourable attitude | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| towards the brand | | | | | | | | |

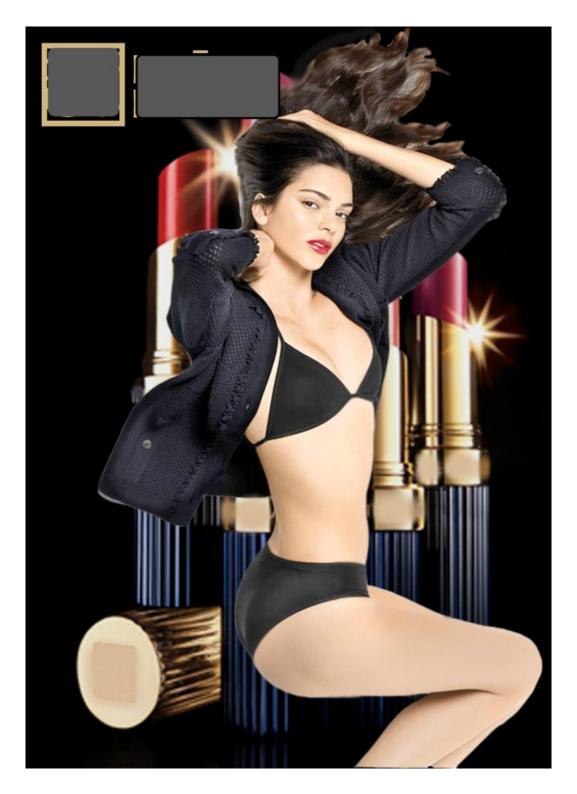
6.A. For the following questions please indicate what you think and are likely to think and do after seeing this advert

| | Ordi | nary | | | | Distir | nctive |
|--|-------|---------|-------|---|-----|----------|--------|
| With regard to the product itself, how would you feel this product compares to similar products by other brands? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Stron | gly Dis | agree | | Sti | rongly l | Agree |
| The next time I buy this product in a similar price range, I intend to buy this brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I would seek out this product in a store to purchase it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I am willing to buy the brands endorsed by this celebrity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I am interested in purchasing this brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

PLEASE VIEW THIS ADVERT

You're more than halfway done!

Please view the advert below and answer the next questions in regard to this advert.



| 2B. Please | 2B. Please comment on the suitability of this endorsement? | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|---|--------------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bad fit between celebrity and brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Good fit between celebrity and brand | | | | | | | | |
| Not Logical for celebrity to endorse | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | logical for celebrity to endorse | | | | | |
| Not appropriate for the celebrity to endorse | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appropriate for celebrity to endorse | | | | | |

3B. This CELEBRITY is:

| Not Beautiful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Beautiful |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| Not Talented | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Talented |
| Not Classy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Classy |
| Not Likable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Likable |
| Not Sexy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sexy |
| Not Trustworthy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Trustworthy |
| Not Appealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appealing |
| Not an Expert | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Expert |
| Not Skilled | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Skilled |
| Not Dependable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Dependable |
| Not Sincere | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sincere |
| Not Reliable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Reliable |
| Not Qualified | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Qualified |

| | 4B. This ADVERT is: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Classy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Classy | | | | | |
| Does not Signify Beauty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Signifies Beauty | | | | | |
| Not Tasteful | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Tasteful | | | | | |
| Does not capture my attention | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Captures my attention | | | | | |
| Not Appropriate | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Appropriate | | | | | |
| Not Sexy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Sexy | | | | | |

| | Strongly Disagree | | | | Strongly Agree | | | | |
|---|-------------------|---|---|---|----------------|---|---|--|--|
| I feel positive about the advert | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | |
| The advert is appealing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | |
| I have a favourable attitude towards the advert | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | |

Please indicate the extent you agree/disagree with the following statements regarding the BRAND after you have seen the advert:

| | 5B. This BRAND is: | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-----|-----|------------|-------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Desirable | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 Desirab | e | | | | | | | | |
| Not High Quality | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 High Qu | ality | | | | | | | | |
| Not Classy | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 Classy | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Fashionable | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 Fashion | able | | | | | | | | |
| Not Tasteful | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 Tasteful | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Reliable | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 Reliable | | | | | | | | | |
| Not Sexy | 1 2 | 3 4 | 5 6 | 7 Sexy | | | | | | | | | |

| | Strongly | Strongly Agree | | | | | |
|---|----------|----------------|---|---|---|---|--|
| I feel positive about the brand | 1 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| The brand is appealing | 1 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| I have a favourable attitude towards the brand | 1 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

6.B. For the following questions please indicate what you think and are likely to think and do after seeing this advert

| | Ordinary | | | | Distinctive | | |
|--|----------|---------|-------|---|-------------|----------|-------|
| With regard to the product itself, how would you feel this product compares to similar products by other brands? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| | Stron | gly Dis | agree | | Sti | rongly . | Agree |
| The next time I buy this product in a similar price range, I intend to buy this brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I would seek out this product in a store to purchase it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I am willing to buy the brands endorsed by this celebrity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| I am interested in purchasing this brand | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Demographics

Ethnic background

British
 British Asian (Pakistani)
 Asian (Pakistani)
 Other _____

Country of residence

England

🗌 Pakistan

Highest level of education achieved

Less than high school
 High School
 University: Bachelors (UG)
 University: PG/Masters
 Doctorate

Religion:

E.g. Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Buddhist, atheist, or any other

| Age | |
|-------|-----------------------------|
| 18-25 | Does not apply |
| 26-33 | Prefer not to say |
| 34-41 | |
| 42-49 | |
| 50-57 | Do you use makeup products? |
| 58-65 | Yes |
| 66-73 | 🔲 No |
| 74+ | |

Did you know the celebrity in the advert?

| Yes, the celebrity is (or I think it is) | |
|--|--|
| The celebrity is familiar | |
| No | |

Appendix 8 Questionnaire to measure religious involvement

administered to Pakistani sample

| Not including weddings and funerals, |
|--------------------------------------|
| how often do you attend religious |
| services? |

Approx once a weekSeveral times a week

Usually every day
 Atleast once a day
 Other

How many days do you fast in Ramadan?

| services? | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| | 🗌 I don't fast |
| Never, practically never | Usually between 1-4 |
| Sparingly through the year | Usually between 4-8 |
| Approx once a month | Usually between 8-12 |
| Several times a month | Usually between 12-16 |
| Approx once a week | Usually between 16-20 |
| Several times a week | Above 20 |
| Usually every day | All (that I am allowed) |
| Atleast once a day | |
| | Other |
| Other | I am unable to fast due to medical or other reasons |
| How often do you go to the mosque/or | How (on what sources of income) do you give Zakat? |
| other place of worship? | _ |
| _ | I don't give Zakat |
| Never, practically never | I sometimes give Zakat on my savings/cash |
| Sparingly through the year | I give Zakat on my savings/cash every year |
| Approx once a month | I give Zakat on my savings/cash every year and sometimes on any |
| Several times a month | shares and saving bonds I have |
| Approx once a week | I give Zakat on my savings/cash and on any shares or saving bonds I |
| Several times a week | have every year |
| Usually every day | I give Zakat on the above and on any other funds under my name |
| Atleast once a day | I give Zakat on the above and sometimes on any gold or silver I have |
| Other | I give Zakat on all my possessions without fail every year |
| | |
| How often do you read the Quran? | Other |
| Never, practically never | |
| Sparingly through the year | Please select which best applies |
| Approx once a month | I cover my hair: |
| Several times a month | |
| Approx once a week | Never, practically never |
| Several times a week | Only in religious ceremonies/at mosque |
| Usually every day | The above and while praying |
| Atleast once a day | The above and when culturally required |
| | The above and in selected company/places |
| Other | Whenever I leave the house |
| U.S. Standards and Calab (Namaa)2 | Practically all the time |
| How often do you pray Salah (Nemaz)? | \square All the time |
| | ☐ Other |
| Never, practically never | |
| Sparingly through the year | |
| Approx once a month | |
| Several times a month | |

Appendix 9 Informed consent form for qualitative research

Consent Form

This focus group (Interview*) given on ______ will be used as part of the research carried out by Zahra Shah, a PhD student at the University of Sheffield. The purpose of this research is to understand the impact of celebrity-endorsed advertising on consumer perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions towards the celebrity, advert and brand. The study looks at how the aforementioned factors may vary amongst consumers from different countries and cultures. _____

[Addition details provided on consent form for participants in focus groups]

Your help is also needed to make sure that the questionnaire survey used in the main part of this study is designed as effectively and accurately as possible and that it is understood by all participants. During this focus group, you will be shown questionnaires which feature celebrity-endorsed adverts designed by the researcher. In addition to getting your thoughts on the celebrity endorser and your response to the adverts, you will be asked your opinion and feedback on the following:

- What you think of the questions used in terms of their wording, clarity, format etc.
- What you think of the advert design and nature of the images included in the study
- Whether you think the designed celebrity-endorsed adverts are of a sexual nature and how this affects your opinion

[Addition details provided on consent form for interviews with Islamic leaders]

Part of this study aims to understand how Pakistani consumers level of involvement with Islamic religious practises may impact their response to the content and context of celebrity-endorsed advertising, especially to the inclusion of sexuality in advertising. Using literature on religiosity and available materials relating to Islam, some religious practices have been identified.

This group interview is used to get your feedback and input on:

- Whether the identified practices can help determine religious involvement
- Whether the practices are universal across the different sects within the Islamic religion
- Whether any additional practices should be considered
- The extent to which Muslims should undertake these practices

[Addition details provided on consent form for group interview with Pakistani academic scholars]

Part of this study aims to understand how Pakistani consumers level of involvement with Islamic religious practises may impact their response to the content and context of celebrity-endorsed advertising, especially to the inclusion of sexuality in advertising. Using literature on religiosity, available material and literature relating to Islam, and through using resultant analysis from conducting interviews with Islamic religious leaders (Maulanas), a multi-item measure has been developed and created. This group interview is used to get your input and feedback on the scales before utilising them in the main research study. You will be asked to evaluate and discuss on the following:

- Whether you think the multi-item measure is useful in conceptualising and measuring behavioural religiosity
- How the phrasing of the measures can be improved
- Generally evaluate the created scales and how they may be improved

Any other comments you have relating to the scales, their development or use is welcome and will be much appreciated.

[Included in all the consent forms]

| Please tick the appropriate boxes | Yes | No |
|--|-----|----|
| Taking Part in the Project | | |
| I have understood the purpose of this research. (If you will answer No to this question please do not proceed with this consent form until you are fully aware of what your participation in the project will mean.) | | |
| I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project. | | |
| I agree to take part in the study | | |
| I understand that my taking part is voluntary and that I can withdraw from the study at any time without giving any reasons for why I no longer want to take part. There will be no adverse consequences if I choose to withdraw. | | |
| How my information will be used during and after the project | | |
| I understand my personal details such as name, phone number, address and email address etc. will not be revealed to people outside the project. | | |
| I understand and agree that my words may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs. I understand that I will not be named in these outputs unless I specifically request this. | | |
| I consent to being audio recorded | | |
| If you agreed to the above: | | |
| I give permission for the audio recording to be transferred and stored onto the researchers hard drive which is password protected. My personal details will not be stored alongside the audio record. | | |
| So that the information you provide can be used legally by the researcher | | |

| I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any materials generated as part of | |
|--|--|
| this project to The University of Sheffield. | |

Contact for any further information

[Details and contact information of first and second supervisors were provided here]

Name of participant

Signature

Date

Name of Researcher

Signature

Date

Zahra Shah

*Denotes how field was adapted in the consent form for interviews with Pakistani Islamic religious leaders and Pakistani academic scholars.

Appendix 10: Sample statements from group interview with Islamic religious leaders and illustration of initial analysis procedure

| , | (Participant 1): "That does not mean belief is strong. People can do actions but have no value." | |
|---------------------|--|------|
| Belief vs. practise | (Participant 2): "No, yes I agree, belief is possible and different. The people who do actions will | |
| | be conservative. The beliefs no but they will believe in behave conservative". (Upon being asked | |
| Overlap between | to elaborate by interviewer) "Women being traditional, covering hair being more housewife". | |
| culture and | (Participant 1): That is how you see Pakistani tradition, in Islam women can work. But people | |
| religion | are confused. If it is Islam and how to practice, we stick closely to religion" "Tradition will | |
| | change, so you take Muslims but they will be different. Islam practices remain same""People | |
| Traditional | do not all pray Namaz but they accept it." | ire |
| cultural values | (Participant 2): "So you see, modern people not praying and not very religious" | |
| and beliefs | (Participant 1): "They can be religious, and believe in Islam, maybe not do these much". | |
| Salah (| (Participant 2): " more is possible (Salah), <mark>5 times a day is 'farz'</mark> (obligatory)". | |
| | (Participant 1): "Yes, 5 is 'farz', but for people 5 can be minimum and others think Tradition | |
| | saying prayer (Salah) only few times in one week is many". | |
|]] | (Participant 2): "Also saying 'dua' (prayer) religious people will do it more". | |
| 1 | (Participant 1): "that can be more personal reason. All people will most pray but it is still | |
| | choice, Namaz is more accepted by all Muslims. It is fundamental belief". | |
| | (Participant 2): "Yes, no doubt, Namaz, even if people do not perform, they will accept and | |
| | believe they are asked." | |
| | (Participant 1): "They maybe not feel they have to but Know it is asked as a must" | |
| Covering hair | (Participant 1): "You can have western clothes, this is just clothes. Women will still cover | |
| | | |
| | (Participant 2): "They do not do it" | ng 🛛 |
| Į | (Participant 1): "They have choice; women can also be more Pakistani and still not wear dupatta (scarf used to cover hair). I am saying one style of clothing no more decent or Nodesty | |
| | approved it is to cover well" "Muslim countries do not have same clothes for all""but | |
| | women who wear dupatta more will be more practicing." | |
| | (Participant 2): "But women who wear dupatta will be more decent and pray more". | |
| Emergent themes: (| Emergent themes: | |
| | Suitable for scale | |
| Consumption of | (Participant 2): "only eating halal and lawful, that is a must" | |
| halal food | (Participant 1): "In Pakistan, that is no use, all food by law is halal standard" | |
| | (Participant 2): "But some believe and others not". | |
| | (Participant 1): "Yes, like this there many things, my point that people in Pakistan have no development | |
| | choice who live here. Abroad yes, it is to use they have more choice". | |

Appendix 11: Sample statements from group interview with Pakistani academic scholars and illustration of initial analysis procedure

| Hajj | (Participant 3): "So you cannot have Hajj. The other actions are all, can be achieved, you can pray, go to religious places, or cover hair, all the things easily. Even Zakat is according to individual means but Hajj is not as easy done" |] г | | 1 |
|-------------|--|----------|----------------|---------|
| | (Participant 1): "I agree, It depends on many things, the salary, also for women it will be much more difficult to go because | | Gender roles | Culture |
| | they can a lot of times be relying on husbands or brothers or someone. | | | |
| { | (Participant 2): "People do also go in groups, with extended friends or in-laws and there are companies that take you". | l r | | 1 1 1 1 |
| | (Participant 3): "Yes, but it is still not easy and a family will, a lot of times many a time, not permit people to go, women or | -→ | Family | |
| | even sons. You also can not look at how many times they do it in the same way"."No one can say it is not of the 5 pillars | | influence | |
| | but you cannot use it. What do you think?" (referring to the other participants). | ╞╼└ | | · / / |
| C | (Participant 2): "Yes, you want straightforward. Hajj and Umrah have too many other things so maybe not useful for this". | | | |
| Fasting | (Participant 2): "Fasting is very interesting. People will sleep all day and wake up in time for Iftar. Or they will go to social | 1. | | . / / |
| - (| parties or hi-tea". | | Community | |
| | (Participant 1): "People who do the other actions, but they will all fast as well, if they are in good health. So it is related." | l l | connici |]' / |
| | (Participant 3): "I think we look another way. People will fast but they like (Participant 2) say, are not fasting to be religious | | | |
| J | or think of purpose for fasting. They will just want to go to parities and have fun. Ramadan month is party season in Lahore | | | |
| | and other places. Close to Iftar time there is traffic jams because people are going out. They do not pray Namaz or read | | | |
| | Quran or go to Mosque." | | | |
| | (Participant 1): "But people can still go, they do not have keep fast". "if someone is hungry all day they have to believe". | | | _/ |
| l | (Participant 3): "I am not saying it is not obligatory act, I think it is more culture in this day and age. But that it is used for | | Group | |
| | appearances and to boast in Pakistan at least". "It is changed a lot". | | influence. | Y |
| Level of (| (Participant 3): "You do not want exact number but classification. Keep upper timit general, I say the best is to take, to | | Collectivism | |
| involvement | have, maximum of everything, example, <mark>5 times Namaz every day, 29 or so days of fasting and s</mark> uch but keep the maximum | | | |
| | to no more for once a day and make it just high and not have exact". | | | |
| | (Participant 2): "But people pray 5 times, and more so even, so very religious will pray 5 times". | | | 1 |
| | (Participant 3): "If it is too exact then there is issue for making upper limit very strict. People who are behaving very | | Cultural shift | |
| | religiously take these practises, even they <mark>cannot always do exact or perfect thing</mark> . So it is not feasible. The purpose and | | | |
| | suitability of what best works for the scale is what is very important. All the items generate the category. You use solid | | |] |
| { | backing. Usually we have the category to be not frequent or very frequent, but in this she takes away the confusion to what | | | |
| | different people think is not frequent and very frequent" "so we know what maximum is and we make it useful for | | | |
| | study". | | | |
| | (Participant 1): "I agree with (Participant 3), we make it very high and people will not check box because they can miss | | | |
| | prayer sometimes or sometime cannot go to Mosque for all prayer. Or one day do not pick up the Quran after Nam az". | | | |
| | (Participant 3): "Yes, it is what I am saying. Once a day is enough to see very high frequency. Exact will just have no | | | |
| | purpose. We want something that is useful not just to be exact to be exact"."So for most, we use 'at least once a day' | | | |
| l | other we <mark>adapt when we need</mark> but <mark>try to not use too exact</mark> ". | | | |

British Participants Pakistani participants Advert 1 Advert 1 P6:"Beautiful". P1: "Beautiful". P5: "Beautiful but usual" Source attractiveness P4: "Pretty"., P6: "Yeah, it is attractive". P3: I'm not sure about Kendall but it's a good advert" P2: Kendall is actually really good at modelling". P2: "She very attractive and I like her look". Match-up P4 "I like her look its' very natural P3:"I like her". P1: "Kendall is so not natural! And despite it she's generic". P1: "Yes, she has a very bubbly personality". P3: "I like that it seems expensive". P5:"It goes with the product and she models for so many brands that I Advert think she's a good choice... It makes it looks current". P4: "[brand redacted] is expensive". P2: "I like Kendall so I like the advert. And [brand redacted] is very high P5: "I mean the **ad is** good quality and the brand as well". P1: "Yes, she's pretty already but here she looks more lovely". fashion and so is Kendall". Attitude P2: "Convincing, it makes me want to buy the lipstick" P5: "I'm not sure" (in relation to purchase intention). P1: "I don't know, [brand redacted] is fine but I don't really like Kendall so **Purchase Intention** *P6: "…I have bought a similar one but I would buy this as well, the finish* it doesn't really affect me. I mean I don't suddenly now want to buy it, if looks nice" P5:"I would need to think more" anything it's more like 'whatever' now" (brand). Advert 2 Advert 2 P5: "It's very Sexy, I personally, I don't really like it". P6:"Beautiful still but also sexy", P3: "She's still pretty, but I like the other one, this is just not my taste P2: "Yeah, sexier but still just as good". P3: "Essentially the same as the first advert just sexier but I think that Perception of sexuality It is sexual", makes it stand out more you know. It's got a better image" P6: "It's not sexy, "It's embarrassing for her" (referring to the celebrity P1:"It's very sexy and provocative but not embarrassing. It not good or P2: "I think <u>both the adverts are sexy</u>, one is just 'in your face' sexy but it is bad, it just stuns you, both (adverts) are nice" sexier clearly". Sexuality: change in P6: "So vou like it?" P4: "The first one is not sexy, maybe alluring but it's just a close-up like a P1: "Yeah, I like the first one more, but there is nothing wrong with this perception beauty shot." one, like, for me it's not my first preference but it's not embarrassing." P1: Well if I was to say I would say that first one is not sexy, it is stylish but *P6: "I find it shameful. When I see pictures like this it is uncomfortable* you cannot even see her all of her neck. But the second one is sexy even if Beliefs about gende you like her or not, (Laughs) not sexy to me but just what sexy is" Consideration of group because women should be decent" influences and collectivism P4: "The brand is still good, the guality is good and they know makeup P3: "I would buy it" P2: "I would definitely buy it, I think, I like the whole look and I also like ≺ don't know, it's <mark>a bit cheap looking</mark>. I <mark>know the quality is the same but it</mark> on PI Inference to quality/product doesn't seem so anymore". [brand redacted] and I love Kendall and I love makeup". P6: "Yeah, I think the lipsticks last longer than other brands as well, and so (followed up with whether P3: "I think the brand is nice also and it is but I don't know... I don't like it I know it's worth the money. And also, they've made an extra effort". the perception of HQ was too much I don't think I'll buy it if I see this. I don't see myself like pre-conceived or inferred by P1: "This... yeah, I might not buy it... I don't know. But I know a lot of P4: "I like the advert as well, and it's sexy but still fashionable and it's not people will not buy it... I don't think". like all the other ones these days. The jacket makes it high fashion". advert).

Appendix 12: Sample statements from focus groups and illustration of initial analysis procedure

Appendix 13 Mean comparisons and descriptive statistics

Paired Samples Test between British Sample Study 1 and British Sample Study 2 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference

∆Mean

SD

| | | | | Mean | | | | | |
|-----|---|------|-------|------|------|------|----------|-----|-------|
| 1 | B1 MU– B2 MU | .285 | 1.035 | .041 | .203 | .366 | 6.882 | 625 | .000* |
| 2 | B1 Attrac– B2 Attrac | 135 | 1.000 | .040 | 213 | 056 | -3.385 | 625 | .001 |
| 3 | B1 Per _{ad} – B2 Per _{ad} | .095 | 1.100 | .044 | .009 | .181 | 2.168 | 625 | .031 |
| 4 | B1 Per _{br} – B2 Per _{br} | .257 | 1.039 | .042 | .174 | .337 | 6.154 | 625 | .000* |
| 5 | B1 Att _{ad} – B2 Att _{ad} | 141 | 1.143 | .046 | 231 | 051 | -3.094 | 625 | .002 |
| 6 | B1 Att _{br} – B2 Att _{br} | 019 | 1.097 | .044 | 105 | .067 | 435 | 625 | .664 |
| 7 | B1 PI – B2 PI | .007 | 1.164 | .047 | 084 | .098 | .150 | 625 | .880 |
| • • | | | - | - | | | – | - | |

Std,

Error

Lower

Upper

t

df

Sig. (2-

tailed)

Note: MU = matchup, Attrac= attractiveness, Per_{ad=} Perception advert, Per_{br=} Perception Brand, Att_{ad}= Attitude Advert, Att_{br}= Attitude brand, PI= Purchase intention SD= Standard Deviation, ***p value significant at .001 level

| | Levene's T for Equalit Variances | ty of | t-test foi | r Equality of Means | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | |
|------------------------------------|--|-------|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------|-----------------|---|-------|--|
| Variables Measured B1 – P1 | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2- tailed) | Mean Δ | Std. Error ∆ | Lower | Upper | |
| MU | | | | | | | | | | |
| = variances | 117.998 | .000 | -8.000 | 1300 | .000 | 615 | .078 | 766 | 464 | |
| ≠ variances Attrac | | | -7.923 | 1176.019 | .000 | 615 | .078 | 767 | 463 | |
| = variances | 112.771 | .000 | - | 1300 | .000 | 892 | .077 | -1.043 | 741 | |
| ≠ variances | | | 11.611 | 1157.214 | .000 | 892 | .078 | -1.044 | 740 | |
| | | | - 11.488 | | | | | | | |
| Per _{ad} | | | | | | | | | | |
| = variances | 28.839 | .000 | -5.824 | 1300 | .000 | 459 | .079 | 614 | 305 | |
| ≠ variances Per _{br} | | | -5.798 | 1252.901 | .000 | 459 | .079 | 615 | 304 | |
| = variances | 107.251 | .000 | -3.447 | 1300 | .001 | 248 | .072 | 389 | 107 | |
| ≠ variances Att _{ad} = | | | -3.408 | 1143.024 | .001 | 248 | .073 | 391 | 105 | |
| variances | 84.574 | .000 | -6.501 | 1300 | .000 | 510 | .078 | 664 | 356 | |
| ≠ variances Att _{hr} = | | | -6.446 | 1193.581 | .000 | 510 | .079 | 665 | 355 | |
| =variances | 87.853 | .000 | -9.781 | 1300 | .000 | 723 | .074 | 868 | 578 | |
| ≠ variances PI | 67.000 | .000 | -9.684 | 1169.446 | .000 | 723 | .075 | 870 | 577 | |
| = variances | 51.698 | .000 | -8.375 | 1300 | .000 | 646 | .077 | 797 | 495 | |
| ≠ variances | | | -8.321 | 1227.280 | .000 | 646 | .078 | 798 | 494 | |

Note: MU = matchup, Attrac= attractiveness, $Per_{ad=} Perception advert$, $Per_{br=} Perception Brand$, $Att_{ad=} Attitude Advert$, Att_{br} = Attitude brand, PI= Purchase intention , variances= Equal variances assumed, \neq

variances= Equal variances not assumed

| · | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | ish Study 2 and Pakistani Study 2 t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
|----------------------------------|---|------|---|----------|---------------------|-----------|-----------------|---|-------|
| Variables Measured B2 – P2 | F Sig. | | t | df | Sig. (2- tailed) | Mean Δ | Std. Error ∆ | Lower | Upper |
| MU | | | | | | | | | |
| = variances | 25.434 | .000 | 3.874 | 1300 | .000 | .358 | .092 | .177 | .539 |
| ≠ variances Attrac | | | 3.898 | 1290.588 | .000 | .358 | .092 | .178 | .538 |
| = variances | 3.878 | .049 | 131 | 1300 | .895 | 012 | .091 | 191 | .167 |
| ≠ variances | | | 131 | 1273.060 | .896 | 012 | .091 | 191 | .167 |
| Per _{ad} | | | | | | | | | |
| = variances | 91.687 | .000 | 13.943 | 1300 | .000 | 1.387 | .099 | 1.191 | 1.582 |
| ≠ variances | | | 14.071 | 1266.550 | .000 | 1.387 | .099 | 1.193 | 1.580 |
| Per _{br} | | | | | | | | | |
| = variances | 175.529 | .000 | 5.673 | 1300 | .001 | .518 | .091 | .339 | .697 |
| ≠ variances | | | 5.742 | 1227.938 | .001 | .518 | .090 | .341 | .695 |
| Att _{ad} = | | | | | | | | | |
| variances | 41.879 | .000 | 14.802 | 1300 | .000 | 1.452 | .098 | 1.260 | 1.645 |
| ≠ variances | | | 14.906 | 1285.124 | .000 | 1.452 | .097 | 1.261 | 1.644 |
| Att _{br} = | | | | | | | | | |
| =variances | 46.992 | .000 | 4.814 | 1300 | .000 | .438 | .091 | .259 | .616 |
| ≠ variances | | | 4.841 | 1293.976 | .000 | .438 | .090 | .260 | .615 |
| PI | | | | | | | | | |
| = variances | 101.643 | .000 | 10.789 | 1300 | .000 | 1.046 | .097 | .856 | 1.23 |
| ≠ variances | | | 10.892 | 1261.988 | .000 | 1.046 | .096 | .857 | 1.234 |

Note: MU = matchup, Attrac= attractiveness, $Per_{ad=} Perception advert$, $Per_{br=} Perception Brand$, $Att_{ad}=$ Attitude Advert, $Att_{br}=$ Attitude brand, PI= Purchase intention, variances= Equal variances assumed, \neq variances= Equal variances not assumed

| Paired Samples Test between Pakistani Sample Study 1 and Pakistani Sample Study 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-----|----------|--|--|--|--|
| | | 95% Confidence | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Interval of the | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Difference | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | ΔMean | SD | Std, | Lower | Upper | t | df | Sig. (2- | | | | |
| | | | | Error | | | | | tailed) | | | | |
| | | | | Mean | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | P1 MU– P2 MU | 1.258 | 1.791 | .069 | 1.122 | 1.393 | 18.255 | 675 | .000* | | | | |
| 2 | P1 Attrac–P2 Attrac | .745 | 1.305 | .531 | .640 | .849 | 14.025 | 675 | .000* | | | | |
| 3 | P1 Per _{ad} – P2 Per _{ad} | 1.941 | 2.051 | .079 | 1.786 | 2.096 | 24.607 | 675 | .000* | | | | |
| 4 | P1 Per _{br} – P2 Per _{br} | 1.022 | 1.773 | .068 | .888 | 1.155 | 14.977 | 675 | .000* | | | | |
| 5 | P1 Att _{ad} – P2 Att _{ad} | 1.821 | 1.977 | .076 | 1.672 | 1.970 | 23.951 | 675 | .000* | | | | |
| 6 | P1 Att _{br} – P2 Att _{br} | 1.142 | 1.648 | .063 | 1.017 | 1.266 | 18.010 | 675 | .000* | | | | |
| 7 | P1 PI – P2 PI | 1.699 | 1.960 | .075 | 1.551 | 1.847 | 22.531 | 675 | .000* | | | | |

Note: MU = matchup, Attrac= attractiveness, Per_{ad=} Perception advert, Per_{br =} Perception Brand, Att_{ad}= Attitude Advert, Att_{br}= Attitude brand, PI= Purchase intention SD= Standard Deviation, ***p value significant at .001 level

