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**CONSUMERS' RESPONSE TO NEGATIVE INFORMATION
ABOUT A CELEBRITY ENDORSER**

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by

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Dedication

To my family

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CONSUMERS' RESPONSE TO NEGATIVE INFORMATION ABOUT A CELEBRITY ENDORSER

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The study seeks to discover whether different cultural orientations will result in individuals making dispositional attribution or situational attribution regarding negative information about a celebrity endorser. Second, the study seeks to discover whether consumers in different cultures evaluate different types of negative celebrity information differently. Third, the study seeks to discover whether dispositional or situational attribution of the negative information about the celebrity endorser will produce different evaluations of the endorser and, subsequently, of the endorsed brand. Finally, the study seeks to discover whether the level of consumers' identification with celebrities (low vs. high) will moderate the relationship between attribution and consequences. The study found that cultural orientation affects people's attributional styles and dispositional attribution leads to more negative impacts on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention than situational attribution. It is found that Korean consumers reacted more negatively on other-oriented negative information than on self-oriented negative orientation. People with a low level of identification responded more negatively to the negative celebrity information than people with a high level of identification. Implications and suggestions for future research in this area are provided.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

One thing that has been able to keep pace with the recent proliferation of media forms has been the public's appetite for them. The new forms of media have provided new outlets for celebrity exposure. Indeed, the very concept of "the celebrity" seems to have been expanded. A celebrity is one who enjoys public recognition and usually has some distinctive attribute, such as attractiveness or trustworthiness (McCracken, 1989; Silvera & Austad, 2004). Today, celebrities are produced by all manner of fields of endeavor—entertainment, sports, cuisine, business, politics (Choi, Lee, & Kim, 2005), and even the blogosphere. With our media environment being saturated with images of and information about them, celebrities are able to enjoy high profiles, indulge idiosyncrasies, and project glamorous images (Giles, 2000; McCracken, 1989).

Celebrity endorsement as an advertising strategy has thrived in this environment. For several reasons, advertisers still believe that celebrity endorsement is an effective advertising strategy. One primary reason is a celebrity's ability to cut through the clutter of advertising and bring the desired positive effects, such as increased brand awareness and advertising recall, favorable attitudes toward the advertised brand, and, of course, increased sales and profits (Agrawal & Kamankura, 1995; Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan, 1999; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Gabor, Jeannye, & Wiener, 1987; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994; Misra & Beatty, 1990). In addition, celebrity endorsements can generate extensive PR effects and, for new brands, provide a chance for the brand to introduce itself to the public (Erdogan, Baker, & Tagg, 2001). In terms of a firm's financial performance, a study found that celebrity endorsement may even have a positive impact on a company's stock value (Agrawal &

Kamankura, 1995). In a nutshell, a company employing celebrity endorsement often sees its value rise.

Brands stand to gain a host of benefits by using celebrity endorsement but these potential benefits come at a risk. Since the personal lives of celebrity endorsers are outside the control of advertisers, all celebrity endorsements are vulnerable to scandals or negative press. Celebrity endorsers, being merely human, are quite fallible, and their poor judgment, ill-advised behavior, or simply controversial stands are unavoidable risks for the advertiser. Tiger Woods' recent sex scandal, for instance, garnered great media attention and caused brands like Gatorade, Accenture, and Gillette to drop him as an endorser. Knittel and Stango (2010) found that, in the ten trading days after Tiger Woods' scandal broke, firms with products endorsed by him suffered significant declines in stock market value, relative to both the entire stock market and a set of competitor firms. The top five sponsors (Accenture, Nike, Gillette, Electronic Arts, and Gatorade) lost two to three percent of their aggregate market value after the incident, and his three core sponsors—EA, Nike, and PepsiCo (Gatorade)—lost over four percent.

Previous studies have found that negative celebrity information lowers brand evaluation (Edwards & La Ferle, 2009; Till & Shimp, 1998) as well as the company's stock value (Louie, Kulik, & Jacobson, 2001). Edwards and Le Ferle (2009) pointed out that no gender difference exists when it comes to evaluating negative information about celebrity endorsers. How do fans who identify themselves with a celebrity endorser react to their celebrity getting caught up in a scandal? Johnson (2005) found that people with high levels of identification with a celebrity endorser were more likely to maintain pride in being a fan, whereas those with low levels of identification were more likely to feel

guilty and ashamed of being connected with the celebrity. In other words, consumers with high identification with a celebrity endorser are less likely to be influenced by celebrity scandals than their counterparts with low identification. Langmeyer and Shank (1993) found that a negative opinion about a celebrity resulted in negative perceptions about a nonprofit organization the celebrity endorsed.

Most interestingly, Money, Shimp, and Sakano (2006) suggested that negative information is not always harmful. Their study delved into whether the brand endorsed by a celebrity is evaluated differently if the form of negative information about the celebrity endorser is self-oriented (behavior affecting only the celebrity him- or herself) or other-oriented (behavior that harms others people). The study found that in the presence of self-oriented negative information both Japanese and Americans viewed endorsed products, , more positively, attributing celebrities' drug use not to dispositional factors, but to environmental pressures, group norms, and other situational factors. This result suggested that the upshot of negative celebrity information may vary depending on whether the information is self-oriented or other-oriented. The study showed that what consumers blame as the cause of the event also resulted in different outcomes.

However, previous empirical research on impacts of negative celebrity information is less conclusive and less comprehensive, with some studies yielding conflicting results. Further, previous studies have not provided an adequate explanation of how consumers attribute causes to bad behavior on the part of a celebrity. For example, although Money et al. (2006) found that, regardless of cultural orientation, people viewed endorsed products more positively in the presence of self-oriented negative celebrity information, they provided no explanation for what caused positive

brand evaluation when people attributed the cause to situational factors. How culture affects brand evaluation in the face of negative celebrity information is still unclear. In fact, the role of culture in evaluation of negative celebrity behavior has not been explicitly explained in previous studies.

Although previous studies have examined various aspects of negative celebrity information, there is clearly a lack of research into how consumers process negative celebrity information. Studying how consumers attribute blame and how this impacts their response toward a celebrity endorser and toward a brand will extend our knowledge and bring a new perspective on the study of negative celebrity information. Attribution theory can provide a theoretical framework for this study. Attribution theory offers a way to understand how consumers attribute negative celebrity information and how this attributional process affects celebrity endorsers and the brands they endorse. This study does not, however, review or employ theories or models of celebrity endorsement because this study is more focused on how consumers process negative celebrity information, rather than on the effects of celebrity endorsement. Source models and other celebrity endorsement models, such as the match-up hypothesis and the meaning transfer model, are inadequate to explain how consumers process negative celebrity information.

This study is situated at a nexus of three important research domains in advertising: celebrity endorsement, negative celebrity information, and cross-cultural study. These three domains have been vigorously explored in advertising-related research, and each domain is considered important in academia; however, research that touches on all three domains simultaneously and examines the relationship among these

domains has been rare. This study investigates how these three domains interact with each other, centering around negative celebrity information.

Celebrity media scandal has become ubiquitous and is a worldwide phenomenon. As celebrities become embroiled in transgressions, the products or services they endorse are placed at risk. The damage done to product reputation by negative celebrity information that emerges only after an endorsement has been made is a provocative area of inquiry for advertising researchers as well as advertising practitioners, but it has received limited attention. Research on the effects of negative celebrity information warrants further investigations.

The goal of this study is to examine the role of cultural orientation (i.e., cultural difference) in the evaluation of different types of negative information (self-oriented vs. other-oriented) about celebrity endorsers and in the causal attributional process. To achieve this goal, this study seeks to accomplish four objectives. First, the study seeks to discover whether different cultural orientations will result in individuals making dispositional attribution or situational attribution regarding negative information about a celebrity endorser. Second, the study seeks to discover whether consumers in different cultures evaluate different types of negative celebrity information differently. Third, the study seeks to discover whether dispositional or situational attribution of the negative information about the celebrity endorser will produce different evaluations of the endorser and, subsequently, of the endorsed brand. Finally, the study seeks to discover whether the level of consumers' identification with celebrities (low vs. high) will moderate the relationship between attribution and consequences.

The potential contribution of this research is both theoretical and practical. Theoretically, drawing on attribution theory, the current study aims to provide a framework that explains how consumers attribute the cause of negative celebrity information and how different attributional styles affect celebrity and brand evaluation. This research delves into the role of cultural orientation when it comes to evaluating different types of negative celebrity information. In addition, the present study attempts to integrate attribution, negative information, and cross-cultural difference into our understanding. Little effort has been made to understand how consumers process negative celebrity information and how different cultural orientations affect this processing process.

In practical terms, this research will be informative to global marketers. The present study will provide insight into how such marketers can best cope with negative celebrity information. By examining types of negative celebrity information, the results of this research will be especially informative to international marketers who plan to use celebrity endorsement in a world-wide campaign. Findings in this area can help to provide advertisers with enhanced criteria for selecting effective celebrity endorsers in their promotional efforts, while also providing new avenues for researchers to explore.

The remainder of this dissertation was organized as follows. Chapter II provides a comprehensive review of the literature and theoretical frameworks. Chapter III sets forth the hypotheses that will be addressed in this dissertation. Chapter IV discusses the research design along with the methodology for the dissertation study and offers a detailed description of procedure. The results are discussed in Chapter V, followed by Chapter VI on discussion. In Chapter VII, implications and future research are provided.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will examine, first, how a celebrity is defined in society and the social as well as cultural functions of celebrity. This section focuses on the role of celebrity in our society from the perspective of its social and cultural functions. The second section will review the literature dealing with the advantages and disadvantages of celebrity endorsement. In line with disadvantages of celebrity endorsement, the third section of this literature review will describe the definition and characteristics of negative celebrity information (or scandal), and will review recent cases of celebrity scandals. The fourth section focuses on the negativity effect, or in other words, how consumers process negative information, compared to neutral or positive information. The fifth section will review the research findings of previous studies on negative celebrity information. The final section of this literature review will focus on attribution and attribution theory in order to explain how different cultural orientations affect consumers' attributional styles, their evaluations of a brand and a celebrity endorser, and their purchase intentions. This section will explain how different cultural values, beliefs, and perceptions affect consumers' attribution making process and how different styles of attribution leads to different consequences.

CELEBRITIES AND SOCIETY

Daniel J. Boorstin, an American historian, professor, attorney, and writer defined a celebrity as someone who is known for being well known (Fitzgerald, 2008). His definition suggests that celebrities develop their capacity for fame, not by achieving great things, but by differentiating their own personalities from those of their competitors in the public arena. We live in a society where Paris Hilton can be famous simply for being

famous, thanks to an entertainment industry and its accompanying media coverage. Gossip magazines such as tabloids have become prosperous and ubiquitous in today's celebrity culture. Gossip and scandal are considered an integral component of celebrity culture nowadays. Due to the evolution of the Internet, websites have emerged as a powerful means of disseminating celebrity scandals.

As Tirdad Derakhshani (2007) puts it, our obsession with celebrity is not some aberration, but rather an intrinsic aspect of the central economic, social, and political force in Western life: consumerism. Before delving into the concept of consumerism, it is necessary to review the social as well as the cultural functions of celebrity to understand the role of celebrities in consumerism. First, celebrities generate a para-social construction of the communities within which many of us live. The popular reactions to the deaths of high profile celebrities such as Elvis Presley, John Lennon, Princess Diana, and most recently Michael Jackson provide the most obvious examples of para-social relationships. These are the instances where large numbers of people around the world respond to what they think of as real emotional attachments with figures they know only through their representations in the media (Turner, 2004). As a consequence of this para-social interaction between a celebrity and the audience, the audience is psychologically involved with the celebrity, and is susceptible to celebrities' pervasive influence, causing cultural changes in society (Basil & Brown, 1997).

Second, in terms of the cultural functions of celebrities, identifying with the celebrity is a phenomenon that is used to check and build cultural identity. The celebrity is a cultural platform, which is commoditized through celebrity gossip, and cultural identity is constructed through the image of the celebrity portrayed by the media, and by

the audience's shared judgments of norms and values (Turner, 2004). Celebrities have an important cultural meaning, as they have material effects on the audience's relations, experiences, and identities (MacDonald & Andrews, 2001). They are the intersection between cultural identity and media consumption (Van Kriekan, Smith, & McDonald, 2000), and a good example of where the audience stands in relation to capitalist society (Dyer, 1986).

Thanks to their social and cultural functions, celebrities have become a necessary element in commercialism. Thus, celebrity endorsement has been a widely used advertising practice, in part because of the cultural meanings that already reside in the celebrity and the readiness and ease of transferring these meanings to a consumer good and good to consumer (McCracken 1989). The celebrity endorser, as "any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good appearing within an advertisement," holds unique cultural meanings and properties through typecasting as compared to the typical models used in advertisements (McCracken 1989). The number and variety of the meanings residing in celebrities varies, and distinctions of status, class, gender, and age, as well as personality and lifestyle types, are represented by celebrity endorsers.

CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENT

This section discusses the advantages and disadvantages of celebrity endorsement; more specifically, it elaborates on the positive effects of using celebrity endorsement from advertisers' perspective, and lists the potential risks of using celebrity endorsement.

Advantages of Celebrity Endorsement

Advertisers utilize celebrity endorsers for their advertising campaigns for a variety of reasons, but these reasons may be summarized as follows: economic value, sales increase, increased attention to advertising, positive attitudes toward the ad, increased purchase intention, giving a brand instant personality, and cutting the clutter. Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) assessed the economic worth of celebrity endorsers by using event study methodology. They measured the impact of celebrity endorsement contracts on the expected profitability of a firm. They analyzed the announcements of 110 celebrity endorsement contracts to investigate whether there were abnormal returns after the announcement of an endorsement contract. They found that a significant percentage of positive abnormal returns to the sponsoring firms on the event day, and sponsoring firms, on average, gained 44% excess returns in market value as a result of announcements of celebrity endorsement contracts. These results indicate that investors value positively the use of celebrity endorsement.

Some studies have suggested a direct impact of celebrity endorsement on sales. Dickenson (1996) suggested that celebrity endorsers help boost sales tremendously. She took as an example the Oasis soft drink, which used a TV personality as a voiceover in their TV commercial for launching the brand. As a result, Oasis was chosen as the most successful soft drink launch of 1995 by Supermarketing and Asian Trader. Gabor, Thornton, and Wiener (1987) maintained that Michael Jackson carried Pepsi sales up 8% in 1984, the first year of its contract with Jackson. In the soft drink industry, a 1% increase in sales is interpreted as millions of dollars. In a similar vein, according to *Advertising Age International* (1997), Pepsi reported that a 2% global market share increase was attributable to using the British pop group the Spice Girls as endorsers.

Compared to non-celebrity endorsers, what positive impact do celebrity endorsers have? Atkin and Block (1983) found that celebrity endorsers engender consistently more favorable impact than non-celebrity endorsers. Their findings showed that celebrity endorsers were viewed as significantly more trustworthy and competent and slightly more attractive than non-celebrity endorsers. In addition, they found that purchase intention as well as brand evaluation were greater on advertisements featuring celebrity endorsers than on advertisements featuring non-celebrity endorsers. In a study that examined the moderating role of involvement between central and peripheral routes to advertising effectiveness, Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) found that people are more likely to favor products endorsed by celebrity endorsers than by non-celebrity endorsers. In addition, their findings suggested that exposure to a famous endorser increased recall of the product category under low-involvement conditions. In other words, people tended to notice the products in low-involvement ads that featured famous celebrity endorsers.

Given these benefits, celebrity endorsement has been a popular tactic not only in the U.S. but around the world. Celebrities' product endorsements can travel across national borders with the help of celebrities' worldwide recognition (Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006). In the U.S., approximately 25% of all television ads feature one or more celebrities (Erdogan, Baker, & Tagg, 2001). In 2001, about 20% of the U.K. marketing communications campaigns featured one or more celebrities (Erdogan et al., 2001). In Korea and Japan that number is over 70% (Kilburn, 1998; Kim, 2006). Other Asian countries, like Thailand and Singapore, frequently use celebrity endorsements

(Pornpitakpan, 2003). In sum, celebrity endorsement has become a worldwide advertising phenomenon and warrants further study from academics.

Disadvantages of Celebrity Endorsement

Despite the potential benefits of using celebrity endorsers in advertising campaigns, the disadvantages of using celebrity endorsers deserve serious consideration. Recently, both advertisers and academics have shown a greater interest in the potential hazards of celebrity endorsements. Metaphorically, the use of celebrity endorsement is something of a double-edged sword. When used successfully, it brings positive impacts; when used the wrong way, the risk is greater than the expected gains. As discussed above, celebrity endorsement is effective in increasing the product recall, especially in low-involvement ads. Due to the enhanced attention drawn to these ads, however, a general lack of interest in assessing merits of the product may occur, which can result in reductions in brand recognition (Petty et al., 1985). Rossiter and Percy (1987) also suggested that consumers pay attention to the celebrity who is endorsing the product and fail to notice the brand being endorsed. This phenomenon, the celebrity overshadowing effect, is likely to occur when the ads featuring celebrity endorsers focus on the celebrity rather than on the products endorsed. This is well described in Cooper's (1984) adage that the product, not the celebrity, must be the star.

Multiple product endorsement has become a common advertising practice; in other words, sharing celebrities has become common for companies (Elliot, 1991; Sloan & Freeman, 1988). Celebrity greed and the frequent appearance of a particular celebrity in TV commercials or in print ads are likely to undermine the effects of his or her endorsement. As Mowen and Brown (1981) suggested, if a celebrity's image ties in with

many brands, the celebrity and the particular brand will not be distinctive. Thus, consumers tend to attribute the true nature of endorsement to generous compensation, leading consumers to overt cynicism about the celebrity's motives (Tripp et al., 1994).

Previous studies (Mowen & Brown, 1981; Mowen, Brown, & Schulman, 1979; Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994) have suggested that use of multiple product endorsements negatively affects consumers' perceptions of endorser trustworthiness, as well as brand evaluation. In their experimental study, Mowen and Brown (1981) employed Paul Newman as a celebrity endorser to examine the effects of multiple product endorsement and prepared an experimental booklet, including background information regarding a future advertising campaign. Their findings revealed that the product and ad evaluation were higher and product purchase intention was greater when a celebrity endorsed only one product. Using print ads as the stimuli, Tripp et al. (1994) found that as the number of products endorsed increased, consumers' perceptions of celebrity credibility, celebrity likability, and attitude toward the ad became less favorable. In their experimental study, Tripp et al. employed Dustin Hoffman and Matthew Broderick as endorsing celebrities, using Visa, Kodak, Colgate toothpaste, and Certs breath mints as test and functional ad products.

Of the various risks celebrity endorsers might pose to an endorsed brand, negative celebrity information has been considered the most important one. All celebrity endorsement is vulnerable to celebrity scandal. When advertisers employ celebrity endorsement, they take a risk of their brand being tarnished by negative celebrity information. The following section contains more detailed discussion of negative celebrity information.

NEGATIVE CELEBRITY INFORMATION “SCANDALS”

This section sets forth a definition of scandal and its five characteristics. In addition, it reviews cases of celebrity scandals in order to show the prevalence of such scandals in present-day society.

Definition of Scandal and Its Characteristics

According to West (2006), *scandal* is “an event in which the public revelation of an alleged private breach of law or a norm results in significant social disapproval or debate and usually reputational damage” (p. 6). As Lull and Hinerman (1997) have observed, scandal is always shaped and given force by the technological means through which information is transmitted to the public as news: “A media scandal occurs when private acts that disgrace or offend the idealized, dominant morality of a social community are made public and narrativized by the media, producing a range of effects from ideological and cultural retrenchment to disruption and change” (p. 3).

Tomlinson (1997) described scandals as “middle-order events,” meaning that their subject matter is somewhere between the borders of the fairly trivial and the extremely serious. “High-order” events —global problems such as wars, genocide, and famine— rarely become “scandalous” because they cannot be condensed into the behavior of one symbolic individual. On the other hand, “low-order” events are also not likely to appear on the agenda, since they fail to catch and hold public attention. Given that celebrity scandals receive a great deal of intense media scrutiny and moral contextualization, however, for celebrities who are well known to the public, even low-order events such as where they had lunch and with whom could be scandalous.

Lull and Hinerman (1997) pointed out that an opportunity for media scandal surfaces when the dominant morality of the day is violated by someone who is famous or holds power. This is mainly because the culture of celebrity thrives on sustained interest in the private lives behind the public faces of the stars. The perception of misdeeds when performed or committed by celebrities is considerably different than when an average person does the same. As Nayar (2008) observed, an illegality or act that infringes social norms of morality assumes a different dimension when performed by a celebrity: an ordinary act, such as a road accident, extra-marital affair, alcoholism, or financial mismanagement, shifts from being a mere misdemeanor to being a transgression. Celebrity scandals not only raise questions about the integrity of individual celebrities but also reinforce the idea that even famous people finally must be held responsible to society's moral expectations.

Thompson (1997) set forth five characteristics of scandals. First, a scandal involves actions or events which transgress or contravene certain values, norms, or moral codes. Thomson adds that some form and some degree of transgression are necessary conditions for scandal; without any form of transgression, there would be no scandal. Second, a scandal must be known or strongly believed to exist by non-participants. In short, to become a scandal, an action or event must be known about by others, or strongly and plausibly believed by others to exist. Third, a scandal not only presupposes some degree of public knowledge but presupposes some degree of public disapproval. To become a scandal, some non-participants must feel that the transgression is a normally discreditable action. Non-participant knowledge of the action and disapproval of it coexist in order for a scandal to emerge. Fourth, for a scandal to arise, some individuals

must disapprove of the actions or events, and they must express their disapproval to others. Thompson (1997) suggested that a transgression which is known to others but does not elicit any response would not give rise to a scandal. Finally, reputational damage must be observed in order for the actions or events to be a scandal. Scandals may seriously damage the reputation of the individuals who are closely involved in the actions or event, since scandals usually involve the disclosure of covert activities which transgress some values or norms.

Cases of Celebrity Scandals

It would be interesting to observe how these five characteristics of scandal apply to recent cases of celebrity scandal. For instance, Tiger Woods' recent sex scandal raised great media attention. He was involved in a car crash outside his home. Following the crash, a series of news reports about both the crash and his personal life damaged his public reputation, and several sponsors either stopped featuring him or dropped him outright from their celebrity endorsements. The Woods case exhibits all of the five characteristics of a scandal. His sexual affairs with 14 different women (adultery) were definitely a transgression of social norms and became known worldwide thanks to the Internet and a great deal of media coverage. The adultery he committed is not a legal transgression but a moral one in the U.S. where family values are considered very important. After his sex scandal, it seems to be difficult for Tiger Woods to regain the reputation he used to enjoy. This was apparent in the recent CNN survey, which indicated that only 39% of the public views Woods in a positive light—a sharp contrast from his pre-scandal reputation, when he was one of the most popular figures in America, with favorability ratings exceeding 80%.

Like the Woods scandal, many other scandals from Hollywood or professional athletes have become headlines in celebrity gossip-focused tabloids. Recently, Alex Rodriguez, a professional baseball player, was accused of cheating on his wife, and David Letterman, the well-known host of *Late Night with David Letterman*, admitted to having sex with multiple employees. Other celebrities, such as Al Gore (a politician), Charlie Sheen (an actor), Steven Seagal (an actor), Kate Moss (a model), and David Boreanaz (an actor) were involved in sex-related scandals, while others such as Lindsay Lohan (an actress), Thomas Jane (an actor), Kirsten Storms (an actress), Kiefer Sutherland (an actor), and Nicole Richie (a television personality) were charged with driving under the influence (DUI). Celebrities like Paris Hilton (an American socialite), Tom Cruise (an actor), Whitney Houston (a singer), and Michael Phelps (a swimmer) were involved with drugs or marijuana.

Because celebrity endorsement is a worldwide phenomenon in the advertising industry, negative celebrity information has never failed to bring international attention. Edison Chen, a famous actor and singer in Hong Kong, endorsed Pepsi, Samsung Digital Camera, Levis' jeans, Michael Jacobs, Coach, and other products before a sex photo scandal involving him broke in the news in 2008. He was immediately dropped from most of his endorsements. This scandal also had a negative impact on the endorsements of the actresses who were involved. In Japan, Tsuoyoshi Kusanagi, a member of SMAP, Japan's most famous boy band, was arrested for indecent exposure. Public-service ads starring Kusanagi were pulled; Toyota's rental company suspended the line of ads featuring Kusanagi, which had run since 1998, and Proctor and Gamble suspended its Kusanagi ads. Hwang Soo Jeong, a famous Korean actress, was accused of adultery and

of taking narcotics. This scandal ended not only her endorsements (for Lotte Department Stores, Samsung Construction, and Daewoo Motors) but also her career as an actress.

THE NEGATIVITY EFFECT

This section deals with previous research on negative information and how negative information is processed differently from other types of information. In addition, this section provides an overall review of previous studies on negative celebrity information and the moderators of such information, such as level of identification and level of brand commitment.

Previous Research on Negative Information

A growing body of research suggests that negative information more strongly influences people's evaluations than positive information (Kanouse & Hansen, 1971; Peeters & Czapinski, 1990; Skowronski & Carlson, 1989). Generally, in long-term memory, negative information is better remembered than neutral information. To examine whether emotional content affects performance of working memory tasks as well as influencing long-term retention, Kensinger and Corkin (2003) asked participants to perform working memory tasks with negative and neutral stimuli. For this study, there were six different versions of the test incorporating different kinds of stimulus materials: a) negative animals, b) neutral animals, c) positive animals, d) negative people, e) neutral people, and f) positive people. The results showed that recall was better for negative animals and positive animals than for the neutral animals, and for negative people and positive people than neutral people. The conclusion was that delayed recall is superior for emotionally-charged images (positive or negative) as compared to neutral ones.

Similarly, Wojciszke, Brycz, and Borekna (1993) discussed two theories, the schematic model of dispositional attribution and the cue-diagnostic model of impression formation. These theories assume that negative effects occur if the integrated information refers to morality, whereas positivity effects occur if the information refers to competence-related qualities of the target. In terms of moral traits, negative behaviors are likely to be perceived as more informative than positive ones because negative behaviors are considered to be characteristic of immoral persons only, while positive behaviors are considered to be performed by both moral and immoral persons. Consequently, this leads to negative behaviors having a stronger impact on impressions concerning morality, yielding a negativity effect in the morality domain. Based on these theories, Wojciszke et al. (1993) tested their hypotheses and found that extremely evaluative information results in negative effects, whereas moderately evaluative information results in positivity effects. In this study, two behavior descriptions were used as dependent variables and high-evaluation-extremity condition and low-evaluative-condition were used as independent variables.

Using the schematic model of attribution (Reeder, 1985) and the cue-diagnostics model of impression formation (Skowronski & Carlston, 1987), Wojciszke, Bazinska, and Jaworski (1998) hypothesized that moral related information plays a more important role at various phases of global impression formation than competence-related information on target audiences. The study findings revealed that 1) moral traits showed a higher chronic accessibility than competence traits; 2) when gathering information to formulate a global impression, perceivers were more interested in moral traits than competence traits; 3) global impressions of real persons were better predicted from moral

trait ascriptions than competence trait ascriptions; and 4) the positivity or negativity of impressions of fictitious persons was decided mainly by the moral content of their behavior, whereas competence information served as a weak modifier of impression intensity.

Fiske (1980) suggested that informative attributes attract selective attention at the point of input and also carry extra weight in the final impression. Fiske's study manipulated negativity and extremity across two separate behavioral dimensions, socialability and civic activism; as dependent variables, the study measured likeability and attention as looking time. The results showed that people preferentially weighted behaviors that were extreme or negative. In sum, across two behavioral dimensions, perceivers' judgments of likeability were influenced especially by extreme cues, whose evaluation was highly positive or negative, and additionally by negative cues.

Previous Studies on Negative Celebrity Information (“Scandal”) and Moderators

To date, researchers have investigated the impact of negative information about a celebrity endorser on brands from several perspectives such as consumers' cultural orientation (Money et al., 2006), consumers' gender difference (Edwards & La Ferle, 2009), a firm's financial performance by measuring stock returns (Knittel & Stango (2010), associative network (Till & Shimp, 1998), consumers' brand commitment (Ahluwalia, Burnktant, & Unnava, 2000), consumers' social identification with celebrity endorsers (Johnson, 2005) and meaning movement (White, Goddard, & Wilbur, 2009).

Interestingly, several studies (Money et al., 2006; Edwards & La Ferle, 2009; Ahluwalia et al., 2000; Johnson, 2005) suggest that factors such as consumers' cultural

orientation, gender, brand commitment, and identification with celebrity endorsers all serve to moderate the relationship between negative celebrity information and brand evaluation. First, Money et al. (2006) investigated how two types of negative celebrity information—self-oriented (deleterious behavior affecting only the celebrity him- or herself) and other-oriented (behavior that harms others)—are moderated by consumers' cultural orientation (Japan as a collectivistic culture vs. the U.S. as an individualistic culture). Money et al. (2006) hypothesized that, of the two types of celebrity negative information, other-oriented negative information would be more harmful to brand evaluations in Japanese culture than self-oriented negative information that damaged only the celebrity. This was assumed that because in a collectivistic culture such as in Japan, self-image is formed through the interconnectedness of people, fitting in, and interdependence with others, whereas in an individualistic culture such as in U.S., people express self-image by discovering and highlighting their differences with others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Contrary to Money et al.'s (2006) expectations, however, the results suggested that cultural differences between these two countries do not moderate the relationship between the negative celebrity information and brand evaluation. Interestingly, the study found that self- and other-oriented negative information increased purchase intentions among Japanese consumers, while only self-oriented negative information increased purchase intentions among American consumers. This finding suggests that negative information is not all that harmful.

Edwards and La Ferle (2009) investigated the role of gender in evaluating celebrity endorsers and endorsed brands in the wake of celebrity negative information.

They expected that negative information about a celebrity would negatively impact consumers' attitudes toward the celebrity, endorsement/advertisement, product rating, and product interest. In terms of gender, they predicted that negative information about a celebrity would have a stronger impact on female consumers than male consumers and the impact of negative information would be stronger when the celebrity is the same sex as the consumer. Their study found that negative celebrity information influenced celebrities' reputations and the brands they endorsed negatively. Contrary to expectations, however, female consumers were not impacted by negative information to a greater degree than male consumers. The study also found that gender congruency between consumers and celebrities impacted attitudes. This effect, however, was seen for only one of the seven dependent measures (trustworthiness). In sum, gender difference does not moderate the relationship between negative celebrity information and brand evaluation.

Based on Social Identity Theory, Johnson (2005) predicted that consumers who strongly identified with a celebrity would be less likely to react negatively than consumers with a lower level of identification. She further expected that consumers with a low level of identification with the celebrity would be unlikely to continue to buy products the celebrity endorsed, while consumers with a high level of identification with the celebrity would continue purchasing the product because they believed their beloved celebrity was innocent. The results of Johnson's study suggested that in the wake of scandals about Michael Jackson and Kobe Bryant, consumers with a high level of identification with the celebrity were more likely to believe that Michael Jackson and Kobe Bryant were innocent than people with a low level of identification, and the former

group of consumers were more willing to purchase and recommend the products the celebrity had endorsed than the latter. Johnson found that people with a high level of identification were more likely to feel proud of being a fan, whereas people with a low level of identification were more likely to feel guilty and ashamed of being connected with the celebrity. In sum, this study suggests that the degree to which consumers identify with a celebrity plays a role in shaping consumers' reactions to negative information about the celebrity.

Ahluwalia et al. (2000) attempted to explain how consumers process negative information in the marketplace. Their study identified consumers' commitment toward a brand as a moderator of negative information effects. Their hypotheses were based on the negativity effect, which suggests people place more weight on negative than positive information in forming an overall evaluation of a target and that negative information is considered more diagnostic or informative than positive information. Thus, negative information may be considered more useful or diagnostic in making decisions and is given more weight than positive information. In regard to attitude strength, Ahluwalia et al. (2000) noted that stronger attitudes are more likely to show greater resistance to information that attacks them. Their findings revealed that low-commitment consumers gave more weight to negative than to positive information because they perceived it to be more diagnostic. In other words, low-commitment consumers processed information more objectively and were more likely to be influenced by the higher perceived diagnosticity of negative information than positive information. On the other hand, the high-commitment consumers perceived positive information to be more diagnostic than

negative information; that is, they made more supportive arguments from the positive information than from the negative.

Using an associative network model of memory as a theoretical framework, Till and Shimp (1998) examined the impact of negative information about a celebrity on the brand the celebrity endorses,. Their study used four moderating variables: the size of the association set for the brand, the size of the association set for the celebrity, the timing of the negative celebrity information, and the strength of the associative link between the brand and the celebrity. They found that negative information about the celebrity results in lowered evaluations of the brand. Contrary to Till and Shimp's expectations, however, as the size of the brand association set and the size of the celebrity association set increased, the effect on brand evaluations of negative information did not decrease. This finding suggests that the effect of negative information about the celebrity is greatest when both the brand and the celebrity set sizes are relatively small. Till and Shimp had hypothesized that negative celebrity information would have less impact on brand evaluations when the associative link between brand and celebrity was weak than when it was strong, but their findings failed to support this hypothesis. The results revealed that when there is a sufficiently strong associative link between a real celebrity and a brand, subsequent negative information about the celebrity lowers brand evaluations.

In contrast to many previous studies which examined the impact of negative celebrity information on purchase intentions or brand evaluation through event methods, Louie, Kulik, and Jacobson (2001) investigated how a firm's financial performance, as measured by stock returns, was influenced by negative celebrity information. The study found that the stock market reaction to negative celebrity information was negatively

related to spokesperson blameworthiness. Interestingly, the results revealed a high negative correlation between the degree of culpability and the amount of stock returns. In other words, when a celebrity endorser had lower culpability, the stock return tended to be higher, and vice versa. This study suggests that negative impacts (e.g., low stock market returns) are likely to occur when celebrity endorsers are involved in very high-blameworthy events; however, low-blameworthy events promote sympathy, liking, and visibility for the spokesperson.

White et al. (2009) investigated the impact of negative information about a celebrity on consumers' perceptions of the endorsed brand. In addition, they also examined the impact of negative information about the brand on the celebrity. The study found that negative information about a celebrity lowered product evaluations. Contrary to their expectations, however, negative information about the brand or company did not influence evaluations of the celebrity. The findings suggest that when consumers are exposed to negative information about the celebrity endorser, they are likely to transfer their negative reactions to the product endorsed, whereas when consumers are exposed to negative information about a company, no such transference toward the celebrity is likely to occur.

To summarize, the findings of previous studies found that 1) consumers' cultural orientation did not moderate the relationship between the negative celebrity information and brand evaluation (Money et al., 2006); 2) female consumers were not impacted by negative information to a greater degree than male consumers (Edwards & La Ferle 2009); 3) negative information about the celebrity resulted in lowered evaluations of the brand (Till & Shimp 1998; White et al., 2009); and 4) despite learning negative

information about a celebrity, people with a high level of identification were more likely to feel proud of being a fan, whereas people with a low level of identification were more likely to feel guilty and ashamed of being connected with the celebrity (Johnson, 2005). In addition, empirical studies found that the stock market reaction to negative celebrity information is negatively related to spokesperson blameworthiness (Louie et al., 2001; Knittel & Stango, 2010). These findings suggest that negative impacts (e.g., low stock market returns) are likely to occur when celebrity endorsers are involved in very high blameworthy events, whereas low blameworthy events promote sympathy, liking, and visibility for the spokesperson.

ATTRIBUTION

Attribution theory may be helpful in forming the theoretical framework for the present study because attribution theory explains how consumers attribute negative celebrity information and how this attributional process affects celebrity endorsers and the brands they endorse. This section provides the “backbone” for the theoretical framework. This section discusses attribution theory and the role of cultural orientation. It also examines the factors that may cause different style of attribution and the consequences of consumers’ making dispositional and situational attribution. Finally, it looks at the relationship among elements in attributional processes in a given framework (Figure 1).

Attribution and Attribution Theory

An *attribution*, or *causal attribution*, is an inference about why an event occurred or about a person’s disposition or other psychological state. We make attributions about our own dispositions and experiences, just as we make attributions about those of others

(Weary, Stanley, & Harvey, 1989). According to Kelly (1967), a major goal of attributional processes is to understand, organize, and form meaningful perspectives about the myriad events people observe every day. Thus, attribution theory is mainly concerned with describing and explaining the cognitive processes involved in individuals' causal explanations for human behavior.

According to Heider (1958), people attribute the causal structure of events to the environment (external attribution) or to something within the person involved in the event (internal attribution). In his rather simplistic analysis of action, Heider specified that types of external attributions include the physical and social circumstances surrounding an action, whereas types of internal attributions include the actor's ability, motivation, attitude, or emotional state. Although Heider suggested that people may attribute the cause of an event to internal or external factors, or sometimes to some mix of these internal and external factors, he did not provide much empirical foundation for his ideas. Jones, Kelly, and Weiner developed and expanded some of Heider's key ideas and produced more explicit and testable attribution models (Fletcher & Ward, 1988). For instance, Kelly (1967) suggested that attributors use three types of information to verify whether they have correctly linked causes and effects: the distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus associated with the possible causes. The direction of these causal inferences differs depending on the basis of the three types of information—distinctiveness, consistency (both temporal and modal), and social consensus (Tripp 1990). Mowen and Brown (1981) first suggested that attribution theory could be used to analyze factors affecting the effectiveness of product endorsers.

Researchers have actively pursued empirical investigations of these attributional processes. For instance, Tripp et al. (1994) applied three types of information to measure the effectiveness of multiple product endorsements. In the context of advertising, according to Mowen and Brown (1981), distinctiveness refers to the extent that endorsement occurs uniquely in the presence of the product, while consistency is concerned with the relationship between endorser and product over time and modality. Finally, social consensus is defined as “the tendency of the action to generalize across different kinds of entities” (Tripp, 1990; p. 16). Social consensus deals with the consumer’s perception of whether other individuals view the product similarly. These concepts contribute to our understanding of how multiple product endorsements by celebrities affect consumers' attitudes and intentions.

As already mentioned, the goal of attributional processes is to make sense of the social world in an understandable, predictable, and controllable way (Weary et al., 1989). Thus, the degree of accuracy of our attributions has been a topic of some considerable interest and controversy. The best documented bias or error in attributions is called the “fundamental attribution error” (Ross, 1977). The *fundamental attribution error*, also known as the *correspondence bias*, describes the tendency of people to attribute their own behaviors to external causes and the behavior of others to internal causes (Ross, 1977; Berry et al., 2002). In short, in attributing causes to the behavior of others, the fundamental attribution error is the tendency to underestimate the importance of situational factors and overestimate that of dispositional factors as causes of behavior. Several scholars, however, raised doubts about the universality of this error, suggesting that this tendency might differ by culture (Morris & Peng, 1994; Choi, Nisbett, &

Norenzayan, 1999; Choi, Dalal, Kim-Prieto, & Park, 2003). Markus and Kitayama (1991), for instance, suggested that the fundamental attribution error could be only characteristic of those with an independent view of the self. Others suggested that the fundamental attribution error might be absent or at least reduced in collectivistic cultures (Morris & Peng, 1994; Choi, Nisbett, & Norenzayan, 1999; Choi, Dalal, Kim-Prieto, & Park, 2003)

Causal Attributions and Cultural Orientation

A body of literature suggests that different beliefs, value orientation, and perception of agency are influenced by individual differences in attributional thinking and cultural orientation (Betancourt, Hardin, & Manzi, 1992; Fletcher & Ward, 1988; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). Thus, how consumers attribute the cause of a negative event varies from culture to culture. In light of empirical findings, scholars have rejected the fundamental attributional error, once thought to be universal. Empirical findings support the notion that Westerners attribute the negative behavior of others to internal causes, whereas East Asians attribute to external causes such negative behavior.

Cultural attribution theory asserts that collectivistic and individualistic cultures differ in their tendencies to make dispositional and situational attributions. For example, people in individualistic cultures have a tendency to view behavior as static, consistent across time, and residing within the person (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Ybarra & Stephan, 1999). Unlike people in individualistic cultures, people in collectivistic cultures tend to emphasize situational factors as explanations for the behavior of others. Thus, they view behavior as “more dynamic and driven by context

(social situations, position in the social hierarchy, social roles) and not as residing with the person” (Ybarra & Stephan, 1999, p. 722).

Weary et al. (1989) suggested that the specific attributional content used by people can vary from situation to situation, and attributional content also may vary from culture to culture. Diversity in language and associated cultural meaning systems can influence the causal inference processes—the so-called attributional processes. In sum, attribution theory and attribution processes cannot be applied universally; rather individual and cultural differences exist (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Betancourt et al., 1992; Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong 1999; Choi et al., 1999; Choi, Chiu, Morris, Hong, & Menon, 2000; Choi et al., 2003). Cultural factors, such as holistic vs. analytic thinking, people’s view of the self, and perceived controllability as a property of causal attributions, play a pivotal role in attributing behaviors of others.

Holistic vs. Analytic Thinking

In terms of understanding the universe, East Asians have holistic assumptions that every element in the universe is somehow interconnected, and thus an event or object cannot be understood in isolation from the whole; Westerners, in contrast, have assumptions that the universe consists of atoms that are separate from, and independent of, each other (Choi et al., 2003). These fundamental differences in belief about the degree of the interconnectedness of the universe can lead to significant differences in attributional styles. Research suggests that the person-centered theory that behavior is caused by stable internal personality traits is more dominant in individualistic cultures because individuals are viewed as autonomous entities and are socialized to behave according to preferences.

In contrast to the person-centered theory, the situation-centered theory that behavior is shaped by relationships and situational factors is more prevalent in collectivistic cultures because individuals are seen as part of a social collective and are socialized to behave according to situational constraints and group norms (Morris & Peng, 1994; Triandis, 1995). In sum, Easterners focus on social situations, whereas Westerners focus on the individual. Several studies have found that causal explanations of behavior emphasize the situational context in East Asian cultures, while in Western cultures, causal explanations of behavior largely focus on individual traits (Morris & Peng, 1994; Choi, Nisbett, & Norenzayan, 1999; Choi, Dalal, Kim-Prieto, & Park, 2003)).

People's View of the Self

Differences in people's view of the self may also contribute to different attributional styles. Individualists tend to view the self as a "unique, bounded configuration of internal attributes," whereas collectivists tend to view the self as "inherently social—an integral part of the collective" (Markus & Kitayama, 1994, p. 569-570). This cultural difference may affect beliefs about the genesis of behavior (Krull et al., 1999). As Shweder and Bourne (1982) suggested, individualists may be culturally primed to search for abstract summaries of autonomous individuals, while collectivists may be primed to see context and social relationships as a necessary condition for behavior.

Individualists, thus, view the outcome of the behavior as the product of actors' personalities, whereas collectivists view the outcome of the behavior as due to situational forces. When explaining behavior, dispositions are seen as the primary determinant in

individualistic cultures and situations in collectivistic cultures. In an empirical study, Choi et al. (1999) found that East Asians' model of causality was interactional while that of Americans was dispositional. In other words, East Asians are likely to believe that human behavior is the outcome of a complex interaction between personal and situational factors, while Americans are likely to believe in the dominant power of personal factors. In sum, past research suggests that individualists and collectivists differ in how they explain behavior in a sense that individualists are likely to draw more dispositional explanations and collectivists are more likely to draw more situational explanations.

Interestingly, Cousins (1989) found that Americans used general abstract personality traits (e.g., "I am curious," "I am sincere"), while Japanese reflected their social identities (e.g., "I am a Keiyo student"), when they were asked to describe themselves in the Twenty Statement Test. Japanese self-descriptions were contextualized rather than abstract and specific rather than general. Similarly, Rhee, Uleman, Lee, and Roman (1996) found that Koreans' self-descriptions were more concrete and social than those of Americans.

In addition, in the study of attributions of moral behavior, Miller (1984) found that Americans explained their acquaintances' behavior as either good or bad mainly in terms of corresponding traits, whereas Hindu Indians explained similar events in terms of social roles, obligations, and other context-specific factors. Miller (1984) pointed out that contextual attributions were twice as frequent for Indians as for Americans, whereas dispositional attributions were twice as common for Americans as for Indians. It is interesting note that the cultural difference might be larger for bad behavior than for good behavior, given that good or pro-social behavior is less diagnostic of its corresponding

disposition (Jones & Davis, 1965; Reeder & Brewer, 1979). In short, these results suggest that East Asians have a tendency to make more contextual references and fewer dispositional references than European Americans.

Perceived Controllability as a Property of Causal Attributions

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) identified cross-cultural variation in perceived controllability as a property of causal attributions for success or failure. Among the five value orientations they discussed (human nature orientation, man-nature orientation, time orientation, activity orientation, and relational orientation), the man-nature orientation deals with perceived controllability. In this dimension, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck elaborated on a three-point range of variation in the man-nature orientation: subjugation to nature, harmony with nature, and mastery-over-nature. They suggested that subjugation to nature is dominant in Spanish-American culture, whereas mastery-over-nature orientation is dominant in most Americans; the harmony-with-nature orientation seems to be dominant in China and is evident in Japan as well.

This dimension is relevant to the attribution theory model since it conceives of perceived controllability of causes for a behavioral outcome as a determinant of emotion, motivation, and action. Accordingly, as Betancourt et al. (1992) have noted, perceptions of controllability of causal attributions and their effects on behavior may vary due to cultural differences in values and beliefs regarding control over nature. As Betancourt et al. have suggested, if this is true, differences in attributions and related behavioral phenomena should be observable between cultures that differ on measures of this value orientation. This was documented in a study which found that the United States is high in

perceived control over nature, while Chile and Brazil are low in perceived control over nature (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961).

Spontaneous Trait Inference (STI)

Although evidence is not yet conclusive, it may be that spontaneous trait inference (STI) is less prevalent in context-centered cultures than in person-centered cultures. Spontaneous trait inference is the tendency of people to infer personality traits from behavior without the intention to do so and without necessarily being aware of doing so (Newman & Uleman, 1989; Uleman, 1987; Winter & Uleman, 1984). For instance, Choi et al. (1999) explained that “the statement the librarian carried the old woman’s grocery bags across the street can be interpreted as helpful, even though the word ‘helpful’ is not in the statement” (p. 49).

Choi et al. (1999) suggested that individuals in person-centered cultures may engage in spontaneous trait inference to a greater degree than individuals in context-centered cultures. Some evidence supports this notion. For instance, Newman (1993) found that individuals high in idiocentrism (i.e., personal individualism) are more likely to be helped by trait cues in recalling trait-implying sentences than individuals low in idiocentrism. Similarly, Duff, Newman, and Walsko (1995) also found that people with high idiocentrism showed a modest advantage in recall after being exposed to a trait cue, and people with low idiocentrism showed no recall advantage.

Some cross-cultural evidence suggests that individuals in context-centered cultures are less likely to show spontaneous trait inference. Newman (1991) found no evidence for the occurrence of spontaneous trait inference among urban fifth graders in a Puerto Rican neighborhood where social understanding in culture is context-centered, as

in East Asian culture, whereas he did find evidence for the occurrence of spontaneous traits inference among Anglo American fifth graders; he attributed this difference to the relatively collectivistic nature of the Hispanic culture of Puerto Rican students.

Consistent with the Newman's study, Zarate and Uleman (1991) found evidence of spontaneous trait inference in Anglo university students, whereas they found none in the Hispanic university students.

Empirical studies have supported the idea that cultures differ in the tendency to make situational or dispositional explanations for behavior (Choi et al., 1999; Choi & Markus, 1998; Krull et al., 1999; Menon et al., 1999; Morris & Peng, 1994). For example, Morris and Peng (1994) compared attributions for mass murders in newspapers serving American and Chinese communities. They content-analyzed the newspaper articles, which covered two comparable crimes committed by a Chinese student and an American postal worker and found that American reporters attributed more to personal dispositions and Chinese reporters attributed more to situational factors. American reporters emphasized the Chinese murderer's personality traits, such as his attitude and psychological problems, whereas Chinese reporters emphasized the Chinese murderer's relationship such as relationship with his advisor, other students, and the Chinese community. This attribution pattern was also found in the coverage of the murderer who was an American postal worker. Similarly, when analyzing articles about "rogue trader" scandals, Menon et al. (1999) found that U.S. papers made more mention of the individual trader involved, whereas Japanese papers referred more to the organization. Choi and Markus (1998) conceptually replicated the Morris and Peng (1994) study and discovered a similar divergence in causal attribution between Koreans and Americans.

Their finding suggested that Korean participants preferred contextual explanations, whereas American participants preferred dispositional ones.

To recapitulate, collectivistic and individualistic cultures differ in their tendencies to make dispositional and situational attributions. Individuals in individualistic cultures are likely to view behavior as static, consistent across time, and residing within the person (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Ybarra & Stephan, 1999). In contrast, individuals in collectivistic cultures have a tendency to focus largely on situational factors as explanations for the behavior of others. They tend to view behavior as “more dynamic and driven by context and not as residing with the person” (Ybarra & Stephan, 1992, p. 722). In short, individualists are likely to make dispositional attributions whereas collectivists are likely to make situational attribution when viewing behaviors of others.

Consequences of Attributional Processes

The main focus of this dissertation lies in an idea that cultural differences affect individuals’ attributional styles or attributional processes. These cultural differences in causal attribution have some important implications. Do different attributional styles or attributional processes influence cognitive-judgmental, behavioral, or affective consequences? In other words, what consequences do different attributional styles or attributional processes have when attributing causes to events or to the behaviors of others? What are the consequences of cultural differences in causal attributions? And what, if any, are the impacts on celebrity evaluation and brand evaluation?

Cognitive Judgmental Consequences

Attributions can influence individuals' judgment or decision process. Crimes attributed to internal and or intentional (controllable) factors should lead to harsher evaluation and punishment than crimes attributed to external and or unintentional (uncontrollable) causes (Carroll & Payne, 1976). A crime attributed to a stable cause should be associated with a high expectancy of future crimes (Carroll, Perkowitz, Lurigio, & Weaver, 1987). Similarly, Betancourt et al. (1992) suggested that when another's failure was viewed as controllable, this would result in more negative evaluations and feelings toward the person who failed.

Kelly and Michela (1980) suggested that whether an action is attributed to the actor or to some aspect of the environment affects factors such as liking for the actor, trust in him, and his persuasiveness. For instance, Kelly (1972) and Regan (1978) both found that when a person's helpful act is ascribed to that person, it is responded to more warmly than a similar act that is attributable to external pressure. However, they also found that an externally justified action that harms or frustrates a person is better tolerated and less reciprocated than a similar action attributed to the actor. Similarly, the results of the study Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, & Rosenbaum (1971) suggest that internal attributions, relative to external attributions, heighten affective reactions such as pride for success and shame for failure.

Affective Consequences

When an outcome is negative, unexpected, or especially important, a person makes causal attributions in order to make sense of it. Weiner (1986) suggested that both causal attributions and their underlying causal properties generate more differentiated affects. This view was also supported by Russell and McAuley (1986). For instance,

success attributed to internal factors (personality, ability, or effort) results in greater self-esteem than success attributed to external factors. In contrast, failure attributed internally will result in lower self-esteem than failure that is attributed externally.

If personal failure is due to causes perceived as controllable by others, then anger is elicited. If negative outcomes for other people are due to causes perceived as uncontrollable, then pity is elicited (Averill, 1982). Thus, it is plausible to assume that situational factors may serve as justification when people attribute the cause of events or behaviors of others. As a result, evaluation about the actor or action may be less negative when people attribute causes to situational factors than when people attribute them to dispositional factors. On the other hand, when people attribute the cause of the event to dispositional factors in the actor, it seems that the action is considered “avoidable” or “controllable,” and consequently, evaluation of the actor or action may be more negative when people attribute the cause of a negative event to dispositional factors.

Cognitive Consequences

When evaluations of the cause of an event are necessary, information must be retrieved from memory. Which attribution is more accessible or salient to the perceiver when asked to evaluate an actor’s behavior? According to spontaneous trait inference, people encode behaviors in terms of traits, and trait cues enhance recall. Newman and Uleman (1989) found that trait cues produced better recall of behavioral episodes compared with no cues and even compared with semantic cues.

As Newman (1993) suggested, individuals in context-centered cultures such as East Asian countries may engage in spontaneous trait inference to a lesser degree than individuals in person-centered cultures such as the U.S. Thus, negative behavior

associated with the actor's traits will be more easily recalled by people in person-centered cultures than by those in context-centered cultures. It could be assumed that people in person-centered cultures would evaluate a negative event more negatively than people in context-centered cultures, since behavioral episodes coupled with trait cues will enhance recall and be more accessible.

Attribution and the Relationship Among Elements in Attributional Processes

In attributional processes, elements such as observer, actor, and event interact with each other. How they interact in attributional processes apparently influences the evaluation of actors and of events, and, in a commercial context, the evaluation of brands. Factors such as the level of identification with an actor (e.g., celebrity endorser), brand commitment, and types of negative information seems to moderate the relationship between negative celebrity information and brand evaluation.

Attribution and Celebrity Endorsers' Negative Information

Types of negative information may be sensitive to cultural differences. People differ on how they evaluate negative information, dependent upon whether the actions involved are self-oriented (events affecting the actor him- or herself) or other-oriented (events affecting the actor and others). Individuals' different evaluations of negative information are expected due to self-construals, which may differ culture to culture. Self-construals, according to Markus (1977), are generalizations about the self derived from past experience that are likely to organize and guide the processing of the self-related information contained in an individual's social experience. In general, self-construals have two dimensions (two aspects of self)—independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal. Markus and Kitayama (1991) first made a distinction

between independent and interdependent self-construal. Many studies suggest that independent self-construal is commonly found in many Western cultures such as the U.S. and Canada, while interdependent self-construal is commonly observed in many Asian cultures such as Korea and Japan (Kim & Markus, 1999; Markus 1977; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis 1989).

The behavior of individuals with independent self-construals tends to be “organized and made meaningful by reference to one’s own internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings, and actions, rather than by reference to thoughts, feelings, and actions of others” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, p. 226); this self-construal implies that an individual’s self is a unique and independent entity. Geertz (1974) described the person with independent self-construal as living in “a bounded, unique, more or less integrated motivational and cognitive universe, a dynamic center of awareness, emotion, judgment, and action organized into a distinctive whole and set contrastively both against other such wholes and against a social and natural background” (p. 48).

In contrast with the behavior of individuals with independent self-construal, Markus and Kitayama (1991) observed, the behavior of individuals with interdependent self-construal is likely to be guided and further determined by the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship. Markus and Kitayama suggested that the relationship between the self and others in this self-construal can be characterized not as separate from the social context but as more connected and less differentiated from others (p. 227). People with interdependent self-construal are motivated to find a way to fit in with relevant others. For them, becoming part of various interpersonal relationships is considered important.

Given that people in individualistic cultures are likely to possess independent self-construal while people in collectivistic culture tend to have interdependent self-construal, their response to negative celebrity information might be different. Dependent upon the type of negative celebrity information and whether the scandal involves a celebrity him- or herself or involves others, the impacts on the evaluation of the celebrity and the brand are likely to differ. It may be assumed that other-oriented negative information, which has implications for the social collective, is likely to do more damage on brand evaluations than self-oriented negative information which only damages the celebrity. It is plausible to assume that national culture moderates the relationship between negative information and brand evaluations. Other-oriented negative information could be interpreted as more detrimental to social harmony than self-oriented negative information by people in collectivistic cultures.

Attribution and the Consumers' Level of Identification with a Celebrity Endorser

The relationship between actor and observer is considered important in attributional process. Theories of identification have been well documented in Burke's dramatism theory (1950), Kelman's theory of opinion change (1961), and Bandura's social cognitive theory. Kenneth Burke proposed that communication effectiveness depends on audiences' identification with a fictional character. In this theory, connections between the character and audience members play an important role in forming identification. Kelman proposed three processes of social influence—compliance, identification, and internalization. Kelman maintained that identification occurs when an individual adopts an attitude or behavior from another person and that attitude or behavior is associated with a satisfying self-defining relationship with that person. In

short, when identification occurs, individuals try to be like the other person. Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986) posits that a person's likelihood of enacting a behavior depends on that person's identification with the model. In other words, when individuals perceive themselves to be similar to the model, they are more likely to enact whatever behavior is modeled by that person. Bandura proposed that the identification process occurs when individuals view the model as similar to themselves.

One common proposition made by these theories is that identification is an important factor which underlies attitude and behavior change. Another perspective on the identification process is that of the parasocial relationship. According to Horton and Wohl (1956), individuals develop a sense of intimacy and identification with the celebrity via the media, and this phenomenon is called a *parasocial relationship*. The parasocial relationship is formed when individuals develop varying degrees of identification with a celebrity or media personality. This perspective suggests that identification is a natural outcome of the communication situation, and the parasocial relationship results in varying levels of identification with a celebrity. Thus, it is expected that individuals with high levels of identification with a celebrity are much more likely to adopt thoughts, feelings, and behaviors advocated by that celebrity than those with low levels of identification with that celebrity.

Based on social identity theory, Johnson (2005) predicted that consumers who are strongly identified with a celebrity are less likely to react negatively than consumers with a lower level of identification. She further expected that, in the face of negative information about a celebrity, consumers with a low level of identification with the celebrity will be unlikely to continue to buy products the celebrity endorsed, while

consumers with a high level of identification with the celebrity will continue purchasing the product the celebrity endorsed because they believe their beloved celebrity is innocent.

The findings suggest that in the wake of scandals of Michael Jackson and Kobe Bryant, consumers with a high level of identification with the celebrity were more likely to believe that Michael Jackson and Kobe Bryant were innocent than people with a low level of identification, and the former were more willing to purchase and recommend the product the celebrity endorsed than the latter. The study found that people with a high level of identification were more likely to feel proud of being a fan, whereas people with a low level of identification were more likely to feel guilty and ashamed of being connected with the celebrity. In sum, Johnson's (2005) study suggested that the degree to which consumers identify with a celebrity plays a role in shaping consumers' reactions to the celebrity negative information. Level of identification with a celebrity seems to moderate the relationship between negative information and brand evaluations. The more consumers identify with a celebrity, the less likely they are to be influenced by negative information about that celebrity.

Attribution and the Consumers' Brand Commitment

The relationship between a consumer and a brand is related to brand commitment. Commitment is defined as an emotional or psychological attachment to a brand within a product class (Lastovicka & Gardner, 1979). When commitment to a brand is lower, consumers may be expected to process negative publicity information in a relatively negative manner (Ahluwalia et al., 2000). Consumers with low commitment are likely to view negative publicity as more diagnostic than positive publicity about the brand. The

perceived higher diagnosticity of the negative information would be expected to mediate the attitudinal change experienced by low-commitment consumers as they encounter and react to negative publicity information about a brand.

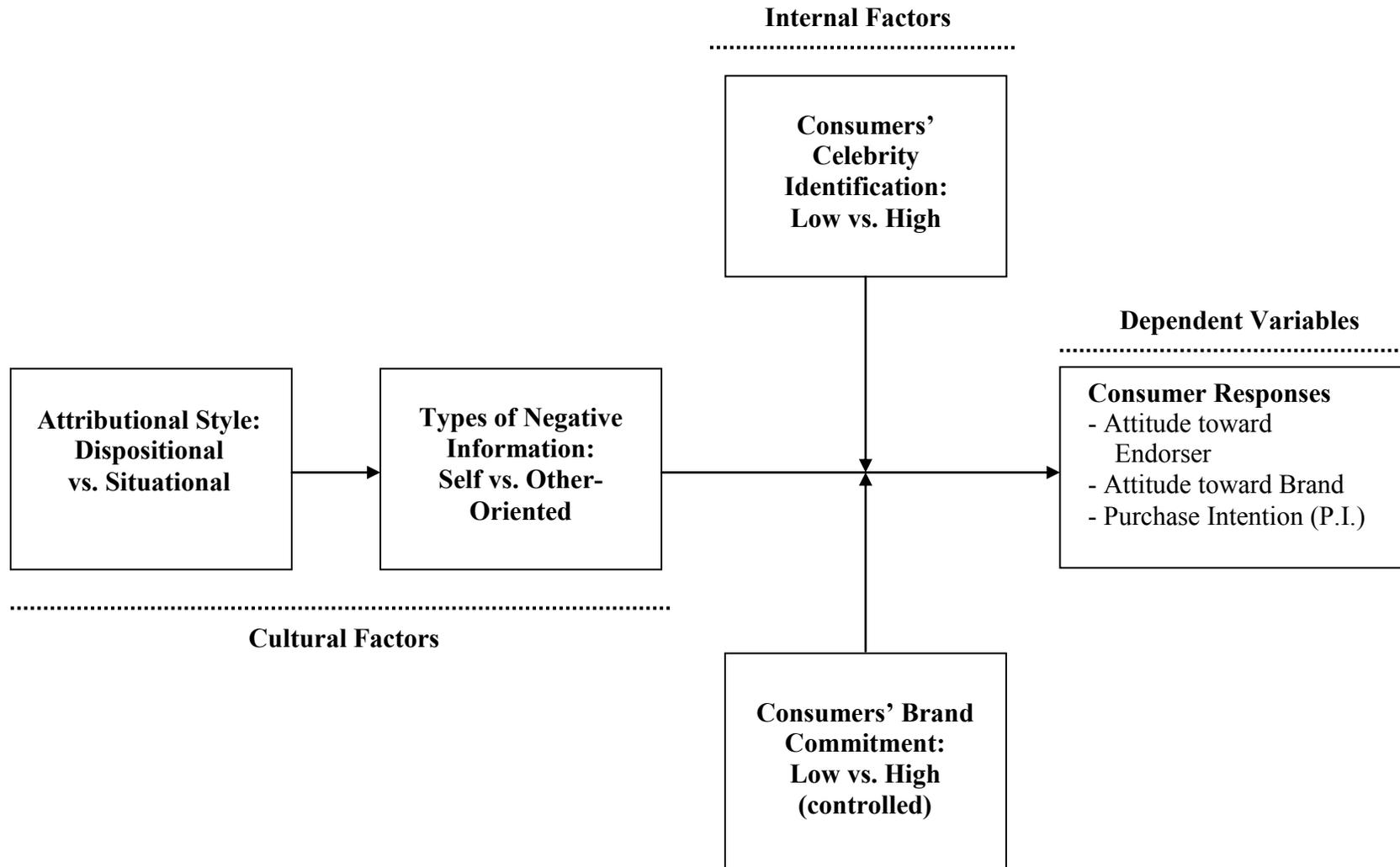
The high-commitment consumers, according to Ahluwalia et al. (2000), are likely to engage in biased processing of the publicity information. They can be expected to counter-argue the negative information more extensively than the positive information (Chaiken, Liberman, & Eagly, 1989; Gross, Holtz, & Miller, 1995). As a result, they tend to resist attitude change in response to negative information. Thus, due to a high level of brand commitment, they are less likely to accept negative information as being more diagnostic (Feldman & Lynch, 1988). A consumer's level of brand commitment, whether low or high, seems to moderate the relationship between negative celebrity information and brand evaluation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Figure 1 summarizes the conceptual framework and features of two attributional styles and two types of negative celebrity information. In the first stage, whether consumers in a different culture make different attributions when exposed to negative celebrity information will be measured. It is expected that cultural orientation affects whether consumers make dispositional or situational attributions. In the second stage, how consumers in a different culture evaluate two types of negative celebrity information (self-oriented vs. other-oriented outcome) will be investigated. The present study posits that people in a collectivistic culture will evaluate an other-oriented outcome more negatively than a self-oriented outcome. As dependent variables, attitude toward an endorser, attitude toward a brand, and purchase intention will be measured. In the third

stage, it is proposed that the level of identification with a celebrity endorser and the level of brand commitment will moderate the relationship between negative celebrity information and outcome variables. In this study, however, consumers' brand commitment is controlled due to an experiment that employs a fictitious brand.

FIGURE 1 Theoretical Framework: Attributional Process of Negative Celebrity Information



CHAPTER III: HYPOTHESES

The primary goal of the present study is to investigate how cultural orientation influences consumers' causal attributional processes and evaluation of different types (self vs. other-oriented) of negative celebrity information. Another goal is to examine whether the level of identification with a celebrity endorser moderates the relationship between negative celebrity information and evaluation of a brand and between a celebrity endorser and purchase intention. Figure 1 illustrates the overall conceptual framework for this process.

Previous studies have found that, depending on their cultural orientation, people make dispositional or situational attributions when they evaluate others' negative behavior. In short, persons from collectivistic cultures are likely to make situational attributions whereas persons from individualistic cultures are likely to make dispositional attributions. Few studies, however, have been conducted to explore the link between the role of culture and attributional processes in evaluating negative information about celebrities. The consequences of people making dispositional or situational attributions have, up to now, rarely been compared or tested. In addition, little is known about whether cultural orientation affects consumers' response to different types of negative celebrity information.

Culture and Attribution

The attributional styles used by people can vary from situation to situation, and attributional content also may vary from culture to culture. Attributional processes are influenced by diversity in language and associated cultural meaning systems. Researchers

have suggested that attribution theory and attribution processes cannot be applied universally; individual differences or cultural differences may exist (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Betancourt, Hardin, & Manzi, 1992; Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999; Choi, Nisbett, & Norenzayan, 1999; Choi, Chiu, Morris, Hong, & Menon, 2000; Choi, Dalal, Kim-Prieto, & Park, 2003). Cultural factors such as holistic vs. analytic thinking, people's view of the self, and perceived controllability as a property of causal attributions result in different attributional styles. People are likely to make situational attributions if they make holistic assumptions about the nature of the universe, view the self as inherently social—an integral part of the collective—and hold a harmony-with-nature orientation. In contrast, people are likely to make dispositional attributions if they think the universe consists of atoms that are separate from, and independent of, each other, view the self as “a unique, bounded configuration of internal attributes, and hold a mastery-over-nature orientation.” The following hypotheses are therefore proposed.

H1a: When exposed to negative celebrity information, people in collectivistic cultures such as Korea will make more attributions to situational factors than will people in individualistic cultures such as the U.S.

H1b: When exposed to negative celebrity information, people in individualistic cultures such as the U.S. will make more attributions to personal dispositions than will people in collectivistic cultures such as Korea.

Consequences of Different Styles of Attribution

Research suggests that different attributional styles or attributional processes influence cognitive-judgmental, behavioral, and affective consequences. From a

cognitive-judgmental perspective, when another person's failure is viewed as controllable, this is likely to result in more negative evaluations and feeling toward the person who failed. In contrast, an externally justified action that harms or frustrates a person is better tolerated than a similar action attributed to the actor. From a behavioral perspective, anger results if a personal failure is due to causes perceived as controllable by the person that fails. Pity is elicited if negative outcomes are due to causes perceived as uncontrollable. Finally, from a cognitive perspective, negative behavior associated with the actor's traits will be more easily recalled by people in person-centered cultures than by people in context-centered cultures. People in person-centered cultures are likely to evaluate a negative event more negatively than people in context-centered cultures since transgression coupled with trait cues will enhance recall and be more accessible. The following hypotheses are therefore proposed.

H2a: People's attributional style may have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.

H2b: Dispositional attribution regarding a celebrity's transgression will lead to a more negative evaluation of a celebrity than will situational attribution.

H2c: Dispositional attribution regarding a celebrity's transgression will lead to a more negative evaluation of a brand than will situational attribution.

H2d: Dispositional attribution regarding a celebrity's transgression will lead to a more negative purchase intention than situational attribution.

Culture and Types of Negative Celebrity Information (Self- vs. Other-Oriented)

People may differ on how they evaluate negative information, depending upon whether the actions involved are self-oriented (events affecting the actor him- or herself) or other-oriented (events affecting the actor and others) because of their respective self-construals. Self-construals, according to Markus (1977), are generalizations about the self derived from past experience. They are likely to organize and guide the processing of the self-related information contained in an individual's social experience (Markus, 1977).

There are two basic dimensions of self-construal: independent self-construal and interdependent self-construal. Markus and Kitayama (1991) first made a distinction between independent and interdependent self-construals. Many studies suggest that independent self-construal is commonly found in many Western cultures such as the U.S. and Canada; interdependent self-construal is commonly observed in many Asian cultures such as Korea and Japan (Kim & Markus, 1999; Markus 1977; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989). However, these two aspects of self are also believed to coexist within the individual (Aaker & Lee, 2001; Brewer & Gardner, 1996). In other words, individuals might have both independent and interdependent self-construal, but they may differ on the strength of each of those dimensions (Singelis, 1994).

The behavior of individuals with independent self-construal tends to be organized and made meaningful by reference to one's own—and not others—internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings, and actions (Markus and Kitayama 1991, p. 226). Independent self-construal implies that an individual's self is a unique and independent entity (Markus & Kitayama). Geertz (1974) also described the person with independent self-construal as living in a “bounded, unique, more or less integrated motivational and cognitive universe,

a dynamic center of awareness, emotion, judgment, and action organized into a distinctive whole and set contrastively both against other such wholes and against a social and natural background” (p. 48).

Markus and Kitayama (1991) observed that the behavior of individuals with interdependent self-construal is likely to be guided and further determined by the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship. Markus and Kitayama suggested that the relationship between the self and others in this self-construal can be characterized not as separate from the social context but as more connected and less differentiated from others (p. 227). People with interdependent self-construal are motivated to find a way to fit in with relevant others. For them, becoming part of various interpersonal relationships is considered important.

It seems probable that the type of negative celebrity information will matter little to American consumers, who are not expected to be sensitive to one form of negative information over another. In contrast, Korean consumers are likely to be sensitive to other-oriented negative information due to their collectivistic nature, which values harmony with the society to which they belong. Korean consumers may consider other-oriented negative information “detrimental” to social harmony. As a result, they will evaluate other-oriented negative information more negatively than self-oriented negative information.

The following hypotheses are therefore proposed.

H3a: Types of negative celebrity information may have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.

H3b: For consumers in collectivistic cultures such as Korea, negative celebrity information that is other-oriented will lead to more negative celebrity evaluation than will self-oriented negative celebrity information.

H3c: For consumers in collectivistic cultures such as Korea, negative celebrity information that is other-oriented will lead to a more negative brand evaluation than will self-oriented negative celebrity information.

H3d: For consumers in collectivistic cultures such as Korea, negative celebrity information that is other-oriented will lead to lower levels of purchase intention than will self-oriented negative celebrity information.

H3e: In evaluating the brand or the celebrity endorser, consumers in individualistic cultures such as the U.S. will perceive little, if any, significant difference between negative self-oriented celebrity information and negative other-oriented celebrity information.

Identification with Celebrity Endorser

Identification occurs when an individual adopts an attitude or behavior from another person when that attitude or behavior is associated with a satisfying, self-defining relationship with that person (Kelman, 1961). In short, when a person identifies with another, he tries to be like that other. Bandura (1986) suggests that a person's likelihood of enacting a behavior depends on that person's identification with the model. In other

words, when individuals perceive themselves as similar to the model, they are more likely to enact whatever behavior is modeled by that person.

In an advertising context, individuals with high levels of identification with a celebrity are much more likely to adopt thoughts, feelings, and behaviors advocated by that celebrity than those with low levels of identification with that celebrity. When negative celebrity information is released, people with a high level of identification with the celebrity might be expected to be more likely to feel proud of being a fan whereas those with a low level of identification might be more likely to feel guilty and ashamed of being connected with the celebrity.

Brand commitment literature suggests that when consumers have lower brand commitment, they are likely to process negative publicity in a relatively objective manner. When consumers have higher brand commitment, they are likely to engage in biased processing of the negative publicity (Ahluwalia, Burnkrant, & Unnava, 2000). Consumers with high brand commitment are likely to counter-argue the negative information more extensively than the positive information (Chaiken, Liberman, & Eagly, 1989; Gross, Holtz, & Miller, 1995). In short, consumers whose commitment to a brand is high resist changing their attitude; consumers with low commitment are likely to yield to the negative information and consequently change their attitude toward a brand. Ahluwalia, Unnava, and Burnkrant (2001) also asserted that brand commitment tends to enlarge a consumer's capacity for forgiveness.

Although the concept "commitment" is not the same as "identification" and cannot be used interchangeably, the underlying idea—"a type of attachment to a

brand”—is similar and is related to identification. Lastovicka and Gardner (1979) defined brand commitment as the pledging or binding of a person to his or her brand choice with a product class; attachment is a person’s binding to a brand. Thomson (2006) asserted that celebrities are considered human brands that must be professionally managed.

In light of this discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H4a: People’s level of identification with a celebrity endorser may have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.

H4b: After being exposed to negative celebrity information, people with a high level of identification will evaluate a brand less negatively than will people with a low level of identification.

H4c: After being exposed to negative celebrity information, people with high level of identification will evaluate a celebrity endorser less negatively than will people with a low level of identification.

H4d: After being exposed to negative celebrity information, people with a high level of identification will have a higher purchase intent than will people with a low level of identification.

Brand Commitment

Commitment is defined as an emotional or psychological attachment to a brand within a product class. When commitment to a brand is lower, consumers evaluate negative publicity in a less biased and more diagnostic manner (Ahluwalia et al., 2000). Consumers with low commitment are likely to view negative publicity as more diagnostic than positive publicity about the brand. High-commitment consumers, according to

Ahluwalia et al. (2000), are likely to process the publicity in a biased manner. They are expected to counter-argue the negative information more extensively than the positive information (Chaiken, Liberman, and Eagly 1989; Gross, Holtz, and Miller 1995). As a result, they tend to resist attitude change in response to negative information. Thus, due to a high level of brand commitment, they are less likely to accept negative information as more diagnostic (Feldman and Lynch 1988).

The high-commitment consumers, according to Ahluwalia et al. (2000), are likely to engage in biased processing of the publicity. They can be expected to counter-argue the negative information more extensively than they will the positive information (Chaiken, Liberman, & Eagly, 1989; Gross, Holtz, & Miller, 1995). As a result, they tend to resist attitude change in response to negative information. Thus, due to a high level of brand commitment, they are less likely to accept negative information as being more diagnostic (Feldman & Lynch, 1988).

In an advertising context, when people with high commitment to a brand are exposed to negative celebrity information, they are less likely to be influenced by it. However, since this study is going to use a fictitious brand for experimental purposes, measuring brand commitment will not be possible. Brand commitment, like brand loyalty, is an accumulated asset that develops in consumers' minds over a period of time. The concept of brand commitment is introduced to explain its role in a proposed theoretical framework. Thus, there will be no hypotheses testing. The expected outcomes will be discussed in a section of study limitations if a real brand is used in this study. Table 1 provides a summary of the proposed hypotheses.

Table 1 Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Attitude Change
H1a	Korean subjects make more situational attributions than U.S. subjects.
H1b	U.S. subjects make more dispositional attributions than Korean subjects.
H2a	Attributional styles affect celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.
H2b	Dispositional attribution leads to more negative celebrity evaluation than situational attribution.
H2c	Dispositional attribution leads to more negative brand evaluation than situational attribution.
H2d	Dispositional attribution leads to more negative purchase intention than situational attribution.
H3a	Types of negative celebrity information have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.
H3b	Other-oriented negative information leads, among Korean subjects, to more negative celebrity evaluation.
H3c	Other-oriented negative information leads, among Korean subjects, to more negative brand evaluation.
H3d	Other-oriented negative information leads, among Korean subjects, to more negative purchase intention.
H3e	No significant difference exists among American subjects.
H4a	One's level of identification affects one's celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.
H4b	A high level of identification leads to less negative celebrity evaluation.
H4c	A high level of identification leads to less negative brand evaluation.
H4d	A high level of identification leads to less negative purchase intention.

CHAPTER IV: METHODOLOGY

For the present study, a total of three pretests and a main study will be conducted to test the proposed hypotheses. This chapter gives an overview of the study's design, the major constructs and measurement, the data collection procedure, and the sampling.

Experimental Design

To test the proposed hypotheses, a 2x2x2 between-subjects factorial design is employed. The three factors are attributional style (dispositional or situational attribution), type of negative celebrity information (self- vs. other-oriented), and level of identification with a celebrity endorser (low or high identification). However, in order to verify that negative celebrity information, regardless of types of information, affect celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention, a control group is part of a design. Data from the control group were not used in hypotheses testing. Subjects' attributional style is a measured variable, while type of negative celebrity information is a manipulated variable. Attributional styles were measured in two ways. First, subjects were given a chance to write the possible causes of the event (negative celebrity information) and their answers were content-analyzed by two independent coders from each country. Second, subjects were asked to rate 12 possible given causes of the event (6 dispositional factors and 6 situational factors). Negative celebrity information, as a manipulated variable, was devised to manipulate self- or other-oriented information. The level of identification with a celebrity was measured and then divided, by median split,

into two groups, a low and a high group. The level of identification with a celebrity, as suggested in the theoretical framework, is expected to serve as a moderator.

Pretests

Pretests were conducted to determine a celebrity, a product, and an incident reflecting negatively on a celebrity. In selecting a celebrity and his negative behavior, it is important to eliminate cultural bias. In choosing a product category for the study, the product relatedness to a celebrity will also be measured.

Choice of Celebrity

A list of 10 celebrities was generated by 10 U.S. college students (5 males and 5 females) and 12 Korean college students (6 males and 6 females). Subjects were asked to list their five favorite Hollywood movie actors/actresses. The ten most frequently mentioned celebrities in both countries were selected for the pretest (Appendix A). Those ten were Johnny Depp, Jonathan Rhys, Ashton Kutcher, Shia LaBeouf, Orlando Bloom, Daniel Radcliffe, Matt Dammon, Brad Pitt, Wentworth Miller, Leonardo DiCaprio, Christian Bale, and Jude Law. These 10 celebrities were again measured on four dimensions, such as likability, trustworthiness, familiarity, and identification in both countries. In the pretest, 44 U.S. college students and 41 Korean college students participated and provided their opinion on each celebrity.

In the pretest, if subjects from both countries viewed celebrities significantly differently, on any dimension and by a significant margin, those celebrities were excluded as potential celebrity endorsers for the main study. Consequently, excluded from this study were the celebrities Johnny Depp, Asthon Kutcher, Shia LaBeouf, Daniel

Radcliffe, Matt Damon, Brad Pitt, Wentworth Miller, Leonardo DiCaprio, and Christian Bale. A series of independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare celebrities' familiarity, likability, trustworthiness, and identification between countries. As shown in Table 2, significant differences were revealed in in Johnny Depp's familiarity, Ashton Kutcher's familiarity, Shia LaBeouf's likability, Daniel Radcliffe's likability, Matt Damon's likability, Brad Pitt's likability, Wentworth Miller's familiarity, Leonardo DiCaprio's likability, and Christian Bale's familiarity.

Table 2 Results of Celebrity Evaluation by Countries

Celebrities	Dimensions	U.S. (n=44)	Korea (n=41)	P-Value
Johnny Depp	Likability	5.19	5.20	ns
	Credibility	4.69	4.49	ns
	Familiarity	6.04	5.01	.022
	Identification	3.63	3.54	n/s
Jonathan Rhys	Likability	4.35	4.45	ns
	Credibility	3.78	3.75	ns
	Familiarity	4.87	4.45	ns
	Identification	3.31	3.29	ns
Ashton Kutcher	Likability	5.59	5.52	ns
	Credibility	4.89	4.49	ns
	Familiarity	6.04	5.00	.034
	Identification	3.69	4.05	ns
Shia LaBeouf	Likability	5.30	4.77	.042
	Credibility	4.65	4.26	ns
	Familiarity	5.56	4.70	ns
	Identification	3.83	3.42	ns
Orlando Bloom	Likability	5.09	4.93	ns
	Credibility	4.65	4.50	ns
	Familiarity	5.48	5.70	ns
	Identification	3.57	3.33	ns
Daniel Radcliffe	Likability	5.13	4.32	.045
	Credibility	4.83	4.34	ns
	Familiarity	6.26	6.10	ns
	Identification	3.69	3.26	n/s

Matt Damon	Likability	5.72	4.91	.041
	Credibility	5.06	4.91	ns
	Familiarity	5.96	5.00	ns
	Identification	4.11	3.79	n/s
Brad Pitt	Likability	5.94	4.93	.009
	Credibility	4.73	3.96	.023
	Familiarity	6.30	6.05	ns
	Identification	3.86	3.58	ns
Wentworth Miller	Likability	4.90	4.65	ns
	Credibility	4.32	4.46	ns
	Familiarity	3.39	5.05	.02
	Identification	3.40	3.56	ns
Leonardo DiCaprio	Likability	6.00	5.15	.003
	Credibility	5.19	4.52	ns
	Familiarity	6.13	5.65	ns
	Identification	3.40	4.52	ns
Christian Bale	Likability	4.94	4.70	ns
	Credibility	4.73	4.51	ns
	Familiarity	5.47	4.65	.039
	Identification	3.56	3.62	ns
Jude Law	Likability	4.94	5.37	ns
	Credibility	4.33	4.47	ns
	Familiarity	5.65	5.30	ns
	Identification	3.29	3.69	ns

After a series of independent sample t-tests between countries, Jonathan Rhys, Orlando Bloom, and Jude Law survived and remained as potential candidates for the main study. A series of independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare celebrities' familiarity, likability, trustworthiness, and identification between genders within a country, as shown in Tables 3 and 4. Among the three remaining celebrities, no significant differences arose in their familiarity, likability, trustworthiness, and identification by U.S. college students. However, as shown in Table 5, there was a significant difference in Jonathan Rhys' familiarity for Korean males ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 0.816$) and Korean females ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 1.476$); $t(39) = 2.39$, $p = 0.028$, and in Jude

Law's familiarity for Korean males ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 1.861$) and Korean females ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.650$); $t(39) = 2.13$, $p = 0.045$.

Table 3 Celebrity Evaluation by Gender in U.S.

Celebrities	Dimensions	Male (n=21)	Female (n=23)	P-Value
Johnny Depp	Likability	5.23	5.15	ns
	Credibility	4.57	4.78	ns
	Familiarity	5.90	6.15	ns
	Identification	3.58	3.68	ns
Jonathan Rhys	Likability	4.50	5.15	ns
	Credibility	4.30	4.40	ns
	Familiarity	3.60	3.92	ns
	Identification	3.30	3.32	ns
Ashton Kutcher	Likability	4.80	6.21	.003
	Credibility	4.51	5.18	.029
	Familiarity	6.00	6.08	ns
	Identification	3.08	4.17	.031
Shia LaBeouf	Likability	4.87	5.64	ns
	Credibility	4.50	4.77	ns
	Familiarity	5.80	5.38	ns
	Identification	3.86	3.80	ns
Orlando Bloom	Likability	4.90	5.07	ns
	Credibility	4.39	4.85	ns
	Familiarity	5.70	5.31	ns
	Identification	3.18	3.86	ns
Daniel Radcliffe	Likability	4.40	5.80	.045
	Credibility	4.75	4.88	ns
	Familiarity	6.50	6.08	ns
	Identification	3.42	3.88	n/s
Matt Damon	Likability	5.50	5.90	.041
	Credibility	5.00	5.12	ns
	Familiarity	6.40	5.62	ns
	Identification	4.18	4.06	n/s
Brad Pitt	Likability	5.83	6.03	ns
	Credibility	4.74	4.71	ns
	Familiarity	6.50	5.62	ns
	Identification	3.98	3.77	ns

Celebrities	Dimensions	Male (n=21)	Female (n=23)	P-Value
Wentworth Miller	Likability	4.23	5.41	.043
	Credibility	4.01	4.55	ns
	Familiarity	2.80	3.85	.ns
	Identification	3.04	3.68	ns
Leonardo DiCaprio	Likability	6.00	6.00	ns
	Credibility	5.40	5.03	ns
	Familiarity	6.80	5.62	ns
	Identification	4.18	3.88	ns
Christian Bale	Likability	4.63	5.18	ns
	Credibility	4.78	4.72	ns
	Familiarity	6.10	5.00	ns
	Identification	3.50	3.60	n/s
Jude Law	Likability	4.73	5.10	ns
	Credibility	4.57	4.14	ns
	Familiarity	5.70	5.62	ns
	Identification	3.02	3.49	ns

Table 4 Celebrity Evaluation by Gender in Korea

Celebrities	Dimensions	Male (n=16)	Female (n=25)	P-Value
Johnny Depp	Likability	4.94	5.31	ns
	Credibility	4.55	4.46	ns
	Familiarity	5.17	5.07	ns
	Identification	2.53	3.97	.024
Jonathan Rhys	Likability	4.00	4.64	ns
	Credibility	4.24	4.17	ns
	Familiarity	2.67	4.21	.028
	Identification	3.03	3.40	ns
Ashton Kutcher	Likability	5.39	5.57	ns
	Credibility	4.38	4.54	.ns
	Familiarity	4.50	5.21	ns
	Identification	4.27	3.96	ns
Shia LaBeouf	Likability	4.11	5.05	ns
	Credibility	4.07	4.34	ns
	Familiarity	4.33	4.86	ns
	Identification	3.10	3.56	ns
Orlando Bloom	Likability	5.22	4.81	ns
	Credibility	4.88	4.16	ns
	Familiarity	5.16	5.92	ns
	Identification	3.80	3.13	ns
Daniel Radcliffe	Likability	3.94	4.81	ns
	Credibility	4.88	4.16	ns
	Familiarity	4.83	6.64	.006
	Identification	3.10	3.33	ns
Matt Damon	Likability	3.94	4.48	.ns
	Credibility	4.26	4.37	ns
	Familiarity	5.17	4.93	ns
	Identification	3.80	3.13	ns
Brad Pitt	Likability	5.33	4.76	ns
	Credibility	4.29	3.82	ns
	Familiarity	6.00	6.07	ns
	Identification	4.07	3.13	ns

Finally, based on multiple series of independent t-tests results, Orlando Bloom was selected as the celebrity for the main study because he posed no significant differences in familiarity, likability, trustworthiness, and identification regardless of country and gender.

Choice of Product

In order to choose a product for the main study, participants answered questions about five major product categories (i.e. consumer electronics, household products, personal care products, cosmetic products, and soft drinks). The questions related to product involvement, product knowledge, product purchase, and product usage. The five product categories were based on FCB Matrix Classification. Consumer electronics were selected from Quadrant I (high/think products); cosmetics were selected from Quadrant II (high/feel products); personal care and household products were selected from Quadrant III (low/think products); and soft drinks were selected from Quadrant IV (low/feel products). Two product categories were selected from Quadrant III because celebrities are more likely to endorse products from this classification than from other classifications (Choi, Lee, and Kim; 2005).

A series of independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare product involvement and product knowledge between genders and countries. Cosmetic products and soft drinks were excluded as potential product categories for the main study because involvement of the two countries showed statistically significant differences. As shown in Table 5, there were significant differences in cosmetics product involvement for U.S. ($M = 3.95, SD = 1.726$) and Korea ($M = 5.65, SD = 1.722$); $t(83) = 3.21, p = 0.003$ and soft

drink product involvement for U.S. ($M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.281$) and Korea ($M = 5.07$, $SD = 1.193$); $t(83) = 3.59$, $p = 0.001$.

Table 5 Product Evaluation by Countries

Categories	Dimensions	U.S. (n=44)	Korea (n=41)	P-Value
Consumer	Involvement	5.86	6.04	ns
Electronics	Knowledge	4.49	4.10	ns
Household	Involvement	4.52	4.59	ns
Products	Knowledge	3.88	3.54	ns
Personal Care	Involvement	5.21	5.28	n/s
Products	Knowledge	4.30	4.08	ns
Cosmetic	Involvement	3.95	5.65	.003
Products	Knowledge	3.33	4.05	ns
Soft Drinks	Involvement	3.71	5.07	.001
	Knowledge	4.66	4.36	ns

After a series of independent sample t-tests between gender within a county, household products and personal care products were removed from the list of potential product categories for the main study. Although no significant differences in product involvement and product knowledge existed among Korean college students, significant differences did exist among U.S. college students. As shown in Table 6, there were significant differences in household product involvement for U.S. males ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 0.563$) and U.S. females ($M = 4.91$, $SD = 0.860$); $t(42) = 2.91$, $p = 0.008$ and personal care product involvement for U.S. males ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 0.759$) and U.S. females ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 0.963$); $t(42) = 2.74$, $p = 0.012$.

Table 6 Product Evaluation by Gender in U.S.

Categories	Dimensions	Male (n=21)	Female (n=23)	P-Value
Consumer Electronics	Involvement	6.20	5.61	ns
	Knowledge	4.98	4.52	ns
Household Products	Involvement	4.00	4.91	.008
	Knowledge	3.44	4.21	ns
Personal Care Products	Involvement	4.64	5.65	.012
	Knowledge	3.86	4.65	ns
Cosmetic Products	Involvement	2.70	4.92	.001
	Knowledge	2.30	4.12	.002
Soft Drinks	Involvement	4.31	3.25	.001
	Knowledge	5.04	4.37	ns

Table 7 Product Evaluation by Gender in Korea

Categories	Dimensions	Male (n=16)	Female (n=25)	P-Value
Consumer Electronics	Involvement	6.15	5.86	ns
	Knowledge	4.17	3.90	ns
Household Products	Involvement	4.64	4.47	ns
	Knowledge	3.52	3.57	ns
Personal Care Products	Involvement	5.21	5.45	ns
	Knowledge	3.96	4.37	ns
Cosmetic Products	Involvement	5.61	5.73	ns
	Knowledge	4.01	4.13	ns
Soft Drinks	Involvement	5.28	4.98	ns
	Knowledge	4.40	4.27	ns

Finally, based on multiple series of independent sample t-test results, consumer electronics was selected as a product category. The results showed that college students in both countries have high involvement and knowledge in consumer electronics products.

Among all respondents, 14% (n = 12) had purchased a consumer electronic less than a month earlier, 41% (n = 35) had purchased an electronic one to six months earlier, 26% (n = 22) had purchased one six to twelve months earlier, and 19% of respondents (n

= 16) had purchased one more than a year earlier. When asked how often they used a consumer electronic product, 42% of respondents (n = 36) answered they used one daily; 58% (n = 49) answered weekly. Asked to list their top three consumer electronic brands, participants provided a list of products ranging from notebooks, digital cameras, mp3 players, printers, Tablet PCs, cell-phones, calculators, radios, and so on. For favorite companies, they listed such companies as Apple, Sony Samsung, LG, HP, Texas Instruments, Philips, Sanyo, Microsoft, HTC, RIM, and others.

For favorite electronics, the most frequently mentioned products were digital cameras, Tablet PCs, notebooks, printers, and MP3 players. A measurement of compatibility (Rifon et al., 2004; Trimble and Rifon, 2006) between Orlando Bloom and the five products was conducted. As shown in Table 8, based on the compatibility test results, the digital camera was selected as the product for the main study. The brand name assigned the digital camera was VX Pro-500. A fictitious brand name was used to eliminate prior knowledge of an existing brand.

Table 8 Compatibility between Orlando Bloom and Five Products

Products	U.S. (n=27)	Korea (n=21)
Digital Camera	5.22	5.30
Tablet PC	4.40	4.41
MP3 Player	4.17	4.39
Notebook	3.93	3.90
Printer	3.37	1.69

Choice of Transgression

Subjects were asked to rate the severity of ten transgressions. Ten transgressions were generated from the author's previous study on "typology of celebrity scandals." In that study, the author collected more than 60 cases of celebrity scandals that had occurred in the previous five years. Ten frequently occurring transgressions were selected in the pretest. Of the ten transgressions, child molestation and adultery were excluded as potential transgressions for the main study. These transgressions were shown to have statistically significant differences between countries or between genders. Independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare the severity of a transgression between countries and between genders within a country. As shown in Tables 9 and 10, there were significant differences in child molestation between the U.S. ($M = 4.01, SD = 0.021$) and Korea ($M = 6.88, SD = 0.393$); $t(83) = 34.65, p = 0.000$, in smoking marijuana between the U.S. ($M = 4.01, SD = 1.744$) and Korea ($M = 5.11, SD = 1.450$); $t(83) = 1.77, p = 0.039$ and in adultery between U.S. males ($M = 4.95, SD = 1.813$) and U.S. females ($M = 6.31, SD = 0.693$); $t(42) = 2.49, p = 0.021$.

Table 9 Severity of Transgression by Countries

Types of Transgression	U.S. (n=44)	Korea (n=41)	P-Value
Drug Abuse	5.70	5.60	ns
Driving Under Influence	5.90	5.96	ns
Adultery	5.71	6.13	ns
Battery	6.28	5.76	ns
Smoking Marijuana	4.23	5.11	0.039
Sexual Harassment	6.47	6.51	ns
Child Molesting	4.01	6.88	.000
Theft	6.00	6.13	ns
Animal Cruelty	6.35	6.14	ns
Contempt	5.61	5.13	ns

Table 10 Severity of Transgression by Gender in U.S.

Types of Transgression	male (n=21)	female (n=23)	P-Value
Drug Abuse	5.38	5.94	ns
Driving Under Influence	5.58	5.85	ns
Adultery	4.95	6.31	.021
Battery	5.82	6.63	ns
Smoking Marijuana	4.00	4.42	ns
Sexual Harassment	6.33	6.58	ns
Child Molesting	4.03	4.00	ns
Theft	5.78	6.17	ns
Animal Cruelty	6.15	6.50	ns
Contempt	5.05	6.04	ns

Table 11 Severity of Transgression by Gender in Korea

Types of Transgression	male (n=16)	female (n=25)	P-Value
Drug Abuse	5.79	5.59	ns
Driving Under Influence	5.84	5.95	ns
Adultery	6.04	6.16	.ns
Battery	5.92	5.70	ns
Smoking Marijuana	5.50	4.95	ns
Sexual Harassment	6.75	6.41	ns
Child Molesting	6.83	6.89	ns
Theft	6.10	6.18	ns
Animal Cruelty	6.17	6.13	ns
Contempt	5.08	5.14	ns

Excluded were four of the remaining seven transgressions, battery (mean of $x = 6.28/5.76$ in U.S./Korea), sexual harassment (mean of $x = 6.47/6.51$ in U.S./Korea), theft (mean of $x = 6.00/6.13$ in U.S./Korea), and animal cruelty (mean of $x = 6.35/6.14$ in U.S./Korea). They were excluded because of high severity (mean of $x > .6.0$). On a 7 point scale, a mean greater than 6.0 is considered high. As a result, what survived the first screening were drug abuse, DUI, and contempt. However, DUI was selected as the transgression for the main study due to its frequent occurrence among Hollywood movie stars. To name only a few, Paris Hilton, Lindsay Lohan, Mel Gibson, and Kiefer Sutherland were caught driving under influence in 2010. More importantly, a DUI is well suited for creating self-oriented and other-oriented negative celebrity information for the main study.

Study Subjects

A total of 476 subjects, 237 from Korea and 239 from U.S., were recruited to participate in the experiment. The experiment was conducted through the Internet. In the U.S., students enrolled in a major southwestern state university were given the opportunity to participate in the experiment to receive extra course credit. In Korea, students enrolled in a major university in Seoul were recruited to participate in the study in return for extra course credit.

Stimuli Development

Two stimuli were developed. First, a print ad for a fictitious brand (VX-Pro 500) was created with the help of a professional advertising agency in Korea to make the ad more realistic. An English version of the print ad was created and then translated into Korean for the Korean subjects. In order to validate the accuracy of the translation and to avoid mistranslations, a back-translation procedure was carried out before the main study was done. Second, two types of negative celebrity information (self- vs. other-oriented) were developed with the selected transgression, DUI. The second stimulus took the format of a newspaper article, which described a celebrity scandal and its impact (affecting the celebrity only or also affecting others).

Three self-oriented and three other-oriented news articles were generated with variations on the details. They were then measured to determine the severity of the event, as shown in Table 12. Based on the severity results, self-oriented article B (mean = 5.58) and other-oriented article A (mean = 5.58) were selected for the main study. Table 13 shows whether people perceived the articles as intended. The Chi-Square result suggests

that people saw the self-oriented article as self-oriented and the other-oriented article as other-oriented ($\chi^2 = 13.47, p < .001$).

Table 12 Manipulation Check: Severity of Each DUI Accident

Types of News Article		Results
Self-Oriented News	Self Article A (n=11)	M= 5.41
	Self Article B (n=10)	M= 5.58
	Self Article C (n=13)	M=6.02
Other-Oriented News	Other Article A (n=14)	M= 5.58
	Other Article B (n=12)	M= 6.08
	Other Article C (n=10)	M= 6.06

Table 13 Manipulation Check: Self vs. Other-Oriented Negative Celebrity Information

Types of News Article		Results
Self-Oriented News	Self Article 1 (n=11)	Self-oriented (n=10) vs. Other-oriented (n=1)
	Self Article 2 (n=10)	Self-oriented (n=9) vs. Other-oriented (n=1)
	Self Article 3 (n=13)	Self-oriented (n=12) vs. Other-oriented (n=1)
Other-Oriented News	Other Article 1 (n=14)	Self-oriented (n=2) vs. Other-oriented (n=12)
	Other Article 2 (n=12)	Self-oriented (n=2) vs. Other-oriented (n=10)
	Other Article 3 (n=10)	Self-oriented (n=2) vs. Other-oriented (n=8)

Measures

Attributional Style (Dispositional vs. Situational Attribution)

A crucial step in this study was to measure how patterns of attribution differ across cultures. The theoretical background of the study is derived from the assumption that people make different attributions based on their cultural orientation. In previous studies related to attributional styles, two types of measures have predominated. First, several studies have used a content analysis method to investigate how people attribute the cause of an event. Studies have compared articles about murders in the leading

English-language and Chinese-language U.S. newspapers (Michael et al., 1994), analyzed newspaper explanations for rogue trader scandals in leading papers from a Confucian-influenced East Asian society (Japan) and an individualistic North American society (the U.S.) (Menon et al., 1999), and provided newspaper analysis of real-life events in a natural context (Lee, Hallahan, & Herzog, 1996; Morris & Peng, 1994). Thus, the present study asked participants to provide the possible causes of the event (negative celebrity information). Coders then coded the responses as being an attribution to a personal disposition of the scandal, an attribution to a situational factor, or neither (non-attribution or unclassifiable attribution). A coding scheme was prepared before the main study and coders were given a training session.

Second, much research has generated potential causes from a typology of achievement attributions in which internally and externally are crossed with stability and instability (Weiner et al., 1971). Studies provide possible causes of an event such as internal, stable properties of the actor (i.e., dispositions) and external, unstable factors and ask subjects to rate each possible cause. Researchers have found that, depending on their culture, subjects give greater weight to either personal dispositions or situational factors (Morris & Peng, 1994; Menon et al., 1999). Thus to measure attributional styles, subjects were presented a series of 12 possible causes of an event (celebrity scandal). These causes were constructed with 6 personal dispositions and 6 situational factors. Subjects were asked to rate each factor using the following scale: 1 = not a cause at all, 2 = a minor cause, 3 = one of many causes, 4 = a major cause, 5 = a very important cause, 6 = an extremely important cause, and 7 = the most important cause.

Cultural Orientation

University students in the United States and Korea, with matching demographic profiles, were recruited to participate in this experiment. Past research on cultural orientation suggests that the United States tends to be highly individualistic and Korea highly collectivistic (Hofstede, 1980). Much research, however, has produced rather confounding results. For instance, Aaker and Williams (1998) found the exact opposite result that Chinese students show more individualistic attributes than U.S. college students. Thus, it is required that the study should measure cultural orientation of subjects in Korea and U.S. The Individualism-Collectivism Scale (INDCOL) (Hui, 1988) is a widely used measure of feelings, beliefs, intentions, and behaviors that are consistent with an individualist or a collectivist cultural orientation. Hui (1988) reported a consistent pattern of construct validation. Thus, a 17-item scale from Hui was employed to measure subjects' cultural orientation.

Mediating Variables

Identification with Celebrity

People exposed to media personalities develop, over time, a sense of intimacy and identification with a celebrity. Scholars call this a parasocial relationship (Horton & Wohl, 1956). Rubin and Perse (1987) suggested that identification is a natural output of the communication situation. Thus, people develop a varying degree of identification with the celebrity or media personality as a result of parasocial relationships. Brown and Fraser (2004) defined identification as the process by which audience members seek to

adopt the values, beliefs, or behavior of well-known public figures or popular media characters.

To assess subjects' identification with the celebrity, a 7-point scale with five items—"I like celebrity A," "I can easily relate to celebrity A," "I think of celebrity A as a good friend," "I have no doubt celebrity A and I would work well together," and "Celebrity A is a personal role model"—was adopted from previous studies (Lammie, 2007; Rubin & McHugh, 1987; Rubin, Perse, & Powell, 1985).

Dependent Variables

Olson and Dover (1978) suggested that brand attitudes and purchase intentions are measured to indicate the multiple effects of a particular communication message on cognitive structure variables. Spears and Singh (2004) also maintained that attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions are "two pivotal and popular constructs that have been routinely used by advertising scholars and practitioners" (p. 54). After subjects are exposed to negative celebrity information, it is important to measure the effects of the negative celebrity information on the celebrity him- or herself, on the brand, and on consumers' purchase intentions. Thus, attitude toward the celebrity, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intentions will be measured as dependent variables in the study.

Attitude toward Celebrity

To measure attitude toward the celebrity, the celebrity's likeability, expertise, and trustworthiness were measured on a 7-point scale anchored with "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree." First, likeability is defined as affection for the source as a result of the source's physical appearance and behavior (McCracken, 1989). A three-item, seven-

point semantic differential scale, “very likeable/very unlikeable,” “very unpleasant/very pleasant,” and “very agreeable/very disagreeable” (Tripp et al., 1994) was used to measure a celebrity’s likeability. Second, *expertise* refers to the perceived level of knowledge, experience, or skills possessed by an endorser (Hovland et al., 1953). Ohanian (1990) contended that the perceived expertise of celebrity endorsers is more important in explaining purchase intentions than their attractiveness and trustworthiness. A celebrity’s expertise was measured on a six-item, seven-point semantic differential scale (McCroskey, 1996): “trained/not trained,” “intelligent/not intelligent,” “expert/inexpert,” “informed/uninformed,” “competent/incompetent,” and “bright/stupid.” Finally, *trustworthiness*, according to Ohanian (1990, p. 47), is “the listener’s degree of confidence in, and level of acceptance of, the speaker and the message.” Erdogan et al. (2001) also defined trustworthiness as “the honesty, integrity, and believability of an endorser as perceived by the target audience” (p. 40) The celebrity’s trustworthiness was measured on a seven-item, seven-point semantic differential scale (McCroskey 1966): “dishonest/honest,” “sincere/insincere,” “trustworthy/untrustworthy,” “biased/not biased,” “credible/not credible,” “believable/not believable,” and “disreputable/reputable.”

Attitude Toward Brand

According to Mitchell and Olson (1981), attitude is defined as an individual’s internal evaluation of an object such as a branded product. Mitchell and Olson (1981) suggested that attitudes are considered “relatively stable and enduring predispositions to behave” in a certain way (p. 318). Thus, attitudes are considered useful predictors of

consumers' behavior toward a product or service. Mitchell and Olson (1981) measured attitude toward the brand by the mean of four, five-point evaluative scales (good-bad, dislike very much-like very much, pleasant-unpleasant, poor quality-high quality)

In a similar vein, Spears and Singh (2004) also defined attitude toward a brand as a “relatively enduring, unidimensional summary evaluation of the brand that presumably energizes behavior” (p. 55). After a series of factor analyses (exploratory and confirmatory) based on items from previous literature, Spears and Singh (2004) developed a comprehensive scale for attitude toward brand and purchase intentions. Their scales were deemed appropriate for the present study because their items seem to encompass most sub-dimensions of brand attitude definitions. Therefore, to measure attitude toward brand, this study used five items—unappealing-appealing, bad-good, unpleasant-pleasant, unfavorable-favorable, and unlikable-likable.

Purchase Intention

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) suggested that intentions refer to a person's motivation in the sense of his or her conscious plan to exert effort to carry out a behavior. In this sense intentions are easily differentiated from attitudes. Bagozzi, Tybout, Craig, and Sternthal (1979) defined purchase intentions as personal action tendencies relating to the brand. Spears and Singh (2004) more specifically defined purchase intentions as “an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand” (p. 56).

To measure purchase intentions, this study used five items—never/definitely, definitely do not intend to buy/definitely intend, very low/high purchase interest, definitely not buy it/definitely buy it, and probably not/probably buy. To assess purchase

intentions, the following statement was given to subjects: “If you were in the market today for this product/brand, how likely do you feel it is that you would purchase/use this product/brand?”

Main Study Procedure

Experiments were conducted in Korea and the United States to test hypotheses. A 2 (national culture: collectivist Korea vs. individualist U.S.) x 2 (low vs. high identification) x 2 (information type: self-oriented negative information about a celebrity vs. other-oriented negative information) between-subject factorial design was employed. Subjects were randomly assigned to view negative celebrity information that was either self-oriented or other-oriented vis-à-vis the celebrity.

A total of 476 subjects participated in the online experiment. Of these 239 were recruited from a major southwestern U.S. state university. The remaining 237 were recruited from a major private university in Korea. The Web site began with an informed-consent notice. Then subjects were asked to click the “proceed” button if they agreed to participate in the study. Subjects in a control group were only exposed to a print ad whereas subjects in experimental groups were exposed to a print ad featuring a celebrity exposed to negative publicity that was either self- or other-oriented. To measure how subjects in a different culture make attributions (dispositional or situational), subjects were asked to write down what they thought of the scandal and its cause. Provided to the subjects were 12 possible causes of the event such as internal, stable properties of the actor (i.e., dispositions) and external, unstable factors. Then, subjects were asked to rate each possible cause. Studies have found that subjects give greater weight to either

personal dispositions or situational factors depending on their culture (Morris & Peng, 1994; Menon et al., 1999).

Before completing the questions about the celebrity, the brand, and their purchase intentions, subjects were presented with questions measuring their identification with the celebrity. Finally, they were asked to answer demographic questions such as age, gender, years in college, and so forth. Before subjects left the online experimental site, they were shown a statement that the newspaper article had been fabricated for the purposes of study. The original questionnaire was drafted in English, then translated into Korean. Accuracy of the Korean version was verified via a back-translation procedure using external translators (Hui and Trandis, 1985).

CHAPTER V: RESULTS

The data that were collected from the main experiment were analyzed using SPSS 18.0. As mentioned above, the main experiment was conducted in two countries. Procedures and analyses that were taken in each phase are detailed in the following sections.

Sample Profile

The main study was conducted in Korea and the U.S. A total of 565 subjects participated, 253 being Korean university students and 312 being American. After deleting subjects who failed to complete the survey, a total of 237 Korean subjects and a total of 239 U.S. subjects remained for the further analysis. Of the 237 Korean subjects, 48.1% (n = 114) were male and 51.9% (n = 123) were female. Their mean age was 24.2 years old. Seniors made up the majority (51.1%, n = 121); the rest were juniors (20.7%, n = 49), graduate students (16.9%, n = 40), sophomore (8.9%, n = 21), and freshmen (2.5%, n = 6). Of the 239 U.S. subjects, 40.6% (n = 97) were male and 59.4% were female (n = 142). Their mean age was 22.3 years old. Juniors made up the majority (53.1%, n = 127); the rest were seniors (38.1%, n = 91), sophomores (7.9%, n = 19), and freshmen (.4%, n = 1). The majority of subjects were Anglo Americans (53.1%, n = 123), followed by Asian Americans (19.7%, n = 47), Hispanics (18.4%, n = 44), international (4.2%, n = 10), others (3.3%, n = 8). Table 14 provides sample demographic characteristics.

Table 14 Sample Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Category	Korea (n=237)	U.S. (n=239)
		Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
Age	20 Years	13 (5.5%)	18 (7.5%)
	21 Years	23 (9.7%)	87 (36.4%)
	22 Years	33 (13.9%)	79 (33.1%)
	23 Years	32 (13.5%)	29 (12.1%)
	24 Years	28 (11.8%)	9 (3.8%)
	25 Years	37 (15.6%)	4 (1.7%)
	26 Years	35 (14.8%)	3 (1.3%)
	27 Years	12 (5.1%)	3 (1.3%)
	28 Years	10 (4.2%)	1 (.4%)
	29 Years and Older	14 (5.9%)	6 (2.4%)
Year in College	Freshman	6 (2.5%)	1 (.4%)
	Sophomore	21 (8.9%)	19 (7.9%)
	Junior	49 (20.7%)	127 (53.1%)
	Senior	121 (51.1%)	91 (38.1%)
	Graduate	40 (16.9%)	1 (.4%)
Ethnicity	Anglo American		123 (51.5%)
	African American		7 (2.9%)
	Asian American		47 (19.7%)
	Hispanic		44 (18.4%)
	International		10 (4.2%)
	Other		8 (3.3%)
	Korean	237 (100%)	n/a

Manipulation Checks

Two stimuli, print ads featuring Orlando Bloom endorsing a digital camera and two types of news articles (self- vs. other-oriented news information) were created for the main study. Manipulation checks were conducted to ensure that subjects in both countries perceived the type of news article as intended and to check if there were significant differences in both the compatibility between Orlando Bloom and his endorsed product (a digital camera), and the severity of the two types of news information. In addition, the believability of the news articles was also measured.

In regard to the types of news articles (self- vs. other-oriented news information), the Chi-Square test confirmed that subjects in Korea and U.S. perceived the self-oriented news article as self-oriented and the other-oriented news article as other-oriented. The manipulation was successful based on the significant difference in Korea ($\chi^2 = 83.32$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$) and in U.S. ($\chi^2 = 99.19$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). In terms of the severity of a DUI, although the other-oriented news articles were perceived more severely than the self-oriented news articles, there were no significant differences between self-oriented news articles ($M = 5.79$ in Korea and $M = 5.82$ in the U.S.) and other-oriented news articles (mean = 5.97 in Korea and mean = 5.99 in the U.S.). The compatibility between Orlando Bloom and a digital camera was measured to see if there was a significant difference between subjects in Korea and in the U.S. The t-test result showed that there was no significant difference between the Korean subjects' perceived compatibility ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.14.2$) and Americans' ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.22$), $t(474) = .15$, $p = .881$.

Lastly, the believability of the news articles was also measured with the question: "How do you feel about the news article? Please indicate how believable it is by checking the answer below." Possible answers were, "very believable," "believable" "somewhat believable," "somewhat not unbelievable," "not believable" and "very unbelievable." As for Korean subjects, test results indicated that 84% ($n = 131$) thought that the news article was believable (1.3%, $n = 3$, "very believable," 11.8%, $n = 28$, "believable," and 42.2%, $n = 100$ "somewhat believable"). Only 2.5 percent ($n = 6$) responded that the news article was not unbelievable while 8 percent ($n = 19$) indicated that the news article was somewhat not believable. As for U.S. subjects, test results indicated that 85% ($n = 137$)

thought that the news article was believable (11.3%, $n = 27$, “very believable,” 25.5%, $n = 61$, “believable,” and 20.5%, $n = 49$ “somewhat believable”). Only .4 percent ($n = 1$) indicated that news article was not very believable while 6.7 percent ($n = 16$) and 3.3 percent ($n = 8$) indicated somewhat not believable and not believable, respectively. In sum, subjects in both countries found the news articles to be believable.

Reliability Tests

The main study employed several multiple-item scales. Reliability of each scale, therefore, was measured before testing the hypotheses. Reliability tests showed that all measured variables were reliable: cultural orientation ($\alpha = .70$), identification with a celebrity endorser ($\alpha = .86$), likability ($\alpha = .73$), trustworthiness ($\alpha = .85$), expertness ($\alpha = .81$), attitude toward a brand ($\alpha = .92$), and purchase intention ($\alpha = .94$). Regarding the reliability of the measured variables, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was between .70 and .94.

Hypotheses Tests

This study delves into consumers’ responses to negative information about a celebrity endorser. Primarily, the study examines 1) the relationship between culture and attributional styles, 2) consequences of attributional styles, 3) effects of self- vs. other-oriented negative information, and 4) effects of identification with a celebrity endorser. Thus, hypotheses were proposed based on these study objectives. The hypotheses were tested based on a 2 (attributional styles) x 2 (types of negative information) x 2 (level of identification with a celebrity) between-subjects MANOVA.

Two attributional style groups (dispositional attribution vs. situational attribution) were determined by content analysis results. The low and high identification groups were created by median split. As mentioned earlier, control group, in which no negative celebrity information was exposed, was ruled out in the analysis. The following Table 15 provides descriptive statistics of each cell.

Table 15 2 x 2 x 2 Experimental Design Descriptive Statistics

Dispositional Attribution (n=92)	Low Identification (n=51)	Self-Oriented (n=25) Other-Oriented (n=26)
	High Identification (n=41)	Self-Oriented (n=21) Other-Oriented (n=20)
Situational Attribution (n=214)	Low Identification (n=105)	Self-Oriented (n=51) Other-Oriented (n=54)
	High Identification (n=109)	Self-Oriented (n=58) Other-Oriented (n=51)

As can be seen in Table 16, because the multiple dependent variables were highly co-related, a MANOVA test of overall significance was conducted (Wind and Denny, 1974).

Table 16 Correlation Matrix of Dependent Measures

	Likability	Trustworthiness	Expertness	Attitude toward Brand	Purchase Intention
Likability	1				
Trustworthiness	.576**	1			
Expertness	.522**	.684**	1		
Attitude toward Brand	.298**	.326**	.359**	1	
Purchase Intention	.140**	.241**	.205**	.537**	1

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)

When confounded sums of squares are not apportioned to any source of variation, the sums of squares are called Type III sums of squares. When applying unweighted means, it is suggested that we use Type III sums of squares (SS) in our analysis. Thus, instead of using Type I sums of squares, due to unequal sample sizes, Type III sums of squares were used in this study.

As shown in Table 17, the results show a significant main effect of attributional styles (Wilks' Lambda = .94, $F = 3.68$, $p = .003$). This main effect suggests that attributional styles had substantial independent effects on the following dependent variables: celebrity evaluation (i.e., likability, trustworthiness, and expertness), attitude toward a brand, and purchase intention. However, there were no main effects of information type (Wilks' Lambda = .99, $F = .82$, $p = .538$) and level of identification (Wilks' Lambda = .97, $F = 2.09$, $p = .067$). Further, the results suggest that there were no interaction effects.

Table 17 MANOVA Results

Effects	<i>Wilks' Lambda</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Main Effects				
Attributional Style (A)	.94	(5, 294)	3.68	.003
Information Type (B)	.98	(5, 294)	.82	.538
Level of Identification (C)	.97	(5, 294)	2.09	.067
A x B	.99	(5, 294)	.45	.817
A x C	.97	(5, 294)	1.73	.127
B x C	.99	(5, 294)	.81	.545
A x B x C	.97	(5, 294)	1.60	.161

Table 18 Marginal Means and Standard Deviations on Factors for Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables					
	Attributional Styles		Type of Information		Level of Identification	
	Dispositional Attribution	Situational Attribution	Self-oriented	Other-oriented	Low	High
Likability	4.31 (.102)	4.60 (.064)	4.47 (.089)	4.43 (.081)	4.38 (.077)	4.52 (.093)
Trustworthiness	4.01 (.074)	4.20 (.046)	4.14 (.065)	4.08 (.059)	4.05 (.056)	4.16 (.068)
Expertness	4.41 (.096)	4.37 (.060)	4.35 (.084)	4.43 (.077)	4.35 (.072)	4.43 (.088)
Attitude toward Brand	4.78 (.117)	4.64 (.073)	4.73 (.102)	4.69 (.093)	4.78 (.088)	4.64 (.106)
Purchase Intention	3.72 (.130)	3.71 (.082)	3.80 (.114)	3.64 (.103)	3.60 (.098)	3.88 (.118)

Note. Standard Deviations appear in parentheses below

Table 19 ANOVA Results for the 2 x 2 x 2 Design

Dependent Variables	Source of Variation	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Celebrity Evaluation					
Likability	Attributional Style (A)	1	5.03	5.73	.017
	Information Type (B)	1	.08	.09	.759
	Level of Identification (C)	1	1.18	1.34	.247
	A x B	1	.86	.98	.323
	A x C	1	2.06	2.39	.123
	B x C	1	1.37	1.56	.213
	A x B x C	1	.06	.07	.793
Trustworthiness	Attributional Style (A)	1	2.19	4.75	.030
	Information Type (B)	1	.192	.417	.519
	Level of Identification (C)	1	.702	1.52	.218
	A x B	1	.025	.054	.817
	A x C	1	.002	.005	.946
	B x C	1	.042	.092	.762
	A x B x C	1	2.11	4.58	.033
Expertness	Attributional Style (A)	1	.144	.184	.668
	Information Type (B)	1	.377	.483	.488
	Level of Identification (C)	1	.352	.453	.502
	A x B	1	.436	.560	.455
	A x C	1	.602	.771	.381
	B x C	1	.298	.383	.537
	A x B x C	1	.619	.794	.374
Attitude toward Brand	Attributional Style (A)	1	1.30	1.14	.286
	Information Type (B)	1	.082	.072	.789
	Level of Identification (C)	1	1.04	.039	.341
	A x B	1	.044	.039	.844
	A x C	1	.107	.094	.759
	B x C	1	.117	.103	.799
	A x B x C	1	.320	.281	.597
Purchase Intention	Attributional Style (A)	1	.01	.007	.934
	Information Type (B)	1	1.579	1.113	.292
	Level of Identification (C)	1	3.268	2.303	.130
	A x B	1	.897	.632	.427
	A x C	1	2.602	1.833	.177
	B x C	1	.504	.355	.552
	A x B x C	1	.357	.251	.616

As can be seen in Table 19, to determine which dependent variable(s) is(are) responsible for the statistically significant MANOVA result, separate three-way ANOVA's were conducted for each of the individual dependent variables: celebrity evaluation (i.e., likability, trustworthiness, and expertness), attitude toward a brand, and purchase intention. As indicated below, H1a and H1b were tested by the Chi-Square (the content analysis) and an independent t-test (causal judgment test). H2b, H2c, H2d were tested by an independent sample t-test to examine the mean differences between dispositional attribution group and situational attribution group. H3b, H3c, H3d, and H3e were tested by post-hoc test (Scheffee) to investigate the mean differences among groups within culture. Finally, H4b, H4c, and H4d were tested by an independent sample t-test to examine the mean difference between low identification group and high identification group.

Culture and Attributional Styles

This study developed Hypotheses 1a and 1b. That is, people in collectivistic cultures such as Korea will make more attributions to situational factors than will people in individualistic cultures such as the U.S. People in individualistic cultures such as the U.S. will make more attributions to personal dispositions than will people in collectivistic cultures such as Korea. As described in the previous section, two methods were proposed to test Hypothesis 1a and 1b.

Content Analysis

First, a content analysis was employed. Subjects provided a possible cause (or causes) of the negative event after being exposed to the negative information about a

celebrity endorser. Their answers were coded, by two independent coders from each country, into either situational attribution, dispositional attribution or neither (non-attribution or unclassifiable attribution). Coders were instructed that a personal disposition is a property that the wrong-doer carries across time, place, and social context (such as a personality trait, temperament, stable value or attitude, long standing goal, habit, chronic pathology, general capability, physical characteristic, character flaw, etc.). Coders were also instructed that a situational factor is tied to a particular time (such as emotional crisis, mood, temporary mental status, etc.), tied to a particular place (such as stress at workplace, homesickness, discomfort in an environment, etc.), or tied to a particular social context (such as a relationship, social role, institutional requirement, personal grudge, a group norm, etc.).

The coders met for a 30-minute training session, during which they discussed the coding scheme in Korean and English and practiced coding together on possible causes of the event not used in the study. The disparities between two coders were resolved by in-depth discussion with coders and the author. Across 476 items, the percentage on which a pair of coders agreed was calculated. The average percentage agreement was high with both Korean coders (.89) and American coders (.85).

In sum, among 156 Korean subjects who were exposed to either self-oriented negative information or other-oriented negative information, 129 subjects (82.7%) were identified as making attributions to situational factors, 20 subjects (12.8%) were identified to make attributions to personal dispositions, and 7 subjects (4.5%) were unclassified. Among 162 U.S. subjects who were exposed to either self-oriented negative

information or other-oriented negative information, 72 subjects (44.4%) were identified to make attributions to personal dispositions, 85 subjects (52.5%) were identified to make attributions to situational factors, and 5 subjects were unclassified.

The Chi-square results suggest that Korean subjects are more likely to make situational attribution than U.S. subjects and U.S. subjects are more likely to make dispositional attribution than Korean subjects. This difference was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 38.26$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). Thus, H1a and H1b were supported in the study.

Causal Judgment Test

Second, subjects were given 12 statements—six with possible dispositional causes and six with possible situational causes. Subjects weighed the importance of various possible causes for the transgression, a DUI, some of which were personal dispositions and some of which were situational factors. Going against expectation, Korean subjects gave greater weight to personal dispositions than did the American subjects, $F(1, 316) = 26.89$, $p < .001$. There was no significant difference between Koreans and U.S. subjects on situational factors, $F(1, 316) = .78$, $p < .38$. As can be seen in Table 19, Koreans particularly emphasized chronic psychological problems related to work while Koreans and Americans both emphasized situational factors and social environment. Thus, H1a and H1b were not supported in the case of this causal judgment test. To wrap up, the result from the causal judgment test was quite contrary to the proposed expectations. Possible explanations will be provided in the discussion section.

Table 20 Some Causes of DUI that Were Weighted Differently Across Cultures

Personal Disposition	
Bloom, fatigued, was mentally imbalanced due to working too long of hours	K 3.42 ** A 2.85
Bloom had a history of alcohol addiction.	K 3.74 A 3.65
Bloom had personal issues.	K 3.83 A 3.58
Bloom drove himself crazy by putting too much pressure on himself	K 3.54 ** A 2.35
Bloom was obsessed with driving	K 2.82 ** A 2.20
Bloom could become too negligent while drunk	K 5.31 ** A 4.69
Situational Factors	
Celebrities attend parties where they are pressured to drink/consume alcohol	K 3.72 * A 4.35
Bloom, depressed by recent flops, has turned to alcohol to relieve stress	K 3.65 * A 3.28
Bloom was without a designated driver	K 3.95 * A 4.42
Bloom's behavior is a result of the US's liberal attitude to social drinking	K 4.26 ** A 3.54
Drinking and driving is not taken seriously enough in the U.S.	K 3.81 * A 4.22
DUIs (driving under the influence) are not punished severely enough in the U.S., letting people think they can "get away with it."	K 3.99 A 4.23

Note. K = Korean; A = American. Shown are the six items each kind with greatest cultural differences in ratings of causal importance. Ratings can be interpreted with scale labels: 1 = not a cause at all, 4 = a major cause, 7 = most important cause.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .001$.

Additional Analysis: Relationship between Types of Negative Information and Attributional Styles

In order to examine if there is any relationship between types of negative celebrity information and attributional styles, a series of Chi-square analyses were conducted.

First, a Chi-square analysis was conducted with both Korean and U.S. data. The result

shows that there is no statistically significant relationship between types of negative celebrity information and attributional styles ($\chi^2 = 1.04$, $df = 1$, $p = .307$). Table 21 provides cross-tabulation for attributional styles by types of negative celebrity information.

Table 21 Cross-tabulation for attributional styles x types of negative celebrity information

	Types of Negative Celebrity Information		Total
	Self-Oriented Negative Information	Other-Oriented Negative Information	
Dispositional Attribution	41	51	92
Situational Attribution	109	105	214
Total	150	156	306

Within Korean subjects, the Chi-square result suggests that there is no statistically significant relationship between attributional styles and types of negative information ($\chi^2 = .201$, $df = 1$, $p = .654$). Table 22 provides cross-tabulation for attributional styles by types of negative celebrity information within Korean subjects.

Table 22 Cross-tabulation for attributional styles x types of negative celebrity information within Korean subjects

	Types of Negative Celebrity Information		Total
	Self-Oriented Negative Information	Other-Oriented Negative Information	
Dispositional Attribution	11	9	20
Situational Attribution	64	65	129
Total	75	74	149

Within U.S. subjects, the Chi-square result suggests that there is no statistically significant relationship between attributional styles and types of negative information ($\chi^2 = 1.65, df = 1, p = .200$). Table 23 provides cross-tabulation for attributional styles by types of negative celebrity information within U.S. subjects.

Table 23 Cross-tabulation for attributional styles x types of negative celebrity information within U.S. subjects

	Types of Negative Celebrity Information		Total
	Self-Oriented Negative Information	Other-Oriented Negative Information	
Dispositional Attribution	33	44	77
Situational Attribution	45	40	85
Total	78	84	162

In sum, a series of Chi-square analyses found that types of negative celebrity information do not affect how people make attributions. Irrespective of whether the given negative celebrity information is self-oriented or other-oriented, people make either situational or dispositional attributions.

Consequences of Attributional Styles

Regarding consequences of attributional styles, H2a posits that a person's attributional style may have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. As shown in Table 24, there was a significant main effect of attributional styles (Wilks' Lambda = .94, $F = 3.68, p = .003$). Thus, the main effect suggests that attributional styles may have had substantial independent effects on

celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. Therefore, H2a was supported.

H2b, H2c, and H2d posit that dispositional attribution regarding a celebrity's transgression will lead to a more negative evaluation of a brand, to a more negative evaluation of a celebrity, and to a more negative purchase intention than situational attribution. To test proposed hypotheses, two attributional style groups (i.e., dispositional attribution group and situational attribution group) were created based on the content analysis. Since there were mixed results in the causal judgment test with 12 statements, content analysis results were deemed more appropriate for these hypotheses tests than the causal judgment test.

Due to the sample size disparity between dispositional attribution style group ($n = 92$) and situational attribution style group ($n = 214$), Levene's test was used to test if samples have equal variances. Levene's test for equality of variance was not significant (p is greater than .05), the two variances are not significantly different; that is, the two variances are approximately equal. Thus, the independent sample t -test was conducted to see the differences, on dependent variables, between the dispositional attribution group and situational attribution group. As shown in Table 21, t -test results indicate that dispositional attribution regarding a celebrity's transgression led to a more negative evaluation of a celebrity endorser in terms of likability and trustworthiness than did situational attribution. However, there was no significant difference between dispositional attribution group and situational attribution group on the evaluation of a celebrity's expertness. Thus, H2b was partially supported. Furthermore, as can be seen in

Table 24, the results indicate that there were no significant differences between the two groups on dependent variables such as attitude toward a brand and purchase intention.

Therefore, H2c and H2d were not supported in this study.

Table 24 Consequences of Attributional Styles

		Attributional Style Group		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>sig</i>
		Dispositional Attribution (n=92)	Situational Attribution (n=214)			
Celebrity Evaluation	Likability	4.31 (.99)	4.60 (.92)	2.45	304	.015
	Trustworthiness	3.99 (.77)	4.21 (.64)	2.48	304	.014
	Expertness	4.44 (1.00)	4.37 (.82)	.28	304	ns
Attitude toward Brand		4.81 (1.16)	4.64 (1.01)	1.29	304	ns
Purchase Intention		3.72 (1.21)	3.72 (1.20)	.02	304	ns

Note. Standard Deviations appear in parentheses below means.

Effects of Self- vs. Other-Oriented Negative Celebrity Information

H3a posits that types of negative celebrity information may have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. As shown in Table 16, there was no significant main effect of types of information (Wilks' Lambda = .99, $F = .82$, $p = .538$). Thus, the main effect suggests that types of negative celebrity information may have had no substantial independent effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. Therefore, H3a was not supported.

The study proposed hypotheses 3b, 3c, 3d, and 3e based on subjects' cultural orientation. That is, for people in collectivistic cultures such as Korea, negative celebrity information that is other-oriented will lead to more negative celebrity evaluation, brand

evaluation, and purchase intention than will self-oriented negative celebrity information. For consumers in individualistic cultures such as U.S., there will be little if any significant difference between negative celebrity information that is self-oriented and other-oriented, in evaluating a brand or celebrity endorser. Data in Table 17 indicate a significant negative information effect. In particular, both Korean and American subjects who were exposed to self- or other-oriented negative information reacted with lower celebrity evaluation, lower brand evaluation, and lower purchase intention than did respondents in a control group exposed to no negative celebrity information.

Bonferroni post-hoc tests were conducted to determine where differences existed between groups. Bonferroni method is one of the most commonly used approaches for multiple comparisons. In some situations, the Bonferroni is substantially conservative. As shown in Table 25, post-hoc contrasts among Korean subjects reveal, 1) significant differences between the control group and the self-oriented information group on dependent variables: trustworthiness ($p = .001$) and purchase intention ($p = .025$); 2) significant differences between control group and other oriented group on dependent variables: trustworthiness ($p = .000$), expertness ($p = .000$), attitude toward brand ($p = .032$), and purchase intention ($p = .001$); and 3) significant differences between self-oriented information group and other-oriented information group on dependent variables: trustworthiness ($p = .005$) and attitude toward brand ($p = .014$). Thus, H3b was partially supported in this study while H3c was fully supported. However, H3d was not supported since there was no significant difference between self-oriented information group and other-information oriented group on purchase intention.

Table 25 Bonferroni Post-Hoc Test within Korean Subjects

Dependent Variables	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I – J)	Std. Error
Likability	Control Group	Self Group	.0443	.123
		Other Group	.1640	.123
	Self Group	Control Group	-.0443	.123
		Other Group	.1197	.124
	Other Group	Control Group	-.1640	.123
		Self Group	-.1197	.124
Trustworthiness	Control Group	Self Group	.3727*	.103
		Other Group	.7006*	.103
	Self Group	Control Group	-.3727*	.103
		Other Group	.3278*	.104
	Other Group	Control Group	-.7006*	.103
		Self Group	-.3278*	.104
Expertness	Control Group	Self Group	.2828	.118
		Other Group	.5178*	.118
	Self Group	Control Group	-.2828	.118
		Other Group	.5178*	.118
	Other Group	Self Group	-.5178*	.118
		Other Group	-.2350	.119
Attitude Toward Brand	Control Group	Self Group	-.0279	.114
		Other Group	.3003*	.114
	Self Group	Control Group	.0279	.114
		Other Group	.3282*	.114
	Other Group	Control Group	-.3003*	.114
		Self Group	-.3282*	.115
Purchase Intention	Control Group	Self Group	.4069*	.148
		Other Group	.5633*	.148
	Self Group	Control Group	-.4069	.148
		Other Group	.1564	.150
	Other Group	Control Group	-.5633*	.148
		Self Group	-.1564	.150

Note. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Meanwhile, as Table 26 shows, post-hoc contrasts among U.S. subjects reveal, 1) a significant difference between the control group and the self-oriented information group on only one dependent variable, attitude toward brand ($p = .046$); 2) a significant difference between the control group and the other-oriented information group only on a

dependent variable, purchase intention ($p = .000$); and 3) no significant differences between self-oriented information and other-oriented information group on dependent variables.

As shown in Table 26, H3e was also supported since there were no significant differences between self-oriented information group and other-information oriented group on dependent variables; likability, trustworthiness, expertness, attitude toward brand, and purchase intention.

Table 26 Bonferroni Post-Hoc Test within U.S. Subjects

Dependent Variables	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I – J)	Std. Error
Likability	Control Group	Self Group	.1602	.173
		Other Group	.2395	.170
	Self Group	Control Group	-.1602	.173
		Other Group	.0794	.169
	Other Group	Control Group	-.2395	.170
		Self Group	-.0794	.170
Trustworthiness	Control Group	Self Group	.2716	.115
		Other Group	.1583	.113
	Self Group	Control Group	-.2716	.115
		Other Group	-.1133	.113
	Other Group	Control Group	-.1583	.113
		Self Group	.1133	.113
Expertness	Control Group	Self Group	.1168	.153
		Other Group	-.1219	.150
	Self Group	Control Group	-.1168	.153
		Other Group	-.2387	.150
	Other Group	Control Group	.1219	.151
		Self Group	.2387	.150
Attitude Toward Brand	Control Group	Self Group	.4770*	.191
		Other Group	.2740	.187
	Self Group	Control Group	-.4770*	.191
		Other Group	-.2029	.187
	Other Group	Control Group	-.2740	.187
		Self Group	.2029	.187

Purchase Intention	Control Group	Self Group	.4805	.203
		Other Group	.8015*	.199
	Self Group	Control Group	-.4805	.203
		Other Group	-.3211	.198
	Other Group	Control Group	.4805	.203
		Self Group	.3211	.198

Note. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Effects of Identification with a Celebrity Endorser

Regarding effects of identification with a celebrity endorser, the study developed H4a, H4b, H4c and H4d. H4a posits that a person's level of identification with a celebrity endorser may have effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. As shown in Table 16, there was no significant main effect of levels of identification (Wilks' Lambda = .99, $F = .82$, $p = .538$). Thus, the main effect suggests that level of identification with a celebrity may have had no substantial independent effects on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention. Therefore, H4a was not supported.

H4b, H4c, H4d posit that, after being exposed to negative celebrity information, people with a high level of identification will have a higher evaluation of a celebrity endorser, a higher evaluation of a brand, and a higher purchase intention than will people with a low level of identification. To test these proposed hypotheses, in a SPSS dataset the control group was excluded for the analysis since these hypotheses deal with the effects of identification after the negative celebrity information exposure. The low and high identification groups were created by median split.

As Table 27 shows, there were significant differences in likability for the low identification group ($M = 4.40$, $SD = .92$) and high identification group ($M = 4.65$, $SD = .99$); $t(316) = 2.28$, $p = 0.023$, in purchase intention for the low identification group ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 1.22$) and high identification group ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.13$); $t(316) = 2.63$, $p = 0.009$. Thus, H4b was partially supported while H4c was not supported. And H4d was supported.

In addition, the study found the tendency that people with a high level of identification with a celebrity are more likely to make situational attributions while people with a low level of identification are more likely to make dispositional attributions. The Chi-square analysis result indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between a low identification group and a high identification group on types of attribution ($\chi^2 = 5.05$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Table 27 Independent Sample *t*-test for Low vs. High Identification Group

Dependent Variables	Level of Identification Group		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	Low Identification Group (<i>n</i> = 168)	High Identification Group (<i>n</i> = 150)		
Celebrity Evaluation				
Likability	4.40 (.92)	4.65 (.99)	2.28 *	316
Trustworthiness	4.08 (.65)	4.26 (.72)	1.57	316
Expertness	4.35 (.86)	4.36 (.92)	.128	316
Attitude toward Brand	4.74 (1.07)	4.61 (1.04)	1.10	316
Purchase Intention	3.55 (1.22)	3.90 (1.13)	2.63 ***	

Note. * = $p < .05$, *** = $p < .001$. Standard Deviations appear in parentheses below

means. Table 28 provides a summary of hypotheses testing.

Table 28 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Attitude Change	Result
H1a	Korean subjects make more situational attributions.	Supported
H1b	American subjects make more dispositional attributions.	Supported
H2a	Attributional styles affect celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.	Supported
H2b	Dispositional attribution leads to more negative celebrity evaluation than situational attribution.	Partially Supported
H2c	Dispositional attribution leads to more negative brand evaluation than situational attribution.	Not Supported
H2d	Dispositional attribution leads to more negative purchase intention than situational attribution.	Not Supported
H3a	Types of negative celebrity information affect celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.	Not Supported
H3b	Other-oriented negative information leads, among Korean subjects, to more negative celebrity evaluation.	Partially Supported
H3c	Other-oriented negative information leads, among Korean subjects, to more negative brand evaluation.	Supported
H3d	Other-oriented negative information leads, among Korean subjects, to more negative purchase intention.	Not Supported
H3e	No significant difference exists among American subjects.	Supported
H4a	One's level of identification affects one's celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.	Not Supported
H4b	A high level of identification leads to less negative celebrity evaluation.	Partially Supported
H4c	A high level of identification leads to less negative brand evaluation.	Not Supported
H4d	A high level of identification leads to less negative purchase intention.	Supported

CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSION

This study primarily investigates consumers' attributional styles derived from cultural differences. The premises for this study were that since Korean subjects are generally collectivistic, they are more likely to make situational attributions, and that since American subjects are generally individualistic, they are more likely to make dispositional attributions. Intriguingly, the study found that Koreans tended to be more individualistic than their counterparts. Since the subjects happened to be college students, they were not representative of each culture. Nevertheless, the study found that Korean consumers are still more likely to make situational attributions than U.S. consumers, and U.S. consumers are more likely to make dispositional attributions than Korean consumers. The Chi-square results were consistent with the proposed hypotheses while causal judgment tests generated mixed results.

Contrary to expectations, when given 12 possible causes (6 dispositional factors and 6 situational factors), Korean subjects tend to weigh more on dispositional factors than U.S. subjects, whereas U.S. subjects tend to weigh more on situational factors than Korean subjects. Why is the result from the causal judgment test not consistent with that from the content analysis? There might be two explanations for this phenomenon. When given possible causes of the event, people go through an in-depth cognitive process. And Koreans may consider Orlando Bloom as an out-group person while Americans consider him to be an in-group person. As ultimate attribution error suggests, people attribute the cause of the in-group's behavior to external factors, while attributing out-group's behavior to internal causes. The second explanation is that there might be a cultural

knowledge gap between Koreans and Americans. Koreans are not familiar with U.S. DUI situations and U.S. government regulations. And they would not know if Orlando Bloom's latest film, "Doctor" was a complete disaster. It is assumed that these cultural knowledge gaps may affect how consumers in Korea and the U.S. reacted when given 12 possible causes.

In regard to the scale of INDCOL by Hui (1988), the measurement deals with the subjects' construals as to whether they are independent or interdependent and their relationships with others. It is questionable whether this INDCOL scale can measure all aspects of individualism and collectivism. This study hypothesized that Koreans have a tendency to make situational attributions while Americans have a tendency to make dispositional attributions. The hypotheses were based on cultural characteristics such as the culture's type of thinking—holistic or analytical; the culture's view of the self; the perceived controllability as a property of causal attributions, and spontaneous trait inference (STI). It is assumed that the INDCOL scale used in this study is rather correlated with social behavior, attitudes, and value statements. In addition, this kind of direct assessment approach assumes the following:

cultural frame is a form of declarative knowledge (e.g., attitudes, values, and beliefs) that respondents can report on rather than some set of more subtle and implicit practices and social structures that respondents cannot report on because practices are deeply woven into everyday life and are a normal part of living. (p. 7; Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier, 2002)

As suggested by Oyserman et al. (2002), future research should refocus on the core elements of IND (independence and uniqueness) and COL (duty to in-group) and cross-nationally, maintaining harmony). Other elements, such as the enjoyment of belonging to groups or seeking others' advice, have not been shown to be congruent with the core components. In addition, the scale of INDCOL by Hui (1988) has been outdated now that the scale was first introduced more than 20 years ago. It is important to develop a new scale that reflects contemporary culture.

It is important to note that today's highly networked and mediated world, centering around social media, affects how collectivism and individualism can be redefined conceptually and operationally. Individualism is central to capitalist democracy. As individualism is central to social media, social media promotes the rise of the individual. In other words, social media is a carrier of individualism, because even if we have hundreds of friends, they are just virtual ones, and so far we lose their contact despite the fact that we have their contacts. Today's media, especially social media, seem to promote individualism instead of collectivism with the help of individualized communication devices, such as a smart-phone.

One of the problems likely to occur when measuring IND-COL differences in Korea and the U.S. is whether samples are homogeneous or heterogeneous. Korean samples tend to be homogeneous whereas U.S. samples are likely to be heterogeneous. Results within Korean culture may be consistent compared to those within the U.S. (ethnic and racial group) culture, which consists of many sub-groups. For example, studies found that European Americans were not more individualistic than African

Americans, or Latinos, and not less collectivistic than Japanese or Koreans (Oyserman et al., 2002; Gaines, Marelich, Steers, Henderson, & Granrose, 1997). In addition, when the study was conducted in the U.S. among U.S. college students, international students from Asian countries also participated in the study. It will be important to exclude those samples from Asian countries for the future study.

In terms of consumers' attributional styles, we must ask why the results are inconsistent from the Chi-square analysis and causal judgment test. In a causal judgment test, the Korean subjects showed a higher tendency to make dispositional attributions than their American counterparts; the U.S. subjects showed a higher tendency to make situational attributions than their Korean counterparts. This fact may explain why American subjects were much more knowledgeable about DUI situations in the U.S. Thus, they may have given more weight to situational factors than Korean subjects did.

The content analysis result supports the notion that the fundamental attribution error, also known as correspondence bias, is not universal. The study results found that Koreans, when attributing causes for others' negative behaviors, were more likely to attribute them to situational factors than to personal dispositions. The fundamental attribution error (FAE) describes the tendency of people to attribute the causes of their own behaviors to external factors and to attribute the behavior of others to internal causes (Berry et al. 2002). However, several scholars have raised doubts about the universality of FAE. They suggest the existence of a preference for contextual or situational attributions in Asia and Aboriginal North America (Morris and Peng, 1994; Choi et al., 1999; Choi et al., 2003). As found in this study, Korean subjects preferred, when

regarding the behavior of others, situational attributions over dispositional attributions. Money et al. (2005) also found that participants exposed to the self-oriented form of negative orientation attributed the celebrities' drug usage not to dispositional deficiencies but to a significant cause. Thus, in keeping with findings from previous literature, this study suggests the suspension of the fundamental attribution error, meaning that cultural orientation may affect how people make attributions.

Interestingly, the result of the causal judgment test also supports the notion that people make different attributions depending on whether the offender is in-group or out-group. The ultimate attribution error deals with the distinction between positively and negatively valued behavior and between in-group and out-group. Specifically, the ultimate attribution error describes the tendency of people, when confronted with an out-group individual's negative action, to attribute the action to the individual's disposition and, conversely, to attribute an in-group individual's negative action to the situation (Berry et al., 2002). Pettigrew (1979) points out that the ultimate attribution error attempts to describe part of the cognitive mediating process of the norm of out-group behavior. One of the initial empirical findings reveals that people tended to attribute the misbehavior to personal, dispositional causes when the offender is from an out-group, but to situational causes when the offender is from an in-group (Duncan 1976). Similarly, based on the ultimate attribution theory, Morris and Peng (1994) predicted that Americans would attribute more to personal dispositions than to situational pressure when a murderer was an out-group member.

In this study, Korean subjects may have seen Orlando Bloom as an out-group person and American subjects may have seen him as an in-group person. However, subjects' perceptions of the offender as an in-group or out-group went unmeasured in this study. A future study should measure whether subjects consider an offender as an in-group or an out-group person and how different perceptions lead to different attitude changes.

An individual's attribution can influence his judgment or decision-making process. Crimes attributed to internal and or intentional factors (controllable) should lead to harsher judgments and punishments than crimes attributed to external and or unintentional (uncontrollable) causes (Carroll and Payne, 1976). A crime attributed to a stable cause is generally associated with a high expectancy of future crimes (Carroll, Perkowski, Lurigio, and Weaver, 1987). Betancourt, Hardin, and Manzi (1992) suggest that when a person's failure is viewed as controllable, we judge that person more negatively. Kelly and Michela (1980) suggest that when a person does something wrong our liking for him, our trust in him, and our willingness to be persuaded by him is affected by how we attribute his action – to him or to some aspect of the environment.

This study found that when exposed to negative information, people who make dispositional attributions judged the celebrity more negatively (i.e., likability and trustworthiness) than people who make situational attributions. However, the study failed to find that attributional styles affected brand evaluation and purchase intention.

Past research has revealed that crimes attributed to internal and or intentional (controllable) factors should lead to harsher evaluation and punishment than crimes

attributed to external and or unintentional (uncontrollable) causes (Carroll & Payne, 1976). A crime attributed to a stable cause should be associated with a high expectancy of future crimes (Carroll, Perkowitz, Lurigio, & Weaver, 1987). If negative outcomes for other people are due to causes perceived as uncontrollable, then pity is elicited (Averill, 1982). It seems that we sympathize with a wrongdoer when we attribute his or her behavior to situational factors.

The study confirmed that people's evaluation of negative information may be mediated by their attributional style. Situational attribution, as noted, tends to elicit sympathy. Thus, when people try to attribute a cause to an event or to an action of another, they may justify it with situational factors. Dispositional attribution, on the other hand, tends to produce blame. When people do this, they are likely to conclude that the undesirable event could have been avoided. They may have perceived the event as controllable. Thus, dispositional attribution only fortifies a negative evaluation.

In sum, the study results suggest that an externally influenced action that harms or frustrates a person is more tolerated and less reciprocated than a similar action attributed to an actor's disposition. Relative to external attributions, internal attributions are likely to heighten affective reactions. Interestingly, the attribution styles of the subjects in this study impacted solely their evaluations of the celebrity endorser. The study found no impact on brand evaluation and purchase intention.

The study proposed that cultural differences may play a role in evaluating the negative celebrity information. That is, depending on whether the actions involved were self-oriented (events affecting the actor him or herself) or other-oriented (events affecting

the actor and others), people in different cultures reacted differently. People in collectivistic cultures are known to have interdependent self-construals, and people in individualistic cultures are known to have independent self-construals. As Markus (1977) suggests, self-construal is likely to guide information processing. Thus, the study hypothesized that other-oriented (rather than self-oriented) negative celebrity information was likely to do more damage to the celebrity endorser, to one's attitude about an endorsed brand, as well as to one's purchase intention.

The study found that Korean consumers were more negatively impacted by other-oriented negative information than self-oriented in terms of celebrity evaluation and attitude toward a brand. American subjects showed no significant difference in their reactions to self-oriented and other-oriented negative orientation. In general, the study found that negative celebrity information, regardless of its type, negatively impacts the celebrity endorser, the consumer's attitude toward a brand, and the consumer's purchase intention. It would seem that cultural norms held by Korean subjects affect how they evaluate self- and other-oriented negative information, resulting in greater negative impact on other-oriented negative information.

How we evaluate a thing or an action reflects our values. Values are conceptions of what is important and worthwhile. They inform our judgments of what is desirable, beautiful, correct, and good, as well as what is understandable, ugly, incorrect, and bad. We learn our basic values early in life. For Koreans, the most important values and norms are collectivism, social harmony, and conformity. When Koreans evaluate negative

events that affect others, they might deem them more detrimental than one that does not affect others.

The study supports the notion that a consumer's identification with a celebrity endorser is an important predictor of the brand evaluation and purchase intention. This study found that consumers with a higher level of identification are less likely to react negatively to a celebrity's bad publicity than consumers with a lower level of identification. In the face of negative celebrity information—in this study's context, self- and other-oriented negative celebrity information—consumers with a higher level of identification were likely to maintain a positive attitude toward a brand and continue to purchase the brand endorsed by the celebrity. Consumers with a lower level of identification were unlikely to maintain a positive attitude toward a brand or to continue buying the product endorsed by the celebrity. As hypothesized in this study, the degree to which consumers identify with a celebrity plays a role in shaping their reactions to negative celebrity information. The more consumers identify with a celebrity endorser, the less likely they are to be influenced by negative celebrity information. In sum, celebrity identification does predict effects. It is concluded that the level of identification mediates effects and that these effects hinge on identification.

As social identity theory suggests, consumers' levels of identification with celebrities like Michael Jackson or Kobe Bryant may help predict how they react to negative situations. Social identity theory describes the causes and consequences

of identification with individuals and with groups (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and has been used in marketing to describe consumers' identification (e.g. Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Identification describes the effect of a relationship on definitions of identity, and occurs when a relationship becomes relevant to identity (Reed, 2002). Consumers who identify with a celebrity define their identities based in part on being a fan of the celebrity. The strength of identification depends on how important being a fan of the celebrity is to the consumer's identity. A relatively weak identification with a celebrity is one where the celebrity, while not very important to a consumer, is still somewhat relevant to a consumer's identity.

For example, a consumer might be weakly identified if he or she was a fan of the celebrity in the past. The strength of consumers' identification with a celebrity should predict their reactions to charges against that celebrity. Strongly identified consumers are expected to believe in their celebrity's innocence, whereas weakly identified consumers are expected to believe in his guilt. As a result, weakly identified consumers are expected to be less willing to purchase or recommend the celebrity's products than are strongly identified consumers. In addition, emotions are expected to indicate consumers' feelings about themselves based on their connection to the celebrity following the accusations of immoral behavior.

When it comes to measuring identification with a celebrity endorser, a scale developed by Basil (1996) was employed in this study. Because identification is an imaginative process that is characterized by an altered state of awareness, it is difficult to measure. Identification is perceived not as a particular type of response toward a

character but as a variable that measured the intensity of different types of positive feelings audience members had toward a character. In this sense, Basil (1996) measured identification using a wide range of questions, including liking, similarity, friendship, role modeling, and whether audience members thought they could work together with a celebrity. In an organizational context, identification is measured differently.

Organization identification is a specific form of social identification and is often measured by Tompkins and Cheney's (1983) Organizational Identification Questionnaire (OIQ). This measurement scale has four distinct dimensions such as behavioral, affective, evaluative, and cognitive dimension. To date, there is no fixed scale for measuring identification. The definition of identification requires further elaboration and refinement as well as empirical tests of propositions regarding the factors leading to identification. In line with further elaboration and refinement, the development of research measures for identification should proceed together.

CHAPTER VII: IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Theoretical Implications

This study's results suggest that people in different cultures attribute differently when evaluating the negative behavior of others. The literature suggests a factor known as fundamental attribution error—the tendency of people to attribute their own behavior to external causes and to attribute the behavior of others to internal causes. However, a body of literature suggests that fundamental attribution error is not universal (e.g., Asians prefer contextual or situational attributions). This study found that Koreans preferred situational attributions over dispositional attributions. The study confirmed the notion that fundamental attribution error, also known as correspondence bias, is not universal. However, it is important to acknowledge that the study result does not support the suspension of fundamental attribution error completely since the study measured only how people attribute the cause of other's negative behavior, not how people attribute the cause of their own negative behavior. Further study needs to investigate the suspension of fundamental attribution error in a complete manner by asking both how people attribute the cause of their own negative behavior and how people attribute the cause of other's behavior.

In addition, as found in the causal judgment test, Koreans showed ultimate attribution error—the tendency of people to make more dispositional attributions for an out-group member's action when attributing causes for negative behaviors, while making more situational attributions for an in-group member (Berry et al., 2002). In the study, Koreans gave more weight to six statements associated with personal dispositions than

did their counterparts. It is considered that Orlando Bloom, the celebrity endorser, might be seen as an out-group person by Korean subjects and an in-group person by American subjects.

Interestingly, the study found that people with high identification with a celebrity are more likely to attribute behavior to situational factors, and people with low identification are more likely to attribute behavior to personal dispositions. The study's findings suggest that the level of identification with a celebrity has an impact on people's attribution styles. Social identity theory predicts that people strongly identified with a celebrity are less likely to react negatively than are people with a lower level of identification. Identification has been considered an important factor underlying attitude and behavior change. This study found that people with high identification reacted to a celebrity's bad behavior less negatively than people with low identification. It is important to note that this study found a missing link that can be helpful in understanding the relationship between the level of identification and reactions to the event. People with high identification are more likely to attribute a celebrity's negative event to situational factors; people with low identification are more likely to attribute the same event to personal dispositions. Hence the negative impact resulting from a celebrity's negative event will be less for the former group than the latter.

Practical Implications

The results from this study have many practical implications for advertising agencies and public relations agencies. As the post-hoc analysis suggests, regardless of country, significant differences appeared between the control groups and self-oriented

information group or other-oriented information group when it came to evaluating negative celebrity information. That is, negative celebrity information could negatively influence how a consumer evaluates the celebrity endorser, the brand the celebrity endorses, and a consumer's purchase intentions. This result suggests that advertising practitioners should use caution in selecting a celebrity or celebrities for an advertising campaign. Celebrity endorsement always comes with risk.

To minimize risk potential, it is advisable, as a precaution, to systematically pre-screen celebrity endorsers, cross-checking them through various channels. It's essential to avoid a celebrity likely to be at the center of a gossip or rumor mill. As a means of damage control, a company should immediately change the endorser if a scandal involving them arises. By including specific indemnification articles in an endorsement contract, advertising practitioners may minimize the fallout from a celebrity scandal.

The study found that a consumer who attributes events to situational factors is more likely to justify celebrity behavior (resulting in less negative celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention) than a consumer who attributes events to personal dispositions. From a public relations perspective, once a scandal breaks, a company must control or manage the news. This study found that attributional styles could affect celebrity evaluation (i.e., likability and trustworthiness). In general, attributional styles are believed to play a role in consumer response to negative celebrity information. People who attribute behavior to situation factors are more open to considering contextual factors surrounding negative celebrity information, making them less likely to assign blame solely to the celebrity endorser. People who attribute behavior

to personal disposition, in contrast, focus on personal characteristics alone, making them more likely to blame the celebrity endorser. Because they affect general processing patterns, peoples' attributional styles can be seen as having a more pervasive influence on how consumers respond to negative celebrity information. This observation also suggests that strategies to influence attributional styles could have widespread application.

If they persuade consumers to pay attention to contextual factors or situational factors, a brand could curb the impact of negative celebrity information. One such strategy suggested in this study is to underscore situational factors as the bad news breaks. A company might accomplish this, when asked to address an unfolding scandal, by heavily placing news stories highlighting or pointing out situational factors (such as the nature of celebrity life).

Future Research

When it comes to measuring consequences of attributional styles (i.e., dispositional attribution vs. situational attribution), this study has dealt with only consumers' affective responses such as celebrity evaluation, attitude behavior, and purchase intention. Further research should investigate not only affective outcomes of attributional styles but also their cognitive outcomes. Studies might measure how much better people who make dispositional attributions recall a scandal than people who make situational attributions. A body of literature suggests that people who attribute the cause of an event to personal dispositions are more likely to remember the event.

The study found that Korean subjects weighed dispositional factors more heavily when attributing the cause of an event than did American subjects. This result extends

ultimate attribution error, the tendency of people to make more dispositional attributions for an out-group member's action when attributing causes for negative behaviors, while making more situational attributions for the in-group member. It is uncertain, however, that Korean subjects considered Orlando Bloom an out-group person or that American subjects considered him an in-group person. Future research needs to investigate if ultimate attribution holds regardless of cultural orientation, that is, if it is universal. Furthermore, it would be interesting to examine the effects of ultimate attribution error on celebrity evaluation, brand evaluation, and purchase intention.

Further research needs to investigate the relationship between level of identification with a celebrity and attributional styles. Interestingly, this study found that people with high identification with a celebrity are likely to make situational attributions whereas people with low identification are likely to make dispositional attributions. Previous research found that people with a high level of identification with a celebrity might, when a scandal involving the celebrity surfaces, be more likely to feel proud of being a fan. Those with a low level of identification might be more likely to feel guilty and ashamed of being connected with the celebrity. This study suggests that these either proud or shameful feelings may lead to the different types of attributional styles. Because people with a high level of identification feel proud of being a fan, they are, consciously or subconsciously, trying to justify the celebrity's behavior by attributing it to situational factors. Since people with low levels of identification feel guilty or ashamed, they try to disassociate themselves, by attributing the cause of the event to personal dispositions, from the scandalized celebrity.

Finally, to date, a great deal of research has investigated the effects of negative celebrity information. Little research, however, has been conducted on what happens to a celebrity if the brand he or she endorses is involved in negative brand publicity. These days a celebrity is quite often considered a brand. As such, a celebrity goes through a product life cycle, from introduction stage to decline stage. It would be interesting to investigate the effects of negative information about a brand on the image of an endorsing celebrity. It is easily observed that many Fortune 500 companies are embroiled in social or environmental controversies. Nike, for example, has been accused of child “slave” labor. Such harsh allegations could tarnish Nike endorsers.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Attributional Style Measurement (Causal Judgment Task) (Weiner et al., 1971)

Twelve possible causes of the event (negative behavior by a celebrity) will be presented to the subjects. The 12 possible causes will consist of 6 personal dispositional and 6 situational factors. Subjects will be asked to rate each factor using the following scale: 1 = not a cause at all, 2 = a minor cause, 3 = one of many cause, 4 = a major cause, 5 = a very important cause, 6 = an extremely important cause, and 7 = the most important cause

Examples: DUI (Driving Under Influence)

Personal Dispositions

1. Bloom, fatigued, was mentally imbalanced due to working too long of hours.
2. Bloom had a history of alcohol addiction.
3. Bloom had personal issues.
4. Bloom drove himself crazy by putting too much pressure on himself.
5. Bloom was obsessed with driving.
6. Bloom could become too negligent while drunk.

Situational Factors

1. Celebrities attend parties where they are pressured to drink/consume alcohol.
2. Bloom, depressed by recent flops, has turned to alcohol to relieve stress.
3. Bloom was without a designated driver.
4. Bloom's behavior is a result of the US's liberal attitude to social drinking.
5. Drinking and driving is not taken seriously enough in the U.S.
6. DUIs (driving under the influence) are not punished severely enough in the U.S., letting people think they can "get away with it."

Appendix B: Identification with a Celebrity Measurement (Basil, 1996)

For each of statements below, please indicate your agreement using the following scale.
("7" means "strongly agree" and "1" means "strongly disagree")

Items	Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Strongly Agree (7)
-------	--------------------------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----------------------

I like Celebrity A.

I can easily relate to
Celebrity A.

I think of Celebrity A as a
good friend.

I have no doubt Celebrity A
and I would work well
together.

Celebrity A is a personal
role model.

Appendix C: Attitude Toward Celebrity

Please rate [Celebrity A] on the following dimensions by checking the appropriate button below:

Celebrity Likeability (Tripp et al., 1994)

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| 1 | likeable | <input type="checkbox"/> | unlikeable |
| 2 | unpleasant | <input type="checkbox"/> | pleasant |
| 3 | agreeable | <input type="checkbox"/> | disagreeable |

Celebrity Trustworthiness (McCroskey, 1996)

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------|
| 1 | dishonest | <input type="checkbox"/> | honest |
| 2 | sincere | <input type="checkbox"/> | insincere |
| 3 | trustworthy | <input type="checkbox"/> | untrustworthy |
| 4 | biased | <input type="checkbox"/> | not biased |
| 5 | credible | <input type="checkbox"/> | not credible |
| 6 | believable | <input type="checkbox"/> | not believable |
| 7 | reputable | <input type="checkbox"/> | disreputable |

Celebrity Expertise (McCroskey, 1996)

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| 1 | trained | <input type="checkbox"/> | not trained |
| 2 | intelligent | <input type="checkbox"/> | not intelligent |
| 3 | expert | <input type="checkbox"/> | inexpert |
| 4 | informed | <input type="checkbox"/> | uninformed |
| 5 | competent | <input type="checkbox"/> | incompetent |
| 6 | bright | <input type="checkbox"/> | stupid |

Appendix D: Attitude Toward Brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981)

1	appealing	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	unappealing
2	bad	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	good
3	pleasant	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	unpleasant
4	favorable	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	unfavorable
5	likeable	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	__:	unlikeable

Appendix E: Purchase Intention (Spear & Singh, 2004)

If you were in the market today for this product/brand, how likely do you feel it is when would you purchase/use this product/brand?

1	never	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	definitely
2	definitely do not intend to buy it	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	Definitely intend to buy it
3	very low purchase interest	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	very high purchase interest
4	definitely not buy it	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	definitely buy it
5	probably not	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	___:	probably buy it

Appendix F: Cultural Orientation (Hui, 1988)

In this section, we ask you to think of yourself. For each statement below, please indicate how strongly you agree by clicking on the button that best reflects that feeling. (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

I would rather struggle through a personal problem by myself than discuss it with my friends

The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy

I tend to do my own thing, and others in my family do the same

One does better work working alone than in a group

When faced with a difficult personal problem, it is better to decide what to do yourself, rather than follow the advice of others

What happens to me is my own thing

If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone

If a child won the Nobel Prize, the parents should not feel honored in any way

Children should not feel honored even if their father was highly praised and given an award by a government official for his contributions and services to the community

In most cases, to cooperate with someone whose ability is lower than yours is not as desirable as doing the thing on your own

One should live one's own life independently of others as much as possible

It is important to me that I perform better than others on a task

Aging parents should live at home with their children

Children should live at home with their parents until they get married

I would help within my means, if a relative told me that he/she is in financial difficulty

I like to live close to my good friends

Individuals should be judged on their own merits, not on the company they keep

Appendix G. Lists of Celebrities Generated by College Students from U.S. & Korea

Country	Names of Celebrities
Korea (n=34)	Brad Pitt, Johnny Depp, Robert Pattison, Orlando Bloom, Leonardo DiCaprio, Jim Carrey, Jason Statham, Jude Law, George Clooney, Jet Li, Jackie Chan, Joshua Hartnett, Matt Damon, Shia LaBeouf, Leslie Cheung, Jay Chan, Rupert Grint, Ashton Kutcher, Daniel Radcliffe, Eric Bana, Will Smith, Liam Neeson, Haruma Miura, Koike Teppei, Wentworth Miller, Jonathan Rhys, Christian Bale, Tom Hanks, Aaron Eckhart, Russell Crowe, David Tennant, Richard Gere, Arnold Schwarzenegger, Mel Gibson
U.S. (n=36)	Matt Damon, Leonardo DiCaprio, Shia LaBouf, Wentworth Miller, Jonathan Rhys, Orlando Bloom, Ashton Kutcher, Ben Affleck, Tom Cruise, Edward Norton, Paul Rudd, Brad Pitt, Jason Segel, Jason Schwartzman, Christian Bale, Ryan Reynolds, Johnny Depp, Scarlett Johanson, Garrett Hedlund, Zoe Deschanel, Sandra Bullock, Katherine Heigl, Reese Witherspoon, Jude Law, Hayden Christianson, Ryan Gosling, Rachel McAdams, Natalie Portman, Mark Wahlberg, Hugh Jackman, Naturi Naughton, Anne Hathaway, Daniel Radcliffe, Emma Stone, Kerry Washington, Keke Palmer

Note. Bold means the celebrity was mentioned by students in U.S. and Korea

Appendix H Self and Other-Oriented News Article

Self-Oriented News Articles

Self-oriented negative information (Orlando Bloom) – Self Article A

Pirates of the Caribbean star Orlando Bloom was injured in a suspected drunk-driving crash near Malibu beach over the weekend. Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) confirms that the actor left a party shortly after 2 a.m. in a BMW SUV. The impact caused the SUV to tip onto its side, inflicting minor injuries only on the actor himself. According to the reports, the police gave Bloom a Breathalyzer test and confirmed alcohol was a factor in the crash. Bloom did not give any official comments on the crash. LAPD reports that dozens of people are seriously injured or killed in accidents caused by drunk drivers in California every day. This year, 10,839 people will die in drunk-driving crashes. That is one in every 50 minutes, according to the Mothers Against Drunk Driving.

Self-oriented negative information (Orlando Bloom) – Self Article B

Pirates of the Caribbean star Orlando Bloom was injured in a suspected drunk-driving crash near Malibu beach over the weekend. Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) confirms that the actor left a party shortly after 2 a.m. in a BMW SUV. The impact caused the SUV to tip onto its side, inflicting minor injuries only on the actor himself. He was transferred to a nearby hospital due to his bleeding from his forehead. However, he was not in critical condition. According to the reports, the police gave Bloom a Breathalyzer test and confirmed alcohol was a factor in the crash. Bloom did not give any official comments on the crash. LAPD reports that dozens of people are seriously injured or killed in accidents caused by drunk drivers in California every day. This year, 10,839 people will die in drunk-driving crashes. That is one in every 50 minutes, according to the Mothers Against Drunk Driving.

Self-oriented negative information (Orlando Bloom) – Self Article C

Pirates of the Caribbean star Orlando Bloom was injured in a suspected drunk-driving crash near Malibu beach over the weekend. Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) confirms that the actor left a party shortly after 2 a.m. in a BMW SUV. The impact caused the SUV to tip onto its side, inflicting serious injuries only on the actor himself. He was transferred to a nearby hospital. He is now in critical condition. According to the reports, the police gave Bloom a blood test and confirmed alcohol was a factor in the crash. LAPD reports that dozens of people are seriously injured or killed in accidents caused by drunk drivers in California every day. This year, 10,839 people will die in drunk-driving crashes. That is one in every 50 minutes, according to the Mothers Against Drunk Driving.

Other-oriented negative information (Orlando Bloom) – Other Article A

Pirates of the Caribbean star Orlando Bloom was injured in a suspected drunk-driving crash near Malibu beach over the weekend. Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) confirms that the actor left a party shortly after 2 a.m. in a BMW SUV. Bloom’s car crashed into a Honda Accord, injuring two passengers in the car. The impact inflicted minor injuries on the actor and his friend sitting on front in passenger seat. A 45-year old male driver and a female passenger, 16, were transported to a nearby hospital. The driver and a passenger suffered only minor injuries. According to the reports, the police gave Bloom a Breathalyzer test and confirmed alcohol was a factor in the crash. Bloom did not give any official comments on the crash. LAPD reports that dozens of people are seriously injured or killed in accidents caused by drunk drivers in California every day. This year, 10,839 people will die in drunk-driving crashes. That is one in every 50 minutes, according to the Mothers Against Drunk Driving.

Other-oriented negative information (Orlando Bloom) – Other Article B

Pirates of the Caribbean star Orlando Bloom was injured in a suspected drunk-driving crash near Malibu beach over the weekend. Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) confirms that the actor left a party shortly after 2 a.m. in a BMW SUV. Bloom’s car crashed into a Honda Accord, injuring two passengers in the car. The impact caused the SUV to tip onto its side, inflicting minor injuries on the actor. A 45-year old male driver and a female passenger, 16, were transported to a nearby hospital. The driver and the female passenger suffered minor injuries. According to the reports, the police gave Bloom a Breathalyzer test and confirmed alcohol was a factor in the crash. Bloom did not give any official comments on the crash. LAPD reports that dozens of people are seriously injured or killed in accidents caused by drunk drivers in California every day. This year, 10,839 people will die in drunk-driving crashes. That is one in every 50 minutes, according to the Mothers Against Drunk Driving.

Other-oriented negative information (Orlando Bloom) - Other Article C

Pirates of the Caribbean star Orlando Bloom was injured in a suspected drunk-driving crash near Malibu beach over the weekend. Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) confirms that the actor left a party shortly after 2 a.m. in a BMW SUV. Bloom’s car crashed into a Honda Accord, injuring two passengers in the car. The impact inflicted minor injuries on the actor and his friend sitting on front in passenger seat. However, a 45-year old male driver and a female passenger, 16, were transported to a nearby hospital. The driver suffered minor injuries but the female passenger is in critical condition. According to the reports, the police gave Bloom a Breathalyzer test and confirmed alcohol was a factor in the crash. Bloom did not give any official comments on the crash. LAPD reports that dozens of people are seriously injured or killed in accidents caused by drunk drivers in California every day. This year, 10,839 people will die in drunk-driving crashes. That is one in every 50 minutes, according to the Mothers Against Drunk Driving.

Appendix I Print Ads (Korean Copy)

단지 누르기만 하세요
카메라 자동설정 기능이 최고의 사진을 위해
최적의 초점과 환경을 맞춰 드립니다
잡기 편하고 이미지가 흔들리지 않는 카메라, VX-Pro 500.



긴 배터리 수명 & 무선 인터넷 기능
찍은 사진을 바로 스마트 폰으로 업로드 하세요!



VX-Pro 500를 만나보세요!
제 기억은 항상 이곳 VX-Pro 500에서 시작합니다.
당신은 어떠세요?



Orlando Bloom (올렌도 블롬)

Appendix J Print Ads (English Copy)

Just point and shoot!
The camera's AUTO adjust features will choose
the best focus and settings for an excellent picture!

The easy-to-grip and image-stabilized. The VX-Pro 500.



Long battery & Wi-fi transferable photos
Load photos on to your smart phone instantly!

Meet VX-Pro 500!
My memory always starts here, VX-Pro 500.
And you?



Orlando Bloom

A handwritten signature of Orlando Bloom in blue ink.

Appendix K Online Survey Questionnaire (English Version)

Title: Consumers' Response to Negative Information About A Celebrity Endorser

IRB# 2011-03-0060

Primary Investigator: Wei-Na Lee (weina@mail.utexas.edu) & Nam-Hyun Um (goldmund@mail.utexas.edu). Department of Advertising, The University of Texas at Austin

You are invited to participate in a survey, entitled "Consumers' Response to Negative Information About A Celebrity Endorser". The study is being conducted by Dr. Wei-Na Lee and Nam-Hyun Um, Advertising Department of The University of Texas at Austin (Department of Advertising, College of Communication, The University of Texas at Austin A1200, 1 (national code) – 512 (local code) - 471-8149/ 1 (national code) – 512 (local code) - 653-3738, weina@mail.utexas.edu / goldmund@mail.utexas.edu)

The purpose of this study is to better understand consumers' responses to negative information about a celebrity endorser. We estimate that it will take about 20 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire. You are free to contact the investigator at the above address and phone number to discuss the survey. You will be asked to indicate your attributional styles, attitude toward the brand, attitude toward a celebrity endorser, purchase intention, and level of identification with a celebrity endorser. Finally, demographic questions will be asked in the last section of the survey.

Risks to participants are considered minimal. There will be no costs for participating, nor will you benefit from participating. Identification numbers associated with email addresses will be kept during the data collection phase for tracking purposes only. A limited number of research team members will have access to the data during data collection. This information will be stripped from the final dataset.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may decline to answer any question and you have the right to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty. If you wish to withdraw from the study or have any questions, contact the investigator listed above.

If you have any questions or would like us to email another person for your institution or update your email address, please call Dr. Wei-Na Lee or Nam-Hyun Um at 1 (national code) – 512 (local code) - 471-8149/ 1 (national code) – 512 (local code) - 653-3738, or send an email to weina@mail.utexas.edu or goldmund@mail.utexas.edu. You may also request a hard copy of the survey from the contact information above.

This study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, complaints, concerns, or questions about the research please contact Jody

Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at 1 (national code) – 512 (local code) 232-2685 or the Office of Research Support at 1 (national code) – 512 (local code) - 471-8871 or email: orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

If you agree to participate please press the arrow button at the bottom right of the screen otherwise use the X at the upper right corner to close this window and disconnect.

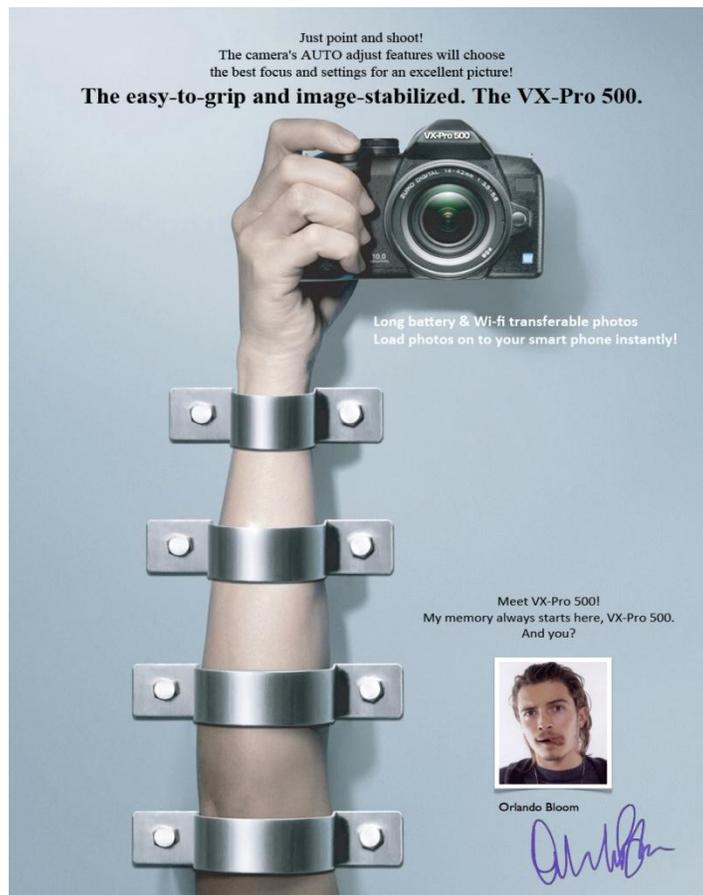
Thank you.

Section A

In this section, we ask your opinion about Orlando Bloom (Actor, 34). For each statement below, please indicate how strongly you agree by clicking on the button that best reflects that agreement. (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like Orlando Bloom	<input type="radio"/>						
I do not have any feelings about Orlando Bloom	<input type="radio"/>						
I can't easily relate to Orlando Bloom	<input type="radio"/>						
Orlando Bloom is a personal role model	<input type="radio"/>						
Learning the life story of Orlando Bloom is a lot of fun.	<input type="radio"/>						
I think of Orlando Bloom as a good friend	<input type="radio"/>						
I have no doubt Orlando Bloom and I would work well together	<input type="radio"/>						
I try to keep up with news about Orlando Bloom.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am fascinated by details of Orlando Bloom.	<input type="radio"/>						
I often feel compelled to learn the personal habits of Orlando Bloom.	<input type="radio"/>						

Please read the following print ad. The ad has recently been placed in "PC Magazine".



Please indicate your opinion about the compatibility between a celebrity and a brand by clicking on the button that best reflects how you feel.

My thoughts on the compatibility between *Orlando Bloom* and the digital camera *VX-Pro 500* are:

- | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| Compatible | <input type="radio"/> | not compatible |
| a bad fit | <input type="radio"/> | a good fit |
| a good match | <input type="radio"/> | a bad match |

Section B

In this section, we ask for your attitude about a celebrity. First, please tell us how you feel about *Orlando Bloom* by checking the appropriate button for each dimension on the following scale.

Orlando Bloom is:

very unlikable	<input type="radio"/>	very likable						
very unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	very pleasant						
very agreeable	<input type="radio"/>	very disagreeable						
extremely familiar	<input type="radio"/>	extremely unfamiliar						
dishonest	<input type="radio"/>	honest						
sincere	<input type="radio"/>	insincere						
untrustworthy	<input type="radio"/>	trustworthy						
biased	<input type="radio"/>	unbiased						
credible	<input type="radio"/>	not credible						
not believable	<input type="radio"/>	believable						
reputable	<input type="radio"/>	disreputable						
not trained	<input type="radio"/>	trained						
intelligent	<input type="radio"/>	not intelligent						
not expert	<input type="radio"/>	expert						
informed	<input type="radio"/>	uninformed						
competent	<input type="radio"/>	incompetent						
bright	<input type="radio"/>	stupid						

Section C

In this section, we ask your attitude toward an endorsed brand and the DUI by Orlando Bloom.

Please indicate your attitude toward the brand by clicking on the button that best reflects how you feel.

Digital Camera VX-Pro 500 is:

unappealing	<input type="radio"/>	appealing						
good	<input type="radio"/>	bad						
unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	pleasant						
unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	favorable						
likable	<input type="radio"/>	unlikable						

If you were in the market today for this product, how likely do you feel it is that you would purchase the digital camera ***VX-Pro 500***?

never	<input type="radio"/>	definitely						
definitely do not intend to buy it	<input type="radio"/>	definitely intend to buy it						
very low purchase interest	<input type="radio"/>	very high purchase interest						
definitely not buy it	<input type="radio"/>	definitely buy it						
probably not buy it	<input type="radio"/>	probably buy it						

Section D

In this section, we ask you to think of yourself. For each statement below, please indicate how strongly you agree by clicking on the button that best reflects that feeling. (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would rather struggle through a personal problem by myself than discuss it with my friends	<input type="radio"/>						
The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy	<input type="radio"/>						
I tend to do my own thing, and others in my family do the same	<input type="radio"/>						
One does better work working alone than in a group	<input type="radio"/>						
When faced with a difficult personal problem, it is better to decide what to do yourself, rather than follow the advice of others	<input type="radio"/>						
What happens to me is my own thing	<input type="radio"/>						
If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone	<input type="radio"/>						
If a child won the Nobel Prize, the parents should not feel honored in any way	<input type="radio"/>						
Children should not feel honored even if their father was highly praised and given an award by a government official for his	<input type="radio"/>						

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
contributions and services to the community							
In most cases, to cooperate with someone whose ability is lower than yours is not as desirable as doing the thing on your own	<input type="radio"/>						
One should live one's own life independently of others as much as possible	<input type="radio"/>						
It is important to me that I perform better than others on a task	<input type="radio"/>						
Ageing parents should live at home with their children	<input type="radio"/>						
Children should live at home with their parents until they get married	<input type="radio"/>						
I would help within my means, if a relative told me that he/she is in financial difficulty	<input type="radio"/>						
I like to live close to my good friends	<input type="radio"/>						
Individuals should be judged on their own merits, not on the company they keep	<input type="radio"/>						

Section E

In this section, we ask you some personal questions. Please be assured that your answers to these questions are kept strictly confidential and will only be used in an aggregate manner for classification purposes. You will never be personally linked to your responses this survey.

In what year were you born?

What is your gender?

What year are you in school?

Into which of the following ethnic groups do you belong?

Appendix L Online Survey Questionnaire (Korean Version)

주제 : 소비자들의 유명한 광고에 대한 효과 조사

IRB# 2011-03-0060

주 연구자: 웨나 리 (weina@mail.utexas.edu) & 엄남현 (goldmund@mail.utexas.edu).

텍사스 오스틴 대학교 광고학과

본 연구의 목적은 소비자들이 유명한 광고에 대한 태도를 조사하는 것입니다. 서베이에 소요되는 시간은 약 15 분 정도이며, 마지막 부분에 여러분의 성, 나이, 및 학년 등을 묻는 인구 통계학적인 질문들이 있습니다. 귀하께서 제공하는 그 어떠한 정보도 이 연구 외 목적으로 사용되지 않을 것입니다.

만약, 본 연구에 질문이 있으신 분들은 엄남현 (goldmund@mail.utexas.edu) 또는 웨나 리 (weina@mail.utexas.edu)에게 이메일을 보내 주시길 바랍니다. 본 연구는 텍사스 대학교 Institutional Review Board 에 의해 리뷰되고 승인된 연구입니다.

귀하께서 본 연구에 대한 불편 사항이 있으시면 텍사스 대학교 IRB 담당자인 조디 쟈센 (Jody Jensen: orsc@uts.cc.utexas.edu)에게 문의하시길 바랍니다.

본 연구에 참여하시길 원하신다면, 아래 화살표 버튼을 클릭하신 후에 서베이에 참여해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

서베이에 참여해 주셔서 감사합니다.

섹션 A

본 섹션에서는 "올랜도 블룸" (영화배우 - '캐리비언의 해적', 34)에 대한 귀하의 생각을 표시해 주시길 바랍니다. 주어진 문장에 어느정도 동의하시는지를 (V) 표시하여 주시길 바랍니다. (1=강력하게 동의하지 않는다 7=강력하게 동의한다)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

나는 올랜도 블룸을 좋아한다

나는 올랜도 블룸에 대해서 특별한 감정이 없다

나는 올랜도 블룸과 잘 통할 것 같지 않다

올랜도 블룸은 나의 개인적인 롤 모델이다

올랜도 블룸의 일상에 대해 알게되는 것은 즐거움이다

나는 올랜도 블룸을 좋은 친구로 생각한다

나는 올랜도 블룸과 잘 지낼 거라는 것에 대해 의심의 여지가 없다

나는 올랜도 블룸에 대한 뉴스를 꾸준히 들으려고 노력한다

올랜도 블룸에 대한 세부적인 사항들은 나를 매혹시킨다

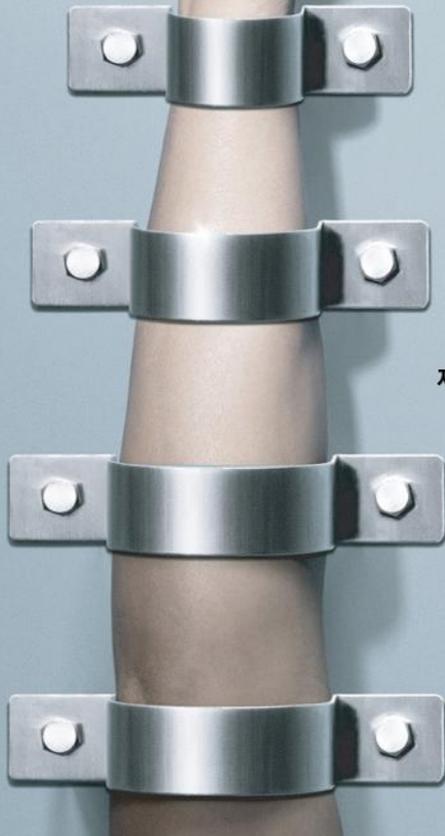
나는 종종 올랜도 블룸의 개인 버릇까지도 알아야 할 것 같은 생각이 들기도 한다

다음 인쇄광고를 읽어 주시길 바랍니다. 본 광고는 "PC Magazine"에 실린
인쇄광고 입니다.

단지 누르기만 하세요
카메라 자동설정 기능이 최고의 사진을 위해
최적의 초점과 환경을 맞춰 드립니다
잡기 편하고 이미지가 흔들리지 않는 카메라, VX-Pro 500.



긴 배터리 수명 & 무선 인터넷 기능
찍은 사진을 바로 스마트폰으로 업로드 하세요!



VX-Pro 500를 만나보세요!
제 기억은 항상 이곳 VX-Pro 500에서 시작합니다.
당신은 어떠세요?



Orlando Bloom (올랜도 블룸)

다음은 "올랜도 블룸" (Orlando Bloom)과 제품에 대한 적합도를 물어 보는 질문들입니다. 제품 모델로서 '올랜도 블룸'과 디지털 카메라 'VX-Pro 500'이 잘 어울리는지를 (V) 표시해 주시면 됩니다.

"올랜도 블룸"과 디지털 카메라 "VX-Pro 500"간의 적합도에 대한 나의 생각은:

적합한	<input type="radio"/>	적합하지 않는						
잘 어울리지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	잘 어울리는						
조화가되는	<input type="radio"/>	조화가 잘 안되는						

섹션 B

본 섹션은 유명인에 대한 태도를 묻는 질문입니다. 우선, "올랜도 블룸"에 대해 어떻게 생각하시는지를 체크해 주시길 바랍니다.

올랜도 블룸은:

매우 좋아하지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	매우 좋아하는						
매우 유쾌하지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	매우 유쾌한						
매우 호감가는	<input type="radio"/>	매우 호감가지 않는						
상당히 익숙한	<input type="radio"/>	상당히 익숙하지 않는						
정직하지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	정직한						
진실한	<input type="radio"/>	진실하지 않는						
믿음이 가지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	믿음이 가는						
편향된	<input type="radio"/>	공정한						
믿을 수 있는	<input type="radio"/>	믿을 수 없는						
신뢰가 가지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	신뢰가 가는						
평판이 좋은	<input type="radio"/>	평판이 좋지 않은						
훈련받지 않은	<input type="radio"/>	훈련된						
지적인	<input type="radio"/>	지적이지 않는						
전문성이 없는	<input type="radio"/>	전문성이 있는						
잘아는	<input type="radio"/>	잘알지 못하는						
능력있는	<input type="radio"/>	능력없는						
똑똑한	<input type="radio"/>	어리석은						

섹션 C

본 섹션은 "올랜도 블룸"이 광고하는 제품에 대한 여러분의 태도에 대한 질문입니다.

귀하의 생각을 가장 잘 표현하는 버튼에 (V) 표시하여 주시길 바랍니다.

"디지털 카메라 VX-Pro 500은"

매력없는	<input type="radio"/>	매력있는						
좋은	<input type="radio"/>	나쁜						
유쾌하지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	유쾌한						
선호하지 않는	<input type="radio"/>	선호하는						
좋아하는	<input type="radio"/>	좋아하지 않는						

귀하께서 만약 이 제품 (디지털 카메라 VX-Pro 500)을 살 기회가 있다면, 얼마 만큼이나 이 제품(디지털 카메라 VX-Pro 500)을 사고 싶으십니까?

결코 아니다	<input type="radio"/>	분명히 살 것이다						
분명히 살려고 하지 않을 것이다	<input type="radio"/>	분명히 살려고 할 것이다						
매우 낮은 구매 관심	<input type="radio"/>	매우 높은 구매 관심						
분명히 사지 않는다	<input type="radio"/>	분명히 산다						
아마도 사지 않을 것이다	<input type="radio"/>	아마도 살 것이다						

섹션 D

본 섹션은 귀하 자신에 대한 질문들입니다. 아래 주어진 각 각의 서술문에 어느정도 동의하시는지 (V) 표시하여 주시길 바랍니다. (1=강력하게 동의하지 않는다 7=강력하게 동의한다)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

나는 개인적인 문제를 친구와 상의하기 보다는 혼자서 해결하려고 노력하는 편이다

내 인생에서 가장 중요한 것은 내스스로를 행복하게 만드는 것이다

나는 내일을 혼자서 하는 편이며, 가족들도 마찬가지다

사람들은 그룹으로 일하는 것 보다 혼자서 할 때 일을 더 잘한다

어려운 문제에 직면했을 때, 다른 사람들의 충고를 따르는 것 보다 혼자서 결정하는 것이 더 낫다

나에게 일어나는 일은 나만의 일이다

만약 내가 속한 그룹이 내가 하는 일을 늦추게 되면, 혼자서 하는 편이 낫다

만일 어떤 사람이 노벨상을 탄다면, 그 사람의 부모는 특별히 자랑스러워 할 필요는 없다

만일 아버지가 지역사회에 공헌한 댓가로 칭송을 받고, 정부로부터 상을 받는 다고 해고 그 아버지의 아이들은 그것을 자랑스러워 할 필요는 없다

나는 종종 올렌도 블룸의 개인 버릇까지도 알아야 할 것 같은 생각이 들기도 한다

대부분의 경우,당신의 능력보다 떨어지는 사람과 함께 협업하는 것은 혼자서 하는 것보다 바람직하지는 않다

사람들은 가능하다면 다른 사람들에 기대지 않고 독립적으로 살아야 한다

어떤 과제를 실행할 때 남들보다 더 잘해야 하는 것은 나에게 중요하다

늙어가는 부모들은 그들의 자식들과 함께 살아야 한다

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