On Who Can the Animals Count?

The Influence of Endorsers and Charity Appeals on Donation Intention and Brand Trust: In the Context of Animal Welfare Organisations

Y. I. Kwadijk
S1877887

Faculty of Behavioural, Management and Social sciences (BMS)
MSc. Communication Studies
Specialization: Marketing Communication

EXAMINATION COMMITTEE

Dr. A.D. Beldad
Drs. M.H. Tempelman

NOVEMBER, 2019

UNIVERSITY OF TWENTE.

On Who Can the Animals Count?

The Influence of Endorsers and Charity Appeals on Donation Intention and Brand Trust: In the Context of Animal Welfare Organisations

Yana I. Kwadijk (S1877887)

University of Twente

Master Thesis

Faculty of Behavioural, Management and Social sciences (BMS)

Study: MSc. Communication Studies

Specialisation: Marketing Communication

First supervisor: Dr. A.D. Beldad

Second supervisor: Drs. M.H. Tempelman

Date and place: November 3, 2019, Lelystad

ABSTRACT

Purpose of the study: The purpose of this study is to extend the little research that has been conducted on the advertisement elements of endorser marketing and charity appeal on influencing brand trust and donation intention within the context of animal welfare. As fundraising became much harder due to the increase of charities, social media could be useful for non-profit organisations to engage and reach more (potential) donors. Therefore, the influence of micro-celebrities is examined. In general, this study aims to provide an insight on the influence of endorser types and charity appeal on trust in the charitable organisation (i.e. brand trust) and charitable donation intention, mediated by endorser credibility and anticipated guilt. The additional influences of personal involvement and moral obligation were also measured.

Design/methodology/approach: The study examined an experimental 3 (endorser type: micro-celebrity, traditional celebrity, activist) X 2 (charitable appeal: positive/negative) between-subjects design and was conducted. Data have been collected with convenience sampling from 133 respondents with Dutch nationality through an online questionnaire.

Findings: The findings revealed no interaction effects for endorser type and charity appeal. However, the study found that donation intentions were higher when the ad included a non-celebrity than when the ad included a celebrity. Furthermore, the findings revealed an influence of endorser type on endorser attractiveness and endorser expertise. Accordingly, endorser attractiveness was highest when the ad included a traditional celebrity, and endorser expertise was highest when the ad included a micro-celebrity. The study also concludes that donation intention is influenced by moral obligation.

Practical implications: This study benefits animal welfare organisations that consider investing money in celebrity endorsement. The study illustrates that animal welfare organisations wanting to influence possible donors should focus on the use of non-celebrities in their advertisements. In addition, the use of either a positive or negative charity appeal in the advertisement makes no difference.

Keywords: Influencer marketing, brand trust, endorser credibility, donation intention, endorser marketing, charity appeals

Paper type: Master Thesis

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1   INTRODUCTION

The advertising industry is growing (Wieser, 2019) and digital advertising is now responsible for 50% of all marketing expenses and continues to grow with an increase of 15% in 2019 and 16% in 2020 (Michaela Jefferson, 2019; Wieser, 2019). Considering 51% of the total world population uses social media (Kemp, 2017), these expenses are apparent; social media offers companies the opportunity to reach a broad audience. Therefore, social media became the standard for many commercial organisations. Similarly, also for non-profit organisations, considering the number of non-profit organisations visible on social media. Non-profit organisations in the Netherlands operate on social media but are behind when compared to American non-profits. Without examining the number of followers, American non-profit organisations invest more in online consistency and activity and make social media a priority. Due to the increase in charities and growing competition, fundraising became much harder (Das, Kerkhof, & Kuiper, 2008). Therefore, social media is an even more essential marketing communication channel. Namely, social media offers non-profit organisations a low cost, interactive communication medium which they can use to interact with volunteers and benefactors, raise public awareness, and engage and educate people about their programs and services (Guo & Saxton, 2018; Waters, 2010).

When examining the social media of animal welfare organisations (e.g. WWF, Stichting Aap, Stichting Dierenlot), one could see animals frequently in their advertisements. Obviously, they are the cause of the organisations' existence. Besides, humans are genetically predisposed to be attracted to other living beings such as animals, which could influence transactional behaviour (Stone, 2014). However, human endorsers are also used in these advertisements. Traditional celebrities, such as movie stars, musicians, and sports icons (Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017), are used for raising awareness and promoting a cause or organisation. For example, PETA (People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals) had an advertisement in which musician Pink encourages people to stop wearing fur (see Figure 1). The use of celebrities in non-profit organisations could potentially increase the growth of recourses, awareness and attention (Branigan & Mitsis, 2014).

Figure 1 Pink in an advertisement for PETA

Nevertheless, the new digital era changed the endorser game. Digital advertising, and in particular social media, introduced influencer marketing and micro-celebrities. According to Carter (2016), influencer marketing is "a growing industry in which social media users are ranked according to measures of influence and compensated for promoting products online." (p. 1) Micro-celebrities are ordinary internet users who have grown a large following on social media by sharing their personal lives (Abidin, 2016). They are authentic (Marwick, 2013) which allows people to resonate with the micro-celebrity, resulting in a specific niche of like-minded followers. For example, Daniella Monet, a micro-celebrity with more than two million Instagram followers, is currently one of the spokespersons in PETA's YouTube videos.

Although the use of celebrities could be effective, animal welfare organisations rely to a great extent on activists and also work with them in their campaigns. For example, the animal welfare organisation Compassion in World Farming recently used activists in their social media posts to show the awareness the activists raised for the campaign "Stop Live Transport".

With all these different endorsers, the question arises of which endorser is more effective in increasing

donation intention and trust in the organisation: celebrities (traditional, micro-celebrities) or non-celebrities (animal activists)?

How animal welfare organisations use charity appeals in their advertisements depends on the organisation. For example, PETA's advertisements focus on the negative and shocking consequences of not acting out with shocking images whereas World Wide Fund for Nature's (WWF) advertisements focus on the positive outcomes of acting out with images of happy animals in their natural habitat. According to Erlandsson et al. (2018), research is divided on which appeal elicits more donation intention; some researchers are in favour of the negative charity appeal and others are in favour of the positive charity appeal. Here, the question of which appeal elicits more intentions to donate towards animal welfare organisations arises.

Previous studies focused on the relationship between charity appeal (or frame) and donation intention (Das et al., 2008; Erlandsson et al., 2018; Haynes, Thornton, & Jones, 2004; Wymer & Drollinger, 2015), where the research of Haynes et al. (2004) specifically focus on animal welfare. Similar studies on message frame and picture valence were conducted (Chang & Lee, 2009; Reinhart, Marshall, Feeley, & Tutzauer, 2007; Tugrul & Lee, 2018). Moreover, the concept of influencer marketing is relatively new and little-studied (Abidin & Ots, 2015; Bakshy, Hofman, Mason, & Watts, 2011; Braatz, 2017; Einarsdóttir, 2017; Geiser, 2017). These studies focused on purchase intention for commercial organisations but not on donation intention for non-profit organisations. In addition, there is little research conducted on the relation between the use of endorsers and brand trust (Doney, Cannon, & Mullen, 1998). To conclude, the combination of influencer marketing, advertisement appeal, brand trust and donation intention needs research. Here, this research could contribute to the research gap.

Research on the effect of endorser types and charity appeals, as elements of advertisements, on donation intention could provide animal welfare organisations with sufficient knowledge for developing social media advertisements. With this research, the animal welfare organisations will know which endorser type (traditional celebrities, micro-celebrities, or animal activists) and which charity appeal (positive or negative) increases the intention to donate, specifically, which combination of these elements will increase the intention to donate. In addition, the animal welfare organisation will know which endorser type increases the trustworthiness of their organisation.

The abovementioned questions and the research gap leads to the following main research question:

Main research question: How do advertisement elements of endorser type (animal rights activist, traditional celebrity, or micro-celebrity) and advertisement appeal (positive or negative) influence the intention to donate towards an animal welfare organisation?

To answer the main question, there are also some sub-questions formulated:

SRQ1: *Which endorser type (i.e. animal rights activist, traditional celebrity, or micro-celebrity) is most effective in influencing an individual's trust in an animal welfare organisation?*

SRQ2: *Which endorser type (i.e. animal rights activist, traditional celebrity, or micro-celebrity) is most effective in influencing an individual's intention to donate towards an animal welfare organisation?*

SRQ3: *Which charitable appeal (i.e. positive charity appeal or negative charity appeal) is most effective in influencing an individual's intention to donate towards an animal welfare organisation?*

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Charitable Donation Intention and Animal Welfare Organisations

Donation intention is about the likelihood to donate after seeing a stimulus such as an advertisement (Basil, Ridgway, & Basil, 2006). It is a measurement for eliciting actual donations (Basil et al., 2006). According to Ajzen (1991), before predicting the actual behaviour, it is essential to asses intentions.

Charitable organisations could use social media as an interactive platform to increase donation intentions, especially on a limited budget. Facebook Causes, specifically, is a free feature on Facebook, which facilitates interaction with the charitable organisation. The feature includes a donation button which encourages people to donate. In general, social media platforms maintain more involvement and interaction than traditional media and therefore encourages people to share and create information and participate in discussions (Saxton & Wang, 2014). Additionally, social media could be useful to engage and reach more (potential) donors.

There has been some recent research on donation intention and social media (Tan et al., 2016; Tugrul & Lee, 2018; Wallace, Buil, & de Chernatony, 2017; Sura, Ahn, & Lee, 2017; Saxton & Wang, 2014). For instance, the research of Saxton and Wang (2014) emphasise that online donations are not influenced by the same aspects as offline donations are. Despite these studies, the number of research on the relationship between social media and donation intention is still minimal. In addition, little research has been conducted on the elements of online advertisements or social media to increase donation intention to animal welfare organisations. Prior research on charitable donation intention to animal welfare organisations mainly outlined the characteristics and behaviour of the donor (Bennett, 2003; De Backer & Hudders, 2015).

2.2 Trust in Charitable Organisations

Trust and public confidence are essential for charities (Gaskin, 1999). Trust is necessary to maintain philanthropy and increase support (e.g. donations or time), to promote volunteer work, and to obtain space in politics (Gaskin, 1999). Trust is:

> "The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other part." (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 712)

In short, trust involves taking the risk to choose one action over another, with the chance to be disappointed and risking a loss. Here, vulnerability and risk-taking are essential to the need for trust (Ingenhoff & Sommer, 2010). Trust is an essential factor for a charitable organisation to increase donations and could be increased by communicating the organisations' trustworthiness (Bekkers, 2003). According to Ingenhoff and Sommer (2010), "trust is based on trustworthiness and, therefore, on the perception of competence, responsibility and dependability of the trustee." (p. 341) Here, the emphasis is on the use of a competent, responsible, and reliable trustee to influence the trustworthiness of the organisation. Accordingly, trustworthiness is one of the dimensions of endorser credibility (Ohanian, 1990), together with attractiveness and expertise. Prior research has thoroughly investigated endorser credibility (Goldsmith, Lafferty, & Newell, 2000; Gupta, Kishore, & Verma, 2015; Demangeot & Broderick, 2010; Simmers, Damron-Martinez, & Haytko, 2009). However, little research has been conducted on the use of a credible endorser to increase trust in a charitable organisation.

2.3 Endorsers in Advertisements

The majority of organisations use endorsers as part of their marketing communication. Endorsers 'endorse' or appraise a brand or product. Brands could use an endorser to get attention from their following, which could be

the brand's target group, to obtain the acceptance of products and associations or to make recall easier (Malik & Guptha, 2014). Here, choosing the best-fitted endorser is essential because every endorser evokes different consumer responses (Wu, Linn, Fu, & Sukoco, 2012).

The endorsers in this research are divided into the categories of celebrities (i.e. traditional celebrities and micro-celebrities) and non-celebrities (i.e. animal rights activists).

2.3.1 Celebrity Endorsers

McCracken (1989) defines a celebrity endorser as "any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement" (p. 310) Celebrities are often used as endorsers for commercial brands because they, among others, enhance the credibility and attractiveness of the organization or brand (Russmann & Svensson, 2016). Nowadays, social media and online influences facilitate for ordinary people to build an audience and thereby go beyond the more traditional celebrity-culture (Center & Gamson, 2011). With this, making the 'celebrity-status' available to everyone with access to social media or the internet (Center & Gamson, 2011). Within the spectrum of celebrities, traditional celebrities and micro-celebrities differ from each other. These differences will be explained below.

2.3.1.1 Traditional celebrities

Traditional celebrities are, according to Marwick (2015), celebrities "whose fame is conferred by mainstream media or entertainment, such as television shows or professional sports." (p. 146) In short, a person is described as a traditional celebrity when he or she has initially become famous through traditional (mass) media or entertainment such as movies, television shows, sports games or news. Traditional celebrities are film stars, musicians, and sports icons (Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017). Entering a relationship with a charitable organisation could also be beneficial for the celebrity. Namely, charity advertisements could be a way to profile themselves as more compassionate and caring instead of commercial; it adds a new dimension of personality (Littler, 2008). According to the research of Kelly, Morgan, and Coule (2014), benevolence is the primary motivation for celebrity volunteers. Celebrities know that they have a privileged position because of their fame and like to use it to help others for little or no material gain (Kelly et al., 2014).

2.3.1.2 Micro-celebrities

Abidin (2016) considers micro-celebrities as online influencers, which she defines as:

> "everyday, ordinary Internet users who accumulate a relatively large following on blogs and social media through the textual and visual narration of their personal lives and lifestyles, engage with their following in "digital" and "physical" spaces, and monetize their following by integrating "advertorials" into their blogs or social media posts and making physical paid-guest appearances at events. (Abidin, 2016, p. 3)

These ordinary Internet users become micro-celebrities through a process called celebrification. This process encompasses the transformation of ordinary people or public figures into celebrities (Driessens, 2013). Social media provides these ordinary internet users with a space to create fame by enabling high public profiles and self-branding (Khamis, Ang, & Welling, 2017). In comparison with traditional celebrities, micro-celebrities may have a small number of followers on social media. However, the micro-celebrity is still able to get a celebrity status by using the same social media technologies used by traditional celebrities (Marshall & Redmond, 2015). Micro-celebrities useful endorsers because they could influence their audience daily by sharing their public persona on social media and making actions that confirm their image to sustain believable, accessible and intimate (Abidin & Ots, 2015). Micro-celebrities connect to the concept of strange familiarity, which is familiarity obtained when sharing personal information with remote people (Senft, 2013). To illustrate, watching a micro-

celebrity on YouTube, talking about something in their personal life creates a feeling of familiarity because you know their personal story. This familiarity could also be reinforced by the two-way interactivity social media provides by which some micro-celebrities create a friend-like feeling.

2.3.2   Non-Celebrity Endorsers

To understand the concept of a non-celebrity is to understand the concept of a celebrity. As mentioned earlier, a celebrity enjoys public recognition. Additionally, celebrities are created by the media, and their primary function is commercial and promotional (Turner, 2013). Now the concept of a non-celebrity could be understood: a non-celebrity is an unknown individual who is not created by the media.

2.3.2.1 Animal rights activists

Considering this study will look into the effects concerning an animal welfare organisation, an animal rights activist is examined as the non-celebrity. Animal rights activists campaign for social change (Greenebaum, 2009). Animal rights activists are often united in a group, and their actions and strategies turn towards so-called out-groups (Einwohner, 2002). These out-groups consist of among other opponents and the general public and have an essential part in constructing the identity of activists (Einwohner, 2002). The extensive research of Jamison and Lunch (1992) indicates that the majority of animal rights activists in America are highly educated, female, white, living in urban areas, and have an average age of 29 years old. They are mainly driven by intense emotional experiences with pets and believe that the leading cause of animal exploitation is human dominance over the environment.

Present-day animal rights activists use social media to seek understanding and awareness online by sharing behind the scenes footage of specific animal industries. This study will only research unknown activists to limit the research and focus on the difference between a non-celebrity (i.e. animal rights activist) and a celebrity (i.e. micro-celebrity and traditional celebrity).

2.4   Endorsers and Charitable Donation Intention

Which endorser type will have more influence on charitable donation intention: a celebrity or a non-celebrity? According to McCracken (1989), non-celebrities transfer the message of a particular product less meaningful than celebrities. Specifically, non-celebrities offer merely demographic information (e.g. age, gender, status) whereas celebrities offer a known personality and lifestyle traits which gives them particular configurations of meanings that could transfer to the product (McCracken, 1989; Saeed, Naseer, Haider, & Naz, 2014). As an example, Morgan Freeman, as an endorser, shows that a product is destined for the elderly, but his image and appearance bring additional personal and lifestyle traits.

Several studies stress the differences between celebrities and non-celebrities. According to these studies, celebrities positively influence consumer perceptions, consumer responses, purchase intentions, ad attitudes, and attitudes towards the endorsed brand (Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan, 1999; Kamins, 1989; Malik & Guptha, 2014; Saeed et al., 2014). For example, the study of Saeed et al. (2014) demonstrated that both a celebrity and a non-celebrity influenced consumer perceptions positively. However, a celebrity had more influence on consumer perceptions than a non-celebrity considering a more meaningful message transfer (Saeed et al., 2014). Notably, the research of Erdogan (1999) and Malik and Guptha (2014) emphasises on the positive effects of celebrity endorsers on purchase intention. However, there is a research gap here because these studies did not look into the effects of non-celebrities.

In short, celebrities transfer endorsed meanings more meaningful than non-celebrities and have more

influences on consumer responses as purchase intention, which is similar to charitable donation intention. Therefore the following hypothesis is expected:

H$_{1a}$: Individuals' intention to donate will be higher when the ad includes a celebrity than when it includes a non-celebrity.

As expected with H$_{1a}$, donation intention will be higher when the ad includes a celebrity. Here, the question arises which celebrity endorser will be more effective in increasing donation intention. As mentioned before, celebrities are effective endorsers. Nevertheless, there are differences expected between the traditional celebrity and micro-celebrity concerning charitable donation intention. According to Wiley (2014), reviews of micro-celebrities are more influential than reviews of traditional celebrities because micro-celebrities are perceived to be more authentic and accessible. They could reach an audience that is almost similar to the audience that is reached by television networks (Marwick, 2015). Accordingly, micro-celebrities are relatable, reachable, and feel like friends (Abidin & Ots, 2015; Einarsdóttir, 2017; Senft, 2013). Furthermore, according to the research of Djafarova and Rushworth (2017), people value the opinions of a micro-celebrity over the opinion of a traditional celebrity.

Even though there is a lack of research when it comes to micro-celebrities and donation intention, the abovementioned studies indicate that micro-celebrities outplay traditional celebrities in different areas of consumer perception. Based on the arguments above, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H$_{1b}$: Individuals' intention to donate will be higher when the ad includes a micro-celebrity than when it includes a traditional celebrity.

2.5 Endorsers and Trust in the Charitable Organisation

Erdogan (1999) defines endorser trustworthiness as "the honesty, integrity and believability of an endorser." (p. 297) The perceived trustworthiness of the endorser could transfer to the brand or organisation through a transference process (Doney et al., 1998) which is referred to as transference-based trust. Here, the perceived trustworthiness of the trusted source is transferred to an unfamiliar source with whom the trustor has no experience (Doney et al., 1998) such as an unfamiliar organisation or brand. Individuals are unfamiliar with the non-celebrity and also know nothing about their personality or lifestyle traits (McCracken, 1989; Saeed et al., 2014). Therefore, the non-celebrity's trustworthiness is more challenging to evaluate. Individuals are familiar with a celebrity and its personality and lifestyle traits (McCracken, 1989; Saeed et al., 2014) and are, therefore, able to perceive the celebrity as a more trustworthy source. Thus, when a celebrity is perceived as a trusted source, there is a higher chance of transferring trustworthiness to the charitable organisation. Consequently, the trustor must identify the endorser as trustworthy. With this knowledge, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H$_{2a}$: Individuals' trust in the charitable organisation will be higher when the ad includes a celebrity than when it includes a non-celebrity.

Nevertheless, it is essential to keep in mind the risk of using a celebrity endorser. According to the research of Till and Shimp (1998), negative information about a celebrity could lead to a low assessment of the celebrity, which could lead to lower brand evaluation.

As expected with H$_{2a}$, trust in the charitable organisation will be higher when the ad includes a celebrity. With this also the question arises of which celebrity will evoke more trust in the charitable organisation. Celebrity's trustworthiness is a fundamental factor for influencing consumer evaluation of endorser effectiveness (Ilicic & Webster, 2011). Nevertheless, as with charitable donation intention, there are differences expected between the traditional celebrity and micro-celebrity concerning trust in the charitable organisation (i.e. brand

trust). Namely, it is anticipated that micro-celebrities will have more influence on brand trust than traditional celebrities. Influencers of whose opinions are considered most trustworthy are close friends (Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016). People describe micro-celebrities as friends or role models, and this feeling of intimacy makes a micro-celebrity more believable (Einarsdóttir, 2017). As an example, YouTuber Zoella asked her followers for advice about her trousers as if her followers substitute as friends and tells them that she loves them at the end of her video (Jerslev, 2016). In consonance, the research of Jargalsaikhan and Korotina (2016) discusses that individuals perceive micro-celebrities as long-distance friends and that some even value their opinion over those of their real friends. To conclude, micro-celebrities come very close to close friends who are considered the most trustworthy. Based on the concept of transference-based trust and the arguments mentioned, the following hypothesis is formulated:

> **H$_{2b}$**: Individuals' trust in the charitable organisation will be higher when the ad includes a micro-celebrity than when it includes a traditional celebrity.

2.6   Charitable Advertisement Appeals

There are several appeals organisations could use in their advertisements such as guilt-appeals, gain-framed appeals, or altruistic appeals. According to Wang, Cheng, and Chu (2013), an advertising appeal "aims to motivate consumers to take special actions or influences their attitudes toward certain products/services". (p. 358). Following the research of Chang and Lee (2009), the effects of framing are enhanced when the image valence and framed message are congruent. Therefore, the charity appeal in this research will consist of congruent image valence and message framing.

Accordingly, Erlandsson et al. (2018) distinguish two comprehensive charity appeals: the negative charity appeal and the positive charity appeal. Erlandsson et al. (2018) define negative charity appeals as "advertisements that emphasise the negative consequences if not complying with a request." (p. 2) To illustrate: without your donation, we cannot rescue the sad or abused animal included in the advertisement. The positive charity appeal is defined as "advertisements emphasising the positive consequences if complying." (Erlandsson et al., 2018, p. 2) To give an example: with your donation, we could save more animals as the happy, rescued animal in the advertisement.

The research of Haynes, Thornton, and Jones (2004) proved that a negative appeal is more effective in increasing an individuals' intention to donate. Negative appeals evoke unfavourable feelings such as sadness and sympathy, and individuals try to reduce these feelings by donating (Haynes et al., 2004). Namely, people are risk-averse and thus instead take the risk to avoid losses than they prefer gains (Gass & Seiter, 2014). Therefore, people will rather comply to prevent negative consequences. In consonance with the research of Haynes, Thornton, and Jones (2004), Erlandsson et al. (2018) conducted four studies for their research on charity appeals which confirms the influence of a negative charity appeal on donation intention. Based on previous research, the following hypothesis is formulated:

> **H$_3$**: An individuals' charitable donation intention will be higher when the advertisement includes a negative charity appeal than when the ad includes a positive charity appeal.

2.7   The Influences of Endorser Type and Charity Appeal Combined on Charitable Donation Intention

The proposed hypotheses of the interaction effects are based on the Congruity Theory. Lee and Schumann (2004) define congruity in advertising as: "a match (or mismatch) between a stimulus element (e.g. product,

brand, endorser, music, or any execution element in an ad) and the existing schema that one holds about the advertising stimulus." (p. 59-60) According to the Principal of Congruity by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955), there must be congruence between the spokesperson and the ideas they support. Consequently, in this research, the endorser must be congruent with the charity appeal. For example, the animal rights activists, who are known for their demonstrations and for making people aware of the negative consequences of the animal industries, could be linked to the negative charity appeal.

Inconsistency creates psychological discomfort, which is unpleasant and causes people to reduce, deny or avoid the inconsistency (Gass & Seiter, 2014). When people change their evaluation, it is always in the direction of increased congruity (Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955). People with a high preference for consistency experience more favourable attitudes towards a person that they expect to meet than towards a person they did not expect to encounter (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2010). Consequently, when an individual expects to meet someone, they already establish a connection to this person (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2010), and therefore there are different outcomes expected between a non-celebrity and celebrity.

Different studies have proven a positive effect of congruity. Congruity between an endorser and the endorsed products leads to a perception of higher believability, increases brand attitude, generates more favourable attitudes (towards e.g. the advertisement and product), and makes the endorser perceive as more credible (Choi & Rifon, 2012; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Meksi Gaied & Saied Ben Rached, 2017; Till & Busler, 2000). Congruity between an endorser and the endorsed brand leads to positive, altruistic attribution (i.e. charitable donation intention), positive attitudes towards the endorser and brand, and results in people seeking out more brand-relevant information to form beliefs (Ilicic & Baxter, 2014; Kirmani & Shiv, 1998)

First, the interaction effect for the micro-celebrities is examined. Micro-celebrities are in some ways quite similar to celebrities because they also acquire a fanbase, the ability to influence and show interest in their fans (Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016). However, they are expected to have more influence on individuals' intention to donate than traditional celebrities. As mentioned in Chapter 2.4, micro-celebrities are expected to have more impact on charitable donation intention than traditional celebrities. As mentioned before, micro-celebrities are often seen as friends or as friend-like (Einarsdóttir, 2017; Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016) and are perceived as very authentic (Khamis et al., 2017; Marwick, 2013) and trustworthy (Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016). These are positive, favourable attitudes which consequently could lead to a positive assertion.

Based on the theories mentioned above and in earlier chapters, it is considered that micro-celebrities matches the positive appeal and will have more influence on donation intention than traditional celebrities. They will also have a more substantial impact than animal rights activists because of their celebrity-status which is proven better than the non-celebrity status (Malik & Guptha, 2014; McCracken, 1989; Saeed et al., 2014). Based on the literature review, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H_{4a}: An advertisement that includes a micro-celebrity and a positive charity appeal will result in a higher level of charitable donation intention than when the ad includes an animal rights activist and a negative charity appeal or a traditional celebrity and a positive charity appeal.

Second, the interaction effect for a traditional celebrity is examined. Celebrities are regularly used for specific marketing-related outcomes, such as purchase intention (Gupta, Kishore, & Verma, 2015; Malik & Guptha, 2014) or to positively influence the attitude towards an advertisement (Sallam, 2011). As demonstrated in the study of Till and Shimp (1998), negative information about the celebrity could reduce the appeal of the endorsed brand, especially for small brands. Nevertheless, the use of celebrities is still valued positively by investors (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995). As they are evaluated positively, they match the positive charity appeal.

However, taken into account the more positive effects of a micro-celebrity (e.g. trustworthiness, friend-like, more donation intention), a traditional celebrity is expected to have less positive influence than a micro-celebrity.

Concerning their celebrity status, their influence is proven better than the impact of a non-celebrity animal rights activist (Erdogan, 1999; Malik & Guptha, 2014). Following the congruity theory and the theories mentioned before, the following hypothesis is stated:

H4b: An advertisement that includes a traditional celebrity and a positive charity appeal will result in a higher level of charitable donation intention than when the ad includes an animal rights activist and a negative charity appeal but will result in a lower level of charitable donation intentions when an advertisement includes a micro-celebrity and a positive charity appeal.

At last, the interaction effect for an animal rights activist is examined. Animal rights activist want to make people aware of the consequences of human dominance over animals (e.g. animal exploitation and animal cruelty). Therefore, they reveal information regarding these industries of which the results could disturb individuals and doubt the failure of animal industries (Croney & Reynnells, 2008). For this reason, it is anticipated that an animal rights activist matches the negative appeal based on the Congruity Theory. Their influence is expected to be the least positive because, as mentioned earlier, non-celebrities elicit less positive responses than celebrities and are less effective in obtaining positive attitudes towards the advertisement, the endorsed product, and purchase intention (Erdogan, 1999; Malik & Guptha, 2014). Therefore, the following hypothesis is stated:

H4c: An advertisement that includes an animal rights activist and a negative charity appeal will result in a lower level of charitable donation intention than when the ad includes a micro-celebrity and a positive charity appeal or a traditional celebrity and a positive charity appeal.

2.8 Mediating Effects of Endorser Credibility and Anticipated Guilt

2.8.1 Mediating effect of endorser credibility on brand trust

As defined by Goldsmith, Lafferty, and Newell (2000) endorser credibility "describes the believability of a spokesperson or endorser in an ad, their attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness." (p. 304) In the literature, endorser credibility is mentioned likewise with source credibility, which concerns the believability of the message receiver in the sender (Wu & Wang, 2011). Endorser credibility has three dimensions identified by Ohanian (1990), namely: perceived trustworthiness, expertise, and attractiveness. The first dimension *trustworthiness* is "the listener's degree of confidence in, and level of acceptance of, the speaker and the message." (Ohanian, 1990, p. 41). The second dimension *expertise* is about the source of perceived expertise (Ohanian, 1990). The third dimension *attractiveness* influences someone's first judgement of another person (Ohanian, 1990). About endorser credibility, Ilicic and Webster (2011) conclude that an expert endorser is more persuasive and generates more purchase intentions. Additionally, communicators that are perceived as attractive create higher likeability, purchase intention, and brand and product recall (Ilicic & Webster, 2011).

Micro-celebrities are famous to a niche group of people and feel authentic to their following (Marwick, 2013). Authenticity is an essential facet of a micro-celebrity; micro-celebrities create a sense of reality in their branding, which makes them accessible and intimate (Khamis et al., 2017), somewhat friend-like. The intimacy of influencers as friends or role models makes a micro-celebrity believable (Einarsdóttir, 2017). Some even value their opinions over their friends' (Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016). These abovementioned theories are confirmed by the research of Schouten, Janssen, and Verspaget (2019) which concludes that individuals identify more with and feel more similar to micro-celebrities than traditional celebrities and also trust micro-celebrities more.

Therefore, the influence of a micro-celebrity on the dimension of trustworthiness is perceived as the most influential. Resulting in the following hypothesis:

H₅ₐ: Endorser trustworthiness will be higher when the advertisement includes a micro-celebrity than when the ad includes a traditional celebrity or animal rights activist.

Ever since the nineteenth century, traditional celebrities have been used as endorsers for marketing purposes (Erdogan, 1999). Advertisements usually use attractive endorsers because consumers form positive stereotypes about them (Erdogan, 1999). Traditional celebrities, in general, are attractive (Escalas & Bettman, 2017; Ilicic & Webster, 2016). They are often used to portray their attractiveness onto a product, for example, beauty products. Diverse studies examined the effectiveness of the celebrities' attractiveness (Choi & Rifon, 2007; Erdogan, 1999; Kahle & Homer, 1985), with this manipulation and assuming the attractiveness of a celebrity. Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₅ᵦ: Endorser attractiveness will be higher when the advertisement includes a traditional celebrity than when the ad includes a micro-celebrity or animal rights activist.

According to Erdogan (1999), expertise refers to "the knowledge, experience or skills possessed by an endorser." (p. 298) According to Carbone (2004), speaking for animals is a claim of expertise because activists need to interpret them and translate their thinking into human language. Animal rights activists educate the public, celebrate the existence of animals and protest against inhumane treatment of animals (Sentient Media, n.d.). To protest against the inhumane treatment of animals, they encounter a lot of knowledge and details about the animal industries. Additionally, they try to educate the public on the treatment of animals. The research of Till and Busler (2000) discusses the 'expert-fit' which means that someone who is an expert at something (e.g. athlete) would be considered more of an expert to relating products (e.g. athletic products) because people perceive a fit between the expert endorser and the product. Following the reasoning of this research, an animal rights activist is an expert at raising awareness for animal rights, and therefore people could perceive a fit with an animal welfare organisation. With this knowledge, the influence of an animal rights activist on the dimension of expertise is regarded as the most influential. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₅ᵧ: Endorser expertise will be higher when the advertisement includes an animal rights activist than when the ad includes a micro-celebrity or traditional celebrity.

Prior research generally examined the mediating influence of endorser credibility, or source credibility, with the main focus on brand attitude, attitude towards the ad, and purchase intention (Demangeot & Broderick, 2010; La Ferle & Choi, 2005; Ohanian, 1990; Samat, Hashim, & Raja Yusof, 2014; Siemens, Smith, Fisher, & Jensen, 2008; Spry, Pappu, & Bettina Cornwell, 2011; Wheeler, 2009; Wu & Wang, 2011). For example, the research of Wu and Wang (2011) concluded that a message with higher source credibility resulted in a higher brand attitude than a message with lower source credibility. Namely, a higher message source credibility increases the perceived quality of the message, decreases the perceived risk, results in more persuasion and improves brand attitude (Wu & Wang, 2011). In addition, Pappu, Cornwell, and Spry (2011) prove that the endorsers' credibility transfers to the brand resulting in brand credibility. Thereby taken into account the different outcomes anticipated for the endorser types, it is expected that endorser credibility has a mediating effect. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H$_{5d}$: The effect of the endorser type on trust in the charitable organisation will be mediated by endorser credibility.

2.8.2   *Mediating effect of anticipated guilt on donation intention*

Guilt is an emotional action and occurs when an individual regrets something he or she should do or should have done regarding a particular situation (Basil, Ridgway, & Basil, 2008). Doing nothing in some cases (i.e. inaction) could provoke feelings of guilt (Lindsey, 2005). However, there is a difference between anticipated guilt and actual guilt. Guilt is a result of behaviour (e.g. doing something or nothing), whereas anticipated guilt occurs before the behaviour (i.e. inaction) (Basil et al., 2008). Thus, anticipated guilt occurs when people anticipate doing nothing in a situation which results in feelings of guilt (Lindsey, 2005).

Anticipating an emotion is stronger than actually feeling the emotion because an individual who rarely feels guilty will still anticipate these emotions which results in taking steps to prevent from this feeling (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall, & Zhang, 2007). The prevention of feelings of guilt aligns with the Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Dainton & Zelley, 2015). Accordingly, individuals like to create a balance between their own beliefs and their behaviour; imbalance creates dissonance (Dainton & Zelley, 2015). An imbalance is uncomfortable, and therefore individuals would change the situation to restore the balance between thought and action (Dainton & Zelley, 2015). To reduce negative feelings caused by anticipated guilt, individuals will mitigate these feelings by, for example, donating money. Additionally, the research of Lindsey (2005) confirms that people that experience anticipated guilt are motivated to action (e.g. change behaviour or donate). Advertisements of charity organisations often respond to the effects of guilt. Haynes, Thornton, and Jones (2004) confirm that people who experience sadness or guilt from negative appeals tend to have the feelings to reduce these negative feelings. Based on previous research, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H$_6$: The effect of the advertisement charity appeal on charitable donation intention will be mediated by anticipated guilt.

2.9   Additional Influences on Charitable Donation Intention

When an individual is personally involved with something (e.g. issue, event, or person), it is important to them and they are concerned about it (Thomsen, Borgida, & Lavine, 1995). Personal involvement causes people to make different choices. For instance, individuals with pets are more inclined to donate to an animal welfare organisation (Bennett, 2003). Additionally, vegetarians donate more than flexitarians or meat-eaters to animal welfare organisations (De Backer & Hudders, 2015). Furthermore, individuals who are personally involved with a cause (e.g. through experiences or by being involved through family members or friends) are more likely to donate (Burgoyne, Young, & Walker, 2005).

Personal involvement increases an individual's motivation to elaborately process a persuasive message (Göckeritz et al., 2009) and was established to influence intention (Park, Ekinci, & Cobanoglu, 2002). In addition, Bekkers and Wiepking (2011) propose that when there is a similarity between personal values and organisational values, people are more likely to donate to that particular organisation.
Concerning the previous research confirming the influence of personal involvement on donation intention, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H$_7$: Individuals' charitable intention to donate is mediated by personal involvement.

Moral obligation to donate could also influence donation intention. Haines, Street, and Haines (2008) view moral obligation as a "decision-making sub-process that occurs after an individual makes moral judgment and before

establishing a moral intention." (p. 391) It significantly influences moral intent (Haines et al., 2008). Moral intent also includes the intention to donate. Individuals who are strongly morally obligated to donate to a charitable organisation also have a strong intention to donate (Smith & McSweeney, 2007). More research confirmed moral obligation as a predictor of donation intention (Ajzen, 1991; Cheung & Chan, 2000; Gorsuch & Ortberg, 1983). Overall, it is expected that also in this study; moral obligation will be an essential predictor of donation intention. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H_8: Individuals' charitable intention to donate is mediated by the moral obligation to donate.

2.10   Research Model

Based on the literature review and the from there obtained hypotheses, the following research model is constructed (see Figure 2). The research model displays the relationships between the different variables.
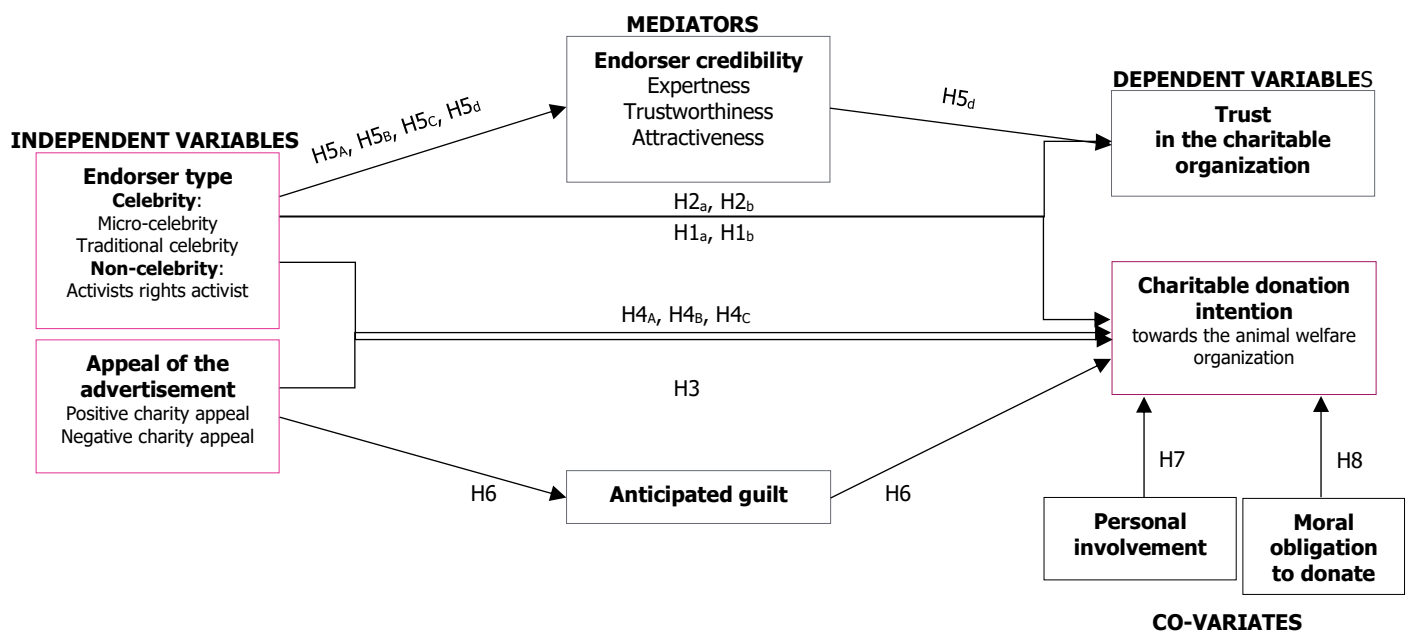

Figure 2 Research Model

3   METHODOLOGY

3.1   Research Design

The study examined an experimental 3 (endorser type: micro-celebrity, traditional celebrity, activist) X 2 (charitable appeal: positive/negative) between-subjects design. The design resulted in six conditions which are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1 Research design and resulting experimental conditions

Experimental condition	Endorser type	Charitable appeal
Condition 1	Micro-celebrity	Positive appeal
Condition 2	Micro-celebrity	Negative appeal
Condition 3	Traditional celebrity	Positive appeal
Condition 4	Traditional celebrity	Negative appeal
Condition 5	Animal rights activist	Positive appeal
Condition 6	Animal rights activist	Negative appeal

The study manipulated two independent variables which were endorser type (micro-celebrity, traditional celebrity, and activist) and charity appeal (positive or negative). The study examined donation intention and trust in the charitable organisation as dependent variables. Personal involvement and moral obligation to donate were included as covariates. Besides, the study controlled for the mediation effects of endorser credibility and anticipated guilt.

The independent variables were manipulated with a preliminary test. The preliminary test determined the endorsers, pictures, and messages for the actual test. Data was collected by a Qualtrics survey and analysed with SPSS.

3.2   Research Procedure

The questionnaire was developed with the survey tool Qualtrics. Respondents were collected with convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling method, through social media and direct contact.

The questionnaire started with demographic questions (e.g. age, gender, nationality, and educational level) and some additional questions concerning social media usage and previous donation behaviour. After that, the respondents were requested to answer statements about their personal involvement with the welfare of animals in factory farms and moral obligation. After these questions, the conditions were randomly assigned to the participants as randomisation offers high internal validity because then, for both time and group threats are controlled. The respondents were presented with the stimulus material, including an introduction in advance. After viewing the stimulus materials, questions about the endorser and advertisement appeal were asked for the manipulation check followed by the items of the mediating variables and dependent variables. After that, they were allowed to ask questions or make comments. At last, they were able to enter their email address in order to receive the survey results in the form of a research paper.

3.3   Stimulus Materials

After the preliminary studies, six conditions were designed together with graphic designer Evelien Boensma. The six conditions are displayed in Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5.

Figure 3 From left to right: condition 1) micro-celebrity x positive charity appeal, condition 2) micro-celebrity x negative charity appeal

Figure 4 From left to right: condition 3) traditional celebrity x positive charity appeal, condition 4) traditional celebrity x negative charity appeal

Figure 5 From left to right: condition 5) activist x positive charity appeal, condition 6) activist x negative charity appeal

3.3.1 Development of stimulus materials with a preliminary study

In order to design the stimulus materials, three preliminary studies were conducted before the manipulations were achieved. The contents of these studies are discussed in Chapter 3.3.2. and Chapter 3.3.3. The stimulus materials were partially fictional; the cause, brand, and non-celebrity were fictional, whereas the celebrities and pictures of the animals were real. To prevent external differences from having influence, the endorsers' expressions were (Photoshopped) neutral, and the celebrity endorsers were given black t-shirts. The non-celebrity was beforehand selected based on wearing a black t-shirt. Each condition consisted of an endorser and a charity appeal (which consisted of a message and image).

The brand in the stimulus materials was called 'Heart for Animals' to carry out the organisations' heart for all animals. Animals in factory farms were the focus of the advertisement because of their low representation by animal organisations. The cause and the animal in the advertisement were inspired by the true story of Julia, a breeding pig rescued by an animal sanctuary.

3.3.2   Selection of endorser types

In the first preliminary study, three male micro-celebrities, three female micro-celebrities, three traditional male celebrities and three traditional female celebrities were evaluated. The celebrities evaluated in the preliminary test were selected on their established connection with (farmed) animals. For example, Arjen Lubach is a well-known vegetarian advocating for eating less meat. The endorsers were evaluated based on familiarity. The familiarity-element of the Athlete Endorser Effectiveness Scale by (Peetz, 2012) measured endorser familiarity on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree, e.g. "When I viewed the picture I knew who the endorser was").

The findings revealed that the respondents were more familiar with male endorsers (M=2.84, SD=2.17) than with the female endorsers (M=3.91, SD=2.13). Therefore, male endorsers were selected. The most familiar male micro-celebrity was Enzo Knol (M=2.53, SD=2.09) and the most familiar traditional celebrity was Arjen Lubach (M=1.60, SD=1.54). To acknowledge the perceived difference between the traditional celebrity and micro-celebrity, an additional question was added in the second preliminary study. Namely, "What is [celebrity endorser] best known for?". The bipolar scale ranged from '1=mainstream entertainment such as television shows' (i.e. traditional celebrity) to '5=internet and social media' (i.e. micro-celebrity). The manipulations succeeded as Arjen Lubach was perceived as a traditional celebrity (M=2.70, SD=2.00) and Enzo Knol as a micro-celebrity (M=5.91, SD=0.30).

The non-celebrities were selected based on the quality of the picture and wearing a black t-shirt. The second preliminary test evaluated the non-familiarity of the non-celebrity; the least familiar non-celebrity (M=6.30, SD=0.98) was selected from three non-celebrities (Figure 6). Within two preliminary studies, the endorser types were manipulated.

Figure 6 From left to right: Enzo Knol, Arjen Lubach, unknown endorser

3.3.3   Development of charity appeal

The charity appeal consisted of a loss- or gain-framed message and a negative or positive image. The images and messages on the extreme ends were combined into the positive and negative charity appeals. In the first preliminary study, six messages (three gain-framed and three loss-framed) were evaluated based on their framing. Message framing was measured by asking respondents to rate the framing of the message on a 7-point bipolar scale (e.g., costs-benefits, losses-gains, negative outcomes-positive outcomes). Accordingly, the

responsive scale of Hwang, Cho, Sands, and Jeong (2012) was used and adjusted to make the scale more logical in Dutch. There was no final result from the first study, nor from the second one. Eventually, in the third preliminary study the most gain-framed message (M=5.67, SD=1.63) and most loss-framed message (M=2.38, SD=1.13) were chosen, namely:

- *Gain-framed*: Iedere moeder wil er voor haar kleintjes zijn. [Steun Heart for Animals!] Met jouw donatie kunnen zij mishandelde moedervarkens uit kraamkooien redden en veilig opvangen in hun sanctuary.
  (In English: Every mother wants to be there for her little ones. [Support Heart for Animals!] With your donation, they can rescue abused mother pigs from maternity cages and safely collect them in their sanctuary.)

- *Loss-framed*: Iedere moeder wil er voor haar kleintjes zijn. [Steun Heart for Animals!] Zonder jouw donatie kunnen zij geen mishandelde moedervarkens uit kraamkooien redden en niet veilig opvangen in hun sanctuary.
  (In English: Every mother wants to be there for her little ones. [Support Heart for Animals!] Without your donation, they cannot rescue abused mother pigs from maternity cages and cannot receive them safely in their sanctuary.)

Image valance was measured with the image valence manipulation of Chang and Lee (2009) on a 7-point Likert scale (1=very negative, 7=very positive), with the following item: "Rate each image relative to the animals' wellbeing". In order to manipulate the image, the first preliminary study also evaluated three negative valanced pictures and three positive valanced pictures. The most negative valanced picture (M=1.65, SD=0.88) and the most positive valanced picture (M=6.60, SD=0.60) were chosen, see Figure 7.

Figure 7 From left to right: positive valanced picture, negative valanced picture

Both manipulations of Chang and Lee (2009) and Hwang et al. (2012) form the charity appeals. The images and messages on the extreme ends were combined into the positive and negative charity appeals.

3.4   Manipulation Checks

After viewing the stimulus material, respondents were requested to answer questions concerning the endorser type and charity appeal of the advertisement in order to check for the manipulations. The manipulation checks were performed with the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Independent Samples T-Test in order to determine the effectiveness of the manipulations. Both manipulations were successful.

3.4.1   Endorser type

After viewing the advertisement, the manipulation for the endorser type was measured with two self-developed constructs. The first construct included three statements measured on a 5-point Likert Scale which were: "The person in the advertisement is a social media influencer; (…) television personality; (…) activist". The second construct included six items, measured on a 5-point Likert Scale, which were based on the definitions in the theoretical framework of the endorsers. For each endorser type, two items were designed. To illustrate, for micro-celebrity, the following statement was designed: "The person in the advertisement is an ordinary internet user who has collected a relatively large number of followers on social media."

Factor analysis showed that the second construct was not applicable for the manipulation check.

Therefore, the second construct was not used. The first question of the first construct about the tv-personality, to manipulate for the traditional celebrity condition, revealed a significant difference in means ($F_{(5,127)}=12.41$, $p<.00$). The second question about the social media influencer, to manipulate for the micro-celebrity condition, also revealed a significant difference in means ($F_{(5,127)}=9,79$, $p<.00$). The last question about the activist, to manipulate for the activist condition, again, revealed a significant difference in means ($F_{(5,127)}=7.91$, $p<.00$).

In order to identify the differences in means, the means were compared (see Table 2). Respondents in the traditional celebrity condition agreed more with the traditional celebrity as a traditional celebrity (M=3.77) than respondents in the other conditions did (micro-celebrity: M=2.43; activist: M=2.26). The respondents in the micro-celebrity condition agreed more with the micro-celebrity as a micro-celebrity (M=4.02) than the respondents in the other conditions did (trad. celebrity: M=3.34; activist: M=2.79). Again, the respondents in the activist condition agreed more with the activist being an activist (M=3.86) than the other conditions did (micro-celebrity: M=2.55; trad. celebrity: M=2.98). Hence, this indicates that the manipulation of the endorser type was successful. The differences in means and standard deviation per endorser type condition are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Means and standard deviations on conditions asked vs conditions viewed

			Condition asked					
			Micro-celebrity		Traditional celebrity		Activist	
		n	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Viewed stimulus	Micro-celebrity	47	4.02	.092	2.43	.972	2.55	.855
	Traditional celebrity	44	3.34	1.01	3.77	1.26	2.98	1.00
	Activist	42	2.79	.84	2.26	.77	3.86	.95

Note: measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=totally disagree, 5=totally agree)

3.4.2 Charity appeal

Charity appeal was measured with the same two constructs as used in the preliminary test and one additional self-developed construct. Image valance was measured with the image valence manipulation of Chang and Lee (2009) and the message framing with the responsive scale of Hwang, Cho, Sands, and Jeong (2012). The self-developed construct measured the overall charity appeal on a 5-point Likert scale and was based on the definitions of positive and negative charity appeals of Erlandsson, Nilsson, and Västfjäll (2018).

The constructs were examined separately with an Independent Samples T-Test. The construct of message framing revealed a statistical difference between both charity appeals ($p<0.00$). Measured on a 7-point Likert Scale, the positive charity appeal was found to be moderately positive (M=4.56, SD=1.47) and the negative charity appeal was found to be moderately negative (M=3.25, SD=1.20). Likewise, the construct of image valance revealed a statistical difference between both charity appeals ($p<0.00$). The positive charity appeal was assessed as moderately positive (M=4.44, SD=1.63), and the negative charity appeal was assessed as negative (M=2.79, SD=1.28) on a 7-point Likert Scale. Finally, the overall charity appeal construct revealed a statistical difference between both charity appeals ($p=.04$). Unfortunately, the positive charity appeal was assed lower (M=3.11, SD=0.56) than the negative charity appeal (M=3.31, SD=0.58) on a 5-point Likert Scale.

To conclude, two out of three manipulations were successful, resulting in inadequate manipulation. Therefore, it is critical to interpreting the results of the dependent variables with caution because the manipulated factor could cause variation in the dependent variable.

3.5   Respondents

In total, 135 respondents participated in the survey, of which two respondents were removed because they were not of Dutch nationality. The research sample resulted in 133 respondents useful for analysis. Qualtrics divided the respondents equally over the six conditions, including the respondents who had not completed the questionnaire. Consequently, the incomplete questionnaires were removed, resulting in an uneven distribution (Table 3).

The respondents' age varied from 18 to 77 years old, of whom the majority had an age of 24 years old. The mean age was 38 years old. As presented in Table 3, most respondents were in the age group 18-29 (42.1%). The age group of people over 65 was unrepresented (3.0%). Additionally, in condition 1, there were no respondents of over 65 years old.

The majority of the respondents (60.2%, N=80) was female, 52 respondents were male (39.1%), and 1 respondent (0.8%) did not indicate their gender. The distribution of gender was mostly ~60% female and ~40% male, except for the second condition. The second condition included more males (N=13) than females (N=10).

Considering educational level, 70.7% of the respondents had a high educational level (i.e. HBO level or higher), and 29.3% of the respondents had a low educational level. The distribution was quite homogeneous (70%-30%) except for condition 4. Here, the distribution was 42.3% (low educational level) over 57.7% (high educational level).

In general, when looking at the distribution, there was an imbalance. Consequently, when analysing the results, differences between age, gender, and educational level must be interpreted with caution.

Table 3 Overview of sample based on sample characteristics (age, gender, educational level)

		Condition 1 (n=24)		Condition 2 (n=23)		Condition 3 (n=18)		Condition 4 (n=26)		Condition 5 (n=21)		Condition 6 (n=21)		Total (n=133)	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Age group															
	18-29	8	33.3%	10	43,50%	10	55.6%	10	38.5%	10	47.6%	8	38.1%	56	42.1%
	30-49	10	41.7%	3	13,00%	4	22.2%	8	30.8%	6	28.6%	9	42.9%	40	30.1%
	50-64	6	25.0%	9	39,10%	3	16.7%	7	26.9%	4	19.0%	4	19.0%	33	24.8%
	65+	0	0,00%	1	4.3%	1	5.6%	1	3.8%	1	4.8%	0	0.0%	4	3.01%
Gender															
	Male	10	41.7%	13	56.5%	5	27.8%	10	38.5%	8	38.1%	6	28.6%	52	39.1%
	Female	14	58.3%	10	43.5%	13	72.2%	16	61.5%	13	61.9%	14	66.7%	80	60.2%
	No											1	4.8%	1	0.8%
Educational level															
	Low	5	20.8%	6	26.1%	5	27.8%	11	42.3%	5	23.8%	7	33.3%	39	29.3%
	High	19	79.2%	17	73.9%	13	72.2%	15	57.7%	16	76.2%	14	66.7%	94	70.7%

3.5.1   Social media usage

Social media usage per social media platform is presented in Table 4. When looking at YouTube usage, the usage is divided. Namely, some respondents use it multiple times a week (29.3%), a few monthly (24.1%), and others once a day (21.8%). When observing Twitter usage, the majority of the respondents (87.2%) never use it. The findings indicate an extreme distribution for Facebook and Instagram usage; individuals use it several times a day or never. As an example, Facebook is never used by 29 respondents (21.8%) and approximately once a day by 27 respondents (20.3%).

In general, most respondents (53.1%) are low users of social media (i.e. they use social media never or

monthly). 46.9% of the respondents are high users of social media (i.e. they use social media more than a few times a week). When analysing the results for the micro-celebrity, difference must be interpreted with caution. Consequently, some respondents could be unfamiliar with Enzo Knol and therefore a micro-celebrity could have less of an influence.

Table 4 Breakdown of social media usage per social media platform

	Facebook		Instagram		Twitter		YouTube		Other social media		Cumulative percentage
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	%
Never	29	21.8%	50	37.6%	116	87.2%	14	10.5%	68	51.1%	41.7%
Monthly	11	8.3%	10	7.5%	6	4.5%	32	24.1%	17	12.8%	11.4%
A few times per week	25	18.8%	16	12.0%	5	3.8%	39	29.3%	18	13.5%	15.5%
Once a day	27	20.3%	12	9.0%	4	3.0%	29	21.8%	13	9.8%	12.8%
Multiple times a day	41	30.8%	45	33.8%	2	1.5%	19	14.3%	17	12.8%	18.6%

3.5.2   *Past donation behaviour*

Examining past donation behaviour, 17.3% of the respondents did not donate previously. The majority of the respondents (82.7%) once donated. Consequently, past donation behaviour could influence actual donation behaviour (Kashif, Sarifuddin, & Hassan, 2015), which could be considered when analysing the results of donation intention. When analysing the focuses of the organisations that were donated to, most respondents (33.3%) donated to healthcare. The other charitable focus areas respondents mainly donated to were international aid and human rights (20.5%), animals (18.0%), and nature, environment, and wildlife (18.0%). These results are reported per condition to examine the distribution in Table 5.

The means of donation intention were higher for respondents who previously donated to organisations focused on animals (M=2.59) and nature, environment and wildlife (M=2.42) than that they were for the other focuses (health: M=2.29; international aid and human rights: M=2.27; art and culture: M=2.37; education: M=2.35, religion and philosophy of life: M=2.10, welfare: M=2.30, other: M=2.25). Thus, respondents who previously donated to organisations that focused on animals had higher intentions to donate.

Table 5 Breakdown of charitable organisations' focus areas donated to by respondents

	Condition 1		Condition 2		Condition 3		Condition 4		Condition 5		Condition 6	
Focus of the organisation donated to:	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Animals	10	23.8%	9	14.1%	4	10.8%	10	16.7%	10	17.2%	7	18.0%
Healthcare	11	26.2%	12	18.8%	11	28.7%	20	33.3%	12	20.7%	13	33.3%
International aid and human rights	8	19.0%	15	23.4%	10	27.0%	11	18.3%	12	20.7%	8	20.5%
Art and culture	1	2.4%	4	6.3%	4	10.8%	4	6.7%	5	8.6%	1	2.6%
Nature, environment and wildlife	8	19.0%	9	14.1%	5	13.5%	9	15.0%	12	20.7%	7	18.0%
Education	1	2.4%	3	4.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0	1	1.7%	0	0.00%
Religion and philosophy	0	0.0%	3	4.7%	1	2.7%	3	5.0%	3	5.2%	0	0.00%
Welfare	2	4.8%	6	9.4%	2	5.4%	3	5.0%	3	5.2%	2	5.1%
Other	1	2.4%	3	4.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	2.6%
Total	42	100.0%	64	100.0%	37	100.0%	60	100.0%	58	100.0%	39	100.0%

3.6   Measurements

3.6.1   Dependent measures

Trust in the charitable organisation. Five items of the brand trust construct of Beldad, Gosselt, Hegner, and Leushuis (2014) were included to asses brand trust on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=strongly agree, 5=strongly disagree). The construct included items like: "The way this charitable organisation collects funds is trustworthy." The construct originally covered six items. One item was not relevant to the study; therefore, it was removed.

Donation intention. Donation intention was measured with the donation intention index of Ye, Teng, Yu, and Wang (2015). The donation intention index contained four statements, including: "I am willing to make a donation to Heart for Animals". Items were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly agree, 5=strongly disagree).

3.6.2   Mediating measures

Endorser credibility. Endorser credibility was measured with the scale of La Ferle and Choi (2005), which is inspired by the Source Credibility Scale of Ohanian (1990). Respondents had to evaluate the endorser based on attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise on a bipolar scale (e.g., Attractive—Unattractive or Experienced—Inexperienced).

Anticipated guilt. In order to measure anticipated guilt, the following question was asked: "If you are not donating to the charity and the cause, how would you react?" This question is derived from Grant and Wrzesniewski (2010) and adapted to the subject. Respondents then had to agree or disagree with statements as: "I would feel guilty" or "I would feel that I led the animals down".

3.6.3   Covariate measures

Personal involvement. Personal involvement was measured with a scale constructed by Schultz, Rendo, Goldstein, and Griskevicius (2010). Respondents had to asses statements on a 5-point Likert scale about the overall cause (i.e. welfare of animals in factory farms) based on their personal involvement, such as: "How often do you think about the welfare of animals in factory farms?" By accident one statement was not included in the test.

Moral obligation. This co-variate was measured with a five-point Likert scale (strongly agree-strongly disagree) constructed by Smith and McSweeney (2007). Six items of this scale were used, including "I am the kind of person who donates money to charities or community service organisations".

3.7   Validity

In order to check for the validity of the survey, a Varimax with Kaiser Normalization factor analysis on 32 items was performed (see Table 6). This resulted in eight components with an eigenvalue of above 1. The components together explained 76.0% of the variance. According to the KMO and Bartlett's Test, the sampling adequacy is meritorious (KM0=.811). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity shows statistical significance ($p<0.00$) and thus indicating that the variables are related. To conclude, factor analysis is useful.

The factor analysis (Table 6) showed that the three components of endorser credibility should be measured separately (i.e. endorser trustworthiness, endorser attractiveness, and endorser expertise). The factor analysis showed that the scales are valid, including the scale for personal involvement where one statement was not included by accident.

To measure the internal consistency after the factor analysis, the Cronbach's alphas scores were calculated. All scales had an alpha level higher than .8, which concludes a good internal consistency; showing

that the individual scale items measure the underlying construct good. For the scales of donation intention and anticipated guilt, the Cronbach's alpha showed excellent internal consistency.

Table 6 Results of the factor analysis (Rotated Component Matrixa)

		Component							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Personal Involvement (α=.895)	I often think about the welfare of animals in factory farms.	0,878							
	The welfare of animals in factory farms is a big issue in my life.	0,82							
	I care much about the welfare of animals in factory farms.	0,822							
	Increased regulation of the treatment of animals in farming is needed.	0,72							
	Animal agriculture raises serious ethical questions about the treatment of animal.	0,771							
	In general, humans have too little respect for the quality of life of animals.	0,685							
Moral Obligation to Donate (α=.843)	I am the kind of person who donates money to charities or community service organisations.					0,788			
	I would feel guilty if I didn't donate money to charities or community service organisations.					0,753			
	I believe I have a moral obligation to donate money to charities or community service organisations.					0,839			
	Not donating money to charities or community service organisations goes against my principles.					0,719			
Brand Trust (α=.834)	The way Heart for Animals collects funds is trustworthy.			0,634					
	The actions of Heart for Animals meets my expectations.			0,664					
	I trust Heart for Animals to do its best in helping its beneficiaries.			0,696					
	I think I can trust Heart for Animals.			0,885					
	Heart for Animals can be trusted to help its beneficiaries faithfully.			0,84					
Donation Intention (α=.935)	I am willing to make a donation to Heart for Animals.		0,697						
	I intend on making a donation to Heart for Animals.		0,879						
	I am very likely to make a donation to Heart for Animals.		0,886						
	I will make a donation to Heart for Animals.		0,886						
Endorser Credibility - Attractiveness (α=.831)	Attractive - Unattractive								0,833
	Classy - Not classy								0,844
	Sexy - Not sexy								0,83
Endorser Credibility - Trustworthiness (α=.885)	Trustworthy - Untrustworthy						0,856		
	Sincere - Insincere						0,845		
	Reliable - Unreliable						0,801		
Endorser Credibility - Expertise (α=.878)	Expert - Not an expert							0,893	
	Experienced - Inexperienced							0,828	
	Skilled - Unskilled							0,795	
Anticipated Guilt (α= .946)	I would feel guilty.		0,785						
	I would feel that I had let the animals down.		0,858						
	I would feel that I had disappointed the animals.		0,868						
	I would feel that I had not lived up to the animals' standards.		0,834						

4   RESULTS

The following section reports the results based on the information gathered with the survey. In Table 7, an overview of the means and standard deviations of the endorser types on the dependent variables is presented. Table 8 presents the means and standard deviations of the charity appeals on the dependent variables. Each paragraph examines a dependent variable.

Table 7 Mean and standard deviations of the main effects of endorser types

	All Endorser Types						Celebrity vs Non-celebrity Endorsers			
	Celebrity endorsers				Non-celebrity endorser					
	Micro-celebrity (N=47)		Traditional celebrity (N=44)		Animal rights activist (N=42)		Celebrity (N=91)		Non-celebrity (N=42)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Donation intention	2.17	0.80	2.10	0.81	2.48	0.84	2.14	0.80	2.48	0.84
Brand Trust	3.13	0.58	3.20	0.47	3.27	0.45	3.16	0.53	3.27	0.45
Anticipated Guilt	2.29	1.05	2.10	0.90	2.27	0.83	2.20	0.98	2.27	0.83
Endorser Attractiveness	3.44	0.83	3.62	0.87	3.17	0.64	3.53	0.85	3.17	0.64
Endorser Trustworthiness	3.03	0.76	2.76	0.94	2.90	0.79	2.90	0.86	2.90	0.79
Endorser Expertise	4.15	0.73	3.50	0.89	3.50	0.77	3.84	0.87	3.50	0.77

Note: measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=totally disagree, 5=totally agree)

Table 8 Means and standard deviations of the main effects of charity appeals

	Positive Charity Appeal (N=63)		Negative charity appeal (N=70)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Donation intention	2.35	0.81	2.15	0.84
Brand Trust	3.26	0.51	3.14	0.49
Anticipated Guilt	2.32	0.94	2.13	0.92
Endorser Attractiveness	3.35	0.78	3.48	0.83
Endorser Trustworthiness	2.79	0.87	3.00	0.80
Endorser Expertise	3.65	0.83	3.80	0.88

Note: measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=totally disagree, 5=totally agree)

4.1   The Effects on Donation Intention

This paragraph examines the effects on donation intention; the main effects, interaction effects, covariate effects and mediation effects are explained.

4.1.1   Main effects on donation intention

The Independent Samples T-Test was performed to examine the effect of the celebrity endorser and non-celebrity endorser on donation intention (H_{1a},). The test revealed a significant difference in donation intention between an ad that includes a celebrity and an ad that includes a non-celebrity ($t(131)=-2.24$, $p=.03$). Donation intention was higher in the non-celebrity condition (M=2.48, SD=0.84) than in the celebrity condition (M=2.14, SD=0.80). Expected was that donation intention was higher in the celebrity condition; thus, H_{1a} is rejected. The analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to compare the effectiveness of the celebrity endorser or non-celebrity endorser on donation intention while controlling for the covariates personal involvement and moral obligation to donate. There was no significant difference in donation intention between the celebrity and non-celebrity condition while controlling for personal involvement ($F(1,130)=3.00$, $p=.09$, $n^2=.02$). There was a

significant difference in donation intention between the conditions as mentioned earlier while controlling for moral obligation ($F(1,130)=4.93$, $p=.03$, $n^2=.04$). The partial Eta Squared value indicates a small effect. In Table 9, the mean scores are indicated with three decimals after a comma to indicate the small effect.

Table 9 Means with and without the influence of moral obligation

Dependent Variable: Donation Intention		
	Celebrity	Non-celebrity
	M	M
Mean with the covariate MO	2.141	2.468
Mean without the covariate MO	2.137	2.476

Note: MO = Moral obligation
Measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=totally disagree, 5=totally agree)

Considering the effect of the celebrity endorsers on donation intention (H_{1b}), the Independent Samples T-Test revealed no significant difference in donation intention between an ad that includes a micro-celebrity than an ad that includes a traditional celebrity ($t(89)=.40$, $p=.69$). Thus, H_{1b} was rejected. The ANCOVA was also performed to compare the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers on donation intention while controlling for the covariates personal involvement and moral obligation to donate. The ANCOVA revealed no significant difference in donation intention between the micro-celebrity and traditional celebrity while controlling for personal involvement ($F(1,88)=0.20$, $p=.66$, $n^2=.00$) and moral obligation ($F(1,88)=0.00$, $p=.98$, $n^2<.00$).

The Independent Samples T-Test revealed no significant main effect of charity appeal on donation intention ($t(131)=-1.40$, $p=.17$). Therefore, H_3 was rejected. The ANCOVA was also performed to compare the effectiveness of charity appeals on donation intention while controlling for the covariates personal involvement and moral obligation to donate. The ANCOVA revealed no significant difference in donation intention between a negative or positive charity appeal while controlling for personal involvement ($F(1,130)=0.98$, $p=.33$, $n^2=.01$) and moral obligation ($F(1,130)=1.20$, $p=.28$, $n^2=.01$).

In Table 10, the total results of the Independent Samples T-test are presented. The results of the covariates are explained in separate subparagraph 4.1.3. and are presented in Table 12.

Table 10 Independent Samples T-Test results of the main effects without controlling for the covariates

	df	t	p
Non-celebrity vs. celebrity conditions	131	-2.24	.03
Celebrity endorsers	89	0.40	.69
Charity appeal	131	-1.40	.17

4.1.2 Interaction effects on donation intention

The analysis of multivariance (MANOVA) revealed no interaction effect between all the endorser types and charity appeal measured on donation intention ($F(2,127)=.183$, $p=.83$, $n^2=.00$). Considering the influence of the covariates personal involvement and moral obligation to donate, the ANCOVA revealed no significant difference while controlling for personal involvement ($F(2,126)=0.10$, $p=.91$, $n^2=.00$) or moral obligation ($F(2,126)=0.02$, $p=.98$, $n^2<0.00$). With respect to the hypothesis testing, H_{4a}, H_{4b}, and H_{4c} were rejected. Table 11 presents the results of the donation intention per condition.

Table 11 Influence per condition on donation intention

	Condition	M	SD
Donation Intention	1	2,21	0,80
	2	2,13	0,82
	3	2,22	0,83
	4	2,02	0,80
	5	2,62	0,76
	6	2,33	0,91

Note: measured on a 5-point Likert Scale (1=totally disagree, 5=totally agree)

Table 12 MANOVA table

4.1.3 Covariate effects on donation intention

The analyses of covariance revealed a significant difference in donation intention while controlling for moral obligation to donate. This effect is found in the influence of non-celebrity vs celebrity on donation intention. Therefore, H_8 is confirmed. The analysis revealed no significant differences for personal involvement. Therefore, H_7 is rejected. The ANCOVA results are summarised in Table 13. In Table 14 the distribution of personal involvement is presented. In Table 15 the distribution of moral obligation is presented.

Table 13 ANCOVA results of the main- and interaction effects on donation intention

	Influence of personal involvement				Influence of moral obligation			
	df	F	p	n2	df	F	p	n2
Non-celebrity vs. Celebrity	1,130	3.00	.09	.02	1,130	4.93	.03	.04
Celebrity endorsers	1,88	0.20	.66	.00	1,88	0.00	.98	.00
Charity appeal	1,130	0.98	.33	.01	1,130	1.20	.28	.01
Endorser types * Charity Appeal	2,126	0.10	.91	.00	2,126	0.02	.98	.00

Table 14 Distribution of personal involvement

	N	% of respondents
Low Personal Involvement	53	39,8
High Personal Involvement	80	60,2
Total	133	100

Table 15 Distribution of moral obligation

	N	% of respondents
Low Moral obligation	72	54,1
High Moral obligation	61	45,9
Total	133	100

4.1.4 Mediation effects of anticipated guilt on donation intention

The mediation analyses were performed with SPSS using the additional program Process V3.4 by Andrew F. Hayes, Model 4. For mediation to happen there must be an indirect effect of X on Y through M ($M_i = a_i b_i$) and a direct effect of X on Y (X on $Y = c$) (Andrew F. Hayes, 2013). Therefore, all three paths (a_i, b_i, and c) need to be significant.

The mediation analysis revealed one significant effect, i.e. the effect of anticipated guilt on donation intention ($F_{(2,130)}=33.04$, $p>0.00$, $R^2 = 0.34$, b=0.51, $t(130)=7.95$, $p<0.00$). Charity appeal had no significant effect on anticipated guilt ($F_{(1,131)}=1.38$, $p=0.2425$, $R^2=0,0104$, b=-.19, $t(131)=-1.17$, $p=.24$) likewise there

was no direct effect of charity appeal on anticipated guilt (F(2,130)=33.04, p>0.00, R^2 = 0.34, b=-.10, t(130)=-.87, p=.38).

The mediation is presented in Figure 8. One significant effect (path b_i) is not adequate for a mediation effect. This leads to rejecting H6, concluding the effectiveness of the appeal of the advertisement on donation intention is not mediated by anticipated guilt.
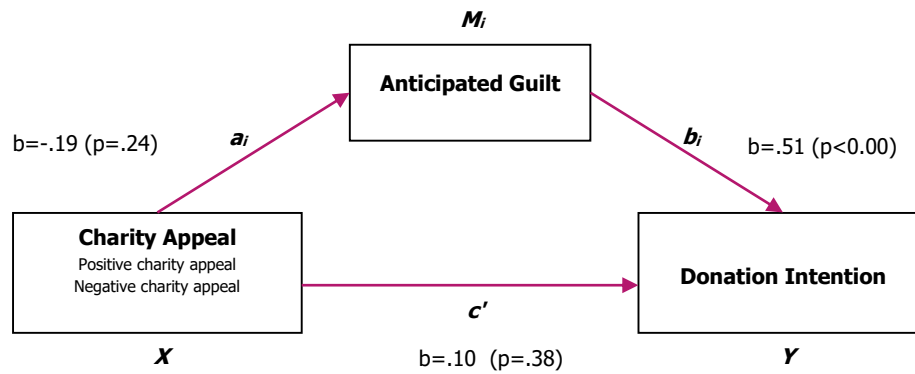

Figure 8 Mediation effect of anticipated guilt on donation intention

4.2 Main- and Mediation Effects for Brand Trust

4.2.1 Main effects on brand trust

The Independent Samples T-Test revealed no significant difference in trust in the charitable organisation (i.e. brand trust) between an ad that includes a celebrity than an ad that includes a non-celebrity (t(131)=-1.13, p=.26), see Table 16. Therefore, H_{2a} is rejected. The Independent Samples T-Test also revealed no significant difference in trust in the charitable organisation (i.e. brand trust) between an ad that includes a micro-celebrity than an ad that includes a traditional celebrity (t(89)=-.64, p=.52), see Table 16. Therefore, H_{2b} is rejected.

Table 16 Independent Samples T-Test results of the main effects on brand trust

	df	t	p
Non-celebrity vs. Celebrity	131	-1.13	.26
Celebrity endorsers	89	-0.64	.52

4.2.2 Mediating effect of endorser credibility on brand trust

The factor analysis showed that the three components of endorser credibility must be measured as separate variables. For this reason, they were analysed separately. The mediation analyses were performed with SPSS using the additional program Process V3.4 by Andrew F. Hayes, Model 4. For mediation to happen there must be an indirect effect of X on Y through M ($M_i = a_i b_i$) and a direct effect of X on Y (X on $Y = c$) (Andrew F. Hayes, 2013). Therefore, all three paths (a_i, b_i, and c) need to be significant.

4.2.2.1 The mediating effect of endorser expertise

The mediation analysis revealed one significant effect, namely endorser type significantly influences endorser expertise (F(1,131)=14.68, p<.0002, R2=.10, b=-.33, t(131)=-3.83, p<0.0002). Further, the analysis revealed no significant effect of endorser expertise on brand trust (F(4,128)=5.15, p=.0007, R2=.14, b=-.07, t(128)=-1.24, p=.24) and no significant direct effect of endorser type on brand trust (F(2,130)=5.65, p=0.0045, R2=0.29, b=.02, t(130)=.31, p=0.75).

The mediation is presented in Figure 9. Considering alone path a_i was significant, no mediation effect of

endorser expertise could be established. This contributes to the rejection of H₅, concluding that the effect of endorser type on donation intention and brand trust is not mediated by the components of endorser credibility.
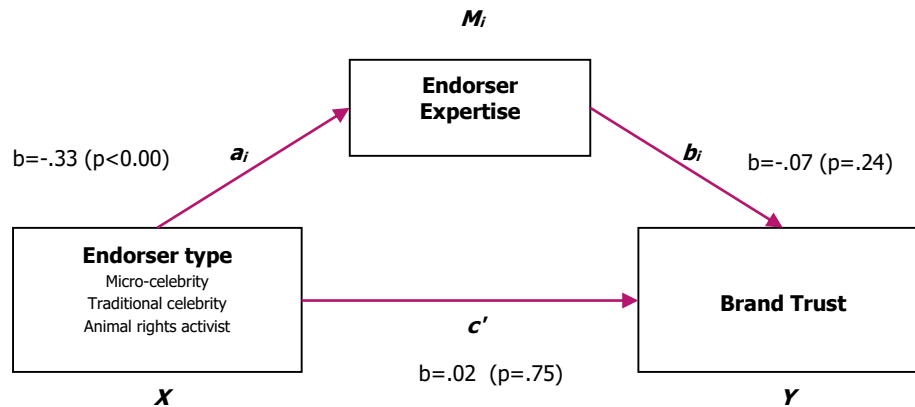

Figure 9 Mediation effect of endorser expertise on brand trust

4.2.2.2 The mediating effect endorser trustworthiness

The mediation analysis revealed one significant effect, namely the effect of endorser trustworthiness on brand trust ($F_{(4,128)}$=5.15, p=.0007, R^2=.14, b=-.15, $t_{(128)}$=-2.50, p=.01). Moreover, the mediation analysis revealed that endorser type was no significant predictor for trustworthiness ($F_{(1,131)}$=.55, p=.46, R^2=0.6, b=-.07, $t_{(131)}$=-.74, p=.46). Additionally, endorser type had no direct effect of endorser type on brand trust ($F_{(2,130)}$=8.92, p=0.0002, R2=.12, b=.06, $t_{(130)}$=1.13, p=.26).

The mediation is presented in Figure 10. Provided that alone path *b* was significant, no mediation effect of endorser trustworthiness could be established. This leads to the rejection of H₅, concluding that the effect of endorser type on donation intention and brand trust is not mediated by the components of endorser credibility.
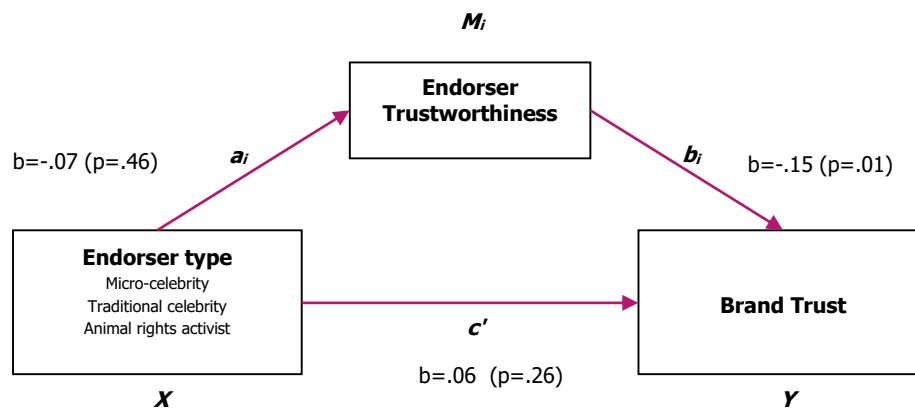

Figure 10 Mediation effect of endorser trustworthiness on brand trust

4.2.2.3 The mediating effect of endorser attractiveness

The mediation analysis revealed one significant effect. Namely, a significant effect of endorser attractiveness on brand trust was measured ($F_{(2,130)}$=3.35, p=.04, R^2=.05, b=-.12, $t_{(130)}$=-2.22, p=.03). There was no significant effect of endorser type on endorser attractiveness ($F_{(1,131)}$=2.23, p=.14, R^2=.13, b=-.13, $t_{(131)}$=-1.49, p=.14) and no significant direct effect of endorser type on brand trust ($F_{(2,130)}$=3.35, p=.04, R^2=.05, b=.06, $t_{(130)}$=1.04, p=.30).

The mediation is presented in Figure 11. The mediator analysis revealed that alone path a_i was significant. Consequently, no mediation effect of endorser expertise could be established. In conclusion, the analyses reject H_5, concluding that the effect of endorser type on donation intention and brand trust is not mediated by the components of endorser credibility.
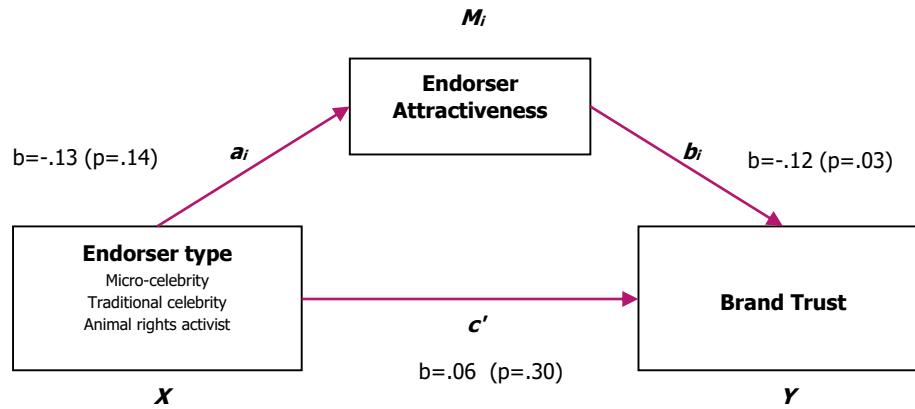

Figure 11 Mediation effect of endorser attractiveness on brand trust

4.3 Endorser Credibility

For the endorser types, different outcomes on endorser credibility were expected. These will be discussed below.

4.3.1 Endorser trustworthiness

The effect of endorser type on endorser trustworthiness (H_{5a}) was tested with a One-Way ANOVA. The One-Way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in endorser trustworthiness between the endorser types ($F_{(2,130)}=1.20$, $p=.30$). Thus, H_{5a} is rejected.

4.3.2 Endorser attractiveness

In order to analyse H_{5b}, the effect of endorser type on endorser attractiveness, an one-way analysis of variance (One-Way ANOVA) was performed. The One-Way ANOVA revealed a significant difference in endorser attractiveness between the endorser types ($F_{(2,130)}=2.16$, $p=.03$). The Bonferroni Post Hoc test (Table 17) disclosed a significant difference between the traditional celebrity and animal rights activist (CI: 0.03 ± 0.85, p=0.03). When comparing means (see Table 7), endorser attractiveness was higher when the ad included a traditional celebrity (M=3.62, SD=0.87) than when the ad included an animal rights activist (M=3.17, SD=0.64). Thus, H_{5b} is confirmed.

Table 17 Bonferroni Post Hoc test results for endorser attractiveness

(I) Endorser type	(J) Endorser type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Micro-celebrity	Trad. celebrity	-0.18	0.17	0.82	-0.58	0.22
	Activist	0.27	0.17	0.35	-0.14	0.67
Trad. celebrity	Micro-celebrity	0.18	0.17	0.82	-0.22	0.58
	Activist	0.45*	0.17	0.03	0.03	0.86
Activist	Micro-celebrity	-0.27	0.17	0.35	-0.67	0.14
	Trad. celebrity	-0.45*	0.17	0.03	-0.86	-0.03

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4.3.3 Endorser expertise

The effect of endorser type on endorser expertise, H_{5c}, was tested with the One-Way ANOVA. The One-Way ANOVA revealed a significant difference in endorser expertise between the endorser types ($F(2,130)=9.97$, $p<.00$). The Bonferroni Post Hoc test (Table 18) disclosed a significant difference between the micro-celebrity and the other endorser types (traditional celebrity: 0.24 ± 1.06, activist: 0.24 ± 1.06) but found no significant difference between a traditional celebrity and activist (-0.42 ± 0.42). When comparing means (see Table 7), the results revealed that endorser expertise was higher when the ad included a micro-celebrity (M=4.15, SD=0.73) than when the ad included a traditional celebrity (M=3.50, SD=0.89) or animal rights activist (M=3.50, SD=0.77). Thus, H_{5c} is rejected.

Table 18 Bonferroni Post Hoc test results for endorser expertise

(I) Endorser type	(J) Endorser type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Micro-celebrity	Trad. celebrity	0.65*	0.17	0.00	0.24	1.06
	Activist	0.65*	0.17	0.00	0.24	1.06
Trad. celebrity	Micro-celebrity	-0.65*	0.17	0.00	-1.06	-0.24
	Activist	0.00	0.17	1.00	-0.42	0.42
Activist	Micro-celebrity	-0.65*	0.17	0.00	-1.06	-0.24
	Trad. celebrity	0.00	0.17	1.00	-0.42	0.42

Based on observed means.
 The error term is Mean Square(Error) = .642.
 * The mean difference is significant at the, 0.5 level.

4.4 Overview of Hypotheses Testing

Following the analysis of results, an overview of the rejected or confirmed hypotheses is presented in Table 19.

Table 19 Overview of hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis	Confirmed or rejected
H$_{1a}$	Individuals' intention to donate will be higher when the ad includes a celebrity than when it includes a non-celebrity.	Rejected
H$_{1b}$	Individuals' intention to donate will be higher when the ad includes a micro-celebrity than when it includes a traditional celebrity.	Rejected
H$_{2a}$	Individuals' trust in the charitable organisation will be higher when the ad includes a celebrity than when it includes a non-celebrity.	Rejected
H$_{2b}$	Individuals' trust in the charitable organisation will be higher when the ad includes a micro-celebrity than when it includes a traditional celebrity.	Rejected
H$_3$	An individuals' charitable donation intention will be higher when the advertisement includes a negative charity appeal than when the ad includes a positive charity appeal.	Rejected
H$_{4a}$	An advertisement that includes a micro-celebrity and a positive charity appeal will result in a higher level of charitable donation intention than when the ad includes an animal rights activist and a negative charity appeal or a traditional celebrity and a positive charity appeal.	Rejected
H$_{4b}$	An advertisement that includes a traditional celebrity and a positive charity appeal will result in a higher level of charitable donation intention than when the ad includes an animal rights activist and a negative charity appeal but will result in a lower level of charitable donation intentions when an advertisement includes a micro-celebrity and a positive charity appeal.	Rejected
H$_{4c}$	An advertisement that includes an animal rights activist and a negative charity appeal will result in a lower level of charitable donation intention than when the ad includes a micro-celebrity and a positive charity appeal or a traditional celebrity and a positive charity appeal.	Rejected
H$_{5a}$	Endorser trustworthiness will be higher when the advertisement includes a micro-celebrity than when the ad includes a traditional celebrity or animal rights activist.	Rejected
H$_{5b}$	Endorser attractiveness will be higher when the advertisement includes a traditional celebrity than when the ad includes a micro-celebrity or animal rights activist.	Confirmed
H$_{5c}$	Endorser expertise will be higher when the advertisement includes an animal rights activist than when the ad includes a micro-celebrity or traditional celebrity.	Rejected
H$_{5d}$	The effect of the endorser type on trust in the charitable organisation will be mediated by endorser credibility.	Rejected
H$_6$	The effect of the advertisement charity appeal on charitable donation intention will be mediated by anticipated guilt.	Rejected
H$_7$	Individuals' charitable intention to donate is mediated by personal involvement.	Rejected
H$_8$	Individuals' charitable intention to donate is mediated by the moral obligation to donate.	Confirmed

5   DISCUSSION

This study aimed at investigating the effects of diverse endorser types, charity appeals, and the combination of both on donation intention and the effect of endorser type on trust in the charitable organisation. Additionally investigated was the mediated effect of endorser credibility and anticipated guilt. Personal involvement and moral obligation were included as covariates for donation intention. The results that have emerged from this study will be discussed below.

5.1   The Influences on Donation Intention

5.1.1   Effects of endorsers on donation intention

Previous studies emphasised on the importance of celebrity endorsers to enhance among other consumer response and attitudes (Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan, 1999; Kamins, 1989; Malik & Guptha, 2014; Saeed et al., 2014). Especially the research of Erdogan (1999) and Malik and Guptha (2014) underscored more purchase intentions (i.e. donation intention) with the use of a celebrity. Contrary to the hypothesised association, the study demonstrated that donation intention was higher in the non-celebrity condition than in the celebrity condition. In other words, including a non-celebrity in the ad enhanced more donation intention. That the celebrity enhanced, fewer donation intentions could be due to a mismatch. Namely, different studies confirmed the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers under the condition of a match between the celebrity and the endorsed brand or product (Kamins, 1990; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Knoll & Matthes, 2017; Roozen & Claeys, 2010; Till & Busler, 2000). With this information, the celebrities could have been a mismatch with the brand or product (i.e. donation). Also, the known relation between the celebrity and animal welfare or the animal welfare organisation could have been uncertain. This so-called mismatch builds on existing evidence of that non-celebrities and celebrities have a fit with certain products. For example, home cleaning products are no fit with a celebrity and an anonymous model leads to higher purchase intentions in low-, high involvement and beauty products (Bhavesh & Rajnikant, 2015; Roozen & Claeys, 2010). In addition, the research of Ilicic and Baxter (2014) proved that a match between a celebrity and a charitable organisation influences donation intention positively.

Another explanation for the findings could be that the concept of meaning transfer (McCracken, 1989) failed and that the celebrity endorser transferred the endorsed meanings less meaningful than a non-celebrity. In other words, the known personality- and lifestyle traits could have negatively influenced meaning transfer; which was not possible for a non-celebrity. Besides, the research of Menon, Boone, and Rogers (2001) explains that celebrities are attractive and therefore attract people to the advertisement but are not more effective than non-celebrities regarding purchase intentions.

Further, the findings of the results identified no difference in donation intention between a micro-celebrity and traditional celebrity. With this information and the abovementioned findings, it could be that people perceived the micro-celebrity and traditional as the same, namely as celebrities. Unfortunately, the manipulations did not measure this.

5.1.2   The influence of charity appeal on donation intention

The findings indicated no difference in donation intention between a positive- and negative charity appeal. The indifference could have been induced by the inadequate manipulation of the charity appeals. Specifically, the negative charity appeal, which should have elicited peoples' risk adversity (Gass & Seiter, 2014), was manipulated more positive than the positive charity appeal. Thus, the concept of risk adversity could not be fully utilised.

Furthermore, the research of Erlandsson, Nilsson, and Västfjäll (2018) – on which the charity appeals in this research are based – mentioned alternative terms for the positive- and negative charity appeals. As an

example, Erlandsson et al. (2018) considered a negative charity appeals equivalent to guilt- or sad appeals. Nonetheless, there is a difference between these appeals. The sad appeal should evoke empathetic emotions which includes the feeling of connection (Wang, 2008) whereas the guilt appeal should merely evoke guilt as a feeling of violation (Haynes et al., 2004). Thus, it could have been that in this research, the charity appeals were too broadly defined. As a result of this, the advertisements could have influenced respondents on other dimensions.

5.1.3   Interaction effects on donation intention

Following the widely accepted Principal of Congruity by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) and previous research about congruency in endorsement (Ilicic & Baxter, 2014; Kirmani & Shiv, 1998), expected was that congruity between the endorser and the charity appeal would result in higher donation intentions than incongruity. More studies have proven positive effects of congruity like creating more favourable attitudes (Choi & Rifon, 2012; Kamins & Gupta, 1994; Meksi Gaied & Saied Ben Rached, 2017; Till & Busler, 2000). In contrast with these studies, the findings suggest that no combination of charity appeal and endorser type influenced donation intention differently. As mentioned in the theoretical framework, incongruity creates psychological discomfort (Gass & Seiter, 2014) as opposed to congruity, which creates psychological comfort. Suggesting that people always want to move towards congruity (Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955), it could be that people felt no need to change their behaviour and therefore had less intention to donate. Nevertheless, the interaction effects confirmed the positive effect of non-celebrities, namely both conditions that included a non-celebrity (i.e. animal rights activist) scored highest on donation intention.

5.1.4   The influence of anticipated guilt on donation intention

The results of this study affirm that anticipated guilt influences donation intention. The influence of guilt on intention is not surprising because more studies have proven the effect of guilt, as a negative emotion, on intention. For example, the research of Wang (2011), proved that anticipated guilt predicts peoples' intentions to registers as an organ donor. Furthermore, the arousal of guilt is demonstrated to relate positively to donation intention (Hibbert, Smith, Davies, & Ireland, 2007). Our finding was consistent with the research of Lindsey (2005) which indicated that people anticipated the feeling of guilt when they considered not engaging in the behaviour asked for in the advertisement (i.e. having the intention to donate). The more guilt people anticipate, the more likely they were to engage in the behaviours (Lindsey, 2005). The origin of the feelings of anticipated guilt is not clarified in this study because the charity appeal of the advertisement was not influential, and the manipulations needed to be interpreted with caution.

5.1.5   Further influences on donation intention

Prior research generally confirms the influence of personal involvement on intention (Park et al., 2002) and donation (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2011; Bennett, 2003; Burgoyne et al., 2005). The findings indicate high levels of personal involvement considering the welfare of animals in factory farms among the respondents. Nonetheless, personal involvement did not influence donation intention. Considering the research of Gendel-Guterman and Levy (2013), brand familiarity and value for money could have had an influence. Gendel-Guterman and Levy (2013) suggest that familiarity is necessary in order to evaluate the product, which then influences value of money. In this study the brand was fictional; therefore, brand familiarity has not been included in this study. Brand familiarity and value for money could be researched in future studies.

Moral obligation is known to influence moral intent (i.e. donation intention) (Ajzen, 1991; Cheung & Chan, 2000; Gorsuch & Ortberg, 1983; Haines et al., 2008; Smith & McSweeney, 2007). The results confirm the

influence of moral obligation on donation intention. What caused moral obligation in this research remains unclear. Previous research has proven that age (McNair, Okan, Hadjichristidis, & de Bruin, 2019), religious affiliation (Smith & McSweeney, 2007), and ethical predispositions (e.g. utilitarianism or formalism) (Reynolds, 2006) could influence moral obligation. A follow-up study could investigate these influences.

5.2 The Influences on Brand Trust

5.2.1 Effects of endorsers on brand trust

The findings suggest that individuals' trust in the fictional charitable organisation (i.e. brand trust) was not determined by the endorser. Namely, there was no difference in brand trust between a non-celebrity or between a micro-celebrity and traditional celebrity. Following the concept of transference-based trust (Doney et al., 1998) it was anticipated that a non-celebrity would be perceived as less trustworthy than the celebrity based on the experience of a trusted source with the endorser. Nevertheless, for celebrities, transference-based trust was also not present in our research. Interpreting the findings, the amount of endorser trustworthiness was very much the same for all endorser types; no endorser was perceived as outstanding trustworthy.

In addition, a micro-celebrity was expected to lead to higher levels of brand trust, considering a micro-celebrity is regarded as authentic (Marwick, 2013) or as a friend (Einarsdóttir, 2017). Contrary to these expectations, there was no difference between a micro-celebrity and a traditional celebrity measured. As suggested earlier, similarity and both acquiring the celebrity status could be an explanation. Also, age could have influenced the effectiveness of a micro-celebrity. Namely, Jargalsaikhan and Korotina (2016) suggest that younger adults, in comparison with older adults, are more influenceable by micro-celebrities. Thus, age could have influenced the effectiveness of a micro-celebrity over a traditional celebrity. Considering that the micro-celebrity endorser Enzo Knol is 26 years old, whereas the mean age of the respondents was 38 years old it could be reasonable. The age difference could have made it difficult for people to identify Enzo Knol as a friend or as someone similar to them.

5.2.2 The influence of endorser credibility on brand trust

The results examined no influence of endorser credibility between endorser type and donation intention. The absence of this influence contradicts the research of Ilicic & Webster (2011), Ohanian (1990), and Pornpitakpan (2004). As mentioned before, age could have influenced these results. It may be that an older person regards a younger person as less credible. Endorsers' gender could also cause different outcomes. For example, stereotypical female attributes are a concern for other people, exhibiting sympathy and nurturance, whereas stereotypical male attributes are assertive, controlling, and confident (Dainton & Zelley, 2015). Unfortunately, this research did not consider these influences.

5.3 The Influences on Endorser Credibility

Endorser attractiveness. In consonance with Escalas and Bettman (2017) and Ilicic and Webster (2016), this study confirmed that traditional celebrities are perceived as most attractive. Specifically, endorser attractiveness was higher when the ad included a traditional celebrity than when the ad included a micro-celebrity or animal rights activist. According to Erdogan (1999), an attractive endorser is more successful at changing beliefs than an unattractive endorser. However, endorser attractiveness was no mediator for brand trust, which could be due to a wrong matchup. According to Kamins (1990), the traditional celebrities' attractiveness is only useful when it is paired with a product that is related to attractiveness (e.g. beauty products or clothing). Additionally, attractiveness could be measured incorrect. Namely, attractiveness also relates to variables that are not physical,

such as similarity, familiarity (Kahle & Homer, 1985), personal characteristics, or intellectual skills (Erdogan, 1999).

Endorser trustworthiness. The findings suggest that endorser trustworthiness was not determined by the endorser. As mentioned before, the amount of endorser trustworthiness was equal, and quite low, for all the endorser types. Hereby, suggesting that no endorser was perceived as outstanding trustworthy. What is also mentioned before is that age could have influenced because younger adults are more influenceable by micro-celebrities than older adults (Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016). Besides, it could be that people were unfamiliar with Enzo Knol because most respondents were low social media users. A follow-up study could investigate these influences.

Endorser expertise. The results of this study revealed that the endorser type influenced endorser expertise. Contrary to the expectations, a micro-celebrity was evaluated with the highest levels of endorser expertise instead of the animal rights activist. Following the research of Till and Busler (2000), an animal rights activist was expected to have the highest endorser expertise concerning animal welfare and individuals would perceive a fit between the activist and the cause of the organisation. However, this fit was not prompted. Here, familiarity could have been an influence. The research of Siemens, Smith, Fisher, and Jensen (2008) shows that when a familiar endorser endorsed an incongruent product, it decreases the endorsers' expertness. Enzo Knol is a well-known, daily vlogger and has a visible online connection with animals (e.g. vlogs in which he judges the cutest cats and dogs) whereas the activist is non-familiar. Respondents could have found it difficult to assess the activist's expertise without insight into his daily activities. Enzo Knol promoted a congruent product (i.e. donation to an animal-related organisation) which could have influenced his perceived expertise, what suggests that in our research, respondents have perceived congruency between Enzo Knol and the cause of the organisation. However, the main study did not consider the influence of familiarity.

Another explanation could be that the animal rights activist was not perceived as an expert. Jamison (2003) addresses that in the past, there often were tensions between professional organisations and animal rights activist groups, where the latter feels to have more knowledge. For example, in the Netherlands, there was a discussion going on about feeding the hungry animals in a rapidly growing, nature reserve created by the government. Animal rights activists turned against professional organisations by ignoring their advice to need to give them supplementary food and with this generating social pressure (Omroep Flevoland, 2018). This example indicates that it can be difficult for a, in general, and for the respondents in our research to see whether or not an activist owns expertise when it turns against professional organisations.

5.4   Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The research had several limitations to be noted. The study manipulated a fictional organisation. The fictional organisation was used to diminish the influences of reputation and image. Nevertheless, a respondent stated: 'The aforementioned organisation is unknown to me, I would first like to search the internet how reliable such an organisation is before I would donate. For example, Wakker Dier is more familiar to me, that would give more confidence (…)'. The statement emphasises on the importance of reputation and familiarity in forming an opinion about the trustworthiness of an organisation which was not considered in this research. Future studies should take into account the influence of brand familiarity on brand trust within the context of animal welfare organisations when using an existing organisation as compared to a fictional organisation.

Furthermore, the study had a broad target group without a focus on a specific age category. Consequently, there was no homogeneity in terms of age. Future studies should take into account the influence

of age because age could influence how people perceive endorsers, especially considering a micro-celebrity (Jargalsaikhan & Korotina, 2016). Naturally, this would result in a more homogenous age sample as the target group will be smaller. In consonance with the broad target group, the sample size of the study was too small, and therefore the generalizability of the results are limited. Small sample size could increase a false premise and jeopardises validity (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). Consequently, the results of the study need to be interpreted with caution (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). Future studies should take into account a more specific target group which could make it easier to meet the requirements of the sample size.

Moreover, the distribution of respondents over the conditions was not equal. As mentioned in the method section, Qualtrics divided the respondents equally over the conditions, including the respondents who had not completed the questionnaire. Consequently, the uncompleted questionnaires were removed, resulting in uneven distribution. Future studies should monitor the distribution wisely and should replicate the study with a more homogenous distribution.

The study evaluated the familiarity with the celebrity endorsers in the preliminary studies. However, considering that most respondents were low social media users, the respondents could have been unfamiliar with the micro-celebrity. Future studies should take into account the measurement of familiarity when using celebrity endorsers.

5.5   Theoretical Implications and Future Research

This study appends to previous studies about donation intention, message framing and picture valance, and the concept of influencer marketing but introduced another context: the welfare of animals in factory farms. Concerning this context, various information could be added to the existing literature. As a matter of fact, prior research generally confirmed the effect of celebrity endorsement but not in the context of animal welfare (Atkin & Block, 1983; Erdogan, 1999; Kamins, 1989; Malik & Guptha, 2014; Saeed et al., 2014). This research provided evidence for the opposite since this study illustrated higher donation intention when a non-celebrity was used compared to a celebrity. With this, adding to the research of Menon, Boone, and Rogers (2001). Another example is the research about the effectiveness of influencer marketing which mainly focused on purchase intention (Abidin & Ots, 2015; Bakshy et al., 2011; Braatz, 2017; Einarsdóttir, 2017; Geiser, 2017). As there were no studies found on the relation between micro-celebrities and donation intention, this study added to this literature. Now, also illustrating that the use of influencer marketing may be less suitable for non-profit organisations with regard to eliciting donation intention. Besides, this study added to the existing literature about advertisement appeal and donation intention (Das et al., 2008; Erlandsson et al., 2018; Haynes et al., 2004; Wymer & Drollinger, 2015) and especially to the research of Haynes et al. (2004) which also was focused on animal welfare.

Lastly, this study strengthens the research of Lindsey (2005) in the effect of anticipated guilt on donation intention within another context; Lindsey (2005) focused on bone marrow donation whereas our research focused on monetary donation intention in the non-profit sector. Also, our research confirms the research of Hibbert et al. (2007) on the arousal of guilt as a positive influence of donation intention.

5.6   Managerial Implications

Besides theoretical implications, this study obtained some practical, managerial implications. To begin with, this study benefits animal welfare organisations that consider investing money in celebrity endorsement. The study illustrates that animal welfare organisations wanting to influence possible donors should focus on the use of non-celebrities in their advertisements as our research showed that non-celebrities are more effective in eliciting

donation intentions than celebrities. With this, the use of either a positive or negative charity appeal in the advertisement makes no difference.

If an animal welfare organisation wants to increase the trustworthiness of their organisation, this research illustrated that there is no difference between the use of a non-celebrity (i.e. animal rights activist) or celebrity (i.e. traditional celebrity or micro-celebrity). Here, the organisation could, for example, focus on the most affordable endorser. However, when the organisation wants the endorser to be attractive, the use of a traditional celebrity is recommended. When the organisation wants the endorser to be an expert, the use of a micro-celebrity is recommended. Unfortunately, this study did not examine the effects of these choices besides the effect of brand trust.

6 CONCLUSION

The study demonstrated that the use of non-celebrities (i.e. animal rights activists) in advertisements, within the context of animal welfare, resulted in higher donation intention. With regard to the charity appeal, the study revealed no difference in donation intention between a positive- and negative charity appeal. The inclusion of both an endorser type and charity appeal in the advertisement did not influence donation intention differently. Furthermore, the findings revealed that individuals' trust was not determined by the endorser.

REFERENCES

Abidin, C. (2016). "Aren't These Just Young, Rich Women Doing Vain Things Online?": Influencer Selfies as Subversive Frivolity. *Ocial Media + Society*, *2*(2), 1–17.

Abidin, C., & Ots, M. (2015). The Influencer's dilemma: The shaping of new brand professions between credibility and commerce. *AEJMC 2015, Annual Conferenc(e*, 1–12.

Agrawal, J., & Kamakura, W. A. (1995). The Economic Worth of Celebrity Endorsers: An Event Study Analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, *59*(3), 56–62.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *50*(2), 179–211.

Andrew F. Hayes. (2013). *Model Templates for PROCESS for SPSS and SAS*. Retrieved from http://www.personal.psu.edu/jxb14/M554/specreg/templates.pdf

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

Bakshy, E., Hofman, J. M., Mason, W. A., & Watts, D. J. (2011). Everyone's an Influencer: Quantifying Influence on Twitter. In *Proceedings of the 4th ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining, WSDM 2011* (pp. 65–74). New York, New York, USA: ACM Press.

Basil, D. Z., Ridgway, N. M., & Basil, M. D. (2006). Guilt appeals: The mediating effect of responsibility. *Psychology and Marketing*, *23*(12), 1035–1054.

Basil, D. Z., Ridgway, N. M., & Basil, M. D. (2008). Guilt and giving: A process model of empathy and efficacy. *Psychology and Marketing*, *25*(1), 1–23.

Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., DeWall, C. N., & Zhang, L. (2007). How Emotion Shapes Behavior: Feedback, Anticipation, and Reflection, Rather Than Direct Causation. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *11*(2), 167–203.

Bekkers, R. (2003). Trust, Accreditation, and Philanthropy in the Netherlands. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *32*(4), 596–615.

Bekkers, R., & Wiepking, P. (2011). *A Literature Review of Empirical Studies of Philanthropy. Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* (Vol. 40).

Beldad, A., Gosselt, J., Hegner, S., & Leushuis, R. (2015). Generous But Not Morally Obliged? Determinants of Dutch and American Donors' Repeat Donation Intention (REPDON). *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *26*(2), 442–465.

Bennett, R. (2003). Factors underlying the inclination to donate to particular types of charity. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *8*(1), 12–29.

Bhavesh, K. J. P., & Rajnikant, P. P. (2015). Fame versus no name: Gauging the impact of celebrities and non-celebrities endorsement on purchase. *African Journal of Business Management*, *9*(4), 127–133.

Braatz, L. A. (2017). #Influencer marketing on instagram: consumer responses towards promotional posts: the effects of message sidedness. *Master's Thesis, University of Twente*, 1–50.

Branigan, E., & Mitsis, A. (2014). Reach for Generation Y: using celebrity endorsement to communicate about nonprofit causes with young people in Australia. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *19*(4), 314–321.

Burgoyne, C. B., Young, B., & Walker, C. M. (2005). Deciding to give to charity: A focus group study in the context of the household economy. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, *15*(5), 383–404.

Carbone, L. (2004). *What Animals Want: Expertise and Advocacy in Laboratory Animal Welfare Policy. Oxford University Press,*

USA.

Carter, D. (2016). Hustle and Brand: The Sociotechnical Shaping of Influence. *Social Media + Society*, *2*(3), 1–12.

Center, G., & Gamson, J. (2011). The Unwatched Life Is Not worth Living: The Elevation of the Ordinary in Celebrity Culture. *PMLA*, *126*(4), 1061–1069.

Chang, C. T., & Lee, Y. K. (2009). Framing charity advertising: Influences of message framing, image valence, and temporal framing on a charitable appeal. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *39*(12), 2910–2935.

Cheung, C. K., & Chan, C. M. (2000). Social-cognitive factors of donating money to charity, with special attention to an international relief organization. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *23*(2), 241–253.

Choi, S. M., & Rifon, N. J. (2007). Who is the celebrity in advertising? Understanding dimensions of celebrity images. *Journal of Popular Culture*, *40*(2), 304–323.

Choi, S. M., & Rifon, N. J. (2012). It Is a Match: The Impact of Congruence between Celebrity Image and Consumer Ideal Self on Endorsement Effectiveness. *Psychology & Marketing*, *29*(9), 639–650.

Croney, C. C., & Reynnells, R. D. (2008). The Ethics of Semantics: Do We Clarify or Obfuscate Reality to Influence Perceptions of Farm Animal Production? *Poultry Science*, *87*(2), 387–391.

Dainton, M., & Zelley, E. D. (2015). *Applying Communication Theory for Professional Life*. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Danielle Wiley. (2014). Why Brands Should Turn To Bloggers Instead Of Celebrity Spokespeople. Retrieved from https://marketingland.com/brands-turn-bloggers-instead-celebrity-spokespeople-75971

Das, E., Kerkhof, P., & Kuiper, J. (2008). Improving the effectiveness of fundraising messages: The impact of charity goal attainment, message framing, and evidence on persuasion. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, *36*(2), 161–175.

De Backer, C. J. S., & Hudders, L. (2015). *Meat morals: Relationship between meat consumption consumer attitudes towards human and animal welfare and moral behavior*. *Meat Science* (Vol. 99).

Demangeot, C., & Broderick, A. J. (2010). Consumer perceptions of online shopping environments: A gestalt approach. *Psychology and Marketing*, *27*(2), 117–140.

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

Doney, P. M., Cannon, J. P., & Mullen, M. R. (1998). Understanding the Influence of National Culture on the Development of Trust. *The Academy of Management Review*, *23*(3), 601–620.

Driessens, O. (2013). The celebritization of society and culture: Understanding the structural dynamics of celebrity culture. *International Journal of Cultural Studies*, *16*(6), 641–657.

Einarsdóttir, V. A. (2017). *"From celebrities to the girl next door": Influencer marketing with a special focus on the social media platform, Instagram*.

Einwohner, R. L. (2002). Bringing The Outsiders In: Opponents' Claims and The Construction of Animal Rights Activists' Identity. *Mobilization: An International Quarterly*, *7*(3), 253–268.

Erdogan, B. Z. (1999). Celebrity Endorsement: A Literature Review. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *15*(4), 291–314.

Erlandsson, A., Nilsson, A., & Västfjäll, D. (2018). Attitudes and Donation Behavior When Reading Positive and Negative Charity Appeals. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *30*(4), 444–474.

Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2017). Connecting With Celebrities: How Consumers Appropriate Celebrity Meanings for a

Sense of Belonging. *Journal of Advertising*, *46*(2), 297–308. https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2016.1274925

Faber, J., & Fonseca, L. M. (2014). How sample size influences research outcomes. *Dental Press Journal of Orthodontics*, *19*(4), 27–29.

Gaskin, K. (1999). Blurred vision: Public trust in charities. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *4*(2), 163–178.

Gass, R. H., & Seiter, J. S. (2014). *Persuasion: Social Influence and Compliance Gaining* (Fifth Edit). Routledge.

Geiser, F. (2017). *Social media as a communication channel: Is it possible to build a digital brand and generate revenue streams simultaneously by applying influencer marketing?*

Gendel-Guterman, H., & Levy, S. (2013). Does consumers' personal involvement have an influence on store brand buying proneness? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *30*(7), 553–562.

Göckeritz, S., Schultz, P. W., Rendón, T., Cialdini, R. B., Goldstein, N. J., & Griskevicius, V. (2010). Descriptive normative beliefs and conservation behavior: The moderating roles of personal involvement and injunctive normative beliefs. European journal of social psychology, 40(3), 514-523.

Goldsmith, R. E., Lafferty, B. a, & Newell, S. J. (2000). The Influence of Corporate Credibility on Consumer Attitudes and Purchase Intent. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *3*(3), 304–318.

Gorsuch, R. L., & Ortberg, J. (1983). Moral obligation and attitudes: Their relation to behavioral intentions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *44*(5), 1025–1028.

Grant, A. M., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2010). I Won't Let You Down... or Will I? Core Self-Evaluations, Other-Orientation, Anticipated Guilt and Gratitude, and Job Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(1), 108–121.

Greenebaum, J. (2009). "I'm Not an Activist!": Animal Rights vs. Animal Welfare in the Purebred Dog Rescue Movement. *Society & Animals*, *17*(4), 289–304.

Guadagno, R. E., & Cialdini, R. B. (2010). Preference for consistency and social influence: A review of current research findings. *Social Influence*, *5*(3), 152–163.

Guo, C., & Saxton, G. D. (2018). Speaking and Being Heard: How Nonprofit Advocacy Organizations Gain Attention on Social Media, *47*(1), 5–26.

Gupta, R., Kishore, N., & Verma, D. (2015). IMPACT OF CELEBRITY ENDORSEMENTS ON CONSUMERS'PURCHASE INTENTION. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, *5*(3), 1–15.

Haines, R., Street, M. D., & Haines, D. (2008). The Influence of Perceived Importance of an Ethical Issue on Moral Judgment, Moral Obligation, and Moral Intent. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *81*(2), 387–399.

Haynes, M., Thornton, J., & Jones, S. C. (2004). *An exploratory study on the effect of positive (warmth appeal) and negative (guilt appeal) print imagery on donation behaviour in animal welfare. Faculty of Health & Behavioural Sciences-Papers*.

Hibbert, S., Smith, A., Davies, A., & Ireland, F. (2007). Guilt appeals: Persuasion knowledge and charitable giving. *Psychology and Marketing*, *24*(8), 723–742.

Hwang, Y., Cho, H., Sands, L., & Jeong, S. H. (2012). Effects of gain- and loss-framed messages on the sun safety behavior of adolescents: The moderating role of risk perceptions. *Journal of Health Psychology*, *17*(6), 929–940.

Ilicic, J., & Baxter, S. (2014). Fit in celebrity-charity alliances: when perceived celanthropy benefits nonprofit organisations. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *19*(3), 200–208.

Ilicic, J., & Webster, C. M. (2011). Effects of multiple endorsements and consumer-celebrity attachment on attitude and

purchase intention. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, *19*(4), 230–237.

Ilicic, J., & Webster, C. M. (2016). Being True to Oneself: Investigating Celebrity Brand Authenticity. *Psychology & Marketing*, *33*(6), 410–420.

Ingenhoff, D., & Sommer, K. (2010). Trust in companies and in CEOs: A comparative study of the main influences. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *95*(3), 339–355.

Jamison, A. (2003). The making of green knowledge: The contribution from activism. *Futures*, *35*(7), 703–716.

Jamison, W. V, & Lunch, W. M. (1992). Rights of Animals, Perceptions of Science, and Political Activism: Profile of American Animal Rights Activists. *Science, Technology, & Human Values*, *17*(4), 438–458.

Jargalsaikhan, T., & Korotina, A. (2016). *Attitudes Towards Instagram Micro-Celebrities and Their Influence on Consumers' Purchasing Decisions*.

Jerslev, A. (2016). In the Time of the Microcelebrity: Celebrification and the YouTuber Zoella. *International Journal of Communication*, *10*, 5233–5251.

Kahle, L. R., & Homer, P. M. (1985). Physical Attractiveness of the Celebrity Endorser: A Social Adaptation Perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *11*(4), 954.

Kamins, M. A. (1989). Celebrity and noncelebrity advertising in a two-sided context. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *29*(3), 34–42.

Kamins, M. A. (1990). An Investigation into the "Match-up" Hypothesis in Celebrity Advertising: When Beauty May Be Only Skin Deep. *Journal of Advertising*, *19*(1), 4–13.

Kamins, M. A., & Gupta, K. (1994). Congruence between spokesperson and product type: A matchup hypothesis perspective. *Psychology and Marketing*, *11*(6), 569–586.

Kashif, M., Sarifuddin, S., & Hassan, A. (2015). Charity donation: Intentions and behavior. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, *33*(1), 90–102.

Kelly, S. P., Morgan, G. G., & Coule, T. M. (2014). Celebrity altruism: the good, the bad and the ugly in relationships with fundraising charities. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *19*(2), 57–75.

Kemp, S. (2017). Global Digital Statshot Q3 2017. Retrieved from https://www.slideshare.net/wearesocialsg/global-digital-statshot-q3-2017

Khamis, S., Ang, L., & Welling, R. (2017). Self-branding, 'micro-celebrity' and the rise of Social Media Influencers. *Celebrity Studies*, *8*(2), 191–208.

Kirmani, A., & Shiv, B. (1998). Effects of Source Congruity on Brand Attitudes and Beliefs: The Moderating Role of Issue-Relevant Elaboration. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *7*(1), 25–47.

Knoll, J., & Matthes, J. (2017). The effectiveness of celebrity endorsements: a meta-analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *45*(1), 55–75.

La Ferle, C., & Choi, S. M. (2005). The Importance of Perceived Endorser Credibility in South Korean Advertising. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, *27*(2), 67–81.

Lee, E. ju, & Schumann, D. W. (2004). Explaining the special case of incongruity in advertising: Combining classic theoretical approaches. *Marketing Theory*, *4*(1–2), 59–90.

Lindsey, L. L. M. (2005). Anticipated Guilt as Behavioral Motivation. *Human Communication Research*, *31*(4), 453–481.

Malik, G., & Guptha, A. (2014). Impact of Celebrity Endorsements and Brand Mascots on Consumer Buying Behavior. *Journal of Global Marketing*, *27*(2), 128–143.

Marshall, P. D., & Redmond, S. (Eds.). (2015). *A Companion to Celebrity*. *A Companion to Celebrity*. Hoboken, NJ, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Marwick, A. E. (2013). *Status update: Celebrity, publicity, and branding in the social media age*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Marwick, A. E. (2015). Instafame: Luxury Selfies in the Attention Economy. *Public Culture*, *27*(1 75), 137–160.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An Integrative Model of Organizational Trust. *The Academy of Management Review*, *20*(3), 709.

McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the Celebrity Endorser? Cultural Foundations of the Endorsement Process. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *16*(3), 310–321.

McNair, S., Okan, Y., Hadjichristidis, C., & de Bruin, W. B. (2019). Age differences in moral judgment: Older adults are more deontological than younger adults. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, *32*(1), 47–60.

Meksi Gaied, A., & Saied Ben Rached, K. (2017). The Congruence Effect between Celebrity and the Endorsed Product in Advertising. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *5*(1), 27–44.

Menon, K., Boone, L. E., & Rogers, H. P. (2001). Celebrity Advertising: An assessment of its relative effectiveness. Unpublished manuscript.

Michaela Jefferson. (2019, June 13). GroupM downgrades projections for global ad growth. *Mediatel Newsline*. Retrieved from https://mediatel.co.uk/newsline/2019/06/13/groupm-downgrades-projections-for-global-ad-growth/

Ohanian, R. (1990). Construction and Validation of a Scale to Measure Celebrity Endorsers' Perceived Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Attractiveness. *Journal of Advertising*, *19*(3), 39–52.

Omroep Flevoland. (2018). "Experts kunnen niet winnen van emotie." *Omroep Flevoland*. Retrieved from https://www.omroepflevoland.nl/nieuws/158016/experts-kunnen-niet-winnen-van-emotie

Osgood, C. E., & Tannenbaum, P. H. (1955). The principle of congruity in the prediction of attitude change. *Psychological Review*. US: American Psychological Association.

Park, J., Ekinci, Y., & Cobanoglu, C. (2002). An Emprical Analysis of Internet Users' Intention To Purchase Vacations Online. *Proceedings of the 33rd Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA) Annual Conference*, p. 12.

Peetz, T. B. (2012). *Celebrity Athlete Endorser Effectiveness: Construction and Validation of a Scale. UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones*.

Pornpitakpan, C. (2004). The Persuasiveness of Source Credibility: A Critical Review of Five Decades' Evidence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *34*(2), 243–281.

Reinhart, A. M., Marshall, H. M., Feeley, T. H., & Tutzauer, F. (2007). The Persuasive Effects of Message Framing in Organ Donation: The Mediating Role of Psychological Reactance. *Communication Monographs*, *74*(2), 229–255.

Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Moral awareness and ethical predispositions: Investigating the role of individual differences in the recognition of moral issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(1), 233–243.

Roozen, I., & Claeys, C. (2010). Review of Business and Economics The Relative Effectiveness of Celebrity Endorsement for Print Advertisement. *Review of Business and Economics*, (1), 76–89.

Russmann, U., & Svensson, J. (2016). Studying Organizations on Instagram. *Information*, *7*(4), 58.

Saeed, R., Naseer, R., Haider, S., & Naz, U. (2014). Impact of celebrity and non-celebrity advertisement on consumer perception. *The Business & Management Review*, *4*(3), 154–160.

Sallam, M. A. A. (2011). The Impact of Source Credibility on Saudi Consumer's Attitude toward Print Advertisement: The Moderating Role of Brand Familiarity. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, *3*(4), 63–77.

Samat, M. F., Hashim, H., & Raja Yusof, R. N. (2014). Endorser Credibility and Its Influence on the Attitude Toward Social Media Advertisement in Malaysia. *Review of Integrative Business & Economics*, *4*(1), 144–159.

Saxton, G. D., & Wang, L. (2014). The Social Network Effect. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *43*(5), 850–868.

Schouten, A. P., Janssen, L., & Verspaget, M. (2019). Celebrity vs. Influencer endorsements in advertising: the role of identification, credibility, and Product-Endorser fit. *International Journal of Advertising*, *0*(0), 1–24.

Senft, T. M. (2013). Microcelebrity and the Branded Self. In *A Companion to New Media Dynamics* (pp. 346–354). Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Sentient Media. (n.d.). Animal Rights Activists: What Are They & What Do They Do. Retrieved September 30, 2019, from https://sentientmedia.org/animal-rights-activists/

Siemens, J. C., Smith, S., Fisher, D., & Jensen, T. D. (2008). Product expertise versus professional expertise: Congruency between an endorser's chosen profession and the endorsed product. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, *16*(3), 159–168.

Simmers, C. S., Damron-Martinez, D., & Haytko, D. L. (2009). Examining the Effectiveness of Athlete Celebrity Endorser Characteristics and Product Brand Type : The Endorser Sexpertise Continuum. *Journal of Sport Administration & Supervision*, *1*(1), 52–64.

Smith, J. R., & McSweeney, A. (2007). Charitable giving: the effectiveness of a revised theory of planned behaviour model in predicting donating intentions and behaviour. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *17*(5), 363–386.

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

Stone, S. M. (2014). The Psychology of Using Animals in Advertising. *Hawaii University International Conferences Arts, Humanities & Social Sciences*, 1–26.

Sura, S., Ahn, J., & Lee, O. (2017). Factors influencing intention to donate via social network site (SNS): From Asian's perspective. *Telematics and Informatics*, *34*(1), 164–176.

Tan, X., Lu, Y., & Tan, Y. (2016). *An Examination of Social Comparison Triggered by Higher Donation Visibility over Social Media Platforms*, 1-20

Thomsen, C. J., Borgida, E., & Lavine, H. (1995). The causes and consequences of personal involvement. In *Attitude strength: Antecedents and consequences* (pp. 191–214).

Till, B. D., & Busler, M. (2000). The Match-Up Hypothesis: Physical Attractiveness, Expertise, and the Role of Fit on Brand Attitude, Purchase Intent and Brand Beliefs. *Journal of Advertising*, *29*(3), 1–13.

Till, B. D., & Shimp, T. A. (1998). Endorsers in Advertising: The Case of Negative Celebrity Information. *Journal of Advertising*, *27*(1), 67–82.

Tugrul, T. O., & Lee, E. M. (2018). Promoting charitable donation campaigns on social media. *The Service Industries Journal*, *38*(3–4), 149–163.

Turner, G. (2013). *Understanding celebrity*. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Wallace, E., Buil, I., & de Chernatony, L. (2017). When does "liking" a charity lead to donation behaviour? *European Journal of Marketing*, *51*(11/12), 2002–2029.

Wang, C. L. (2008). Gender Differences in Responding to Sad Emotional Appeal: A Moderated Mediation Explanation. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *19*(1), 55–70.

Wang, J. S., Cheng, Y. F., & Chu, Y. L. (2013). Effect of Celebrity Endorsements on Consumer Purchase Intentions: Advertising Effect and Advertising Appeal as Mediators. *Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing & Service Industries*, *23*(5), 357–367.

Wang, X. (2011). The Role of Anticipated Guilt in Intentions to Register as Organ Donors and to Discuss Organ Donation With Family. *Health Communication*, *26*(8), 683–690.

Waters, R. D. (2010). The Use of Social Media by Nonprofit Organizations. In *Social Computing* (pp. 1420–1432). IGI Global.

Wheeler, R. T. (2009). Nonprofit Advertising: Impact of Celebrity Connection, Involvement and Gender on Source Credibility and Intention to Volunteer Time or Donate Money. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *21*(1), 80–107.

Wieser, B. (2019). *This Year Next Year*. Retrieved from https://groupm-assets.s3.us-east-2.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/us_forecast_june_2019-single_1.pdf

Wu, P. C. S., & Wang, Y.-C. (2011). The influences of electronic word-of-mouth message appeal and message source credibility on brand attitude. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *23*(4), 448–472.

Wu, W. Y., Linn, C. T., Fu, C. S., & Sukoco, B. M. (2012). The Role of Endorsers, Framing, and Rewards on the Effectiveness of Dietary Supplement Advertisements. *Journal of Health Communication*, *17*(1), 54–75.

Wymer, W., & Drollinger, T. (2015). Charity Appeals Using Celebrity Endorsers: Celebrity Attributes Most Predictive of Audience Donation Intentions. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, *26*(6), 2694–2717.

Ye, N., Teng, L., Yu, Y., & Wang, Y. (2015). "What's in it for me?": The effect of donation outcomes on donation behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(3), 480–486.