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Abstract

Background: Via social marketing campaigns brands aim to tackle the societal issue of gender inequality in sports and to improve their brand image. On social media platforms, they use professional athletes as role models to reach their target group and create a transference towards the brand via brand placement. However, highly visible brand placements increase consumers' persuasion knowledge and result in negative consumer responses. Furthermore, various types of influencers are perceived differently regarding their trustworthiness and expertise. Professional athletes might be perceived as expertise but might lack in trustworthiness compared to amateur athletes as they are known for commercial cooperation with brands.

Objective: This research aims to add scientific knowledge to social marketing research by investigating the effect of influencer type and brand presence on consumer responses related to gender equality in sports. In addition, it is aimed to give practical advice on how to address the societal issue of gender inequality in sports.

Method: An online experiment was conducted, employing a 2 (type of influencer: professional athlete vs. amateur athlete) x 2 (brand presence: prominent vs. less prominent) between-groups design. 179 participants aging between 18 and 49 years were included. Attitude and behavioral intention towards gender equality and brand image were measured. Furthermore, conceptual and attitudinal persuasion knowledge such as influencer expertise and trustworthiness were measured and added as mediators. In addition, demographic variables such as age, gender, interest in sports, time spend on sports, and level of sports such as Instagram usage and being a follower of a sports-related Instagram account were included.

Results: Contrary to the expectations, a significant negative effect between brand presence and conceptual persuasion knowledge related to attitude and behavioral change was found. Since no further significant effects were found, no prior formulated hypotheses are confirmed.

Conclusion: The study serves as a starting point to investigate influencer marketing in the context of social marketing. Future research should investigate consumer requirements and relationships between influencers and consumers. Similarly, social marketing professionals should focus on the consumer's needs and interests. Hence, target groups need to be defined separately when planning social marketing activities.

Keywords: gender equality, influencer marketing, social marketing, brand presence, influencer type, trustworthiness, expertise, persuasion knowledge

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Introduction

Equality is one of the European values. It aims for equal rights for all citizens and states that all European rights are based on equality between men and women ("The EU in brief | European Union", 2020). Similarly, a fundamental value of sports is to give all people equal opportunities to be involved in sports. However, a gap between opportunities for men and women to perform sports under similar conditions exists (Brown, Mielke, & Kolbe-Alexander, 2016; Calvo Ortega & Guitérrez San Miguel, 2016; Capranica, Piacentini, Halson, & Myburgh, 2013; Kay, 2003; Krapf, 2019; Lagaert & Roose, 2016). To create awareness for this societal issue, to change society's attitudes and behavior towards the issue, and to improve brand images, especially sports brands, such as Adidas and Nike, stand up for gender equality by cooperating with professional athletes and creating online and offline social marketing campaigns (see Braun, 2018; Harrison, 2019; Kantli, 2018; Khadem, 2019; muskat, n.d.).

Social marketing activities aim to influence the target group's attitudes and behaviors to improve societal welfare and brands aim to improve or maintain a positive brand image (Andreasen, 2002; Chattananon, Lawley, Trimetsoontorn, Supparerkchaisakul, & Leelayouthayothin, 2007; Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). Although social marketing campaigns differ from commercial campaigns in their overall objectives, similar tools and techniques are used (Andreasen, 1994; Evans, 2008; Stead, Gordon, Angus, & McDermott, 2007). Consequently, channels of Web 2.0 are increasingly used and social marketing professionals take advantage of "the power, reach and influence of digital media" (Beall, Wayman, D'Agostino, Liang, & Perellis, 2012, p. 109; Dooley, Jones, & Iverson, 2012). Focusing on social media channels, existing studies address social marketing campaigns related to issues such as healthy eating, alcohol consumption, smoking, and health behavior during the Covid-19 pandemic (Al-Dmour, Masa'deh, Salman, Abuhashesh, & Al-Dmour, 2020; Dunlop, Freeman, & Jones, 2016). They show that consumers can be inspired to prosocial and healthy behavior via social media and that behavioral change is mediated by the availability of information, options for engagement, and feedback on social media channels (Dunlop et al., 2016; Razak et al., 2020).

As the evidence of the positive impact of social marketing campaigns is growing, more research on how to improve such campaigns is required (Dunlop et al., 2016). Furthermore, since most of the existing social marketing studies address societal health issues, studies that go beyond the health sector are needed (Truong, 2014). Research in the field of social marketing does not only hold theoretical but also practical relevance because prior research is

a relevant requirement for successful campaigns (Natividad, 2017; Sport England, 2020). A tool that is increasingly used for commercial social media marketing, but rarely investigated in social marketing contexts, is influencer marketing (Saima & Khan, 2020). Therefore, this study paper combines influencer marketing with the previously introduced issue of gender inequality in the field of sports.

Influencer marketing is popular because by embedding branded content in the personal accounts of influencers, consumers recognize fewer persuasive attempts and consequently develop less persuasion knowledge and resistance (Fransen, Verlegh, Kirmani, & Smit, 2015; Hwang & Zhang, 2018; Lou, Tan, & Chen, 2019). Brand identifiers, such as products, logos, and sponsorship disclosures, are depicted in such sponsored content to transfer the post's messages and the influencer's emotions and image towards the brand (Hudders, De Jans, & De Veirman, 2020). However, depending on the prominence of these identifiers, they increase consumers' persuasion knowledge which in turn leads to consumer resistance (Boerman, van Reijmersdal, & Neijens, 2014; Gupta & Lord, 1998). Similarly, not all influencers are equally effective for influencer marketing purposes due to different levels of trustworthiness and expertise. The trustworthiness and expertise of a brand endorser determine its persuasive power and consequently the success of the social marketing strategy (Chekima, Chekima, & Adis, 2020; Eisend & Langner, 2010; Hudders et al. 2020; Jin & Sung, 2010; Lou & Youan, 2019; Ohanian, as cited in Erdogan 1999; Till & Busler, 2000). As current social marketing campaigns in the field of sports mostly use professional athletes as role models to reach the target group, this research is questioning, whether amateur athletes might be more effective at persuading consumers as they might be perceived as more trustworthy than professional athletes.

Expecting similar effects in social marketing campaigns, the following research question will be addressed: "How do influencer type and brand prominence affect the effect of influencer marketing on consumer attitude and behavior as well as brand images in the context of gender equality in sports?"

Previous research shows that micro-influencers, who are comparable to amateur athletes in this research, are perceived as more trustworthy and authentic than macro-influencers, who are comparable to celebrities such as professional athletes (Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017; Jin, Muqaddam, & Ryu, 2019; Schouten, Janssen, & Verspaget, 2020). In contrast, expertise is determined by the receiver's perception of the sender's knowledge and skills (Wiedmann & Mettenheim, 2020). Thus, because of professional athletes' achievements in sport, they might be perceived as having more expertise in the context of sports than amateur athletes. In

this study, a fictitious Instagram account from a fictitious athlete is used to compare the effects of amateur athletes with the effects of professional athletes.

Furthermore, it is expected that brand identifiers affect the effectiveness of social marketing content depending on how prominently they are placed in the content. Previous research shows that more prominently placed logos increase the viewer's persuasion knowledge which in turn leads to more negative responses (Boerman et al, 2014; Gupta & Lord, 1998; McCarty, 2004). Further, more prominently placed brand identifiers are shown to affect how the influencer is perceived by the viewer regarding trustworthiness (Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017; Jin et al., 2019; Lou & Yuang, 2019; Schouten et al.; 2020; van Reijmersdal & van Dam, 2020). A logo of a fictitious sports brand "Sportone" was created to test the effect of brand placement in social marketing content.

In sum, this study investigates the role of influencer type and brand presence on consumer attitude and behavior towards gender equality with respect to perceived influencer trustworthiness and expertise as well as persuasion knowledge in the field of social influencer marketing. To this end, a two (influencer type: professional athlete vs amateur athlete) x two (brand presence: low vs high brand presence) between-subjects design was employed to study consumer responses toward social marketing strategies aiming to change consumers attitude and behavior towards gender equality in sports and to create a favorable brand image.

This thesis proceeds with a theoretical framework where the current situation regarding gender equality in sports is elaborated and examples of how brands relate to the issue are presented. Further, relevant constructs for this study are presented and hypotheses are introduced. Subsequently, the research design, the population, the stimulus material, and the measurement are described in the method section. Afterward, the outcome of the hypothesis testing is provided in the results section. Thereupon, the overarching research question is answered and discussed with respect to research limitations and ethical considerations, and practical as well as theoretical implications are elaborated on. The thesis ends with a conclusion summarizing the most important findings.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is divided into two parts. First, background knowledge is provided including current insides related to the context of gender equality in the field of sports are presented and examples of brands' impact on gender equality are given. Furthermore, a common understanding of the term 'social marketing' is defined and the role of influencer marketing in social marketing is elaborated.

The second part relates to the hypotheses of this research study. Here, the assumed effects of influencer type and brand presence are presented based on previous research. Furthermore, the assumed mediation effects of perceived influencer trustworthiness and influencer expertise, as well as persuasion knowledge, are elaborated. Finally, assumed interaction effects between brand presence and influencer type are presented.

Theoretical Background

Gender equality in sports

Grounded in societal gender stereotypes, sports are viewed as masculine. This perception results in women being less visible, less welcome, and less supported in the male-dominated sport contexts (Paul, Steinlage, & Blank, 2015; Pfister, 2010). Although one might assume that these beliefs are out of date, inequalities between genders in sport persist to this day.

Studies show that in general, sports play a smaller role in women's life than in men's live (Kay, 2003). Men are more likely to attend sports events as an audience and show higher physical activity in their free time than women (Brown et al., 2016; Kay, 2003; Lagaert & Roose, 2016, Women in Sport, 2020).

Although, participation in sports seems to be an individual choice, cultures, structures, and institutions are also reasons for inequalities amongst men and women in sports (Brown et al., 2016; Natividad, 2017; Pfister, 2011). Examples are masculine stigmatizations of sports, missing female role models and support, and religious dress codes and cultural taboos in some regions (Brown et al. 2016; Natividad, 2017; Women in Sport, 2019).

In competitive sport, women often cannot finance their living with sport and earn significantly less money than men (Brosel, Metzner, & Schmitt, 2021; Capranica et al., 2013; Krapf, 2019). Respectively, also media coverage of female sports is low compared to male sports (Kay, 2003; Pfister, 2011). Talking about a "gender show gap", it is shown that TV coverage of female athletes mostly appears in case of national or international success and

when the focus lies on the person rather than on the sports (Brosel et al., 2021; Calvo Ortega & Guitérrez San Miguel, 2016).

Calvo Ortega and Guitérrez San Miguel (2016) conclude that such unequal media coverage leads to the public assumption that female athletes are not relevant and that the overall sphere of sports is dominated by men. Thus, sport is generally associated with masculinity, and limited visualization of female athletes as role models results in girls' low interest in sport (Kay, 2003; Pfister, 2011). Furthermore, due to the popularity of sports, gender equality in sport is not only relevant in this area but has an impact on the public opinion and how gender is perceived in society apart from sport (Pfister, 2011).

Whereas various actors and organizations make progress in addressing and tackling the issue of gender inequality in sports, "these initiatives have been working in relative isolation, leading to missed opportunities of learning and scaling the best practices" (UN Women, 2020, para.6). Consequently and to break the circle, female athletes and spectators demand more attention and recognition (Atkins, 2019; Brosel et al., 2021). Similarly, next to specific recommendations for action for sports organizations, Pfister (2011) suggests to "raise awareness about gender hierarchies" (p. 44) and thus, to tackle the issue of gender inequality in sports.

Branded social marketing campaigns

To create awareness for the societal issue of gender inequality in sports and to potentially change societies attitudes and behavior towards the issue, especially sports brands such as Adidas and Nike stand up for gender equality in the field of sports.

For example, in 2018 Adidas started the campaign '#CreatorsUnite'. In this context, they launched the initiative 'She Brakes Barriers' in cooperation with various female top athletes and musician Pharrell Williams. Adidas aims to support female athletes to overcome obstacles that might hinder them to perform professional sports (Braun, 2018). Therefore, they created various image videos the athletes shared and published on social media (Harrison, 2019; Khadem, 2019). Similarly, Nike launched videos in the Middle East, Turkey, and Russia, to create awareness about discrimination against women and their fear to do sports (Kantli, 2018; Natividad, 2017). For the campaign 'Believe in more' they worked with professional but also everyday athletes.

Although no official evaluations of the above presented social marketing activities are present, the Instagram profiles of the participating athletes show positive consumer reactions in content views, likes, shares, and comments. Especially the user comments show that users

perceive the athletes as inspirational role models (see Harrison, 2019; Khadem, 2019). Furthermore, the amount of blog posts and news articles related to those campaigns indicates that the campaign created media awareness for the topic (see App, 2019; Braun, 2018; Exchange4media, 2019; Kantli, 2018; Smith, 2019; Tehini, 2018).

The campaign 'This girl can' executed in the UK shows that social marketing activities do not only generate awareness but can also influence the attitude and behavior of a target group. Through online and offline adverts as well as social media content, this campaign aimed to reduce the gap between the number of men and women doing sport. One year after the start of the campaign "2.8 million women aged 14-40 were more active [...] as a result of seeing the campaign" (Sport England, 2020, p. 22). In addition, Sport England (2020) points out that viewers of the campaign indicated to feel more motivated to do sports after seeing the campaign, and Women in Sport (2019) show that teenage girls can especially be reached through social media.

As presented in the examples above, brands have an impact on the awareness of societal issues as well as the on the target's attitude and behavior related to the issue through social marketing campaigns. Therefore, they hold corporate social responsibility to tackle the issue of gender inequality in sport.

Social marketing

As the concept of social marketing is defined differently in literature, a common understanding of how social marketing in the context of this study is required.

Social marketing aims to influence behavior and attitudes to contribute to societal welfare (Andreasen, 2002). Consequently, "social marketing can be applied in any situation in which a socially critical individual behavior needs to be addressed for a target audience" (Andreasen, 2002, p. 8). However, social marketing objectives are increasingly paired with traditional commercial objectives (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). Hence, social marketing activities not only have an impact on attitudes and behavior related to societal welfare but are also shown to have a positive effect on the brand image (Chattananon et al., 2007).

To challenge motivational, opportunity related and ability related barriers that hinder society to act in accordance with a desired behavior, the role of social marketing is to create awareness for behavioral opportunities and its benefits, to provide communication tools for outreach, and to urge stakeholders to motivate others and to support change (Andreasen, 2002). Thus, social marketing goes beyond mere education and thereby differs from educational and information campaigns (Madill & Abele, 2007).

In this paper, social marketing incorporates the organizations' activities to achieve organizational and societal benefits. Consequently, when referring to social marketing in this study, overall marketing goals relate to prosocial attitude and behavioral change to improve societal welfare as well as the improvement of brand image. Hence, in the context of gender equality in sports, social marketing activities may enable sports brands on the one hand to change consumers' attitudes and behavior towards gender equality and thereby improve societal welfare and on the other hand to improve brand image.

To fulfill its role, similar tools and techniques are used for social marketing and commercial marketing (Andreasen, 1994; Evans, 2008; Stead et al., 2007). Hence, as commercial marketers create value for customers via branding, social marketers create value by combining positive associations with prosocial behaviors (Evans, 2008). In fact, social marketing campaigns that are evaluated to be most successful, are those that are most similar to commercial marketing campaigns (Stead et al., 2007).

Influencer marketing

In commercial marketing, social media influencer marketing is shown to be successful in shaping an audience's attitude and behavior, creating brand and product awareness, building brand reputation, and selling products (Freberg, Graham, McGaughey, & Freberg, 2011; Hudders et al. 2020; Kirwan, 2018; Saima & Khan, 2020; Stubb, Nystöm, & Colliander, 2019). To do this, influencers integrate product and brand recommendations into their personal social media content. Since this form of marketing adapts the visual appearance of the platform, it is also categorized as native, covered, or embedded advertising (Hudders et al., 2020).

Advantages of influencer marketing are the influencers established credibility and reach as well as their contact and relationship to the target group (Freberg et al., 2011; Hudders et al. 2020; Kirwan, 2018; Stubb et al., 2019). In addition, by integrating branded messages into a medium's editorial content, consumer resistance towards persuasive messages can be avoided (Fransen et al., 2015; Hwang & Zhang, 2018; Lou et al., 2019).

Hypotheses development

Effect of influencer type

In the context of sports, it is common that famous athletes are used as brand ambassadors on social media (see Braun, 2018; Gnarby, n.d.; Harrison, 2019; Khadem, 2019; Kantli, 2018;

Evans, n.d.; Nurse, n.d.). Bush, Martin, and Bush (2004) show that athletes serve as influential role models, especially for teenagers. Therefore, professional athletes are used as communicators to demonstrate favorable behavior (Stinson & Pritchard, 2014). For example, basketball star Earvin Johnson successfully promotes safe sexual behaviors in the context of HIV and AIDS education (Brown & Basil, 1995). Hence, by using athletes' popularity for marketing efforts, the athletes serve as social media influencers (Kay et al., 2020).

Although Kay, et al. (2020) make a distinction between celebrities and influencers, the boundaries are blurred. Professional athletes are popular because of their achievements in sports and can therefore be described as celebrities, but some are also active on social media and generate high numbers of followers and likes such as influencers.

Kay et al. (2020) distinguish between macro- and micro-influencers and define the two groups by means of likes. Precisely, macro-influencers are those who generate at least 100,000 likes, whereas micro-influencers reach between 1,000 to 100,000 likes. Looking at athletes which are used as sport brand ambassadors, several of them generate more than 100,000 likes (see McKennie, n.d.; Nadal, n.d.; Williams, n.d.). Thus, when categorizing professional athletes in the above-presented influencer categories, they can be defined as macro-influencers. When defining them according to their popularity, professional athletes can also be viewed as celebrities (Jin et al., 2019). In contrast, amateur athletes that generate more than 1,000 likes, can be categorized as micro-influencers. According to Boerman (2020), micro-influencers, and consequently amateur athletes, can be viewed as 'normal' people.

When comparing the influential power of macro-influencers with the influential power of micro-influencers, it appears that micro-influencers hold more power. Carter (2016) reasons that the influencer engagement, being the relationship between the influencer and the follower, is more relevant than the number of followers (Carter, 2016). Also, Hudders et al. (2020) point out that, next to expertise and intimacy, authenticity is the most crucial influencer characteristic to create a high impact on followers' decision-making. Although micro-influencers have a smaller reach, they score high in authenticity and intimacy, resulting in higher persuasive impact (Campbell & Farrell, 2020). Furthermore, consumers interpret more persuasive attempts by macro-influencers than by micro-influencers and since it is common to use professional athletes as brand ambassadors, consumers are expected to hold high persuasion knowledge about this marketing tactic (Hibbert, Smith, Davies, & Ireland, 2007; Kay et al., 2020). Therefore, marketers tend to avoid obvious celebrity

endorsement on social media with influencers that are known for product and brand promotion (Carter, 2016).

H1: The exposure to Instagram content from amateur athletes will lead to a) more positive attitudes towards gender equality, b) more positive behavioral intentions related to gender equality as well as c) more positive brand image compared to the exposure to Instagram content from professional athletes.

Consumers' positive attitude towards gender equality is represented when, inter alia, they agree that all genders should be treated according to their requirements and when they value gender equality as important. Favorable behavioral intention towards gender equality would be for example, consumers being willed to support women in sports in online and offline settings. This could include political activism but also liking and sharing of female empowerment social media content. Brand image can be described as positive when consumers think the brand is good and pleasant. Further, brand image related to gender equality is favorable when consumers think that the brand does care about the societal issue.

Influencer type mediated by trustworthiness

The trustworthiness of an influencer seems to be an important factor that determines the influencers' persuasion power. In fact, Wiedmann and von Mettenheim (2020) found that trustworthiness is the most important influencer requirement of the Source-Credibility Model by Hovland, Janis, and Kelley (1953) as it has strong effects on brand trust, brand image, and brand satisfaction. The Source-Credibility Model states that "to be credible, a source should encompass the requirements: attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness" (Wiedmann & von Mettenheim, 2020, p. 3). In line with this, Hudders et al. (2020) report that to be successful, influencers need to be considered trustworthy and need to provide branded content authentically.

Trustworthiness is defined as "the degree to which a perceiver believes the source will tell the truth as s/he knows it" (Nafees, Cook, & Soddard, 2020, p. 392). According to Erdogan, Baker, and Tagg (2001) trustworthiness relates to "the honesty, integrity, and believability of an endorser" (p. 40). Higher influencer trustworthiness leads to higher brand awareness, purchase intention, brand satisfaction, brand trust, and trust in the branded content as well as more positive brand attitude and brand image (Chekima, et al. 2020; Lou & Yuan, 2019; Schouten et al., 2020; Wiedmann & van Mettenheim, 2020; Xiao, Wang, & Chan-Olmsted, 2018). Also, sources that are perceived as trustworthy, are more likely to change a

consumers' opinion (Hovland & Weiss, 1951). All in all, the trustworthiness of an influencer enhances its persuasive power (Martensen, Brockenhuus-Schack, & Zahid, 2018).

Several researchers compare the trustworthiness of celebrity brand endorsers with the trustworthiness of influencer brand endorsers. Consensus exists confirming that social media influencers are more trustworthy than celebrities (Djafarova & Rushworth, 2017; Jin et al., 2019; Schouten et al.; 2020). One reason might be, that endorsers become less trustworthy when promoting too many different products and the link between the brand and the celebrity ceases to be distinctive (Mowen & Brown, 1981). Although Mowen and Brown (1981) tested brand endorsers in print media, their findings are applicable to online media.

As mentioned before, professional athletes can be viewed as celebrities whereas amateur athletes on social media can be categorized as (micro-)influencers. Thus, one can assume that amateur athletes are perceived as more trustworthy than top athletes.

H2: Amateur athletes are perceived as more trustworthy compared to professional athletes.

H3: Influencer trustworthiness mediates the effect of influencer type on a) users' attitude towards gender equality and b) users' behavioral intention related to gender equality as well as c) the brand image.

Influencer type mediated by expertise

Various researchers state that sources who are perceived as experts are more persuasive than others (Aaker, 1997; Andersen & Clevenger, 1963; Horai, Naccari, & Fatoullah, 1974; Martensen et al., 2018; Ohanian, as cited in Erdogan 1999). In marketing contexts, expertise is shown to have positive effects on brand attitude and brand satisfaction as well as product attitudes and purchase intention (Eisend & Langner, 2010; Jin & Sung, 2010; Till & Busler, 2000; Ohanian, as cited in Erdogan 1999). Consequently, marketing professionals use athletes and portray them as experts to influence their target group (James, 2010).

According to Wiedmann and Mettenheim (2020), expertise is a source's knowledge level which is defined by experiences and problem-solving skills within a certain domain. They further state that hard work and training are required to become an expert. Whether experts are recognized as such depends on their achievements and their activities. Wiedmann and Mettenheim (2020) also stress also that perception of expertise can be manipulated by academic titles. This is also described in Cialdini's (2001) persuasion principle of authority. Hence, rather than the person's actual skills and knowledge, the consumers' perception

makes an expert of somebody (Ohanian, 1990). Consequently, Erdogan (1999) defines expertise "as the extent to which an endorser is perceived to be a source of valid assertions" (p. 298).

Considering these definitions, one can assume that professional athletes, who spend much time practicing to achieve high goals, are perceived as experts in their field of sport. Whereas amateur athletes may spend much time practicing as well, the professional status of top athletes underlines their expertise. In addition, Schouten et al. (2020) as well as Breves, Liebers, Abt, and Kunze (2019), found that a product-endorser fit positively affects perceived influencer expertise. Hence, assuming that professional athletes are more strongly associated with sports and related topics, one can expect that professional athletes are perceived to hold more expertise than amateur athletes.

H4: Professional athletes are perceived to hold more expertise compared to amateur athletes.

H5: Influencer expertise mediates the effect of influencer type on a) users' attitude towards gender equality and b) users' behavioral intention related to gender equality as well as c) the brand image.

Effect of brand presence

When marketing professionals decide to use influencer marketing for their social marketing campaigns, they do not only need to choose the right influencer but they also need to consider how to create a connection between the sponsored content and their brand.

In sponsored social media posts brand identifiers such as logos and products, are depicted so that transference from the post message and the influencer's personal emotions and image towards the brand can be created (Hudders et al., 2020). In general, the advantage of product or brand placement is that "the communication is not usually identified explicitly as a persuasion attempt" (McCarty, 2004, p. 48). However, such brand placements vary in their level of prominence and consequently may lead to different levels of recognition and persuasion knowledge. Prominent brand placement is when the "brand identifier is made highly visible by size and/or position on the screen" (Gupta & Lord, 1998, p. 49). In contrast, less prominent brand placement is when the brand identifier is not in the focus and less visible by virtue of size and position. This might be small placements in the background (Gupta & Lord, 1998).

In the context of product placement in television programs, prominent brand placement leads to higher brand recognition and higher skepticism regarding the brand (Boerman et al., 2014; Gupta & Lord, 1998). As such, prominent brand placement results in higher brand memory, but more negative attitudes towards the ad. This is because prominent brand placement is perceived as an interruption, especially when the viewer is familiar with the message context. In contrast, viewers who are less familiar with the context, are more likely to develop a positive brand attitude after being exposed to prominent brand placement but do not recognize subtle brand placement (Liu, Chou, & Liao, 2015). Hence, regardless of the brand familiarity, positive attitudes towards the brand are developed, when brand placement is not perceived as disturbing (Cowley & Barron, 2008). Because of the ads' disturbing character, viewers prefer product placement instead of traditional television advertising (McCarty, 2004). Hence, when the brand presence sticks out and viewers perceive brand presence as disturbing, it can be expected that they consciously recognize the brand presence, and consequently developed persuasion knowledge that leads to negative responses.

In line with the above-presented findings, research related to the mere-expose effect, defined by Zajonc (1968), shows that the mere-exposure effect is stronger when viewers are unaware of their exposure to a stimulus object (Zajonc, 2001). According to the mere-exposure effect, repeated exposure to a stimulus object results in a positive evaluation of this object (Zajonc, 1968). Consequently, the findings by Zajonc (2001) strengthen the assumption that more favorable responses appear when viewers are exposed to less prominent brand placement. Thus, it is not remarkable that McCarty (2004) suggests that "the stealth nature of product placement is one attribute that might be important in making it [product placement] work as a promotional tool." (p. 49). Furthermore, regardless of product placement, Erdelyi and Zizak (2004) state that subliminal communication often leads to more favorable behavior than conscious messages, which in turn may result in rejection.

In sum, when considering the above-presented studies, the chance for resistance is higher when a persuasive intent is more likely to be recognized. Although the above-presented studies mostly investigate the effect of brand placement in television advertising and its effect on brand attitude, deductions towards the effect of brand placement in social media content on attitude and behavior towards societal issues as well as its effect on the brand image are made.

H6: Prominent brand presence has a negative effect on a) users' attitude towards gender equality and b) users' behavioral intention related to gender equality as well as c) the brand image as opposed to less prominent brand placement.

Brand presence mediated by persuasion knowledge

According to the persuasion knowledge model (PKM), people develop knowledge that guides them in evaluating whether a message has a persuasive intention and on how to respond to the message. This knowledge is based on three knowledge structures: persuasion knowledge, agent knowledge, and topic knowledge. Persuasion knowledge relates to the awareness of being persuaded and "the knowledge consumers have about various advertising and marketing-related issues such as their beliefs about messages, senders' goals and tactics and their appropriateness, as well as their own coping goals and mechanisms" (Chen & Cheng, 2019, p. 190; Friestad & Wright, 1994). In contrast, agent knowledge consists of the beliefs about the communicator's competencies and goals, and the topic knowledge relates to the consumer's beliefs about the subject (Friestad & Wright, 1994).

Rozendaal, Lapierre, van Reijmersdal, and Buijzen (2011) apply the PKM in the context of advertising and distinguish the conceptual and the attitudinal dimensions of persuasion knowledge. The first dimension relates to the recognition of a message as being advertising. The latter one is linked to consumers' evaluation of a message and their critical attitude towards it. To activate attitudinal persuasion knowledge, conceptual persuasion knowledge is required (Boerman, van Reijmersdal, & Neijens, 2012). Boerman, Reijmersdal, Rodenzaal, and Dima (2018) distinguish between components of persuasion knowledge related to the conceptual dimension of persuasion knowledge and components that relate to the attitudinal dimension. They explain that "the first four conceptual components reflect people's basic understanding and recognition of sponsored content, its intent, its source, and tactics" (Boerman et al., 2018, p. 674). The fifth component is about consumers' understanding that brands pay for branded content and reveals the consumers' understanding of the marketing industry. The final component related to the conceptual dimension is about the consumers' beliefs about the advertising's effectiveness. Additionally, Boerman et al. (2018) present three attitudinal components, which are "evaluative in nature" (p. 675). Those components relate to the consumers' skepticism towards sponsored content, (dis)liking of sponsored content, and perception of advertising appropriateness.

Both Friestad and Wright (1994) and Isaac and Grayson (2017) stress that persuasion knowledge is not necessarily linked to skepticism and mistrust. However, most studies show

that higher persuasion knowledge leads to increased skepticism, resulting in resistance strategies related to the persuasion attempts which negatively influence attitudes towards brands and brand endorsers (Chen & Cheng, 2019; Evans, Phua, Lim, & Jun, 2017; van Reijmersdal & van Dam, 2020).

As mentioned in the previous section, prominent brand presence results in a higher probability that advertisings are recognized and messages are perceived as persuasive attempts (Boerman et al, 2014; Gupta & Lord, 1998; McCarty, 2004). Hence, a more prominent brand presence results in higher conceptual and attitudinal persuasion knowledge.

Therefore, it is expected that increased conceptual and attitudinal persuasion knowledge mediate the effect of brand placement on consumer responses. In the context of this study, the conceptual dimension of persuasion knowledge relates to users' recognition that an athlete's social media post related to gender equality aims to influence the user's attitude and behavior towards gender equality and towards the cooperating sports brand. The attitudinal dimension is the user's evaluation of whether this persuasive intent is appropriate, likable, and trustworthy (Boerman et al., 2018).

H7: Prominent brand placement results in higher a) conceptual persuasion knowledge and b) attitudinal persuasion knowledge compared to less prominent brand placement.

H8: Conceptual persuasion knowledge mediates effect from brand presence on a) users' attitude towards gender equality and b) users' behavioral intention related to gender equality as well as c) the brand image.

H9: Attitudinal persuasion knowledge mediates effect from brand presence on a) users' attitude towards gender equality and b) users' behavioral intention related to gender equality as well as c) the brand image.

Interaction between Influencer type and brand presence

In the previous sections it is argued that celebrity endorsers and macro-influencers, hence professional athletes, are less persuasive compared to micro-influencers, hence amateur athletes, because of their trustworthiness, authenticity, and contact to the target group (Campbell & Farrell, 2020; Carter, 2016; Hibbert et al., 2007; Hudders et al., 2020; Kay et al., 2020). It is also argued that the presence of brand indicators decreases the persuasive effects of messages the more prominent they are placed because of increasing recognition of

persuasive intents (Boerman et al., 2014; Gupta & Lord, 1998; McCarty, 2004). Combining these two variables, namely influencer type and brand presence, one can expect that the effect of influencer type on consumer responses decreases with the degree of brand placement. Hence, it is assumed that the status of the communicator becomes irrelevant for the consumer responses, as consumers' persuasive knowledge is activated due to the presence of a brand. This means that, especially when brand recognition is high, consumers become skeptical about the persuasive message and its communicator (Choi, Bang, Wojdynski, Lee, & Keib, 2018).

De Jans, Cauberghe, and Hudders (2018) show for example that the effect of advertising disclosure in sponsored vlogs evokes negative attitudes towards the advertising followed by lower influencer trustworthiness. De Jans et al. (2018) explain this effect with the transfer mechanism, which suggests that "attitudes towards the advertising format can be carried over to brand attitude through an unconscious mechanism" (p. 4). In addition, "followers may feel manipulated by the influencer and thus evaluate the influencer as less credible" (De Jans, Van De Sompel, De Veirman, & Hudders, 2020, p. 5). Furthermore, an endorser who publishes branded content because of intrinsic motivation evokes more positive responses than an influencer who is doing this for commercial reasons (Tabellion & Esch, 2019). When brand identifiers are placed prominently, the probability may increase that consumers think that the influencer has commercial intentions. Consequently, followers become more skeptical regarding the influencer's trustworthiness and expertise and followers and are assumed to show negative responses, regardless of the influencer type.

H10: Prominent brand placement negatively affects the relationship between influencer type and a) perceived influencer trustworthiness and b) perceived influencer expertise.

H11: Prominent brand placement negatively affects the relationship between influencer type and a) users' attitude towards gender equality and b) users' behavioral intention related to gender equality as well as c) the brand image

Conceptual Research Model

The previously formulated hypotheses are presented in the following research model (Figure 1).

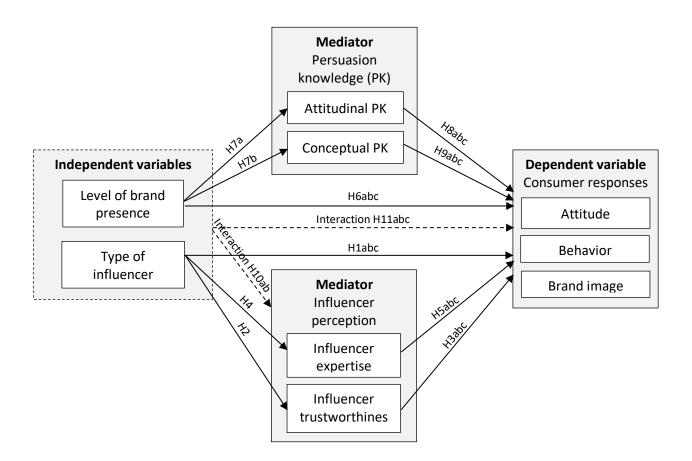


Figure 1. Conceptual research model

Method

Research Design

To answer the previously formulated overarching research question, an online experiment with a two (type of influencer: professional athlete vs. amateur athlete) x two (brand presence: prominent vs. less prominent) between-groups design was conducted. The participants were randomly assigned to one of the four condition groups. An overview of the condition groups is shown in Table 1. The participants were exposed to a fictitious Instagram profile according to their condition group including a profile description, a profile overview, and a selection of Instagram posts from this profile. The participants answered an online survey afterward.

Table 1

Overview of the four experimental conditions and the number of responses per condition

Condition	Influencer type	Brand presence	Responses (N = 179)
1	Professional athlete	Less prominent	43
2	Amateur athlete	Less prominent	43
3	Professional athlete	Prominent	49
4	Amateur athlete	Prominent	44

Respondents

The target population can be narrowed down to potential sports brand customers which are also potential users of the social media platform Instagram.

The definition of the target population is based on German customer data of the biggest sports brands, Adidas, Puma, and Nike, collected in 2019. For all three brands, the gender of the customers is balanced between male and female (VuMA, 2019a; VuMA, 2019b; VuMA, 2019c). Diverse genders will be included as well. The age group represented highest amongst the customers of all three brands is between 20 and 49 years (VuMA, 2019d; VuMA, 2019e; VuMA, 2019f). Comparable age groups are found for the users of social media platforms. Hence, most German Instagram users are between 14 and 49 years old (ARD & ZDF, 2020).

However, due to ethical considerations, no underage participants are included in this research. Therefore, the population this research relates to consists of people being between 18 and 49 years old. Apart from the age and sufficient language skills in English, no further characteristics are required for participation.

Sampling procedure

The sample was selected via snowball sampling to obtain a sufficient sample size. Thus, potential participants were approached via social media, messengers, and personal contact. They received a link to the questionnaire and were asked to share this link with others. In addition, the survey was published on SONA, an online platform where students from the University of Twente are asked to participate in various research studies. Since the respondents themselves decided to participate, the sample is a so-called convenient sample (Dooley, 2009).

To motivate participants to complete the survey, one euro per completed survey was donated to the charity organization arise e. V.. To avoid bias, the chosen organization did not relate to the research topic. Furthermore, to avoid personal biases, the participants were placed into the four experimental groups with an online random generator, ensuring a random assignment (Dooley, 2009).

Sample

In sum, 231 responses to the online questionnaire were obtained. However, participants that did not agree to the terms of condition, did not fit the age group, or completed the survey in a period of time that indicated that they did not consciously complete the survey, were excluded. It was expected that participants would need at least five minutes to consciously fill out the questionnaire. Thus, the final sample consists of 179 participants. In Table 2 the distribution of demographic characteristics per condition is presented.

With regard to the distribution of the participants, a one-way analysis of variance revealed no relation between age and the conditions (F(3, 175) = 1.515, p = .212). Furthermore, a chi-square test showed that the research subjects were equally distributed based on gender ($\chi 2$ (9) = 6.45, p = .694), interest in sports ($\chi 2$ (18) = 22.59, p = .207), how much time participants spent performing sports ($\chi 2$ (15) = 12.28, p = .658) and participants level of sports ($\chi 2$ (6) = 4.53, p = .605). In addition, there was no relation between the conditions and how often participants use Instagram ($\chi 2$ (18) = 18.01, p = .455) and between

the conditions and whether participants follow a sports related Instagram account ($\chi 2$ (6) = 2.44, p = .876).

Table 2

Demographics per condition (age, gender, interest in sport, time spend for sport, level of sport, Instagram usage, follower of a sports-related Instagram account)

	Condition 1	Condotion 2	Condition 3	Condition 4
	Professional	Amateur athlete	Professional	Amateur athlete
	athlete + less	+ less prominent	athlete +	+ prominent
	prominent	N = 43	prominent	N = 44
	N = 43		N = 49	
Age	M = 27.93	M = 26.73	M = 25.82	M = 28.34
	SD = 7.16	SD = 6.52	SD = 5.85	SD = 5.96
Gender				
Female	65.1%	74.4%	63.3%	75.0%
Male	30.2%	23.3%	32.7%	25.0%
Non-binary	4.7%	2.3%	2.0%	0.0%
Not specified	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%
Interest in sport				
Very interested	34.9%	41.9%	34.7%	38.6%
Interested	41.9%	16.3%	29.1%	31.8%
Rather interested	4.7%	27.9%	16.3%	15.9%
Neither interested nor not interested	2.3%	7.0%	2.0%	6.8%
Rather not interested	11.6%	4.7%	14.3%	4.5%
Not interested	2.3%	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%
Not interested at all	2.3%	0.0%	0.0%	2.3%

Table 2
Continued

Time spend on sport				
Everyday	2.3%	2.2%	12.2%	6.8%
Several times a week	65.1%	65.1%	61.2%	63.6%
Several times a month	20.9%	20.9%	18.4%	18.2%
Several times a year	11.6%	2.3%	6.1%	4.5%
Once a year	0.0%	0.6%	0.0%	4.5%
Never	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	2.3%
Level of sport				
Competitive	26.2%	30.2%	16.7%	23.8%
Fun & Health	73.8%	69.8%	83.3%	76.2%
Professional	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Instagram usage				
Several times a day	58.1%	58.1%	49.0%	45.5%
Everyday	9.3%	18.6%	20.4%	22.7%
Several times a week	4.7%	2.3%	4.1%	13.6%
Several times a month	4.7%	2.3%	6.1%	0.0%
Several times a year	2.3%	0.0%	4.1%	0.0%
Once a year	4.7%	0.0%	4.1%	2.3%
Never	16.3%	18.6%	12.2%	15.9%
Follower of a sports-related Instagram account				
Yes	51.4%	62.5%	56.8%	44.7%
No	48.6%	37.5%	43.2%	55.3%

Procedure

Utilizing the survey tool 'Qualtrics', an online experiment was created (see Appendix A). After clicking on the study link, the respondents were directed to a study introduction. This contained an experiment description including the procedure of the study and information about the data collection. Furthermore, the participants had to agree to a consent form indicating that they understood and agreed to the presented information. With the agreement of the consent form the study started.

The participants answered some demographic questions and questions concerning their interest in sports and Instagram usage first. The participants were then exposed to the research intervention according to their condition group. The intervention was either a fictitious Instagram profile description, profile overview, and posts from a made-up professional athlete or the same content from a fictive amateur athlete. Furthermore, the intervention included either prominent or less prominent brand placement. The participants were asked to read the profile description carefully and to take time to look at the Instagram profile and posts. The participants were allowed to take as much time as they want and to go back and forth to look at posts again. Thus, concerning time and intensity, participants had the same opportunities to look at the fictive Instagram content as if they would use their own device. Afterwards, the respondents were led to a final questionnaire. At this point, the participants were not able to go back to the intervention. Using this questionnaire the respondents' persuasion knowledge, the perceived influencer trustworthiness and expertise, the brand image as well as the respondents' attitude and behavioral intention towards gender equality in the field of sports were measured. Finally, the respondents were directed to a debriefing section of the online experiment where they were thanked for their participation. Personal contact information of the researcher was provided for the case of any requests. Furthermore, participants were informed about the real purpose of the research and that the exposed Instagram content was fictitious. Participants were able to leave the online experiment at any time.

Pretest

To test whether the interventions represent the intended type of influencer (either professional athlete or amateur athlete) and type of brand placement (less prominent or prominent), a pretest was conducted in which pictures of two potential athletes that may serve

as influencers were collected and different Instagram profile mock-ups were created (see Appendix B).

In semi-structured interviews six participants, three men and three women between the age of 19 and 47 years, were first exposed to the post pictures with less prominent brand indicators only. The participants were then asked to what extent they think the person on the picture was a professional versus an amateur athlete. Furthermore, participants were asked whether they think the person in the picture was an authentic athlete. The participants were asked to elaborate on how they come to their opinion. Afterward, the participants were exposed to the pictures in combination with the profile description and post captions. Following, they were asked whether and how their perception related to the person's athletic profession changed.

In the end, the participants were asked whether they recognized any brand in the post pictures and whether they can name the brand. Thus, it was tested whether the brand placement was recognizable, but not too obvious. Furthermore, to test whether the posts communicate the intended social marketing message related to gender equality, participants were asked whether they recognized this message. Finally, respondents had the opportunity to give feedback regarding the stimulus material and to express their opinion regarding its suitability for this study.

The interviews showed that both potential influencers could be amateur athletes but only the second influencer could also be a professional athlete. Pictures that show a tartan track increased the probability that participants also perceive the influencers as professional athletes. Further indicators for being a professional athlete were the influencer's clothes and postures. Whereas the clothes of the first influencer were not perceived as suitable for professional athletes, the clothes of the second person where perceived to be suitable for amateur as well as professional athletes. Similarly, participants thought that the first influencer was "just posing" and "looking like a model" (participant 2) but the second influencer was perceived as more authentically "representing a person that really likes sports" (participant 2). As some participants thought that the second influencer is too muscular to be an amateur athlete in some pictures, these pictures were replaced. Some participants mentioned that they would expect a professional athlete to post pictures from a race. Although most participants recognized a difference in the number of followers and the Instagram bios which indicate whether the influencer is an amateur or a professional athlete, the participants thought that a short introduction to the athlete would be an advantage to recognize the influencer either as an amateur or as a professional athlete.

All participants mentioned that the second influencer seemed to be more authentic. Similar reasons were given as explanations why participants thought that the first influencer is rather an amateur than a professional athlete. Namely, participants thought that the first influencer was more posing than really doing sports.

About half of the participants consciously recognized the brand logo in the pictures. However, all participants agreed that they have seen the fictitious logo before when only the logo was shown in the end. All participants recognized that the athlete is promoting gender equality due to the picture which shows a rainbow flag and the post texts.

Based on the above-presented feedback, stimulus material for four condition groups was created. The final stimulus material is presented in the following section.

Stimulus material

The interventions used in this research, are fictive Instagram profiles from fictive athletes. For four condition groups, two different profile descriptions, four different profile mock-ups, and corresponding posts were created. All posts contain persuasive messages related to gender equality. One example is "We need to be recognized and heard. It's 2021 and the gap between men's and women's opportunities in their sports careers are still giant." The stimulus material for each condition group can be found in Figures 2-5.

The four profile types differ in terms of influencer type and level of brand presence. The type of influencer was represented in the profile description, and profile overview. Whereas the description for the professional athlete states that the athlete practices several hours a day and aims to start at the Olympic Games 2021, the description for the amateur athlete states that the athlete spends her free time doing sports and is a member of the athletic study association of her university. In addition, in the profile of professional athletes a blue tick, which is an Instagram verification for the authenticity of celebrities, was visible. Also, the number of followers visible in the stimulus material indicates the prominence of the athlete.

Prominent brand placement was created using the brand logo for the fictive brand Sportone which was placed in the foreground of the pictures. In contrast, less prominent brand placement was created by placing the brand logo objects and clothes in the picture.

For the intervention, fictive personas and a fictive brand were created. Using fictive interventions minimizes familiarity effects and therefore increases the statistical power of this research (Till & Busler, 1998). In addition, for all condition groups, the same photos were used where only specific aspects that indicate the condition group were changed. Thus, the condition groups were comparable and unintended differences did not bias.

A young woman has been chosen to represent the athlete. The reason is that gender inequality is an issue that mostly tackles women and therefore a woman representing messages towards gender equality is expected as being more authentic. The age of the athlete was expected to represent the average age of the population.

Kelly is a 22-year-old top athlete. Her best discipline are middle-distance races. Her goal is to start at the Olympic Games in summer 2021. Therefore, she is practicing several hours a day. She is proud to be part of the Dutch national team.

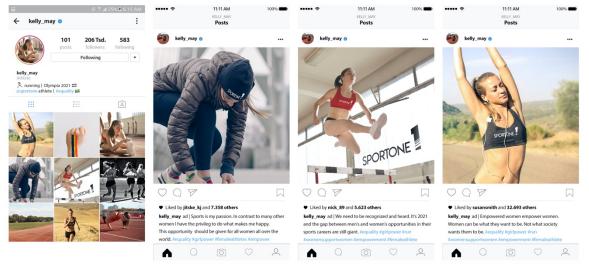


Figure 2. Stimulus material showing a professional athlete and less prominent brand placement

Kelly is a 22-year-old student at the University of Twente, Netherlands. She spends most of her free time doing sports. Athletic is her passion. She is happy to be a member of the athletic student association of her University.

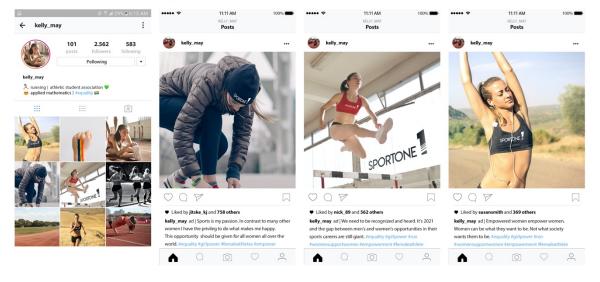


Figure 3. Stimulus material showing an amateur athlete and less prominent brand placement

Kelly is a 22-year-old top athlete. Her best discipline are middle-distance races. Her goal is to start at the Olympic Games in summer 2021. Therefore, she is practicing several hours a day. She is proud to be part of the Dutch national team.

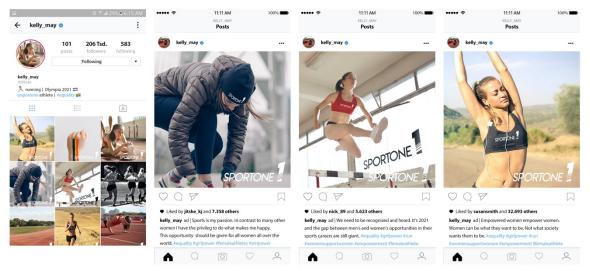


Figure 4. Stimulus material showing a professional athlete and prominent brand placement

Kelly is a 22-year-old student at the University of Twente, Netherlands. She spends most of her free time doing sports. Athletic is her passion. She is happy to be a member of the athletic student association of her University.

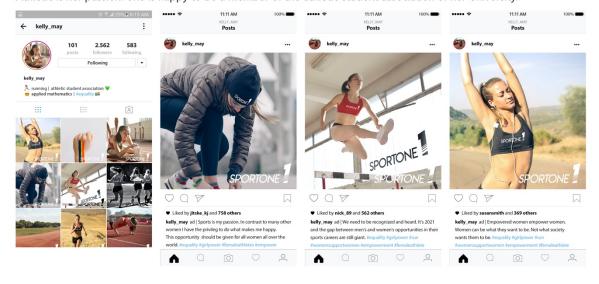


Figure 5. Stimulus material showing an amateur athlete and prominent brand placement

Measurements

The study includes two independent variables of interest. The first construct is the type of influencer, namely amateur athlete, or professional athlete, and the second variable, the level of brand presence, namely less prominent brand placement and prominent brand placement. The dependent variables of interest are the perceived influencer trustworthiness, the perceived influencer expertise, and the conceptual and attitudinal persuasion knowledge. The

variable of conceptual persuasion knowledge is divided into conceptual persuasion knowledge related to behavioral change and conceptual persuasion knowledge related to advertising recognition. Furthermore, attitudinal persuasion knowledge is divided into perceived appropriateness, skepticism, and likability. In addition, the participants' attitudes towards gender equality, their behavioral intention related to gender equality, as well as brand image were measured. To measure the dependent variables, items from existing scales were adopted and altered to the context of this study. In total, the variables were tested by means of 47 items.

A principal axis factor analysis was conducted on the 47 items with oblique rotation. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .80, which is 'meritorious' according to Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999). Furthermore, all KMO values for individual items were greater than the minimum value of .50. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. 11 factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 71.8% of the variance. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant in the analysis. It shows that the correlation coefficients of the items were greater than zero. Consequently, the execution of a factor analysis was appropriate (Field, 2005).

Furthermore, to examine whether the scales consistently reflect the construct they are measuring, reliability analyses were conducted (Field, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha (α) for each scale is presented in the following paragraphs. Whereas Nunnally (1978) states that a value above .5 is the minimum for a reliable scale, Kline (1999) mentions .70 as the minimum Cronbach's alpha value. Although all scales were above the Cronbach's alpha minimum value of .5 and are therefore regarded as reliable according to Nunnally (1978), some items were removed so that the Cronbach's alpha increases (see Table 3). Thus, all scales, except for the scale for behavioral intention related to gender equality (Cronbach's alpha α = .66), are above the minimum Cronbach's alpha value of .70. However, since Cronbach's alpha value of .66 is reliable according to Nunannly (1978), the scale for behavioral intention is deemed suitable for this study as well.

Conceptual persuasion knowledge

Items to measure conceptual persuasion knowledge, hence the recognition of persuasive attempts, were inspired by the work of Boerman et al. (2012) and Boerman et al. (2018). Although those studies measure the concept on hand of a single-item scale, a multi-item scale was developed, as it was expected that using a multi-item scale for a particular construct

would improve the scale's statistical power (Churchill, 1979). Further items were adopted from a scale developed by Preckeler (2019). Respondents rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = completely agree / 7 = completely disagree).

Thus, five items were used to measure conceptual persuasion knowledge related to the recognition of branding. Example items are: "I think the posts I just saw were sponsored." and "I think that the Instagram posts I just saw, were the result of a paid partnership". The five items formed a reliable scale with a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .90$.

Whereas other studies only focus on the recognition of commercial intentions, this study also investigates whether consumers recognize persuasive attempts that aim to change attitudes and behavior. Consequently, three items were developed which explicitly relate to attitude and behavior persuasion. In order to increase the Cronbach's alpha for this scale from $\alpha = .75$ to $\alpha = .86$ the item "I think the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to influence my attitude towards gender equality." was eliminated. Thus, "I think the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to influence my opinion about gender equality." and "I think the posts that I just saw included a persuasive intent." were the two remaining items to measure conceptual persuasion knowledge related to behavioral and attitude change.

Inspired by the work of Boerman et al. (2018), filling items were included to avoid biases. For the same reason, the items for attitude and behavioral persuasion recognition and items for advertising recognition were presented in random order.

Attitudinal persuasion knowledge

Attitudinal persuasion knowledge was measured by means of items developed by Boerman et al. (2018). In the original scale, 18 items were used. However, to keep the scope of the questionnaire within reasonable limits, items that were perceived to be irrelevant for this research were eliminated. Thus, participants indicated their tendency to bipolar adjectives related to consumers' skepticism towards sponsored content, the perceived appropriateness of sponsored content, and the likability of sponsored content on a 7-point scale (e. g. 1 = very dishonest / 7 = very honest).

Four items were used to measure user's skepticism towards the branded content. Example items are "I think showing brands in the posts I just saw is dishonest vs. honest" and "I think showing brands in the posts I just saw is incredible vs. credible". The four items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha = .90$).

Five items were used to measure users perceived appropriateness of branded content.

Example items are "I think showing brands in the posts I just saw is unfair vs. fair" and "I think showing brands in the posts I just saw is wrong vs. right". The five items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha = .92$).

Four items were used to measure to what extent users like the presented content. Example items are "I think showing brands in the posts I just saw is boring vs. fair" and "I think showing brands in the posts I just saw is irritating vs. pleasant". The four items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha = .88$).

Influencer trustworthiness and influencer expertise

Ohanian (1990) developed a scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness on hand of bipolar adjectives. Since the athletes' trustworthiness and expertise were of interest in this study, only items related to these two constructs were adopted. Respondents rated on a 7-point scale (e. g. 1 = unreliable / 7 = reliable).

Example items to measure the perceived influencer trustworthiness are "I think Kelly May is reliable vs. unreliable" and "I think Kelly May is dependable vs. undependable". To increase the Cronbach's alpha from $\alpha = .84$ to $\alpha = .88$, the item "I think Kelly May is dependable vs. undependable" was eliminated. Thus, four items were used to measure perceived influencer trustworthiness.

Furthermore, five items were used to measure perceived influencer expertise. Example items are "I think Kelly May is an expert vs. not an expert" and "I think Kelly May is knowledgeable vs. unknowledgeable". The five items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha = .91$).

Brand image

The brand image was tested on the hand of the brand personality appeal scale developed by Freling, Crosno, and Henard (2011). As marketers aim to create a favorable image the brand personality appeal scale is a suitable scale to measure how attractive and desirable the brand is to the consumer. Therefore, four 7-point bipolar adjectives were used to measure the overall brand image (e. g. 1 = unpleasant / 7 = pleasant). Example items are "Sportone1 is unpleasant vs. pleasant" and "Sportone1 is positive vs. negative". However, to increase the Cronbach's alpha from $\alpha = .83$ to $\alpha = .84$ the item "Sportone1 is undesirable vs. desirable" was eliminated.

In addition, three items were developed which measure to what extent participants perceive the brand to be responsible for society and gender equality on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = completely agree / 7 = completely disagree). The used items are "Sportone1 cares about the society." and "Sportone1 does NOT care about the society.". The item "Gender equality is important for Sportone1." was eliminated to increase the Cronbach's alpha from $\alpha = .76$ to $\alpha = .78$.

Attitude and behavioral intention towards gender equality

As the consumer's attitude and behavior towards gender equality are specific factors in this study, no appropriate existing scales were found. Therefore, new items were developed to measure the two variables. Respondents were rated on a 7-point Likert-scale (1 = completely agree / 7 = completely disagree).

Four items were used to measure attitude towards gender equality. Example items are "I think it is important that all genders are treated according to their needs." and "I think women should be supported in sports such as men are.". The four items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha = .74$).

As the scope of the research does not allow to measure the actual behavior, behavioral intention towards gender equality was measured. Five items were developed for this purpose. Example items are "I would stand up for gender equality in my environment (e.g., sports club)" and "I am willing to donate for a program that supports gender equality in sports." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was $\alpha = .66$.

Although Cronbach's alpha is below the minimum value of $\alpha = .70$ recommended by Kline (1999), it is above the minimum value of $\alpha = .50$ recommended by Nunannly (1978). Therefore, it is deemed reliable and suitable for this study.

Results

Multivariate analysis of variance

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was applied to investigate possible main and interaction effects on the independent variables. A Wilk's Lamba was used to examine the general effects between the independent and combined dependent variables. The independent variables were influencer type and brand presence. The dependent variables were attitude towards gender equality, behavioral intention, brand image, brand image related to gender equality, influencer trustworthiness, influencer expertise, perceived appropriateness, skepticism, likability, conceptual persuasion knowledge related to attitude and behavior change, and conceptual persuasion knowledge related to the recognition of branding. The results of the multivariate analysis are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 *Multivariate test*

Construct	Independent variable	F-value	Sig.
Wilk's Lamba	Influencer type	.659	.775
	Brand presence	.971	.475
	Influencer type * Brand presence	.901	.541

The Wilk's Lamba shows that there is no significant effect of influencer type on the combined dependent variables ($\Lambda = 0.96$; F(11, 164) = .66, p = .775) and no significant effect of brand presence on the combined dependent variables ($\Lambda = 0.94$; F(11, 164) = .97, p = .475). Furthermore, there was no significant interaction effect between influencer type and brand presence ($\Lambda = 0.94$; F(11, 164) = .9, p = .541).

Main effects of influencer type

As presented in Table 3, there was no significant main effect of influencer type on the combined dependent variables. A summary of the means and standard deviations of the dependent variables can be found in Table 4. Univariate analyses of attitude, behavioral intention, brand image, brand image related to gender equality, influencer trustworthiness, and influencer expertise in Table 5 shows that there was no significant main effect of

influencer type found on any of the dependent variables. Thus, hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are rejected.

Table 4
Summary means of dependent variables (M) and standard deviations (SD) per influencer type

	Professional athletes $(N=91)$			Amateur athletes $(N = 87)$	
	M	SD	M	SD	
Attitude	5.69	2.19	5.47	2.39	
Behavioral intention	3.15	1.27	3.34	1.17	
Brand image	4.67	.98	4.55	.88	
Brand image related to gender equality	4.21	1.61	4.42	1.66	
Influencer trustworthiness	3.95	1.52	4.10	1.48	
Influencer expertise	3.93	1.94	3.74	1.61	

Table 5

Test of between-subject design effect

Independent variable	Dependent variable	F-value	Sig.
Influencer type:	Attitude	.415	.521
Professional athlete / Amateur athlete	Behavioral intention	1.143	.287
	Brand image	.774	.380
	Brand image related to gender equality	.725	.396
	Influencer trustworthiness	.461	.498
	Influencer expertise	.351	.555

Main effects of brand presence

As presented in Table 3, there was no significant main effect of influencer type on the combined dependent variables. A summary of the means and standard deviations of the dependent variables can be found in Table 6. Univariate analyses of attitude, behavioral intention, brand image, brand image related to gender equality, perceived appropriateness, skepticism, likeability, conceptual persuasion knowledge (CPK) related to attitude and

behavior change and CPK related to recognition of branding in Table 7 shows that there was a significant main effect of brand presence on CPK related to attitude and behavior change, F(3, 174) = 3.783, p = .05. To make more specific assumptions about this effect, the group means were compared. The comparison shows that the CPK related to attitude and behavior change is significantly higher when brand presence was less prominent (M = 4.22, SD = 1.5) than when brand presence was prominent (M = 3.77, SD = 1.57). In sum, hypotheses 6, 7, 8, and 9 are rejected.

Table 6
Summary means of dependent variables (M) and standard deviations (SD) per level of brand presence

	Prominent brand presence $(N=91)$		Less prominent bran presence $(N = 87)$	
	M	SD	M	SD
Attitude	5.53	2.38	5.63	2.19
Behavioral intention	3.24	1.22	3.25	1.24
Brand image	4.63	.88	4.58	.98
Brand image related to gender equality	4.19	1.81	4.44	1.4
Appropriateness (APK)	4.39	1.3	4.12	1.08
Skepticism (APK)	4.08	1.09	4.03	.90
Likeability (AKP)	3.93	1.25	3.96	1.10
Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	3.77	1.57	4.22	1.50
Branding recognition (CPK)	3.57	1.68	3.55	1.37

Table 7

Test of between subject design effect

Independent variable	Dependent variable	F-value	Sig.
Brand presence: Prominent brand presence /	Attitude	.094	.760
less prominent brand presence	Behavioral intention	.003	.959
-	Brand image	.105	.747
	Brand image related to gender equality	.986	.322
	Appropriateness (APK)	2.277	.133
	Skepticism (APK)	.093	.761
	Likeability (AKP)	.041	.839
	Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	3.783	.053
	Branding recognition (CPK)	.002	.964

Interaction effect between influencer type and brand presence

A summary of the means and standard deviations of the dependent variables per influencer type and level of brand presence can be found in Table 8. There was no interaction effect found between the independent variables, namely, influencer type and brand presence, on attitude towards gender equality, behavioral intention, brand image, brand image related to gender equality, influencer trustworthiness, influencer expertise, perceive appropriateness, skepticism, likability, CPK related to attitude and behavior change and CPK related to the recognition of branding, which is shown in Table 9. Consequently, hypotheses 10 and 11 are rejected.

Table 8
Summary means of dependent variables (M) and standard deviations (SD) per level of brand presence and influencer type

		prese	Prominent brand presence $(N=91)$		rominent presence = 87)
		\overline{M}	SD	\overline{M}	SD
Professional	Attitude	5.66	2.26	5.72	2.12
athlete	Behavioral intention	3.21	1.19	3.08	1.19
	Brand image	4.63	1.02	4.72	.94
	Brand image gender equality	4.16	1.73	4.26	1.47
	Influencer trustworthiness	3.94	1.53	3.97	1.53
	Influencer expertise	4.17	2.03	3.64	1.82
	Branding recognition (CPK)	3.69	1.79	3.53	1.58
	Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	3.76	1.59	4.34	1.55
	Appropriateness (APK)	4.44	1.39	3.95	1.06
	Likability (APK)	3.95	1.39	3.75	1.05
	Skepticism (APK)	4.03	1.21	3.97	.97
Amateur	Attitude	5.39	2.52	5.55	2.28
athlete	Behavioral intention	3.26	1.07	2.42	1.27
	Brand image	4.64	.72	4.46	1.02
	Brand image gender equality	4.23	1.92	4.62	1.33
	Influencer trustworthiness	3.8	1.36	4.41	1.55
	Influencer expertise	3.63	1.58	3.86	1.65
	Branding recognition (CPK)	3.44	1.55	3.58	1.14
	Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	3.78	1.56	4.1	1.44
	Appropriateness (APK)	4.34	1.22	4.29	1.09
	Likability (APK)	3.9	1.09	4.17	1.11
	Skepticism (APK)	4.13	.96	4.09	.84

Table 9
Test of between subject design effect

Intercept variable	Dependent variable	F-value	Sig.
Brand presence *	Attitude	.020	.888
influencer type	Behavioral intention	.624	.431
	Brand image	.912	.341
	Brand image gender equality	.349	.555
	Influencer trustworthiness	1.67	.198
	Influencer expertise	1.967	.163
	Branding recognition (CPK)	.424	.516
	Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	.313	.576
	Appropriateness (APK)	1.556	.215
	Likability (APK)	1.764	.186
	Skeptism (APK)	.009	.926

Mediation analyses

Although mediation analyses were planned to test hypotheses 3, 5, 8 and, 9, no mediation analysis was conducted. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation analyses require a significant effect from the independent variable on the dependent variable. Since no significant effect of brand presence or influencer type on attitude, behavioral intention, brand image, or brand image related to gender equality was found, hypotheses 3, 5, 8 and, 9 can be rejected without conducting a mediation analysis.

Additional results

To gain a more in-depth understanding of how to reach social marketing goals via influencer marketing, further explorative analyses were conducted that do not directly relate to the prior formulated hypotheses. More precisely, multivariate analyses of covariance selecting age, gender, interest in sports, and Instagram as covariates (MANCOVA) were conducted. As presented in Table 10, there was a statistically significant difference in the model after controlling whether participants follow an sports-related Instagram account, F(11, 157) = 1.858, p = .049, Wilks' $\Lambda = .885$, partial $\eta^2 = .115$.

Table 10

Multivariate Test

Covariate	Wilks' A	F-value	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial η2
Gender	.890	1.764	11	157	.065	.110
Age	.931	1.055	11	157	.401	.069
Interest in sport	.892	1.732	11	157	.071	.108
Time spend for sport	.893	1.702	11	157	.077	.107
Level of sport	.970	.446	11	157	.932	.030
Instagram usage	.920	1.235	11	157	.268	.080
Following a sports related account	.885	1.858	11	157	.049	.115

Furthermore, significant main effects were found between covariates and dependent variables. Due to time and space constraints, only significant effects are reported in the following. The complete correlation table can be found in the appendix C.

First, results of Pearson's correlation indicate that age was significantly related to attitude, r(176) = -.19, p = .010. This means that the higher the age, the is lower the participants' attitude towards gender equality.

Second, results of Pearson's correlation indicate that the time participants spend doing sports was significantly related to behavior related to the brand image related to gender equality, r(176) = -1.52, p = .043. This means that the more often participants use Instagram, the worse they perceive the brand's image towards gender equality.

Third, results of Pearson's correlation indicate that participants' interest in sports was significantly related to the likability of branded content, r(177) = .17, p = .021. This means that the more the participants are interested in sports, the more they liked the branded content.

Similarly, results of Pearson's correlation indicate that amount of Instagram usage was significantly related to the likability of branded content, r(177) = -.15, p = .039. This means that the more often participants use Instagram, the less they liked the branded content.

In addition, results of Pearson's correlation indicate that gender was significantly related to CPK related to branding recognition, r(176) = -.23, p = .003. This means that female participants were less likely to recognize persuasive attempts from the branded content than non-female participants.

Furthermore, results of Pearson's correlation indicate that following a sports-related Instagram account was significantly related to perceived influencer trustworthiness, r(177) = -.17, p = .022. This means that participants who follow a sports-related Instagram account perceive the athlete presented in the experiment as less trustworthy than participants that do not follow a sports-related Instagram account. Results of Pearson's correlation show also that following a sports-related Instagram account was significantly related to behavior related to gender equality, r(177) = -.17, p = .020. It shows that participants who follow a sports-related Instagram account are less likely to show supportive behavior related to gender equality than participants that do not follow a sports-related Instagram account.

Discussion

Discussion of main results

The study aims to answer the overarching research question: "How do influencer type and brand prominence affect the effect of influencer marketing on consumer attitude and behavior and brand image in the context of gender equality in sports?" First, it was investigated whether professional athletes have a different effect on consumer responses compared to amateur athletes. Second, it was investigated whether the level of brand presence affects consumer responses. Furthermore, the interaction between brand presence and influencer type was analyzed.

The effect from the brand presence on conceptual persuasion knowledge related to attitudinal and behavioral persuasion was significant. However, against the assumptions of the prior formulated hypotheses, participants that were exposed to prominent brand placement were less aware of being persuaded than those who were exposed to less prominent brand placement. Apart of this, no further significant effects of brand presence on consumer responses were found. These findings are contradicting to the findings of Boerman et al. (2014) as well as Gupta and Lord (1998). They state that higher brand presence results in more consumer skepticism and more negative consumer responses. However, McCarty (2004), as well as Cowley and Barron (2008), stress that brand placement only results in negative responses when brand placement is viewed as an interruption. Although different levels of brand placement were presented in this study, it might be that both levels were not perceived as disturbing so that no differences among the condition groups appeared. This would also explain why the effect from influencer type on the consumer responses, and perceived influencer trustworthiness and expertise did not decrease when the brand was placed prominently.

When further questioning why higher brand prominence leads to less conceptual persuasion knowledge related to attitudinal and behavioral persuasion, a reason might be that when brand identifiers are placed prominently, consumers perceive the brand rather than the influencer as the sender of the message. Then, consumers do not believe that brands intend to change consumers' attitudes and behavior towards gender equality as they link the brand's objectives to rather commercial ones. Thus, when asking participants whether they think that the branded post aimed to influence their attitude in the high brand presence condition group, they answered whether they think the brand aimed to influence their attitude. In contrast, when brand presence was less prominent, the participants perceived the athlete as the sender

of the message. In the eyes of the consumer, the athlete might be an activist that aims to change its followers' attitude and behavior. Thus, consumers think to recognize an intention to influence their behavior and attitude towards gender equality but not a commercial intention.

Moreover, it was expected that branded social marketing messages endorsed by professional athletes would have different effects on consumer responses compare to branded social marketing messaged endorsed by amateur athletes. As no significant differences were found among the condition groups, the results of this study contradict the findings of Carter (2016) who states that micro-influencers are more persuasive than macro-influencers. However, Carter (2016), Campbell and Farrell (2020) as well as Hudders et al. (2020) stress that micro-influencers affect followers more than macro-influencers because of their intimacy and personal contact with the target group. In this study, an influencer-consumer relationship was not simulated so that the effect explained by Carter (2016) does not appear in this study. Furthermore, it was reasoned that a professional athlete can be viewed as a celebrity and equalized with macro-influencers because of their popularity (Jin et al., 2019). However, since fictive athletes are used in this study, the professional athlete might not represent a celebrity from the perspective of the participants.

In sum, none of the prior formulated hypotheses can be confirmed. Hence, the study could not find branded influencer posts as affecting people's attitude towards gender equality in sports, their behavior related to gender equality, and brand image.

However, additional analyses were conducted that did not relate to the prior formulated hypotheses. First, significant effects from demographic factors on various dependent variables indicate that instead of the status of an influencer, the similarity between the influencer and the consumer is a relevant factor that explains the persuasive power of a branded post. It was found that conceptual persuasion knowledge, hence the recognition of advertising was higher for non-female participants than for female participants. Furthermore, younger respondents showed a more positive attitude towards gender equality compared to older respondents. In addition, participants who are more interested in sport perceived the branded content as more likable than participants who are less interested in sports. With these results, one can assume, that people who are more similar to the influencer, are less likely to recognize persuasive attempts and more likely to be persuaded by the influencer.

This assumption is in line with the similarity-attraction model (SAM) which is based on a study by Newcomb (1956). He found a relation between attraction towards persons and their similarity in attitudes. Hence, the receiver's identification with the communicator

positively influences the communicator's persuasion power (Brown & Basil, 1995; Stinson & Pritchard, 2014). In turn, identification with a person is determined by perceived similarities with this individual (Maccoby & Wilson, 1957). As such, Argyris, Wang, Kim, and Yin (2020) confirm that congruence between influencers and their followers increases the followers' engagements with the influencers, which in turn is associated with increased brand engagement. Furthermore, the similarity between followers and influencers affects the trust in influencer-generated branded content (Lou & Yuan, 2019).

Contradicting, those participants in this study who indicated to spend more time doing sports, valued the brand image related to gender equality worse, than those participants who spend less time doing sports. Similarly, people that follow athletes, sports clubs, or sports teams on Instagram perceived the influencer as less trustworthy and show less favorable behavior related to the issue compared to people that do not follow any sports-related Instagram account. These findings contradict the assumption of the similarity-attraction model as one might assume that those people, who spend more time doing sports and already follow a comparable account to the one shown in this study, are more like the exposed influencer and consequently are likely to be persuaded. Thus, it is also possible that the younger generation was not persuaded by the branded content but holds a more positive attitude towards gender equality than older generations as they have another background towards the topic. In line with this assumption, previous studies report that gender equality is more important for younger generations than for older generations (Piburn, 2006; Wilcox, 1991). Furthermore, there is a probability that people, who follow a sports-related Instagram account, are used to athlete influencer accounts and do not perceive the fictive athlete presented in this study as a real athlete. Consequently, they are not willing to show favorable online behavior related to gender equality by liking and sharing the content.

Another striking result is that in all groups the attitude towards gender equality is higher than the behavioral intention to support gender equality. Hence, although participants think that gender equality is important in the field of sports, they do not intend to act in accordance. According to Böckler (2019), two types of moderators influence humans' intention for prosocial behavior. First, situational moderators are external factors such as bystanders and situational ambiguity. Second, personal moderators are socio-affective and socio-cognitive factors. They describe the empathetic and sympathetic abilities of oneself and cognitive perspective-taking. Godin, Conner, and Sheeran (2005) show that behavioral intention is rather determined by moral norms, which can be categorized as an external factor, than by the person's attitude towards the behavior. Thus, although participants' internal attitude towards

gender equality is favorable, external moral norms might hinder them to behave according to their attitudes.

Research limitations

The above-presented interpretations may display considerable alternative explanations. However, it needs to be considered that those assumptions were not statistically confirmed. Thus, the explanations are only a matter of speculation. Hence, it might also be, that the insignificant results occurred due to some limitations in the research design.

Pretests have been conducted to create suitable stimulus material for this study. However, non-significant results indicated that more extensive pretesting is required. First, due to the method, the pretest outcome might have been biased by the researchers' expectations (Dooley, 2009). Such a bias could have been avoided by conducting an anonym survey instead of a one-by-one interview. The interview was chosen as it was expected to gain more in-depth information via a face-to-face conversation. Second, only two possible athletes were presented to the participants. Hence, the small selection might have missed relevant factors that would have been important to indicate whether the athlete may represent a professional as well as an amateur athlete. Consequently, due to lacking a pretest, the designed stimulus material leaves room for improvement.

Fictive athletes have been chosen to avoid bias due to prior attitudes towards an existing athlete. Consequently, the participants were provided with profile descriptions that aimed to indicate the athlete's role. However, the indifference among the condition groups indicates, that participants did not perceive one athlete as a professional athlete and the other as an amateur athlete. Hence, in future research real athletes can be used instead of fictive athletes.

In addition, to make sure participants did not only look at post pictures but also read the descriptions that were provided, a manipulation check should be included (Dooley, 2009). No manipulation check was implemented in this research, as it would have expanded the scope of the research due to the high amount of survey items. Instead, it was expected that participants that did not consciously read the items and manipulations were excluded based on the time they spent completing the survey. A manipulation check could also test whether participants recognized the brand logo, which was placed in the Instagram content. However, since all participants recognized the fictive brand, at least unconsciously, it was assumed that also participants in the main study would recognize the brand logo.

Furthermore, due to the scope of the research participants were exposed to the stimulus material only once. As branded social media content is usually part of a more extended social

media campaign, consumers' attitudes and behavior are usually not defined by a one-time exposure towards an Instagram post. Consequently, an experiment where participants are exposed to stimulus materials several times over a longer period would result in more realistic results. In line with this, Zajonc (2001) states the positive effects of exposure to a stimulus object only appear after repeated exposure.

In addition, the same pictures, except for adjustment for different levels of brand presents, were used for all condition groups. Considering the so-called picture superiority effect, which states that people rather pay intention to images than towards the text, one can assume that participants in this study only focused on the post images and did not pay intention to the profile descriptions and brand placements (Paivio, Rogers, & Smythe 1968; Stenberg, 2006). Thus, both manipulations, the influencer type, and brand presence became irrelevant for the participant and all condition groups show similar responses.

It needs to be acknowledged, that this study takes a rather binary perspective of gender equality in sports. This results from previous sources, which mainly relate to the differences between men and women. However, this perspective excludes various people that cannot be divided into one of the two groups. Furthermore, ethical concerns may appear related to the levels of brand placement. First, this study aims to increase societal welfare by influencing prosocial consumer attitudes and behavior rather than tricking consumers to create organizational benefit. However, since organizations are part of the economic system that aims to gain profit to survive, organizations support social marketing also for reasons related to organizational benefits. Therefore, in this study societal benefits as well as organizational goals need to be considered. Thus, the effect of the level of brand placement on brand image is investigated as presented above. Since the brand placement in this study needs to be recognizable and overarching regulations of Instagram force users to indicate sponsored or advertised content to protect consumers, ethical concerns can be alleviated.

Practical implications

Multiple practical implications can be derived from this thesis, even though none of the formulated hypotheses were confirmed in this study and only a few significant effects were found. First, since no differences were found when comparing the effect of amateur athletes on consumer responses with the effect of professional athletes on consumer responses, the type of influencer might be less relevant to change consumers' attitudes, behavior, and brand perception than expected. As such, Campbell and Farrell (2020) suggest creating a balance between influencers with high numbers of followers and less popular influencers within a

social media marketing strategy. Whereas influencers with a celebrity status hold the advantage of being role models, small-scale influencers serve higher authenticity and accessibility. However, rather than focusing on the influencer type when planning a social marketing campaign, it might be more relevant to focus on the relationship between the target group and the influencer. Hence, as suggested by Hudders et al. (2020) the most effective influencer to persuade consumers might be the one who holds a close relationship with the target group. In addition, following the similarity-attraction model, the similarity between influencer and target group might be more relevant than the popularity of the influencer (Newcomb, 1956). Consequently, it is recommended to first consider the target group's characteristics, interests, and needs and then select one or multiple influencers that fits the target's profile. Using multiple influencers increases the likelihood to reach different characteristics within the target group and increases the reach of the social marketing campaign.

When it comes to brand presence, this research shows that prominently placed brand identifiers might be less harmful for the consumer evaluation of a persuasive message than expected prior to this study. Consequently, it is recommended to rather focus on the advantages of visible brand placement than the disadvantages. Namely, to transfer the message meaning towards the brand by means of a highly visible brand identifier (Hudders et al., 2020).

Finally, since higher values in attitude towards gender equality are reported than in the behavioral intention, one can expect that barriers hinder consumers to be willing to act in accordance with their attitude. As the above-presented results show that younger participants hold a more favorable attitude towards gender equality compared to older participants, the two generations should be treated separately in practice. Whereas social marketing activities related to younger people should aim to maintain a positive attitude towards gender equality, detect barriers towards prosocial behavior, and aligning behavior towards the attitudes, activities related to older target groups should focus on the development of favorable attitudes towards gender equality before focusing on the behavior.

Theoretical implications

This research holds theoretical relevance as it expands the scope of existing social marketing research. As stressed by Truong (2014), most research related to social marketing focuses on the health sector. Therefore, a need for academic knowledge related to social marketing that goes beyond the health sector is required. Furthermore, although the amount of research

related to social media is rising, the amount of scientific literature in the field of influencer marketing especially related to social marketing issues is small (Dooley et al., 2012). In addition, findings related to gender equality in sport are not only relevant for the sport context but might be adapted to further contexts (Pfister, 2011). In sum, although no interrelation between brand placement and influencer type in social marketing can be confirmed, this study discusses new topics and serves as a starting point for additional research. Further, when improving the above-mentioned research limitations, a significant effect from influencer type and brand presence on consumer responses might be found which could help determine whether consumer's persuasive knowledge and perceived influencer trustworthiness and expertise mediate those effects.

However, the non-significant result can also mean that the type of influencer and the level of brand presence are less relevant in changing consumers' attitudes and behavior in the context of gender equality and in the creation of favorable brand images. In contrast, since selected data indicates that the match between influencers and the target group is relevant to influence consumers' attitudes in the context of gender equality, further research needs to be conducted to confirm this assumption. Furthermore, rather than focusing on the type of influencer separately from the target group, future research should focus on the relationship between influencers and users. Thus, a shift from communicator-focused research towards receiver-focused research is recommended.

Furthermore, considering the variable of brand presence, this research contributes to existing scientific knowledge, since previous research mostly focuses on brand placements on television. However, further research is needed to investigate why no effect has been found. Such research should consider whether the perception of disturbance due to a brand identifier plays a role in consumer responses, and what a suitable frame of brand presence is which can create a transference from communication message towards but does not result in negative consumer responses. In addition, future research may include more advanced techniques, such as eye-tracking, to investigate what Instagram users are focusing on when viewing branded content.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to examine to what extent influencer type and brand presence influence the effect of social marketing activities related to gender equality. Further, it was aimed at investigating mediating roles of perceived influencer trustworthiness and expertise as well as consumers' persuasion knowledge. The study provides a conceptual discussion of influencer types and brand placement in social marketing and empirical examination of the constructs.

Because hardly any significant effects were found, it cannot be said whether professional athletes or amateur athletes are more effective to reach social marketing goals. Similarly, it cannot be concluded whether less prominent or prominent brand placement should be used in social marketing contexts. Consequently, future research is needed to gain more understanding of consumer responses towards social marketing activities. Future studies might investigate other approaches such as the effect of similarity between consumer and influencer and the relationship between consumer and influencer. In addition, more advanced techniques, such as eye tracking, and longitudinal studies could be applied.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Main study online experiment

Study introduction

Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this study. This study part of a master thesis for the University of Twente.

The purpose of this research study is to explore social media content in the field sports. To do so, I want to ask you to read all given information carefully and to answer the following survey questions. It will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete this study.

For each completed survey I will donate 1,00 € to arise e. V. "Eine Schule für Ghana", a non-profit association which supports the establishment of a school in Ghana

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and anonymous and you can withdraw at any time without giving a reason. Your answers in this study will remain confidential. All data is kept anonymously, and personal information will not be passed on to third parties under any condition. Under no circumstances will any personal data or identifying information be included in the report of this research. Nobody, except the researcher and the supervisor will have access to the anonymized data in its entirety.

If you have any questions for the researchers about the study, feel free to contact m.krieter@student.utwente.nl.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, or wish to obtain information, ask questions, or discuss any concerns about this study with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact the Secretary of the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Behavioral, Management and Social Sciences at the University of Twente by ethicscommittee-bms@utwente.nl

By clicking on 'Yes, I agree to participate', you declare the following:

I hereby declare that I have been informed in a clear manner about the aim and method of this study. Furthermore, I participate on my own free will and I am aware that I can withdraw from this research at any time without having to mention a reason. Information about anonymity and how to get in contact with the researchers in case of questions or comments are clear to me.

Do you agree to participate in this study?	
Yes, I agree to participate.	
O No, I do not agree to participate.	

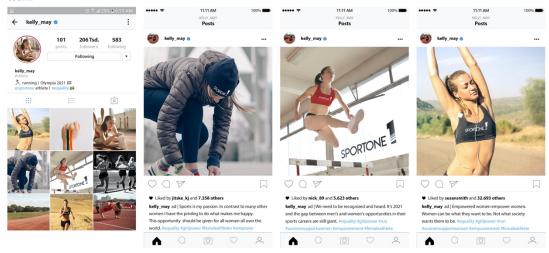
Demographic questions
What is your gender?
O Male
○ Female
O Non-binary / third gender
O Prefer not to say
What is your age? (In years)
Are you interested in sports (either as a spectator or as an athlete)?
Yes, I am very interested
○ Yes
Rather yes
O Neither yes or no
O Rather no
○ No
No, I am not interested at all

How often do you usually do sports?
Everyday
More than once a week
More than once a month
More than once a year
Once a year
O Never
If you do sports, on what level do you do sport?
On a professional level
On a competitive level but not professional
Ust for fun and/or for my health
O I do not do sports
How often do you use Instagram?
O Several times a day
Everyday but not several times a day
Several times a week but not everyday
Several times a month but not every week
Several times a month but not every year
O Several times a year
O Never
Do you follow any athlete, sports team or sports club on Instragram?
O I do not use Instagram
○ No
○ Yes

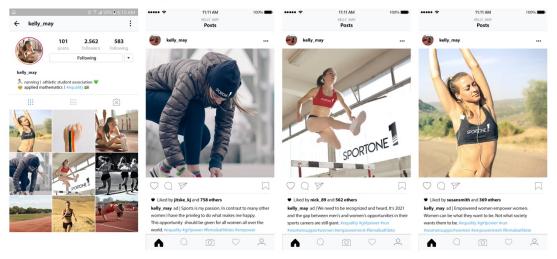
Stimulus material: Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions Following you see the Instagram profile of Kelly May.

Please carefully look at the following Instagram profile and the posts. Some questions related to the posts will be asked

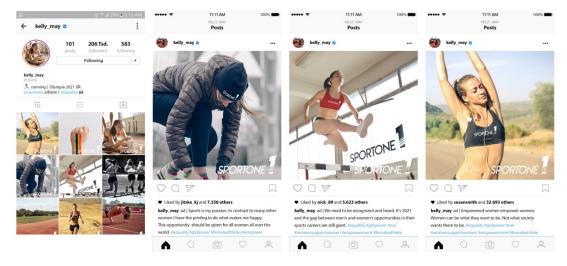
Kelly is a 22-year-old top athlete. Her best discipline are middle-distance races. Her goal is to start at the Olympic Games in summer 2021. Therefore, she is practicing several hours a day. She is proud to be part of the Dutch national team.



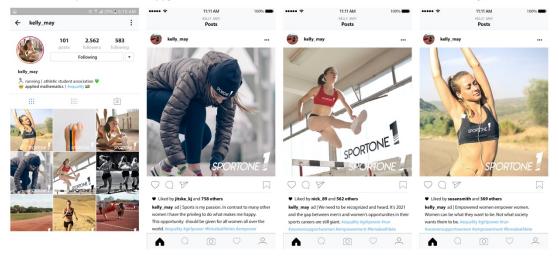
Kelly is a 22-year-old student at the University of Twente, Netherlands. She spends most of her free time doing sports. Athletic is her passion. She is happy to be a member of the athletic student association of her University.



Kelly is a 22-year-old top athlete. Her best discipline are middle-distance races. Her goal is to start at the Olympic Games in summer 2021. Therefore, she is practicing several hours a day. She is proud to be part of the Dutch national team.



Kelly is a 22-year-old student at the University of Twente, Netherlands. She spends most of her free time doing sports. Athletic is her passion. She is happy to be a member of the athletic student association of her University.



Survey Items: Influencer trustworthiness and influencer expertise

Please indicate your opinion about Kelly May, the athlete you just saw in the Instagram posts. I think Kelly May is...

	1	2	3	4	5	6	/	
Dependable	\circ	\circ	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Undependable
Honest	\circ	Dishonest						
Reliable	\circ	Unreliable						
Sincere	\circ	Insincere						
Trustworthy	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	0	Untrustworthy
I think Kelly Ma								
I HIHIN NEHV W	av is							
Tullik Kelly Ma	ay is	2	3	4	5	6	7	
An expert		2	3	4	5	6	7	Not an expert
		2	3	4	5	6	7	Not an expert
An expert		2	3	4	5	6	0	
An expert Experienced		2	3	4	5	6	0	Inexperienced

Survey Items: Conceptual persuasion knowledge

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the presented statements. I think the posts I just saw were sponsored.
O Strongly agree
O Agree
O Somewhat agree
Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
O Disagree
O Strongly disagree
I think the posts that I just saw included a persuasive intent.
O Strongly agree
Agree
O Somewhat agree
Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
O Disagree
Strongly disagree

i tnink i	the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to improve a brand image.
C	Strongly agree
C	Agree
C	Somewhat agree
C	Neither agree nor disagree
C	Somewhat disagree
C	Disagree
C	Strongly disagree
I think	the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to influence my attitude towards gender equality
	Strongly agree
	Agree
	Somewhat agree
	Neither agree nor disagree
	Somewhat disagree
	Disagree
	Strongly disagree

I think the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to influence my opinion about a brand.
Strongly agree
Agree
O Somewhat agree
Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
Obisagree
Strongly disagree
I think the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to influence my opinion about gender equality.
I think the overall goal of the posts I just saw is to influence my opinion about gender equality. Strongly agree
O Strongly agree
Strongly agree Agree
Strongly agree Agree Somewhat agree
Strongly agreeAgreeSomewhat agreeNeither agree nor disagree
 Strongly agree Agree Somewhat agree Neither agree nor disagree Somewhat disagree

I think the over	all goal of th	e posts I ju	ust saw is t	o influence	my behavi	ior related t	to gender	equality.			
Strong	ly agree										
O Agree											
O Somev	vhat agree										
O Neither	r agree nor o	disagree									
O Somewhat disagree											
ODisagro	ee										
O Strong	ly disagree										
Survey Items:	Brand ima	ıge									
Please indicate I think Sportone		n about th	e brand Sp	ortone.							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
Unpleasant	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Pleasant			
Positive	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Negative			
Bad	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\bigcirc	Good			
Undesirable	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	0	Desirable			

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the presented statements.
Gender equality is important for Sportone.
O Strongly agree
O Agree
O Somewhat agree
O Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
O Disagree
O Strongly disagree
Sportone does NOT care about female athletes.
O Strongly agree
O Agree
O Somewhat agree
O Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
Obisagree
O Strongly disagree
- Strangly dioagroo

Stron	gly agree)							
O Stron	giy agree)							
O Agree	Э							
O Some	ewhat agree							
O Neith	er agree nor	disagree						
O Some	ewhat disagre	ее						
O Disag	jree							
O Stron	gly disagree							
Survey Items	s: Attitudina	al persuas	ion know	ledge				
Brands some					ithin their lı	nstagram p	osts. Cor	nsidering the
I think that sh		s in the po	sts I just sa 3	aw is 4	5	6	7	
	1		<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>	0		
Dishonest	0	\circ	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\circ	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	Honest
Not trustworthy	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Trustworthy
Incredible	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\bigcirc	Credible
Not truthful								Truthful

Sportone supports female athletes...

I think that showing brands in the posts I just saw is...

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Inappropriate	0	0	\circ	0	0	0	0	Appropriate
Unacceptable	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Acceptable
Wrong	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Right
Unfair	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Fair
Illegitimate	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Legitimate

I think that showing brands in the posts I just saw is...

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Unattractive	0	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	Attractive
Boring	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\bigcirc	Interesting
Not amusing	\circ	Amusing						
Irritating	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\circ	\bigcirc	Pleasant

Survey Items: Attitude towards gender equality Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the presented statements. I think women should be supported in sports such as men are. O Strongly agree O Agree O Somewhat agree O Neither agree nor disagree O Somewhat disagree Disagree O Strongly disagree think female athletes are as important as male athletes. O Strongly agree Agree O Somewhat agree O Neither agree nor disagree Somewhat disagree O Disagree

O Strongly disagree

I think women should have the opportunity to do sports under same conditions as men.
O Strongly agree
O Agree
O Somewhat agree
Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
Obisagree
O Strongly disagree
I think women should be able to perform sport as they want to.
O Strongly agree
O Agree
O Somewhat agree
Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
Obisagree
O Strongly disagree

Survey Items: Behavior towards gender equality	
I would stand up for gender equality in my environment (e.g. sports club, university, work).	
O Strongly agree	
Agree	
O Somewhat agree	
O Neither agree nor disagree	
O Somewhat disagree	
Obisagree	
O Strongly disagree	
I am willing to actively encourage women to do sports.	
O Strongly agree	
Agree	
O Somewhat agree	
O Neither agree nor disagree	
O Somewhat disagree	
Obisagree	
O Strongly disagree	

I would 'like' posts on social media, such as the previously presented posts by Kelly May.
O Strongly agree
O Agree
O Somewhat agree
O Neither agree nor disagree
O Somewhat disagree
O Disagree
O Strongly disagree
Closing Text
Thank you for participating in this research.
The Instagram profile and the related posts you just saw are fictive.
The aim of this research is to investigate the effect of influencer type and brand presence on behavioral intention and attitude towards gender equality in sports and brand image. There were four conditions in this research. Either you saw an Instagram profile of a professional athlete or the Instagram profile of an amateur athlete. Furthermore, brand indicators were placed either on a very prominent or on a less prominent level.
Your answers will be treated confidential, and data will be used only in combination with the answers of all participants.
If you have any further questions or want to know more about this research, feel free to contact me: m.krieter@student.utwente.nl
Kind regards Maren Krieter

Appendix B: Pretest material

Pretest material: Pictures athlete A













Pretest material: Pictures athlete B

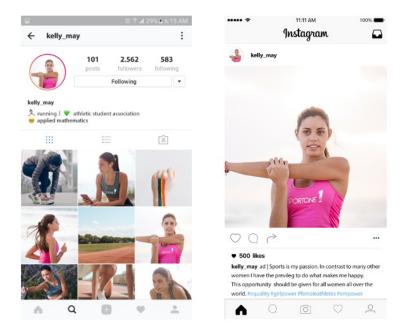




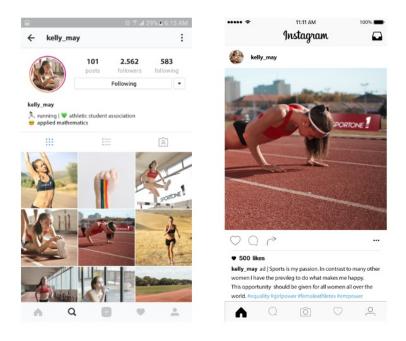




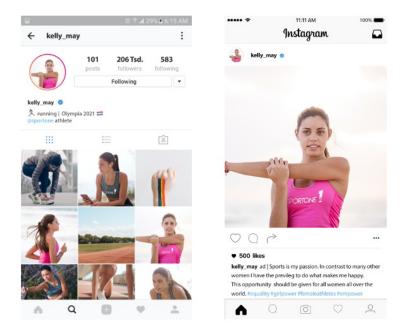
Pretest material: Instagram mock-up athlete A, amateur



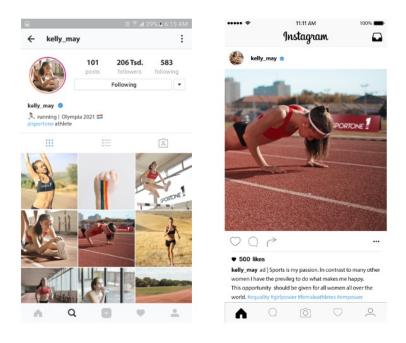
Pretest material: Instagram mock-up athlete B, amateur



Pretest material: Instagram mock-up athlete A, professional



Pretest material: Instagram mock-up athlete B, professional



Pretest material: Brand recognition

Did you see any of these brands on the previous slides?















Appendix C: Additional results

Table 11

Pearson's Correlation

		Trustworthiness	Expertise	Brand image	Behavior	Brand image gender equality	Attitude	Branding recognition (CPK)	Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	Appropriateness	Likability	Skepticism
Age	r	.040	.005	133	.033	.030	193	056	.117	124	.023	.007
	p	.594	.945	.075	.666	.694	.010	.457	.121	.099	.758	.930
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Female	r	.000	004	.123	.019	024	.115	225	.009	.072	.009	102
	p	.995	.956	.102	.800	.753	.127	.003	.900	.335	.907	.173
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Non-female	r	.000	.004	123	019	.024	115	.225	009	072	009	.102
	p	.995	.956	.102	.800	.753	.127	.003	.900	.335	.907	.173
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Follower of sports-related	r	171	070	.119	174	,069	105	025	041	.128	.035	.104
Instagram account	p	.022	.353	.114	.020	,363	.162	.743	.585	.088	.643	.164
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Not follower of sports-	r	.171	.070	119	.174.	-,069	.105	.025	.041	128	035	104
related Instagram account	p	.022	.353	.114	.020	,363	.162	.743	.585	.088	.643	.164
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Amount of Instagram	r	075	.028	.111	089	-,065	.066	011	048	.088	154	.078
usage	p	.319	.706	.139	.236	,387	.385	.888	.522	.241	.039	.301
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179

Table 11

Continued

		Trustworthiness	Expertise	Brand image	Behavior	Brand image gender equality	Attitude	Branding recognition (CPK)	Attitude and behavior change (CPK)	Appropriateness	Likability	Skepticism
Level of	r	022	104	.089	029	.025	028	033	.053	093	.038	016
Sports	p	.774	.166	.236	.699	.736	.709	.658	.482	.216	.613	.836
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Amount of	r	.035	082	.031	.063	152	.022	.000	018	018	.089	076
sports	p	.646	.276	.681	.402	.043	.774	.999	.812	.812	.235	.313
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179
Interest in	r	070	.004	.095	052	034	074	045	003	047	.173	.089
sports	p	.350	.954	.207	.487	.654	.325	.554	.973	.531	.021	.234
	N	179	179	179	178	178	178	178	178	179	179	179