

Mad Men: Masculinity and Advertising in the #MeToo Era

A Quantitative Study of Men's Responses to Purpose-Driven Advertising that Challenges Traditional Masculinity

Existing research shows that non-stereotypical advertising generates positive brand-related and social effects. However, there is limited research on non-stereotypical portrayals of masculinity and on non-stereotypical advertising that includes an overt call for social change. Additionally, advertisers have speculated about the potential impact of the #MeToo movement on the reception of advertising. This thesis investigates the impact of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity on consumer attitudes and purchase intention (brand-related effects), as well as on social connectedness and masculinity ideology (social effects). The results of a quantitative experimental study on 247 male participants in the U.S. showed that the purpose-driven advertisement did not generate positive brand-related or social effects and that this was amplified in the context of #MeToo. Significant effects were found for the mediating role of ad reactance, as well as the moderating roles of the #MeToo context and masculinity contingency. These results suggest that purpose-driven advertising that challenges masculine stereotypes may not be beneficial. This study adds to the emerging body of research on purpose-driven and non-stereotypical advertising, focusing on the role of masculinity and broader social context.

Keywords: Purpose-Driven Advertising, Non-Stereotypical Advertising, #MeToo Movement, Masculinity, Social Effects

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Key Concepts

Brand-related Effects	Consumer reactions such as behaviors, choices, or attitudes that benefit the brand and are related to the sender/and or the persuasive purpose of the ad (Eisend, 2010; Dahmén & Rosengren, 2016).
Gillette Effect	The possibility for the #MeToo context to intensify male consumers' negative reactions to purpose-driven advertisement that challenges traditional masculinity.
Masculinity Contingency	“The degree to which a man’s self-worth is derived from his sense of masculinity” (Burkley et al., 2015, p. 1).
Non-Stereotypical Advertising (NSA)	Portrays a person contrary to the stereotypes of their social identity or group (Åkestam, 2017).
Purpose-Driven Advertising (PDA)	Marketing that expresses the brand’s higher purpose and values and that takes a stance on social issues with the intention to improve them (Minár, 2016; Hsu, 2016).
Psychological Reactance	If people’s freedom or choices are lost or threatened, they experience an unpleasant motivational state (anger, hostility, defensiveness) called Psychological Reactance that drives them to restore the freedom (Miron & Brehm, 2006).
Social Effects	Effects that refer to “the well-being of the consumer and their relationship to other people” (Åkestam, 2017, p. 16).
Traditional Masculinity Ideology (TMI)	Masculinity ideology is “an individual’s internalization of cultural belief systems and attitudes toward masculinity and men’s role” (Levant & Richmond, 2007, p. 131). Traditional masculinity ideology is characterized by “anti-femininity, achievement, eschewal of the appearance of weakness, and adventure, risk and violence” (APA, 2018, p.3).

1. Introduction

This section explores the case of Gillette's commercial We Believe (Gillette, 2019) to illustrate the discrepancy between existing advertising research and practice. Specifically, the need for more research on purpose-driven advertising, masculine portrayals in advertising, and the consequences of the #MeToo movement are identified as avenues for research. Subsequently, the purpose and research question are presented, as well as the study's scope and expected theoretical contributions.

In January 2019, Gillette created an international media storm with the publication of their short film *We Believe: The Best Men Can Be* (2019). Within 48 hours, the video had reached over two million views on YouTube (Baggs, 2019). The advertisement called on men to speak out against violence and harassment, to hold each other accountable, and to set an example for the “men of tomorrow” (Gillette, 2019). While some appreciated Gillette's message, many were outspoken in their anger, with calls for the boycott of Gillette and their parent company P&G, often showcasing the disposal of their products on social media (McCluskey, 2019; Baggs, 2019; Hanbury, 2019; Green, 2019; Ritschel, 2019).

As Gillette (2019) explicitly calls for social change in *We Believe*, the ad serves as an example of the relatively new strategy of purpose-driven advertising (PDA), in which brands take a stance on social issues and call for change (Minár, 2016; Hsu, 2016). Given that PDA is becoming an increasingly popular choice for companies (Hsu, 2016), the Gillette situation highlights the importance of understanding the full range of implications associated with PDA. Gillette is not alone in receiving negative reactions to their attempts at PDA (Wolf, 2019). For example, Nike received massive backlash for their decision to feature NFL player Colin Kaepernick in their ad *Dream Crazy* (Nike, 2018). The controversy derived from Kaepernick's support of the #BlackLivesMatter movement, which he expressed by kneeling during the national anthem at several NFL games (Mather, 2019; Allen, 2016). Angry consumers on social media called for the

boycott and destruction of Nike merchandise, even creating the hashtag #justburnit, a play on Nike's slogan #justdoit (Abad-Santos, 2018; BBC, 2018). Despite the circulation of #justburnit, *Dream Crazy* (Nike, 2018) appeared to be a success for Nike, earning them “a \$6 billion dollar increase in overall value” (Abad-Santos, 2018).

However, when compared to the response to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019), *Dream Crazy* (Nike, 2018) was overwhelmingly positive. In fact, when comparing Gillette's commercial to other purpose-driven advertisements produced in the last five years, they are the only one who generated a primarily negative response on YouTube (see Appendix 1). The academic literature does not currently offer an explanation for the response to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019), a discrepancy which highlights the lack of existing knowledge about the consequences of engaging in PDA. When comparing *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) to other purpose-driven ads, we identify two key differences: 1) the issue and 2) the way it relates to the broader social climate.

Positively-received purpose-driven ads have primarily focused on female empowerment (Always, 2014; 2015; Nike, 2019) or diversity (Nike, 2018). *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) is one of the only that challenges traditional ideas about masculinity. Thus, it could be that the focus on masculinity is a contributing factor to the negative reception of *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019). However, given the more positive reception of *#RealStrength* (Dove Men+Care, 2015; see Appendix 1), the issue of masculinity alone does not provide a satisfactory explanation.

Furthermore, *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) was released in the #MeToo era, unlike other purpose-driven ads that challenge traditional masculinity (e.g. Lynx, 2017; Dove Men+Care, 2015). The #MeToo movement was founded by African-American civil rights activist Tarana Burke in 2006, and it became an international conversation in October 2017 when actress Alyssa Milano tweeted about it (me too., n.d.; Gill & Orgad, 2018; The Economist, 2018b). Survivors of sexual harassment

and assault came forward in unprecedented numbers, leading to the dismissal of powerful male leaders, numbers of lawsuits, and the introduction of stricter workplace harassment policies (The Economist, 2018a; Gill & Orgad, 2018). Despite bringing conversations about sexual harassment and assault to the forefront, evidence indicates that one year later, U.S. Americans have actually become more skeptical about sexual harassment claims (The Economist, 2018b). Additionally, some feel that the #MeToo movement has gone too far and become a “witch hunt” (The Economist, 2018a). The prominence of #MeToo and the sensitivity of its related topics has led advertising practitioners to speculate about the movement’s impact on the future of advertising, especially advertising designed to target men (Bradley 2018a, 2018b; Ellis, 2018). Considering that Gillette explicitly referenced the #MeToo movement and toxic masculinity within the first five seconds of *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019), it is possible that the negative response results from being primed to think about the rapid social change associated with #MeToo movement.

1.1. Problematization

The backlash to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) suggests that the positive perception of PDA may be conditional, which draws attention to gaps between research and practice. For example, research has shown that consumers generally respond favorably to non-stereotypical portrayals in advertising (e.g. Åkestam, Rosengren, & Dahlén, 2017a; Åkestam, 2017; Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010; Zawisza, Luyt & Zawadzka, Buczny, 2018b; Baxter, Kulczynski & Illicic., 2016). Moreover, non-stereotypical advertising (NSA) has been found to induce positive social effects, improving the “well-being of the consumer and their relationship to other people” (Åkestam, 2017, p. 16). Researchers have offered several explanations for these results, such as advertising reactance (Åkestam et al., 2017a), attitudes (Åkestam, Rosengren & Dahlén, 2017b; Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010), and values (Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997).

However, the current advertising literature has primarily focused on non-stereotypical portrayals of women (e.g. Åkestam et al., 2017a; Zawisza et al., 2018b), with non-stereotypical portrayals of men receiving little attention (Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010). Furthermore, the aforementioned studies have examined NSA without an explicit purpose-driven claim, unlike Gillette and the other practical examples discussed above. However, there is limited literature on PDA, so the exact conditions of its effectiveness are unexplored (Hsu, 2016). In addition, the nature of PDA necessitates effectiveness measured in terms of both brand-related and social effects, which further complicates its implementation. Thus, when attempting to explain the Gillette scenario, existing literature provides minimal insight into the reasons for and implications of the *We Believe's* (Gillette, 2019) unfavorable reception.

Masculinity scholars have long acknowledged the complexity of masculine identity (Gentry & Harrison, 2010; Kluch, 2015; Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Specifically, the relationship between masculinity and power “is such that even men who favor egalitarian perspectives are somewhat unaware of how deep male privilege runs globally throughout the fiber of most societies” (Gentry & Harrison, 2010, p. 75). Furthermore, men often benefit from adhering to traditionally masculine norms, as failure to conform can lead to penalization and backlash (Mayer 2018; Moss-Racusin, Phelan & Rudman, 2010). This dynamic creates even more incentive to conform, which proves that for men, “giving up their privileged status is not a straightforward process” (Gentry & Harrison, 2010, p. 91). Thus, it is possible that the close proximity of traditional masculinity to power makes it a difficult construct to challenge, especially in the limited airspace that a single advertisement can provide.

Further compounding this relationship are the conversations about gender dynamics that have been intensified by the #MeToo movement. However, due to its recency, the long-term impacts have yet to receive thorough academic investigation. Early research suggests that the conversations

emerging from the #MeToo movement can lead to resistance (Pettyjohn, Muzzey, Maas & McCauley, 2018), and the backlash to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) appears to support this. Such reactions are common when receiving uncomfortable or threatening information about one's social group as they are an effort to maintain the integrity of the group (Rivera & Dasgupta, 2018). Because the #MeToo movement highlights the flaws and inequalities within modern gender dynamics, it has led many to question what it means to be a man (Gillette, 2019; Bradley, 2018b; Pettyjohn et al., 2018; Harris & Tarchak, 2018). Historically, advertising has relied on the use of masculinity to sell both products and ideals (Kluch, 2015; Holt & Thompson, 2004; Gentry & Harrison, 2010; Hirschman & Belk, 2014). Thus, understanding the potential effects of the #MeToo movement on beliefs about masculinity is an important topic for advertising.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Given the exploratory nature of our topic, we aim to provide a preliminary explanation for the discrepancy between research and practice illustrated by the Gillette case. As both PDA and non-stereotypical portrayals of masculinity have received limited attention in literature, we seek to enrich the current understanding of the brand-related and social effects related to PDA that challenges traditional masculinity, and we will build on previous advertising research by exploring advertising reactance as a mechanism that determines the brand-related and social effects. For brand-related effects, we will measure ad attitude, brand attitude, and purchase intention to determine the effectiveness of PDA for the company. We will also measure social connectedness as a general social effect and masculinity ideology as a social effect specifically tied to the ad's message. Furthermore, the potential impact of the #MeToo movement and the importance of masculinity to an individual's self-worth will be investigated. Based on the discussion above, this thesis will investigate the following research question:

Does purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity generate positive brand-related and social effects, and is the outcome impacted by the #MeToo movement?

1.3. Expected Contributions

As discussed in the previous section, there is limited research on PDA and non-stereotypical portrayals of men in advertising (Hsu, 2016; Grau & Zotos, 2016). Thus, the current literature cannot adequately predict or explain the responses to purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (PDAM), as seen with Gillette. Through a survey-based quantitative experiment, this thesis seeks to contribute to the existing research on non-stereotypical portrayals of men and on PDA in three ways. First, we will extend the current understanding of consumer reactions to non-stereotypical portrayals of men in advertising, in an attempt to reconcile the apparent discrepancy between research and practice. Further, we hope to provide more knowledge about the mediating role of ad reactance demonstrated in previous literature (e.g. Åkestam et al., 2017a; Koslow, 2010). Second, our study will incorporate elements of both non-stereotypical and purpose-driven advertising to contribute to the limited existing knowledge regarding advertisements that include an explicit call for social change, as this style of advertising is being increasingly used by companies with little research on the potential consequences. Third, we will explore the potential influence of two new moderators: the social context of the #MeToo movement and the importance of masculinity to self-worth. Because the #MeToo movement is so recent, practitioners have thus far only been able to speculate about the movement's influence on the reception of gender-related advertising (Bradley 2018a, 2018b; Ellis, 2018). Thus, this study hopes to provide a preliminary understanding of #MeToo's impact on advertising. Furthermore, previous research on NSA has examined how consumer attitudes towards the issue (Åkestam et al., 2017b; Åkestam, 2017) or consumer values (Zawisza, Cinnirella & Zawadzka, 2006; Baxter et al., 2016) moderate the brand and social effects. Our study will explore the potential for the

importance of masculinity to self-worth as an influential factor in determining consumer reactions to PDA that challenges masculinity.

In addition to contributing to the academic literature, we hope to provide managers and advertising professionals with a greater understanding of the potential benefits and risks of engaging in PDA.

1.4. Delimitations

As this study seeks to empirically investigate a potential “Gillette Effect”¹ and explain the discrepancy between previous literature and practice, the boundaries of this thesis were set for us. Specifically, we investigate the intersection between PDA and NSA that challenges traditional masculinity and their impact on men’s perceptions. Thus, our advertisements are limited to the issue of male gender stereotypes, so other social issues such as racism, immigration or homophobia are out of scope. In line with this, our study only investigates the role of the #MeToo movement, excluding similar social change movements like #BlackLivesMatter. Additionally, we only investigate the reactions of male consumers, because we want to understand men’s perceptions.

Moreover, we made deliberate choices to focus our study on the social issue and the social climate. Thus, factors such as brand heritage, company size, or general attitudes towards purpose-driven advertising were not included in this study. Furthermore, while masculinity intersects with a variety of other identities, our operationalization is limited to the white, heterosexual, cis-gender variation. In addition, while masculinity is a multifaceted construct, we had to simplify it to a single aspect (restrictive emotionality) due to the constraints of experimental design. Similarly, our desire to

¹ The possibility for the #MeToo context to intensify male consumers’ negative reactions to purpose-driven advertisement that challenges traditional masculinity.

understand responses to PDA that challenges traditional masculinity led us to select social connectedness and masculinity ideology as our social effects. These choices will be further explained in the Method Section.

This thesis only considers the U.S. market for several reasons. First, the #MeToo movement originated in the U.S. and has since then become increasingly entangled in the country's deeply polarized political climate (The Economist, 2018c). Second, the U.S. has a history of influencing and shaping media consumption on a global level; consequently, controversial American advertising is likely to spill over and shape debate on an international level (Beck, Sznaider & Winter, 2004). Finally, as the experiment was conducted in English and some measures required specific and nuanced words, native English-speaking participants were preferred.

1.5. Research Outline

This thesis is divided into six main sections. The *Introduction* offered a brief overview of the real-life dilemma that revealed the discrepancy between research and practice, defining the research topic. This is followed by the *Theory Section*, which outlines the existing theories and previous research that are necessary to develop the hypotheses to answer the research question. The methodological framework and the pre-study results are outlined in the *Method Section*. The *Results and Analysis* section presents the results generated from the hypothesis tests, which are subsequently discussed in the *Discussion Section*. Lastly, the findings are summarized in the *Conclusion Section*, which provides implications and suggestions for further research.

2. Theory Section

This section outlines the theoretical approach that is the basis for the analysis and discussion of the research question. The chapter is divided into two sections, (1) Literature Review and (2) Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development.

2.1. Literature Review

This section provides an overview of the existing literature on PDA, NSA and masculinity in advertising and how these concepts relate to each other.

2.1.1. Purpose-Driven Advertising

Changing Consumer Demands

In the last few years, consumer attitudes have changed. Consumers, especially Millennials and Gen Z, are often guided by prosocial and purpose-driven motives, and their focus on social and environmental concerns is also reflected in their interaction with companies and brands (Cone Inc. & AMP Agency, 2006; Hsu, 2016). They expect and demand companies to take a stance on and contribute to solving these issues (Accenture Strategy, 2018; Cone Inc & AMP Agency, 2006). Some consumers even believe that brands can address societal problems more effectively than governments (Edelman, 2018). Consumers have started to take this one step further, demanding that the brand's social stance is incorporated into their mission, values, and purpose (Hsu, 2016; Kotler, Kartajaya, Setiawan, 2010). Brands that abstain from addressing current issues risk alienating consumers, while brands that integrate a higher purpose can benefit (Accenture Strategy, 2018; Hsu, 2016). For example, consumers prefer to purchase from purpose-driven brands that reflect their values and support social causes (Accenture Strategy, 2018; Minár, 2016). In response to this trend, companies have begun to incorporate a higher brand purpose to differentiate themselves

(Kotler et al., 2010). This change is also reflected in marketing practices as brands increasingly use advertising to convey their (value-driven) brand purpose and to address environmental and societal problems (Hsu, 2016; Nas, 2017).

Defining Purpose-Driven Advertising

The concept of purpose-driven advertising (Minár, 2016, Hsu, 2016) has been conceptualized under different names, such as Marketing 3.0 (Kotler et al., 2010), Goodvertising (Kolster, 2012) or, more colloquially, ‘woke’ advertising (The Economist, 2019). While these concepts emerged at different times, they all express the same underlying idea. For the purpose of this study, we chose the term purpose-driven advertising to align it with the emerging research in this field. We define it as “advertising that demonstrates that the brand cares about more than just profit and that it takes a stance on social issues with the intention to improve them” (Minár, 2016; Hsu, 2016).

PDA or Goodvertising is advertising that adds value to individual and social life (Nas, 2017; Kolster, 2012). It cares about the consumers, tries to make a positive difference in their lives and strives to create a dialogue with them (Nas, 2017). It represents a move from Marketing 1.0 (based on functionality and the product itself) and Marketing 2.0 (consumer- and emotion-focused), which both treat consumers as passive target of marketing campaigns, to Marketing 3.0 (values-driven marketing), which tries to understand the consumer as a whole (Kotler et al., 2010). This kind of marketing wants to understand the consumers’ anxieties and desires about social and environmental issues and tries to provide solutions (Kolster, 2012). Companies or brands engaging in Goodvertising or PDA communicate about community, social, and cultural values, issues and topics (Minár, 2016). It is, however, not just about adding a social issue to the marketing, but about taking a stance on social issues with the intention of changing them (Minár, 2016). The company or brand demonstrates that they are concerned about more than just their profits and sales, that they serve a higher purpose and that they care about and address social, economic and political

concerns (Minár, 2016; Hsu, 2016). Thus, advertising has transitioned from a one-to-one concept to being part of a society-wide discourse (Minár, 2016).

Purpose-driven advertisement has become increasingly popular over the last few years (Hsu, 2016). Procter & Gamble, for example, has launched several purpose-driven campaigns for their brands, including Always (*Always #LikeAGirl*, 2014; 2015) and Gillette (*We Believe*, 2019). They see themselves as a facilitator of positive change in society and “aspire to create a better world for everyone” and “to influence attitudes and, ideally, change behavior” (P&G, 2017; WARC, 2018).

Related Concepts: Corporate Social Responsibility and Cause-Related Marketing

PDA is not the only type of advertising with a social dimension. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) communication or advertising informs stakeholders about the various social and environmental initiatives of a company (Gruber, Kaliauer, & Schlegelmilch, 2017). Cause-related marketing (CRM) is a common form of CSR where a for-profit company and a non-profit organization develop a marketing campaign that enhances corporate performance and supports a social cause by linking donations towards the cause with the sale of products (Kotler & Lee, 2005; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). Thus, while PDA can include CSR communication or CRM, it is a much broader concept (Hsu, 2016). PDA is about championing a social issue with the intention to change it, while CSR communication and CRM is about communicating the specific social and environmental initiatives the brand supports (see Appendix 2).

Practices like CSR, CRM, and PDA can help the company to rise above the noise, attract consumer attention, engagement and trust, and drive sales (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Hsu, 2016). Thus, PDA can benefit the company (brand) on multiple levels. However, not all response to PDA is positive; companies can be accused of hypocrisy if their efforts are perceived as insincere or if the campaign lacks transformative social influence (Hsu, 2016). While PDA is increasingly employed

by companies, and frequently discussed by advertisers, it has received little academic attention and, as previously explained, little is known about what makes a PDA campaign successful (Hsu, 2016). As illustrated by the backlash to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019), research is needed to clarify its effects and what determines its success. One important aspect could be the social issue that the brand challenges.

2.1.2. Non-Stereotypical Advertisement

Stereotypes in Advertising

The majority of advertising is based on stereotypical portrayals of certain groups, such as women, gay men, or ethnic minorities (Åkestam, 2017). Stereotypes are “generalized and widely accepted beliefs about the personal attributes of members of a social category, such as gender, ethnicity, or sexual orientation” (Åkestam, 2017, p. 1), and are time- and culture-dependent (Eisend, 2010). Stereotypes in advertising rarely reflect the real world; certain groups (e.g. attractive, white and skinny) are over-represented, while others (e.g. gay men) are either not represented at all, only used in niche marketing, or heavily stereotyped in mainstream advertising (Åkestam, 2017). Researchers have been interested in the use of these *advertising stereotypes*, and an extensive body of literature has investigated their content, frequency, and effects on the consumer and the brand (Åkestam, 2017; e.g. Eisend, 2010; Grau & Zotos, 2016). As advertising frequently relies on stereotyped gender roles, this subject has been researched since the 1960s, with a focus on female stereotypes (Eisend, 2010). Several advertising content analyses have tracked the change in gender stereotyping over the last decades and found that, while there has been some progress, gender stereotyping is still prevalent (e.g. Eisend, 2010; Knoll, Eisend, & Steinhagen, 2011). An analysis by Gentry and Harrison (2010), for example, showed that, while women are shown less stereotypical, portrayals of men still reflect traditional masculine ideals. Because it is often assumed that stereotypes can influence the beliefs and values of consumers, the potential effects of gender stereotypes in

advertising on the individual consumers and society have received considerable attention among researchers (Knoll et al., 2011).

The ‘Mirror’ vs. ‘Mold’ Argument

There has been a long-lasting debate about the role advertising plays in society (Grau & Zotos, 2016). The assumption that advertising can influence ideas about gender is part of the ‘mold’ argument described by Pollay (1986). It assumes that exposure to advertising shapes values, attitudes and behaviors and can thus, for example, reinforce gender roles (Eisend, 2010). Opponents of this theory argue for the ‘mirror’ model, which maintains that advertising merely reflects society, and thus changes in advertising content mirror changes in society (Eisend, 2010; Holbrook, 1987). However, these theories are not mutually exclusive, leading some researchers to argue for a broader perspective that considers the reciprocal relationship between advertising and society (eg. Pollay, 1987; Eisend, 2010; Grau & Zotos, 2016). Thus, while our research operates primarily within the ‘mold’ perspective, we also believe that the ‘mirror’ reflects the ‘mold’. For example, the increasing expectations for brands to take a stand on social issues (mirror) has led to a rise in PDA, which in turn tries to shape consumer decisions and behavior (mold) (Minár, 2016).

Negative Consequences of Stereotypes in Advertising

The majority of research investigating the consequences of advertising has focused on its negative effects on both the consumer and society (Rosengren, Dahlén & Modig, 2013). Critics of advertisement and proponents of the ‘mold’ argument argue that advertising can induce negative cultural change by reinforcing, for example, stereotypes, anxiety, selfishness and loss of self-respect (Pollay, 1986). A major concern are the harmful effects of stereotypical portrayals of men and women (Eisend, 2010). Gender stereotypes become problematic when they lead to oversimplified or wrong evaluations of an individual and restrict life opportunities (Eisend, 2010). Several studies have shown that female stereotypes can, for example, reduce body satisfaction and self-dignity and

can even increase the acceptance of eating disorders (Eisend, 2010; Grabe, Ward, & Hyde, 2008). Idealized and stereotyped portrayals of male bodies are similarly linked to negative effects such as increased body dissatisfaction and depression (Agliata & Tantleff-Dunn, 2004).

The Rise of Non-Stereotypical Advertising

In recent years, however, interest in advertising that challenges stereotypes has grown, both among advertisers and advertising researchers (Åkestam, 2017). Since Dove's *#RealBeauty* campaign in 2006, the popularity of NSA has grown exponentially (Åkestam, et al., 2017a). In contrast to traditional advertising, NSA portrays a person contrary to the stereotypes of their social identity (Åkestam, 2017). They could feature a person that does not adhere to the stereotypes of their social group (e.g. a man as an engaged parent) or a person who is usually not featured in this product category (e.g. a same-sex couple) (Åkestam, 2017). Empirical evidence has shown that NSA can have a positive brand impact. Dove, for example, experienced a rapid growth in sales following the launch of their *#RealBeauty* campaign (Ciambriello, 2014), and Always (2014) witnessed a dramatic increase in social media followers and positive brand sentiment after their *#LikeAGirl* campaign ("Case study: Always *#LikeAGirl*," 2015). In addition, Always succeeded in changing consumers' perception of what it means to do something 'like a girl', transforming it from a derogatory phrase into a symbol of female empowerment ("Case study: Always *#LikeAGirl*," 2015).

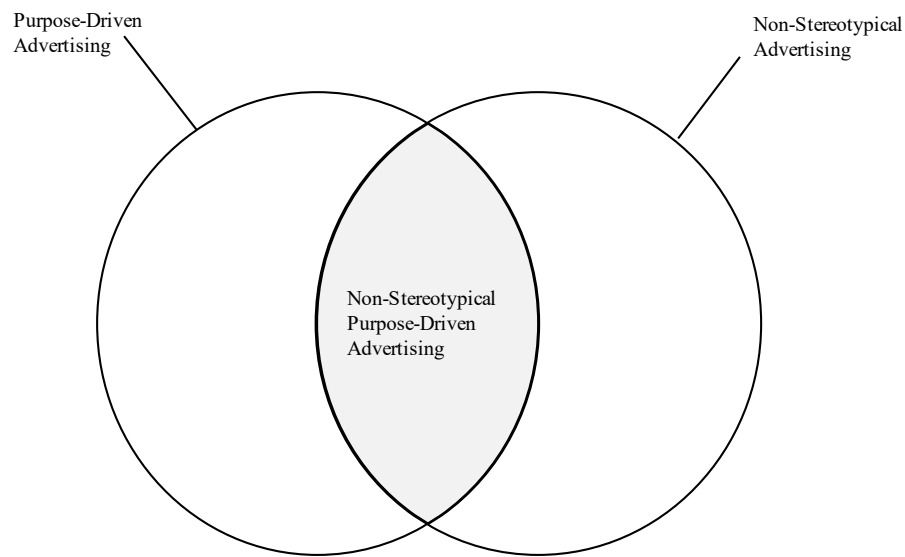
Researchers have been interested in the effectiveness of NSA for decades, yet studies have focused primarily on female consumers (Eisend, 2010; Zawisza, et al. 2018b). The majority of studies have replicated the empirical benefits of NSA and have found that, compared to traditional advertising, it produces more positive brand-related effects, such as increased purchase intention as well as favorable judgments and attitudes (e.g. Åkestam et al., 2017a; Zawisza, et al., 2018a; Eisend, Plagemann, & Sollwedel, 2014). Because of advertising's role in shaping stereotypes and

perceptions, possible societal and individual benefits of NSA have received increasing attention in recent years (Chu, Lee, & Kim, 2016; Åkestam, 2017). While academic research is still sparse, there is initial evidence that NSA can generate both positive brand-related and positive social effects (e.g. Åkestam, 2017; Åkestam et al., 2017a; Chu et al., 2016).

The Distinction Between Non-Stereotypical Advertising and Purpose-Driven Advertising

Based on empirical examples, two types of non-stereotypical advertising can be identified: those that only use non-stereotypical images and those that include an explicit issue-related claim that challenges the perception of the consumer. This difference can be illustrated by the comparison of Dollar Shave Club's *Get Ready* (2018) and Gillette's *We Believe* (2019) ads. While *Get Ready* (Dollar Shave Club, 2018) shows men of different ages, body types, sexualities and ethnicities perform their morning ritual, it does not include an explicit call for social change. *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019), on the other hand, overtly asks men to reflect on how they can prevent sexism, harassment, and violence. While both ads seek to create a more inclusive reality, they utilize different strategies. This example also illustrates the differences and similarities between NSA and PDA. Like non-stereotypical advertising, PDA can challenge stereotypes and clichés (Kolster, 2012) but includes an overt call for social change, reflecting the brand's stance on a specific social issue. NSA, on the other hand, can also refer to the use of non-stereotypical images in advertising. Thus, an advertisement that combines non-stereotypical portrayals with a clear call for change would fall into both categories.

As this thesis investigates the effectiveness of PDA that utilizes a non-stereotypical portrayal, it focuses on the intersection between PDA and NSA, as illustrated by Model 1. The reception of the Gillette ad demonstrates that purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (PDAM) may be difficult to execute. In order to investigate this, we must first understand the relationship between masculinity and advertising.



Model 1 - The Relationship Between PDA and NSA

2.1.3. Masculinity and Advertising

Types of Masculinities

Masculinity can be thought of as “a vague concept in a constant process of negotiation” (Kluch, 2015, p. 364). Additionally, modern thought suggests that there are multiple masculinities (Kluch, 2015; APA, 2018) that coexist and can be “varied, open, relative, contradictory, and fluid” (Watson & Shaw, 2011, p.1, quoted in Kluch, 2015, p. 364). Several scholars have outlined models that describe these masculinities. For instance, David and Brannon (1976, cited in Gentry & Harrison, 2010) proposed four primary elements of masculinity: the success-seeking ‘big wheel’, the tough ‘sturdy oak’, the anti-feminine ‘no sissy stuff’, and the aggressive ‘give’em hell’. Holt and Thompson (2004) theorized about the “man-of-action hero”, a masculine ideal in U.S. American culture that combines and negotiates the conflicting ideals of “the breadwinner”, centered on the idea that men ought to be successful and provide for their families, and “the rebel”, an aspirational identity reminiscent of early American adventurers and cowboys. Despite the existence of multiple

masculinities, there is a group of standards that has held considerable influence, “including: anti-femininity, achievement, eschewal of the appearance of weakness, and adventure, risk, and violence” (APA, 2018, p. 3); these standards collectively represent Traditional Masculinity Ideology (TMI) (APA, 2018). TMI is closely tied to hegemonic masculinity, which describes the pattern of behaviors that allow for men to be dominant over women and other men (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). While hegemonic masculinity may only be enacted by a small proportion of the male population, it is considered to be normative, and the ideal “against which all other men are judged and measured” (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005; Kluch, 2015).

Socialization of Masculinity via Advertising

Several scholars have noted the relationship between the social construction of masculinity and consumption (Kluch, 2015; Holt & Thompson, 2004; Gentry & Harrison, 2010; Hirschman & Belk, 2014; Schroeder & Zwick, 2004). Some have theorized that consumption is a part of building and maintaining a masculine identity, particularly in the face of social and socioeconomic uncertainty and change (Kluch, 2015; Holt & Thompson, 2004; Hirschman & Belk, 2014; Schroeder & Zwick, 2004). While the purchase of masculine-branded goods helps to construct a masculine identity, the narratives sold in advertising also are a part of the process (Feasey, 2009; Gentry & Harrison, 2010; Kluch, 2015; Schroeder & Zwick, 2004). For example, advertisements for products such as deodorants or razors have helped to construct hegemonic masculinity while promoting a product, establishing themselves as anchoring points for the conception of masculinity through their marketing campaigns (Kluch, 2015; Hirschman and Belk, 2014). These products are a way for men to define their identity as men, “to purchase and display [their] masculinity” (Hirschman and Belk, 2014, p. 327).

Male Stereotypes in Advertising

As previously discussed, gender roles have evolved significantly in society, but research suggests that gender stereotypes are still pervasive in advertising (Eisend, 2010; Gentry & Harrison, 2010). This is thought to create confusion about the current expectations of masculinity (Gentry & Harrison, 2010). Research has looked at specific campaigns to understand current male stereotypes in advertising. For example, Kluch (2015) examined how men's body wash brand Old Spice perpetuated traditional masculinity by showing men as active, muscular, and controlling in their commercials. Additionally, Feasey (2009) studied a campaign by Lynx, a British brand of male grooming products. While these ads seemed to challenge hegemonic masculine ideals by featuring "normal" young men with average bodies, Feasey found that they ultimately challenged "cultural conventions of dominant masculinity, but not at the expense of their 'sexual potency'" (2009, p. 367). Thus, the literature suggests that portrayals of men in advertising are overwhelmingly stereotypical, upholding traditional masculine norms.

However, there are some brands who have used non-stereotypical portrayals. Both Pampers and Dove Men+Care have utilized the image of men as caring fathers (Griner, 2019; Waxman, 2015a). As previously discussed, Dollar Shave Club's *Get Ready* (2018) shows men of different body shapes, ethnicities, and ages taking part in their unique "getting ready" rituals (Pearl, 2018). Other examples include Campbell's Soup (Waxman, 2015b) and Honey Maid (Solomon, 2014) who have both featured depictions of gay male couples as parents in their advertisements. These portrayals challenge hegemonic norms of anti-femininity, toughness, muscularity, and heterosexuality.

These examples show the potential for advertisements to directly challenge traditional masculine norms. However, because masculinity is a multifaceted construct (Thompson & Pleck, 2015) and the proportion of advertisements featuring non-stereotypical portrayals of men is still relatively low (Gentry & Harrison, 2010; Grau & Zotos, 2016), more research is needed to understand how

consumers respond to advertising that challenges the variety of norms represented by traditional masculinity.

Constructing Non-Stereotypical Masculinity

Because advertising can mold gender-stereotypical beliefs and values (Pollay, 1986; Eisend, 2010; Schroeder & Zwick, 2004), we argue that it can also be used to mold non-stereotypical beliefs and values about masculinity. “An individual’s internalization of cultural belief systems and attitudes toward masculinity and men’s role” can be referred to as masculinity ideology (Levant & Richmond, 2007, p. 131). Because stereotypes are “beliefs about a social category” (Grau & Zotos, 2016, p.1) and masculinity ideologies are internalized belief systems about masculinity, it can be argued that masculinity ideologies play an important role in shaping male gender stereotypes.

Men experience strong pressure to conform to traditional masculinity, and men that violate traditional male gender role norms may face verbal or even physical backlash (APA, 2018; Mayer, 2018). However, research has demonstrated that subscription to traditional masculinity ideology (TMI) has negative consequences for men, including stunted psychological development, restricted behavior, and poor mental and physical health (APA, 2018). In addition, it has been associated with fear of intimacy, lower relationship satisfaction, negative attitudes toward racial diversity and women’s equality, sexual aggression, and relationship violence (Levant & Richmond, 2007). In contrast, endorsement of non-traditional masculinity ideology has been linked to positive attitudes towards racial diversity, women’s equality, and “not having attitudes conducive to the sexual harassment of women” (Levant & Richmond, 2007, p.139).

Thus, advertisements that challenge TMI could create benefits for men and the rest of society. However, while existing research suggests that a new, non-traditional masculinity ideology would be beneficial, the response to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) suggests that consumers might not be

interested receiving this message in an advertisement. Thus, research is needed to better understand the relationship between masculinity and PDA.

2.2. Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Generation

The second section introduces important concepts based on of which the suggested effects of and influences on PDA that challenges traditional advertising are generated.

2.2.1. Effects of Purpose-Driven Advertising

PDA presents a dilemma when considering how to determine its effectiveness. The goal of advertising is to trigger consumer reactions that benefit and support the brand (Eisend, 2016), but the definition of PDA necessitates a dual-function of social change. Thus, while the company ultimately sets the campaign objectives, the metrics selected to measure the effectiveness of a PDA campaign should consider both positive brand and social effects. However, little academic research has looked into the feasibility of achieving success in both areas.

Brand-Related Effects of Purpose-Driven Advertising

Brand-related effects are consumer reactions such as behaviors, choices, or attitudes that benefit the brand and are related to the sender/and or the persuasive purpose of the ad (Eisend, 2010; Dahlén & Rosengren, 2016). While advertising researchers have studied a wide array of brand-related effects, attitudes towards the ad and brand, as well as purchase intention are among the most popular effects to be studied (Spears & Singh, 2004). Because advertising aims to stimulate beneficial consumer responses, and brand-related effects can predict consumer behavior, they are an important determinant of the effectiveness of the ad (Eisend, 2016; Spears & Singh, 2004).

Advertising attitude is “a person’s favorable or unfavorable evaluation of an ad” (Spears & Singh, 2004, p. 56). The goal is to influence consumer choice by transferring the positive cognitive and affective responses generated by the ad to the brand (Shimp, 1981; Gresham & Shimp, 1985). Creating favorable attitudes towards the ad is important as it can positively affect consumer’s cognitive responses (e.g. ad persuasiveness, brand recall, brand recognition), affective responses (e.g. brand attitude) or behavioral responses (e.g. purchase intentions, brand interest, repeat purchase) (Muehling & McCann, 1993).

Brand attitude refers to the consumer’s evaluations of the brand and their judgments of brand-related information (Wilkie, 1968 cited in Keller, 1993; Keller, 2003). It can be influenced both directly by the ad itself and indirectly through a consumer’s attitude towards the ad (Shimp, 1981). Positive brand attitudes are essential as they form the basis for consumer behavior and influence, for example, brand loyalty, price sensitivity, or purchase decisions (Keller, 1993; Shimp, 1981). The relationship between ad attitudes, brand attitudes and purchase intention has been well documented; purchase intentions, the consumer’s “conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand” (Spears & Singh, 2004, p. 56), are influenced by both the consumer’s evaluation of the brand and the advertisement (Spears & Singh, 2004).

Research has repeatedly found that NSA generates positive effects for the brand. For example, studies suggest that it is more effective for women in terms of brand and ad effects, as well as purchase intentions (e.g. Åkestam et al., 2017a; Eisend et al., 2014; Huhmann & Limbu, 2016). Moreover, the impact of breaking male gender stereotypes has been found consistent with the impact of breaking female stereotypes (e.g. Zawisza, et al, 2006; Zawisza et al., 2018b; Knutson & Waldner, 2017). Söderberg & Grönstedt (2018) even found that male participants evaluated the brand-related effects more positively for a non-traditional ad than female participants. Specifically, non-traditional advertising can lead to significantly higher attitudes related to the brand and the ad

as well as purchase intentions (e.g. Baxter et al., 2016; Debevec & Iyer, 1986; Eisend et al., 2014; Zawisza et al., 2006; Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010; Söderberg & Grönstedt 2018).

To our knowledge, only one study has addressed whether PDA impacts brand-related effects (Hansson & Linander, 2018). The results showed that PDA can influence a consumer's brand attitude, ad attitude and purchase intentions positively. Overall, previous research shows that advertisement that supports a social cause and breaks gender stereotypes can have a positive effect for the brand. In line with previous findings, we thus hypothesize:

H1: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.

Social Effects of Purpose-Driven Advertising

Advertising can have intended effects like brand attitude, ad attitude, or purchase intention, but it can also have unintended effects or extended effects. Pollay (1986) introduced the concept of unintended effects, which are primarily associated with the negative consequences of advertising, such as stereotyping (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2016). Extended effects, on the other hand, can refer to the positive consequences of advertisement and influence the individual on several levels (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2016). They can relate to the perception of the self (e.g. self-esteem), of others (e.g. ideals) or the advertising value to the consumer (e.g. entertainment) (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2016). These effects can be intended by the advertisement campaign but do not necessarily have to relate to the persuasive purpose of the ad (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2016). One

subgroup of unintended or extended effects is social effects, which specifically refer to the “well-being of the consumer and their relationship to other people” (Åkestam, 2017, p. 16).

Research into the social effects of advertising has largely focused on its negative consequences, with an extensive body of literature on how stereotypes negatively impact consumers’ well-being (Åkestam, 2017). However, recent research has also demonstrated that advertising can generate positive social effects, for example, increased creativity (Rosengren et al., 2013) or benevolent behavior (Chang, 2014). Although interest in PDA has increased, few studies have investigated if PDA can actually improve society. For example, the study conducted by Hansson & Linander (2018) found that PDA does not generate a wider social effect and does not impact consumer’s issue related support behavior. However, research on NSA has found positive social effects. The portrayal of same-sex couples or ethnic diversity can, for example, increase social connectedness and consumer-perceived empathy and thus also enhance consumer well-being (Åkestam, 2017; Åkestam et al., 2017b)

This study investigates the effectiveness of purpose-driven advertising that challenges stereotypical masculinity, with the goal of redefining it to create a more inclusive society. In line with previous research on the social effects of NSA, this study will focus on social connectedness and masculinity ideology.

Social Connectedness

Feelings of isolation and distrust are increasing in modern society, despite an intrinsic human need for meaningful and trusting connections (Hutcherson, Seppala & Gross, 2008). One factor behind decreasing feelings of connectedness is social change (Hutcherson et al., 2008). While the #MeToo movement has resulted in positive developments, the accompanying social upheaval (Gill & Orgad, 2018) can be viewed as an example of such change. Social connectedness can be defined

as “the extent to which a person feels connected to other people” (Åkestam et al., 2017b, p. 85) and is known to be beneficial to both mental and physical health (Hutcherson et al., 2008). It is also known to elevate “empathetic responding, as well as acts of trust and cooperation” (Hutcherson et al., 2008, p. 720). A lack of social connectedness may create a vicious cycle that further impairs the development of trusting and cooperative relationships (Hutcherson et al., 2008).

Social connectedness is a social effect that has the potential to increase consumer well-being by counteracting some of the negative effects of advertising and is “thought to lead to a more inclusive, less segregated society” (Åkestam et al., 2017b, p.85; Solomon, 2014). Research has shown that feelings of social connectedness can be increased through exposure to advertisements that depict homosexual couples (Åkestam et al., 2017b) and non-stereotypical representations of gender roles (Söderberg & Grönstedt, 2018). This can be explained by self-categorization theory, which “proposes that the salience of social groups is not fixed” (Åkestam, 2017, p. 26). One model that has emerged from self-categorization theory and social identity theory is the Common Ingroup Identity Model (Gaertner, Dovidio, Anastasio, Bachman & Rust, 1993). According to the Common Ingroup Identity Model, “bias can be reduced by factors that transform members’ perceptions of group boundaries from ‘us’ and ‘them’ to a more inclusive ‘we’” (Gaertner et al., 1993, p.1). Achieving a common ingroup identity reduces psychological distance because it redefines former outgroup members as ingroup members, and ingroup membership is known to decrease psychological distance (Hornstein, 1976 cited in Gaertner et al., 1993). Thus, because the formation of common ingroup identity reduces psychological distance between ingroup members and former outgroup members, we would expect this to also indicate greater feelings of social connectedness.

Based on these frameworks, we assert that an advertisement that calls for a more inclusive definition of masculinity by associating it with behavior traditionally tied to non-masculine groups would help to redefine in-group boundaries leading to greater social connectedness. We therefore hypothesize that:

H2: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) feelings of social connectedness.

Masculinity Ideology

Earlier, we introduced the concept of masculinity ideology, which refers to “an individual’s internalization of cultural belief systems and attitudes toward masculinity and men’s role” (Levant & Richmond, 2007, p. 131). Traditional masculinity ideology (TMI) refers to widely-accepted masculine norms like avoiding appearing feminine or weak and pursuing success, risk, and adventure (APA, 2018). Endorsement of TMI is associated with a variety of negative consequences for both men and society (O’Neil, 2008; Levant & Richmond, 2007).

Gender Role Conflict theory can explain how TMI leads to these negative consequences (O’Neil, 2008). Gender role conflict (GRC) refers to “a psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences for the person or others (O’Neil, 2008, p. 362). One main area of masculine gender role conflict that has been identified by researchers is restrictive emotionality (O’Neil, 2008) or “discomfort expressing and experiencing vulnerable emotions” (APA, 2018, p. 3). Men often face negative judgment when they stray from masculine gender norms, for example by showing vulnerability (Mayer, 2018). When considered in relation to broader tenets of traditional masculine identity, crying, as an uncontrolled expression of emotions, violates the norm of anti-femininity and gives the appearance of weakness, and is therefore considered to be

incompatible with masculinity (APA, 2018; Emslie, Ridge, Ziebland & Hunt, 2006; Vokey, Tefft & Tysiaczny, 2013).

While masculinity ideology is internalized, it is also dynamic, dependent on the social and cultural context (Levant & Richmond, 2007). As we discussed earlier, advertising has the ability to influence attitudes about gender. For example, Garst & Bodenhausen (1997) found that men's gender role attitudes were subject to change depending on the type of advertisement they saw. In addition, Chu et al., (2016) found that gender role stereotyping was reduced after viewing non-stereotypical ads. Therefore, we would expect for an advertisement that challenges traditional masculinity to influence the perceiver's beliefs about what constitutes as masculine behavior. We thus hypothesize that:

H3: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates weaker (vs. stronger) endorsement of masculinity ideology.

2.2.2. Influences on the Effectiveness of Purpose-Driven Advertising

To better understand consumer responses to PDA, it is important to examine the underlying causes for its effects. Previous research into PDA and NSA has identified several determinants of effectiveness, such as the recipients' need-for-uniqueness, (Chu et al., 2016), the intentions of the advertiser (Hansson & Linander, 2018), ad reactance (Åkestam et al., 2017a) or values and attitudes (Åkestam, 2017; Åkestam et al., 2017a; Baxter et al., 2016; Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997; Zawisza et al., 2006). Advertising reactance has been linked to the portrayals of gender stereotypes in advertising and could thus be an important influence on the effectiveness of PDAM. Furthermore, we expect that the social change induced by the #MeToo Movement will also influence how the

purpose-driven advertisement is received. Lastly, previous studies on non-stereotypical masculine advertisement have also identified values related to masculinity and gender as important factors (Baxter et al., 2016; Zawisza et al., 2006).

Advertising Reactance

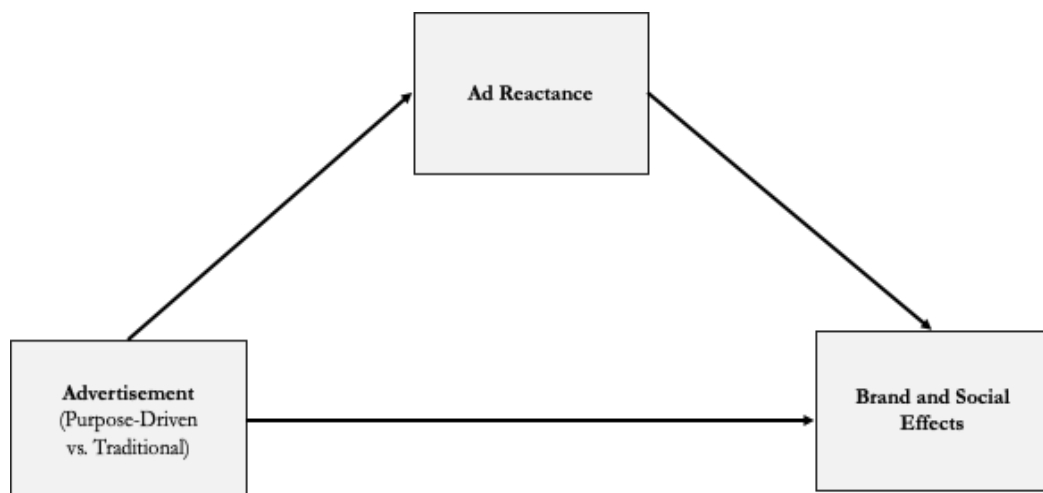
Psychological Reactance Theory (Brehm, 1966) can help explain why individuals resist the influence of others or why a persuasive message is unsuccessful (Rains, 2013; Steindl, Jonas, Sittenthaler, Traut-Mattausch, & Greenberg, 2015). In essence, the theory states that if people's freedom or choices are lost or threatened, they will experience an unpleasant motivational state called Psychological Reactance that drives them to restore the freedom (Miron & Brehm, 2006). Individuals experience negative emotions such as discomfort, anger, hostility or aggression, which, in turn, stimulate the urge to disagree with, attack or reject the message (Steindl et al., 2015; Dillard & Peck, 2006).

The theory of psychological reactance can also be applied to marketing research (e.g. Clee & Wicklund, 1980; Hansen et al., 2013; Koslow, 2000; Åkestam et al., 2017a). Advertisement that seems to limit or threaten the consumer's freedom by, for example, using coercive tactics or prescribing a certain behavior or body image, can induce reactance, which in turn reduces its persuasiveness and effectiveness (Hansen et al., 2013; Koslow, 2000). Ad reactance can increase the consumer's defensiveness and desire to behave in a manner contradicting the persuasive message of the advertisement (Clee & Wicklund, 1980; Koslow, 2000). Reactance can be induced through different stimuli within the ad, such as the message appeal (Koslow, 2000) or the depiction of the advertising subject, for example an underwear model (Åkestam et al., 2017a).

Several studies have linked reactance to stereotypical portrayals (e.g. Åkestam et al., 2017a; Kray, Thompson & Galinsky, 2001; Wan, Ansons, Chattopadhyay, & Leboe, 2013). Stereotypes depict an idealized and unattainable version of the individual and prescribe to the consumer how they should look and behave (Åkestam et al., 2017a). Consumers might feel pressured to behave accordingly, which limits their freedom of expression (Henderson-King, Henderson-King, & Hoffmann, 2001; Åkestam et al., 2017a). In an effort to protect the self and restore their freedom, consumers might derogate the idealized image or behave in a manner inconsistent with the stereotype (Kray et al., 2001; Wan et al., 2013). This reduces the persuasiveness of the ad and consequently, has a negative impact on brand-related effects (Åkestam et al., 2017a, Steindl et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2013). Non-stereotypical advertising, on the other hand, increases, rather than decreases, the possibilities for the consumer and they feel less pressured to comply to a certain ideal (Åkestam et al., 2017a). This reduces the risk of reactance and consumers are more likely to evaluate the ad positively (Åkestam et al., 2017a).

Research on advertising reactance has mostly been limited to stereotypical depictions of women. Åkestam et al. (2017a), for example, demonstrated that the non-stereotypical portrayal of women's bodies led to lower ad reactance, and hence higher brand-related effects, compared to stereotypical advertisement. Gender Role Conflict theory suggests that men can experience negative psychological and physical consequences if they feel that they are not meeting the masculine ideal dictated by stereotypes (O'Neil, 2008). Thus, non-stereotypical portrayals that allow for a broader spectrum of acceptable masculine behavior should be perceived as less restrictive. However, to our knowledge, only one study has investigated the relationship between ad reactance and NSA for men. Knutson and Waldner (2017) did not find a significant difference in advertising reactance between the stereotypical and non-stereotypical ad. However, because their stimuli did not include an explicit claim, it is possible that the images alone were insufficient to induce ad reactance.

In line with the previous research conducted on advertising reactance, we hypothesize that the reactance induced by the advertising will mediate the relationship between the type of advertisement (traditional vs. purpose-driven) and the suggested brand and social effects, regardless of the broader social context (see Model 2). We expect that high levels of advertising reactance will reduce the effectiveness of the advertisement and thus also brand-related effects. The anger and defensiveness associated with ad reactance should negatively impact the potential social effects, as reactive participants will feel less socially connected and reject the ads appeal for change. Lower levels of ad reactance, in turn, should lead to more positive evaluations of the advertisement and thus more positive effects for the brand and society. In line with previous research, we expect the purpose-driven advertisement to generate lower levels of ad reactance, as a more inclusive portrayal of masculinity should increase the participant's perceived freedom.



Model 2 - Conceptual Diagram of Hypothesized Mediation (based on Hayes, 2018)

We thus hypothesize that:

H4: Ad reactance mediates the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) on (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions and (d) social effects.

#MeToo and Psychological Reactance

Contextual Priming

Priming is an implicit memory effect where exposure to one stimulus impacts the response to a subsequent stimulus (Meyer & Schvaneveldt, 1971). A priming cue or stimulus activates a pre-existing mental schema, which influences the individual's cognitive, affective or behavioral response (Janiszewski & Wyer, 2014). The context an advertisement is placed in, such as magazines or the news, can also constitute as a priming cue as it can influence the subsequent processing of information presented in the advertisement (Yi, 1990). Contextual priming, defined as the “manipulation or activation of knowledge using marketing cues that precede or surround a target advertisement” (Minton, Kahle, & Cornwell, 2016, p. 315) can thus impact how the advertisement and brand is evaluated (Yi, 1990). Contextual priming can occur both on a cognitive and affective level (Yi, 1990). Cognitive contextual priming makes certain attributes more accessible, which are then used to interpret the advertisement. A crime story, for example, might activate the attribute of “safety”, which will then be used to evaluate the information presented in a car advertisement. Affective contextual priming triggers unconscious affective reactions (e.g. moods, feelings), which influences the individual's attitude and judgments regarding the advertisement (Yi, 1990).

#MeToo as a Contextual Prime that Threatens Social Identity

The #MeToo movement has led to sweeping change across society (Gill & Orgad, 2018; MacKinnon, 2019). Since the movement's meteoric rise in October 2017, over 200 men in positions of power have been brought down by accusations (Carlsen, et al., 2018). Reactions to these events flourished on social media platforms like Twitter, particularly with the increasing prevalence of so-called “hashtag activism” (Pettyjohn et al., 2018). Hashtag activism refers to “discursive protest on social media united through a hashtagged word, phrase, or sentence” (Yang, 2016). Typically used by marginalized groups, for example as seen in #MeToo and #BlackLivesMatter (Pettyjohn et al., 2018; Maas, McCauley, Bonomi & Leija., 2018), these digital

movements often lead to backlash like #HimToo (Asimov, 2018) and #AllLivesMatter (May, 2016). This phenomenon reflects the narrative qualities of hashtag activism (Yang, 2016). As hashtags are posted, reposted, and commented on, the narrative grows, empowering a large community of storytellers and leading to the creation of contrasting or related hashtags like #NotAllMen and #HowIWillChange (Yang, 2016; Pettyjohn et al., 2018). Eventually, the narrative expands to include a variety of content, emerges on other social media platforms and websites, and in some cases, results in physical protests (Yang, 2016).

One related hashtag that emerged from #MeToo was #HowIWillChange (Pettyjohn et al., 2018). #HowIWillChange called on men and boys to “commit to specific changes in their behavior that contribute to or perpetuate rape culture” (Pettyjohn et al., 2018, p.3). A study on the responses to this hashtag found three key themes: “active engagement in dismantling rape culture”, “indignant resistance to social change”, and “hostile resistance to social change” (Pettyjohn et al., 2018, p. 4). Active engagement responses were reflective, focused on opportunities for improvement, while indignant resistance responses expressed “not all men” sentiments (Pettyjohn et al., 2018, p. 4). Posts containing hostile resistance questioned the masculinity of men who chose to participate in the campaign, communicated violent sexist attitudes towards women and antifeminist backlash, or introduced racism to place the blame on marginalized groups (Pettyjohn et al., 2018). The responses that indicated resistance either denied responsibility or attacked outgroups like women, sympathetic men, or people of color (Pettyjohn et al., 2018). These are common strategies for coping with threat to social identity, as they constitute an effort to maintain the integrity of the ingroup (Rivera & Dasgupta, 2018). Furthermore, the anger and denial expressed in the responses is indicative of psychological reactance as a result of threats to masculine identity.

Psychological Reactance and Social Identity

The self-concept of a person is comprised of a personal identity (e.g. abilities, interests) and a social identity encompassing salient group classifications (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Social Identity refers to the knowledge of belonging to a social category or group (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Consequently, freedom threats to social identity should activate reactance within the individual (de Lemus, Bukowski, Spears, & Telga, 2015). De Lemus et al. (2015) also linked reactance and gender by investigating how threats to an individual's gender identity and its associated values and norms can induce reactance through (counter) stereotypical portrayals. They found that women holding more traditional gender role beliefs and values were more threatened (i.e. felt more reactance) by counter-stereotypical depictions of women than less traditional women.

According to Reactance Theory, the level of reactance induced by the freedom threat depends on the importance of the freedom to the individual (Miron & Brehm, 2006). If an important freedom is threatened, individuals feel greater reactance and are more motivated to restore that freedom (Miron & Brehm, 2006). Consequently, the personal relevance of the social identity to the self also impacts how the individual experiences reactance in response to a potential threat (De Lemus et al., 2015). While gender identity is an important social identity for both men and women, women have been found to be more secure in their femininity than men are in their masculinity (Vandello, Bosson, Cohen, Burnaford & Weaver, 2008). Although masculinity is considered to be a high-status identity, it is also seen as a fragile and precarious state that requires continuous validation, and is thus easily threatened (Vandello et al., 2008). Masculinity can be threatened directly or indirectly by threatening the power, status, and influence typically associated with it (Vescio, Schlenker, & Lenes, 2010 cited in Jackson, 2013). In line with Social Identity Theory, threats to masculinity can be classified in different ways (Jackson, 2013). Being categorized in an undesirable group (e.g. effeminate men) or challenges to the legitimacy of the group status (e.g. reminders of female oppression by men) can be perceived as threatening to masculinity (Jackson, 2013).

As previously explained, individuals experiencing reactance will engage in behavioral and cognitive efforts to restore their freedom (Steindl et al., 2015). They might engage in the restricted behavior (direct restoration), observe others carrying out the restricted behavior (indirect restoration) or derogate the threatening source, and behave aggressively towards it (Steindl et al., 2015). Threatening one's social group also increases identification with and support for the group (de Lemus et al., 2015). Because masculinity is a status that is hard to earn and maintain, men will go to extreme lengths to defend it (Jackson, 2013). Thus, we expect that when men's social identity is threatened, men will engage in considerable effort to re-establish its perceived status and freedoms.

Several studies have shown that psychological reactance can be primed and thus affects the individual's subsequent performance or reaction to stimuli (Steindl et al., 2015; e.g. Chartrand, Dalton, Fitzsimons, & Gavan, 2007; Wellman & Geers, 2009). Because the #MeToo climate seems to induce reactance by threats to social identity (PettyJohn et al., 2018; Rivera & Dasgupta), we expect reminders of it to influence the reception of advertisement. Furthermore, we expect that an ad that challenges the traditional definition of masculinity will be perceived as an additional threat to masculinity and will thus be less effective in terms of brand-effects. In contrast, a stereotypical portrayal of a man should serve as a reminder of the historically privileged social status associated with being male. Thus, we expect that in the context of #MeToo, the purpose-driven advertisement will be evaluated less positively than the traditional advertisement.

H5: When consumers are primed to think about the #MeToo Movement, purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates lower (vs. higher) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.

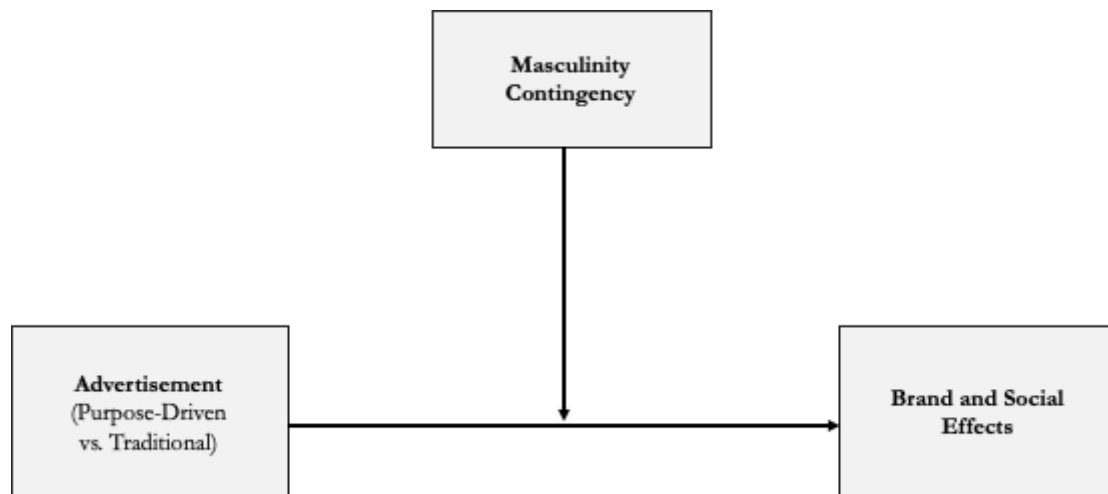
Masculinity Contingency

Previous studies on non-stereotypical portrayals of men in advertising have found that the consumer response is moderated by attitudes and values related to the ad content, such as gender role ideology (Baxter et al., 2016), gender attitudes (Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997; Zawisza et al., 2006), attitudes towards homosexuality (Åkestam et al., 2017b), and attitudes towards ethnic diversity (Åkestam, 2017). In order to gain a full understanding of the factors that influence consumer responses to PDAM, we must consider the attitudes and/or values that may contribute to consumer response. Because we expect that the underlying mechanism that determines the valence of consumer response is activated by threat to social identity, it seems prudent to measure the extent to which masculinity, the social identity in question, is important to the individual consumer's self-worth. Burkley, Wong and Bell (2015) proposed the construct of masculinity contingency, which is defined as "the degree to which a man's self-worth is derived from his sense of masculinity" (p. 1). While masculinity contingency is known to be positively correlated with masculinity ideology (Burkley et al., 2015), masculinity is also a fluid construct, subject to vary depending on the social and cultural context (Levant & Richmond, 2007; Watson & Shaw, 2011, p.1, quoted in Kluch, 2015). Hence, though related, masculinity contingency is a theoretically distinct construct that focuses on the importance of masculinity rather than its definition (Burkley et al., 2015). Additionally, it is a fairly recent construct that appears to only have been incorporated into political psychology and masculinity research thus far (Bock et al., 2017; Gerdes & Levant, 2017).

Sherman & Cohen (2002) explain that if information is perceived as threatening to self-worth, people are likely to reject it. Therefore, because threats to masculinity can also threaten self-worth, an advertisement that is perceived as a threat to masculinity is likely to be rejected. Considering that our purpose-driven ad challenges traditional masculinity, it is likely that individuals who have self-worth that is more contingent on masculinity will perceive the information as more of a threat,

as masculinity contingency is positively correlated with conformity to masculine norms, sexism, and homophobia (Burkley et al., 2015). Thus, we expect that individuals with high masculinity contingency will prefer the traditional advertisement to the purpose-driven advertisement regardless of the broader social context. Therefore, we infer that masculinity contingency will moderate the proposed effects (see Model 3). Specifically, we hypothesize that:

H6: The greater the importance of masculinity to self-worth, the less favorable the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) will be on brand-related effects and social effects.



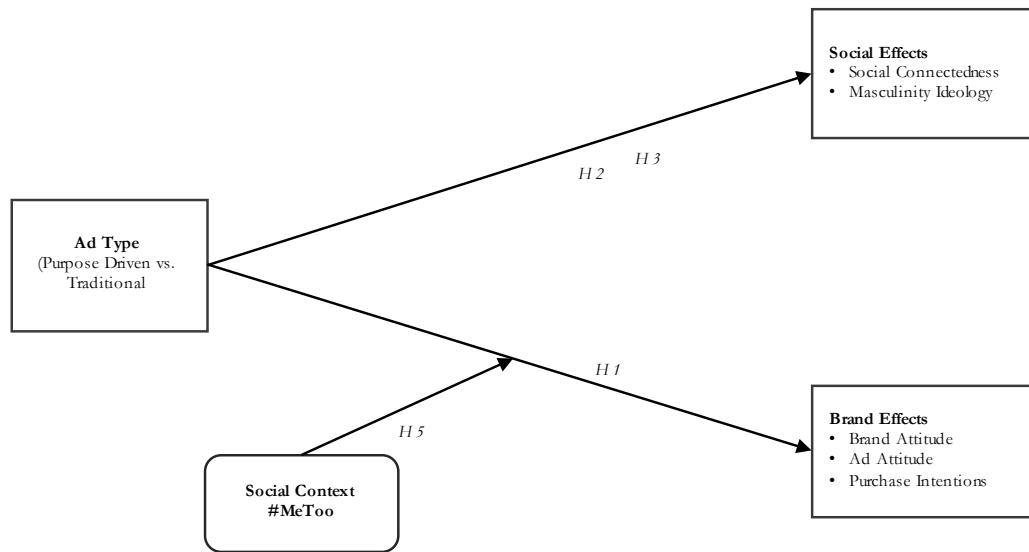
Model 3 - Conceptual Diagram of the Hypothesized Moderation (based on Hayes, 2018)

2.2.3. Summary of Hypotheses and Conceptual Framework

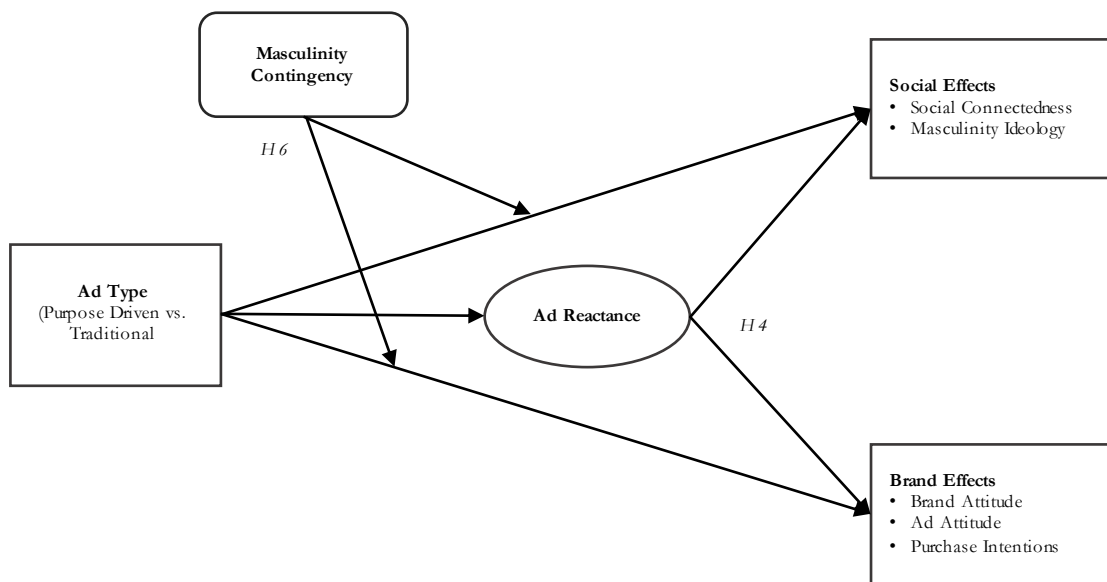
The following table summarizes the hypotheses. For a visual representation see Models 4 and 5 below.

Table 1 - Hypotheses Summary

Brand-Related and Social Effects
H1: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.
H2: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) feelings of social connectedness.
H3: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates weaker (vs. stronger) endorsement of masculinity ideology.
Influences on Purpose-Driven Advertising
H4: Ad reactance mediates the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) on (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions and (d) social effects.
H5: When consumers are primed to think about the #MeToo Movement, purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates lower (vs. higher) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.
H6: The greater the importance of masculinity to self-worth, the less favorable the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) will be on brand-related effects and social effects.



Model 4 - Visualization of the Conceptual Model



Model 5 - Visualization of the Conceptual Model

3. Method Section

This section presents the scientific research and methodological approach. This is followed by a detailed presentation of the research design and a discussion of the data quality.

3.1. Research Philosophy and Scientific Approach

This thesis adopts a positivist research philosophy and a deductive approach and thus, hypotheses were generated from theory and tested through an empirical study (Bryman & Bell, 2015). As this thesis is situated in the area of marketing research, where the deductive approach and the positivist philosophy are dominant, this choice was deemed appropriate (Deshpande, 1983). Further, as this thesis adds to the existing literature on advertising effects of non-stereotypical and purpose-driven advertising, it was important to align the approach with previous studies. Moreover, the purpose of this thesis is to investigate a potential causal relationship between independent and dependent variables, for which the positivist and deductive approach is most appropriate (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2015). However, this approach also posits certain limitations to our findings. As this study is interested in the discrepancy between research and practice and PDA is not yet fully explored, an inductive or abductive approach could have potentially generated deeper insights.

3.2. Research Design

In line with the deductive approach and positivist philosophy, a quantitative research design was chosen (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The study was conducted using a 2 (no prime vs. prime) x 2 (purpose-driven vs. traditional ad) experimental between-subjects design in which participants were randomly assigned to one of four groups before completing a self-administered questionnaire; this is in line with the quantitative approach (Saunders et al., 2015). This design was chosen for several reasons. First, it allows for the investigation of a causal relationship between an

independent and several dependent variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Second, by introducing both a control (no-prime) and treatment (prime) group, the cause-effect relationship can be confidently established, and internal validity is high (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Finally, because the stimuli are similar in all aspects except for the manipulation, the effect on the dependent variable can be isolated (Perdue & Summers, 1986).

3.3. Preparation for the Main Study

3.3.1. Stimuli Development and Design

For the pre-test, two sets of online newspaper headlines and two online advertisements were developed. The primes and the advertisements were situated in a digital context to reflect the environment the participants would encounter them in. The online newspaper headlines and subheadlines were designed to prime participants with reactance by highlighting the social change induced by the #MeToo movement and its negative consequences for men. To increase realism, the headlines were modeled after real-life examples, but to decrease the risk of recognition, topics and wording were mixed into new, fictitious headlines. To ensure that the prime used in the main study would induce reactance, two primes were developed and pre-tested. In line with Rains' (2013) guidelines and examples, reactance was induced through controlling and dogmatic language in one prime (high-reactance), while the other prime headlines were formulated in a more objective and neutral tone (low-reactance).

For the main stimuli, two advertisements (traditional and purpose-driven) were developed (see Appendix 3). The advertisements were carefully designed to be identical (background, color choice, fonts) aside from the manipulated elements. Both advertisements were inspired by real-life advertisements for men's grooming products and included a picture of a man and an advertising claim. To increase realism, a fictitious brand name was included in the ads but was blurred out to

avoid confounding influence. Two professional photographs of men were carefully selected to appear similar in terms of ethnicity, age, face-shape and orientation to the camera. The stereotypical photograph was downloaded from Adobe Stock Photos, while the non-stereotypical photograph was made available by the Dutch photographer Maud Fernhout (2014). The traditional advertisement portrayed a stereotypical, tough man with an advertising claim that was supportive of traditional masculinity (*Stay Cool, Stay Tough*).

The purpose-driven ad was designed to challenge one specific aspect of traditional masculinity ideology, restrictive emotions, by portraying a crying man. This problematic aspect of masculinity was chosen because of three reasons. First, while it has some found attention among purpose-driven advertisers (for example Lynx, 2017; Man Up 2016), previous studies on non-stereotypical advertisement have primarily investigated reversed gender roles or body images. Second, because of the negative health and social consequences associated, challenging restrictive emotionality could be beneficial to men. Finally, the uncontrolled expression of emotions, such as crying, is linked with femininity (Emslie et al., 2006) and could thus be an important mechanism in trying to blur the boundaries of masculinity and make it more inclusive. In addition, the purpose-driven claim (*Real Men ~~Don't~~ Cry: You Decide What Tough Means*) aimed to redefine masculinity by challenging a social norm.

The two ads were intended to represent a men's hair and skincare brand. This product category is strongly associated with masculinity and products such as deodorants or razors have traditionally played on and helped constructing traditional masculinity (Kluch, 2015; Hirschman & Belk, 2014). However, in recent years, brands such as Gillette (2019), Dollar Shave Club (2018), and Dove Men+Care (2015) have used this platform to challenge traditional masculinity. Thus, a comparison between a traditional and purpose-driven ad in this product category is realistic. To avoid any

associations with specific products such as Gillette razors or Old Spice deodorants, the ads were situated in the larger context of a brand campaign.

3.3.2. Pre-test and Selection of Stimuli

Two pre-tests were carried out to confirm that the independent variable was manipulated as intended and that the stimuli induced their intended effects (Perdue & Summers, 1986). To align with the main study, participants were recruited through Amazon MTurk and were selected based on the same criteria (Male; U.S. residents). To increase data quality, only respondents with a HIT approval rate of 97% or greater were eligible to participate. Attention checks were included in the questionnaire to make sure respondents had taken enough time to answer the survey.

The first pre-test tested the psychological reactance induced by the primes. A total of 40 complete responses were collected, 20 responses per prime (Ruel, Wagner, & Gillespie, 2016; $M_{age} = 41.25$). The reactance measure was based on Dillard and Shen's (2005) Psychological Reactance Scale, which has been tested for reliability and validity in several studies (Quick, 2012; Rains, 2013). The scale measures perceived freedom threat, anger and the negative cognitions of the participants. Freedom Threat and Anger were measured on a 5-point Likert Scale with four items respectively (see Appendix 4). After excluding responses in accordance with Dillard and Shen's framework (2005), there were not enough viable responses to institute the full coding scheme for negative cognition.

Results showed that the difference in perceived freedom threat between the primes was not significant ($p > 0.05$) but that the difference in anger induced was ($p < 0.01$) (see Table 2). As the high reactance prime was perceived as freedom threatening ($M_{HR} = 2.73$; with 1 = strongly agree

and 5 = strongly disagree) and induced anger ($M_{\text{HR}} = 2.83$, with 1 = none of this feeling and 5 = a great deal of this feeling) this prime was selected for the main study.

Table 2 - Freedom Threat and Anger

Measure	Condition	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	p
Freedom Threat	High Reactance	20	2.73*	1.42	1.4	0.17
	Low Reactance	20	3.38*	1.6		
Anger	High Reactance	20	2.83**	1.16	-2.85	0.007
	Low Reactance	20	1.74**	1.25		

* 1 = strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree ** 1 = none of this feeling and 5 = a great deal of this feeling

A second pre-test tested the manipulation of the advertisement stimuli ($n = 40$; $M_{\text{AGE}} = 41.1$). Results showed that the traditional ad was perceived as significantly more stereotypical than the purpose-driven ad ($M_{\text{TRAD}} = 2.16$; $M_{\text{PDA}} = 5.46$; $p < 0.01$, measures adapted from Åkestam et al., 2017a), while the purpose-driven ad was perceived as significantly more purpose-driven than the stereotypical ad ($M_{\text{TRAD}} = 5.11$, $M_{\text{PDA}} = 2.98$, $p < 0.01$, measures adapted from Hansson and Linander, 2018), as seen in Table 3.

Table 3 - Perceived Stereotypicality & Purpose-Drivenness

Measure	Manipulation	N	Mean*	St. Deviation	t	p
Stereotypicality	Traditional	40	2.16	0.91	11.734	0.000
	Purpose-Driven	40	5.46	1.53		
Purpose-Drivenness	Traditional	40	5.11	1.11	-7.97	0.000
	Purpose-Driven	40	2.98	1.28		

* 1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree

In addition, to rule out potential confounders, the pre-test also tested if the two men were perceived to be similar. Results show that they were perceived as similar in terms of gender and race ($M_{\text{SIM}} = 1.37$ with 1=extremely similar and 5=not similar). All key measures used in the pre-test showed sufficient internal reliability, Cronbach's Alpha $\alpha > 0.8$ (Bryman & Bell, 2015). For a detailed list, see Appendix 5.

3.4. Main Study

3.4.1. Survey Design

The main survey (see Appendix 6) was designed using Qualtrics. To discover any potential problems with the study procedure and to identify confusing survey questions, a pilot study was conducted (n=9) (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Feedback was carefully considered, and minor changes to the survey were made.

In the main experiment, respondents were randomly assigned to either the control or prime group, as well as to the purpose-driven or traditional ad. The control group was exposed directly to one of the ads, while the prime group was asked to read through the #MeToo headlines first and were then shown an ad. To ensure that respondents were familiar with the #MeToo movement, they were also given a short informational text adapted from Wikipedia (n.d.). Similarly, to provide some context and to increase the ads' realism, respondents were presented with a short text about the ad's purpose. All participants were told about the product category and advertising channel, and those who received the purpose-driven ad were given additional information about the brand's intention with the ad.

After respondents were exposed to the stimuli, they were asked to fill out a questionnaire that measured the dependent, moderating and mediating variables. The order in which the questions were presented was carefully considered to avoid question order bias, in which answering one question might prime respondents, and influence their response to the other questions (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). In addition, the order of the question blocks for masculinity contingency and masculinity ideology was randomized (Dillman et al., 2014). Participants were asked to complete an unrelated filler task after the first half of the survey to distract them from the specific aim of the study (Drager, 2018). These answers were not analyzed (Drager, 2018).

3.4.2. Measures

Perceived Stereotypicality and Purposefulness

The manipulation check used the same measure as the pre-study. Perceived stereotypicality was adapted from Åkestam et al. (2017a) and measured on a 7-point Likert scale with two items (“The ad is typical for advertising targeting men” and “The ad shows a stereotypical image of a man”; 1=fully agree/7=fully disagree). The measure for perceived purposefulness was adapted from Hansson and Linander (2018) and measured on a 7-point Likert Scale with three items (“This ad promotes social change”, “The company behind this ad cares about more than just sales” and “The company behind the ad takes a stand on a social issue”, 1=fully agree/7=fully disagree). Both measures showed high internal reliability (Stereotypicality Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.873$; purpose-drivenness Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.879$).

Ad Reactance

The measure for ad reactance was adapted from Hong’s (1992) Psychological Reactance Scale, which previous studies in marketing research have used to track situational reactance induced by advertising (Åkestam et al., 2017a; Thorbjørnsen & Dahlén, 2011). Ad reactance was thus measured on a 7-point Likert scale with four items: “The ad makes me want to be the exact opposite”, “I do not approve of how the ad tries to affect me”, “The ad portrays an ideal that annoys me”, and “The message in this ad limits my freedom of choice”. An index for reactance was computed, showing high internal reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.89$).

Attitudes

Ad and brand attitude were measured on two 7-point semantic differential Likert-Scales adapted from Dahlén, Granlund, & Grenros (2009) in response to the question “What is your opinion of the brand/ad?”. Each scale consisted of three items with the labels Bad/Good, Dislike/Like and Negative opinion/Positive opinion. Previous studies (Åkestam et al., 2017a; Eisend, 2015;

Hansson & Linander, 2018) have found that ad exposure alone is enough for consumers to form an opinion of an unfamiliar brand, even when the brand name and logo is not provided. The items were combined into two separate indices (one for ad, one for brand) and showed high internal reliability (Brand Attitude Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.986$; Ad Attitude Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.98$).

Purchase Intentions

Purchase Intentions were measured on a 7-point semantic differential Likert scale adapted from Dahlén et al. (2009) with two items ("If you were to buy a new hair and skin care product how likely is it that you would choose something from this brand?"; not at all probable/very probable and not at all likely/very likely). The two items were combined into an index and showed high internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.984$).

Consumer-Perceived Social Connectedness

Social connectedness was measured on a 7-point Likert Scale adapted from Hutcherson et al., (2008) with three items: "I belong with the people in the ad"; "I'm similar to the people in the ad"; "I feel positive toward the people in the ad". Previous studies have found it to be an appropriate measure for social connectedness (Åkestam et al., 2017b). The items were combined into an index and showed high internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.921$).

Masculinity Contingency Scale

To measure to what degree the participant's self-worth was contingent on their sense of masculinity, the Masculinity Contingency Scale (MCS) (Burkley et al., 2015) was used. The scale is comprised of two subscales, MCS-Threat (lack of masculinity threatens self-worth) and MSC-Boost (confirmation of masculinity boosts self-worth). For each 5-item subscale, the most-relevant items to our study were selected and measured on a 7-point Likert Scale. The MCS-Threat scale measured items like, "I would feel worthless if I acted like 'less than a man'", while the MCS-Boost

Scale measured items like, “When I act manly, I feel good about myself”. The items were combined into an index that showed high internal reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.922$).

Male Role Norms Scale

Respondents’ endorsement of traditional masculinity ideology was measured with six items on a 7-point Likert Scale adapted from the Male Role Norms Scale by Thompson and Pleck (1986). The Inventory consists of three subscales, two of which were more relevant for this study. Three items from the Toughness Norm Scale (e.g. “When a man is feeling a little pain, he should try not to let it show very much”) and the Anti-femininity Norm Scale (e.g. “I might find it a little bit silly or embarrassing if a male friend of mine cried over a sad love scene in a movie”) were selected respectively. The items were combined into an index and showed high internal reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.888$).

3.4.3. Data Collection and Sample

Data was collected between March 19-22, 2019. Respondents were recruited through Amazon MTurk and compensated for taking the survey. To participate in the study, they had to be men located in the United States. To increase data quality, only workers with an MTurk Master qualification or a HIT approval rate of 99% or greater and 1000 HITs completed were included. Furthermore, in order to avoid previous exposure to our stimuli, those who had participated in our pre-study were disqualified.

The survey was completed by 265 individuals. 16 respondents were eliminated because they fell outside the completion time interval ($1.5 \times \text{IQR}$) (Choi, Rangan, & Singh, 2016), which suggests that they were outliers that took too long to complete the survey. 1 person was eliminated because she identified as female and 1 because he did not reside in the U.S. No participant failed the attention

check. This resulted in a total of 247 complete responses (see Table 4). Respondents were randomly assigned to one of four conditions, which resulted in a fairly equal distribution. The final sample consisted of U.S. men between the age of 21 and 78 with a mean age of 40.3.

Table 4 – Overview of Main Study Respondents

Condition	Manipulation	n	Mean age
No Prime	Purpose-Driven	63	40.0
	Traditional	66	38.7
Prime	Purpose-Driven	63	40.2
	Traditional	55	42.7
Overall	Purpose-Driven	126	40.3
	Traditional	121	

3.5. Structure and Analysis of Data

IBM SPSS 25 was used to conduct the statistical analysis of the hypotheses. The data was first transferred to Excel to check for error and improve formatting for SPSS 25. No changes to participant results were made beyond the exclusion of participants discussed above. Data was sorted by condition, and each participant was assigned a coded value for prime, ad, and combination of the two.

First, internal reliability was established by calculating Cronbach's Alpha with an acceptance level of 0.8 (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Second, manipulation checks were conducted to ensure that the advertisements were still perceived as stereotypical or purpose-driven. After successfully establishing internal reliability and confirming the manipulation, the hypotheses were tested using a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA), Independent Sample T-Tests and the Preacher and Hayes Moderation and Mediation Tests using Hayes' PROCESS 3.3 Add-On for SPSS (Models 1 and 4). Bootstrapping instead of the Sobel-Test was used to counteract non-normality

and to provide a better representation of the data (Hayes, 2018). The significant levels were set at 5% for all tests, and Bootstrapping 5000 was used for the mediation and moderation analyses.

3.6. Data Quality

Internal Reliability

Reliability refers to the whether a measure is consistent or not and is particularly important in quantitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The main measures selected in this study were all pre-established and have been empirically tested for reliability by previous studies. To ensure reliability the measures were tested using Cronbach's Alpha with an acceptance level of 0.8 (Bryman & Bell, 2015). All measures in the main study were found to be reliable ($\alpha > 0.8$).

Replicability

One of the key features of a quantitative study is that other researchers have to be able to replicate the study to examine if the results were objective and replicable (Bryman & Bell, 2015). As our study is one of the first in this research area, it is important to ensure that other scientists are able to replicate our study. Thus, we have taken care to be methodologically rigorous and report our procedures and stimuli as transparently as possible.

Validity

Validity refers to whether or not the conclusions generated by the study are valid (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Validity can be broken down into several areas, which will be discussed below.

Measurement Validity

Measurement validity, or construct validity, is concerned with the question whether a measure really reflects the concept that it was designed to measure (Bryman & Bell, 2015). To increase measurement validity, we only used pre-established measures that have been validated in previous

studies. However, as the research in PDA is still sparse, the measure for perceived purposefulness has only been used in one previous study (Hansson & Linander, 2018). While the measure has not yet been rigorously tested, it was developed based on the definition of PDA and should thus reflect the concept (Hansson & Linander, 2018). Further studies should verify the measurement validity of this scale.

Internal Validity

Internal validity is concerned with the accuracy of the causal relationship between independent and dependent variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015). It questions whether the effects on the dependent variable might have been caused by events or stimuli in the experimental environment that are unrelated to the manipulation (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The experimental design of this study reduced threats to internal validity through the random assignment of respondents to either the control or the experimental group (Bryman & Bell, 2015) and the survey itself was carefully designed to minimize confounding effects. The stimuli were designed to be as similar as possible, except for the manipulation and the order of the questions was carefully thought through to minimize bias. To reduce the threat of maturity during the completion of the survey, respondents were required to complete the survey within one hour. However, as the survey was distributed online it was not possible to control for the environment the respondents answered the survey in, which might decrease internal validity.

External Validity

External validity refers to the generalizability of the study results beyond a specific research context (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The most important way to establish external validity is a representative sample (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Our sample consisted of men from the U.S. between 21 and 78 years with a mean age of 40.3 and was recruited through AmazonMTurk. Several researchers have

examined the representativeness of AmazonMTurk workers and have discovered that, while workers are more heterogeneous and thus better than other convenience samples, they cannot be regarded as representative of the general population (Mullinix, Leeper, Druckman, & Freese, 2015; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Internet users are systematically different from non-internet users and MTurk workers tend to be younger, more liberal, and more highly-educated than the general population (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Thus, the overall generalizability of our study is limited.

Ecological Validity

Ecological validity refers to whether or not the findings apply to everyday life and whether or not they reflect everyday life conditions, opinions or values (Bryman & Bell, 2015). While we designed the stimuli to be as realistic as possible (see Stimuli Development), experimental settings and questionnaires cannot adequately reflect the real-world, and thus our ecological validity is limited (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

4. Results and Analysis

The following section presents the results of the statistical tests conducted to test the hypotheses and to answer the research question. Results are outlined in the order of hypotheses.

4.1. Manipulation Checks

A manipulation check was conducted using the same scales for stereotypicality and purpose-drivenness as in the pre-test. Two independent samples t-tests revealed that the purpose-driven ad was perceived as more purpose-driven than the traditional ad ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 4.98$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 2.46$, $p < 0.001$), and that the traditional ad was perceived as more stereotypical than the purpose-driven ad ($M_{\text{TRAD}} = 5.81$ vs. $M_{\text{PDA}} = 2.50$, $p < 0.001$), as seen in Table 5.

Table 5 - Manipulation Check

Measure	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	p
Stereotypicality	Traditional	121	5.81	0.88	22.52	0.000
	Purpose-Driven	126	2.50	1.38		
Purpose-Drivenness	Traditional	121	2.46	1.26	-15.26	0.000
	Purpose-Driven	126	4.98	1.33		

4.2. Hypotheses-Testing

First, a MANCOVA was run on all the dependent variables simultaneously, with ad type and #MeToo priming as factors, and masculinity contingency as a covariate. Ad type had a significant main effect, $F(6,247) = 3.71$, $p < 0.01$, and produced a significant interaction effect with the priming factor, $F(6,247) = 2.09$, $p < 0.05$, which did not have a significant main effect.

4.2.1. Brand-Related Effects of PDA

Hypothesis 1 stated that purpose-driven advertising would be beneficial for the brand in terms of brand-related effects compared to traditional advertising. Three independent samples t-tests were conducted to test the relationship between the type of ad and the brand-related effects in the no-priming condition. As seen in Table 6, there was no significant difference between the purpose-driven ad and the traditional ad for brand attitude ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 4.08$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 4.47$, $p > 0.05$), ad attitude ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 3.93$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 4.41$, $p > 0.05$), or purchase intention ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 3.67$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 4.10$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Table 6 - Traditional vs. Purpose-Driven Ad and Brand-related Effects

Dependent Variable	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	p
Ad Attitude	Traditional	66	4.41	1.57	-1.45	0.15
	Purpose-Driven	63	3.93	2.15		
Brand Attitude	Traditional	66	4.47	1.41	-1.26	0.21
	Purpose-Driven	63	4.08	2.07		
Purchase Intentions	Traditional	66	4.10	1.64	-1.30	0.20
	Purpose-Driven	63	3.67	2.09		

H1: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.

NOT SUPPORTED.

4.2.2. Social Effects

Hypothesis 2 and 3 stated that purpose-driven advertisement would generate positive social effects in the form of increased feelings of social connectedness and lower endorsement of masculinity ideology (Table 7).

Social Connectedness

An independent samples t-test was conducted to test the difference between social connectedness after viewing the purpose-driven ad versus the traditional ad in the no-priming condition. The results did not show a significant difference in social connectedness generated by the two ads ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 4.87$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 5.29$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, Hypotheses 2 was not supported.

H2: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) feelings of social connectedness.

NOT SUPPORTED.

Masculinity Ideology

An independent samples t-test was conducted to test the difference between masculinity ideology reported after viewing the purpose-driven vs. the traditional ad in the no-priming condition. There was no significant difference in the average masculinity ideology scores ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 3.38$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 3.27$, $p > 0.05$), and thus Hypothesis 3 was not supported. In addition, masculinity ideology was the only dependent variable that did not show a significant difference when comparing the purpose-driven vs. the traditional ad regardless of condition ($M_{\text{PDA}} = 3.38$ vs. $M_{\text{TRAD}} = 3.4$, $p > 0.05$).

H3: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates weaker (vs. stronger) endorsement of masculinity ideology.

NOT SUPPORTED

Table 7 - Traditional vs. Purpose-Driven Ad and Brand-related Effects

Dependent Variable	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	P
Social Connectedness	Traditional	66	5.29	1.28	-1.72	0.087
	Purpose-Driven	63	4.87	1.48		
Masculinity Ideology	Traditional	66	3.27	1.44	0.41	0.69
	Purpose-Driven	63	3.38	1.50		

4.2.3. Influences on the Effectiveness of Purpose-Driven Advertisement

Hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 stated that the effectiveness of purpose-driven advertising, compared to traditional advertising, would be influenced by ad reactance, the #MeToo context, and the extent to which the participants' self-worth is dependent on their masculinity.

The Mediating Role of Ad Reactance

Hypothesis 4 states that ad reactance would mediate the relationship between the type of advertising and the individual brand and social effects. A mediation analysis using Preacher and Hayes' Model 4 was used, and the results are presented and interpreted as suggested by Hayes (2018). According to Hayes (2018), it is not necessary to first establish if there is a direct effect to be mediated, as the existence of the direct effect does not determine the size of the indirect effect (ab) and mediation is established only by the significance of the indirect effect (ab).

The results show that ad reactance mediated the relationship between the ad type and the individual brand-related and social effects. Because the confidence intervals of the indirect effect did not cross zero, the ad type significantly influenced the participants attitude towards the brand and the ad, as well as their purchase intention, feelings of social connectedness, and endorsement of masculinity ideology through the level of ad reactance. The results are summarized in Table 8.

Furthermore, the analysis showed that the purpose-driven advertisement had a positive effect on ad reactance as the participants presented with the purpose-driven ad exhibited higher ad reactance compared to those presented with the traditional ad ($a=0.42, p<0.05$). As indicated by the negative sign of the indirect effect, participants presented with the purpose-driven advertisements exhibited, on average, lower brand-related and social connectedness as a result of ad reactance induced by the ad, which in turn affected the dependent variable. Masculinity ideology, however, was positively impacted by ad reactance ($ab = 0.012$). Participants presented with the purpose-driven ad exhibited on average higher adherence to masculinity ideology compared to those presented with the traditional ad.

Additionally, the direct effect of the ad on the dependent variable was only significant for social connectedness ($p < 0.05$). This implies that the ad type is associated with social connectedness in addition to ad reactance. For the brand-related effects and masculinity ideology, however, the direct effect was not significant ($p > 0.05$), which supports the argument that there is no additional association between the ad and the dependent variables when ad reactance is taken into account.

Table 8 – Mediation Analysis

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator		Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	
Advertisement	Brand Att.	Ad Reactance	C	-0.27	ab	-0.29
			SE	0.16	SE	-0.15
			T	-1.7	LLCI	-0.58
			P	0.09	LUCI	-0.01
Advertisement	Ad Attitude	Ad Reactance	C	-0.23	ab	-0.32
			SE	0.16	SE	0.16
			T	-1.46	LLCI	-0.66
			P	0.15	LUCI	-0.01
Advertisement	Purchase Intention	Ad Reactance	C	-0.29	ab	-0.3
			SE	-0.17	SE	0.15
			T	-1.64	LLCI	-0.59
			P	0.10	LUCI	-0.01
Advertisement	Social Connectedness	Ad Reactance	C	-0.37	ab	-0.09
			SE	0.06	SE	0.06
			T	-2.02	LLCI	-0.22
			P	0.04	LUCI	-0.002
Advertisement	Masculinity Ideology	Ad Reactance	C	-0.15	ab	0.12
			SE	0.17	SE	0.07
			T	-0.84	LLCI	0.005
			p	0.40	LUCI	0.27

Overall, the mediation analysis demonstrated that ad reactance mediated the relationship between the advertisements and the brand and social effects. Hypothesis 4 was thus supported.

H4: Ad reactance mediates the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) on (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions and (d) social effects.

SUPPORTED

The Influence of the #MeToo Context

Hypothesis 5 suggested that the social change induced by the #MeToo Movement would change how the purpose-driven ad would be perceived and that the traditional ad would generate higher brand-related effects. As previously discussed, the MANCOVA analysis found a main effect for ad type ($p < 0.01$) and showed a significant interaction effect with the priming factor ($p < 0.05$). To further analyze these results, three independent samples t-tests were conducted to test the relationship between the type of ad and the brand-related effects in the priming condition (Table 9). A significant difference was found between the purpose-driven ad and the traditional ad for ad attitude ($M_{PDA} = 3.60$ vs. $M_{TRAD} = 4.20$, $p < 0.05$), brand attitude ($M_{PDA} = 3.69$ vs. $M_{TRAD} = 4.41$, $p < 0.05$), and purchase intentions ($M_{PDA} = 3.29$ vs. $M_{TRAD} = 4.01$, $p < 0.05$). The purpose-driven advertisement generated significantly lower brand-related effects compared to the traditional advertisement. Hypotheses 5 was thus supported.

Table 9 - #MeToo Prime and Brand-Related Effects

Dependent Variable	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	p
Ad Attitude	Traditional	55	4.20	1.46	-2.05	0.043
	Purpose-Driven	63	3.60	1.76		
Brand Attitude	Traditional	55	4.41	1.31	-2.56	0.01
	Purpose-Driven	63	3.69	1.7		
Purchase Intentions	Traditional	55	4.01	1.7	-2.37	0.02
	Purpose-Driven	63	3.29	1.6		

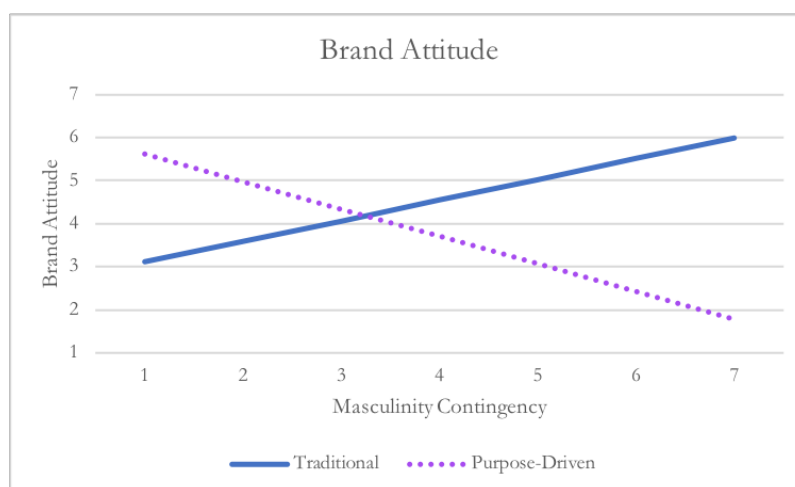
H5: When consumers are primed to think about the #MeToo Movement, purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates lower (vs. higher) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.

SUPPORTED

The Moderating Role of Masculinity Contingency

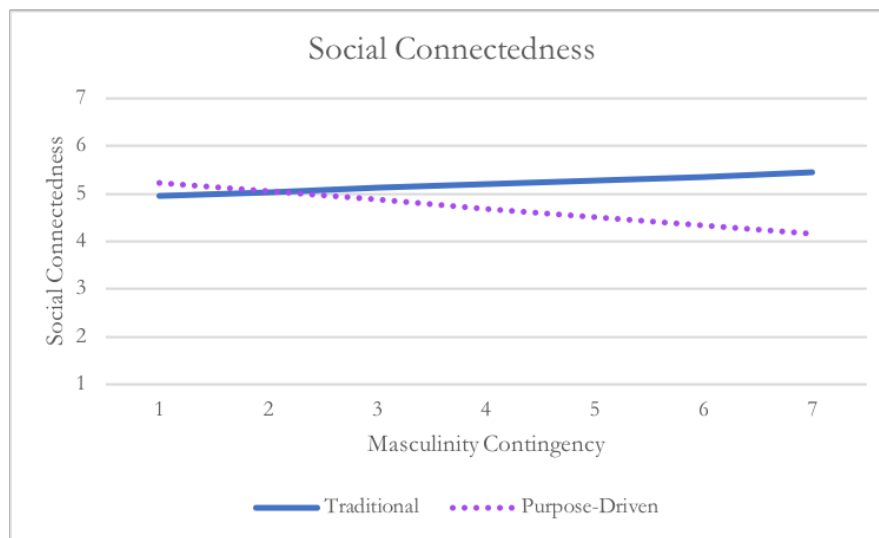
Hypothesis 6 stated that the importance of masculinity to self-worth would moderate the relationship between the type of advertisement and the brand-related and social effects. To test the hypothesis, a moderation analysis using Model 1 in Hayes' PROCESS 3.3 Add-On for SPSS was conducted. The results are interpreted in line with Hayes (2018), summarized in the tables and visualized in the graphs below.

The results show a significant interaction effect for ad attitude, brand attitude and purchase intentions. Masculinity contingency moderated the relationship when comparing the traditional ad with the purpose-driven ad (Table 11). This indicates that the effect of the advertisements on the brand-related effects depended on the importance of masculinity to the participants' self-worth. As interaction effects indicated a similar pattern across the individual brand-related effects, the visualization below exemplifies the moderating role of masculinity contingency. The rest of the graphs can be found in Appendix 7. As Graph A illustrates, when participants were presented with the traditional advertisement, brand-related effects increased as masculinity contingency increased. When presented with the purpose-driven ad, on the other hand, brand-related effects decreased as masculinity contingency increased.



Graph A – Moderation of Brand Attitude

Results show that masculinity contingency also moderated the overall effect of the advertisements on social connectedness ($\Delta R^2=0.02$; $F(1;243) = 3.94$; $p = 0.05$), but only for participants with medium and high masculinity contingency (Table 10). When masculinity contingency was low, the moderation effect was not significant ($p > 0.05$). Social connectedness increased as masculinity contingency increased (traditional ad), while the reverse held for the purpose-driven ad (Graph B).

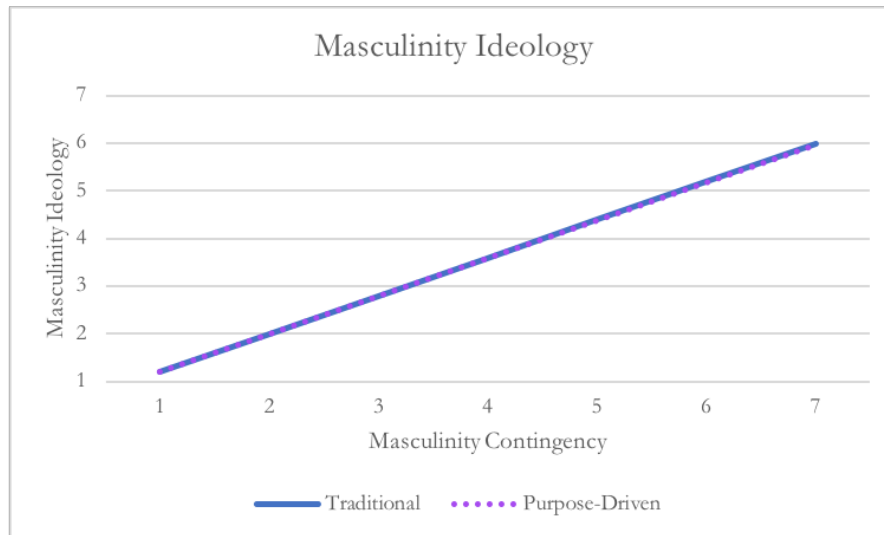


Graph B- Moderation of Social Connectedness

Table 10 – Breakdown of Social Connectedness
Conditional effect of X on Y at Values of the Moderator

Masculinity Contingency	Significance Level p
Low (25 th percentile) – 2.5	0.59
Medium (50 th percentile)- 3.67	0.02
High (75 th percentile) – 5.17	0.002

The moderation test revealed that masculinity contingency did not moderate the relationship between ad type and masculinity ideology ($\Delta R^2=0.00$; $F(1;243) = 0.01$; $p = 0.92$), because as previously discussed, there was no direct effect to be moderated. However, masculinity contingency was strongly and positively correlated with masculinity ideology ($r=0.79$; $p < 0.001$). As Graph C illustrates, the higher the masculinity contingency, the higher masculinity ideology.



Graph C - Correlation between Masculinity Ideology and Masculinity Contingency

Table 11 – Moderation Analysis

	R	R²	F	ΔF	ΔR²	Interaction Effect p-value
Brand Attitude	0.51	0.26	(3, 243) = 27.8	(1;243) = 70.01	0.22	0.0000
Ad Attitude	0.57	0.32	(3, 243) = 38.72	(1;243) = 103.95	0.29	0.0000
Purchase Intention	0.51	0.25	(3, 243) = 27.51	(1;243) = 72.93	0.22	0.0000
Social Connectedness	0.21	0.04	(3, 243) = 3.7	(1;243) = 3.94	0.02	0.05
Masculine Ideology	0.79	0.62	(3, 243) = 130.65	(1;243) = 0.01	0.000	0.92

In sum, masculinity contingency moderated the relationship between the advertisements and the brand-related effects, as well as social connectedness. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported.

H6: The greater the importance of masculinity to self-worth, the less favorable the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) will be on brand-related effects and social effects.

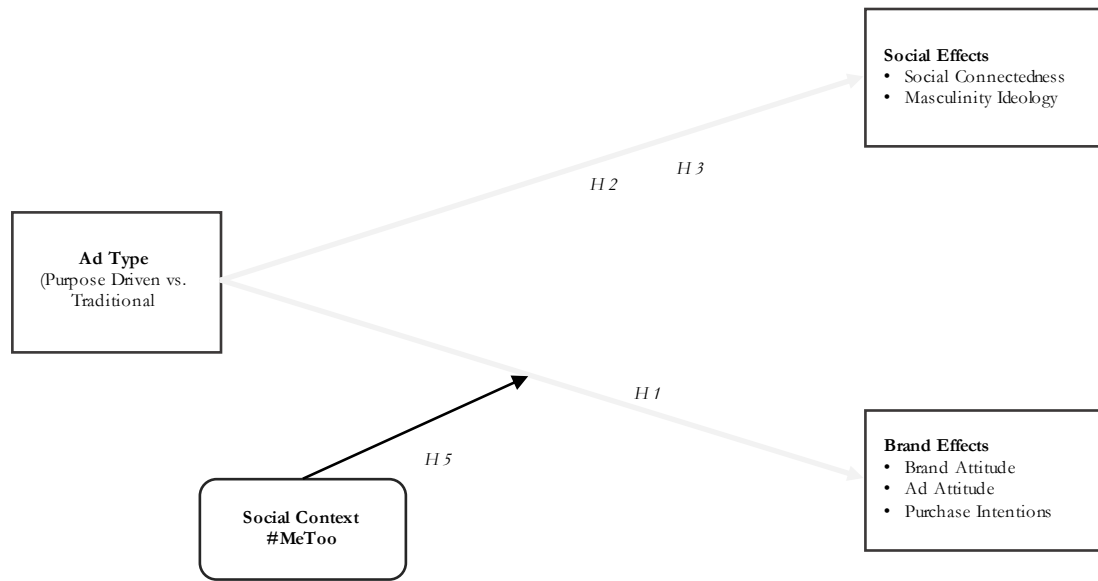
PARTIALLY SUPPORTED

4.3. Summary of Hypothesis and Revised Conceptual Model

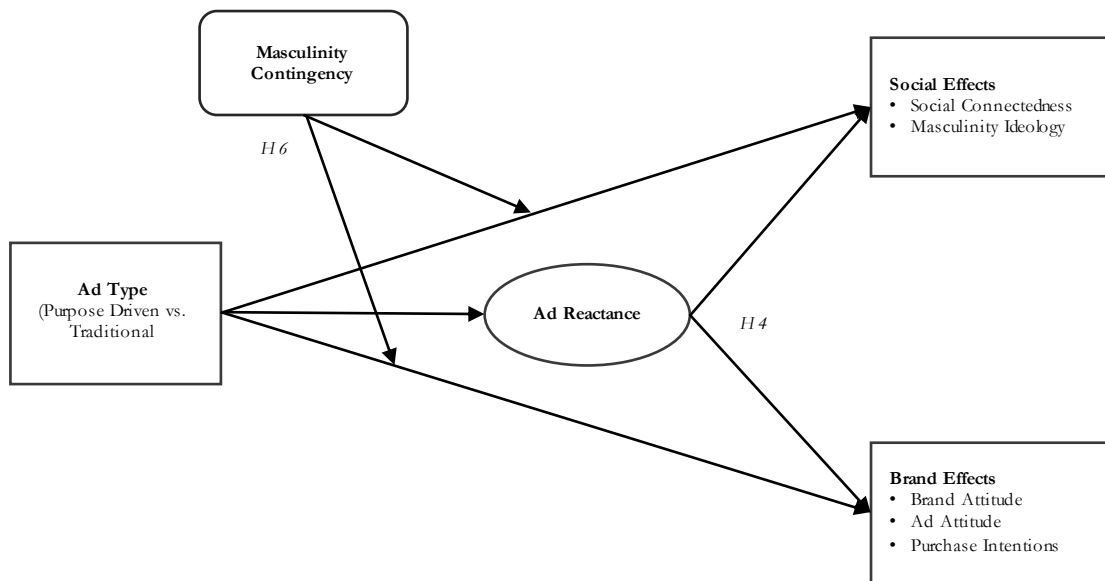
The revised hypotheses are summarised in Table 12 and visually represented in Model 6 and 7.

Table 12 - Revised Hypotheses Summary

Brand-Related and Social Effects	
H1: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.	Not Supported
H2: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates higher (vs. lower) feelings of social connectedness.	Not Supported
H3: Purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates weaker (vs. stronger) endorsement of masculinity ideology.	Not Supported
Influences on Purpose-Driven Advertising	
H4: Ad reactance mediates the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) on (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions, and (d) social effects.	Supported
H5: When consumers are primed to think about the #MeToo Movement, purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) generates lower (vs. higher) (a) brand attitude, (b) advertising attitude, and (c) purchase intentions.	Supported
H6: The greater the importance of masculinity to self-worth, the less favorable the effects of purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity (vs. traditional advertising) will be on brand-related effects and social effects.	Partially Supported



Model 6 - Revised Conceptual Model



Model 7 - Revised Conceptual Model

5. Discussion

This section discusses the findings of the previous section and their relation to previous theory. In line with the previous section, the effects will be discussed in order of hypotheses.

5.1. Brand-related Effects of PDA

PDAM Does Not Lead to Higher Brand-Related Effects

It was hypothesized that the purpose-driven advertisement that challenges traditional masculinity would generate higher brand and ad attitude as well as purchase intentions compared to the traditional ad. This was, however, not supported by the results as there was no significant difference between the two advertisements. These findings question the brand-related benefits of PDA and NSA suggested by both trade literature and previous academic research (e.g. Hsu, 2016; Akestam, 2017a; Zawisza et al., 2018b). While the majority of previous literature has established the effectiveness of non-stereotypical female advertising, our results also contradict the limited findings on non-stereotypical portrayals of men in advertising (e.g. Debevec & Iyer, 1986; Zawisza et al., 2006; Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010; Zawisza et al., 2018b). This supports our initial speculation that the inherent complexity of masculinity complicates the reception of masculinity-related purpose-driven advertisement. One reason for the contradictory findings could thus be tied to the issue of masculinity itself. Masculine ideals and values are internalized and thus tied to the self-concept (Levant & Richmond, 2007; Burkley et al., 2015). However, because masculinity is precarious, men must put in considerable effort to defend and maintain it or risk negative consequences (Jackson, 2013). The threat of consequences or the degree of internalization might make male stereotypes more difficult to question than, for example, female or homosexual stereotypes. An advertisement that tries to change the perception of masculinity might thus trigger a negative reaction, leading to negative evaluations of the advertisement and brand as well as reduced purchase intention. This explanation is supported by our findings related to ad reactance

and masculinity contingency, and will be discussed later in this section. Additionally, we speculate that this could be a result of the threats to social identity created by the #MeToo movement, as discussed later.

5.2. Social Effects of Purpose-Driven Advertising

The purpose-driven ad did not generate greater feelings of social connectedness, nor did it lower subscription to masculine gender role ideologies. Similar to the brand-related effects discussed above, these findings question the social benefits associated with purpose-driven and non-stereotypical advertising.

PDAM Does Not Generate Greater Feelings of Social Connectedness

The findings regarding social connectedness contradict the literature on non-stereotypical portrayals in advertising (Åkestam, 2017; Åkestam et al., 2017b), as previous studies found that such portrayals lead to greater feelings of social connectedness. However, those studies examined non-stereotypical portrayals of ethnic diversity (Åkestam, 2017), homosexual couples (Åkestam et al., 2017b), or men in relation to women (Söderberg & Grönstedt, 2018). Thus, our findings indicate that it might be more difficult to generate feelings of social connectedness by challenging male gender stereotypes. When considered in the context of the Common Ingroup Identity Model (Gaertner et al., 1993), this suggests that the content and appeal of our purpose-driven ad failed to create a more inclusive ingroup which would have resulted in greater social connectedness. Instead, our results suggest that the boundaries of the traditional ingroup were maintained, thus preventing a decrease in psychological distance. Because it would seem that a more inclusive in-group was not attained, the non-stereotypical masculine portrayal in the purpose-driven ad likely represented a threat to the in-group's integrity, suggesting that the incentives of maintaining a hegemonically masculine social identity are more attractive. Furthermore, we speculate that this was compounded

by the threats to social identity created by the #MeToo movement, which we will discuss in the following section.

PDAM Does Not Generate Weaker Endorsement of Masculinity Ideology

Previous research has found that traditional advertising can momentarily influence consumer values related to gender (Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997) and that non-stereotypical advertising can reduce stereotyping behaviors (Chu et al., 2016). Thus, we expected for the purpose-driven ad to generate weaker endorsement of masculinity ideology than the traditional ad. However, the results showed that the participants who viewed the purpose-driven ad did not report weaker endorsement of TMI. In fact, for both the traditional and purpose-driven ad average masculinity ideology was below the midpoint. One explanation for this is that society has become increasingly egalitarian over time (Gentry & Harrison, 2010; Eisend, 2010), and thus even individuals with traditional attitudes about masculinity are motivated to not appear prejudiced (Zawisza et al., 2018b). It could also be that even in a relatively more egalitarian social climate, the multifaceted nature of masculinity ideology makes it difficult to change. Perhaps challenging only one aspect is insufficient to affect endorsement of the others, and thus one ad and the limited airspace it provides cannot alter the construct. Hence, a series of advertisements or a longer format of advertisement (like video) may necessary to alter beliefs like traditional masculinity ideology.

5.3. Influences on the Effectiveness of Purpose-Driven Advertising

Ad Reactance Influences the Effectiveness of PDAM

It was hypothesized that the ad reactance induced by the advertisements would influence the participants' brand and ad attitudes, purchase intentions, perceived social connectedness, and endorsement of masculinity ideology. In line with our hypothesis, lower ad reactance led to higher brand and social effects and vice versa. Contrary to our expectations, the purpose-driven ad

induced higher ad reactance than the traditional ad. High ad reactance, in turn, negatively impacted the brand-related and social effects. The mediating influence of ad reactance therefore can explain why the purpose-driven advertisement generated no positive social or brand-related effects.

While this study replicated the mechanism proposed by Åkestam et al. (2017a), it also contradicts previous research on female stereotypes and female consumers. For women, non-traditional advertising lowered ad reactance, while traditional advertising was perceived as restrictive (Åkestam et al., 2017a). So far, the only study investigating ad reactance in relation to male stereotypes (Knutson & Waldner, 2018) found no significant difference in the level of ad reactance between the non-stereotypical ad and the stereotypical ad for male participants. Hence, our findings further support the notion that PDA challenging stereotypes is received differently if it involves masculinity and is targeted towards men. For men, the PDAM decreased perceived freedom, portraying an undesirable ideal and triggering intentions of contradictory behavior. Thus, while women seem to perceive non-stereotypical portrayals as liberating, men may experience them as restrictive. The non-stereotypical portrayal of masculinity could have reminded the participants of an undesired out-group (effeminate men), which is associated with negative reactions from other in-group (traditional) men and thus perceived as threatening (Jackson, 2013; Rivera & Dasgupta, 2016). The stereotypical portrayal, on the other hand, might have been perceived as less threatening, which could have been because it represents the freedom and power associated with being male. Instead of being perceived as an ideal that pressures men to behave in a certain way, it could have been perceived as an aspirational ideal.

Another potential explanation for our findings is that the wording of the PDA claim induced reactance. While the message was specifically worded to suggest an inclusive form of masculinity, it is possible that the claim “Real Men ~~Don't~~ Cry” was interpreted as controlling. The phrase “Real Men” specifically might have triggered a defensive response because respondents might not want

to be told what constitutes as a real man. However, the phrase has successfully been used in NSA before (e.g. Dove Men+Care, 2015) and our claim challenges the restrictiveness of “Real Men Don’t Cry”.

The #MeToo Context Impacts the Effects of PDAM

Based on the reactions to Gillette’s Ad *We Believe* (2018), we hypothesized that the #MeToo movement would impact how participants perceive the purpose-driven advertisement. This was supported by our results as the purpose-driven advertisement generated significantly lower ad and brand attitudes as well as purchase intention than the traditional ad. In fact, the traditional ad was preferred across all three brand-related effects. As we pre-tested our priming stimuli for psychological reactance, this suggests that the #MeToo movement threatens men’s social identity, masculine ideals and the legitimacy of their dominant status, reducing their autonomy. The attempt to restore autonomy, in turn, can be manifested via advertising preferences. An ad that facilitates freedom restoration by reminding men of the power and status associated with being male would thus be preferred. Thus, our findings offer preliminary evidence that the #MeToo movement can influence the effectiveness of purpose-driven advertisement.

Furthermore, as previously discussed, the purpose-driven advertisement did not generate any positive brand or social effects. Previous research on non-stereotypical portrayal of men in advertising, however, has all been conducted prior to the #MeToo movement or too early in its course to determine its potential far-reaching impacts on masculinity. Because the PDAM was not preferred even when #MeToo was not mentioned, our results could suggest that a reactive influence could be present to some extent regardless of whether or not it is actively primed. The contradictory nature of our findings implies that the #MeToo movement could have a wider influence on PDA than initially expected.

Masculinity Contingency Impacts the Effects of PDAM

Masculinity contingency was found to moderate the relationship between ad type and all of the dependent variables, except for masculinity ideology with which it was positively correlated. Specifically, for the purpose-driven advertisement, brand-related effects decreased as masculinity contingency increased. When linking these results to the rest of our findings, we can infer that the importance of masculinity to self-worth does indeed influence the severity to which threat to social identity is experienced. As discussed earlier, masculinity contingency has to our knowledge yet to be applied in the advertising literature. However, previous advertising research did find that positive perceptions were moderated by similar constructs, such as gender role attitudes (Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997) and ideologies (Baxter et al., 2016). We initially believed that although masculinity contingency and masculinity ideology were known to be correlated, masculinity ideology represents constructs that are context-dependent and have been known to be influenced by advertising (Garst & Bodenhausen, 1997). However, our results confirm that masculinity contingency and ideology are associated with each other. As masculinity contingency is tied to self-worth, this suggests that the masculinity ideology may be less susceptible to momentary influence, like advertising, than previously believed.

Our findings support our argument that masculinity is a difficult construct to use in PDA, as the level of importance consumers assign to it can negatively impact their attitude towards the ad, the brand, and their intention to ultimately purchase. In addition, high-levels of masculinity contingency can undermine the intended social benefits of PDAM, leading to a decrease in positive feelings like social connectedness and preventing a reduction in the endorsement of masculinity ideology.

6. Conclusion

This chapter summarizes the main conclusions that can be drawn from the discussion of the empirical findings and answers the research question posed in the introduction. Furthermore, it discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the study and presents its limitations and suggestions for further research.

This study set out to provide an explanation for the discrepancy between the research on non-stereotypical and purpose-driven advertisement and practice by comparing the brand-related and social effects of PDA that challenges traditional masculinity with traditional advertising. Despite its increasing popularity with advertisers, purpose-driven advertisement and non-stereotypical portrayals of masculinity have received limited attention in academic research. Therefore, little is known about how they influence consumers' reception. Furthermore, practitioners have speculated that the #MeToo movement could influence the response to gender-related advertising, a sentiment supported by the backlash to *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019). The aim of the study was thus to answer the following questions:

Does purpose-driven advertising that challenges traditional masculinity generate positive brand and social effects?

The results of the study demonstrate that PDA that challenges traditional masculinity does not generate positive brand and social effects. Relative to traditional advertising, the purpose-driven ad did not generate higher brand attitude, ad attitude or purchase intention and it did not lead to greater feelings of social-connectedness or lower prescription to masculinity ideology. This result can be, in part, explained by the fact that the purpose-driven advertisement generated higher ad reactance than the traditional ad. Masculinity contingency was another important determinant of the advertisement's effectiveness, as the reception of purpose-driven vs. traditional advertising depended on the importance of masculinity to one's self-worth.

Is the outcome impacted by the #MeToo movement?

The findings of this study demonstrate that the #MeToo movement influences the reception and effectiveness of purpose-driven advertisement that challenges masculinity. When participants were primed to think about the #MeToo movement and its related social changes, the traditional instead of the purpose-driven ad was evaluated more positively. Moreover, because advertising is never isolated from its context, the #MeToo movement could also influence the reception of advertising when consumers are not actively reminded or engaging with it.

The findings of this study question the benefits of purpose-driven advertising for both the brand and society and establish that it is much more complicated than trade literature and previous research have suggested. The reactance induced by the ad, the broader social context, as well as the importance of masculinity to self-worth all influence the reception of purpose-driven advertisement. Furthermore, the complexity and privileged status of masculinity can make it difficult for ingroup members to regard its redefinition as a positive change. In addition, the influence of the #MeToo movement further complicates this situation. Therefore, a purpose-driven ad that challenges traditional masculinity, like *We Believe* (2019), might be perceived unfavorably and generate backlash when delivered in the context of the #MeToo era. Thus, this study provides preliminary evidence for a Gillette Effect.

6.1. Theoretical Contributions

The exploratory and applied nature of our thesis allows us to make contributions to several bodies of literature, primarily purpose-driven/non-stereotypical advertising, masculinity studies, and consumer psychology. We have expanded the knowledge of consumer reactions to non-stereotypical portrayals of men in advertising primarily in two ways. We chose a new masculine stereotype to break and built on current understandings of how cognitive processes, social identity,

and individual beliefs influence the reception of PDA. To our knowledge, we studied a novel form of advertising in the literature by merging elements of non-stereotypical and purpose-driven advertising. Furthermore, our results provide some of the first evidence that PDA that challenges traditional masculinity may not generate positive brand and social effects. In particular, our results question the proposed ability of PDA to influence consumer beliefs about specific issues

Our most important contribution to theory is preliminary evidence for the existence of the Gillette Effect, or the possibility for male consumers' negative reactions to purpose-driven advertisement that challenges traditional masculinity to be intensified by the #MeToo context.

6.2. Practical Implications

In addition to theoretical contributions, this thesis has important implications for advertisers and managers. It enhances the understanding of PDA by empirically investigating its brand-related and social effects, as well as the underlying mechanisms that influence consumer reactions. These findings should help managers and advertisers to judge if PDA or NSA is beneficial for their brand and the social change they want to promote.

While PDA is generally thought to have a positive impact on the brand, our findings suggest that caution is appropriate. First, the study highlights the potential dangers of championing complicated social issues through advertising in a charged social climate. Thus, before launching a PDA campaign, advertisers should carefully analyze the values of their target group and the discourse around the intended social issue to anticipate potential negative consequences. Furthermore, advertisers aiming to create a more inclusive form of masculinity should be careful with the design and context of their advertising. While empirical examples such as Dove Men+Care (2015) or Dollar Shave Club (2018) demonstrate the possibility of generating positive evaluations, this study

shows that advertising that overtly calls for change in masculinity risks negative consumer reception. Advertisers should thus be prepared to counter this backlash with appropriate measures.

This study also indicates how difficult it is for PDA to not only generate positive effects for the brand but also have a positive impact on society. Advertisers that want to drive social change might even unintentionally aggravate the social issue. Consequently, it is imperative to not only carefully select the social issue, but also to measure the social impact generated. For example, a short campaign may not be able to affect values connected to masculinity. To truly make an impact, advertisers should therefore consider a more extensive campaign and take concrete action to show support for the social cause.

6.3. Limitations and Further Research

As there are several limitations to our study, our findings should be generalized with caution. First, we did not measure attitudes towards PDA in general. Research has shown that consumers can respond with skepticism towards companies that engage in CSR-related behaviors (Bae, 2018). Therefore, we do not know the extent to which negative attitudes towards PDA could have influenced our results. Our study could be improved by including a measure to assess consumers' attitudes towards PDA in order to assess the potential for confounding influence. Second, our study design did not include a measure for understanding participants' reasons for not preferring the purpose-driven ad. Thus, we are unable to tell if the purpose-driven advertisement was disliked because of its themes or because of its wording. To account for this, we could have designed our study in a way that allowed participants to give specific feedback about the ad that could be analyzed systematically. Similarly, we chose to design our purpose-driven advertisement in a provocative way by including an image of a man crying. However, research has shown that consumers prefer positive advertising messages (Berger & Milkman, 2011). Therefore, it is possible

that the purpose-driven ad was disliked because of the crying face. Future studies can address this by depicting restrictive emotionality in a different way.

Perhaps our most important limitation is that it can be difficult to isolate the potential negative influence of stereotyped portrayals when engaging in PDA. Calling for social change generally requires discussing what needs to be changed; therefore, it is difficult to actively challenge stereotypes without activating awareness of what traditional stereotypes are. This awareness may complicate consumer response. For example, *We Believe* (Gillette, 2019) showed examples of negative stereotypical behavior in order to contrast them with positive behaviors (Baggs, 2019; Gillette, 2019). Many who expressed anger at the Gillette ad felt that it was stereotypical, showing men as violent and predatory (Green, 2019). Thus, while it seems that Gillette intended to show men that their expression of masculinity need not be limited to traditional norms, many viewers seemed to fixate on the negative portrayals. While we tried to control for this by not featuring men in relation to women, sexuality, or violence, we may have unintentionally highlighted male stereotypes in a way that elevated ad reactance by positing what it is to be a “real man”. Future studies could incorporate more passive NSA for comparison or select advertising copy that does not directly evoke masculinity as a social identity.

Both our limitations and our findings provide exciting directions for future research. For example, substituting racism or immigration for the social issue could provide more insight into how this choice affects the results. Another possibility would be to study other aspects of TMI such as violence or anti-femininity to see if there are norms consumers would more readily see challenged. Because there was a lack of NSA studies conducted only on male samples and we wanted to attempt a recreation of the Gillette Effect, we chose to only have male participants. However, it would be interesting to see how female participants would respond to a similar study, as research shows that women may respond more positively to non-stereotypical portrayals of men (Zupan,

2019). Furthermore, our sample consisted only of respondents from the U.S., who generally adhere more to traditional masculine gender norms than individuals in other Western countries (Gattario et al., 2015). Replicating our study on a sample from a different country could provide an intriguing cross-cultural comparison.

Based on the variety of other social identities that intersect with masculinity, we wonder how other factors like sexual orientation, race, or gender identity would influence brand-related and social effects of PDAM. Furthermore, because our purpose-driven advertisement generated negative brand-related effects, we are curious to know how serious those effects are, for example, if they are stable over time or translate into behavior. Lastly, we wonder if repeated exposure to PDA that challenges masculinity would alter the results. Researchers have suggested that the effects of advertising are most potent in the aggregate or as the accumulation of gradual exposure over time (Pollay, 1986; Eisend, 2010).

Thus, purpose-driven advertising may have more impact with broader and continued use. Although our findings provided some of the first empirical evidence that PDA may not generate positive brand-related or social effects, we still see great potential for PDA to revolutionize the way that brands communicate with society. We are hopeful that future research will further define the specific qualities and conditions that make PDA effective in terms of both brand-related and social effects.

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Appendix

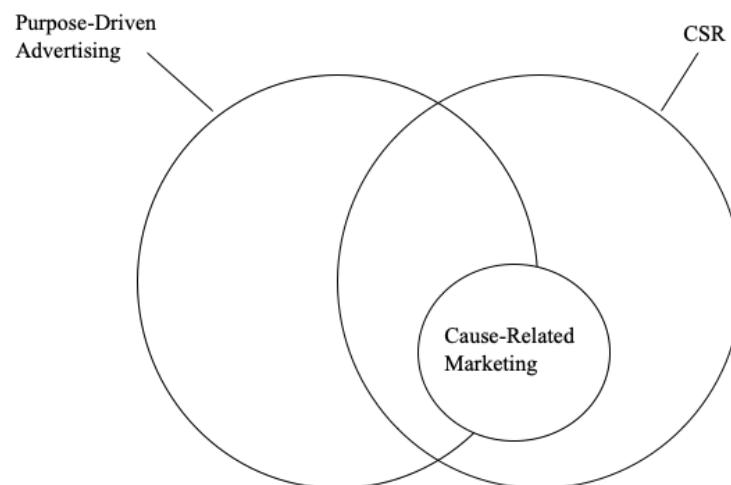
Appendix 1 – Purpose-Driven Advertisements

Table 13 - Examples of Other Purpose-Driven Advertisements

Ad	<i>Always #LikeAGirl (2014)</i>	<i>#RealStrength (2015)</i>	<i>Always #LikeAGirl- Unstoppable (2015)</i>	<i>Dream Crazy (2018)</i>	<i>We Believe: The Best Men Can Be (2019)</i>	<i>Dream Crazier (2019)</i>
Issue	female stereotypes	male stereotypes	female stereotypes	racism, ableism, right to protest	toxic masculinity	sexism
Brand	Always	Dove Men+Care	Always	Nike	Gillette	Nike
Views	66,933,062	7,132,964	39,393,258	28,637,534	<u>29,899,179</u>	8,799,385
Likes : Dislikes	8:1	6:1	10:1	8:1	<u>1:2</u>	5:1

*Ratios are approximate. All statistics accessed from YouTube on March 25, 2019.

Appendix 2 - The relationship between purpose-driven advertisement, corporate social responsibility and cause-related marketing



Model 8 - Based on Hansson & Linander (2018)

Appendix 3 - Final Stimuli



The purpose-driven advertisement



The traditional advertisement

Appendix 4: Reactance Measure

Freedom Threat	The message tried to make a decision for me. The message tried to pressure me. The message threatened my freedom to choose. The message tried to manipulate me.
Anger	Did you feel angry while viewing this message? Did you feel annoyed while viewing this message? Did you feel irritated while viewing this message? Do you feel aggravated while viewing this message?

Appendix 5 - Alpha Values for the measurements in the pre-study

Model 9 - Cronbach's Alpha for the Pre-Study Measures

Measure	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Stereotypicality	2	0.93
Perceived Purpose-drivenness	3	0.91
Psychological Reactance		
Freedom Threat	4	0.95
Anger	4	0.962
Perceived Similarity	2	0.88

Appendix 6: Main Study Survey

Part 1: Consent and Overview

Thank you for your interest in our survey! We are two masters students in business and management, and this survey is a very important part of our thesis work on advertising.

Unfortunately, we cannot use data from participants that do not meet certain criteria. Please only continue with this survey if you:

- 1) are located in the **United States**
- 2) identify as **male**

We would really appreciate it if you carefully consider all materials and questions. Thank you.

Part 2: Prime Condition

Instructions

On the following pages, you will be presented with **background information** about a topic and **related news headlines** with brief descriptions. Note that the headlines and descriptions have been reformatted for the purposes of this survey.

Please read all of the information carefully as you might be asked to recall specific details later in the survey.

Page Break

Prime Stimuli

(from an online encyclopedia)

"The Me Too movement (or #MeToo movement)...is a movement against sexual harassment and sexual assault. The movement began to spread virally in October 2017 as a hashtag on social media in an attempt to demonstrate the widespread prevalence of sexual assault and harassment, especially in the workplace."

Page Break

More Companies Imposing Rules to Curb Male Harassment of Coworkers

More and more companies are taking measures to stop men from harassing their female coworkers. These zero-tolerance policies prohibit hugs or gazes that last longer than five seconds, among other things.

#HowIWillChange: 10 Things Men Need to Stop Doing Right Now

After #metoo, certain behaviors are no longer okay. From flirting with women who are working to not listening – here is a list of the most common behaviors men need to stop right now.

#YesAllMen: 4 Facts that Prove Why #NotAllMen Is Wrong While men might think that not all men are like that, all men are definitely complicit in upholding the culture of harassment, and therefore need to be held accountable.

Page Break

Q: What were some key words/main ideas from the headlines and descriptions?

Q: How many headlines were there?

- ☐ 2
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 3

Part 3: All Participants

Instructions

You will now be presented with an advertisement and information about the brand involved with the ad.

Please consider both the image and the background details carefully, as you might be asked to recall specific details later in the survey.

Page Break

Information about the Brand Campaign

Traditional Ad

The following image is an advertisement from a recent campaign by a men's hair and skin care company. It is to be circulated online, primarily on social media platforms.

Purpose-Driven Ad

The following image is an advertisement from a recent campaign by **a men's hair and skin care company**. The campaign is **designed to raise awareness about a social issue** while also promoting the brand. It is to be **circulated online**, primarily on social media platforms.

Part 4: Main Questionnaire

Considering **the ad** and **its message**:

	1- Stro ngly disa gree	2	3	4	5	6	7- Strongly agree
This ad shows a stereotypical image of a man.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This ad is typical for advertising targeting men.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This ad promotes social change.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company behind this ad cares about more than just sales.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company behind the ad takes a stand on a social issue.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Page Break

Considering **the ad** and **its message**:

	1- Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7- Strongly agree
This ad makes me want to be the exact opposite.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not approve of how this ad tries to affect me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The ad portrays an ideal that annoys me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The message in this ad limits my freedom of choice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

What is your **opinion of the ad**?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Good
Dislike	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Like
Negative opinion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Positive opinion

Page Break

What is your **opinion of the brand** that made this advertisement?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Good
Dislike	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Like
Negative Opinion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Positive Opinion

If you were to buy a new hair or skin care product, how **likely** is it that you would choose something from **this brand**?

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Not at all probable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very probable
Not at all likely	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Very likely

Page Break

Right now, I feel that I:

	1- Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7- Strongly agree
belong with other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
am part of a community	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
am important to other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
find other people important.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Page Break

What are the names of **5** US states?

Page Break

Please carefully consider the following statements and mark the degree to which you **agree** or **disagree** with them.

	1- Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7- Strongly agree
I feel good when I am able to show off my masculine side.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can't respect myself if I don't live up to what it means to be a "real man".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel worthless if I acted like "less than a man".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I act manly, I feel good about myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My self-worth suffers if I think my manhood is lacking.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel proud when I am able to demonstrate my manliness.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Page Break

Please carefully consider the following statements and mark the degree to which you *agree* or *disagree* with them.

	1- Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7-Strongly agree
When a man is feeling a little pain, he should try not to let it show very much.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nobody respects a man very much who frequently talks about his worries, fears, and problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please select point 4 for this item.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A good motto for a man would be "When the going gets tough, the tough get going."	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It bothers me when a man does something that I consider "feminine."	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a woman.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I might find it a little silly or embarrassing if a male friend of mine cried over a sad love scene in a movie.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

In what country are you located?

- ☐ the United States
- ☐ Other

What is your age?

How do you identify?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Other

Appendix 7: Moderation Analysis Graphs

