

1 **My Mom Got Influenced by Yours: The Persuasiveness of Mom Influencers in Relation**
2 **to Mothers' Food Assessments and Decisions**

3

4 While childhood obesity is a worldwide health problem with a range of short- and long-
5 term health and social consequences, the World Health Organization argues that this epidemic
6 is both preventable and reversible. The biggest dietary gatekeepers of children are their parents
7 and more specifically mothers, whose attitudes and consumption choices are nowadays often
8 affected by the opinions of influencers on social network sites. Using two experimental studies,
9 the current paper investigates how mothers' food assessments and decisions for their children
10 are affected by sponsored posts on social media. In the first study, a two-level between-subjects
11 experiment ($N= 81$) was adopted, which showed that mothers like sponsored Instagram posts
12 better when they are posted by a mom influencer (i.e. a mother who accumulated a large
13 following on social media and often engages in sponsored partnerships with brands) compared
14 to a brand. This consequently positively affected source credibility, post engagement, purchase
15 intention and the child appropriateness of the food. In the second experiment, a two-by-two
16 between-subjects design ($N= 169$) showed that while a typical mom influencer is perceived as
17 less effective in promoting food compared to an expert (i.e. a pediatric nutritionist) mom
18 influencer due to lower credibility, a typical mom influencer is more efficient in promoting
19 unhealthy foods through higher influencer-brand congruence.

20 *Keywords:* Mom influencers; influencer marketing; food marketing; healthy food;
21 children; social media

22

23 1 INTRODUCTION

24 The numbers of obesity among children are rapidly growing worldwide (Raziani &
25 Raziani, 2020). Besides negatively affecting children's quality of life and longevity, it also has
26 a significant impact on the prevalence of transgenerational obesity, making it a severe and long-
27 term public health issue (Cheng, 2020). However, it is argued that childhood obesity is a
28 reversible problem (World Health Organization, 2021), which calls for knowledge on how to
29 halt the rise of this epidemic (Spinelli et al., 2019). Importantly, optimal nutritional intake is
30 especially critical throughout the first years of a child's life, as it further promotes healthy
31 growth, child development and habits that will be translated to more advanced ages (Garrido-
32 Miguel et al., 2019; Usheva et al., 2021a; Usheva, et al., 2021b). Therefore, recent academic
33 research is calling for early interventions to promote the development of healthy lifestyles
34 among children (Rimal, 2003; Tugault-Lafleur et al., 2021; Yee, et al., 2021).

35 While an increasing body of research has been focusing on how advertising directed to
36 children affects their food habits (e.g. Naderer, 2021; Naderer, et al., 2019), a large study among
37 12.041 families across six European countries argues that healthy eating practices among
38 children is best promoted by improving their parents' dietary habits, practices and beliefs
39 (Papamichael et al., 2021). Furthermore, especially mothers seem to have the most determining
40 impact on their children's eating behavior. However, research on food advertising targeting
41 adults is very limited and has a dominant focus on traditional media formats according to Nieto
42 and colleagues (2022). Given the gatekeeping role of mothers concerning their children's food
43 intake, better understanding on how children's food marketing within digital media affects the
44 maternal decision-making process is needed.

45 In contrast to previous generations of parents who traditionally relied on family, friends
46 and health care providers in their immediate environment for parenting advice and health
47 information, it is remarkable that a large amount of today's mothers are increasingly finding

48 their way to social network sites (SNSs) such as Instagram for these matters (Moon et al., 2019).
49 One type of SNS users that is greatly affecting the opinions of mothers are so-called ‘mom
50 influencers’, which can be considered niche social media influencers (SMI). These mom
51 influencers are mothers who became micro-celebrities with an engaging follower base on social
52 media, by sharing information about their lives, children, and family (Abidin, 2015; Abidin &
53 Ots, 2015; Archer, 2019; Jorge, Marôpo, Coelho, & Novello, 2021). Similar as with other SMI,
54 these mom influencers are regularly approached by brands to advertise products or services
55 (such as food products) on their social media profiles in return for compensation (De Veirman
56 et al., 2017). The persuasive power of influencers is vast, as they share a lot of information
57 about their personal and family lives with their followers that is very relatable for them (Abidin,
58 2015). Therefore, their followers easily identify with them, and are likely to consider their
59 recommendations and opinions as more authentic as opposed to brands and traditional
60 celebrities, who are less accessible (Abidin, 2015; Senft, 2008). Although increasing countries
61 (such as the UK, Netherlands and Belgium) recently introduced new regulations requiring
62 influencers to clearly disclose sponsored content as such (Dailybits, 2022; Advertising
63 Standards Authority, 2021), a recent eye-tracking study revealed that the use of hashtags (e.g.
64 #ad or #paidad) is a popular but ineffective strategy to clearly disclose advertising content and
65 activate people’s persuasion knowledge on Instagram (Boerman & Müller, 2022). The current
66 study aims to gain insights in how sponsored Instagram posts for children’s food targeting other
67 mothers is affecting their assessment and decision-making process.

68 A first experimental study compares the persuasiveness of mom influencers versus
69 corporate brands promoting children’s food products on Instagram, as to the best of our
70 knowledge, prior research has not yet investigated the persuasiveness of mom influencers on
71 other mothers’ food assessments and decisions.

72 Further, previous research suggests that various endorser types can be distinguished,
73 among other things, depending on their level of expertise about a certain topic (Friedman,
74 Friedman, 1979). In turn, a recent study suggests that expert endorsers (compared to typical
75 non-expert endorsers) could enhance the effectiveness of healthy food promotions targeting
76 children (Binder et al., 2020). A second experimental study therefore will deepen the
77 understanding of food promotions by examining their effectiveness among mothers by
78 investigating which type of mom influencer (nutritional expert vs. typical mom influencer)
79 could be best employed to promote healthy food.

80 ***1.1 Maternal decision-making for children's food***

81 A broad range of studies appoint parents to be the main influencers of children's eating habits,
82 as they serve both as role models, educators and gatekeepers (e.g. Birch & Fisher, 1998;
83 Cruwys, et al., 2015; Linde et al., 2022; Papamichael et al., 2021; Pedersen, et al., 2015; Wyse,
84 et al., 2011). Research indeed shows that 69-79% of children's food intake is provided from
85 within the home environment (Ziauddeen et al., 2018). Regardless of their great impact, the
86 dietary habits of today's young parents appear to be among the poorest of all age groups
87 (Paeratakul, et al., 2003). It is argued that their busy lives and the consequent time constraints
88 are the most common barriers for healthy eating behaviors (Pelletier & Laska, 2012). Despite
89 the observation that fathers are increasingly taking on a more active role in the household
90 (Khandpur et al., 2014), mothers still appear to be the primary caregiver related to child feeding
91 practices (Rahill et al. 2020). Besides, mothers are more actively seeking parenting advice and
92 health information on social media (Duggan et al., 2015; Price et al., 2018). As maternal
93 attitudes, behaviors and also food choices for their children are highly affected by other parents
94 within their social networks (Cochran & Niego, 2002; Hogleve, et al., 2021; Swanson & Power,
95 2005), the current study aims to investigate how food promotions on Instagram affect mothers'
96 decision-making process for their children's food.

97 1.2 *Children's food marketing on social media*

98 Social media food marketing has been shown to be highly pervasive and effective
99 among children (Coates, Hardman, Halford, Christiansen, & Boyland, 2019). In the United
100 Kingdom (country where the study was conducted), new regulations (set to take effect in 2023)
101 aim to ban all advertising for junk food both online (including influencer marketing) and on TV
102 before 9 PM, in order to protect children from this junk food advertising (The Guardian, 2021).
103 In addition, some self-regulatory initiatives have been created regarding food marketing. For
104 example, companies participating in the EU Pledge commit themselves not to advertise food
105 and beverages to children under 13 years (except for products that fulfill specific nutritional
106 criteria) in all covered media, including influencer content (EU Pledge, 2022). Nonetheless, a
107 recent report of the European Consumer Organisation notifies that food brands have been
108 enthusiastic adopters of influencer marketing and that many cases were rejected by the Panel
109 of the Pledge as they did not *primarily* target children under 12 years old according to them
110 (Calvert, 2021). Therefore, the report concludes that the rules to protect children against
111 unhealthy food are too lax and give plenty of leeway as they are not suited for the digital
112 marketing context and focus predominantly on advertising targeting children under 12 years
113 old only.

114 Despite recent efforts to protect the consumers, research shows that the effectiveness of
115 social media food marketing is rather worrisome, as this marketing technique is predominantly
116 used to promote products that are high in fat, sugar and/or salt (Alruwaily et al., 2020; Bragg et
117 al., 2020; Coates et al., 2019a; Martínez-Pastor, et al., 2021; Potvin Kent et al., 2019). Studies
118 investigating the effectiveness of these social media marketing efforts showed that the
119 promotion of unhealthy foods by SMI indeed led to an increase of their intake among children
120 (Coates, Hardman, Halford, Christiansen, & Boyland, 2019b; Coates et al., 2019). Limited first

121 studies also show that influencer marketing promoting healthy food targeted at children does
122 not affect children's healthy food adoption (Coates et al., 2019b; Folkvord & de Bruijne, 2020).

123 While studies investigating food marketing targeting adults are more limited, they
124 similarly reveal a predominance of unhealthy food promotions within social media ads (Nieto
125 et al., 2022) and considered it an effective advertising strategy to change adults' attitudes and
126 habits when promoted through traditional advertising formats (e.g. Koordeman et al., 2010;
127 Boyland et al., 2017; Harris and Brownell, 2009). While some studies quantified the amount of
128 healthy vs. unhealthy food promotions on the social media profiles of child influencers
129 (Alruwaily et al., 2020; Coates et al., 2019a; Martínez-Pastor, et al., 2021; Potvin Kent et al.,
130 2019), to the best of our knowledge, no such information exists about the profiles of mom
131 influencers. Despite mothers' determining role concerning the food habits of their children and
132 their great exposure to social media content (Price et al., 2018), food marketing targeted at
133 adults is currently not regulated in Europe and the quantity and impact of social media food
134 marketing directed to mothers, to the best of our knowledge, remains unexplored.

135 ***1.3 The effectiveness of a corporate brand vs. mom influencer***

136 Previous research argues that parents respond best to nutrition messages on platforms
137 that are engaging, personalized and interactive (Zarnowiecki et al., 2020), whereby social media
138 could represent a promising format to effectively mothers with food promotions. One specific
139 type of social media users that have a strong impact on the opinions of mothers are 'mom
140 influencers' (Ouvrein, 2022). These niche influencers are mothers with kids who accumulated
141 a large following base and became micro-celebrities on their social network profiles by sharing
142 information about their lives, children and family, and often engage in sponsored partnerships
143 with brands (Abidin & Ots, 2015; Abidin, 2015; Archer, 2019; Jorge et al., 2021). Hence, they
144 are a specific type of SMI. SMI are typically characterized by their reach (i.e. having a
145 substantial number of followers) and impact (i.e. the influence they have on the decision-

146 making of others). In addition, they are perceived as highly credible among their followers
147 (Hudders et al., 2021). Previous research repeatedly suggested that SMI are perceived as more
148 likeable among their followers compared to a corporate brand (De Veirman, Cauberghe, &
149 Hudders, 2017; Myers, 2021; Taillon et al., 2020). Besides, mothers greatly value the
150 information they receive from other mothers (compared to other actors), as the mothering
151 experience creates a bond between them that may be more profound compared to other
152 relationships (Nolan et al., 2012). Therefore, we expect that the content of mom influencers will
153 be perceived as more likeable, as opposed to content posted by a corporate brand. Furthermore,
154 research argues that an endorser's perceived credibility can fluctuate, depending on his
155 attractiveness and likeability. In a variety of contexts, an endorser's likeability has been found
156 to predict the perceived credibility of the endorsed message (e.g. Teven, 2008). Therefore, we
157 hypothesize that the promotion of a snack would be more likeable and consequently perceived
158 as more credible when coming from a mom influencer compared to a brand (H1).

159 Furthermore, the source credibility model (Hovland et al., 1953) posits that increases in
160 perceived credibility of endorsers may lead to greater persuasiveness of their message. Indeed,
161 in a variety of contexts, the credibility of SMI has been repeatedly proven an important
162 antecedent of message, brand and advertising effects (e.g., Lou et al., 2019; Schouten et al.,
163 2020). We therefore expect that source credibility will further positively affect engagement with
164 the post (H2a), perceived child appropriateness of the food (H2b) and purchase intention (H2c).

165 **1.4 Expert vs. typical mom influencer**

166 While a great number of maternal decisions are affected by online information, research
167 highlights the significant lack of credible and evidence-based nutrition information with
168 interactive and collaborative features on the internet (Zarnowiecki et al., 2020). A recent trend
169 that can be identified is that more and more professional experts find their way to social media
170 platforms to spread their message as well. As such, educated professionals became SMI as well

171 by spreading their messages on their social media profiles. Scholars indeed acknowledge the
172 great diversity within the influencer landscape and distinguished three main types of
173 influencers: celebrities, typical influencers and expert influencers (Friedmann & Friedmann,
174 1979). Thus, while the concept of ‘mom influencers’ refers to mothers on social media that
175 monetize and narrate their family lives (Jorge et al., 2021), many differences may still occur
176 among these niche influencers. While many typical mom influencers spread nutritional
177 information without any qualification or scientific substantiation (Byrne et al., 2017), others
178 may create content based on their education and professional experience (i.e. expert
179 influencers). For example, Rolinde Opdegroei is a Belgian pediatric dietitian with 27K
180 followers on Instagram, who shares her knowledge with her followers.

181 Looking at research on maternal information gathering, this greatly aligns with two
182 different discourses that affect how mothers appeal to their social networks for information on
183 mothering (Price et al. 2018). Firstly, mothers can either rely on other mothers’ opinions and
184 information, following a discourse that is called “*intuitive mothering*”. This discourse implies
185 that mothering skills are instinctive and best learned through the support of other mothers. The
186 second discourse is referred to as the “*medicalized mothering*”, whereby mothers feel that they
187 need expert information and guidance from health care professionals (Price et al, 2018).
188 Therefore, through a second experimental study, we aim to investigate how the type of mom
189 influencer (typical vs. expert) affects the assessment and decision-making of mothers regarding
190 children’s food.

191 1.4.1 *The credibility of an expert vs. typical mom influencer*

192 Unlike brands versus influencers, which are two completely different types of sources
193 (cf. previous hypotheses), the differences between a typical vs. expert mom influencer are much
194 more subtle. As they are both mothers and thus easy to identify with, we believe that their
195 perceived likeability will not significantly differ. In line with the match-up hypothesis (Kamins,

196 1990), however, their perceived credibility might differ. According to this theory and validated
197 within the context of Instagram, a SMI is perceived as a credible source of information when
198 the products being endorsed match with their particular domain of interest (Breves et al., 2018).
199 Besides, when evaluating persuasive messages, people often rely on simple heuristics (or
200 shortcuts), instead of cognitively and centrally processing the provided information (Chaiken,
201 1987). In the light of children's food, the study of Binder et al. (2020) refer to an 'expert
202 heuristic' and show that children's fruit intake indeed increases when it is endorsed by an expert
203 influencer, but not when it is endorsed by a typical or celebrity influencer. We believe that this
204 heuristic would equally apply to mothers. Therefore, in a second study we aim to test the
205 hypothesis that expert (vs. typical) mom influencers would be more successful in promoting
206 food, measured by the three dependent variables a) post engagement, b) child appropriateness
207 perceptions and c) purchase intention) due to their higher levels of credibility (H3).

208 1.4.2 *The perceived congruity of the endorsement by an expert vs. typical mom influencer*

209 According to the self-disclosure theory, two ways can be distinguished in which
210 influencers share information. Applied to the context of the current study, we can argue that
211 typical mom influencers predominantly engage in *personal self-disclosure* (i.e., sharing about
212 one's personal and family life), whereas expert mom influencers typically engage in
213 *professional self-disclosure* (i.e., sharing information about work-related topics) (Feng, et al.
214 2021; Kim & Song, 2016). As is the case for SMI in general, mom influencers too use various
215 tactics (e.g., host giveaways of products, receive directs payments and free products) to generate
216 an income out of their online activities (Blum-Ross & Livingstone, 2017; Kaur & Kumar,
217 2021). Branded content is therefore almost inextricably linked to and therefore expected on the
218 profiles of typical mom influencers. For those typical mom influencers, promoting brands might
219 be perceived as part of sharing their personal beliefs and values, which is in line with their
220 personal self-disclosure style (Feng et al., 2021). The expert mom influencers (in the case of

221 this study: pediatric nutrition experts), however, follow a professional self-disclosure style, by
222 which they generally communicate about information they gathered through their main
223 professional occupation. As their influencer activities are not considered their primary job, it
224 might be less expected for them to engage in promotional partnerships and to generate an
225 income there. Summarized, given their difference in self-disclosure style, typical mom
226 influencers might be perceived as more congruent with a brand (or sponsored content in
227 general), as opposed to expert mom influencers. Further, a high congruence between an
228 influencer and a brand has previously been shown to positively affect perceptions and purchase
229 intentions among their followers (Belanche, et al., 2021). This is in line with research showing
230 that followers assess SMI content more positively if it is in line with what has been posted
231 before on their profile (Pöyry et al., 2019). Further, following the attributional theory, it is
232 suggested that in case of influencer-brand congruence, the influencer is believed to genuinely
233 like the product and to not promote it purely for extrinsic monetary reasons (Breves et al., 2019;
234 Mishra et al., 2015). Therefore, we expect that an advertisement for children's food will lead to
235 higher perceptions of influencer-brand congruence for typical (vs. expert) mom influencers,
236 which will in turn result into higher scores on the three dependent variables (H4a, b and c).

237 *1.4.3 The moderating role of healthiness of the endorsed food*

238 Given that the expert mom influencer within the current study is a pediatric nutritionist
239 who helps families and children to develop healthy eating habits, it is plausible to expect that
240 she would be perceived as more credible (compared to a typical mom influencer) when
241 endorsing healthy (vs. unhealthy) food. Therefore, hypothesis 5 posits that an expert (vs. mom)
242 influencer will be perceived as more credible when promoting a healthy (vs. unhealthy snack),
243 which will in turn enhance the three dependent variables (a, b and c).

244 However, we argued above that SMIs are more often deployed by brands to promote
245 unhealthy compared to healthy foods (e.g., Coates et al., 2019a). Research shows that mothers

246 do not appreciate the ‘picture perfect’ that is often portrayed by other mothers on social media.
247 In contrary, they often turn to social media to find mother-to-mother support and real
248 representations of motherhood (Archer, 2018). In the context of influencers, research indeed
249 suggests that parents often appreciate the honesty and authenticity of the life that is being
250 portrayed on the profiles of SMIs (Jun & Yi, 2020). As typical mom influencers adopt a self-
251 disclosure style and talk about their everyday life as a mother, we expect that they might get
252 away with the promotion of unhealthy food, under the guise of honest parenthood. In the context
253 of online blogs, Orton-Johnson (2017) indeed explains that content in which mom bloggers
254 show their struggles and shortcomings is more relatable for other mothers, which might help
255 them to feel better about themselves. This could imply that the endorsement of mom influencers
256 for unhealthy food is highly liked and persuasive among their followers, as it reflects realistic
257 motherhood. We therefore aim to further investigate the differential impact of expert versus
258 typical mom influencers for the promotion of healthy versus unhealthy food. We expect that,
259 while a nutritional expert (i.e., expert influencer) might be more successful in promoting healthy
260 food due to their higher perceived level of credibility related to the product category of food
261 (cf. H5), it might appear odd when they promote unhealthy food, as this product type is
262 incongruent with their expertise and image. Given the appreciation for authentic and honest
263 motherhood experiences, we hypothesize that a typical (vs. expert) mom influencer will
264 enhance perceived brand congruence when she promotes an unhealthy (vs. healthy) snack,
265 whereby the three dependent variables (a, b and c) would be positively affected in turn (H6).
266 The hypothesized effects as depicted in the conceptual model (cf. Figure 1) will be tested by
267 two experimental studies.

268

269 2 EXPERIMENT 1

270 2.1 Method

271 2.1.1 Design, procedure, and participants

272 A 2-level between-subjects online experiment (brand post versus mom influencer post)
273 was conducted among 81 mothers between 19 and 53 years ($M = 30.6$, $SD = 6.10$). The
274 respondents were recruited through the Prolific panel, and we had three criteria to participate
275 in the study: respondents had to be female, have at least one child below 12 years and have an
276 Instagram account. The mothers had between one and five children ($M = 1.51$, $SD = .73$), and
277 these children had an age ranging from zero to 28 years (with each mother having at least one
278 child below 12 years).

279 Before participation in the study, participants had to fill in an informed consent form
280 that informed them of the approximate duration of the study, the fact that all data are collected
281 and processed anonymously and that they can opt out at any moment during the study. In total,
282 100 respondents were recruited for the study, but 19 respondents were removed for the formal
283 analyses because they did not meet one or more of the criteria or because they failed an attention
284 check. One group of respondents was exposed to a sponsored Instagram post (promoting an
285 unhealthy snack) posted by a brand, while the other group was exposed to the same post posted
286 by a mom influencer. Afterwards, respondents filled in the same questionnaire.

287 2.1.2 Stimulus material

288 The respondents were either exposed to a sponsored Instagram post posted by a brand
289 or a mom influencer. This Instagram post was the same in both conditions and presented a
290 picture of two girls eating a lollipop of the brand Tuttifrutti, a candy brand. We used a non-
291 existent brand in the stimuli material to exclude any confounding effects with regard to existing
292 brand knowledge and attitudes.

293 For the brand post condition (see Figure 1), the Instagram post was posted by the brand,
294 by including the brand's logo as profile picture and the brand name Tuttifrutti as name of the
295 source of the post. The respondents were asked to imagine certain scenarios as described in
296 detail in Table 3. The manipulation of a brand post is similar as in the study of De Jans et al.
297 (2020). In particular, the advertising disclosure "Sponsored" was included below the brand
298 name as is done in real life on Instagram. In the description of the scenario, we explicitly
299 mention "You follow this influencer on Instagram". This last sentence was included to make
300 sure that the participants perceived the post as an Instagram post of an influencer that they
301 follow on Instagram. This manipulation of influencer post was also based on the manipulation
302 of an influencer post in the study of De Jans et al. (2020). Underneath the profile picture and
303 name, the standard Instagram advertising disclosure used by influencers was incorporated:
304 "Paid partnership with Tuttifrutti_uk".

305 2.1.3 Measures

306 All the items were measured on five-point scales. After measuring the socio-
307 demographics, post liking was measured with the item "How much do you like the Instagram
308 post you have seen from the brand Tuttifrutti/influencer Charlie?" ranging from "not at all" to
309 "I really like it" ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .98$). Further, source credibility (consisting of the dimensions
310 trustworthiness and expertise) was measured with 10 semantic differentials following Ohanian
311 (1990) ("What do you think of the brand Tuttifrutti/Charlie?", e.g. undependable – dependable;
312 $\alpha = .93$, $M = 3.40$, $SD = .77$). Post engagement was gauged using three items ranging from
313 "definitely not" to "definitely" (e.g., "I would comment on this Instagram post"; $\alpha = .78$, $M =$
314 2.45 , $SD = .93$). In addition, purchase intention was measured with three items such as "I can
315 imagine buying snacks from Tuttifrutti" from "totally disagree" to "totally agree" (Holzwarth
316 et al., 2006; $\alpha = .83$, $M = 3.28$, $SD = .90$). Finally, child appropriateness was also measured with
317 three items ranging from "definitely not" to "definitely" (e.g., "Do you think this Tuttifrutti

318 snack is good for your child(ren)?"; $\alpha = .85$, $M = 3.12$, $SD = .97$). For an overview of all
319 measures, see Table 1.

320 **2.2 Results**

321 *2.2.1 Randomization*

322 The sample in our experimental conditions did not differ with respect to age ($t(79) = -$
323 $.08$, $p = .937$) of the mothers, average number ($t(72) = .51$, $p = .614$), degree ($\chi(2) = 3.48$, $p =$
324 $.175$) and age ($t(72) = .21$, $p = .614$) of their child(ren), degree ($\chi(2) = 3.48$, $p = .175$), brand
325 familiarity ($\chi(1) = 2.18$, $p = .140$), hunger at the moment of the study ($t(77) = .76$, $p = .447$),
326 how much they like candy ($t(79) = .93$, $p = .357$) and Instagram involvement ($t(79) = .05$, $p =$
327 $.960$).

328 *2.2.2 Manipulation check*

329 From the respondents that saw the brand post, 78.6% indicated to have seen an
330 Instagram post posted by a brand, 14.3% by an influencer and 7.1% indicated that they did not
331 know. In addition, when the respondents saw an Instagram post by an influencer, 97.4% said
332 that they saw a post posted by an influencer and 2.6% by a brand. Hence, our manipulation of
333 the source of the sponsored post was successful.

334 *2.2.3 The effectiveness of a corporate brand vs. mom influencer*

335 See Table 2 for the main effects of source type (brand post versus mom influencer post)
336 on all mediating and dependent variables (analyzed using a MANOVA). A serial mediation
337 analysis (via Process Macro by Hayes (2017); model 6, 5000 bootstrap samples) was conducted
338 with source of the sponsored post as independent variable, post likeability and source credibility
339 as mediators, and post engagement as the dependent variable. The index of the serial mediation
340 was significant ($B = .11$, $SE = .06$, $95\%CI = [.0192, .2398]$). First, the analysis shows a main
341 effect of source of the sponsored post on post liking ($a = .54$, $SE = .21$, $t = 2.57$, $p = .012$),
342 showing that mothers like the sponsored Instagram post more when it is posted by a mom

343 influencer ($M = 3.56, SD = .82$) compared to a brand ($M = 3.02, SD = 1.05$). Post liking further
344 positively affects source credibility ($b = .43, SE = .08, t = 5.51, p < .001$), which subsequently
345 increases post engagement ($d_1 = .47, SE = .11, t = 4.10, p < .001$). The direct effect of source
346 of the sponsored post on post engagement was not significant ($c'_1 = .06, SE = .16, t = .38, p =$
347 $.709$). These results confirm H1 and H2a.

348 We conducted another serial mediation analysis (PROCESS; model 6 by Hayes (2017);
349 5000 bootstrap samples) with the same independent and mediating variables, but now with child
350 appropriateness of the food as the dependent variable. The index of the serial mediation was
351 also significant ($B = .13, SE = .07, 95\%CI = [.0270, .2910]$). As indicated above, exposure to a
352 mom influencer post resulted in more post liking compared to a brand post, which increases
353 source credibility, and further child appropriateness ($d_2 = .57, SE = .14, t = 4.12, p < .001$). The
354 direct effect was not significant ($c'_2 = .06, SE = .19, t = .33, p = .744$). H2b is confirmed.

355 Finally, a third serial mediation analysis with purchase intention as the dependent
356 variable showed similar results, with mothers liking the mom influencer post more than the
357 brand post, resulting in higher source credibility and subsequently higher purchase intentions
358 ($d_3 = .36, SE = .13, t = 2.72, p = .008; B = .08, SE = .05, 95\%CI = [.0073, .2037]$). The direct
359 effect was also not significant ($c'_3 = -.23, SE = .18, t = -1.25, p = .215$). These results also
360 confirm H2c. See Figure 3 for an overview of the results.

361

362 **3 EXPERIMENT 2**

363 **3.1 Method**

364 *3.1.1 Design, procedure and participants*

365 For the second study, we conducted a 2 (influencer type: expert versus typical mom
366 influencer) by 2 (product type: unhealthy versus healthy snack) between-subjects experimental

367 design among 169 women between 19 and 58 years ($M = 30.77$, $SD = 6.95$). The respondents
368 for the second experiment were also recruited using the Prolific panel and we used to same
369 inclusion criteria. The mothers had between one and five children ($M = 1.56$, $SD = .84$), ranging
370 from zero to 29 years. Each mother had at least one child below 12 years.

371 The participants were also asked to fill in the same informed consent form. In total, 170
372 respondents were recruited from which one was excluded from the formal analysis as they failed
373 an attention check. The participants were first exposed to an Instagram profile of either a typical
374 mom influencer or an expert mom influencer (nutrition specialist) and were then exposed to a
375 sponsored Instagram post for either an unhealthy or healthy snack of that same influencer.
376 Afterwards, they filled in the same questionnaire.

377 3.1.2 *Stimulus material*

378 To manipulate influencer type, participants were first exposed to the Instagram profile
379 of either a typical mom influencer (see Figure 4) or an expert mom influencer (see Figure 5).
380 Before exposure to this Instagram profile, participants were asked to carefully read a text. These
381 final descriptions were carefully selected and optimized based on two pretests (cf. pretest 1 and
382 pretest 2). See Table 3 for how the descriptions for the manipulation of influencer type evolved
383 based on the results of the pretests. The Instagram profiles were as similar as possible: they
384 contained the same profile picture, name, number of posts, number of followers, number of
385 following and feed. However, the information in the bio differed by adding “Nutrition
386 specialist” and “Evidence based | Nutrition advise” to the profile in the expert mom influencer
387 condition compared to “Famous person” and “Celeb mom | Mom influencer” in the typical
388 mom influencer condition. This manipulation was determined based on two pretests.

389 After that, the participants saw an individual Instagram post of that same influencer. The
390 Instagram post was identical in both conditions (picture, caption, hashtags, advertising
391 disclosure, etc.), with the only difference being the promoted product (healthy or unhealthy).

392 For the unhealthy snack condition (see Figure 6), participants saw a picture of two girls eating
393 a lollipop of the brand TuttiFrutti. This was the same picture and brand as in experiment 1. In
394 addition, for the condition with the healthy snack (see Figure 7), the participants were exposed
395 to the exact same picture but now with the two girls eating a carrot.

396 3.1.3 Pretest 1

397 52 respondents ($M_{age} = 31.25$, $SD = 5.60$; 65.4% women) that did not participate in the
398 main experiment were recruited for the first pretest. For the manipulation of snack type, the
399 pretest showed that participants perceived the unhealthy snack as less healthy ($M = 2.40$, $SD =$
400 1.26) compared to the healthy snack ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .75$; $t(39) = -6.28$, $p < .001$; “How healthy
401 do you think the snacks from the post are?”). Thus, the manipulation of snack type was
402 successful.

403 For the manipulation of influencer type, respondents were either exposed to the profile
404 of the expert mom influencer or the typical mom influencer, without a textual description about
405 that influencer. However, the results of the first pretest showed that the manipulation of
406 influencer type was not successful. In particular, there were no differences between the expert
407 influencer and mom influencer conditions on the items “Charlie’s activities on Instagram
408 constitute her main job” ($t(50) = -1.13$, $p = .266$), “Charlie has a degree in nutrition” ($t(50) = -$
409 1.70 , $p = .095$) nor on the five-point semantic differential how they would classify Charlie
410 (“Mom influencer” – “expert influencer”) ($t(50) = -.57$, $p = .572$). We therefore decided to
411 adjust the manipulation of influencer type by adding a description of the influencers before
412 showing the participants the Instagram profile. These descriptions were tested in the second
413 pretest.

414 3.1.4 Pretest 2

415 The second pretest was conducted among 52 participants ($M_{age} = 32.33$, $SD = 6.71$;
416 82.7% female) that did not participate in pretest 1 nor the main experiment. This pretest tested

417 the adjusted manipulation of influencer type based on pretest 1 (including the descriptions, see
418 Table 2) and showed that the item “Charlie’s main job is pediatric nutrition specialist” scored
419 higher in the expert influencer condition ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 1.23$) compared to the typical mom
420 influencer condition ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 1.16$; $t(50) = -5.96$, $p < .001$). However, there was no
421 significant difference on the item “Charlie’s activities on Instagram constitute her main job”
422 ($t(50) = .16$, $p = .874$). When asking the participants how they would mainly describe Charlie
423 (as a mom influencer or a nutrition specialist), 96.2% indicated as a mom influencer in the mom
424 influencer condition, however, only 64% indicated as a nutrition specialist in the expert
425 influencer condition. Based on these results, we deemed that the manipulation of influencer
426 type was again not sufficient. We therefore adapted the descriptions of the influencers once
427 more for the actual experiment (see the descriptions in the stimuli material-section).

428 3.1.5 Measures

429 Source credibility ($\alpha = .92$, $M = 3.86$, $SD = .77$), post engagement ($\alpha = .78$, $M = 2.80$,
430 $SD = 1.06$), child appropriateness ($\alpha = .90$, $M = 3.50$, $SD = 1.15$) and purchase intention ($\alpha =$
431 $.93$, $M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.16$) were measured using the same scales as in experiment 1. In addition,
432 influencer-brand congruence was gauged using three five-point semantic differentials following
433 Martínez-López et al. (2020) (e.g., “There is a bad fit between Charlie and the brand Tuttifrutti
434 – There is a good fit between Charlie and the brand Tuttifrutti”; $\alpha = .90$, $M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.03$).

435 3.2 Results

436 3.2.1 Randomization

437 The sample in our experimental conditions did not differ regarding age ($F(3, 164) = .45$,
438 $p = .717$) of the mothers, average age ($F(1, 146) = .534$, $p = .466$) and number ($F(1, 165) =$
439 $.613$, $p = .435$) of children, degree ($\chi(6) = 3.19$, $p = .784$), brand familiarity ($\chi(3) = .31$, $p =$
440 $.958$), influencer familiarity ($\chi(3) = 2.86$, $p = .414$), hunger at the moment of the study ($F(3,$

441 165) = 1.18, $p = .318$), how much they like candy ($F(3, 165) = .29, p = .836$), how much they
442 like carrots ($F(3, 165) = .72, p = .542$) and Instagram involvement ($F(3, 165) = 1.02, p = .384$).

443 3.2.2 *Manipulation check*

444 Participants scored higher on the item “Charlie’s main job is managing her Instagram
445 profile” in the typical mom influencer condition ($M = 3.83, SD = 1.02$) compared to the expert
446 influencer condition ($M = 2.44, SD = 1.33; t(159) = 7.62, p < .001$). In addition, the item
447 “Charlie’s main job is pediatric nutrition specialist” was scored higher in the expert influencer
448 ($M = 4.42, SD = .96$) compared to the typical mom influencer condition ($M = 2.19, SD = 1.06;$
449 $t(164) = -14.24, p < .001$). Thus, the manipulation of influencer type was successful.

450 Moreover, the snacks from the Instagram post were perceived as more healthy in the
451 healthy snack condition ($M = 4.75, SD = .46$) compared to the unhealthy snack condition ($M =$
452 $3.12, SD = 1.19; t(168) = -17.50, p < .001$). The manipulation of snack type also showed to be
453 successful.

454 3.2.3 *The effectiveness of an expert vs typical mom influencer*

455 See Table 4 for the main effects of influencer type (expert versus typical mom
456 influencer) on all mediating and dependent variables (analyzed using a MANOVA). First, a
457 multiple mediation analysis using Process Macro (model 4, Hayes (2017), 5000 bootstrap
458 samples) was conducted to examine how influencer type (independent variable) affects post
459 engagement (dependent variable) via source credibility¹ and influencer-brand congruence
460 (mediating variables). While there is a significant indirect effect via source credibility ($B = -$

¹ Unlike for study I, the variable *post likeability* was not included as a prerequisite of credibility in study II. While prior research has repeatedly shown that social media influencers are perceived as more likeable among their followers compared to a corporate brand (e.g., De Veirman et al., 2017; Myers, 2021; Taillon et al., 2020), we did not include this construct in the second study. That is because, based on the literature review, we did not expect that the nuance between the two types of influencers (who are both mom influencers), would have a significant impact on the perceived likeability of their content, but we did expect it to directly affect their credibility instead. To verify this, we did, however, test the role of likeability within all models of study II. As expected, likeability did not have a significant driving role in the context of study two, whereas all regression models turned insignificant when including post likeability as a first mediator in the models.

461 .21, $SE = .10$, $95\%CI = [-.4227, -.0214]$), the indirect effect through influencer-brand
462 congruence is not significant ($B = .04$, $SE = .03$, $95\%CI = [-.0036, .1070]$). In particular, an
463 expert influencer ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .78$) is perceived as more credible than a typical mom
464 influencer ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .74$; $a_1 = -.26$, $SE = .12$, $t = -2.22$, $p = .028$). In addition, a typical
465 mom influencer ($M = 4.40$, $SD = .83$) is perceived as more congruent with the brand compared
466 to an expert mom influencer ($M = 4.04$, $SD = 1.17$; $a_2 = .36$, $SE = .17$, $t = 2.31$, $p = .022$). Source
467 credibility ($b_1 = .82$, $SE = .09$, $t = 8.90$, $p < .001$), but not influencer-brand congruence ($b_4 =$
468 $.11$, $SE = .07$, $t = 1.54$, $p = .164$), further enhances post engagement. Thus, H3a is confirmed,
469 but H4a cannot be confirmed.

470 Another multiple mediation analysis was conducted with the same variables, but now
471 with child appropriateness as the dependent variable. Both the indirect effects via source
472 credibility ($B = -.12$, $SE = .06$, $95\%CI = [-.2421, -.0148]$) and influencer-brand congruence (B
473 $= .17$, $SE = .08$, $95\%CI = [.0307, .3362]$) were significant. As indicated above, the expert
474 influencer is perceived as more credible but less congruent with the brand compared to the
475 typical mom influencer. Both source credibility ($b_2 = .45$, $SE = .10$, $t = 4.35$, $p < .001$) and
476 influencer-brand congruence ($b_5 = .48$, $SE = .08$, $t = 6.25$, $p < .001$) positively affect child
477 appropriateness. This confirms both H3b and H4b.

478 Finally, we conducted a third multiple mediation analysis (Process Macro; model 4 by
479 Hayes (2017), 5000 bootstrap samples) with purchase intention as the dependent variable.
480 Again, both the indirect effects via source credibility ($B = -.13$, $SE = .07$, $95\%CI = [-.2839, -$
481 $.0138]$) and influencer-brand congruence ($B = .13$, $SE = .07$, $95\%CI = [.0188, .2775]$) were
482 significant. Moreover, both source credibility ($b_3 = .49$, $SE = .11$, $t = 4.45$, $p < .001$) and
483 influencer-brand congruence positively affect purchase intention ($b_6 = .37$, $SE = .08$, $t = 4.45$,
484 $p < .001$), confirming both H3c and H4c.

485 3.2.4 *The moderating role of snack type*

486 Finally, we investigated the moderating role of snack type by conducting three
487 moderated mediation analyses (Process Macro; model 7; Hayes (2017), 5000 bootstrap
488 samples) with influencer type as the independent variable, snack type as moderator, source
489 credibility and influencer-brand congruence as mediators, and post engagement (analysis 1),
490 child appropriateness (analysis 2) and purchase intention (analysis 3) as the dependent
491 variables.

492 The first moderated mediation analysis with post engagement as the dependent variable
493 shows that while there is no interaction effect of influencer type and snack type on source
494 credibility ($B = -.20$, $SE = .24$, $t = -.84$, $p = .403$, cf. Figure 8), there is an interaction effect on
495 influencer-brand congruence ($B = -.82$, $SE = .30$, $t = -2.70$, $p = .008$, cf. Figure 9). The
496 conditional effects indicate that the typical mom influencer is only perceived as more congruent
497 with the brand when an unhealthy snack is promoted ($B = .76$, $SE = .21$, $t = 3.57$, $p = .001$) and
498 not when a healthy snack high is promoted ($B = -.06$, $SE = .21$, $t = -.26$, $p = .796$). However,
499 influencer-brand congruence did not affect post engagement in turn. H5a and H6a cannot be
500 confirmed.

501 The moderated mediation analysis with child appropriateness as the dependent variable
502 shows that the index of the moderated mediation is significant ($B = -.39$, $SE = .15$, $95\%CI = [-$
503 $.7112$, $-.1106]$). As indicated above, the interaction effect of influencer type and snack type on
504 source credibility was not significant, but the interaction effect on influencer-brand congruence
505 was. In addition, influencer-brand congruence positively affected child appropriateness. Thus,
506 when an unhealthy snack was promoted, the typical mom influencer was perceived as more
507 congruent with the brand than the expert mom influencer, resulting in more child
508 appropriateness ($B = .36$, $SE = .13$, $95\%CI = [.1269$, $.6396]$), confirming H6b. There was no

509 difference between the typical mom influencer and expert influencer when the healthy snack
510 was promoted ($B = -.03$, $SE = .08$, $95\%CI = [-.1845, .1384]$). H5b cannot be confirmed.

511 Finally, similar results were found with purchase intention as the dependent variable,
512 showing a significant index of the moderated mediation ($B = -.30$, $SE = .13$, $95\%CI = [-.5703$,
513 $-.0870]$). Thus, when an unhealthy snack was promoted ($B = .28$, $SE = .11$, $95\%CI = [.0957$,
514 $.5212]$), but not when a healthy snack was promoted ($B = -.02$, $SE = .06$, $95\%CI = [-.1492$,
515 $.1037]$), the typical mom influencer was perceived as more congruent with the brand,
516 subsequently leading to more purchase intention. While H5c cannot be confirmed, H6c is
517 confirmed. See Figure 10 for an overview of the results of experiment 2.

518 **4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

519 This article presents the results of two experimental studies to examine the effectiveness
520 of mom influencers in promoting food to other mothers. The first experiment aimed to examine
521 whether a mom influencer post is more efficient in promoting food to other mothers compared
522 to a standard sponsored post of a brand. In addition, in the second experiment we compared the
523 effectiveness of a typical versus expert mom influencer in promoting healthy versus unhealthy
524 snacks, and whether and how the underlying mechanisms of source credibility and influencer-
525 brand congruence can explain this.

526 Given the wide range of negative short and long-term consequences of childhood
527 obesity, a broad range of research investigated this topic. While various studies aimed to
528 understand how food marketing on traditional media platforms works (Norman et al., 2016) it
529 is argued that food and beverage companies are increasingly shifting their advertising budgets
530 from broadcast to digital spaces (Powell et al., 2013). Even though today's parents are also
531 increasingly spending time and even look for health information on these digital platforms
532 nowadays (Eurostat, 2021), little is known about how those highly embedded types of
533 advertising directed to parents are operating. The current study shows that a commercial social

534 media post coming from a mom influencer is significantly more efficient in terms of
535 engagement with the social media post, child appropriateness perceptions of the food and
536 purchase intentions among mothers compared to a commercial social media post coming from
537 a corporate brand. This is in line with previous research arguing that digital marketing and
538 influencer marketing is strongly affecting children's and young people's attitudes and behaviors
539 towards unhealthy commodity (Buchanan et al., 2018; Coates et al., 2019a; Coates et al.,
540 2019b). Our study contributes to these findings by showing that influencer marketing
541 specifically directed to parents (mothers in our study), also strongly affects their attitudes and
542 behavioral intentions towards unhealthy food products for their children. In sum, the first
543 experimental study of this paper thus shows that a mom influencer is more effective in
544 promoting food compared to a brand. This is in line with previous research that showed that
545 influencers are perceived as more likeable compared to corporate brands, and the assumption
546 that influencers are thereby considered credible sources of information (Myers, 2021; Taillon
547 et al., 2020). However, it should be noted that this was the promotion of an unhealthy snack,
548 which indicates that mom influencers promoting unhealthy food may affect mothers' unhealthy
549 food choices for their children, thereby even contributing to the unhealthy diet of children.

550 Therefore, the second study of this paper further investigated the moderating impact of
551 the healthiness of the promoted snack and the differing role of a mom versus a nutrition expert
552 influencer. On the one hand, the results of our study show that, that an expert mom influencer
553 is perceived as more credible than a typical mom influencer, independent of the type of snack
554 (healthy or unhealthy) that is promoted, leading to higher post engagement, child
555 appropriateness of the food and purchase intention. Thus, experts in the field that share their
556 content to their followers are perceived as more credible compared to mothers that do not have
557 an education on the topic and merely share their own experiences. On the other hand, a typical
558 mom influencer is perceived as being more congruent with the brand, which increases mothers'

559 perception of the child appropriateness of the food and their purchase intention towards the
560 snack. However, when considering the different effects for healthy versus unhealthy snacks,
561 our results show that typical mom influencers are mainly effective in promoting unhealthy food,
562 while nutrition experts are more efficient in promoting healthy food on social media. Previous
563 research investigating the impact of digital nutrition promotion towards parents drew the
564 attention towards the fact that there is a great lack of credible evidence-based nutrition
565 information on the internet, presented to parents in an interactive and collaborative manner
566 (Zarnowiecki et al., 2020). Our findings suggest that social network sites might represent a
567 promising tool for nutrition experts to communicate their message towards today's parents.
568 Besides, our finding concerning the particular potency of typical mom influencers to promote
569 unhealthy but not healthy food is in line with previous research showing that influencer
570 marketing towards children was effective in promoting the food intake of unhealthy but not
571 healthy food (Coates et al., 2019b). An important take-away of the second experiment is related
572 to the development of the experimental material. More concretely, the manipulation of expert
573 vs. typical mom influencer had to be made very conspicuous for the respondents to actually
574 identify the influencers as intended. We believe that especially for mom influencers (as opposed
575 to, for example, fashion influencers), the lines between an expert and typical influencer might
576 be particularly blurry as an ordinary mom can also be perceived as an 'expert' due to her real-
577 life knowledge and practice with motherhood (Price et al., 2018). Future research could aim to
578 explore which factors are used by followers to assess the expertise of a mom influencer.
579 Together with the results of our studies, this could help practitioners to help selecting the best
580 endorser for healthy food promotion campaigns, for example. Besides, even beyond the scope
581 of nutrition information, it might be interesting to know which influencers are considered
582 credible, as mothers often consult the internet for pediatric information seeking as doctor's
583 offices are not always reachable (Bernhardt & Felter, 2004). As governments are starting to

584 collaborate with influencers to reach the public (e.g. Bolat, E. 2020), based on our results, it
585 might be interesting for governmental organizations to collaborate with expert influencers to
586 spread reliable and easily accessible information through the platforms that are commonly
587 assessed for information-seeking by today's mothers.

588 Given the large reach and persuasive power of these mom influencers, this finding also
589 raises some ethical considerations, which calls for alertness and gives rise to some important
590 recommendations for public policy and advertising practice. First, based on these results, mom
591 influencers in general could be made aware of their potential impact on other parents and
592 consequently on these children's unhealthy food intake, and asked to pay particular attention to
593 the nutritional value of the products they are considering promoting. Furthermore, while there
594 are already considerable policy concerns regarding the protection of children towards unhealthy
595 food advertising, the current study underlines the importance to look beyond the traditional
596 advertising types and focus on the category of the endorsed product (i.e. children's food) instead
597 of the age group of the targets of the advertising, as is done now in, for example, the EU Pledge
598 (Calvert, 2021). More specifically, the results of our study encourage to not only provide
599 regulations regarding food marketing directed to children, but also to their parents and to
600 accelerate the process to develop regulations for social network platforms and influencer
601 marketing in particular. Finally, our findings show that typical mom influencers were
602 significantly less credible compared to nutrition experts when promoting healthy food. Based
603 on these results, two suggestions can be made. First, organizations or institutions promoting
604 healthy food habits among children should therefore consider cooperating with expert mom
605 influencers to spread their message to the current generation of mothers. Second, future research
606 should investigate how this lack of credibility for typical mom influencers when promoting
607 healthy food can be countered.

608 To conclude, this paper also has some limitations that translate into suggestions for
609 further research. First, fictitious influencers were used for the stimulus material in both studies
610 to exclude confounding effects regarding existing influencer familiarity and attitudes. This
611 decision was made since we compared two influencer types in the second experiment whereby
612 we had to keep all influencer characteristics constant between the conditions expect for their
613 niche. Nonetheless, this has an impact on the validity of the results. It might be expected that
614 existing mom influencers, with whom their followers developed a great para-social and trust
615 relation, might exert an even greater influence on their followers. However, the fact that we
616 found abovementioned results without this bond between influencer and follower confirms the
617 influential potential of mom influencers. Further, while the attitudes and behavioral intentions
618 of mothers were measured within the current study, it might be interesting for future research
619 to adopt a more longitudinal approach and investigate whether the impact of the mom
620 influencers are further translated into the actual food intake of the children or in long-term
621 persisting food habits within the household. Also, being the first study investigating how the
622 decision-making process of caregivers regarding children's food is affected by influencer
623 marketing, we consciously chose to focus on mothers only. As explained before, they are argued
624 to have the greatest impact on the choices regarding child feeding practices (Rahill et al., 2020)
625 and are more often on the lookout for health information online (Duggan et al., 2015). However,
626 fathers are increasingly involved in today's households (Rahill et al., 2020), and were not taken
627 into account in the current study. Therefore, it might be interesting for future research to
628 investigate the decision-making process of fathers regarding children's food and what online
629 sources they rely on. To conclude, the sample of our studies existed of mothers with at least
630 one child below 12 years. This implies that many of them had multiple children, while previous
631 research argues that particularly first-time mothers are socially isolated and more likely to seek
632 for mothering information online in the period after having their firstborn (Price et al., 2018).

633 However, one might also expect that older mothers started following mom influencers earlier,
634 whereby they had more interactions with them, resulting in a stronger parasocial relationship
635 (Hartmann et al., 2008). It might be interesting for future research to investigate how the number
636 and age of their children affect the susceptibility of parents to influencers' opinions.

637

638 **5 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

639 While both researchers received financial funding for this work (cf. Funding), no other
640 individuals provided help with the set-up or writing of the current study.

641 **6 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

642 [blinded for review] contributed to the original conceptualization of the study,
643 developed the stimuli, performed analyses and wrote the original draft of the theoretical part
644 and discussion of the paper.

645 [blinded for review] contributed to the original conceptualization of the study,
646 performed analyses, and wrote the original draft of the methodological part of the paper.

647 **7 FUNDING**

648 This work was partially supported by [blinded for review] (grant numbers x and y).

649 **8 ETHICAL APPROVAL**

650 All research activities were approved by the University of [blinded for review].

651 **9 DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

652 The authors certify that there are no conflicts of interest to declare. All authors have
653 reviewed and approved the final manuscript and accept full responsibility for all aspects of the
654 work described here.

655

656 **REFERENCES**

- 657 Abidin, C. (2015). Micromicrocelebrity: Branding Babies on the Internet. *M/C Journal*, 18(5).
658 <https://doi.org/10.5204/mcj.1022>
- 659 Abidin, C., & Ots, M. (2015). *The Influencer's dilemma: The shaping of new brand professions*
660 *between credibility and commerce*. Paper presented at the AEJMC 2015, Annual
661 Conference, San Fransisco, CA, August 6-9.
- 662 Alruwaily, A., Mangold, C., Greene, T., Arshonsky, J., Cassidy, O., Pomeranz, J. L., & Bragg,
663 M. (2020). Child social media influencers and unhealthy food product placement.
664 *Pediatrics*, 146(5).
- 665 Archer, C., & Kao, K. T. (2018). Mother, baby and Facebook makes three: does social media
666 provide social support for new mothers?. *Media International Australia*, 168(1), 122-
667 139.
- 668 Archer, C. (2019). How influencer 'mumpreneur'bloggers and 'everyday'mums frame
669 presenting their children online. *Media International Australia*, 170(1), 47-56.
- 670 Advertising Standards Authority (31/07/2021). Recognising ads: Social media and influencer
671 marketing. <https://www.asa.org.uk/advice-online/recognising-ads-social-media.html>
- 672 Belanche, D., Casaló, L. V., Flavián, M., & Ibáñez-Sánchez, S. (2021). Understanding
673 influencer marketing: The role of congruence between influencers, products and
674 consumers. *Journal of Business Research*, 132, 186-195.
- 675 Bernhardt, J. M., & Felter, E. M. (2004). Online pediatric information seeking among mothers
676 of young children: results from a qualitative study using focus groups. *Journal of*
677 *medical Internet research*, 6(1), e36.
- 678 Birch, L. L., & Fisher, J. O. (1998). Development of eating behaviors among children and
679 adolescents. *Pediatrics*, 101(Supplement 2), 539-549.

680 Binder, A., Naderer, B., & Matthes, J. (2020). Experts, peers, or celebrities? The role of
681 different social endorsers on children's fruit choice. *Appetite*, *155*, 104821.

682 Blum-Ross, A., & Livingstone, S. (2017). "Sharenting," parent blogging, and the boundaries of
683 the digital self. *Popular communication*, *15*(2), 110-125.

684 Bolat, E. (2020). Why the UK government is paying social media influencers to post about
685 coronavirus. *The Conversation*, (9 September 2020).

686 Boerman, S. C., & Müller, C. M. (2022). Understanding which cues people use to identify
687 influencer marketing on Instagram: an eye tracking study and experiment. *International*
688 *Journal of Advertising*, *41*(1), 6-29.

689 Boyland, E. J., Burgon, R. H., & Hardman, C. A. (2017). Reactivity to television food
690 commercials in overweight and lean adults: physiological, cognitive and behavioural
691 responses. *Physiology & behavior*, *177*, 182-188.

692 Bragg, M. A., Pageot, Y. K., Amico, A., Miller, A. N., Gasbarre, A., Rummo, P. E., & Elbel,
693 B. (2020). Fast food, beverage, and snack brands on social media in the United States:
694 An examination of marketing techniques utilized in 2000 brand posts. *Pediatric obesity*,
695 *15*(5), e12606.

696 Breves, P. L., Liebers, N., Abt, M., & Kunze, A. (2019). The perceived fit between instagram
697 influencers and the endorsed brand: How influencer–brand fit affects source credibility
698 and persuasive effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *59*(4), 440-454.

699 Buchanan, L., Kelly, B., Yeatman, H., & Kariippanon, K. (2018). The effects of digital
700 marketing of unhealthy commodities on young people: a systematic review. *Nutrients*,
701 *10*(2), 148.

702 Calvert, E. (2021). Food marketing to children needs rules with teeth: A snapshot report about
703 how self-regulation fails to prevent unhealthy food to be marketed to children. *Bureau*

704 *Européen des Unions de Consommateurs*. [https://www.beuc.eu/publications/beuc-x-](https://www.beuc.eu/publications/beuc-x-2021-084_food_marketing_to_children_needs_rules_with_teeth.pdf)
705 [2021-084_food_marketing_to_children_needs_rules_with_teeth.pdf](https://www.beuc.eu/publications/beuc-x-2021-084_food_marketing_to_children_needs_rules_with_teeth.pdf)

706 Chaiken, S. (1987). The heuristic model of persuasion. In *Social influence: the ontario*
707 *symposium* (Vol. 5, pp. 3-39).

708 Cheng, K. (2020). Health Oriented Lifelong Nutrition Controls: Pre-venting Cardiovascular
709 Diseases Caused by Obesity. *SM J Nutr Metab*, 6(5).

710 Coates, A. E., Hardman, C. A., Halford, J. C., Christiansen, P., & Boyland, E. J. (2019a). Food
711 and beverage cues featured in YouTube videos of social media influencers popular with
712 children: An exploratory study. *Frontiers in psychology*, 10, 2142.

713 Coates, A. E., Hardman, C. A., Halford, J. C., Christiansen, P., & Boyland, E. J. (2019b). Social
714 media influencer marketing and children's food intake: a randomized trial. *Pediatrics*,
715 143(4).

716 Coates, A. E., Hardman, C. A., Halford, J. C. G., Christiansen, P., & Boyland, E. J. (2019c).
717 The effect of influencer marketing of food and a "protective" advertising disclosure on
718 children's food intake. *Pediatric obesity*, 14(10), e12540.

719 Cochran, M., & Niego, S. (2002). Parenting and social networks. *Handbook of parenting*
720 *volume 4 social conditions and applied parenting*, 122.

721 Cruwys, T., Bevelander, K. E., & Hermans, R. C. (2015). Social modeling of eating: A review
722 of when and why social influence affects food intake and choice. *Appetite*, 86, 3-18.

723 Dailybits (19/05/2022). Online influencers wat zijn de regels?
724 <https://www.dailybits.be/item/blogger-online-influential-regels/>

725 De Veirman, M., Cauberghe, V., & Hudders, L. (2017). Marketing through Instagram
726 influencers: the impact of number of followers and product divergence on brand
727 attitude. *International Journal of Advertising*, 36(5), 798-828.

728 Duggan, M., Lenhart, A., Lampe, C., & Ellison, N. B. (2015). Parents and social media. *Pew*
729 *Research Center, 16*(1), 2.

730 Eurostat. (2021). ICT usage in households and by individuals: Internet use. Retrieved
731 26/01/2022

732 Feng, Y., Chen, H., & Kong, Q. (2021). An expert with whom I can identify: The role of
733 narratives in influencer marketing. *International Journal of Advertising, 40*(7), 972-
734 993.

735 Folkvord, F., & de Bruijne, M. (2020). The effect of the promotion of vegetables by a social
736 influencer on adolescents' subsequent vegetable intake: a pilot study. *International*
737 *journal of environmental research and public health, 17*(7), 2243.

738 Garrido-Miguel, M., Oliveira, A., Cavero-Redondo, I., Álvarez-Bueno, C., Pozuelo-
739 Carrascosa, D. P., Soriano-Cano, A., & Martínez-Vizcaíno, V. (2019). Prevalence of
740 overweight and obesity among European preschool children: a systematic review and
741 meta-regression by food group consumption. *Nutrients, 11*(7), 1698.

742 Harris, J. L., Bargh, J. A., & Brownell, K. D. (2009). Priming effects of television food
743 advertising on eating behavior. *Health psychology, 28*(4), 404.

744 Hartmann, T., Stuke, D., & Daschmann, G. (2008). Positive parasocial relationships with
745 drivers affect suspense in racing sport spectators. *Journal of Media Psychology:*
746 *Theories, Methods, and Applications, 20*(1), 24.

747 Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis:*
748 *A regression-based approach*: Guilford publications.

749 Hogleve, J., Matta, S., Hettich, A. S., & Reczek, R. W. (2021). How Do Social Norms Influence
750 Parents' Food Choices for Their Children? The Role of Social Comparison and Implicit
751 Self-Theories. *Journal of retailing, 97*(2), 173-190.

752 Jorge, A., Marôpo, L., Coelho, A. M., & Novello, L. (2021). Mummy influencers and
753 professional sharenting. *European Journal of Cultural Studies*, 13675494211004593.

754 Jun, S., & Yi, J. (2020). What makes followers loyal? The role of influencer interactivity in
755 building influencer brand equity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*.

756 Kamins, M. A. (1990). An investigation into the “match-up” hypothesis in celebrity advertising:
757 When beauty may be only skin deep. *Journal of advertising*, 19(1), 4-13.

758 Kaur, S., & Kumar, S. (2021). How sharenting drives shereb marketing: insights from an
759 interpretative phenomenological perspective. *Journal of Research in Interactive*
760 *Marketing*.

761 Khandpur, N., Blaine, R. E., Fisher, J. O., & Davison, K. K. (2014). Fathers’ child feeding
762 practices: A review of the evidence. *Appetite*, 78, 110-121.

763 Kim, J., & Song, H. (2016). Celebrity's self-disclosure on Twitter and parasocial relationships:
764 A mediating role of social presence. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 62, 570-577.

765 Koordeman, R., Anschutz, D. J., van Baaren, R. B., & Engels, R. C. (2010). Exposure to soda
766 commercials affects sugar-sweetened soda consumption in young women. An
767 observational experimental study. *Appetite*, 54(3), 619-622.

768 Linde, J. A., Dehmer, M. L. H., Lee, J., Friend, S., Flattum, C., Arcan, C., & Fulkerson, J. A.
769 (2022). Associations of parent dietary role modeling with children's diet quality in a
770 rural setting: Baseline data from the NU-HOME study. *Appetite*, 106007.

771 Lou, C., & Yuan, S. (2019). Influencer marketing: how message value and credibility affect
772 consumer trust of branded content on social media. *Journal of Interactive*
773 *Advertising*, 19(1), 58-73.

774 Martínez-Pastor, E., Vizcaíno-Laorga, R., & Atauri-Mezquida, D. (2021). Health-related food
775 advertising on kid YouTuber vlogger channels. *Heliyon*, 7(10), e08178.

776 Mishra, A. S., Roy, S., & Bailey, A. A. (2015). Exploring brand personality–celebrity endorser
777 personality congruence in celebrity endorsements in the Indian context. *Psychology &*
778 *Marketing*, 32(12), 1158-1174.

779 Moon, R. Y., Mathews, A., Oden, R., & Carlin, R. (2019). Mothers’ perceptions of the Internet
780 and social media as sources of parenting and health information: Qualitative study.
781 *Journal of medical Internet research*, 21(7), e14289.

782 Myers, S. (2021). Instagram Source Effects: The Impact of Familiarity and Likeability on
783 Influencer Outcomes. *Journal of Marketing Development and Competitiveness*, 15(3),
784 50-55.

785 Naderer, B. (2021). Advertising Unhealthy Food to Children: on the Importance of Regulations,
786 Parenting Styles, and Media Literacy. *Current Addiction Reports*, 8(1), 12-18.

787 Naderer, B., Matthes, J., & Spielvogel, I. (2019). How brands appear in children's movies. A
788 systematic content analysis of the past 25 Years. *International Journal of Advertising*,
789 38(2), 237-257.

790 Nieto, C., Jauregui, A., Contreras-Manzano, A., Kent, M. P., Sacks, G., White, C. M., Pauzé,
791 E., Vanderlee, L. & Hammond, D. (2022). Adults’ Exposure to Unhealthy Food and
792 Beverage Marketing: A Multi-country Study in Australia, Canada, Mexico, United
793 Kingdom, and United States. *The Journal of Nutrition*.

794 Norman, J., Kelly, B., Boyland, E., & McMahon, A.-T. (2016). The impact of marketing and
795 advertising on food behaviours: evaluating the evidence for a causal relationship.
796 *Current Nutrition Reports*, 5(3), 139-149.

797 Orton-Johnson, K. (2017). Mummy blogs and representations of motherhood: “Bad mummies”
798 and their readers. *Social Media+ Society*, 3(2), 2056305117707186.

799 Ouvrein, G. (2022). Mommy influencers: Helpful or harmful? The relationship between
800 exposure to mommy influencers and perceived parental self-efficacy among mothers
801 and primigravida. *New Media & Society*, 14614448221086296.

802 Paeratakul, S., Ferdinand, D. P., Champagne, C. M., Ryan, D. H., & Bray, G. A. (2003). Fast-
803 food consumption among US adults and children: dietary and nutrient intake profile.
804 *Journal of the American dietetic Association*, 103(10), 1332-1338.

805 Papamichael, M. M., Karaglani, E., Karatzi, K., Iotova, V., Kivelä, J., Cardon, G., . . . González-
806 Gil, E. M. (2021). Contribution of home availability, parental child-feeding practices
807 and health beliefs on children's sweets and salty snacks consumption in Europe:
808 Feel4Diabetes-Study. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 1-27.

809 Pedersen, S., Grønhøj, A., & Thøgersen, J. (2015). Following family or friends. Social norms
810 in adolescent healthy eating. *Appetite*, 86, 54-60.

811 Pelletier, J. E., & Laska, M. N. (2012). Balancing healthy meals and busy lives: associations
812 between work, school, and family responsibilities and perceived time constraints among
813 young adults. *Journal of nutrition education and behavior*, 44(6), 481-489.

814 Potvin Kent, M., Pauzé, E., Roy, E. A., de Billy, N., & Czoli, C. (2019). Children and
815 adolescents' exposure to food and beverage marketing in social media apps. *Pediatric*
816 *obesity*, 14(6), e12508.

817 Pöyry, E., Pelkonen, M., Naumanen, E., & Laaksonen, S. M. (2021). A call for authenticity:
818 Audience responses to social media influencer endorsements in strategic
819 communication. In *Social Media Influencers in Strategic Communication* (pp. 103-
820 118). Routledge.

821 Powell, L. M., Harris, J. L., & Fox, T. (2013). Food marketing expenditures aimed at youth:
822 putting the numbers in context. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 45(4), 453-
823 461.

824 Price, S. L., Aston, M., Monaghan, J., Sim, M., Tomblin Murphy, G., Etowa, J., Pickles, M.,
825 Hunter, A. & Little, V. (2018). Maternal knowing and social networks: understanding
826 first-time mothers' search for information and support through online and offline social
827 networks. *Qualitative health research*, 28(10), 1552-1563.

828 Rahill, S., Kennedy, A., & Kearney, J. (2020). A review of the influence of fathers on children's
829 eating behaviours and dietary intake. *Appetite*, 147, 104540.

830 Raziani, Y., & Raziani, S. (2020). Investigating the predictors of overweight and obesity in
831 children. *International Journal of Advanced Studies in Humanities and Social Science*,
832 9(4), 262-280.

833 Rimal, R. N. (2003). Intergenerational transmission of health: the role of intrapersonal,
834 interpersonal, and communicative factors. *Health education & behavior*, 30(1), 10-28.

835 Schouten, A. P., Janssen, L., & Verspaget, M. (2020). Celebrity vs. Influencer endorsements in
836 advertising: the role of identification, credibility, and Product-Endorser
837 fit. *International journal of advertising*, 39(2), 258-281.

838 Senft, T. M. (2008). *Camgirls: Celebrity and community in the age of social networks* (Vol. 4).
839 Peter Lang.

840 Spinelli, A., Buoncristiano, M., Kovacs, V. A., Yngve, A., Spiroski, I., Obreja, G., . . .
841 Kunešová, M. (2019). Prevalence of severe obesity among primary school children in
842 21 European countries. *Obesity facts*, 12(2), 244-258.

843 Swanson, V., & Power, K. G. (2005). Initiation and continuation of breastfeeding: theory of
844 planned behaviour. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 50(3), 272-282.

845 Taillon, B. J., Mueller, S. M., Kowalczyk, C. M., & Jones, D. N. (2020). Understanding the
846 relationships between social media influencers and their followers: the moderating role
847 of closeness. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*.

848 The Guardian (23/06/2021). UK to ban junk food advertising online and before 9pm on TV
849 from 2023. [https://www.theguardian.com/media/2021/jun/23/uk-to-ban-junk-food-](https://www.theguardian.com/media/2021/jun/23/uk-to-ban-junk-food-advertising-online-and-before-9pm-on-tv-from-2023)
850 [advertising-online-and-before-9pm-on-tv-from-2023](https://www.theguardian.com/media/2021/jun/23/uk-to-ban-junk-food-advertising-online-and-before-9pm-on-tv-from-2023)

851 Tugault-Lafleur, C. N., González, O. D.-J., O'Connor, T. M., Hughes, S. O., & Mâsse, L. C.
852 (2021). Identifying and predicting food parenting practice profiles among Canadian
853 parents. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 18(1), 1-
854 11.

855 Usheva, N., Galcheva, S., Cardon, G., De Craemer, M., Androustos, O., Kotowska, A., Socha,
856 P., Koletzko, B. V., Moreno, L. A., Iotova, V. & Manios, Y. (2021a). Complementary
857 Feeding and Overweight in European Preschoolers: The ToyBox-Study. *Nutrients*,
858 13(4), 1199.

859 Usheva, N., Lateva, M., Galcheva, S., Koletzko, B. V., Cardon, G., De Craemer, M.,
860 Androustos, O., Kotowska, A., Plotr, S., Moreno, L. A., Manios, V. & Iotova, V.
861 (2021b). Breastfeeding and Overweight in European Preschoolers: The ToyBox Study.
862 *Nutrients*, 13(8), 2880.

863 World Health Organization. (2021). Obesity and overweight,. Retrieved from
864 https://www.who.int/health-topics/obesity#tab=tab_2

865 Wyse, R., Campbell, E., Nathan, N., & Wolfenden, L. (2011). Associations between
866 characteristics of the home food environment and fruit and vegetable intake in preschool
867 children: a cross-sectional study. *BMC public health*, 11(1), 1-10.

868 Yee, A. Z., Lwin, M. O., & Ho, S. S. (2021). Promoting healthier eating via parental
869 communication: Development and validation of the active and restrictive parental
870 guidance questionnaire (PARQ). *Health Communication*, 36(12), 1514-1526.

871 Zarnowiecki, D., Mauch, C. E., Middleton, G., Matwiejczyk, L., Watson, W. L., Dibbs, J., . . .
872 Golley, R. K. (2020). A systematic evaluation of digital nutrition promotion websites

873 and apps for supporting parents to influence children’s nutrition. *International Journal*
874 *of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 17(1), 1-19.

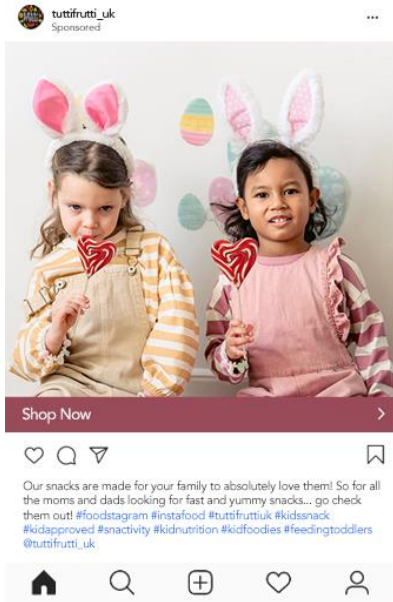
875 Ziauddeen, N., Page, P., Penney, T. L., Nicholson, S., Kirk, S. F., & Almiron-Roig, E. (2018).
876 Eating at food outlets and leisure places and “on the go” is associated with less-healthy
877 food choices than eating at home and in school in children: Cross-sectional data from
878 the UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey Rolling Program (2008–2014). *The*
879 *American journal of clinical nutrition*, 107(6), 992-1003.

880

881

882 **Figures**

883 Figure 1. Brand post condition (experiment 1)



884

885

886 Figure 2. Mom influencer condition (experiment 1)

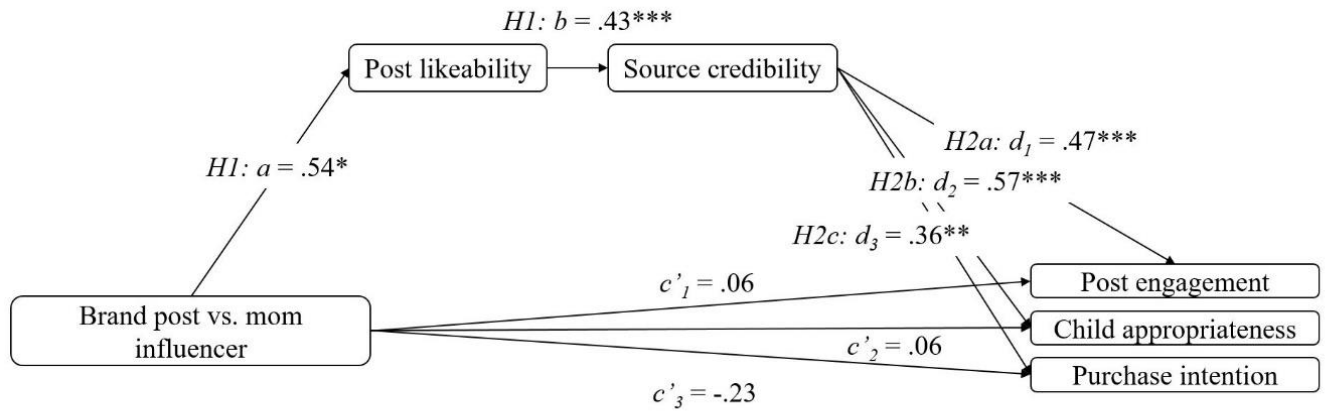


887

888

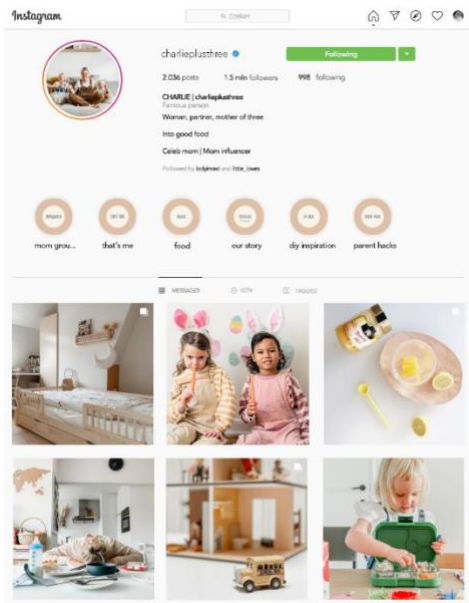
889

890 Figure 3. Overview results experiment 1



891

892 Figure 4. Instagram profile of mom influencer (experiment 2)



893

894

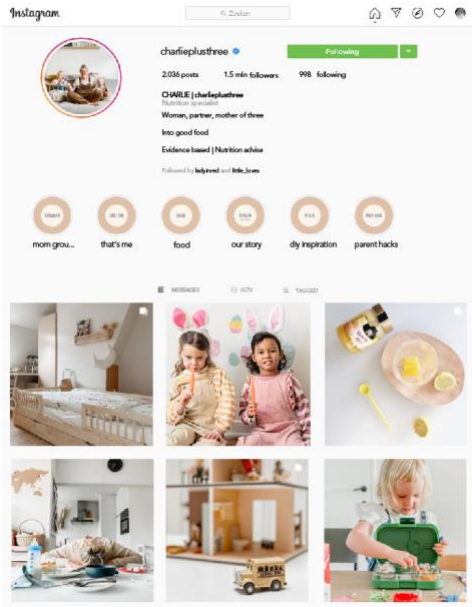
895

896

897

898

899 Figure 5. Instagram profile of expert influencer (experiment 2)



900

901 Figure 6. Unhealthy snack condition (experiment 2)



902

903

904

905

906

907

908 Figure 7. Healthy snack condition (experiment 2)

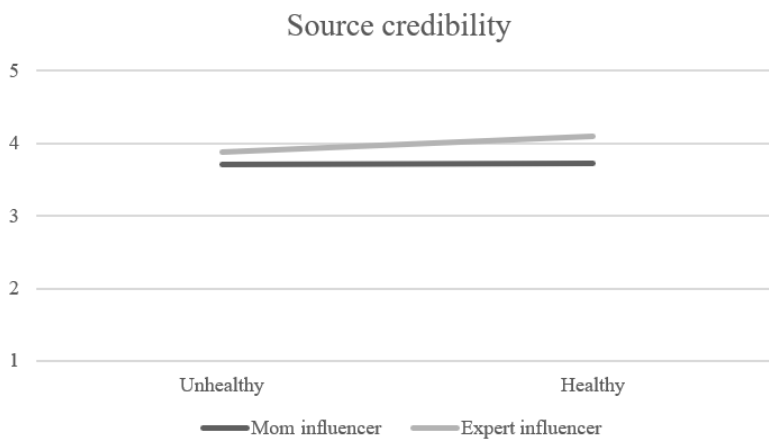


909

910

911 Figure 8. Interaction effect of influencer type and snack type on source credibility (experiment

912 2)



913

914

915

916

917

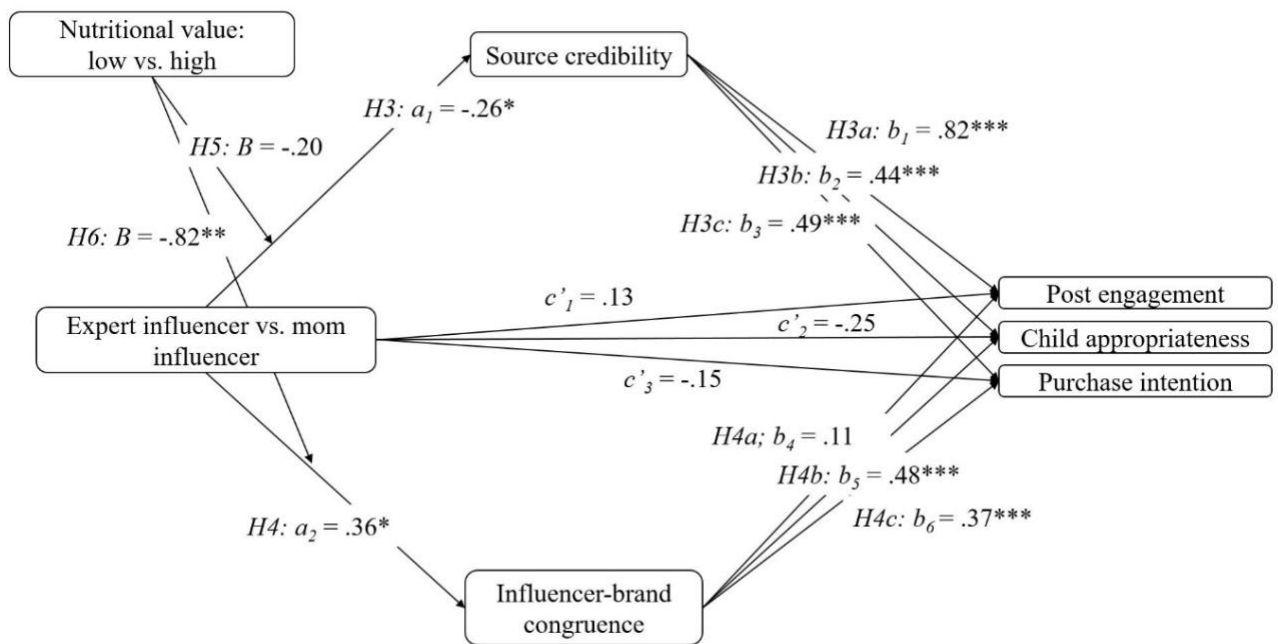
918 Figure 9. Interaction effect of influencer type and snack type on influencer-brand congruence
 919 (experiment 2)



920

921

922 Figure 10. Overview results experiment 2



923

924

925 **Tables**

926 Table 1. Measurement Instrument

Measures	Items	Response Categories	References
Post liking	<i>“How much do you like the Instagram post you have seen from the brand Tuttifrutti/influencer Charlie?”</i>	1 = “not at all, 5 = “I really like it”	
Post engagement	<i>“I would comment on this Instagram post”</i>	1 = “definitely not”, 5 = “definitely”	
	<i>“I would ‘like’ this Instagram post”</i>		
	<i>“I would share this Instagram post”</i>		
Source credibility	<i>“What do you think of the brand Tuttifrutti/Charlie?”</i>	Undependable – dependable	Ohanian (1990)
		Dishonest – honest	
		Unreliable – reliable	
		Insincere – sincere	
		Untrustworthy –trustworthy	
		Not an expert – expert	
		Inexperienced –experienced	
		Unknowledgeable – knowledgeable	
		Unqualified – qualified	
Purchase intention	<i>“I can imagine buying snacks from Tuttifrutti”</i>	1 = “totally disagree”, 5 = “totally agree”	Holzwarth et al. (2006)
	<i>“The next time I buy snacks, I will take Tuttifrutti into consideration”</i>		
	<i>“I am very interested in buying snacks from Tuttifrutti”</i>		
Child appropriateness	<i>“Would you buy this Tuttifrutti snack for your child(ren)?”</i>	1 = “definitely not”, 5 = “definitely”	
	<i>“Do you think this Tuttifrutti snack is good for your child(ren)?”</i>		
	<i>“Do you think this Tuttifrutti snack is appropriate for your child(ren)?”</i>		

Influencer-brand congruence	“With which statement do you agree most?”	There is a bad fit between Charlie and the brand Tuttifrutti – There is a good fit between Charlie and the brand Tuttifrutti	Martinez-Lopez et al. 2020
		It is not logical for Charlie to endorse this brand – It is very logical for Charlie to endorse this brand	
		It is not appropriate for Charlie to endorse this brand – It is very appropriate for Charlie to endorse this brand	

927

928 Table 2. Main effects of source type on mediating and dependent variables (experiment 1)

	Brand post	Mom influencer post	
Post likeability	<i>M</i> = 3.02, <i>SD</i> = 1.05	<i>M</i> = 3.56, <i>SD</i> = .82	<i>F</i> (1) = 6.61, <i>p</i> = .012
Source credibility	<i>M</i> = 3.38, <i>SD</i> = .82	<i>M</i> = 3.41, <i>SD</i> = .71	<i>F</i> (1) = .02, <i>p</i> = .888
Post engagement	<i>M</i> = 2.31, <i>SD</i> = .99	<i>M</i> = 2.60, <i>SD</i> = .84	<i>F</i> (1) = 1.98, <i>p</i> = .163
Child appropriateness	<i>M</i> = 3.04, <i>SD</i> = 1.04	<i>M</i> = 3.21, <i>SD</i> = .88	<i>F</i> (1) = .65, <i>p</i> = .422
Purchase intention	<i>SD</i> = 3.30, <i>SD</i> = .89	<i>M</i> = 3.25, <i>SD</i> = .93	<i>F</i> (1) = .07, <i>p</i> = .790

929

930 Table 3. Descriptions for manipulation of influencer type

	Typical mom influencer condition	Expert influencer condition
Description tested in pretest 1	No description was included before exposure to the Instagram profile.	No description was included before exposure to the Instagram profile.
Description tested in pretest 2	“On the next page you will see the Instagram profile of Charlie. Charlie is a mom of three and is a communication specialist. She lives in London and shares her experiences and knowledge about motherhood with a large public through her Instagram profile”	“On the next page you will see the Instagram profile of Charlie. Charlie is a mom of three and is a pediatric nutrition specialist. She currently works in a hospital in London and shares her experiences and knowledge with a large public through her Instagram profile”
Final description used in experiment 2	“On the next page you will see the Instagram profile of Charlie. Please imagine that you personally follow Charlie’s page on Instagram. Charlie is a mom of three living in London. She is a fulltime mom who shares her knowledge and experiences about motherhood with a large public through her Instagram profile”	“On the next page you will see the Instagram profile of Charlie. Please imagine that you personally follow Charlie’s page on Instagram. Charlie is a mom of three living in London. She works as a pediatric nutrition specialist in a hospital, and in her spare time she shares her professional knowledge and

		experiences with a large public through her Instagram profile”
--	--	--

931

932 Table 4. Main effects of influencer type on mediating and dependent variables (experiment 2)

	Expert influencer	mom	Typical influencer	mom	
Source credibility	<i>M</i> = 3.98, <i>SD</i> = .78		<i>M</i> = 3.72, <i>SD</i> = .74		<i>F</i> (1) = 4.92, <i>p</i> = .028
Influencer-brand congruence	<i>M</i> = 4.04, <i>SD</i> = 1.17		<i>M</i> = 4.40, <i>SD</i> = .83		<i>F</i> (1) = 5.35, <i>p</i> = .022
Post engagement	<i>M</i> = 2.82, <i>SD</i> = 1.02		<i>M</i> = 2.78, <i>SD</i> = 1.11		<i>F</i> (1) = .08, <i>p</i> = .776
Child appropriateness	<i>M</i> = 3.59, <i>SD</i> = 1.23		<i>M</i> = 3.40, <i>SD</i> = 1.05		<i>F</i> (1) = 1.17, <i>p</i> = .280
Purchase intention	<i>SD</i> = 3.45, <i>SD</i> = 1.23		<i>M</i> = 3.31, <i>SD</i> = 1.09		<i>F</i> (1) = .68, <i>p</i> = .410

933