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## Research-Thesis: De-Influencing on Social Media: Comparing Pure Discouragement and Alternative-Based Messages

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# **De-Influencing on Social Media: Comparing Pure Discouragement and Alternative-Based Messages**

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# Chapter 1 – Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

Over the last decade, social media platforms such as Instagram, YouTube and TikTok have become central spaces where people discover brands, compare products and make purchase decisions. Social media influencers now play a strategic role in digital communication, as their content helps brands reach specific audiences, create engagement and stimulate online sales (Putri & Setiawan, 2025). At the same time, commercial formats such as hauls, product reviews, “empties”, and “must-have” lists contribute to a culture of constant novelty and frequent purchasing, particularly in categories like beauty and fashion (García-de-Frutos & Estrella-Ramón, 2021). In this context, influencers are not only entertainment figures; they are important intermediaries who shape what consumers perceive as desirable, necessary or trendy.

However, the rapid development of influencer marketing also raises questions about overconsumption, authenticity and well-being. Ramos-Hidalgo et al. (2021) show that while consumption can sometimes be linked to happiness, excessive or unsustainable consumption may produce feelings of guilt, dissatisfaction and internal conflict, especially among consumers who care about environmental or ethical issues. In parallel, Pittman and Abell (2021) highlight that audiences can become sceptical when influencer content appears too commercial or disconnected from the influencer’s supposed values, which can weaken trust and perceived credibility.

These tensions are particularly visible in sectors where social media promotion is intense, such as beauty, fashion and travel. Kılıç and Polat (2024), for example, analyse de-influencing content related to travel and show that creators often criticise “overrated” destinations or experiences, denounce high prices or poor value, and sometimes propose more authentic or sustainable alternatives. Their work illustrates that social media is not only a place for encouraging consumption, but also a space where users can challenge hype and share more critical opinions.

Against this backdrop, a new trend has emerged on platforms like TikTok and Instagram: de-influencing. Instead of telling followers what they “must” buy, de-influencing content focuses on what they might be better off not buying. Recent research on this topic describes de-influencing as a practice where creators discourage the purchase of certain products, question their real usefulness or value, and sometimes highlight the environmental or financial consequences of overconsumption (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). In this sense, de-influencing can be seen as a counter-movement within influencer culture, one that challenges the norm of permanent promotion and opens the door to more mindful or selective consumption.

Building on this emerging body of research, the present thesis focuses on a specific and underexplored aspect of de-influencing: the difference between pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing. While some creators simply advise their audience not to buy certain products, others criticise a product but immediately recommend alternatives, such as cheaper dupes, other brands or more “ethical” options (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023; Kılıç & Polat, 2024). This raises important questions about how consumers interpret these two approaches and whether they perceive them as genuinely reducing consumption, or mainly redirecting it.

The objective of this thesis is therefore to understand how consumers perceive de-influencing on social media when it takes the form of pure discouragement versus alternative-based

messages, and how these two approaches influence their attitudes and purchase intentions. The following sections of this chapter further contextualise this research question within the broader evolution of social media influence, consumer culture and sustainable consumption.

## 1.2 Social Media Influence and Consumer Culture

Social media has transformed the way consumers interact with brands. Instead of receiving information passively through traditional advertising, users now create, share and comment on content in real time. This participatory structure has enabled the rise of social media influencers, who act as intermediaries between companies and audiences and help brands reach specific segments, personalise messages and generate engagement around products and services (Putri & Setiawan, 2025).

Influencers are often perceived as more accessible and relatable than traditional celebrities, because they share elements of their daily life, preferences and opinions. This creates a sense of intimacy and trust with followers and can make their product recommendations more persuasive than standard advertising. Followers tend to trust influencers more when there is a clear coherence between the values they promote and the way they live, and this perceived congruence reinforces credibility and persuasive power (Pittman & Abell, 2021).

At the same time, the central role of influencers contributes to the intensification of consumer culture on social media. Haul and anti-haul videos, for example, structure conversations around products, trends and collections, encouraging viewers to think in terms of what to buy, what not to buy, and which items are currently desirable (García-de-Frutos & Estrella-Ramón, 2021). Even when the tone is critical, the main focus frequently remains on consumption and product evaluation, rather than on questioning the underlying logic of always acquiring more.

The social and emotional climate of social media further shapes how individuals experience this consumer culture. Eitan and Gazit (2023) describe FoMO (Fear of Missing Out) as the anxiety that others might be having rewarding experiences without us, and JoMO (Joy of Missing Out) as the positive feeling associated with intentionally opting out and focusing on the present moment instead. Continuous exposure to what others buy, own or do can intensify FoMO, especially when influencers promote limited-edition or viral products, reinforcing the pressure to keep up with trends and avoid feeling left behind.

In this environment, influencer content can therefore both amplify and reduce perceived pressure. Promotional content may strengthen FoMO by suggesting that not owning certain products means missing out, while more critical formats, such as de-influencing, may help some followers adopt a more JoMO-like attitude, where they feel more comfortable rejecting trends and focusing on what they truly need (Przybylski et al., 2013; Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). This tension between commercial encouragement and critical distance is central to understanding why de-influencing resonates with part of the audience. The next section focuses more specifically on the emergence and characteristics of de-influencing as a distinct phenomenon within this broader consumer culture.

### 1.3 The Emergence of De-influencing

De-influencing has recently emerged as a visible trend on platforms such as TikTok and Instagram, where users can easily react to and remix existing influencer content. The hashtag #deinfluencing has been used in videos that explicitly discourage the purchase of specific products or question the value of highly “hyped” items. These videos often appear in categories where promotional activity is intense, such as beauty, fashion and travel, and respond to a feeling that some products are pushed more by trends than by real consumer needs (Kılıç & Polat, 2024; García-de-Frutos & Estrella-Ramón, 2021).

De-influencing content typically follows a simple but powerful pattern: the creator names a product or trend, explains why it is not worth buying, and sometimes mentions the financial, environmental or practical reasons behind this judgement. In many cases, the argument is based on perceived overpricing, disappointing quality, redundancy with products people already own, or ethical concerns related to overconsumption (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). This type of message contrasts with traditional influencer content, which usually emphasises novelty, desirability and positive product attributes.

Although the term “de-influencing” is recent, similar practices appeared earlier in other formats. Anti-haul videos on YouTube already invited viewers to focus on products that the creator would not buy and to reflect on marketing tactics that create artificial desire for new releases. García-de-Frutos and Estrella-Ramón (2021) show that anti-haul content can generate high levels of engagement, indicating that audiences are interested in more critical and reflective consumption narratives.

De-influencing can also be linked to broader critical practices such as culture jamming. Wood (2020) describes how some creators use the same aesthetics, formats and algorithmic logics that normally support commercial promotion, but redirect them towards questioning consumerism and exposing how marketing shapes desires. In this sense, de-influencing can be interpreted as a form of algorithmic culture jamming, where the tools of influencer culture are turned against its most excessive aspects.

At the same time, de-influencing is not always purely anti-consumerist. Research on cause-related influencers and sustainable de-influencers shows that some creators use de-influencing not only to say “do not buy this”, but also to promote more responsible or sustainable behaviours, such as repairing, reusing, buying second-hand or choosing products with lower environmental impact (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). In these cases, de-influencing forms part of a wider discourse on mindful consumption and individual responsibility.

However, as highlighted in several recent studies, not all de-influencing messages are the same. Some focus exclusively on discouraging a purchase, while others quickly move from criticism to recommendation of alternative products, often presented as cheaper, more effective or more ethical (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023; Kılıç & Polat, 2024). This diversity suggests that de-influencing operates on a spectrum that ranges from genuine reduction of consumption to a redirection of consumption towards other options. Understanding where different types of de-influencing messages fall on this spectrum is crucial for analysing their impact on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions.

In summary, de-influencing has emerged at the intersection of three main dynamics: the growing commercial influence of social media, rising concerns about overconsumption and sustainability, and the creative use of platforms to express critical or resistant points of view.

This makes de-influencing an important and timely phenomenon for research on digital consumer behaviour.

## 1.4 Pure Discouragement vs Alternative-based De-influencing

Although de-influencing is often described as a single phenomenon, different patterns appear when looking more closely at how creators structure their messages. One important distinction concerns whether the creator only discourages a purchase or also recommends another option. This distinction is central for understanding whether de-influencing mainly reduces consumption or rather redirects it toward different products or brands.

A first form can be described as pure discouragement. In this case, the creator focuses solely on explaining why a product, a collection or a trend is not worth buying. The arguments may concern high price, low quality, redundancy with existing items, disappointment with performance or broader ethical reasons linked to overconsumption and environmental impact (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). The message often encourages followers to “use what they already have”, “buy less” or “think twice before purchasing”. Such content is close to demarketing logics and anti-consumption discourses that seek to reduce overall demand rather than to promote a different product. Demarketing and anti-consumption refer to strategies that openly try to slow down or reduce consumption, for example by encouraging people to “buy less”, keep products for longer or avoid impulsive purchases. When de-influencers adopt this approach, they may be perceived as more altruistic and value-driven, because they do not appear to gain anything directly from discouraging a purchase (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025).

A second form can be described as alternative-based de-influencing. Here, the creator initially criticises a product but then quickly suggests alternatives, such as cheaper dupes, other brands or products framed as more effective or more ethical. The typical structure of these messages is “you do not need this, but you could try this instead”. In travel-related de-influencing, for example, creators may discourage visiting an overcrowded or overpriced destination and recommend another place that is presented as more authentic or sustainable (Kılıç & Polat, 2024). In their work, Ekvall and Mellberg (2023) describe this pattern as a form of “re-influencing”, because the content still guides the audience towards consumption, but in a different direction.

This alternative-based pattern can be ambiguous from a consumer’s perspective. On the one hand, proposing alternatives may be genuinely helpful, especially if the creator recommends less expensive, better-quality or more sustainable options. On the other hand, the presence of alternatives can make de-influencing look like another way to promote products, particularly if the recommended items are sponsored or affiliated. Elhajjar and Itani (2025) show that different types of de-influencing content can produce distinct effects on attitudes and purchase intentions, and that messages framed around ethics or health can elicit especially strong reactions towards the brand concerned. Their results suggest that the framing and focus of de-influencing content matter at least as much as the simple fact of discouraging a product.

Experimental research on de-influencing also indicates that discouraging messages can significantly reduce purchase intention compared with classic influencer promotion (Dislaire, 2024; Elhajjar & Itani, 2025). However, these studies also point out that de-influencing can be perceived as more credible and trustworthy than traditional influencing, particularly when the creator appears authentic and critical rather than purely commercial. This aligns with findings

that credibility, authenticity and perceived altruism are key drivers of sustainable behavioural intentions in the context of de-influencers (Elsantil et al., 2025).

Taken together, these insights suggest that pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing occupy different positions on a spectrum. Pure discouragement is more closely associated with reducing consumption, promoting sufficiency and questioning the necessity of additional purchases. Alternative-based de-influencing, in contrast, can either support more responsible choices or simply redirect demand towards other products, depending on how transparent and value-driven the recommendations appear (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023; Koivunen et al., 2025). For this thesis, distinguishing clearly between these two forms is essential to analyse how each one influences consumers' perceptions of the de-influencer and their purchase intentions, with a particular focus on credibility, authenticity and perceived altruism.

## 1.5 Key Concepts and Definitions

To ensure clarity and coherence throughout the thesis, this section briefly defines the key concepts that structure the research: social media influencers and influencer marketing, de-influencing and its main forms, sustainable consumption, and the FoMO/JoMO framework.

Social media influencers are individuals who have built a relevant audience on one or several social media platforms and whose content can affect followers' attitudes and behaviours, especially regarding products, brands or lifestyles (Putri & Setiawan, 2025; Belanche et al., 2021). Influencer marketing refers to the set of practices where brands collaborate with these influencers to promote products or services and increase awareness, engagement and sales (Putri & Setiawan, 2025).

De-influencing is broadly defined as a social media practice in which a creator discourages the purchase of certain products, brands or trends, often by questioning their real usefulness, value or alignment with ethical and environmental concerns (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elhajjar & Itani, 2025). De-influencers are creators who engage regularly in this type of content and are perceived as adopting a more critical or preventive stance, sometimes associated with transparency, consumer protection or sustainability (Elsantil et al., 2025).

Within de-influencing, this thesis distinguishes between two specific forms. Pure discouragement refers to messages that focus exclusively on discouraging followers from buying a product or category, without recommending a direct alternative. The emphasis is on reducing unnecessary purchases and questioning overconsumption (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). Alternative-based de-influencing combines criticism of a product with recommendations of alternative items, such as cheaper dupes, other brands or products presented as more effective or more ethical (Dislaire, 2024; Kılıç & Polat, 2024). This latter pattern has sometimes been described as a form of re-influencing, because it redirects demand rather than simply reducing it (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023).

Sustainable consumption is understood as consumption behaviour that aims to minimise negative environmental and social impacts while maintaining or improving quality of life (Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2021). In this thesis, sustainable consumption is relevant because many de-influencing messages explicitly refer to ecological concerns, waste reduction and more responsible use of resources (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025).

FoMO (Fear of Missing Out) describes the anxiety that others might be having rewarding experiences or accessing products that one is missing, which can drive frequent engagement

with social media and impulsive purchases to “keep up” (Eitan & Gazit, 2023). JoMO (Joy of Missing Out), by contrast, refers to the positive experience of intentionally opting out, focusing on the present moment and feeling comfortable with not participating in every trend or activity (Eitan & Gazit, 2023). De-influencing can be interpreted as a practice that may encourage more JoMO-like attitudes by validating the choice not to buy or not to follow every hype. In this thesis, FoMO and JoMO are therefore treated as psychological variables that are measured after exposure to the de-influencing videos, in order to examine whether pure discouragement and alternative-based messages trigger different emotional reactions.

## 1.6 Research Gap and Problem Statement

Existing research has started to document de-influencing as an emerging phenomenon, but the scientific knowledge on this topic is still fragmented and incomplete. Different studies highlight its forms, motives and potential consequences, yet several important questions remain unanswered, especially when considering how consumers react to different types of de-influencing messages in controlled conditions.

Current work covers a variety of approaches. Content analyses and netnographic studies show how de-influencing and related practices are expressed on social media. For example, travel-related de-influencing videos have been classified into several message categories, including those that criticise “overrated” destinations and those that propose alternative options (Kılıç & Polat, 2024). Anti-haul videos on YouTube similarly reveal how creators build anti-consumption narratives inside a highly commercial environment, while still attracting strong engagement from viewers (García-de-Frutos & Estrella-Ramón, 2021). Qualitative studies add depth by exploring how consumers interpret de-influencing. Ekvall and Mellberg (2023), for instance, show that viewers often perceive de-influencing as a reaction to overconsumption and as a more honest, critical form of content, and they introduce the idea of “re-influencing” when creators recommend alternatives.

More recently, quantitative and experimental studies have begun to examine the effects of de-influencing on consumer responses. Some results suggest that de-influencing messages can significantly reduce purchase intentions compared to classic influencer promotion and that de-influencers can be perceived as more credible or trustworthy than traditional influencers (Dislaire, 2024; Elhajjar & Itani, 2025). Other work shows that when de-influencers are perceived as credible and authentic, they can increase perceived altruism and encourage sustainable behavioural intentions (Elsantil et al., 2025). These studies provide first evidence that de-influencing is not only a discursive phenomenon, but also has measurable effects on attitudes and intentions.

Despite these contributions, three main gaps can be identified.

First, most empirical studies treat de-influencing as a single category, without systematically distinguishing between pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing. Content analyses recognise that some de-influencing messages focus purely on discouragement while others recommend alternatives (Kılıç & Polat, 2024; Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023), but this distinction is rarely at the centre of the research design. Experimental work has tested the global effect of de-influencing compared to regular influence (Dislaire, 2024; Elhajjar & Itani, 2025), yet it has not directly compared the impact of these two specific formats under controlled conditions. There is therefore a lack of quantitative evidence on whether pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing are perceived similarly or have different effects on consumers.

Second, while several studies highlight the importance of credibility, authenticity and perceived altruism in the effectiveness of de-influencers (Elsantil et al., 2025), little is known about how these perceptions vary across different types of de-influencing messages. Alternative-based de-influencing, which includes recommendations of dupes or other products, may raise questions about the creator's motives or commercial interests, especially when affiliate links or sponsorships are present (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023). However, existing quantitative work has not yet clearly examined whether pure discouragement leads to higher perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism than alternative-based de-influencing, or whether consumers interpret both formats in similar ways.

Third, the connections between de-influencing and broader outcomes such as purchase intentions for the criticised product and potential alternatives, or orientations towards more sustainable consumption, remain only partially explored. Some studies show that de-influencing can reduce intention to buy a target product (Dislaire, 2024; Elhajjar & Itani, 2025), and others link de-influencers to sustainable behavioural intentions (Elsantil et al., 2025). However, there is still little evidence on whether alternative-based de-influencing mainly redirects purchase intentions towards suggested options, and how this compares to pure discouragement, which does not provide an obvious substitute. This makes it difficult to know whether de-influencing truly reduces overall consumption or simply reshapes its direction.

These gaps indicate a need for research that isolates and compares the effects of pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing in a controlled context. An experimental design, where participants are exposed to carefully constructed de-influencing messages representing each format, offers a suitable approach to test how these messages influence perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism of the creator, as well as purchase intentions and emotional reactions such as FoMO and JoMO.

Based on this, the problem statement of this thesis can be formulated as follows:

In a digital environment where de-influencing is gaining visibility but remains conceptually diverse, there is a lack of quantitative evidence on how pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing differentially affect consumers' perceptions of de-influencers, their emotional reactions and their purchase intentions.

This problem guides the empirical work of the thesis and justifies the use of a quantitative, experimental approach to compare the impact of these two forms of de-influencing.

## 1.7 Research Question and Objectives

The previous sections have shown that de-influencing is a multifaceted phenomenon and that existing research has not yet clearly compared the effects of pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing on consumer responses. Experimental and quantitative studies demonstrate that de-influencing can shape purchase intentions and perceptions of influencers, but they generally treat de-influencing as a single type of message. As a result, it remains unclear whether consumers react in the same way when a de-influencing message simply discourages a product as when it also recommends an alternative option.

In this thesis, de-influencing is approached as a persuasive communication format that can influence how consumers perceive the de-influencer (for example in terms of credibility, authenticity and perceived altruism), how they evaluate the product targeted by the message, how they react emotionally (FoMO and JoMO) and how they consider a potential alternative

product. A quantitative between-subjects experimental design, in which participants are randomly assigned to a pure discouragement or an alternative-based de-influencing scenario, is used to isolate the effects of these two formats on key perceptions and purchase intentions.

Based on the research gap identified in section 1.6, the main research question of this thesis is:

**How do pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing on social media differentially affect consumers' perceptions of de-influencers, their emotional reactions and their purchase intentions?**

- This broad question can be translated into the following research sub-questions:
- **RQ1:** Do consumers perceive de-influencers differently when they use pure discouragement versus alternative-based de-influencing, particularly in terms of perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism?
- **RQ2:** How do pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing influence consumers' purchase intentions for the criticised product and, in the case of alternative-based messages, for the recommended alternative?
- **RQ3:** To what extent do perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism help explain the relationship between the type of de-influencing message and consumers' purchase intentions?
- **RQ4:** How are FoMO, JoMO and sustainable behaviour related to consumers' reactions to de-influencing messages and to their purchase intentions?

In line with these questions, the thesis pursues the following objectives:

1. To compare the effects of pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing on consumers' perceptions of the de-influencer, with a focus on credibility, authenticity and perceived altruism.
2. To assess the impact of pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing on consumers' purchase intentions for the criticised product and, where relevant, for a recommended alternative.
3. To examine whether alternative-based de-influencing leads to higher purchase intentions for the recommended alternative than pure discouragement.
4. To explore whether perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism contribute to explaining how the type of de-influencing message affects purchase intentions.
5. To investigate the role of FoMO, JoMO and sustainable behaviour in shaping consumers' responses to de-influencing messages.

These objectives are addressed through a controlled quantitative experiment comparing different de-influencing scenarios, and they provide a clear link between the identified theoretical gaps and the empirical design adopted in this thesis.

## 1.8 Academic and Managerial Motivations

This thesis is academically motivated by the need to better understand de-influencing as a differentiated phenomenon within influencer marketing. Existing studies have highlighted the rise of de-influencing, documented its formats and provided first evidence of its impact on

attitudes and purchase intentions. However, most of this work treats de-influencing as a single category and does not systematically distinguish between pure discouragement and alternative-based messages. By focusing explicitly on this distinction and by testing the effects of these two formats in a controlled experimental setting, the thesis contributes to a more nuanced understanding of de-influencing and its role within digital consumer behaviour. It also adds to the broader literature on influencer marketing, anti-consumption and sustainable consumption by examining how critical messages circulate on commercial platforms and how they shape perceptions of influencers, emotional reactions and sustainable orientations.

From a managerial perspective, the thesis is motivated by the fact that brands are increasingly exposed to de-influencing content but often lack clear guidelines on how to interpret and respond to it. Pure discouragement can threaten sales and brand image, while alternative-based de-influencing can redirect demand towards competing products or, in some cases, towards more sustainable options. Understanding how consumers perceive these different messages, and how they affect credibility, authenticity, FoMO/JoMO and purchase intentions, can help managers better anticipate the risks and opportunities associated with de-influencing. The results of this research may support more informed decisions on influencer partnerships, communication strategies and positioning in markets where critical and sustainability-oriented discourses are gaining visibility.

## 1.9 Structure of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis is organised as follows. **Chapter 2** develops the literature review and theoretical framework. It reviews prior work on influencer marketing, anti-consumption and culture jamming, de-influencing, sustainable consumption and the FoMO/JoMO framework, and it presents the conceptual model and hypotheses. **Chapter 3** describes the research methodology, including the experimental design, the stimuli, the measurement scales and the data collection procedure. **Chapter 4** presents the empirical results, including data preparation, sample description, measurement checks and hypothesis testing. **Chapter 5** discusses the main findings in light of the literature, outlines theoretical and managerial implications, and highlights the limitations of the study and directions for future research.

# Chapter 2 – Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

## 2.1 Introduction to the Literature Review

The first chapter has introduced de-influencing as an emerging practice within influencer culture and has highlighted the need to distinguish between pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing. To build a solid foundation for this distinction, it is necessary to look more closely at several streams of literature that are directly connected to this topic.

A first body of work concerns influencer marketing and social media influencers as persuasive communication sources. This research helps to understand why influencers can strongly affect consumer attitudes and behaviour, and why variables such as credibility, authenticity and

congruence are central when evaluating influencer content (Belanche et al., 2021; Pittman & Abell, 2021; Putri & Setiawan, 2025). A second stream of studies examines critical and anti-consumption content on social media, such as anti-haul videos and culture jamming practices, which provide an important context for understanding de-influencing as a form of resistance inside commercial platforms (García-de-Frutos & Estrella-Ramón, 2021; Wood, 2020).

The literature specifically dedicated to de-influencing builds on these ideas and analyses how de-influencing messages are constructed, what motivates them and how they affect sustainable behaviours, brand attitudes, emotional reactions and purchase intentions (Dislaire, 2024; Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025; Elhajjar & Itani, 2025; Kılıç & Polat, 2024). Finally, work on sustainable consumption and on the emotional experience of social media users, in particular FoMO and JoMO, helps to situate de-influencing in a wider context of perceived pressure, well-being and responsible consumption (Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2021; Eitan & Gazit, 2023).

The following sections develop these different streams of literature in more detail and use them to build the conceptual framework and hypotheses of this thesis, with a specific focus on the comparison between pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing.

## 2.2 Influencer Marketing and Social Media Persuasion

Social media influencers have become central actors in digital communication, as they regularly create content, interact with followers and recommend products or services to specific audiences. Their ability to shape attitudes and behaviours is often linked to the perception that they are closer, more relatable and more authentic than traditional celebrities (Putri & Setiawan, 2025). Influencer marketing builds on this position by inviting brands to collaborate with influencers and integrate product promotion into their everyday content, with the aim of increasing awareness, engagement and purchase intentions (Putri & Setiawan, 2025).

A central mechanism in influencer marketing is the quality of the perceived relationship between influencers and their followers. Prior research shows that followers often see influencers as opinion leaders who reflect their own values, style or aspirations, and that this perceived similarity reinforces trust and receptiveness to product recommendations (Belanche et al., 2021). When followers perceive a good fit between themselves and the influencer, they are more likely to form favourable attitudes toward products that the influencer promotes and to align their behavioural intentions with the influencer's recommendations (Belanche et al., 2021).

The concept of congruence plays a key role in explaining these effects. In the context of influencer marketing, congruence refers to the perceived fit between different elements of the persuasion setting, such as the influencer, the product and the audience (Belanche et al., 2021). High congruence between the influencer's image and the promoted product tends to produce more favourable product evaluations and higher purchase intentions, while incongruent endorsements can generate scepticism and damage both brand and influencer perceptions (Belanche et al., 2021). Research on greenfluencers similarly shows that congruence between the influencer's environmental image and the pro-environmental message increases influencer credibility and pro-environmental intentions (Boerman et al., 2022).

Credibility, authenticity and perceived sincerity are therefore central to influencer effectiveness. Influencers are often seen as credible and persuasive because they appear authentic,

consistent and transparent in their content and collaborations (Pittman & Abell, 2021). When followers perceive that an influencer promotes products that genuinely match their lifestyle and values, they are more inclined to trust the recommendation and to interpret it as internally motivated rather than purely commercial (Boerman et al., 2022). Conversely, when there is a mismatch between the influencer's usual image and the promoted content, followers may infer opportunistic motives, which can reduce perceived credibility and weaken the persuasive impact of the message.

These insights are important for the study of de-influencing. De-influencing messages challenge the usual promotional logic of influencer marketing, but they still rely on the same basic mechanisms of source evaluation. Consumers are likely to assess de-influencers in terms of credibility, authenticity and perceived congruence between the message and the creator's image, just as they do with traditional influencers. In particular, messages that appear consistent with a creator's critical or sustainability-oriented persona may be perceived as more altruistic and trustworthy, whereas messages that include product alternatives or commercial links might raise questions about hidden motives. Understanding how these perceptions differ between pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing is therefore crucial for analysing their respective effects on purchase intentions.

## 2.3 Anti-consumption, Culture Jamming and Critical Influencer Content

De-influencing does not appear in a vacuum. It fits into a longer tradition of critical and anti-consumption content that uses the same media and symbols as commercial communication, but to question consumer culture rather than reinforce it. Understanding this background helps to situate de-influencing as part of a broader movement where creators appropriate platform logics to express resistance.

On YouTube, anti-haul videos are a clear example of this dynamic. Instead of showing what they have bought, creators present products they have decided not to buy and explain why. García-de-Frutos and Estrella-Ramón (2021) show that these videos still generate strong engagement and active discussion, even though they are framed around refusal rather than acquisition. Viewers comment, like and share, and the conversation focuses on overpricing, redundancy, disappointment and fatigue with constant product launches. This suggests that audiences are not only receptive to promotional messages, but also to more critical narratives that validate the decision not to purchase.

Anti-haul content also plays with the visual and verbal codes of commercial culture. Titles, thumbnails and format are often similar to traditional haul videos, but the message is inverted. Instead of "must-have" lists, creators build "do-not-need" lists. This type of inversion connects anti-hauls with the concept of culture jamming, which refers to practices that subvert, parody or hijack dominant commercial messages by reusing their symbols in unexpected ways. Culture jamming often involves re-appropriating brand logos, slogans or advertising formats to expose their underlying assumptions or social consequences (Laamanen et al., 2015).

Wood (2020) goes further by introducing the idea of algorithmic culture jamming in the context of YouTube. According to this perspective, creators of anti-haul videos use the same algorithm-friendly practices as commercial influencers, such as click-worthy titles, optimisation for search

and recommendation, and familiar storytelling structures, but redirect them toward anti-consumerist messages. In other words, they work with the algorithm rather than against it, while still challenging the logic of constant consumption (Wood, 2020). This creates a paradoxical situation where critique and resistance circulate through the same systems that normally amplify promotional content.

The notion of culture jamming is also linked to environmental activism and brandalism, where activists appropriate advertising spaces or brand imagery to denounce environmental damage and overconsumption. By altering billboards, posters or digital ads, brandalism initiatives use the recognisability of brands to draw attention to ecological issues and to question the social role of marketing (Laamanen et al., 2015). Although de-influencing usually operates at an individual creator level rather than in collective actions, it shares similar mechanisms: it uses familiar influencer formats to introduce doubt, critique and alternative values into an otherwise commercial environment.

This background helps to frame de-influencing as more than just “negative reviews” or occasional criticism. It shows that critical content can coexist with commercial content on the same platforms and that audiences can respond positively to creators who challenge consumption norms (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). It also underlines the importance of tone and positioning: when creators clearly distance themselves from hype and address issues such as waste, unnecessary spending or environmental impact, they can be perceived as more authentic and value-driven, which may strengthen perceived altruism and trust. These elements are particularly relevant for understanding pure discouragement de-influencing, which is closer to an anti-consumption stance, but they also apply to alternative-based de-influencing when creators justify their product recommendations in ethical or environmental terms.

By connecting de-influencing to anti-consumption, culture jamming and brandalism, this section highlights that critical influencer content is not an anomaly but part of a broader field of practices that question consumer culture from within. This perspective supports the idea that de-influencers can be evaluated not only as marketers, but also as cultural actors who negotiate the boundaries between promotion, critique and responsibility on digital platforms.

## 2.4 De-influencing: Definitions, Types and Motives

Recent research agrees that de-influencing is a specific form of social media content in which creators explicitly discourage certain purchases and question dominant consumption norms. On TikTok, de-influencing has been described as a type of cause-oriented influencing that uses the platform’s affordances (short videos, trends, sounds and remix functions) to convince consumers to reduce unnecessary consumption and to reflect on environmental, social and personal well-being (Koivunen et al., 2025). In a similar way, Elhajar and Itani (2025) portray de-influencers as creators who challenge overpriced, indulgent or futile offerings driven by simulated needs and who expose deceptive marketing practices behind incentivised content. Across these studies, de-influencing is presented as a reaction to the perceived excesses of influencer marketing and to the pressure to buy driven by social media trends.

De-influencing messages typically focus on explaining why a product, a category or a trend is not worth purchasing. The reasons invoked often include high price, disappointing quality, redundancy with products consumers already own, and incompatibility with sustainability

values or personal well-being (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). De-influencing content is also presented as a way to help followers save money, limit unnecessary consumption and avoid impulsive purchases driven by social media hype (Elhajjar & Itani, 2025). In this sense, de-influencing extends earlier critical practices such as anti-hauls, where creators already discussed products they had decided to not buy, and brings them into new platforms and formats such as TikTok and Instagram.

Within this general definition, different types of de-influencing can be distinguished. Content analyses and qualitative studies highlight that some messages focus on criticising “overrated” products, destinations or experiences, whereas others combine criticism with recommendations of alternatives. In travel-related de-influencing, Kılıç and Polat (2024) show that creators may discourage visiting crowded or overpriced destinations and at the same time suggest alternative places that are presented as more authentic, affordable or sustainable. In the beauty and fashion domain, viewers also report that some de-influencing videos remain strictly critical, while others quickly turn to recommending dupes or replacement products (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023).

Several recent studies describe different ways in which creators discourage consumption. Some focus on messages that only explain why a product or trend is not worth buying, without suggesting a direct substitute (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). Other studies analyse videos where creators criticise a product but then recommend alternative brands or options framed as more sustainable or better value (Kılıç & Polat, 2024; Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023). Building on this work, the present thesis distinguishes between pure discouragement de-influencing and alternative-based de-influencing. Pure discouragement refers to messages that highlight reasons not to buy a given product, often emphasising sufficiency, “using what you already have” and reducing wasteful or impulsive purchases. Alternative-based de-influencing combines such critical arguments with explicit recommendations of other products presented as better options.

The motives behind de-influencing are multiple and often overlap. Several studies emphasise a sustainability motive, where creators seek to reduce overconsumption, promote second-hand or lower-frequency purchases and align consumption with environmental and ethical values (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). De-influencing is thus portrayed as a preventative, de-marketing-inspired practice that discourages demand for certain products on ethical or environmental grounds (Elsantil et al., 2025). A second motive is consumer protection, in which de-influencers present themselves as fact-checkers who debunk pseudoscientific claims, expose misleading marketing tactics and help followers avoid wasting money on ineffective or overhyped products (Elhajjar & Itani, 2025). In this case, de-influencing is positioned as a response to perceived inauthenticity and opportunism in influencer culture.

At the same time, de-influencing can also serve as a self-positioning strategy for creators. By distancing themselves from excessive consumerism and highlighting their critical stance, de-influencers can differentiate their personal brand from traditional influencers and attract followers who are tired of constant promotion (Dislaire, 2024). Some de-influencers develop a consistent identity centred on honesty, rational evaluation and care for followers’ financial and emotional well-being, which can strengthen perceived authenticity and altruism (Elsantil et al., 2025). However, when de-influencing includes affiliate links or sponsored alternatives, viewers may question whether the content truly departs from promotional logics, especially in the case of alternative-based formats (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023). This tension between altruistic

positioning and potential commercial benefits is one of the reasons why it is important to compare how different types of de-influencing are perceived.

Empirical studies provide initial evidence that de-influencing can significantly affect consumer responses. Dislaire (2024) shows that de-influencing messages on TikTok reduce purchase intentions compared to traditional influencer promotion and can increase perceptions of authenticity and scepticism toward the criticised product. Elhajjar and Itani (2025) find that de-influencers can be seen as more trustworthy and that their content can influence attitudes and behavioural intentions, particularly when messages are framed around ethical or health-related concerns. Elsantil et al. (2025) show that perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism are key drivers of sustainable behavioural intentions in response to de-influencers. Nevertheless, these studies generally do not isolate pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing as separate conditions.

Overall, the literature portrays de-influencing as a cause-oriented, critical form of influencer marketing that aims to minimise unnecessary consumption and promote more responsible choices. It also reveals that de-influencing messages vary in structure and intent, ranging from strict discouragement to more ambiguous combinations of critique and recommendation. This diversity raises the question of whether consumers interpret pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing differently and whether these formats have distinct effects on perceived credibility, authenticity, altruism, emotional reactions and purchase intentions. These questions are at the centre of the conceptual framework and hypotheses developed in the next section.

## 2.5 De-influencers, Sustainable Consumption and Perceived Altruism

De-influencing is closely connected to wider discussions about sustainable consumption. Sustainable consumption refers to patterns of buying and using products that seek to minimise negative environmental and social impacts while maintaining or improving quality of life. Research shows that consumers who engage in more sustainable behaviours often report higher levels of well-being, especially when their choices are aligned with their personal values and a sense of responsibility towards others and the environment (Ramos-Hidalgo et al., 2021). This suggests that reducing unnecessary consumption can be experienced not only as a constraint, but also as a positive and meaningful orientation.

In this context, de-influencers can be seen as potential facilitators of sustainable consumption. Several studies describe de-influencers as creators who encourage followers to reflect on their consumption habits, resist hype and consider the long-term implications of their purchases for their finances, well-being and the environment (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025). Typical recommendations include buying fewer items, prioritising quality over quantity, opting for second-hand or more durable products, or avoiding products that are perceived as wasteful or harmful. In this way, de-influencing aligns with a broader shift towards more mindful and responsible consumption, even if it operates within commercial platforms.

The literature on cause-related influencers reinforces this view. Koivunen et al. (2025) conceptualise de-influencers as a form of cause-oriented influencer, whose communication is explicitly framed around social or environmental causes rather than around brands alone. In their analysis, de-influencing on TikTok often highlights ethical concerns (such as

overconsumption, waste, exploitation) and proposes behavioural changes that support more sustainable lifestyles. This cause-related framing differentiates de-influencers from traditional influencers and suggests that followers may evaluate them according to criteria that go beyond simple attractiveness or entertainment value.

A key concept in this area is perceived altruism. Perceived altruism refers to the extent to which followers believe that a creator acts in their best interest rather than primarily for personal gain or for the benefit of brands. Elsantil et al. (2025) show that perceived altruism, together with perceived credibility and authenticity, plays a central role in explaining how de-influencers affect sustainable behavioural intentions. When followers perceive de-influencers as genuinely concerned about their well-being and about collective issues such as the environment, they are more likely to accept their recommendations and to adjust their behaviour accordingly. This is consistent with broader findings on influencer marketing, where perceived other-orientation and value congruence reinforce trust and persuasive impact (Belanche et al., 2021; Boerman et al., 2022).

The structure of de-influencing messages can strongly influence perceived altruism. Pure discouragement messages, which focus on reasons not to buy and do not propose a direct alternative, may more easily be interpreted as altruistic and less self-interested, since the creator does not appear to benefit from redirecting consumption to other products (Elsantil et al., 2025). By contrast, alternative-based de-influencing, which introduces other products as better or more ethical options, can be perceived in two different ways. On the one hand, if the suggested alternatives are clearly aligned with sustainability or value considerations, they may reinforce the perception that the creator is helping followers to make better choices. On the other hand, when alternatives are linked to affiliate codes, sponsorships or unclear commercial relationships, followers may question the creator's motives and interpret the content as closer to traditional influencing, which can reduce perceived altruism (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023).

These dynamics show that de-influencing is not only about what is said, but also about how and why it is said. When de-influencers communicate in ways that are consistent with sustainable values, avoid obvious conflicts of interest and emphasise long-term benefits for followers, they are more likely to be seen as credible, authentic and altruistic. This, in turn, can support shifts towards more sustainable consumption patterns. However, when critical messages are combined with strong promotion of alternatives, the line between de-influencing and regular influencer marketing becomes less clear, and the perceived altruism of the creator may decrease.

In the empirical part of this thesis, sustainable behaviour is measured with a multi-item scale and treated as an individual difference variable. It captures respondents' general tendency to make environmentally responsible choices. This construct is used to explore whether more sustainable consumers report lower purchase intention for the Stanley cup and higher purchase intention for the alternative cup when an alternative is suggested.

For this thesis, perceived altruism is therefore considered alongside credibility and authenticity as a key perception through which consumers evaluate de-influencers. It provides an important lens to understand how pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing may generate different reactions, both in terms of trust in the creator and in terms of willingness to adjust consumption behaviour.

## 2.6 FoMO, JoMO and the Emotional Context of Social Media Use

Social media use is often linked to strong emotional experiences. One of the most discussed is FoMO (Fear of Missing Out), which refers to the anxiety that others might be enjoying rewarding experiences, events or opportunities without us. FoMO is associated with a constant need to stay connected, check updates and monitor what others are doing, and has been linked to higher stress, negative mood and problematic social media use (Eitan & Gazit, 2023). In this sense, social media can intensify feelings of comparison and pressure to keep up with trends, including those related to consumption and lifestyle.

In contrast, JoMO (Joy of Missing Out) describes a more positive emotional stance towards disconnection. JoMO is experienced when individuals feel comfortable not participating in all social activities or trends and instead focus on the present moment and on what they truly value (Eitan & Gazit, 2023). Qualitative work with millennials suggests that embracing JoMO can be associated with personal growth, improved self-awareness and a more balanced relationship with social media, where digital minimalism and selective engagement replace constant checking and comparison (Pabon et al., 2025). These studies also indicate that JoMO is not simply the opposite of FoMO, but a distinct way of relating to social interaction and digital connectivity.

The FoMO–JoMO framework provides a useful background for understanding how users may experience consumption-related content on social media. Promotional messages and influencer recommendations can feed FoMO by suggesting that not buying certain products means missing out on status, pleasure or belonging. Conversely, some forms of critical content, including de-influencing, may help normalise the idea that it is acceptable, and even desirable, to opt out of trends and to reduce exposure to certain products. By validating the choice not to buy or not to follow every hype, de-influencing may resonate with users who are seeking a more JoMO-like attitude towards social media and consumption.

In this thesis, FoMO and JoMO are therefore measured with established scales as additional constructs. They are included in the conceptual framework as emotional responses to the de-influencing videos. This allows us to examine whether alternative-based de-influencing is associated with higher FoMO, and whether pure discouragement is associated with higher JoMO, as reflected in hypotheses H4 and H5.

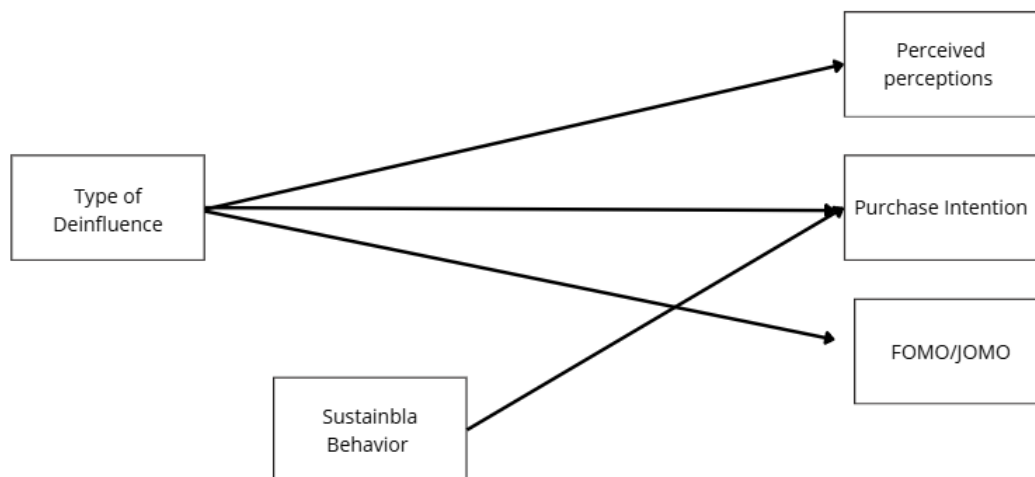
## 2.7 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

De-influencing sits at the crossroads of influencer marketing, anti-consumption and sustainable consumption. Social media influencers are generally evaluated in terms of perceived credibility, authenticity and congruence with the products and values they promote (Belanche et al., 2021; Pittman & Abell, 2021; Boerman et al., 2022). De-influencers extend this logic by positioning themselves as critical, cause-oriented creators who aim to protect consumers and promote more responsible choices (Koivunen et al., 2025; Elsantil et al., 2025).

The literature shows that de-influencing messages are not homogeneous. A key distinction is between pure discouragement, which focuses only on reasons not to buy, and alternative-based de-influencing, which couples criticism with recommendations of other products, brands or options (Kılıç & Polat, 2024; Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023; Dislaire, 2024). In this thesis, the type of de-influencing message (pure discouragement vs alternative-based) is considered as the main

independent variable. Three key perceptions are expected to structure how consumers evaluate de-influencers: credibility, authenticity and perceived altruism. In addition, FoMO and JoMO are included as emotional responses to the videos, and sustainable behaviour is considered as a broader consumption orientation that may shape purchase intentions for the Stanley cup and the alternative cup.

Research on influencer marketing shows that credibility and authenticity are central for persuasive impact and are reinforced by congruence between the influencer, the message and the promoted product or cause (Belanche et al., 2021; Pittman & Abell, 2021; Boerman et al., 2022). In the context of de-influencing, Elsantil et al. (2025) show that credibility and authenticity, combined with perceived altruism, drive sustainable behavioural intentions. Pure discouragement messages do not propose alternatives and can therefore appear less commercially oriented, which may support higher perceived altruism, authenticity and credibility. Alternative-based de-influencing, which introduces other products as better options, can be seen as helpful but may also raise doubts about the creator’s motives, especially when commercial links are involved (Ekvall & Mellberg, 2023). FoMO and JoMO are expected to capture how strongly viewers feel pressure to keep up with trends versus satisfaction with opting out, while sustainable behaviour reflects a general tendency towards responsible consumption that may influence purchase intentions.



Based on the literature and the conceptual framework, the following hypotheses are formulated:

- **H1 – Perceived credibility:** Pure discouragement de-influencing leads to higher perceived credibility of the de-influencer than alternative-based de-influencing.
- **H2 – Perceived authenticity:** Pure discouragement de-influencing leads to higher perceived authenticity of the de-influencer than alternative-based de-influencing.
- **H3 – Perceived altruism:** Pure discouragement de-influencing leads to higher perceived altruism of the de-influencer than alternative-based de-influencing.
- **H4 – FoMO (Fear of Missing Out):** Alternative-based de-influencing leads to higher FoMO related to the Stanley cup than pure discouragement de-influencing.

- **H5 – JoMO (Joy of Missing Out):** Pure discouragement de-influencing leads to higher JoMO related to the Stanley cup than alternative-based de-influencing.
- **H6 – Sustainable behaviour:** Consumers with a stronger tendency towards sustainable behaviour report lower purchase intention for the Stanley cup and higher purchase intention for the alternative cup (when an alternative is suggested).
- **H7 – Purchase intention for the criticised product:** Pure discouragement de-influencing leads to lower purchase intention for the criticised product (Stanley cup) than alternative-based de-influencing.
- **H8 – Purchase intention for the recommended alternative:** In the alternative-based de-influencing condition, purchase intention for the recommended alternative cup is higher than purchase intention for the criticised Stanley cup.

These hypotheses guide the empirical analyses presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

## Chapter 3 – Research Methodology

### 3.1 Research design

This thesis is based on a quantitative, between-subjects experimental design. The main objective is to compare two types of de-influencing messages on social media: pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing. In both conditions, participants watched a short TikTok-style video about the same product, the Stanley cup. In the pure discouragement condition, the creator focused on criticising the Stanley cup, for example by pointing out that it leaks easily when tilted and that it does not fit into all car cup holders, and clearly discouraged viewers from buying it. In the alternative-based condition, the creator used a similar critical introduction but then presented another cup as a better option, with a closing mechanism that prevents leaking even when the cup is turned upside down.

The type of message (pure discouragement versus alternative-based de-influencing) is the independent variable of the study. After viewing the assigned video, participants evaluated the creator, their own emotional reactions and their intentions regarding the criticised product and, when relevant, the recommended alternative. The design is between-subjects because each participant was exposed to only one of the two videos. Random assignment to conditions was managed directly by the online survey software to reduce selection biases.

### 3.2 Data collection and sample

Data were collected through an online self-administered questionnaire created on Qualtrics. The link to the survey was shared using a convenience sampling approach, mainly via Facebook groups, WhatsApp groups and direct contacts. The target group was adult social media users who are active on platforms such as TikTok and Instagram, since they are likely to encounter de-influencing content in their everyday online experience. Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

The questionnaire began with a short introduction explaining the purpose of the study, the approximate duration of the survey and the fact that answers would be treated confidentially.

Respondents were asked to confirm that they were at least 18 years old and agreed to participate. The first questions covered general background information such as social media use, familiarity with Stanley cups, ownership of a Stanley cup, overall attitude towards the product category, interest in reusable cups and attention paid to influencer recommendations.

Participants were then automatically and randomly assigned to one of the two video conditions and were asked to watch the TikTok-style video carefully, as if it appeared in their usual feed. Immediately after the video, they completed the main scales measuring their perceptions of the de-influencer, their FoMO and JoMO related to the Stanley cup, their purchase intention for the criticised Stanley cup and, in the alternative-based condition, their purchase intention for the recommended alternative cup. The questionnaire also included items measuring their general sustainable behaviour in everyday life.

At the end of the main part, two manipulation check items verified whether respondents perceived the video as discouraging purchase and whether they noticed that another product was suggested as an alternative. Additional questions assessed familiarity with the specific video and the creator, followed by basic socio-demographic information (age, gender, education level). The dataset was then cleaned for incomplete or inconsistent responses. A final valid sample was retained for analysis, with respondents distributed across the two experimental conditions. A detailed description of the sample and the cleaning process is reported in Chapter 4.

### 3.3 Measures

All key variables were measured with closed-ended questions, mostly using seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Multi-item scales were used for the main constructs. The exact wording of all items and their academic sources are presented in the measurement table in the appendix, together with the full questionnaire.

The independent variable, message type, was coded as a binary variable indicating whether the respondent had seen the pure discouragement video or the alternative-based de-influencing video. This variable reflects the structural difference between the two messages: one only discourages the Stanley cup, while the other both criticises it and recommends an alternative cup.

Perceived credibility, authenticity and altruism capture how the de-influencer is evaluated as a source. Credibility reflects whether the creator is seen as trustworthy, honest, knowledgeable and reliable. Authenticity refers to the perception that the creator is genuine, “real” and motivated by personal conviction rather than purely by commercial interests. Perceived altruism indicates the extent to which the creator appears to act in the interest of followers rather than for personal gain or for brands. Each of these constructs was measured with several items adapted from existing scales used in influencer and de-influencer research, and composite scores were obtained by averaging the corresponding items.

FoMO (Fear of Missing Out) and JoMO (Joy of Missing Out) were measured as emotional reactions linked to the decision not to buy the Stanley cup. The FoMO items assessed feelings such as anxiety, regret or the impression of falling behind others when not buying the product. The JoMO items focused on the positive side of opting out, such as feeling good about skipping the Stanley cup and enjoying the idea of not following the trend. Both scales were adapted from prior FoMO and JoMO research and rephrased to refer explicitly to the Stanley cup and the advice given in the video. Mean scores were computed for FoMO and JoMO separately.

Sustainable behaviour was measured as a general individual tendency to behave in an environmentally responsible way when consuming. The items asked participants how often they try to reduce waste, choose durable products, limit unnecessary purchases or consider environmental impact in their buying decisions. The scale was adapted from existing work on sustainable consumption and well-being and summarised in a single average score, with higher values indicating a stronger sustainable orientation.

Purchase intentions were measured separately for the criticised Stanley cup and for the recommended alternative cup. For the Stanley cup, participants indicated how likely they would be to buy it, whether they would consider buying it and whether they were interested in trying it. In the alternative-based condition, a similar set of items was used for the alternative cup. These items were based on standard purchase intention measures in marketing research and adjusted to the specific products used in this experiment. Two composite indices were created: one for purchase intention towards the Stanley cup and one for purchase intention towards the alternative cup, the latter being available only for respondents in the alternative-based condition.

In addition to these main constructs, the questionnaire included two manipulation check items. One item asked to what extent the video tried to discourage the respondent from buying a product, and the other asked whether the creator suggested another product as an alternative. These items were used to verify that the experimental manipulation was correctly perceived. Several background variables were also collected, such as overall attitude towards Stanley cups, interest in reusable cups, attention to influencer recommendations, frequency of TikTok and Instagram use, prior familiarity with the video and the creator, age, gender and education level. These variables provide context for the sample and can be used as controls where necessary.

The internal consistency and factorial structure of the multi-item scales were assessed in JASP before the main analyses. The results of these checks, as well as descriptive statistics and correlations between the main variables, are presented in Chapter 4 and in the appendices.

variable	source	code	item
Perceived credibility	Belanche et al., 2021	CRED1	This creator seems trustworthy.
		CRED2	This creator appears honest.
		CRED3	This creator seems knowledgeable about this type of product.
		CRED4	I think this creator is a reliable source of information.
Perceived authenticity	Zniva, Weitzl, & Lindmoser, 2023	AUTH1	This creator has a true passion for what they are doing.
		AUTH2	This creator does their best to share their personal experiences.
		AUTH3	This creator loves what they are doing in this video.
		AUTH4	This creator is genuine.

		AUTH5	This creator feels real to me.
		AUTH6	This creator is authentic.
Perceived altruism	Lopes, Bairrada, & Coelho, 2024	ALTR1	This creator is more interested in followers' well-being than in their own benefit.
		ALTR2	This video is mainly made to help followers choose the right product rather than to make money.
		ALTR3	This creator's reasons for making this video are altruistic rather than selfish
Purchase intention (criticised product = stanley cup)	Elhajjar & Itani, 2025	PI.CP1	I would consider buying this Stanley cup.
		PI CP2	It is likely that I would buy this Stanley cup in the future.
		PI.CP3	I am interested in trying this Stanley cup
Purchase intention (alternative product)	Elhajjar & Itani, 2025	PI.AP1	I would consider buying this alternative cup.
		PI.AP2	It is likely that I would buy this alternative cup in the future.
		PI.AP3	I am interested in trying this alternative cup.
JOMO		JOMO1	I will find it exciting to follow the influencer's advice and not buy the stanley
		JOMO2	It will feel good to skip the stanley cup and still feel connected to something meaningful.
		JOMO3	I will enjoy the decision to stay away from the stanley cup, even when others are going.
FOMO		FOMO1	I will feel anxious when I do not buy this Stanley cup
		FOMO2	I will feel like I am falling behind compared with others when I miss this Stanley cup.
		FOMO3	I will feel anxious because I will know something important or fun must happen when I miss this Stanley cup.
		FOMO4	I will feel sad if I am not capable of buying this Stanley cup due to other constraints.
		FOMO5	I will feel regretful about missing this this Stanley cup.
Sustainable behaviour	Sudbury-Riley, L., & Kohlbacher, F. (2016).	SB1	In general, when I buy products (including reusable cups like tumblers), I... ..choose the product that causes the least environmental damage when I have a choice.
		SB2	..have switched products for environmental reasons.

	SB3	..do not buy products if I understand they can damage the environment.
	SB4	..do not buy household products that harm the environment.
	SB5	..buy products packaged in reusable or recyclable containers whenever possible.
	SB6	..make every effort to buy paper products (toilet paper, tissues, etc.) made from recycled paper.
	SB7	..do not buy a product if I know the company selling it is socially irresponsible.
	SB8	..do not buy products from companies that use sweatshop labor, child labor, or other poor working conditions.
	SB9	..pay more for environmentally friendly products when there is a cheaper alternative.
	SB10	..pay more for socially responsible products when there is a cheaper alternative.

Table1 : Measurement scales, items and academic sources

## Chapitre 4: Data analysis and results

### 4.1 Data preparation and preliminary checks

In total, 155 respondents started the online questionnaire. Eighteen cases were excluded during the data cleaning phase. One respondent was removed because almost all answers were identical across the whole survey, which suggested that the questionnaire had not been completed seriously. The other seventeen cases were excluded because their answers to the two manipulation check questions clearly contradicted the content of the video they had been assigned to (for instance, indicating that the video did not try to discourage purchases or that no alternative cup was suggested while this was the case).

After these exclusions, the final dataset used for the analyses contained 139 valid responses, with 66 respondents in the pure de-influencing condition and 73 in the alternative-based de-influencing condition (see appendix 2). The data were exported from Qualtrics to Excel, where several variables were re-encoded before the analyses (for example, the experimental condition, some scale variables and categorical variables such as gender and familiarity with the video or the creator). The cleaned and recoded dataset was then imported into JASP. As the questionnaire relied exclusively on closed-ended scales, all remaining response values fell within the expected ranges and no additional imputation was necessary.

The two manipulation check items were used at the cleaning stage to identify respondents who had not properly processed the video content. For the final sample of 139 respondents retained in the analyses, these items will be examined in more detail in the next sections to confirm that

the de-influencing nature of the videos, and the presence or absence of an alternative cup, were perceived as intended.

## 4.2 Sample description

Respondents are relatively young, with an average age of 25.75 years (range: 13–47). In terms of gender, 64.7% identify as women, 34.5% as men and 0.7% as non-binary. Regarding education, 15.1% have completed secondary school, 36.7% hold a bachelor's degree, 36.7% a master's degree, and 11.5% report another type of education ( appendix 2 ).

Participants are heavy users of social media: 85.6% report using social networks (including TikTok and Instagram) several times a day and 11.5% about once a day. More specifically, 71.2% use TikTok several times a day and 11.5% about once a day, while only 6.5% indicate that they do not use TikTok at all. Instagram is even more present in their daily life, with 81.3% using it several times a day and 10.8% about once a day; only 1.4% declare not using Instagram (appendix 2).

Regarding the product category, 73.4% of respondents had already heard about Stanley cups, but only 13.7% currently own at least one. Familiarity with the specific video or the TikTok creator is low: 5.0% had already seen the video and 4.3% follow the creator, whereas more than 80% report no prior exposure (appendix 2). On average, the overall attitude towards Stanley cups is slightly below the midpoint of the 7-point scale (Mean = 3.99), while interest in reusable cups and tumblers is slightly above the midpoint (Mean = 4.27). Participants report paying a moderate amount of attention to product recommendations by influencers (Mean= 4.84)(see appendix 3).

Overall, the sample can be described as young, well-educated and intensive users of TikTok and Instagram, with good familiarity with the Stanley cup category but limited prior exposure to the specific creator and video used in this experiment.

## 4.3 Measurement model

### 4.3.1 Reliability of the scales

The internal consistency of the different multi-item scales was checked with Cronbach's alpha in JASP. Separate analyses were run for perceived credibility, perceived authenticity, perceived altruism, JOMO, FOMO, sustainable behaviour and purchase intention towards the Stanley cup.

The detailed results are reported in Appendix 4. All scales show high reliability, with alpha coefficients clearly above 0.70. Perceived credibility (4 items) has an alpha of 0.86, authenticity (6 items) 0.91 and altruism (3 items) 0.93. JOMO (3 items) reaches 0.96 and FOMO (5 items) 0.97. The sustainable behaviour scale (10 items) also shows very strong internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.97$ ). The purchase intention scale for the Stanley cup (3 items) is similarly reliable ( $\alpha = 0.91$ ). Since the alternative-cup scale uses the same three items with slightly adapted wording, it is assumed to have a comparable level of reliability.

On this basis, all scales can be considered internally consistent. For the following analyses, composite scores are therefore computed by averaging the items of each construct.

### 4.3.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

To check whether the items effectively measure their intended constructs, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) was conducted in JASP. For each scale, a one-factor model was estimated. Model fit was evaluated with three indicators: the chi-square test (and its p-value), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). In general, a good model should have a non-significant chi-square, CFI values close to or above 0.9 and RMSEA values below about 0.1 (Marketing research course- DATA ANALYSIS FOR YOUR (KIC) RESEARCH PROJECT).

The detailed results for each scale are presented in Appendix 5 -11. The model for perceived credibility shows an excellent fit (non-significant chi-square, CFI = 1, RMSEA = 0; Appendix 5). The models for perceived altruism, JOMO and the two purchase intention scales are just-identified (three items per construct), which automatically leads to perfect fit indices (CFI = 1, RMSEA = 0; Appendix 7, 8 and 11).

For perceived authenticity, FOMO and sustainable behaviour, the chi-square tests are significant and the RMSEA values are higher than the ideal threshold, while the CFI statistics remain around or slightly above 0.90 (Appendix 6, 9 and 10). This suggests an acceptable but not perfect fit.

Because all scales are based on measures that have already been used in previous studies and the overall fit remains satisfactory for the purpose of this thesis, no items were removed.

## 4.4 Descriptive statistics and correlations

Before testing the hypotheses, basic descriptive statistics were examined for all main constructs. Appendix 12 reports the means and standard deviations, as well as skewness, kurtosis and Shapiro–Wilk tests. On average, respondents perceive the de-influencer as rather credible, authentic and altruistic (all means slightly above 5 on a 7-point scale). JOMO is around the middle of the scale (Mean  $\approx$  3.83), while FOMO is clearly below the midpoint (Mean  $\approx$  2.75), suggesting that most participants do not feel a strong fear of missing out in this context (Appendix 12). Sustainable behaviour is slightly above the midpoint (Mean  $\approx$  3.81), indicating a moderate tendency to adopt more responsible consumption habits. Purchase intention towards the criticised Stanley cup is low (Mean  $\approx$  2.44), whereas intention to buy the alternative cup in the alternative condition is clearly higher (Mean  $\approx$  4.98; Appendix 12 and Appendix 13).

Relationships between the variables were explored using Pearson correlations (Appendix 14). Purchase intention towards the Stanley cup is negatively related to perceived credibility of the creator ( $r = -0.19$ ,  $p = .024$ ) and positively related to FOMO ( $r = 0.43$ ,  $p < .001$ ), while its correlations with authenticity, altruism, JOMO and sustainable behaviour are not significant. In contrast, purchase intention towards the alternative cup is positively associated with credibility ( $r = 0.25$ ,  $p = .032$ ), authenticity ( $r = 0.30$ ,  $p = .009$ ) and altruism ( $r = 0.32$ ,  $p = .006$ ), suggesting that these perceptions are more important when the creator recommends another option.

As expected, the perception variables are strongly correlated with each other: credibility is positively related to both authenticity and altruism, and authenticity is also strongly related to altruism (all  $p < .001$ ). JOMO and FOMO are moderately and positively correlated ( $r = 0.26$ ,  $p = .002$ ), meaning that people who report more FOMO also tend to experience more JOMO in this setting. Most other correlations are small and not significant. These descriptive patterns provide a first overview of how the main constructs are connected, before turning to the formal tests of the hypotheses in the next sections.

## 4.5 Results & hypothesis testing

### 4.5.1 Manipulation checks

Two independent-samples t-tests were run to verify whether the manipulation worked as intended. The first item (CHECK\_1) measured to what extent participants felt that the video tried to discourage them from buying a product. The mean scores are very high in both conditions (pure de-influencing:  $M = 6.17$ ,  $SD = 1.66$ ; alternative-based de-influencing:  $M = 6.10$ ,  $SD = 1.49$ ), and the difference between the two groups is not significant,  $t(137) = 0.27$ ,  $p = .792$ . This shows that both videos are clearly perceived as de-influencing content.

The second item (CHECK\_2) asked whether the creator suggested another product as an alternative. Here, the means are very different across conditions. In the pure de-influencing condition, participants largely disagreed with this statement ( $M = 1.52$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ), whereas in the alternative-based condition they strongly agreed that another cup was proposed ( $M = 6.51$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ). This difference is statistically significant,  $t(137) = -29.20$ ,  $p < .001$ . In other words, participants correctly recognised that only the alternative-based video recommended another product, which confirms that the manipulation of the “alternative vs. pure” de-influencing was successful (see appendix 15)

### 4.5.2 Effect of message type on perceptions of the de-influencer

To examine how the two de-influencing formats affect perceptions of the creator, independent-samples t-tests were run with message type (0 = pure discouragement, 1 = alternative-based) as grouping variable. The tests compared the two conditions on perceived credibility, authenticity, altruism, FOMO, JOMO and sustainable behaviour. Detailed statistics are reported in Appendix 16.

For perceived credibility, the mean is slightly higher in the pure discouragement condition ( $M = 5.75$ ) than in the alternative-based condition ( $M = 5.44$ ), but this difference is not statistically significant ( $p = .108$ ). This means that, although the pattern is in the expected direction, the data do not provide clear support for H1.

For perceived authenticity, respondents exposed to pure discouragement rate the creator as more authentic ( $M = 5.46$ ) than those exposed to an alternative-based message ( $M = 4.89$ ). This difference is significant ( $p = .004$ ). A similar pattern appears for perceived altruism: the pure discouragement condition leads to higher altruism scores ( $M = 5.55$ ) than the alternative-based condition ( $M = 4.53$ ), with a highly significant difference ( $p < .001$ ). These results support H2 and H3, indicating that a creator who only discourages the product, without suggesting another one, is seen as more authentic and more altruistic.

For FOMO, the mean is slightly higher in the alternative-based condition than in the pure discouragement condition ( $M = 2.80$  vs.  $M = 2.71$ ), but this difference is not significant ( $p = .783$ ). For JOMO, the means go in the opposite direction of what was expected: JOMO is somewhat higher in the alternative-based condition ( $M = 4.14$ ) than in the pure discouragement condition ( $M = 3.48$ ), yet this difference also remains non-significant ( $p = .081$ ). Therefore, H4 and H5 are not supported by the data.

Finally, sustainable behaviour scores are very similar in both conditions ( $M = 3.69$  for pure discouragement and  $M = 3.54$  for alternative-based de-influencing;  $p = .612$ ). This is consistent with the idea that sustainable behaviour is a more stable individual tendency rather than something that changes with one short video. Differences related to sustainable behaviour will

therefore be examined later in the thesis through its association with purchase intentions rather than as a direct effect of the manipulation.

In a next step, the impact of message type on purchase intention for the criticised product was examined. An independent-samples t-test compared PI-STAN between the pure discouragement condition and the alternative-based condition (Appendix 16). The mean purchase intention for the Stanley cup is slightly lower in the pure discouragement condition ( $M = 2.33$ ) than in the alternative-based condition ( $M = 2.54$ ), but this difference is not statistically significant ( $p = .408$ ). Thus, the data do not support H7: pure de-influencing does not lead to clearly lower purchase intention for the Stanley cup than alternative-based de-influencing.

For respondents in the alternative-based condition, a paired-samples t-test was run to compare purchase intention for the Stanley cup and for the recommended alternative cup (Appendix 15). Results show a strong and significant difference: participants report much higher intention to buy the alternative cup than the Stanley cup ( $p < .001$ ). This finding supports H8 and suggests that, when an alternative is proposed, the de-influencing message mainly redirects demand from the criticised product towards the recommended option.

### 4.5.3 Effect of sustainable behaviour on purchase intentions

To test H6, two simple linear regressions were run in JASP, with sustainable behaviour as predictor and purchase intention as outcome. The first model used purchase intention for the Stanley cup (PI-STAN) as dependent variable (Appendix 17). The overall model is not significant ( $p = .118$ ) and explains only around 2% of the variance in PI-STAN. The regression coefficient for sustainable behaviour is positive but non-significant, indicating that more sustainable consumers do not clearly report lower purchase intention for the Stanley cup.

The second model focused on the alternative condition and used purchase intention for the alternative cup (PI-ALTER) as dependent variable (Appendix 18). Here again, the model is not significant ( $p = .360$ ) and the variance explained is very small. The coefficient for sustainable behaviour is slightly negative but non-significant, which means that more sustainable consumers do not show a systematically higher intention to buy the alternative cup.

Taken together, these results indicate that general sustainable behaviour does not significantly predict purchase intentions in this study. H6 is therefore not supported.

## 4.6 Summary of hypothesis testing

Based on the different analyses, some hypotheses are supported while others are not. Pure discouragement de-influencing does not significantly increase perceived credibility (H1), but it does lead to higher perceived authenticity and altruism of the creator (H2 and H3 supported). The message type does not significantly change FOMO and JOMO (H4 and H5 not supported), and sustainable behaviour does not predict purchase intentions for either the Stanley cup or the alternative cup (H6 not supported).

In addition, pure discouragement does not reduce intention to buy the criticised Stanley cup compared to alternative-based de-influencing (H7 not supported). However, in the alternative-based condition, participants clearly prefer the recommended alternative cup over the Stanley cup, which confirms H8. These results will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

## Chapter 5 : Discussion and conclusion

### 5.1 Overview of main results

This thesis compared two types of de-influencing messages on social media: a pure discouragement message, where the creator only criticised the Stanley cup, and an alternative-based message, where the creator criticised the Stanley cup and recommended another cup as a better option. Before analysing the main effects, the manipulation checks confirmed that both videos were clearly perceived as trying to discourage the purchase of a product, and that only the alternative-based video was seen as suggesting another cup. This means that the two conditions were understood by participants as intended.

The results show that the type of de-influencing message has a clear impact on how the creator is perceived, but a more limited impact on the intention to buy the criticised product. Pure discouragement does not significantly increase perceived credibility compared to alternative-based de-influencing, but it does lead to higher perceived authenticity and higher perceived altruism of the creator. In other words, a creator who only discourages the product, without proposing another one, is seen as more “real” and more oriented towards followers’ interests. The expected differences for FOMO and JOMO are not confirmed, and sustainable behaviour does not significantly predict purchase intentions, which suggests that these variables play a smaller role in this specific context than initially expected.

Regarding purchase intentions, both message types lead to low intention to buy the Stanley cup, and there is no significant difference between pure discouragement and alternative-based de-influencing on this outcome. However, within the alternative-based condition, participants show a much higher intention to buy the recommended alternative cup than the criticised Stanley cup. This suggests that alternative-based de-influencing mainly redirects demand away from the criticised product towards another option, rather than further reducing overall purchase intention. Taken together, the findings indicate that pure discouragement is more beneficial for the image of the de-influencer, while alternative-based de-influencing is particularly effective in shifting interest from the criticised product to a suggested alternative.

### 5.2 Discussion of results considering the literature

This study shows that pure discouragement mainly improves how the creator is perceived, while alternative-based de-influencing is more effective in redirecting interest towards another product. When the creator only criticises the Stanley cup without suggesting an alternative, participants see her as more authentic and more altruistic, which is in line with previous work on the importance of perceived sincerity and follower-oriented motives in influencer communication. However, this more positive image does not translate into a much lower intention to buy the Stanley cup.

In contrast, when the creator proposes an alternative cup, participants clearly prefer this alternative over the Stanley cup. This suggests that, in practice, de-influencing often leads to a redirection of consumption rather than a real reduction of buying. The absence of strong effects for FOMO, JOMO and sustainable behaviour indicates that these variables play a more limited role in this specific context, possibly because the product category is functional and participants already report relatively low FOMO and only moderate sustainable habits.

### 5.3 Managerial implications

The results of this study have several practical implications for creators and brands. First, pure discouragement de-influencing seems to protect and even reinforce the image of the creator. When the creator only criticises the Stanley cup without suggesting another option, she is seen as more authentic and more altruistic. For influencers who want to build long-term trust and appear less commercially driven, it may be useful to sometimes share “pure” critical content without immediately promoting another product.

Second, alternative-based de-influencing appears more effective from a commercial point of view. In the alternative condition, participants clearly prefer the recommended cup over the Stanley cup. This suggests that brands and creators can use de-influencing to redirect demand towards products that they consider better, safer or more aligned with certain values. However, they should be aware that this format does not necessarily reduce overall consumption and may be perceived as closer to traditional influencer marketing. Managers who communicate about sustainability or responsible consumption should therefore carefully balance commercial objectives with the desire to appear genuine and follower-oriented.

### 5.4 Limitations and future research

This study has several limitations that should be kept in mind. First, the experiment is based on a single product category (Stanley-type cups) and on one creator and one pair of videos. The results may be different for other products, such as beauty, fashion or more symbolic items, or with other types of creators. Future research could replicate this design with different categories, different platforms or different de-influencers to see whether the patterns are similar.

Second, the sample is relatively young and very active on social media, which fits the context of TikTok, but limits the generalisation of the results to older or less connected consumers. Future studies could include more diverse samples or compare age groups.

Third, the study relies on self-reported intentions rather than actual behaviour. In real life, many other factors can influence whether people finally buy a product or not, such as time pressure, budget, friends’ opinions or repeated exposure to content. It is possible that one single short video is not enough to strongly change FOMO, JOMO or purchase decisions, especially in a social media environment where users scroll quickly and see many different messages. Future research could use longitudinal designs or combine surveys with behavioural data to better understand how de-influencing content works over time.

Finally, only a limited set of variables was included in the model. The study focused on perceptions of the creator (credibility, authenticity, altruism), FOMO, JOMO, sustainable behaviour and purchase intentions. Other factors such as prior involvement with the product category, attitudes towards influencer marketing in general or perceived sponsorship were not measured. Future research could include these additional variables and use more complex models to better understand how de-influencing operates in different contexts.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: questionnaire

#### Introduction and consent

Thank you for taking part in this study.

The purpose of this survey is to better understand how people perceive different types of social media content related to products.

Your participation is completely voluntary. Your answers are anonymous and will be used for research purposes only. There are no right or wrong answers; we are only interested in your personal opinions.

The questionnaire takes approximately ... minutes to complete.

By clicking “Next” / continuing, you confirm that:

- you are at least 18 years old; and
- you agree to take part in this study.

### **Part 1 – Eligibility and Stanley cup baseline**

Q1. How old are you?  
[Open numeric field]

Q2. How often do you use social media (for example, TikTok, Instagram, YouTube, etc.)?

- Several times a day
- About once a day
- A few times per week
- About once per week
- Less than once per week
- I do not use social media

Q3. Before today, had you ever heard about Stanley cups?

- Yes
- No

Q4. Do you currently own a Stanley cup?

- Yes, I own at least one Stanley cup
- No, I do not own any Stanley cup

Q5. In general, what is your overall attitude towards Stanley cups?

- 1 = Very bad
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7 = Very good

### **part 2 – Video stimulus (random assignment)**

On the next screen, you will see a short TikTok video about Stanley cups.  
Please watch it carefully as if it appeared in your usual social media feed.

Condition A – TikTok video with pure de-influencing (criticising the Stanley cup, no alternative suggested) [Allow me to deinfluence you stanley cup edition! Yes i love her, yes i... | TikTok](#)

Condition B – TikTok video with alternative-based de-influencing (criticising the Stanley cup and recommending another cup as a better option) [TikTok - Make Your Day](#)

### Part 3 – Main measures

For the following statements, please indicate your level of agreement.

1 = Strongly disagree

2

3

4

5

6

7 = Strongly agree

- Perceived credibility

This creator seems trustworthy.

This creator appears honest.

This creator seems knowledgeable about this type of product.

I think this creator is a reliable source of information.

- Perceived authenticity

This creator has a true passion for what they are doing.

This creator does their best to share their personal experiences.

This creator loves what they are doing in this video.

This creator is genuine.

This creator feels real to me.

This creator is authentic.

- Perceived altruism

This creator is more interested in followers' well-being than in their own benefit.

This video is mainly made to help followers choose the right product rather than to make money.

This creator's reasons for making this video are altruistic rather than selfish.

- Sustainable behaviour (general)

In general, when I buy products (including reusable cups like tumblers), I...

..choose the product that causes the least environmental damage when I have a choice.

..have switched products for environmental reasons.

..do not buy products if I understand they can damage the environment.

..do not buy household products that harm the environment

..buy products packaged in reusable or recyclable containers whenever possible.

..make every effort to buy paper products (toilet paper, tissues, etc.) made from recycled paper.

..do not buy a product if I know the company selling it is socially irresponsible.

..do not buy products from companies that use sweatshop labor, child labor, or other poor working conditions.

..pay more for environmentally friendly products when there is a cheaper alternative.

..pay more for socially responsible products when there is a cheaper alternative.

Same response scale: 1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree.

JoMO (Joy of Missing Out) – related to the Stanley cup

Please indicate how you feel about following the influencer’s advice and not buying this Stanley cup.

I will find it exciting to follow the influencer’s advice and not buy the Stanley cup.  
It will feel good to skip the Stanley cup and still feel connected to something meaningful.  
I will enjoy the decision to stay away from the Stanley cup, even when others are buying it.

(1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree)

FoMO (Fear of Missing Out) – related to the Stanley cup

Please indicate how you feel about not buying this Stanley cup

I will feel anxious when I do not buy this Stanley cup.  
I will feel like I am falling behind compared with others when I miss this Stanley cup.  
I will feel anxious because I will know something important or fun must happen when I miss this Stanley cup.  
I will feel sad if I am not capable of buying this Stanley cup due to other constraints.  
I will feel regretful about missing this Stanley cup.

(1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree)

Purchase intention – criticised Stanley cup

Now think about the Stanley cup criticised in the video.

I would consider buying this Stanley cup.  
It is likely that I would buy this Stanley cup in the future.  
I am interested in trying this Stanley cup.

(1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree)

Purchase intention – alternative cup (only in alternative-based condition)

Now think about the alternative cup suggested in the video.

I would consider buying this alternative cup.  
It is likely that I would buy this alternative cup in the future.  
I am interested in trying this alternative cup.

(1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree)

#### **Part 4 – Manipulation checks and familiarity**

Manipulation checks

This video mainly tried to discourage me from buying a product.

(1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree)

The creator suggested another product as an alternative.

(1 = Strongly disagree ... 7 = Strongly agree)

Familiarity

Before today, had you already seen this TikTok video?

Yes

No

I am not sure

Do you currently follow this TikTok creator on any platform?

Yes

No

I am not sure

## **Part 5 – Social media use, interest in the category and socio-demographics**

How often do you use TikTok?

Several times a day

About once a day

A few times per week

About once per week

Less often

I do not use TikTok

How often do you use Instagram?

Several times a day

About once a day

A few times per week

About once per week

Less often

I do not use Instagram

How interested are you in this type of product (for example, insulated tumblers / reusable cups such as Stanley cups)?

1 = Not at all interested

2 = Slightly interested

3 = Rather not interested

4 = Neither interested nor uninterested

5 = Rather interested

6 = Very interested

7 = Extremely interested

In general, how much attention do you pay to product recommendations by influencers?

1 = Very little attention

2

3

4

5

6

7 = A great deal of attention

What is your gender?

Woman

Man

Non-binary / prefer to self-describe: \_\_\_\_\_

Prefer not to say

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

Secondary school

Bachelor's degree

Master's degree

Other

## Appendix 2: Sample characteristics - frequencies

Variable	Level	Counts	Total	Proportion	p
SM-FREQU	1	119	139	0.856	< .001
	2	16	139	0.115	< .001
	3	3	139	0.022	< .001
	6	1	139	0.007	< .001
SM-TIKTOK	1	99	139	0.712	< .001
	2	16	139	0.115	< .001
	3	5	139	0.036	< .001
	4	3	139	0.022	< .001
	5	7	139	0.050	< .001
	6	9	139	0.065	< .001
SM-IG	1	113	139	0.813	< .001
	2	15	139	0.108	< .001
	3	7	139	0.050	< .001
	4	2	139	0.014	< .001
	6	2	139	0.014	< .001
STAN-FAM	0	37	139	0.266	< .001
	1	102	139	0.734	< .001
STAN-OWN	0	120	139	0.863	< .001
	1	19	139	0.137	< .001
GEND	1	90	139	0.647	< .001
	2	48	139	0.345	< .001
	3	1	139	0.007	< .001
EDU	1	21	139	0.151	< .001
	2	51	139	0.367	.002
	3	51	139	0.367	.002
	4	16	139	0.115	< .001
FAM1	1	7	139	0.050	< .001
	2	114	139	0.820	< .001
	3	18	139	0.129	< .001
FAM2	1	6	139	0.043	< .001
	2	129	139	0.928	< .001
	3	4	139	0.029	< .001

Note: Proportions tested against value: 0.5

- Social Media Frequency ( including tiktok & IG questions) : 1= several times a day .... 6=I do not use the app
- Gender: 1=woman, 2=man, 3=non-binary, 4=prefer not to say
- Stanley Familiarity / Stan own : 0= no , 1=yes
- Education: 1=secondary school, 2=bachelor's degree, 3=master's degree, 4=other
- Familiarity with the video or with the tiktok creator: 1=yes, 2=no, 3= I am not sure

## Appendix 3: Descriptive statistics for control variables

### Descriptive Statistics

	AGE	STAN-ATT_1	INTEREST PRODUCT	INT-INFLUENCERS_4
Valid	139	139	139	139
Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean	25.75	3.986	4.266	4.835
Std. Deviation	5.449	1.798	1.780	1.492
Minimum	13.00	1.000	1.000	1.000
Maximum	47.00	7.000	7.000	7.000

## Appendix 4: Cronbach alpha

### ○ Perceived Credibility

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics*

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.858	0.031	0.796	0.919

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
CRED_1	0.805	0.721	0.890	0.732	0.644	0.801
CRED_2	0.776	0.677	0.876	0.800	0.731	0.853
CRED_3	0.845	0.776	0.914	0.635	0.524	0.725
CRED_4	0.843	0.742	0.943	0.646	0.537	0.734

### ○ Perceived Authenticity

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics* ▼

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.914	0.016	0.883	0.945

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
AUTH_1	0.901	0.870	0.932	0.739	0.653	0.806
AUTH_2	0.901	0.866	0.937	0.735	0.647	0.803
AUTH_3	0.895	0.856	0.934	0.786	0.713	0.842
AUTH_4	0.899	0.861	0.938	0.751	0.668	0.816
AUTH_5	0.894	0.852	0.937	0.788	0.716	0.844
AUTH_6	0.899	0.858	0.939	0.754	0.672	0.818

### ○ Perceived Altruism

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics*

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.927	0.017	0.894	0.959

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
ALTR_1	0.908	0.858	0.958	0.833	0.774	0.878
ALTR_2	0.865	0.791	0.939	0.886	0.844	0.917
ALTR_3	0.907	0.855	0.960	0.834	0.775	0.878

○ **JOMO**

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics*

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.959	0.009	0.942	0.977

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
JOMO_1	0.941	0.906	0.975	0.913	0.881	0.937
JOMO_2	0.938	0.913	0.963	0.916	0.885	0.940
JOMO_3	0.942	0.910	0.974	0.912	0.878	0.936

○ **FOMO**

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics*

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.965	0.007	0.952	0.978

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
FOMO_1	0.963	0.950	0.977	0.860	0.809	0.898
FOMO_2	0.956	0.938	0.974	0.906	0.871	0.932
FOMO_3	0.955	0.940	0.971	0.911	0.877	0.935
FOMO_4	0.954	0.935	0.972	0.920	0.890	0.942
FOMO_5	0.955	0.937	0.973	0.909	0.875	0.934

○ **Sustainable Behavior**

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics*

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.966	0.005	0.956	0.976

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
SUST_1	0.963	0.952	0.974	0.819	0.755	0.867
SUST_2	0.962	0.951	0.973	0.843	0.787	0.885
SUST_3	0.960	0.949	0.972	0.893	0.854	0.923
SUST_4	0.963	0.952	0.973	0.827	0.766	0.873
SUST_5	0.962	0.951	0.974	0.839	0.782	0.882
SUST_6	0.962	0.951	0.973	0.847	0.792	0.888
SUST_7	0.962	0.951	0.973	0.855	0.803	0.895
SUST_8	0.963	0.952	0.974	0.824	0.762	0.871
SUST_9	0.963	0.952	0.974	0.820	0.756	0.868
SUST_10	0.961	0.949	0.973	0.874	0.828	0.908

○ **Purchase Intention**

*Frequentist Scale Reliability Statistics* ▼

Coefficient	Estimate	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper
Coefficient $\alpha$	0.912	0.024	0.864	0.959

*Frequentist Individual Item Reliability Statistics*

Item	Coefficient $\alpha$ (if item dropped)			Item-rest correlation		
	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI	Estimate	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
PI-STAN_1	0.885	0.807	0.962	0.810	0.744	0.861
PI-STAN_2	0.846	0.759	0.934	0.854	0.802	0.894
PI-STAN_3	0.888	0.814	0.961	0.809	0.742	0.859

## Appendix 5: Confirmatory factor analysis – Credibility

*Chi-square test*

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	261.863	6	
Factor model	0.317	2	.854

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard. The standard error method is standard.

*Fit indices*

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	1.000
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	1.020
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	1.020
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.999
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.333
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.996
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	1.006
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	1.007

*Other fit measures* ▼

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.091
RMSEA p-value	0.894
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.006
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	2632.020
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	4045.519
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.999
McDonald fit index (MFI)	1.006
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.117

## Appendix 6: Confirmatory factor analysis – Authenticity

### Chi-square test

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	563.941	15	
Factor model	49.561	9	< .001

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard. The standard error method is standard.

### Fit indices

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.926
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.877
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.877
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.912
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.547
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.854
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.927
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	0.926

### Other fit measures

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.180
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.133
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.231
RMSEA p-value	$1.160 \times 10^{-5}$
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.045
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	48.452
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	61.765
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.899
McDonald fit index (MFI)	0.864
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.529

## Appendix 7: Confirmatory factor analysis – Altruisme

### Chi-square test ▼

Model	$\chi^2$	df	p
Baseline model	334.801	3	
Factor model	0.000	0	

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard.  
The standard error method is standard.

### Fit indices

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	1.000
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	1.000
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	1.000
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	1.000
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.000
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	1.000
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	1.000
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	1.000

### Other fit measures ▼

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.000
RMSEA p-value	
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	$1.119 \times 10^{-9}$
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	1.000
McDonald fit index (MFI)	1.000
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.086

## Appendix 8: Confirmatory factor analysis – JOMO

### *Chi-square test*

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	466.262	3	
Factor model	0.000	0	

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard. The standard error method is standard.

### *Fit indices*

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	1.000
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	1.000
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	1.000
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	1.000
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.000
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	1.000
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	1.000
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	1.000

### *Other fit measures* ▼

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.000
RMSEA p-value	
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	1.036×10 <sup>-8</sup>
Hoelter's critical N (α = .05)	
Hoelter's critical N (α = .01)	
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	1.000
McDonald fit index (MFI)	1.000
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.086

## Appendix 9: Confirmatory factor analysis – FOMO

### *Chi-square test*

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	880.271	10	
Factor model	22.962	5	< .001

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard. The standard error method is standard.

### *Fit indices*

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.979
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.959
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.959
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.974
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.487
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.948
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.979
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	0.979

### *Other fit measures*

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.161
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.098
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.230
RMSEA p-value	0.003
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.017
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	68.014
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	92.323
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.940
McDonald fit index (MFI)	0.937
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.309

## Appendix 10: Confirmatory factor analysis – sustainable behavior

### *Chi-square test*

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	1590.643	45	
Factor model	169.815	35	< .001

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard.  
The standard error method is standard.

### *Fit indices*

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.913
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.888
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.888
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.893
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.695
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.863
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.913
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	0.913

### *Other fit measures*

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.166
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.142
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.192
RMSEA p-value	$2.205 \times 10^{-13}$
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	0.038
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	41.765
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	47.937
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	0.805
McDonald fit index (MFI)	0.616
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	1.509

## Appendix 11: Confirmatory factor analysis – Purchase Intention (stanley cup & Alternative cup)

### Chi-square test ▼

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	161.691	3	
Factor model	0.000	0	

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard.  
The standard error method is standard.

### Chi-square test

Model	X <sup>2</sup>	df	p
Baseline model	291.630	3	
Factor model	0.000	0	

*Note.* The estimator is ML. The test statistic is standard.  
The standard error method is standard.

### Fit indices

Index	Value
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	1.000
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	1.000
Bentler-Bonett Non-normed Fit Index (NNFI)	1.000
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index (NFI)	1.000
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.000
Bollen's Relative Fit Index (RFI)	1.000
Bollen's Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	1.000
Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI)	1.000

*Other fit measures* ▼

Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.000
RMSEA p-value	
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	$9.388 \times 10^{-10}$
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	1.000
McDonald fit index (MFI)	1.000
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.086

*Other fit measures* ▼

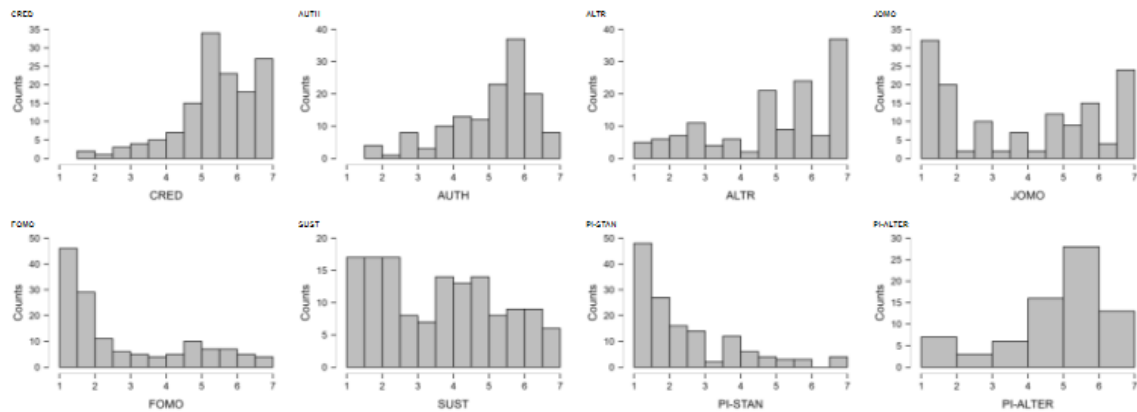
Metric	Value
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI lower bound	0.000
RMSEA 90% CI upper bound	0.000
RMSEA p-value	
Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR)	$1.091 \times 10^{-8}$
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .05$ )	1.000
Hoelter's critical N ( $\alpha = .01$ )	1.000
Goodness of fit index (GFI)	1.000
McDonald fit index (MFI)	1.000
Expected cross validation index (ECVI)	0.247

## Appendix 12 : Normality checks

### Descriptive Statistics

	CRED	AUTH	ALTR	JOMO	FOMO	SUST	PI-STAN	PI-ALTER
Valid	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	73
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66
Mean	5.588	5.159	5.014	3.825	2.754	3.609	2.438	4.984
Std. Deviation	1.128	1.190	1.747	2.207	1.812	1.728	1.517	1.504
Skewness	-0.981	-0.984	-0.736	0.044	0.848	0.167	1.217	-1.294
Std. Error of Skewness	0.206	0.206	0.206	0.206	0.206	0.206	0.206	0.281
Kurtosis	1.087	0.355	-0.578	-1.599	-0.698	-1.149	0.937	1.100
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.408	0.408	0.408	0.408	0.408	0.408	0.408	0.555
Shapiro-Wilk	0.920	0.913	0.897	0.878	0.842	0.950	0.850	0.859
P-value of Shapiro-Wilk	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001
Minimum	1.800	1.800	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Maximum	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000

### Distribution Note



## Appendix 13: Descriptive statistics for purchase intention towards the Stanley cup by condition

*Descriptive Statistics*

	PI-STAN	
	0	1
Valid	66	73
Missing	0	0
Mean	2.326	2.540
Std. Deviation	1.424	1.600
Minimum	1.000	1.000
Maximum	7.000	7.000

## Appendix 14: Correlation for main construcs

*Pearson's Correlations*

			Pearson's r	p
PI-STAN	-	PI-ALTER	0.033	.782
PI-STAN	-	CRED	-0.191	.024
PI-STAN	-	AUTH	0.053	.539
PI-STAN	-	ALTR	-0.019	.825
PI-STAN	-	JOMO	0.021	.809
PI-STAN	-	FOMO	0.434	< .001
PI-STAN	-	SUST	0.133	.118
PI-ALTER	-	CRED	0.251	.032
PI-ALTER	-	AUTH	0.302	.009
PI-ALTER	-	ALTR	0.318	.006
PI-ALTER	-	JOMO	-0.128	.279
PI-ALTER	-	FOMO	0.218	.064
PI-ALTER	-	SUST	-0.109	.360
CRED	-	AUTH	0.556	< .001
CRED	-	ALTR	0.384	< .001
CRED	-	JOMO	-0.138	.104
CRED	-	FOMO	-1.850×10 <sup>-4</sup>	.998
CRED	-	SUST	-0.100	.239
AUTH	-	ALTR	0.646	< .001
AUTH	-	JOMO	-0.002	.978
AUTH	-	FOMO	0.050	.558
AUTH	-	SUST	0.043	.614
ALTR	-	JOMO	0.025	.767
ALTR	-	FOMO	0.039	.647
ALTR	-	SUST	0.176	.038
JOMO	-	FOMO	-0.266	.002
JOMO	-	SUST	0.263	.002
FOMO	-	SUST	0.017	.845

## Appendix 15 : Independent-samples t-tests for manipulation checks

### *Independent Samples T-Test* ▼

	t	df	p
CHECK_1	0.265	137	.792
CHECK_2	-29.204	137	< .001

*Note.* Student's t-test.

### **Descriptives**

#### *Group Descriptives*

	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE	Coefficient of variation
CHECK_1	0	66	6.167	1.660	0.204	0.269
	1	73	6.096	1.492	0.175	0.245
CHECK_2	0	66	1.515	1.070	0.132	0.707
	1	73	6.507	0.945	0.111	0.145

## Appendix 16: independent sample t-tests

### Independent Samples T-Test ▼

	t	df	p
PI-STAN	-0.829	137	.408
CRED	1.616	137	.108 <sup>a</sup>
AUTH	2.933	137	.004
ALTR	3.582	137	< .001 <sup>a</sup>
JOMO	-1.758	137	.081
FOMO	-0.277	137	.783
SUST	0.508	137	.612

Note. Student's t-test.

<sup>a</sup> Brown-Forsythe test is significant ( $p < .05$ ), suggesting a violation of the equal variance assumption

## Descriptives

### Group Descriptives

	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE	Coefficient of variation
PI-STAN	0	66	2.326	1.424	0.175	0.612
	1	73	2.540	1.600	0.187	0.630
CRED	0	66	5.747	1.398	0.172	0.243
	1	73	5.440	0.787	0.092	0.145
AUTH	0	66	5.462	1.021	0.126	0.187
	1	73	4.885	1.270	0.149	0.260
ALTR	0	66	5.550	1.546	0.190	0.279
	1	73	4.530	1.785	0.209	0.394
JOMO	0	66	3.482	2.259	0.278	0.649
	1	73	4.136	2.126	0.249	0.514
FOMO	0	66	2.709	1.862	0.229	0.687
	1	73	2.795	1.779	0.208	0.636
SUST	0	66	3.688	1.752	0.216	0.475
	1	73	3.538	1.716	0.201	0.485

*Independent Samples T-Test* ▼

	t	df	p
PI-STAN	-0.829	137	.408
CRED	1.616	137	.108 <sup>a</sup>
AUTH	2.933	137	.004
ALTR	3.582	137	< .001 <sup>a</sup>
JOMO	-1.758	137	.081
FOMO	-0.277	137	.783
SUST	0.508	137	.612

*Note.* Student's t-test.

<sup>a</sup> Brown-Forsythe test is significant ( $p < .05$ ), suggesting a violation of the equal variance assumption

## Descriptives

*Group Descriptives*

	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE	Coefficient of variation
PI-STAN	0	66	2.326	1.424	0.175	0.612
	1	73	2.540	1.600	0.187	0.630
CRED	0	66	5.747	1.398	0.172	0.243
	1	73	5.440	0.787	0.092	0.145
AUTH	0	66	5.462	1.021	0.126	0.187
	1	73	4.885	1.270	0.149	0.260
ALTR	0	66	5.550	1.546	0.190	0.279
	1	73	4.530	1.785	0.209	0.394
JOMO	0	66	3.482	2.259	0.278	0.649
	1	73	4.136	2.126	0.249	0.514
FOMO	0	66	2.709	1.862	0.229	0.687
	1	73	2.795	1.779	0.208	0.636
SUST	0	66	3.688	1.752	0.216	0.475
	1	73	3.538	1.716	0.201	0.485

## Appendix 17 : Linear regression: sustainable behaviour predicting purchase intention for the Stanley cup (PI-STAN)

Model Summary - PI-ALTER

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	RMSE
M <sub>0</sub>	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.504
M <sub>1</sub>	0.109	0.012	-0.002	1.505

Note. M<sub>1</sub> includes SUST

ANOVA ▼

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
M <sub>1</sub>	Regression	1.925	1	1.925	0.849	.360
	Residual	160.876	71	2.266		
	Total	162.800	72			

Note. M<sub>1</sub> includes SUST

Note. The intercept model is omitted, as no meaningful information can be shown.

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized	Standard Error	Standardized	t	p
M <sub>0</sub>	(Intercept)	4.984	0.176		28.317	< .001
M <sub>1</sub>	(Intercept)	5.321	0.406		13.102	< .001
	SUST	-0.095	0.103	-0.109	-0.922	.360

## Appendix 18 : Linear regression: sustainable behaviour predicting purchase intention for the alternative cup (PI-ALTER)

Model Summary - PI-STAN

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	RMSE
M <sub>0</sub>	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.517
M <sub>1</sub>	0.133	0.018	0.011	1.509

Note. M<sub>1</sub> includes SUST

ANOVA ▼

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
M <sub>1</sub>	Regression	5.631	1	5.631	2.473	.118
	Residual	311.957	137	2.277		
	Total	317.588	138			

Note. M<sub>1</sub> includes SUST

Note. The intercept model is omitted, as no meaningful information can be shown.

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized	Standard Error	Standardized	t	p
M <sub>0</sub>	(Intercept)	2.438	0.129		18.948	< .001
M <sub>1</sub>	(Intercept)	2.016	0.297		6.782	< .001
	SUST	0.117	0.074	0.133	1.573	.118