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**THE PERCEIVED EMPOWERING AND
BRAND-RELATED EFFECTS OF FEMVERTISING**

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1. INTRODUCTION

The introduction section intended to present the topic and research relevance, the aim of the research, and the two main research questions. Besides, it also discusses the theoretical and practical contribution, as well as the structure of the thesis.

1.1. Topic outline and research relevance

Women empowerment and accurate portrayals of women have gained relevance in advertising (Varghese & Kumar, 2020a). These are fundamental components of feminist ideology, which aims to achieve gender equality (Skey, 2015). Although advertising portrayals of women have become less stereotyped in recent decades, and the avoidance of gender stereotypes in advertising has been adopted in the form of legislation, such as in the United Kingdom (Eisend, 2010; Åkestam, 2018), it remains a topic of frequent public debate. Advertising has a significant impact on the empowerment of women in society with both positive and negative effects (Banerjee et al., 2015; Jejeebhoy, 2002b). Femvertising, which promotes female empowerment, has become more popular in this context among academics and practitioners. The main goal of femvertising is to promote conscious thinking that avoids gender stereotypes (Kapoor & Munjal, 2017). Femvertising empowers women and is well received by customers (Elhajjar 2021; Teng et al., 2020). Besides, it may also have a positive influence on the brand's attitude (Åkestam et al., 2017) and increase purchase intent (Drake, 2017). Therefore, femvertising may trigger an overall growth in sales of the brand it presents - thus, using femvertising type of advertising can be beneficial for the companies as well (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016). As a consequence, in recent years, numerous great femvertising campaigns have been realized, such as Lane Bryant #I'm No Angel, Nissan #SheDrives, and Always #Like a Girl (Champlin et al., 2019).

This study aims to respond to the research gaps regarding female empowerment advertising and the related female stereotypical depictions across diverse cultural backgrounds. The current research found four identifiable research gaps, which are the following.

(1) Among the first studies, dimensions of femvertising, such as decision-making, control over income, and self-esteem, are examined along with femvertising in the current study's qualitative research. Most of the investigations surrounding women empowerment have emerged from the fields of social sciences, economics, finance, business and psychology (Grabe, 2012). The main factors that are related to women empowerment, such as decision making, control over income, have already been examined in several different countries, for instance in Spain (de Celis et al., 2015), United Kingdom (Raisborough & Bhatti, 2007), Bangladesh (Kabeer, 2011; Mahmud et al., 2012), Pakistan (Aziz et al., 2011), Oman (Al-Lamky, 2007), Ethiopia (Tarozzi et al; Mabsout & Staveren, 2010), India (Banerjee et al., 2015) and Philippines (Ashraf et al., 2010). Besides, there have been a vast number of cross-cultural comparisons about women empowerment variables, some of them using qualitative methods (Metcalf, 2011 about Gulf countries), but the use of quantitative indexes was the most common (eg. Knudsen & Wærness, 2008 comparing 34 countries; Njoh & Akiwumi, 2012 researching in African countries, Alkire et al., 2013 investigating in Guatemala, Uganda and in Bangladesh). Nonetheless, these variables were not researched in marketing-related articles, and there has been no direct connection made to marketing attributes, such as femvertising.

(2) Besides, gender stereotypes and roles have been mainly been investigated by psychology (see for instance: García-Cueto et al., 2014 – gender role attitude; Diekmann & Eagly, 2000 - perceived role non-traditionalism, gender-stereotypic characteristics), but also in the marketing literature (see for instance: Åkestam et al. (2021); DeYoung & Crane, 1992).), but the effect of gender role (equality) attitude related to femvertising haven't been researched yet. Thus, this variable is included in the quantitative research of the dissertation as a moderator variable.

(3) Femvertising is explored with an interview method, as proposed by Middleton et al. (2020), which has seldom been done before, for more in-depth knowledge of the phenomenon. Åkestam (2018) also suggests the usage of qualitative interviews for future research, which could include measurements of female empowerment or self-esteem following repeated exposure to stereotyped or non-stereotyped portrayals in advertising.

(4) Instead of focusing on well-researched, English-speaking nations with high gender equality, such as the United States and the United Kingdom (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022), femvertising is explored in new contexts, such as Eastern Europe, Latin America, and other Nordic countries other than Sweden. Besides, among the first studies, a qualitative cross-cultural assessment of the effects of femvertising is also carried out by this study (as proposed by Champlin et al., 2019; Teng et al., 2021). Although the effect of femvertising type of

advertisements on attitude towards the advertising and the brand (Åkestam et al. 2017; Drake, 2017; Kapoor & Munjal, 2019; Greenwell et al., 2017) and the purchase intention (Drake, 2017; Kapoor & Munjal, 2019) have been already researched, they were rarely investigated (Varghese & Kumar, 2020a) in cross-cultural settings (see for instance: Zawisza et al., 2018). Recent articles (Champlin et al. 2019; Teng et al., 2021; Varghese & Kumar, 2020a) confirm that research should be done in a cross-cultural setting. The majority of the current studies regarding femvertising and female stereotypes are related to the USA, the UK, and countries such as Germany, South Korea, and New Zealand (e.g., Abitbol & Sternadori, 2020; Klorman-Eraqi, 2017; Fedorenko, 2015; Benton-Greig & Gavey, 2018). Interestingly, among the recent and the most cited articles, there are very few articles related to these topics in Latin America (Brazil – Middleton, Turnbull & de Oliveira, 2020) and Central-Eastern Europe (Ukraine –Kitsa & Mudra, 2020) and Nordic countries (only Sweden, Åkestam et al. 2017; Åkestam 2018; Åkestam et al. 2021).

In Hungary, too, there is little research in the literature on the relationship between feminism and female stereotypes in advertising, or femvertising. The first survey mapping the attitudes of the Hungarian population towards the roles of men and women in advertisements was made by Hofmeister and Törőcsik (1996). The primary research was conducted among economics students in Pécs and Budapest. The survey had been repeated a few years later by Hofmeister-Tóth and Malota (1999), and various female roles were identified in the commercials, such as average housewife, grandmother, and the careerist - masculine woman. The study of Kegyesné (2006) looks at how gender roles are represented in media texts and how role representation can be interpreted as part of role construction – as media's construction of roles influences the role sets of ordinary people. One of the study's key findings is that the media portrays gender roles through oppositions, depicts gender in a hierarchical relationship, and uses language that reflects the journalist's position and, where appropriate, prejudice against women. The recent article of Kovács et al. (2020) investigated the portrayal of the gender of older people in television series and advertisements in Hungary. Based on their findings, older men are shown as prosperous, elegant, intelligent, powerful, and actively working far more frequently than women. Women, on the other hand, are frequently shown as kind, family-oriented, in everyday duties, and engaged in less-productive pursuits such as shopping. These articles only highlight two types of advertising related to the portrayal of gender stereotypes: the traditional and the non-traditional, and make no connection to feminism, women empowerment, or femvertising.

1.2. Aim of the research and research questions

The main goal of the dissertation is to expand the existing literature related to femvertising and its effects by providing an extent literature review and by exploring and confirming new theoretical connections related to diverse disciplines, such as marketing, sociology, and psychology in a cross-cultural context. Besides, the current study also aims to offer new future research directions. The research is done with a mixed methodology and addresses the four research gaps described in the previous chapter.

Information released through advertising can make a behavior change either directly or through a change in attitude (Bauer, Berács & Kenesei, 2007), as the positive attitude towards a specific message or an advertisement can influence the forwarding behavior of the consumer (Eckler & Bolls, 2011). Thus, in the current research, the perception of women empowerment, the attitude towards the advertising and the brand, and the consequent intention to purchase are also investigated in a cross-cultural setting. The dissertation provides a transparent, synthesized summary based on the relevant literature, containing the most cited articles from the Scopus database. Relying on the literature review, unique primary research has been built. The primary research was conducted on two levels. First, in the context of an exploratory study, to investigate the meaning of the most important concepts among women through interviews. The evidence has been provided from diverse cultures: Hungary, representing Central-Eastern Europe, Mexico representing Latin America, and Iceland as a Nordic country. The three countries, Hungary, Mexico, and Iceland were chosen based on the lack of research data regarding the three regions to which they belong Central-Eastern Europe, Latin America, and Nordic countries. Besides, to present a meaningful comparison, cultural differences, economic outlook, and development and the countries' rankings in the Global Gender Gap Report (2022) were also considered while selecting the countries. Secondly, as part of the second step, quantifiable data is collected on a larger Hungarian sample by an experiment including femvertising and traditional advertising as a stimulus, the results of which are analyzed with structural equation modeling and compared to the international literature.

To understand the phenomena of femvertising and its various effects, the following main research questions were formed:

1. What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?
2. What are the brand-related (attitude towards the advertising, brand and purchase intention) effects of femvertising?

1.3. Theoretical and practical contributions

This study offers several different theoretical and practical contributions.

First, the theoretical contributions of the dissertation are listed in the following section, which is linked to theory, methodology, context, and future research directions.

An extensive review of the literature related to women empowerment, gender equality, gender stereotypes, femvertising, and its perceived empowering and brand-related effects has been provided. It is based on the most cited publications from the Scopus database in various disciplines, which results are shown in summary tables.

New concepts were connected in novel ways, and structural equation modeling was used to assess new variables. As one of the first femvertising studies to integrate numerous theoretical constructs into a unified theoretical framework, this research offers a thorough knowledge of femvertising and its perceived empowering and brand-related impacts. The ground-breaking results included the aspects of women empowerment—decision-making, control over income, and self-esteem—that were examined alongside femvertising in qualitative research, among the first studies to address this complex phenomenon in a marketing context. Furthermore, including gender role equality attitude as a new variable in this femvertising research, both in qualitative and quantitative studies, yielded several useful insights, as well as demonstrating its moderating role on the relationship between perceived women empowerment and attitude toward advertisement.

As suggested by Middleton et al. (2020), interviewing—a rarely utilized methodology in the field of femvertising—has been employed to expand our understanding of the empowering and brand-related impacts of this phenomenon.

In addition to the new findings from the theoretical framework, the dissertation tested the following scales in the context of femvertising: perceived women empowerment (Teng et al., 2020), attitude towards the advertising (Wells, 1964; modified by Abitbol & Sternadori,

2019; Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019; Kapoor & Munjal, 2017), attitude towards the brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; modified by Dahlén et al., 2008), purchase intent (Teng et al., 2020) and gender role equality attitude (Gender Role Attitudes Scale of García-Cueto et al., 2015; modified by Jinah, 2022). Additional information on the applicability of these scales was revealed by the results.

Using cross-cultural qualitative studies with interviewing techniques in Hungary, Mexico, and Iceland as well as a quantitative study in Hungary, the phenomena of femvertising have been investigated in a novel context in the current research. Instead of examining it in well-researched, English-speaking countries with high gender equality, like the United States and the United Kingdom, the dissertation's studies focused on femvertising in Eastern Europe, Latin America, and other Nordic countries besides Sweden (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022).

Finally, additional research avenues for the future have been proposed to further investigate the problem of femvertising.

Second, practical contributions are discussed, which include insights for practitioners about the adequate portrayal of women in advertisements, the potential negative brand-related effects caused by the usage of the traditional or not adequate portrayal of gender roles, and the important impacts of femvertising on brand-related goals and insights about Y generation, as a target group. All these outcomes can be applied by marketing managers in their international marketing and communication strategy.

One of the most significant findings of the current research's qualitative studies is that, while femvertising's values, such as the pursuit of diversity, are a good direction and can increase revenues (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016), it is also necessary to work toward ensuring that everyday women see themselves as they are when they look at the women presented in advertisements rather than being encouraged to act almost exactly like men to be successful. In addition to the diversity of representation, it is important to emphasize the varying ages, body types, sexual orientations, and roles played by women. Cultural differences should be also taken into account. All of these elements might have an impact on the attitude towards advertising. Additionally, it's critical to remember that, even though it can be challenging to measure and track - independent of previous experiences with the brand - the direct effects of the advertisement on the brand's attitude and potential purchase intention, the results of the current study suggested that a not well-chosen advertisement that employs stereotypes not fitting the local culture can immediately affect a brand's attitude and may have an impact on future purchase intentions.

Through its perceived empowering force, the quantitative study also demonstrated the significant effects that femvertising can have on brand-related goals. The high perceived women empowerment caused by femvertising affects the attitude towards the advertisements positively, but it may also have an impact on the attitude towards the brands and purchase intention. Furthermore, since the Y generation is a key target group for many businesses (Champlin et al., 2019), it is crucial to remember that this generation is concerned about issues of gender equality and other social issues (Drake, 2017; Sterbenk et al., 2021). As a result, it is strongly advised to use femvertising, but only in an appropriate way.

Additionally, the current study besides broadening the literature and providing practitioners with relevant results to improve their advertising strategy assists participants in the interviews and experiment to gain new knowledge about women empowerment and femvertising.

1.4. Structure of the thesis

The dissertation is structured to the introduction, literature review, empirical research, summary, references, annexes, and the list of publications. The first section of the literature review is concerned with the “route to femvertising”, which, to understand the phenomenon, deeply explores women empowerment, gender equality, gender stereotypes and femvertising’s characteristics, including its definition, its relation to CSR, the industries where it is present and its criticism. The second section of the literature review is about femvertising and its perceived-empowering and brand-related effects. The discussion of the brand-related effects addresses the attitude towards the advertisement, the brand, and purchase intention as well. After the presentation of the research plan and research questions, first qualitative research, including two studies are presented, and then the quantitative research is discussed. The dissertation ends with a discussion of the overall results, theoretical and practical contributions, and details about limitations and future research directions. References contain the analyzed literature, and annexes include supporting materials such as the qualitative interview guideline, and text of the survey of the manipulation test and experiment.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is divided into two main parts. The first section describes how femvertising was developed by investigating the concept of women empowerment, then having a closer look at gender equality and gender stereotypes through the different periods of feminism, and then describing the different aspects of femvertisings, including its definition, relation to Corporate social responsibility (CSR), industries where it is present and its critics. The second section is about the different effects of femvertising and their measurements, including its perceived empowering and brand-related effects, such as attitude towards the advertisement, the brand, and purchase intention.

2.1. Route to femvertising

To deeply understand femvertising, it is essential to study women empowerment, gender equality, and gender stereotypes, as they form the base of this new phenomenon. These concepts are presented in the next sections in detail.

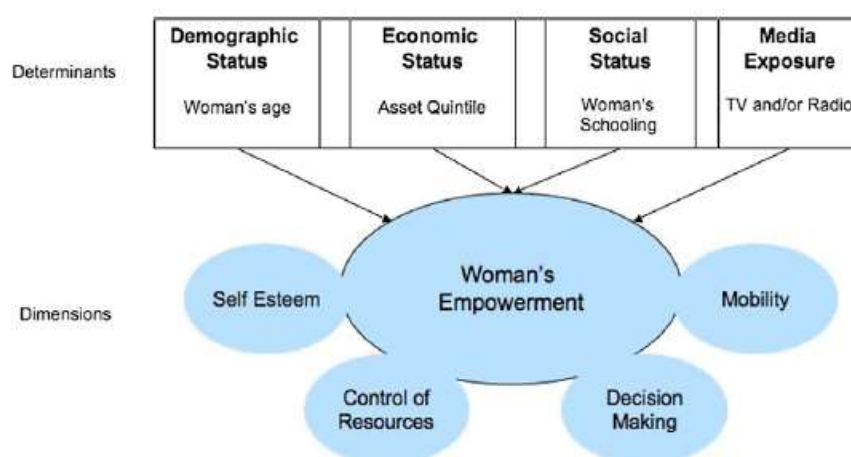
2.1.1. Women empowerment

Empowerment based on Mahmud et al. (2012) broadly refers to the capability to live the life one wishes, meaning to be able to gain better control over one's life, while life options and choices are increased. Women or female empowerment have been defined in different ways. Based on Ashraf et al. (2010:341) women empowerment "increase the bargaining power of women within the household, manifested through increased influence in household decisions and household outcomes that greater reflect her preferences". Aziz et al. (2011:315) do not define women empowerment related to household, but with more detailed aspects: "the authority to exercise of one's freewill and decision-making, especially concerning marriage, education, work and life of children and family". However, the most complete definition comes from Metcalfe (2011:6), stating that women empowerment "embraces woman's ability to access finance, income, education and to have control over life choices through active engagement in politics and organizations".

Women empowerment can be described as a dynamic process, and it has been quantified and measured in many ways. It is important to be highlighted, that the process of empowerment is not directly observable, for instance, it is hard to observe the ability to exercise choice, as behind there can be several objectives and motivations. Therefore, it can only be approximated using indicators and proxies (Mahmud et al., 2012). Moreover, women empowerment is also a multi-dimensional process, as gender inequality is present across different levels such as psychological, social, economic, and political areas which intersect each other (Farah, 2006; Do & Kurimoto, 2012).

To present the different types of determinants and dimensions of women empowerment, the model of Jejeebhoy (2002b) as cited in Mahmud et al. (2012) has been used as a starting point, and it was supplemented by other factors coming from the relevant literature. The original model, as shown in Figure 1, consists of four different determinants of women empowerment: demographic, economic and social status, and media exposure. Besides these factors, culture will be also investigated (Njoh & Akiwumi, 2012). Jejeebhoy's (2002b) model represents four dimensions related to women empowerment as well: self-esteem, control of resources, decision making, and mobility. In addition, time management (Alkire et al., 2013; Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015; Knudsen & Wærness, 2008) and leadership in the community (Alkire et al. 2013; Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015) are discussed (see also: Török & Malota, 2020).

Figure 1. Determinants and dimensions of married woman's empowerment



Source: Jejeebhoy (2002b) as cited in Mahmud et al. (2012)

The determinants of women empowerment are discussed first, including demographic, economic, and social status and media.

To measure empowerment at an individual level, specific questions should be used which apply to individual respondents with a diverse set of demographical, economic, and social characteristics (Upadhyay & Karasek, 2012). Demographical status consists of age, race, ethnicity, gender, and marital status. Relationship dynamics and intimate partner violence should be also mentioned (Vyas & Watts, 2009). Economic status mainly refers to income and employment, containing the household's economic situation indicated by household wealth. Women's social status is represented by education, which includes formal schooling. The information provided this way can increase women's role in household decision-making and freedom of mobility. Moreover, it can have the potential of enhancing self-esteem as well (Mahmud et al., 2012). The influence of society should also be investigated, as it can be closely related for instance to decision making. Based on Alkire (2007), it is necessary to indicate the person's understanding of the situation and how she balances the different motivations to avoid punishment or social disapproval and to act on her values. Vyas and Watts (2009) have taken into account the demographical, economic, and social characteristics in their article, and they found that in low and middle-income countries at an individual and household level, economic development and poverty reduction can have a protective impact on intimate partner violence. On the other hand, the possession of household assets and women's higher education can be generally protective.

Media has a significant impact on the empowerment of women in society with some positive and negative impacts (Banerjee et al., 2015; Jejeebhoy, 2002a). Communication messages can help to improve self-esteem, promote reflection and analysis, as well as they can present alternative ways of thinking and doing (Mahmud et al., 2012). Ashraf et al. (2010) found that increased control over assets and direct encouragement via marketing about taking control of goal-setting and savings caused a significant increase in empowerment for women, compared to a control group that had not received any special asset or marketing. Gupta and Yesudian (2006) found that attitudes were changed through media campaigns, and the school enrolment of girls increased, the messages supported girls' careers and increased the freedom of girls. On the other hand, the communication of the brands can be harmful as well. This notion is also echoed in the contemporary business press. In the United Kingdom, there was a new law entered into force at the end of 2018, which no longer allows advertisements to depict men and women in gender-stereotypical roles, for instance, showing a person failing to achieve a task just because of their gender. The law also bans advertisements, which suggest that transforming

your body will make you romantically successful. Besides, it also clarifies rules on the sexualization of young women (Waterson, 2018). According to New York Times, there were already two advertisements banned in the UK after two months of the entry of this new law into force. Gender stereotypes were employed in these advertisements, which are likely to cause harm or significant or widespread offense (Karasz, 2019).

The culture was not represented in Jejeebhoy's (2002b) model, however, it plays an important role in women's empowerment, as it is present in our everyday lives, and can be encountered everywhere. Cultural values are also reflected in advertisements, and the culturally relevant advertising topics' persuasiveness varies by culture (Han & Shavitt, 1994). Besides, the variation in cultural contexts is also a factor that can affect women's empowerment (see for instance Njoh & Akiwumi, 2012). This element is also investigated later in the empirical research of the current study.

The dimensions of women empowerment include self-esteem, control over income, decision-making, freedom of mobility, time management, and leadership position, which are discussed in the following.

In Jejeebhoy's (2002b) model only self-esteem was represented, however other aspects of psychological well-being can be related to women empowerment. In many different disciplines (ie. community psychology and international development) women empowerment is a key attribute to enhancing well-being and improving human lives (Zimmerman, 1995). As discussed before, female stereotypes in media influence the beliefs of women, who tend to incorporate stereotypes into their own reality, and they might adapt their behavior accordingly. On the other hand, in the case of traditional advertisements, women are faced with unrealistic female representations, and they struggle with self-confidence and satisfaction with their bodies (Knoll et al., 2011). Aware of these aspects, the effect of advertisements on psychological dimensions, such as well-being (i.e. self-esteem, depression, psychological violence (Grabe, 2012) and mental health (Aziz et al., 2011)) should be examined, although, self-esteem attribute of women empowerment is the least observable and were not commonly present in the research on empowerment. Self-esteem was defined in Mahmud et al.'s (2012) work as the non-acceptance of wife-beating and the feeling that her opinion should be important in household decision-making.

Based on Alkire et al. (2013), the control over income regarding women empowerment is a key domain for exercising choice, reflecting whether she can benefit from her efforts. This concept has three indicators, containing (1) the ownership of land and assets, (2) the decision-

making regarding the purchase, sale, or transfer of land and assets, and (3) access to credit and decisions about credit. Garikipati (2008) used a slightly different approach by measuring the ownership of household assets and incomes, and the control over minor and major finances. Tarozzi (2015) used only two indicators of empowerment regarding control over income: attributes with a more distinct economic content, and domains for which the woman is included as one of the decision-makers. Mahmud et al. (2012) and Vyas & Watts (2009) highlighted the empowering effect if women have work for pay and a contribution to household expenses. Banerjee et. al (2015) divided the revenue source into two groups: self-employment (for profit) and daily labor or salary from non-self-employment. In the case of dependence on men for economic needs and social protection, women remain vulnerable to a possible beret of male guardship, where their economic welfare and social status may suddenly decline (Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015).

The decision-making power of women could vary in every household. It could be differentiated in terms of buying things (food, clothing, furniture), household repairs, spending family savings, taking a loan, spending on health and medical-related issues (eg. treatment for sick children, visiting the doctor for self), working outside the home, visiting family, being mobile, having children, spending on education, deciding related to the life of the children and family, participating in social networks and spending time on socializing (Aziz et al., 2011; Banerjee et al., 2015; Mahmud et al., 2012; Swain & Wallentin, 2009; Tarozzi et al., 2015). Decisions can be made alone or jointly with a partner. The more a woman takes a role in decision-making regarding the areas mentioned above, the more it is positively related to women's empowerment. This amount could reflect the degree of control that women can exercise through making decisions in the areas mentioned above, which affect their own lives and environments (Rahman et al., 2011). However, women's increased role in decision-making can also lead to a situation where men take less responsibility and even withdraw support in certain important decisions like health care seeking (Mahmud et al., 2012).

The freedom of mobility can be measured for instance with the following attributes: whether the woman had gone in last year to a meeting or gathering, to her father's, relatives' or friends' homes outside the village, to shopping for clothes or other necessary things and to a hospital/health center or clinic. It is also an important domain whether she had to ask permission to go to these places or not. Nonetheless, women's greater mobility may lead to higher exposure to violence (Mahmud et al., 2012).

However, it was not mentioned in Jejeebhoy's (2002b) model, time management should be also discussed related to women empowerment. The time constraints of women are not only

concerned with women themselves, but it can harm the care and welfare of the children and other members of the family (Alkire et al., 2013). Based on Alkire et al. (2013) and Malapit and Quisumbing (2015), the domain of time contains workload and leisure. First, in this sense workload is the allocation of time to productive and domestic tasks. Women are asked to recall a maximum of two activities that she was doing simultaneously (for instance, taking care of a child while cooking). Tarozzi et al. (2015) also measured the hours of work by the two most important activities during the past 12 months women were involved. However, the hours which were spent in school or domestic work are counted separately in his article. Nonetheless, Knudsen & Wærness (2008) investigating in a multi-country setting, at a micro and macro level, found a weak, but relevant effect between housework division and women empowerment. Wives' gender role attitudes have a greater impact on labor distribution than husbands', but if both members of a couple hold egalitarian attitudes, the husband is more likely to take some responsibility for stereotypical women's work (Schaninger & Buss, 1985). Second, leisure as a domain is defined as the satisfaction with time for leisure activities, such as watching TV, listening to the radio, or visiting neighbors (Alkire et al., 2013). In case women's own space and own time (also referred to as "me-time") will be secured, leisure can become a source of empowered, self-determined identities with which women can fight against traditional stereotypes (Green, 1998). According to de Celis et al. (2015), work-life balance should contain different types of leave, such as maternity/paternity leave, leave under replacement policies, and extended leave for breastfeeding. Besides, flexible working hours, teleworking, flexible holiday time, extended leave of absence to care for family members, and reduced working hours would help to maintain the balance between work and life.

Women's leadership position in the community is also an additional category to Jejeebhoy's (2002b) model. Leadership is also a key element of empowerment, including several aspects, such as inclusion and participation, accountability, and local organizational capacity. It could be defined by for instance membership in economic or social groups, participation in the political space (Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015), and comfort speaking in public. These groups can serve as sources of networks and social capital which can empower them (Alkire et al., 2013). Kabeer (2011) argues that in women's lives if there is an expansion of social relationships beyond the relationships ascribed by their place in the gendered social order, can make them a critical point of view on evaluating the justice of this order. In addition, women seem to have different leadership styles and psychological characteristics than men (de Celis et al., 2015). For measuring women's status regarding economic, and political power

across cultures, the United Nations' Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) is one of the most commonly used (Fuwa, 2004).

2.1.2. Gender equality and gender stereotypes

In this section, first gender, gender equality, gender stereotypes in general, gender stereotypes in advertising, and gender stereotypes in advertising related to the different periods of feminism are discussed.

Gender refers to the socially constructed characteristics of women, men, girls, and boys. This covers the norms, behaviors, and roles that come with being a woman, man, girl, or boy, as well as interpersonal interactions. Gender as a social construct differs from one society to the next and can change through time. Gender inequalities are hierarchical, and they intersect with other social and economic inequities. Other forms of discrimination, such as race, socioeconomic status, disability, age, geographic location, gender identity, and sexual orientation, overlap with gender-based discrimination. Gender is related to, but distinct from, sex, which refers to the biological and physiological differences between females, males, and intersex people, such as chromosomes, hormones, and reproductive organs. Gender and sex are intertwined, but gender identity is distinct. Gender identity refers to a person's deeply felt, internal, and unique gender experience, which may or may not correlate to the person's physiology or birth sex (WHO, 2021).

In organizations and society, there are well-known barriers to gender equality. Gendered beliefs, norms, and homosocial reproduction among key decision-makers are examples of "hidden" impediments (Nagy et al., 2020). Women's and girls' health and well-being are jeopardized by gender inequality and discrimination. Access to health information and services is often more difficult for women and girls than it is for men and boys. Mobility restrictions, a lack of decision-making power, lower literacy rates, discriminatory attitudes among communities and healthcare providers, and a lack of training and awareness among healthcare providers and health systems of the specific health needs and challenges of women and girls are all examples of these barriers. (WHO, 2021). Mapping on to gender equality is a really important issue of female empowerment (Brooks et al. 2020). Pew Research released the findings of a global survey that polled over 30,000 people from 27 nations about their views on

a variety of topics, including gender equality. Although the problem of gender equality is still not solved, according to the findings, gender equality has increased in the majority of countries, and most countries support gender equality (Poushter, Fetterolf & Tamir, 2019).

Women in management face similar concerns around the world, including subtle or overt discrimination, difficulties balancing work and family life, and a lack of recognition from male counterparts (Primecz & Karjalainen, 2019). According to Havran, Primecz, and Lakatos (2020), in Central and Eastern European countries, including Hungary, Slovakia, Poland, Czech Republic, Romania, and Bulgaria, if there is a higher gender diversity on management boards, it enhances firm performance, although female top managers might not reach the critical mass on the boards. However, as we can see in the work of Nagy, Primecz & Munkácsi (2017), Hungary, like other post-socialist nations, does not regulate the gender diversity of companies, resulting in significant underrepresentation of women on corporate boards. When Hungary was a communist state, women's emancipation was a priority; several institutions were built to encourage women's full-time labor force participation, and female managers were well-known. However, shortly after the system change, socialism lost its positive connotations in public discourse, delegitimizing concerns related to gender equality in political and policy spheres. As a result of the hostile social climate and the conservative shift in Hungarian gender culture, no modifications to the legal framework have been made. At the moment, the most effective strategy to propagate gender equality is for enterprises to internationalize: EU-led policy and regulatory frameworks, as well as multinational corporations, may promote gender equality in management and on corporate boards. It is important to talk about the situation outside Europe and the Western world. For instance, even though the situation in Africa differs significantly from that in the West due to cultural, historical, and religious factors, exploratory qualitative research revealed that African women leaders are not oppressed women on the margins of their societies. Rather, they are active actors capable of constructing effective professional identities, and they primarily represent middle- and upper-class women in their societies (Primecz & Karjalainen, 2019).

In this paragraph, gender stereotypes in general are discussed. Lippmann (1922), an American journalist, was the first to introduce the term stereotypes. According to his description, stereotypes are ordered, more or less consistent images in our heads of a world in which our habits, tastes, reception, comfort, and hopes are aligned. Vinacke (1957) highlights as well that stereotypes are notions and define them as a set of concepts about a certain social category. The

definition of Hamilton and Troler (1986) is also in line with the description of Lippmann (1922), but the uniqueness of a person who detects the stereotypes is emphasized: stereotypes are mental models of a human group that contains the perceiver's knowledge, beliefs, and expectations. According to Gannon (1994), a stereotype is a mental image that everyone has about various groups and their supposed characteristics, which they use to judge individual members of that group. Based on Jost and Banaji (1994), stereotyping decreases the opportunities of members of disadvantaged groups and influences societal arrangements where these groups have low status. However, stereotypes are not always negative judgments, and they can often serve to simplify communications, but they can also lead to oversimplification. As a result of the existence of stereotypes, the expectations, and evaluations of individuals belonging to a specific social category, such as gender, may be affected (Knoll et al., 2011). This harm is perpetuated by increased stereotypical perceptions of gender differences, which affect the opportunities available to women, their range of options, and how they compensate for these differences (Aramendia-Muneta, Olarte-Pascual & Hatzithomas, 2020). Although the general concept of stereotypes is often meant as the same as ethnic, racial, and cultural stereotypes (Dovidio & Gaertner, 1986), in the current study, only gender stereotypes would be discussed.

Gender stereotypes can be defined in a variety of ways. In the literature, we can read several different approaches, which will be presented in chronological order. One of the most used, belief- and action-related definitions is from Ashmore and Del Boca (1981), which states that gender stereotypes are beliefs of differentiating women and men regarding certain attributes of role behaviors and occupations. The four main categories of gender stereotypes that are widely accepted, and appear on their own or in combination (Åkestam, 2018; Eisend, 2010) were defined by Deaux and Lewis (1984). In addition to factors related to action, externalities (such as traits) are also mentioned. The four different and independent components, which have masculine and feminine versions are the following: (1) Trait descriptors (concern for others, aggressiveness); (2) Physical characteristics (hair, skin color, body, height); (3) Role behaviors (homemaker, professional leader); and (4) Occupational status (teacher, doctor, etc.). Eagly and Steffen (1984) emphasize an external perspective and emphasizes that gender stereotypes are derived from observation of what people do in daily life. If society consistently observes women caring for children, people are likely to believe that characteristics belonging to childcare such as nurturance and warmth are distinctive for women. Browne (1998), in line with Deaux and Lewis (1984), defines gender stereotypes as general ideas about sex-related traits (groups of psychological characteristics and behaviors that distinguish men and women) and gender roles

(activities that men and women do differently). Diekman & Eagly's (2000) definition stays the closest to Ashmore & Del Boca (1981) and Eagly & Steffen (1984), stating that in general, gender stereotypes develop from role-bound activities. According to social role theory, as women and men occupy different roles in the family and diverse occupations, it stimulates gender stereotypes. To prepare to function adequately in these typical roles and facilitate their typical activities, both sex is expected to have the characteristics of these groups. The summary table of the different gender stereotypes definitions can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Definitions of gender stereotypes

Author(s) and year published	Attributes of gender stereotypes
Ashmore & Del Boca (1981)	beliefs of certain attributes of role behaviors and occupations
Deaux & Lewis (1984)	(1) trait descriptors (concern for others, aggressiveness); (2) physical characteristics (hair, skin color, body, height); (3) role behaviors (homemaker, professional leader); (4) occupational status (teacher, doctor).
Eagly & Steffen (1984)	derived from observation of what people do in daily life
Browne (1998)	sex-related traits (groups of psychological characteristics and behaviors) and gender roles (activities)
Diekman & Eagly (2000)	develop from role-bound activities

Source: own edition

Masculine and feminine variants can be distinguished from gender stereotypes, which are strongly associated with males and females, respectively (Eisend et al., 2014). On one hand, Fisher and Dubé (2005) define masculine stereotypes based on four different characteristics: autonomy (not depending on others), achievement (success in work and play to provide for loved ones and family), aggression (being tough), and stoicism (avoid the expression of pain or grief). On the other hand, Deaux and Lewis (1984) link rationality, mathematical reasoning, strength, and athleticism to men. Besides, in social settings males tend to avoid the expression of emotions that are contrary to male stereotypes as they have been socialized to minimize the degree to which they express their emotions in general (Rosenfeld, 1979). On the contrary, females may have greater freedom to express their feelings (Fisher & Dubé, 2005), and they

are more communal (selfless and concerned with others) and less agentic (self-assertive and motivated to master) than men (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Additionally, intuition, creativity, beauty, and sensuality are the attributes linked to women (Deaux & Lewis, 1984).

Stereotypes about social groups can be static and dynamic, based on the literature (Diekmann & Eagly, 2000). On one hand, Davies et al. (2002) declare that over the past centuries stereotypes regarding the attributes of men and women have remained alarmingly stable. On the other hand, Diekmann and Eagly (2000) argue that stereotypes can be dynamic, and they change over time because they incorporate beliefs about changing characteristics. Based on their experiment, over 100 years we can distinguish increasing role equality and a corresponding convergence in the perceived characteristics of women and men. This change is mainly related to the growing number of women in the paid labor force, meanwhile, they become more rational, assertive, independent, mathematical, and strong. However, this extremely dynamic change is not an attribute of men's stereotypes, as the change in men's roles is far more limited and relatively unchanging. Additionally, they have not increased their participation in domestic roles as much as women have increased their sharing of the employee role (Shelton, 1992). Additionally, in traditionally masculine fields women should fight against the added challenge that accompanies cultural stereotypes alleging a sex-based inability (Ashmore et al., 1986).

The theme of gender stereotypes in advertising is present already in five decades of related research, which was influenced by social and historical contingencies, such as the rise of feminism, changes in the labor force, and the role structure of the family (Grau & Zotos, 2016). In advertising, gender stereotypes tend to evolve together with societal values and gender roles. Nonetheless, empirical evidence demonstrates that advertising has historically reflected rather than challenged female stereotypes and roles in society, thus female depictions in advertising tend to lag behind those of women in general (Eisend, 2010). Advertisers use what consumers believe about gender roles to promote their products and services in advertisements, and commonly portray women and men based on that. Thus, advertisements transmit messages about gender roles in terms of expected behaviors and appearance for both men and women (Lindner, 2004). They outline their ideas of what it means to be male or female in society (Goffman, 1979). Aramendia-Muneta, Olarte-Pascual, and Hatzithomas (2020) identified the following key characteristics of how gender stereotypes in advertising can be distinguished,

which have been established since the early 1970s: role, age, mode of presentation, credibility basis, argument type, reward type, product type, background, setting, and end comment.

However, it is important to highlight that the changing role structure of women in the family and the workplace has resulted in substantial changes in how women are portrayed in advertisements (Grau & Zotos, 2016). Nonetheless, the findings revealed that gender stereotypes (such as occupation) continue to be widespread in advertising (Eisend, 2010). As Åkestam et al., (2017) write as an example, even in markets where the majority of women have professional careers outside the home, females are more likely to be portrayed in positions that are characterized by occupations and dependence within the home. As a result, employing these assumptions may place pressure on female consumers to engage in behavior that conforms to these expectations (Casper & Rothermund, 2012). Although both male and female stereotypes are ubiquitous in advertising (Eisend et al., 2014), female stereotypes are more prevalent (Eisend, 2010) and are commonly seen as more detrimental. Therefore, the current study focuses on typical women stereotypes and their evolvement.

The literature (see for example Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010) primarily distinguishes between two types of gender roles: traditional gender roles, where men are linked with work and women with home; and non-traditional gender roles, where home is associated with men and work with women. Women in traditional portrayal are depicted in more decorative and less important roles, whereas males are typically seen as more autonomous, authoritative, and in professional roles (Reichert & Carpenter, 2004). Eisend et al. (2014) examined that traditional male stereotypes are more dominant in humorous ads, while traditional female stereotypes are more prevalent in non-humorous ads. Non-traditional stereotyping is often utilized instead of traditional - for instance, men could be portrayed in domestic roles doing housework, whereas women would be shown in independent roles (Scharrer et al., 2006). However, there are many representations of women where that show them mainly as mothers, responsible for caring for children, and doing housework such as cleaning and cooking food for the husband, which vision might not motivate girls in pursuing careers (Knoll et al., 2011).

Orth and Holancova's (2004) research shows that depending on several different factors (for instance the audience's gender attitudes), stereotypes in advertising can be helpful or detrimental. Based on Eisend (2010), the usage of gender stereotypes in advertising can be problematic in case of bringing forth judgments and expectations and therefore restricting life opportunities for the portrayed women. In the case of the usage of stereotypical physical characteristics such as beauty ideals, it can evoke reduced body satisfaction and can lead to stereotyping role behaviors. Besides, it may limit the possibilities of self-development and in

the case of using stereotypes for occupational portrayals, women's careers can be negatively affected. Investigating the effects of female portrayals in terms of social comparison and self-identity, Åkestam et al. (2017) found that among a female target audience the less stereotypical female portrayals used in advertisements will put less pressure on a female target. As gender stereotypes can cause negative consequences, particularly for women, public policy (such as the European Parliament) is concerned about marketing and communication activities that use these stereotypes (Eisend et al., 2014).

To conclude, the existing gender stereotypes in advertising, and more specifically in this context female stereotypes have a great impact on our daily lives. There are more and more good examples where some brands are taking up the fight against gender stereotypes. Concerning the well-known Dove Real Beauty campaign, although it had mainly focused on stereotypical portrayals of females in terms of their physical characteristics (for instance, body size), the advertisement also put other stereotypes related to personality traits, roles, and occupations of female portrayals (Åkestam et al. (2017). Based on Osváth (2012), Dove's Real Beauty commercials pick up the fight with supermodels, who try to represent the ideal beauty. However, Dove portrays and uses ordinary women in their pictures, but the sexist character remains here as well, as women are shown in lingerie. Other examples are the commercials of Activia yogurt, where they also show real women, who have a family, do the shopping and the housework, but who struggle with their weight. For them Activia sells a new style, a program, a way of life where their bodies and lives have been cleaned up, they go running, they eat regularly, they are planned and have time for themselves and of course for the family too.

In this section, gender stereotypes in advertising related to the different periods of feminism are discussed (for a shorter, Hungarian version see: Török & Malota & Mucsi, 2022). Literature from the last fifty years shows that female stereotypes in advertising have been changing constantly and significantly over different periods (Grau & Zotos, 2016). Previously two different types of advertisements were distinguished: traditional and non-traditional. In the current section, non-traditional advertisements are further broken down along the different eras of feminism. Based on the classification of the related literature, especially Mager and Helgeson (2011), three different periods related to feminism and advertising are distinguished in this dissertation: (1) Pre-feminist or traditional period, (2) feminism, and (3) post-feminism. During the different periods of feminism, various themes and objectives have been at the center. During

these times, the portrayal of women and gender stereotypes shown in advertising were constantly changing and evolving as well, following the expectations of the given period. However, it is important to highlight that these periods are not clean-cut, but they are intertwined as one period may slowly disappear for a new one to appear. Table 2 summarizes the different periods and their characteristics.

The pre-feminist or traditional period happened lasted until the early 1960s. In the case of women stereotypes of this period, females are positioned in the private sphere, often in the home (Mager & Helgeson, 2011). Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) found in their research related to magazine advertisements that the place of women is in the home; they do not do important things or do not make important decisions. They are dependent upon men. They need men's protection; they are regarded mainly as sexual objects and men are not interested in women as people. Besides, women are rarely shown in professional or high-level business positions and appear primarily in advertisements for beauty products, drugs, clothing, cleaning and food products, and home appliances. Moreover, in other studies about magazine advertisements, women are represented as weak, childish, irrational, subordinate, the producers of children, and little else compared with men (Kang, 1997).

During feminist movements, the unequal power granted to women and men has been challenged, including mainly the independence and career positions associated with masculinity, and the lack of power and sexual freedom connected to femininity (Mager & Helgeson, 2011). Since the First World War, the feminist movement has been on the increase. Feminism's growth has had an impact on many aspects of society, including how women view their bodies and sexuality (Alam, Aliyu & Shahriar, 2019). There are four different waves of feminism that can be distinguished: the first, second, third, and fourth waves of feminism.

First-wave feminism originated in the 1850s (Maclaran, 2015), and it lasted between the 19th and early 20th centuries. It focused on the department stores, suffrage, and overturning legal problems of gender equality, including voting rights, and having property (Maclaran, 2012). From the 1850s, women spent entire days socializing with other women in the department stores, escaping the bustle of the city (Fredriksson, 1997). The image of Western women related to first-wave feminism was based on a male perspective (Maclaran, 2015), and it was dominated by white, middle-class, heterosexual discourse (Stern, 1999).

Second-wave feminist movements lasted between the 1960s–1980s. They criticize the control of the patriarchal market, including those advertising images of women, which were manipulating women's bodies and showing them as mothers or wives in subordinate domestic roles (Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2000). According to Lazar (2009), some second-wave

feminists had a critical view of femininity, and they considered it an obstacle to obtaining gender equality, as it had associations of passivity, subservience, and dependence. They rejected conventional feminine values and behaviors and tended to favor masculine values and behaviors instead. Second-wave feminists were influenced by Marxist perspectives and sometimes tried to overthrow the socio-economic order altogether (Maclaran, 2012). It happened during the 1980s that the passive portrayals of women started to change to more sophisticated representations, using the concept of women empowerment (Maclaran, 2015).

Third-wave feminism emerged in the 1990s. It redefined feminism and celebrated the marketplace, and linked empowerment to sexual expressiveness and purchasing power (Maclaran, 2012). This period also incorporates some components of a second-wave critique of beauty culture, sexual abuse, and power structures (Heywood & Drake, 1997). On the other hand, third-wave feminism recognizes and uses pleasure, and danger and defines the power of structures. As central elements of gender justice, third-wave feminists highlight the importance of culture and sexual politics, and they search for positive media representations of women and feminism (Maclaran, 2012). It is characteristic of the depiction of women in the third wave of feminism that they appear as strong, tough, and beautiful heroes. We see the emergence of a new form of femininity in which women are unwilling to hand over physical strength and sport as a privilege to men (Bruce, 2016).

The fourth wave of feminism emerged in 2013 (Chamberlain, 2017), which can also be seen as a resurgence of feminist activism (Maclaran, 2015). The movement originated partly in the United States, but it is mainly associated with the United Kingdom (Chamberlain, 2017). The fourth wave of feminism is being driven mainly by younger women who use the power of the Internet and social media to challenge gender inequality. This new wave is strongly connected to the second and third waves of feminism as well, as it also tries to blend the micropolitics characterized by the third wave, fostering a change in political, social, and economic structures like in the second wave. Fourth-wave feminists also draw attention to the fact that sex is increasingly normalized through contemporary popular culture, mainly in social media, fashion, and music industries (Maclaran, 2015). The #MeToo movement, launched in 2017, is also part of this wave, with members of the public being encouraged on Twitter to join in presenting the true magnitude of the problem of sexual violence (Mendes et al., 2018). According to Varghese and Kumar (2020b), femvertising (female empowerment advertising) advertising strategy also belongs to the fourth wave of feminism. Femvertising will be discussed in a separate chapter.

The post-feminist period can be defined approximately from 1985 and beyond (Mager & Helgeson, 2011). Post-feminism originated in the popular media in the UK and USA in the early 1980s, but it only became a discursive phenomenon during the 1990s (Tasker & Negra, 2007). Post-feminism criticizes and analyzes the empirical regularities or patterns in contemporary cultural life, and it repudiates feminism as irrelevant and undesirable (Gill, 2016). It denies the most radical forms related to the systematic oppression of women and patriarchy. However, post-feminism is seen more as a lifestyle than an activist movement (Hains, 2009). Post-feminism offers a new rationale for guilt-free consumerism, which is no longer associated with the reproachful second-wave feminism, and it gives new energy to the beauty culture (Tasker & Negra, 2007).

Windels et al. (2020), distinguish the following post-feminist discourses: commodity feminism, individualization, self-surveillance, a new lens on the embrace of femininity, confidence culture, love your body, and sexualization of culture. Commodity feminism developed in the eighties and nineties (Cole & Hribrar, 1995) as advertisers - instead of fighting against feminist discourse - tried to incorporate feminist values, meanings, and goals in their communication, attached to commodity brand name (Goldman, Heath & Smith, 1991). It has been blamed for reinforcing personal responsibility and self-help to avoid social problems and inequities and for claiming that feminist identity can be purchased without declaring the politics of feminist identity (McDonald, 2000). Individualization states that the primary factor for success or failure is the contributions and merits of the individual (Windels et al., 2020). Self-surveillance tries to encourage women to monitor, discipline, and surveil themselves (Gill, 2007). The essence of the new lens on the embrace of femininity movement is to regain the femininity and sexuality of women in such a way that they can continue to be feminists despite having makeup and seeking glamour (Hains, 2009). Confidence culture is about monitoring and improving the self-confidence of girls and women (Gill & Orgad, 2015). Love your body focuses on positive emotional messages saying that women are beautiful and incredible, and they can reformulate the rules of beauty (Gill & Elias, 2014). Sexualization refers to the great spread of discourses about sex and sexuality in media. Young girls' bodies are shown as sexual objects, and women are portrayed as active and desiring social subjects, but they are exposed to scrutiny and surveillance (Gill, 2007).

The most iconic female stereotypes of post-feminism are the heterosexual, fun, fearless woman (midriff) and the attractive lesbian (Gill, 2009). However, based on the study of Ganahl, Prinsen, and Netzley (2003), in certain product categories, women are not represented as primary characters, even though they are the ones purchasing more of these products than men.

They are shown as universal or generic, while men were portrayed as individuals (Macdonald, 1995).

Table 2. Different periods of feminism, main characteristics, and women's portrayal in advertising

Periods		Time	Main characteristics	Women portrayal
Pre-feminism, traditional		Before the 1960s (Mager & Helgeson, 2011)	The traditional portrayal of women (Mager & Helgeson, 2011)	In the private sphere, often in the home; no important decisions; dependent upon men; need men's protection; regarded as sexual objects; shown passive; weak, childish, irrational, subordinate, the producers of children; shown smaller or lower compared to men (Mager & Helgeson, 2011; Courtney & Lockeretz 1971; Kang 1997; Goffman, 1979)
Feminism	First wave	From 1890 to the early 20th centuries (Maclaran, 2015)	Department stores, suffrage, and overturning legal problems of gender equality, including the rights to voting and having property (Maclaran, 2012)	White, middle-class, heterosexual Western women (Stern, 1999)
	Second wave	Between the 1960s–1980s (Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2000)	Criticize the control of the patriarchal market, including those advertising images of women, which were manipulating women's bodies and showed them as mothers or wives in subordinate domestic roles (Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2000)	More sophisticated representations, using the concept of women empowerment (Maclaran, 2015)
	Third-wave	From the 1990s to 2010 (Maclaran, 2012)	Redefines feminism, celebrates the marketplace, and links empowerment to sexual expressiveness and purchasing power (Maclaran, 2012)	They appear as strong, tough, and beautiful heroes - the emergence of a new form of femininity in which women are unwilling to give up physical strength and

				sport as excellence to men (Bruce, 2016)
	Fourth wave	From 2013 and beyond (Chamberlain, 2017)	Using the power of the Internet and social media to fight against gender inequality (Maclaran, 2015) (#MeToo, femvertising)	More complex and varied depictions of women - it is not the goal to fit the narrow range of role models (Åkestam et al., 2017)
Post-feminism		From 1985 and beyond (Mager & Helgeson, 2011)	Rejecting the most radical aspects of efforts to upend the patriarchy and the systematic oppression of women - more of a lifestyle than an activist movement (Hains, 2009)	Consumerism: feminist identity can be purchased (Tasker & Negra, 2007) Shown universal or generic (Macdonald, 1995) Characteristics of female stereotypes: a heterosexual, fun, fearless woman (midriff) and good-looking lesbian (Gill, 2009)

Source: own edition

2.1.3. Femvertising

In this section, the characteristics of femvertising are discussed, including its definitions, its relation to CSR, the industries where it is present, and its criticism.

As a result of social movements like #Metoo and #BlacklivesMatter, which are part of the feminism agenda, advertising has been impacted by a new worldview, which is known as femvertising (Varghese & Kumar, 2020a). Femvertising first began in the second decade of the new century and has since grown in popularity, with dozens of firms employing it each year (Menéndez Menéndez, 2019). The term "femvertising" first became popular in 2014, and it is commonly associated with the lifestyle website SheKnows. Femvertising type of advertising is increasingly appearing on cable television, large-scale print and outdoor media, and online platforms such as YouTube, as corporate responsibility is more and more in focus and there is growing public attention on concerns of gender equality. Thus, in advertising practice and research, they are given increased attention (Champlin et al., 2019). Although Dove's Real

Beauty campaign from 2004, which is frequently regarded as the antecedent of femvertising, had focused on stereotypical portrayals of females in terms of their physical characteristics (e.g., body size), femvertising challenges a broader range of female stereotypes, such as personality traits, roles (e.g., passive to active), and occupations (e.g., portrayed as a boss) (Åkestam et al., 2017). Femvertising uses emotional advertising messaging (Drake, 2017), which makes it particularly powerful because emotional appeals lead to positive correlations between the advertisement and the brand (MacKenzie et al., 1986). Thus, femvertising advertisements are considered more empowering than traditional advertisements, and they have a better opinion, including a positive impact on the advertisement itself and the brand as well (Drake 2017; Åkestam et al., 2017). From these types of campaigns companies also benefit: for instance, Unilever reported a 3% overall growth in sales after its brand, Dove's initial Real Beauty campaign (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016).

Although through movements such as #MeToo the representation of women and female stories have increased, brands that do not have a mainly female target audience are also adopting this positioning strategy. Thus, it is crucial to investigate this new advertising strategy, in which corporations link themselves with societal issues that may or may not have a strong conceptual connection (Champlin et al., 2019). Recent critical research also revealed that femvertising involves both anti-feminist and feminist discourses — partially rejecting feminist ideas such as neutralizing feminism's political power (Windels et al., 2020; Gill, 2007). Given the distinctions between third wave and postfeminism, it could be claimed that femvertising is a direct response — or even a direct backlash — to commodity feminism, which dominates female-centric advertising from the 1970s to the early 2000s (Becker-Herby, 2016). Femvertisements aren't necessarily explicitly feminist, and corporations prefer to avoid using this term. Instead, to soften the message for large audiences, these messages frequently emphasize personal empowerment that is inclusive of all females (Champlin et al., 2019; Hsu, 2018). However, femvertising is also criticized for its post-feminist elements; thus, this type of advertising may serve as a bridge between the various periods of feminism in advertising.

Different types of advertising related to empowerment and promoting gender equality could also be discussed for men. This topic is not covered in the present dissertation, as it only focuses on women and femvertising. However, two examples, “dadvertising” and “manvertising” should be mentioned. “Dadvertising”, a new type of advertising portrays ideal masculinity as focusing on involved parenting and emotional vulnerability through the use of fathers. The origins of dadvertising can be traced back to neoliberal gender politics and commodity activism, in which developing masculinities are personalized and commoditized

into consumerist behaviors (Leader, 2019). While "manvertising," such as Dove's Real Strength campaign, which emphasizes loving and capable fathers (Tsai et al., 2021), challenges the prevalent male stereotype of macho men (Swanson, 2015).

To better understand femvertising, its different definitions are discussed. The definition of femvertising has evolved over the years since its inception, and more and more accurate descriptions can be read in academic articles. The definition is presented below from different authors in chronological order of their publications.

One of the earliest definitions of femvertising is from Samantha Skey (2015, p.16) from SheKnows Media. She defined femvertising as “advertising that employs pro-female talent, messages, and imagery to empower women and girls”. A year later, SheKnows Media (2016) defined femvertising as a combination of feminism and advertising. In the same year, one of the most cited articles in femvertising research is from Becker-Herby (2016), who is among the first ones to define in detail the attributes of femvertising. Based on her, femvertising is empowering, inspiring, and inclusive, and it aims to give consumers feelings of motivation, self-confidence, and affirmation. Femvertising is a method of assisting in the reduction of detrimental female gender stereotypes in advertising. Furthermore, it provides a partial solution to the problem of female representation in advertising. The strategy of femvertising can be identified by the following five variables. First, in the femvertising type of advertisements, women are diverse in age, size, and ethnicity, and the normative body of the models is abandoned. Second, the messages in the advertisements must be inspiring and inclusive, focusing on being positive, seeking feelings of confidence and self-affirmation of women. In this case, the product can't be a solution to the problems that the consumer has. Third, it avoids gender stereotypes, and femvertising challenges what the patriarchy considers that women or girls “should be”. Therefore in the femvertising type of advertisements, it is not common to see women in a domestic space or performing typically feminine tasks, but they are represented in competitive, leisure, athletic, professional or neutral environments. The fourth criterion is the minimization of sexuality: if the woman's body is shown, it is done naturally, avoiding the appearance with sexual poses or aesthetic sophistication. Finally, femvertisings seeks to reflect an authentic representation of women and tries to have a campaign message which feels real and in line with the advertised product.

Åkestam et al. (2017) in their definition emphasized the relation of femvertising to traditional stereotypes. Femvertising employs fewer stereotypical female depictions, resulting

in less pressure on female consumers. This new style of marketing communication calls into question traditional female stereotypes' advertising methods and their impact on female target audiences. Femvertising is distinguished by more complex and varied female depictions that liberate women from the tradition of conforming to a limited set of role models. Femvertisements, or femvertising advertisements that feature female empowerment with commercial brands, strive to challenge gender stereotypes and societal stigma. Femvertising not only defies preconceptions in terms of physical attractiveness, but also in terms of roles and occupations, and has a more age-appropriate sample.

Champlin et al. (2019) add to the definition by highlighting deeper-rooted, less-discussed topics affecting women. Based on the authors, brands can use and interpret women empowerment in a variety of ways, for instance, they can break with traditional gender stereotypes, communicate about body image concerns and taboo topics related to women, and provide help to overcome negative “self-talk”, and addressing. Additionally, by Kapoor & Munjal (2019) consciousness and discrimination, as well as profit-oriented factors are emphasized. Femvertising is being increasingly popular as a vast number of brands are launching campaigns related to marketing feminism. Through these campaigns, they promote products and brands that sell empowerment to women. The primary goal of femvertising is to promote conscious thinking that is free of gender stereotypes and discrimination.

Varghese and Kumar (2020a) in one of their researches prove that femvertising ads help in improving the self-esteem of adolescents, with no difference between the genders. The message from femvertising consists of ideals of inclusion and shows modern societies where women take up different roles and responsibilities outside the homes, while also involved in domestic roles such as home making and child or elderly care. Thus, femvertising broadens the outlook of what a man or woman could do. In their other work in the same year, Varghese and Kumar (2020b) identified the primary causes of femvertising, including growing agitation for a more suitable depiction of women in advertising, as well as increased awareness of gender stereotypes and the legislation that governs these concerns. Teng et al. (2020) focus on the empowering effects of femvertising. They define it as an endeavor aimed at challenging stereotypical ideas about women. Besides, they claim that femvertising advertisements convey empowering ideas and encourage women to take charge of their lives with confidence.

The summary of the definitions regarding femvertising can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Definitions of femvertising

Author(s) and year published	Femvertising elements
Skey (2015)	employing pro-female talent, messages, and imagery to empower women and girls
SheKnows Media (2016)	combination of feminism and advertising
Becker-Herby (2016)	empowering, inspiring, inclusive, giving motivation, self-confidence, affirmation, assisting in the reduction of detrimental female gender stereotypes in advertising, minimization of sexuality
Åkestam et al. (2017)	questioning traditional female stereotypes' advertising methods and their impact on female target audiences
Champlin et al. (2019)	communicating about body image concerns and taboo topics, providing help to overcome negative “self-talk”
Kapoor & Munjal (2019)	promoting conscious thinking that is free of gender stereotypes and discrimination; brands selling empowerment
Varghese & Kumar (2020a)	improving the self-esteem; consisting of ideals of inclusion; broadening the outlook towards what a man or woman could do
Varghese & Kumar (2020b)	growing agitation for a more suitable depiction of women in advertising; increased awareness of gender stereotypes and legislation
Teng et al. (2020)	conveying empowering ideas and encouraging women to take charge of their lives

Source: own edition

Femvertising may also be seen as a CSR activity of companies and brands. Brand responsibility, as previously said, is a developing trend in advertising in which a company links itself with a societal issue. Gender equality, specifically female empowerment, is a major theme in these messages (Champlin et al., 2019). Thus, femvertising can be interpreted as a term for a company's support of women's empowerment as portrayed through audiovisual communications (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019) and it can be viewed as a Corporate social responsibility (CSR) activity. CSR refers to a company's commitment to reducing or eliminating any negative and harmful effects while increasing its long-term positive impact on

society (Mohr et al., 2001). Thus, companies align themselves with social issues to appear socially responsible by engaging in behaviors such as community support (e.g., donating money to non-profit organizations), employee support (e.g., implementing an egalitarian employment policy), and environmental protection (e.g., producing environmentally friendly products) (Teng et al., 2020). Related to the community support attribute, Champlin et al. (2019) discovered in their qualitative content analysis that brands in their femvertising type of advertisements conveyed women in less traditionally feminine ways, focusing more on ideas of physical and emotional strength, working hard, and/or engaging in traditionally male-focused activities like science, sports, and high-powered business settings. These commercials reminded viewers that women participate in many of the same activities as men and, as a result, are entitled to equality.

Important to mention that CSR linkages can be both positive and negative. A company's CSR actions can add to its positive image, or they can be connected with criticism of its social performance, resulting in negative CSR associations (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019). On one hand, consumers are more likely to respond favorably to CSR initiatives that are naturally aligned with a company's primary business activity (Hamiln & Wilson, 2004). Consumers, on the other hand, are skeptical of a company's support for social concerns unless they can verify that the efforts are authentic and legitimate. Supporting causes that are believed to fit, such as if the social cause is tied to the company's business or the values of its stakeholders, is one approach for firms to demonstrate legitimacy in their CSR efforts (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019). Thus, advertisers should think about how their businesses relate to and fit certain social issues (Champlin et al., 2019). In addition, additional effects are to be expected. Abitbol and Sternadori (2019) also found out that CSR associations and company–cause fit can influence purchasing intent both directly and indirectly through loyalty. Their findings demonstrate how company support for women's empowerment causes can be a successful CSR approach.

Femvertising can be seen in all kinds of industries nowadays. Femvertising was first used by firms that sold female products (e.g., Dove, Always, and Pantene), and it seemed to fit in well with the issues. As the movement grew in popularity, additional businesses, including those connected with male-oriented items (such as RAM trucks) or gender-neutral products (such as Verizon and Google), joined on board and began using femvertising in their marketing techniques. Today, several firms, like Verizon, Dodge, and Nike, embrace women's empowerment messaging as a marketing strategy (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019). Thus, the

femvertising type of advertisements can be found in a variety of businesses and product categories. They can be categorized and studied in different ways. In the literature, the femvertising type of advertisements are (1) compared with stereotyped/traditional advertising, and they are (2) classified based on whether a product category is perceived as feminine, masculine or gender-neutral.

Becker-Herby (2016) classified advertisements into two categories: femvertising and stereotyped advertising. Brands like Dove, Always, Nike, Under Armour, and Aerie appeared in the femvertising category. Carl's Jr., Doritos, DirecTV, Calvin Klein, and Victoria's Secret were all present in the category of stereotypical advertisements. The femvertising type of advertisements was mainly from industries more related to women (personal care, lingerie) or gender-neutral (sportswear), while the stereotyped advertisements were from all types of sectors, which can be related to both sexes, such as fast food, apparel, perfume, and fashion.

Åkestam et al. (2017) compared femvertising with traditional advertising in the car (Chevrolet – #Throw Like a Girl vs Fiat – #500 Topless), sportswear (Nike – American Women vs Reebok – Easy Tone), shampoo (Pantene – #Labels Against Women vs Fructis – #New Full & Plush) and telecom (Verizon – #Inspire Her Mind vs Kazam – #World's Slimmest Phone) industries. In a very similar way, Åkestam (2018) compared femvertising, as non-stereotyped advertising with advertisements that use stereotypes. She investigated the car (Chevrolet – #Throw Like a Girl vs Fiat – #500 Topless), sportswear (Nike – #American Women vs Reebok – #Easy Tone), and telecom industries (Verizon – #Inspire Her Mind vs Kazam – #World's Slimmest Phone).

Champlin et al. (2019) divided the various types of award-winning femvertising type of advertising into two groups: (1) those for brands primarily used by women and (2) those for brands that are not favored by one gender over the other or have traditionally been favored by men. GfK Mediamark Research & Intelligence's (MRI) Survey of the American Consumer, a well-known and widely used database of consumer statistics, was used to determine these two categories. High-fit products were categorized as those used by a majority of women, for instance, Dove's #Speak Beautiful (2015), Always's #LikeAGirl (2015), Pantene's #Dad-Do (2016), L'Oréal Paris' #Being a Woman Transcends the Body (2017), Lane Bryant's #ThisBody is Made to Shine (2017) or Barbie's #MoreRoleModels (2018) campaigns. Whereas, low-fit products were categorized as those used by a majority of males or by an equal number of men and women (neutral target audience), for instance, RAM Trucks' #Courage Inside (2015), Audi's #Daughter (2017), United Colors of Benetton's #UnitedByHalf (2017),

Coca Cola's #The Wonder of Us (2018) or Nissan's Saudi Arabian #SheDrives (2018) campaigns.

Abitbol and Sternadori (2019) and Sternadori and Abitbol (2019) in their research focused on femvertising campaigns from two different industries, which are used by both women and men: the sportswear and information technology industry. Regarding sportswear, they investigated Nike's #I Am My Resolution and Under Armor's #I Will What I Want. In the case of the information technology industry, Google's #Change Is Made with Code and Microsoft's #Girls do Science were at the center.

Consumers' attitude towards CSR projects, and thus femvertising, varies not only across industries but also between particular brands or companies within an industry (Pedeliento et al., 2016; Simpson & Kohers, 2002). As a result, customer reactions to femvertising messaging across businesses — and for multiple brands within industries — should be studied (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019).

Important to mention that femvertising, which aims to promote women empowerment and get rid of traditional gender stereotypes in advertising, has been also highly criticized. Although femvertising is used by advertisers to promote their support for women, given brands' innate drive to sell items, the motivation behind this activity is frequently questioned (Champlin et al., 2019). Besides, because few corporations have a business or a mission dedicated to gender equality, many people have considered corporate social actions relating to women's empowerment as insincere (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016). Research has also called femvertising a backlash of commodity feminism (Becker-Herby, 2016) or faux feminism for using femvertising as a diversity marketing strategy to generate profit while avoiding CSR issues such as sustainability and labor ethics (Sobande, 2019). Likewise, femvertising has been suggested to be the new CSR-washing (fempower-washing) in the context of gender equality (Sterbenk et al., 2021). Champlin et al. (2019) also draw attention to the fact that based on their research, the majority of the women, men, girls, and boys in these award-winning femvertisements were white, able-bodied women, men, girls, and boys, except for a few. Rather than appearing in groups or teams, women were frequently presented separately. Despite winning honors for showcasing female empowerment, several of the commercials emphasized parent-child connections; nonetheless, moms were nearly never featured. Consumers also condemn corporations that adopt a femvertising strategy of hypocrisy and exploitation to promote items if there isn't authenticity and brand-cause fit, according to Lima and Casais (2021). In contrast,

research has suggested that feminist scholars need to look at femvertising as a reactive form of communication, including brand activism, to be emphatic with consumers and look deeper into its positive effects (Varghese & Kumar, 2020a).

2.2. The effects of femvertising and their measurements

The different effects of femvertising and their measurement are discussed in this section. First, the empowering effects of femvertising are presented, including perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards gender equality. Then the brand-related effects are highlighted, including the attitude towards the advertising, the brand, and purchase intention.

2.2.1. The perceived empowering effects of femvertising

Gender equality actions that empower women have a direct impact on economic development, and as a result, women feel more confident and powerful, which has an impact on social and economic life, as well as the labor market. Advertising is a tool that alters people's perceptions of society (Yarimoğlu, 2021). Therefore, it is essential to measure women's empowerment in general and also in the context of advertising.

Women empowerment can be perceived in different ways, and its measurement should be first investigated in general, before moving forward to the context of advertising. The previously mentioned dimensions of women empowerment can be measured on the scale used by Mahmud et al., (2012), including self-esteem, control over income, decision making, and freedom of mobility. Decision-making, control over income, leadership in the community, and time management can also be measured with the relevant scale items of the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI), which was developed by Alkire et al. (2013). Important to mention that the study of Mahmud et al. (2012) was made in Bangladesh, and the cross-cultural study by Alkire et al. (2013) was carried out in Bangladesh, Guatemala, and Uganda. Thus, there are culture-specific statements in both scales that are not necessarily relevant in the Western world. Additionally, it is important to mention that the cross-cultural study by Alkire et al. (2013) was made in the agricultural sector, which also makes it very specific. The measurement of women's empowerment, in general, is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Extended dimensions of women empowerment and scales of their measurement

Dimensions of women empowerment	Author(s) and year published	Scale items	Scale type
Self-esteem	Mahmud et al. (2012)	I think I should have a say in decisions on buying furniture, buying livestock, spending family savings, taking a loan, treatment for sick children, visiting doctor for self, working outside the home, her visiting father's home, having more children, using family planning	Yes / No
		I think a wife's beating is justified when: she burns the food, neglects the children, argues with her husband, talks to other men, wastes her husband's money, she goes out without telling her husband	Yes / No / Don't know
Control over income		She has money she can spend as she wishes	Yes / No
Decision making		She has a say in decisions on buying furniture, buying livestock, spending family savings, taking a loan, treatment for sick children, her visiting doctor for self, her working outside the home, her visiting father's home, having more children, using family planning	Opinion is important / Opinion not important/ Does not have input
Freedom of mobility		In the last year, she: visited friends outside the village, visited hospital or clinic	Went without permission / Took permission / Did not go

Time-management	Alkire et al. (2013): Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI)	Activities done by the individual in the last complete 24 hours; In the last 24 hours did you work (at home or outside of the home) more than usual, about the same as usual, or less than usual?	More than usual / About the same as usual / Less than usual
Leadership in the community		Is there a social or economic group in your community?	Yes / No / Don’t know
		Are you a member of at least one social or economic group?	Yes / No

Source: own edition

Turning to the context of advertising, women empowerment are measured in two ways in the current literature. On one hand, the empirical work of Bue and Harrison (2019) examines the effectiveness of advertisements in increasing women's felt empowerment. The scale called Affective Empowerment Checklist (AECL) is used by the authors, which is an adaption of the Multiple Affective Checklist (MAACL) (Zuckerman & Lubin, 1965). Respondents select from 30 adjectives to indicate which ones currently described them, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (a great deal). On the other hand, Teng et al. 2020 investigate how women perceive advertisements as empowering. Their study is one of the few ones that directly observe women's empowerment in advertising on a scale of 3 items scale. For the details of these two scales see Table 5.

Table 5. The measurement of perceived women empowerment in advertising

Author(s) and year published	Lengths	Scale items	Scale type
Bue and Harrison (2019) - adaptation of the	30 items	Fifteen empowerment concepts (e.g., empowered, mighty, capable) and 15 disempowerment concepts (e.g., timid, ineffective, exploited)	1 (Not at all) to 7 (A Great Deal)

Multiple Affective Checklist (MAACL) by Zuckerman and Lubin (1965)			
Teng et al. (2020)	3 items	1. The women in the ad are powerful 2. The women in the ad are independent 3. The women in the ad have more control.	7-point Likert scale; 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strongly agree.”

Source: own edition

The perceived empowering effects of femvertising might be influenced by the individual's attitude towards gender role equality in general. Thus, attitude transfer should be also investigated in the case of the preception of gender stereotypes. Studies on impression development and stereotyping have been the main venues for the demonstration of attitude transfer. Both stereotyping and the process of forming an impression center around how one's attitude toward a person or a group affects how one later evaluates that person or other individuals in the category (Chapman & Aylesworth, 1999). In other words, a category-based examination of the individual takes place if they fall into a specific pre-existing category. A person's perception is thus founded on the previous attitudinal structures within the category to which he or she has been assigned. The newly classified person then inherits the preexisting attitudes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990).

Consumers of various genders and demographic variables, including age, income, education and marital status, personality type, and cultural backgrounds are likely to react differently to gender stereotypes in advertising (Åkestam, 2018; DeYoung & Crane, 1992). Thus, female and male consumers have significantly different emotional and attitudinal reactions measured in terms of disapproval, approval, surprise, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude, and purchase intention, according to Orth and Holancova's (2004) empirical results on gender portrayal in advertising. They also found that exclusive depictions of one's own gender appeal to both sexes the most. Greenwell et al. (2017) were investigating how different presentations (sexualized, neutral, and combat) of female athletes affect consumers' attitudes toward the advertising, specifically the influence on brand beliefs and purchase intentions. They found in the experiment that female respondents preferred neutral presentations significantly more than

male respondents. On the other hand, both male and female respondents found the fighter in the sexualized advertisement more attractive and charming, but also less talented and successful than the fighter in the neutral or combat ads. Related to the cultural understanding of gender portrayals, in the Middle East, for instance, female and male consumers agreed that the main figure in a household product advertisement should be a woman (Slak Valek & Picherit-Duthler, 2020). Consumers' a priori attitudes on the sex-role portrayal issue as well have a substantial impact on responses across genders (Orth & Holancova, 2004). People respond favorably to messages that are in line with their traditional gender role ideas, according to Putrevu (2004). Previous research showed that commercials presenting women as housewives elicited more positive consumer responses than advertisements depicting women in non-traditional roles (e.g., working mothers, modern women, and professionals) (Vantomme et al., 2005). Females, according to Orth and Holancova (2004), also preferred advertisements with atypical female portrayals (e.g., women being superior to men) over those with traditional male depictions (e.g., men being superior to women). In addition to the factors already mentioned, the attitudes to female autonomy and the perceived offensiveness of the portrayal of women in advertisements can also have a determining effect (Ford & Latour, 1996). Ford et al. (1991) found that female customers were less likely to buy a new product that used offensive representations of women in its advertising. Davies et al. (2002) discovered negative psychological effects such as lower self-esteem, higher self-ideal discrepancy, and higher body-focused anxiety when women were exposed to gender stereotypes in advertising. Holmstrom's (2004) findings indicate that images of skinny women have little to no impact on viewers. Images of overweight women, on the other hand, appear to have a beneficial impact on women's body image. On the contrary, Lou and Tse (2020) discovered that women identify more with brands that utilize average-sized models in their advertising than those that use plus-size or thin models. However, according to Åkestam et al. (2017) and Eisend et al. (2014), advertising with female stereotypes is viewed less favorably than advertising not featuring stereotypes. Åkestam (2018) draws attention to the fact that the social context of reactions to gender stereotypes has been largely ignored in previous studies. Based on the influence of the presumed influence (IPI) model (Gunther & Storey, 2003), female consumers might feel that advertising that involves gender-stereotyped portrayals hurts other women, which influences advertising and brand attitudes as consumers 'punish' the brand for harming others. In other words, people believe that others are more impacted by stereotypes than they are (Dahlén et al., 2013) and that this view modulates their response to advertising (Åkestam, 2018). Åkestam's (2018) findings support this hypothesis for two types of stereotype components: physical characteristics and

role behavior, and they assist to explain why many women reject gender stereotypes in advertising, although those stereotypes have little personal influence on them. Another explanation is that customers utilize ‘others’ to project their own concerns since they do not want to be seen as directly affected (Eisend, 2015). To maintain their self-esteem, consumers believe they are immune to advertising’s persuasion attempts. Acting or speaking out of concern for “others” would thus be a way to criticize stereotyped advertising’s presumed consequences while not admitting to being personally affected by such advertising (Åkestam, 2018).

There are various ways to measure the attitude towards gender roles, gender stereotypes, and gender equality in general, which can be seen in Table 6. McCauley & Thangavelu (1991) used two types of scales: sex-occupation stereotyping and sex-personality stereotyping, while Greenwald et al. (1998) applied The Implicit Association Test (IAT), which requires responding to category contrasts such as male versus female. Diekmann & Eagly (2000) used the perceived role non-traditionalism scale, where perceived sex distributions for traditionally male-dominated or female-dominated occupations and household activities are selected. García-Cueto et al. (2015) measured gender role attitudes in a 5-point Likert scale. The items on the scale represent attitudes that define the gender role to be played in society in terms of equality, sexism in social functions, employment, and family (including Family Function Transcendent (FFT); Social Function Transcendent (SFT); Family Function Sexism (FFS); Social Function Sexism (SFS); Employment Function Sexism (EFS)). This scale later has been modified by Jinah (2022) for 10 items.

Table 6. The measurement of attitude towards gender roles

Author(s) and year published	Lengths	Scale items	Scale type
McCauley & Thangavelu (1991) - sex-occupation stereotyping	10 items	Out of every 100 Americans who work at the following occupations how many are female or male? Physicians, scientists, police, lawyers, bank officials, laborers sales clerks, secretaries, mechanics, bus drivers	-
McCauley & Thangavelu (1991) - sex-personality stereotyping	15 items	Out of every 100 women or men how many can be described by each of the following characteristics?	-

Greenwald, McGhee & Schwartz (1998) - Implicit association Text (IAT)	2 items	Differential association of 2 target concepts with an attribute.	-
Diekman & Eagly (2000) - Perceived role non-traditionalism	-	Perceived sex distributions for traditionally male-dominated or female-dominated occupations and household activities	-
García-Cueto et al. (2015) - Gender Role Attitudes Scale (GRAS)	20 items	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. People can be aggressive and understanding, regardless of their sex 2. People should be treated equally, regardless of their sex 3. Children should be given freedom depending on their age and how mature they are, not depending on their sex 4. Boys have the same obligations to help with household chores as girls 5. Household chores should not be allocated by sex 6. We should stop thinking about whether people are men or women and focus on other characteristics 7. My partner thinking that I am responsible for doing the household chores would cause me stress 8. The husband is responsible for the family so the wife must obey him 9. A woman must not contradict her partner 10. I think it is worse to see a man cry than a woman 11. Girls should be more clean and tidy than boys 12. Men should occupy posts of responsibility 13. I think boys should be brought up differently than girls 14. I think it is right that in my circles of friends, my future domestic activity is considered more important than my professional activity 15. A father's main responsibility is to help his children financially 16. Some jobs are not appropriate for women 17. I accept that in my circle of friends, my partner's future job is considered more important than mine 18. Mothers should make most of the decisions on how to bring up their children 	5-point Likert scale; 1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree."

		19. Only some kinds of jobs are equally appropriate for men and women 20. In many important jobs it is better to contract men than women	
Jinah (2022), adapted from García-Cueto et al.'s (2015) GRAS scale	10 items	1. People can be active, considerate, and kind to others regardless of sex 2. People should be treated equally regardless of sex 3. We should stop thinking about whether people are men or women and focus on other characteristics 4. Both men and women can demonstrate their abilities regardless of the type or content of work 5. Both men and women can hold responsible positions 6. There is no inappropriate job just because you are a man or a woman 7. I think both home and occupational activities are important 8. Household chores should not be allocated by sex 9. I think boys and girls should be brought up the same way 10. Mothers and fathers should be equally involved in raising children	5-point Likert scale; 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree.”

2.2.2. Brand-related effects of femvertising

Three different types of brand-related effects of femvertising would be discussed in this section, including the attitude towards the advertisement, the brand, and purchase intention. These three, brand-related concepts are often researched together in the literature (see for instance: Spears & Singh, 2004; Mitchell & Olson, 1981), as they might affect each other. According to Brinson and Britt (2020), customers' opinions and feelings regarding an advertisement have a substantial influence on their attitude toward the brand it represents as well as their purchasing intentions. Ling, Piew & Chai (2010), and Eckler & Bolls (2011) also found that consumers' attitudes towards advertising significantly influence their behavior and purchasing intentions.

According to Thomson, MacInnis, and Park (2005), there is a relationship between consumers' level of passion for a brand and their willingness to pay a price premium for that brand. It is widely acknowledged that to the extent an individual associates value with a brand, he will be

more willing to pay a higher price for the brand and recommend it to other consumers (Aaker, 1991; Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2013). Thus, in the next section, these brand-related effects and their relation to each other are further discussed.

The favorable or unfavorable responses of respondents to advertising stimuli are measured by their attitude toward the advertisement (MacKenzie et al., 1986). Attitude is defined by Eagly & Chaiken (1993) as a psychological tendency characterized by favor or disfavor towards a specific entity. Based on Albarracín et. al. (2005), attitude evaluates trends that originate from the belief of the individuals. Besides, at the same time attitude also influence them and their behavior. Bauer, Berács, and Kenesei (2007) describe the following three components of the attitude: cognitive (knowledge-based), affective (emotion-based), and conative (action-bound). The cognitive factor is learned, based on which knowledge the consumer usually forms an opinion about the prestige of a product or brand, and whether it is of good or poor quality. Emotions subconsciously influence a given idea, for example, our attitude towards advertising or a brand can also be based on an emotional attitude. The action-related component can be a mere habit-based attitude without any previous knowledge or emotion, such as buying a particular product out of habit. Depending on what the purpose of particular advertising or brand is, the specific component of the attitude is aimed at changing.

Advertising attitudes are mediated by personal, negative psychological reactions as well (Åkestam, 2018). The results of recent research related to femvertising show that educational level and age do not affect the attitudes towards femvertising (Elhajjar, 2021). Kapoor and Munjal (2019) found that the attitude of individuals towards femvertising is influenced by their private and public self-consciousness and need for emotion. Sternadori and Abitbol (2019) came to the result that those women who seem highly receptive to femvertising type of advertisements are more likely to be supporters of women's rights and to be self-identifying feminists. Similarly, Teng et al. (2020) found that women who support women's rights are more likely to favor femvertising. Abitbol and Strenadori (2020) did not find a significant relationship between the degree of rurality and their positive attitude to femvertising, but their preference for specific advertising types was linked to a more positive attitude toward femvertising. However, as Harker et al. (2005) suggest, the relationship between these influencing elements is more complex, and cultural differences can also have a significant role in shaping attitudes.

The attitude towards advertisements, specifically femvertising, can be measured in a variety of ways. The different scales used in the literature are presented in this section in chronological order in Table 7. As shown in the table, one of the most used scales in the

literature to measure the attitude towards advertising is by Wells (1964), called the Emotional Quotient (EQ) scale as well as the semantic differential scale of Mitchell & Olson (1981).

Table 7. The measurement of attitude towards the advertisement

Author(s) and year published	Also used by these authors eg.:	Lengths	Scale items	Scale type
Wells (1964) - Emotional Quotient (EQ) Scale		12 items	1. This ad is very appealing to me 2. I would probably skip this ad if I saw it in a magazine 3. This is a heart-warming ad 4. This ad makes me want to buy the brand it features 5. This ad has little interest for me 6. I dislike this ad 7. This ad makes me feel good 8. This is a wonderful ad 9. This is the kind of ad you forget easily 10. This is a fascinating ad 11. I am tired of this kind of advertising 12. This ad leaves me cold	Agree / disagree
	Hoffmann et al. (2012)	3 items	1. I like the ad 2. The ad is appealing to me 3. The ad is convincing me	7-point Likert scale; 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strongly agree.”
	Abitbol & Sternadori (2019) and Sternadori & Arbitbol (2019)	11 items	1. Femvertising messages are heart-warming 2. Femvertising messages are of little interest to me 3. Femvertising messages make me feel good 4. Femvertising ads are wonderful 5. Femvertising ads are easy to forget 6. I’m tired of this kind of advertising 7. Femvertising ads leave me cold 8. Femvertising ads are fascinating to me	5-point Likert scale; 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree.”

			9. I would probably skip femvertising ads when they appear on TV 10. Ads about empowering women are appealing to me 11. Femvertising messages help advance women's empowerment and success in U.S. society	
Mitchell & Olson (1981)	-	4 items	What is your opinion on the ad? bad/good, dislike/like, irritating/not irritating, interesting/uninteresting	7-point semantic differential scales
	Åkestam et al. (2017)	3 items	bad/good, dislike/like, negative opinion/positive opinion	7-point semantic differential scales
MacKenzie & Lutz (1986)		2 items	Overall reaction to the advertisement: favorable / unfavorable and interesting / boring	7-point semantic differential scales
Teng et al. (2020)		2 items	1. I feel good towards the ad 2. I feel positive towards the ad	9-point Likert scale; 1 = "not at all" and 9 = "very much"

Source: own edition

The attitude towards the advertisement is also influenced by the stereotypes displayed in it. Femvertising is considered better compared to advertisements showing traditional female stereotypes (Åkestam et al. 2017; Åkestam, 2018; Elhajjar, 2021; Teng et al. 2020), therefore femvertising might have a more positive impact on the advertisement (Drake 2017; Åkestam et al. 2017). Åkestam et al. (2017) also added that femvertising leads to higher advertising attitudes than traditional advertising because it is viewed as less stereotypical than traditional advertising, resulting in less advertising reactance. Although it is important to mention that not all female portrayals used in traditional advertising are stereotypical. Thus, as previously mentioned, it is important to take into account the perceived gender stereotypes as well as the attitude towards the advertisements.

The perception and attitudes towards gender stereotypes in advertising can be measured in different ways. One of the most used scales is developed by Lundstrom and Sciglimpaglia (1977). It was later used by several researchers, for instance, Ford & Latour (1996),

Hofmeister-Tóth & Malota (1999), and Orth & Holancova (2004). Vantomme, Geuens & Dewitte (2005) measured the explicit attitudes towards the stereotypical ads by adapting the scale of Mackenzie et al. (1986). While Åkestam et al. (2017) used a 7-point Likert scale with two items to identify gender stereotypes. The different measurement methods are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8. The measurement of gender stereotypes in advertising

Author(s) and year published	Also used by other authors, eg.	Length s	Scale items	Scale type
Lundstrom & Sciglimpaglia (1977)	Huhmann & Limbu (2016), Ford & Latour (1996), Hofmeister -Tóth & Malota (1999)	12 items	1. Women shown as they really are. 2. The advertisement suggests that women are fundamentally dependent on men. 3 Men shown as they really are. 4. In this advertisement women are treated as "sex objects." 5. This advertisement accurately portrays women in most of their daily activities. 6. This advertisement suggests that women make important decisions. 7. This advertisement accurately portrays men in most of their daily activities. 8. This advertisement suggests that women don't do important things. 9. This advertisement suggests that a woman's place is in the home. 10. I'm more sensitive to the portrayal of women in advertising than I used to be. 11. I find the portrayal of women in the advertising to be offensive. 12. Overall, I believe that the portrayal of women in advertising is changing for the better.	7-point Likert scale, 1 "strongly disagree" and 7 "strongly agree".
Vantomme, Geuens & Dewitte (2005) -		6 items	interesting/boring, good/bad, unpleasant/pleasant, dislike/like, favorable/not favorable, not irritating/irritating	-

adapted scale of Mackenzie et al. (1986)				
Eisend et al., (2014)		2 items	The portrayals of the actors in the ad are acceptable The portrayals of the actors in the ad are contemporary and appropriate	7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strongly agree.”
Åkestam et al. (2017), Åkestam et al. (2021)		2 items	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The ad is stereotypical. 2. The ad shows a stereotypical image of women. 	7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strongly agree.”

Source: own edition

The impact of advertising on brand attitude is also an important area to examine. To start with, it is essential to define what the concept of “brand” means. Using the American Marketing Association's definition of a brand as a starting point, Keller (2013) defines a brand as a name, term, design, symbol, or any other attribute that identifies one seller's product from other sellers. The author also adds that a brand is something that has developed a specific amount of recognition, reputation, and emphasis in the target market. The definition of a brand, according to Kapferer (2012), evolves throughout time. Whereas a brand was once thought of as a name or sign that guaranteed a certain quality, it is now a name that may create a community. Additionally, in today's contemporary society, he defines a brand as a name "that reflects a long-term commitment, a higher motivation, or a devotion to a distinct set of values, ingrained in products, services, and behaviors that distinguish or emphasize the company, person, or product" (Kapferer, 2012, pp.12).

Based on Keller (2013), each brand consists of a variety of brand elements, such as the brand name, logo, slogan, packaging, and many other things of a similar nature. It is important to note, however, that none of these components fully captures the essence of the brand. Making a specific brand a benchmark in its own market became the goal of contemporary strategic

management. The author highlights that globalization and the increasing use of the Internet are the two key reasons why the definition of a brand is expanding.

Marketing professionals use branding to explain that a brand distinguishes us, the customers; buying and utilizing a brand differentiates us from the crowd (Prónay & Hetesi, 2016). Additionally, the consumer segment that normally consumes the brand determines its image. If one's group consumes that brand, it will have a favorable impact on his or her brand selection, however, if a group consumes that brand from which they distance themselves, it will harm their brand selection (Prónay, 2011). By brand attitude, based on Mitchell and Olson (1981), we mean an individual's internal, overall evaluation of a particular brand. Another definition by Percy & Rossiter (1992) defines brand attitude as an individual's internal, comprehensive assessment of a particular brand, which can change over time as different motivations and knowledge is acquired. If the consumer's motivation changes, his or her attitude towards the brand may also change. The authors also distinguish the cognitive and affective factors of brand attitude: the cognitive attribute controls behavior and the affective one provides it with emotions. The results of the research of Tamasits and Prónay (2018) among focus groups confirm the diversity of emotions related to brands. Furthermore, this emotional attachment may be able to override rational thinking in the sense that, while consumers recognize that there may be a better brand than their preferred brand, they would not buy the better brand at the same price if given the opportunity, instead of remaining loyal to their favorite brand. Thus, brand attitude is relative and depends on consumers' motivation as to which brand is closest to meeting their needs (Percy & Rossiter, 1992). Brand attitude is viewed by Park et al. (2010) as a psychological construct based on personal brand processing. The brand attitude has a so-called cold effect since it relies more on facts and perceptions of the consumers than it does on sentiment. The strength to which a person has a positive or negative brand attitude reflects both that person's opinion of the brand and their level of trust in it. It is underlined that the brand attitude does not depend on time; rather, it develops quickly from the information provided and does not require more time. These lead the authors to the conclusion that brand attitude does not change considerably over time and is, in fact, a relatively stable construct. Brand attitudes are also moderated by personal, unfavorable psychological reactions (Åkestam, 2018). It is still an open question, in Prónay's (2016) words, why a consumer sticks to a brand, why and how they see love and friendship with that brand, and why they expect the

manufacturer of the brand to take on sustainability and social responsibility, and why they feel the need to that the brands should do that always in a new form, or through new channels.

Femvertising has been compared to traditional advertising in the attitude towards the brand by several studies (Åkestam et al., 2017; Drake, 2017; Kapoor & Munjal, 2019) as it may influence brand beliefs (Greenwell et al., 2017). Femvertising based on Åkestam et al., (2017) generates lower levels of ad reactance than traditional advertising, therefore it leads to higher brand attitudes for women. Besides, femvertising proved to have a better opinion than traditional advertisements (Åkestam et al., 2017), which can lead to a positive impact on the brand as well and might build an emotional connection to the brand (Drake, 2017). According to Fournier's (1998) research, it is crucial for brands and consumers to have an emotional connection. This emotional connection, which may lead to the development of brand love, captures strength in terms of the degree of affection associated with a brand attitude; self-connection taps strength in terms of centrality, and personal commitment captures strength in terms of attitudinal stability.

The attitude towards the brand can also be measured in a variety of ways, which are shown in chronological order in Table 9. As we can see the original, semantic differential scale of Mitchell & Olson (1981) has been still widely used and slightly modified nowadays, but it still serves as a base for almost all brand attitude scales.

Table 9. The measurement of attitude towards the brand

Author(s) and year published	Also used by these authors eg.:	Length	Scale items	Scale type
Mitchell & Olson (1981)	-	4 items	bad/good, dislike very much / like very much, pleasant / unpleasant, poor quality-high quality	5-point semantic differential scales
	MacKenzie and Lutz (1986)	3 items	Overall feeling about the brand: good/bad, favorable /unfavorable, wise/foolish	7-point semantic differential scales
	Eisend et al., (2014)	4 items	bad/good, dislike/like, inferior/superior, negative/positive	7-point semantic differential scales

	Hwang et al. (2021)	3 items	bad–good, negative–positive, unfavorable–favorable	7-point semantic differential scales
Batra and Ray (1986)		4 items	useful/useless, important/unimportant, pleasant /unpleasant, and nice /awful	7-point semantic differential scales
Berger and Mitchell (1989)	Faircloth, et al. (2001)	2 items	bad/good; dislike extremely/extremely like;	7-point semantic differential scales
Spears & Singh (2004), based on MacKenzie and Lutz (1986) and Batra and Ray (1986)		7 items	bad /good, unlikable/likable, unappealing/appealing, unpleasant / pleasant, unfavorable / favorable, unsatisfactory /satisfactory, disagreeable / agreeable	7-point semantic differential scales
Dahlén et al. (2008)	Åkestam et al. (2017), Åkestam (2018), Åkestam et al. (2021)	3 items	What is your opinion of the brand? bad/good, dislike/like, negative opinion/positive opinion	7-point semantic differential scales
Hoffmann et al.'s (2012)		1 item	I like the brand that was advertised	7-point Likert scale; 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strongly agree.”

Source: own edition

According to Fishbein (1966), rather than considering behavioral intention to be a part of the attitude, it should be considered a separate phenomenon. That is why purchase intention is discussed separately.

Individuals' attitudes toward advertising and brand attitudes are influenced by advertising value, which leads to a readiness to buy - thus, by influencing attitudes, we can impact consumers' buying intentions. Willingness to buy involves three aspects: (1) it can

indicate whether consumers are willing to buy a given product, (2) it can represent what the consumer wants to buy in the future, or (3) it can be connected to the repurchase decision (Lee, Lee & Yang, 2017).

A variety of factors can impact a person's willingness to purchase a product, but the most essential is the individual's perception of value, which is generally comprised of perceived quality and price (Chang & Wildt, 1994). Additionally, consumers' purchasing intentions are shaped by their product evaluations or attitudes toward a brand, as well as external stimuli (Lin & Lu, 2010). Furthermore, in the context of femvertising, both directly and through loyalty CSR associations and company–cause fit also influence behavioral intentions. Thus, positive associations with a company's support for women's empowerment can result in positive purchase intent (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019).

In connection to femvertising, the literature reports different results regarding the effect on the willingness to buy. According to the online survey of Sheknows Media (2014), 92% of the 628 women surveyed could recall at least one campaign that featured a favorable representation of women, and 52% had purchased a product because they liked the way women were portrayed in the ads. Drake (2017) found that due to the emotions evoked from these femvertising-type of advertisements, women empowerment in advertisements has a positive impact on the purchase intention of the women target group. On the contrary, according to Kapoor and Munjal (2019), women's positive attitudes toward femvertising influence their forwarding intention of advertisements, but not their purchasing intent. Abitbol and Sternadori (2016) came to the same conclusion: femvertising messages did not affect women's self-reported purchasing intent.

The intention of respondents to purchase a product from the brand after viewing the featured messages is referred to as behavioral intention. The respondents' likelihood of purchasing a product can be measured in different ways. Jamieson and Bass (1989) used a one-item scale to test the willingness to buy for different product categories. Dodds et al.'s (1991) purchase intention measurements included a 7-point Likert scale, while Orth & Holancova (2004) used the adapted scale of Jamieson and Bass (1989) with three statements. Abitbol and Sternadori (2019) used a single-item scale, while Teng et al. (2020) used a 9-point Likert scale to measure purchase intent. The scales can be seen in detail in Table 10.

Table 10. The measurement of purchase intention

Author(s) and year published	Also used by these authors eg.:	Length	Scale items	Scale type
Jamieson and Bass (1989)	-	1 item	How likely you are to buy the product?	5-point Likert scale 1 =definitely will not buy 5=definitely will buy, and 101-point Likert scale 0 =definitely will not buy 101=definitely will buy
	Orth & Holanco va (2004)	3 items	1. I believe this product is perfectly right for me. 2. I will definitely choose X as my new service provider. 3. I will definitely choose another service provider.	7-point Likert scale 1 =strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree
Dodds et al. (1991)		5 items	1. The likelihood of purchasing this product is 2. If I were going to buy this product, I would consider buying this model at the price shown 3. At the price shown, I would consider buying the product 4. The probability that I would consider buying the product is 5. My willingness to buy the product is	7-point Likert scale (1=high / strongly agree; 7=low / strongly disagree)
Abitbol & Sternadori (2019)		1 item	1. This ad makes me want to buy the brand it features.	5-point Likert scale 1 =strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree
Teng et al. 2020		3 items	1. I will choose this product over other similar products 2. I am interested in this product 3. I would like to purchase the product	9-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = “strongly disagree” and 9 = “strongly agree.”

Source: own edition

3. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The empirical research is described through the research plan, the two qualitative studies, and the quantitative research.

3.1. Research plan

The research is carried out in two stages. First, to deeply explore the problem, in the framework of an exploratory study, qualitative interviews were done in two Studies (1,2). As a second phase, based on the results of the literature review and the interviews, a quantitative study was done to get generalizable data.

3.1.1. Research questions

Based on the literature review, the following key research questions were established to understand the empowering and brand-related effects of femvertising:

1. What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?
2. What are the brand-related (attitude towards the advertising, brand and purchase intention) effects of femvertising?

3.1.2. Research design

In the current study, the mixed-research method is applied. Mix-method research-elements of qualitative and quantitative research are combined to deeply understand the phenomenon and affirm the findings (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). This type of research is more and more recognized as valuable because it can exploit the strengths of qualitative and quantitative approaches (Östlund et al., 2011). In the current study, exploratory design is used. The timing

of the exploratory design is sequential: data is analyzed in a given sequence (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). In the current case, qualitative research is followed by quantitative (Harrison & Reilly, 2011), which makes it useful for developing new instruments based on initial qualitative analysis. Besides, this method made it possible to generalize qualitative findings analytically, develop a theory and then test it with the help of quantitative analysis (Östlund et al., 2011). Therefore, qualitative data served as an initial exploration to identify variables or taxonomies for quantitative studies. In the analysis, the data is connected between the two phases (Creswell et al., 2003). If qualitative and quantitative methods are both used in the same study, one method is usually given priority. The weighting of each method could differ, and it affects the integration of the empirical findings. However, this is less challenging in sequential mixed methods, as in this case, one approach (in this study: qualitative) informs the other (here: quantitative) (Foss & Ellefsen, 2002).

In cross-cultural research, the most common designs have been those which combine traditional ethnographic methods, for instance, interviews with survey research. This proved to be one efficient way to improve the quality of cross-cultural surveys and to grant that the research is culturally accurate. Qualitative methods make it possible for the researcher to examine the particular characteristics and behavior of a given group and the sociocultural aspects of the interview through an inductive approach while emphasizing the context of the research situation. Qualitative research is very important in cross-cultural marketing research, as in many cases the researcher is not familiar with the foreign market to be examined. Besides, this type of methodology may reduce the psychological distance between the researcher and the respondent or research context. The information which was obtained from the interviews could reveal the differences between the foreign and domestic markets, and it could be used in the formulation of the final structure and survey questions (Malhotra et al., 1996). On the other hand, quantitative survey data can be extremely useful to get data that can be generalized to a larger population and form a base of plans and policies prepared for different cultural groups. This method can help researchers to understand how certain trends and characteristics of different groups alter from those of the general population (Hines, 1993).

To increase the validity and interpretative potential of the current study, and to decrease biases related to the investigator, triangulation is used (Denzin, 1970). Triangulation, as a methodological metaphor can facilitate the integration of the qualitative and the quantitative findings with equal weight, besides, it may serve as a tool to clarify their theoretical recommendations and the base of their results. It can also help to better understand the connection between the different levels of theory, empirical findings, and methodology, as it

can also challenge theoretical suppositions, and assist the development of a new theory (Östlund et al., 2011; Erzberger & Kelle, 2003). Triangulation has five different forms: (1) data triangulation, when different sources of data (time, space, and person) are used, (2) method triangulation, when multiple methods are applied in the same study, (3) investigator triangulation when involving more than one observer, interviewer, coder, or data analyst in the study, and (4) theoretical triangulation when using multiple theories or hypotheses when examining a phenomenon. As in the current study, more than one type of triangulation would be used, including more than two data sources (data from two countries), qualitative and quantitative techniques at the same time, and more than two investigators (one by each chosen country, controlling the coding and data analysis phase of his or her native country), and using multiple theories and hypothesis, which would result to a complex triangulation called multiple triangulation (Denzin, 1970; Denzin, 2017).

3.1.3. Research context - Hungary

The main research context of the qualitative and quantitative studies was Hungary, which will be described in detail in this section. However, to deeply understand the phenomenon, qualitative interviews were done also in other countries, to be able to compare the results to a reference point.

To choose the best countries for comparison, several different reports, cultural dimensions, and frameworks were considered to be used. The most frequently employed cultural framework remains the one developed by Hofstede (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; Terlutter et al., 2010). The applicability of this concept had been confirmed in many types of research related to advertising and marketing (e.g., de Mooij & Hofstede 2010). The cultural dimensions used in the model are power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and indulgence. Secondly, the differences between these countries can be observed with the GLOBE model as well. The GLOBE framework (House et al. 2004) consists of nine different cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, assertiveness, human orientation, future orientation, institutional collectivism, gender difference, in-group collectivism, and performance orientation. The GLOBE study surveyed more than 17,000 middle managers in 62 regions around the world and focus on leadership and work behaviors. Compared to Hofstede's dimensions, the GLOBE framework provides a broader theoretical foundation and the data collection is fresher as it started after 1994.

However, there were many biases raised regarding these measurements (see for instance: Smith, 2004).

Therefore, to present the differences between Hungary and the other chosen countries and to make a meaningful comparison, instead of Hofstede's dimensions and the GLOBE framework, research gaps related to countries where femvertising hasn't been investigated, as well as economic outlook, development, and cultural differences of the countries are taken into account.

Regarding research gaps, as mentioned before, there are only a few studies carried out related to femvertising or gender stereotypes in Eastern Europe, Latin-America. Besides, of the Nordic countries, which have the highest equality indexes, only Sweden has been investigated so far (see for instance Åkestam et al., 2017; Åkestam et al., 2021). Thus, the two countries as a comparison to Hungary would be chosen from these two regions (Latin-America and Northern Europe) by taking into account the following index.

Among the different indexes, the current study focuses on the Global Gender Gap Report, which examines the progression of gender equality gaps across four major indicators: (1) economic participation and opportunity (wage equalities; holding legislative, senior official, managerial, professional, and technical positions), (2) educational attainment (literacy rate; enrollment in primary, secondary, and tertiary education), (3) health and survival (sex ratio at birth, healthy life expectancy), and (4) political empowerment (women in parliament, in ministerial positions, number of years in the case of a female head of state). The Global Gender Gap Report evaluated 146 nations in 2022, offering a tool for cross-country comparison and prioritization of the most effective policies needed to address gender inequalities (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022).

As seen in Table 11, Iceland, among some other Nordic countries, in 2022 is at the top of the list, having taken the first position for the thirteenth time, and has reduced gender disparity in the country by 90.8%. From Latin-America, we can see two smaller countries in the top 12 (Nicaragua and Costa Rica), but Mexico, one of the largest countries in population and land has also taken 31st place in the ranking. Meanwhile, Hungary placed 88th out of 146 nations on this index, closing its gender gap to 69.9%.

Table 11. The percentage of closed gender gap (%) – example of some highlighted countries

Rank	Country	Closed gender gap (%)
1.	Iceland	90,1
2.	Finland	86
3.	Norway	84,5
4.	New Zealand	84,1
5.	Sweden	82,2
6.	Rwanda	81,1
7.	Nicaragua	81
8.	Namibia	80,7
9.	Ireland	80,4
10.	Germany	80,1
12.	Costa Rica	79,6
21.	Austria	78,1
22.	United Kingdom	78
27.	United States	76,9
28.	Netherlands	76,7
31.	Mexico	76,4
67	Slovak Republic	71,7
88.	Hungary	69,9
89.	Armenia	69,8
90.	Romania	69,8
145.	Pakistan	56,4
146.	Afghanistan	43,5

source: Global Gender Gap Report, 2022

Between 2000 and 2021, Hungary's ranking exhibited a progressively decreasing trend, which may be attributed mostly to women's low involvement in political power. In terms of access to education and health care, Hungary's condition is positive and reasonably constant (Koncz, 2016). However, when compared to 2021, the statistics for 2022 show an encouraging trend, with Hungary moving from 99th to 88th place, owing to improvements in the indices of economic participation and opportunity (particularly perceived salary equality for similar

employment) and educational attainment development (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022). Knowing these data, it is intriguing to investigate the historical and other cultural explanations for these patterns.

Hungarian society has witnessed substantial changes in the social, political, and economic realms during the last decades. Following World War II, Communism imposed a different gender regime in Hungary, as well as other East-European state-socialist nations as in the western countries, and it was based on the Soviet Union's model, which redefined the duties of women in society (Fodor, 2022). Gender equality in the socialist system meant equal representation of men and women in the labor market. Women were expected to work full-time and be "useful citizens" while still performing other tasks like as mothers and housewives (Bodó, 2015). Then there has been a movement from the post-communist state to a market economy where competitiveness has become more important (Fülöp & Berkics, 2015). Additionally, the present Hungarian government's policy is more conventional and conservative than that of Western nations, since the government places a strong focus on family support and reproduction, as well as traditional male and female roles, to stop Hungary's decreasing population rate (Fodor, 2022). In this regard, conventional gender roles are seen as more ideal in Hungary at the level of attitudes. Young men and women still favor conventional roles, according to research. Women's competition and competitive women are viewed more unfavorably than men (Fülöp & Berkics, 2015). Besides, the change of traditional social roles (e.g., the husband stays at home and raises the children, and the wife earns the money) is strongly opposed by the majority (Pongrácz & Molnár, 2011). However, interestingly it is common in Hungary, typical of every fourth family, that financial decisions fall within the competence of women. Hungarian men are relatively less involved in household chores, but Hungarian women are very grateful for this little help (Pongrácz, 2005). Thus, inequalities exist in men's and women's social engagement, for example, in schooling, paid jobs, and time utilization (Tóth, 2007). In Hungary, women's employment is quite low in comparison to Western nations, particularly during reproductive age, and for families with children under the age of three, which impacts gender roles within the home as well as the financial condition of the families (Makay, 2018).

Related to media and advertising, it should be noted that Hungarian women are under-represented and portrayed in the press (Kovács et al., 2020) along with conservative male-dominated discourses, and women journalists also write about the issues of women from the perspective of male discourse (Patrícia, 2002; Kegyesné, 2006). In the case of female portrayal in advertising, Hofmeister-Tóth & Malota (1999) distinguished the following women

stereotypes in Hungary: woman as a symbol of beauty, as a sex symbol, interesting twenties girl, average housewife, grandmother, the careerist - masculine woman. Women are mainly addressed in the product categories of hygiene, beauty care, housing and clothing, cooking, and food. In Hungary, the rules (EUR – Lex, 2008) of the European Parliament since 2008 and the decision of the Hungarian government in 2010 are in effect about the impact of marketing and advertising on equality between women and men and the reduction of gender stereotypes. However, the problem of the usage of stereotypes and the sexist representation of women in advertisements is still not solved.

3.2. Qualitative research

Based on the literature, it is important to take into account the cultural background, demographic characteristics, and personality traits of individuals when examining the impact of advertisements (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2020; Varghese & Kumar, 2020). To gain a deeper understanding of the cultural and demographic background of the interviewees, we conducted primary research (Malhotra & Simon, 2009). Two qualitative studies were conducted, in both cases comparing Hungary to another country as a reference. Based on the existing research gaps and the Global Gender Gap Report (2022), Hungary was chosen for representing Eastern Europe, Mexico for Latin-America, and Iceland as a Northern European country.

As the first step of the exploratory design, the main research questions related to the perceived empowering and brand-related effects of femvertising and the role of attitude towards gender equality were investigated by qualitative methods. Related to these main questions, it was important to deeply understand how women perceive their situation in the chosen countries, what they mean by women empowerment, and what kinds of cultural differences can be found between these countries. In this phase of the research, interviews were made and then analyzed by qualitative content analysis.

The criteria for ensuring quality in qualitative research differs from those used in quantitative research. Based on Guba (1981) there are four criteria for achieving quality qualitative research: “credibility”, “transferability”, “dependability” and “confirmability”. Credibility is the equivalent of internal validity in quantitative research, and it contains the extent to which the findings reflect reality. To meet this criterion, the phenomenon was described in detail in the current study. Transferability in qualitative research refers to

generalizability (external validity) in a quantitative context, meaning that the results should be able to be transferred to other situations or individuals. In this case, not just the phenomenon was described in detail, but the contexts as well where the phenomenon occurred, thus other researchers might use the results to make sense of other contexts or subjects. Dependability in qualitative research is equivalent to reliability in quantitative research, meaning that the research design, data, coding, and analysis were described in detail, and can be repeated by other researchers. Confirmability equals objectivity, referring to the importance of a detailed explanation. Besides, researchers had to ensure that the results did not reflect their ideas and values, but their participants' experiences and thoughts (Constantinou et al., 2017).

3.2.1. In-depth interview method

The qualitative research has been done by qualitative interviews based on the recommendation of Middleton et al. (2020), which has been rarely used for the research related to femvertising. However, other studies also used qualitative techniques, such as qualitative content analysis (Champlin et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2019; Lima & Cascais, 2021;), netnography (Lima & Cascais, 2021) and focus groups (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016).

The base of interviewing contains an interest in understanding other people's lived experiences and the meaning they make of that experience. In other women empowerment-related articles interviews are also frequently used for describing one country (see for instance Kabeer, 2011; Al-Lamky, 2007) or in cross-cultural settings (see for instance: Doran, 2002), however, femvertising has been rarely researched by interview technique (Middleton et al., 2020). The interviewing process takes a lot of time as from the conceptualization of the project, contacts, and interviews should be made with the interviewees, then data should be transcribed and analyzed (Seidman, 2006). Along with face-to-face interviews, online interviews are also another alternative (Deakin & Wakefield, 2014). As the current study's theme is complex, it might have been a challenge for all subjects in the interviews to ask all the questions as they might not be at ease answering. Therefore, these types of questions were posed in the middle of the interviews, as in this way there was an opportunity to get closer to the interviewee in the first half of the interview (Harvey, 2011).

As part of the qualitative exploratory research, two studies are conducted, in which Hungary is compared to two other countries. In Study 1, the comparison is made between

Hungary and Mexico, and in Study 2, Hungary and Iceland are compared. At this point, it is important to highlight the difficulties of conducting cross-cultural research. Based on Hines (1993), among the difficulties of cross-cultural projects, three basic ones should be highlighted. First of all, as marketers try to better understand global consumers, they encounter a culturally diverse population. Related to different cultural groups to measure various phenomena, it is necessary to utilize culturally and linguistically appropriate instruments (McGorry, 2000). Problems could occur related to conceptual and linguistic equivalence as conceptual equivalence differs from linguistic equivalence. Therefore, accurate translation is extremely important and should be improved and validated by techniques such as back-translation, which was also done to check the Hungarian, Spanish (for Mexico), and English (for Iceland) translating while forming the qualitative interview guide. Secondly, particular care should be taken about the measurement of the same problem in a cross-cultural setting. It can happen that across cultures, different indicators may be required to measure the same concept. Besides, some topics might be irrelevant or taboo in some countries. That is why an investigator from Mexico and Iceland were involved to review the cultural aspects raised during the qualitative research. Thirdly, there can be several problems during the survey and interviewing process as it might be an uncomfortable and unfamiliar social situation in some countries. There can be also problems related to characteristics such as gender, age, ethnicity, professional status, or the presence of other people during the interview or survey. Thus, during the interviewing, special care was taken to overcome these problems.

3.2.2. Interview topics and process

In Study 1 and Study 2, the semi-structured interview consisted of the same topics and questions. The following subsections were included in the interview.

After the introduction, in the first part of the interview, the interviewees had to define what women empowerment meant to them and then the expectation from society was asked from them. Then the variables of women empowerment (decision making, control over income, time management, leadership in community, and freedom of mobility) described in the literature review section, were discussed with them.

In the second part of the interview, female portrayal, femvertising, and women empowerment (including the empowering effects of femvertising) have been discussed with the interviewees.

The third part investigated the brand-related effects of femvertising, where projective technique was utilized to assess the attitude towards traditional advertising and femvertising, the attitude towards the featuring brands, and the purchase intention of the featuring brands. It is a useful technique, as researchers can use projective approaches to learn what individuals think and feel about a certain topic (Steinman, 2009) and to better comprehend the respondents' attitudes, emotions, and motives (Malhotra & Simon, 2009).

The semi-structured interview guide can be found in Annex2.

3.2.4. Thematic content analysis

One of the most used research methods in cross-cultural advertising research is content analysis (Okazaki & Mueller, 2007). In the current study, for the data analysis of the interviews, qualitative content analysis was used as well. The definition of qualitative content analysis is a “subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p.1278). Based on Zhang & Wildemuth (2009), qualitative content analysis aims to extract objective content from texts to examine patterns, themes, and meanings that can be evident or latent in the given text. Through this methodology, researchers can understand in a subjective, but scientific way the social reality.

In the current study the following 8 steps of qualitative content analysis coding were used based on Zhang & Wildemuth (2009):

Step 1: Prepare the Data

The coding and analysis of the interviews were done in two rounds: preliminary coding was based on only a few interviews, then the remaining interviews were coded in the second round. In the first round of preliminary coding, some interviews were selected from the countries, and the audio files (including the whole interview from the introduction until the end of the conversation) were transformed into written text, containing observations during the interview - pauses, and other audible behaviors as well.

Step 2: Define the Unit of Analysis

The second step was one of the most fundamental and important decisions (Weber, 1990): to define the coding unit. As many qualitative content analyses usually use individual themes as the unit for analysis it was done as well in the current study. Firstly, the main themes which were identified during the literature review were added to NVivo 12 Plus software and texts were assigned to the specific parts of the transcripts. Themes could have been expressed in the transcripts in a single word, in phrases, sentences, and paragraphs as well. As the aim was to keep data as grounded as possible to the context, the local languages for data analysis remained at the earlier stages, and then, as data progressed conceptually and findings were reached, the language was moved to English (McGorry, 2000).

Step 3: Develop Categories and a Coding Scheme

The current study had a preliminary theory, therefore the inquiry and the main initial themes during the analysis were created based on the literature review. The advantage of deductive coding is that it supports the accumulation and comparison of research findings across multiple studies (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). After the deductive coding, the texts were further analyzed by an inductive way of coding, to identify new emerging categories. Based on Glaser & Strauss (1967), in the case of developing categories inductively from raw data, the use of the constant comparative method is recommended. In the current study, it was also used to be able to make differences between categories apparent. Therefore, a systematic comparison of each text assigned to a category was made with those which were already assigned to that category. Besides, in some cases, the integration of categories and their properties was made with the help of interpretive memos. Thus, in this study, a combination of inductive and deductive qualitative content analysis was used, called “directed content analysis” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

For coding, a manual has been developed, which consisted of category names, definitions, rules for assigning codes, and examples (Weber, 1990).

Step 4: Test Your Coding Scheme on a Sample of Text

As the development and validation of the coding scheme are essential early in the process, after the coding of the few interviews from each country as a sample, the coding consistency has been checked.

Step 5: Code All the Text

After making the transcripts from all the remaining interviews' audio files, the previously revised coding rules were applied to the entire text. When the second round of the coding process was done, the coding and the coding manual have been checked repeatedly (Schilling, 2006) in order not to lose or get confused about the true meaning of the codes and to add the new emerging themes and concepts.

Step 6: Assess Your Coding Consistency

Before concluding the coded data, it was necessary to recheck the consistency of the coding, the newly added codes, and the coder's understanding of the categories and coding rules (Weber, 1990).

Step 7: Draw Conclusions from the Coded Data

At this stage, the themes and categories previously classified were analyzed and the meanings were derived from the data reconstructed, and relationships were identified between the categories.

Step 8: Report Your Methods and Findings

To be able to replicate this study, the analytical procedures and processes are presented as completely as possible (Patton, 2002). To present the findings, quotations are used to justify conclusions (Schilling, 2006). Using description and interpretation of the results reflect the author's understanding of the phenomena described in the literature review part. To have an intersubjectively comprehensible study, the results are compared with other studies in the sense of triangulation and to check reliability (Mayring, 2004). Based on Lincoln and Guba (1985),

to evaluate interpretive research work, credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability were taken into account.

3.2.3. Study 1 – comparison with Mexico

Taking into account the research gap related to different regions and continents and the best-performing countries of the Global Gender Gap Index (2022), Mexico, due to its influence, culture, size of the population, and land, was chosen to represent the Latin-American region for comparison with Hungary in Study1. The next sections describe in detail the research context of Mexico, the data collection and sampling, and the results of the first qualitative research.

3.2.3.1. Comparative research context - Mexico

Gender stereotypes, androcentrism, and heterosexism are the three major ideologies that define Mexican society for a long time (Ortiz-Hernández & Granados-Cosme, 2006). Psychological barriers exist that restrict people's options and hinder them from seizing opportunities since gender inequality is still prevalent in Mexico. The social institutions and cultural norms that sustain them are the sources of these barriers to human, economic, and societal advancement (Hietanen & Pick, 2015).

In the case of gender roles in contemporary Mexico, the study of De Oca et al. (2013) showed significant differences in how men and women see their roles. Men define themselves with a role that involves protecting, providing, understanding, being a professional, providing safety, and being loving, compared to women, who indicated seeing themselves as professionals, independents, wives, or housewives, whose role is to share and educate. The authors state that their results show important changes and a transition regarding the traditional gender roles of Mexican culture. This tendency is also confirmed by Fonseca and Quintero (2008), saying that the delimitation and differentiation of gender roles and their functions are tending more and more towards their flexibility, producing changes in the notion of masculine and feminine. Consequently, a transforming impact is generated in social norms and in the codes of patriarchy in which a defined order between the sexes is governed by which women naturally occupied a neglected place. Besides, Rodríguez (2019) also declares that women's influence in policymaking has grown, mainly due to their involvement in urban popular movements and non-governmental groups at the municipal, state, and federal levels. Building

coalitions and obtaining the critical mass are without a doubt the most widely acknowledged strategies for Mexican women to carry out their responsibilities and achieve their goals, as well as to improve their status and that of all women in Mexican society.

On the contrary, advertising still supports gender stereotypes in a traditional role context in Mexico, where women are not considered equal to men (Mensa & Bittner, 2020), therefore it appears natural for women to be depicted as homemakers and caregivers solely (Lopez, 2018). Results of a study about gender stereotypes advertisements in Mexico show that nearly 50% of the advertisements use female gender stereotypes. The product categories where most female stereotypes are used are household cleaning, cosmetics, personal hygiene, and food (Instituto Federal de Telecomunicaciones, 2019).

3.2.3.2. Qualitative sample and data collection

In the first qualitative study, a combination of purposive and snowball sampling has been applied. Non-probability sampling, although having several drawbacks owing to the subjective nature of sample selection, is beneficial, particularly in situations when randomization is impractical. When a researcher has a restricted amount of time, money, or labor, it may be helpful. It can also be employed when the resources are restricted and the goal of the study is not to produce data that will be utilized to make population-wide generalizations (Etikan et al., 2016). For the purposive sampling technique, the study's information-rich examples are chosen, which helps to discover valuable data related to the study's objectives. Regarding the subjects and the study venues, several selection criteria were used (Patton, 2002). Interviewing a narrow group of adult women who were thought to have more social role empowerment was the purpose of the sample demographics selection. Based on the research of Mahmud et al. (2012), women in the workforce, in committed relationships, and having at least one child were interviewed. This was done in light of the assumption that women are the most empowered because they can have all the things that many people desire (family, work, and me-time) (Aziz et al., 2011, Jejeebhoy, 2002b, Mahmud et al., 2012). The age was limited between 30 and 50, to have a more accurate picture of this narrow target group. Additionally, the me-time that can be found through regular physical exercise was also a criterion (Steltenpohl et al., 2019), which assumes a more determined, goal-oriented personality. Snowball sampling, the most popular type of intentional sampling, has also been utilized. In this method, a starting group of respondents is chosen at random, and the subsequent groups of respondents are chosen from those who were indicated by the initial group or based on the data supplied. As we approach

the suggested new individuals, we can complete this procedure in waves. Compared to those who could have been chosen at random, these people had more of the same demographic and psychological traits (Malhotra & Simon, 2009). Because of the unique character of the target group, it was difficult to obtain interview subjects, therefore the snowball approach resulted to be very useful. The potential interviewees were contacted in different groups on social media (Facebook, Whatsapp) in Hungary and Mexico as well, including women entrepreneurs, sports, and mothers' forums. They were asked to voluntarily participate in the research if they meet the entry criteria. As the sample size should be proportional to the data saturation, we followed Constantinou et al. (2017) proposal for the initial sample of 10 interviews. As a result, after conducting a few pilot interviews, in each country ten interviews were made in person or online. In Hungary, during October 2019 most of the interviews were made in Budapest in person, while in September 2019 in Mexico in Monterrey. Women from other big cities in both countries were reached via online interviews. The interviews ranged in length from forty minutes to one hour and thirty minutes. The interviews were conducted in Hungarian in Hungary and Spanish in Mexico.

3.2.3.3. Projective technique

In Hungary and Mexico, two distinct commercials that represented traditional local stereotypes were shown, and the same international advertisement was watched by them as femvertising.

In both traditional advertisements, women were depicted in traditional feminine roles that emphasize domesticity and dependence (Eisend, 2010; Goffman, 1979; Knoll et al., 2011). Food became the chosen industry in both the Hungarian and Mexican local commercials with traditional stereotypes, as food is one of the product categories where female stereotypes are utilized most frequently in these countries (Hofmeister-Tóth & Malota, 1999; Instituto Federal de Telecomunicaciones, 2019).

The commercial of the chocolate brand, Bonbonetti (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Dh1BK55b8tw>) (30 sec, 2013) was chosen in Hungary based on findings from a qualitative study on gender stereotypes conducted by TNS Hoffmann (2013): most women find the commercial to be appealing, and it embodies traditional female stereotypes in Hungary. The advertisement depicts a family scenario of a mother doing laundry, while her husband is reading a newspaper and giving her more laundry to take (see: Figure 2). Their daughter is on a call, and we can also see the grandfather listening and playing music.

Then we can see that the daughter discovers her pullover damaged by the washing and a bar of chocolate next to given by her mother, saying sorry. In the end, they all laugh together and share chocolate. The advertisement was shown with a Hungarian voice-over.



Figure 2. Bonbonetti advertisement

Source: YouTube| Bonbonetti

For the advertising showing traditional stereotypes related to Mexico, Bodega Aurrera #Tu Morralla Vale Más (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5pRZujqpeKM>) (20 sec, 2018) was chosen (see: Figure 3). The advertisements present a housewife going regular shopping among other women in a supermarket. This woman is called “Mama Lucha” (Fighting Mama) and she appears as the primary character for Bodega Aurrera, a small grocery owned by the international Walmart company. Mama Lucha is fighting for all the women for the good prices around the Bodega Aurrera supermarket with a monster, who represents someone attacking their supermarket for taking away their money by offering high prices. Later we can see one of the housewives at home in the kitchen packing the goods recently shopped into the storeroom. The advertisement was presented to the interviewees with a Spanish voice-over.



Figure 3. Bodega Aurrera #Tu moralla vale más advertisement

Source: YouTube| Bodega Aurrera

As a femvertising, the same international advertisement was shown for the Hungarian and the Mexican interviewees. For the selection of the advertisement, the sport sector was chosen as a gender-neutral industry (Koivula, 2001), as proposed by Kordrostami & Kordrostami (2020). This industry is one of the most investigated sectors in the related literature (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019; Åkestam et al., 2017; Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019). In the advertising, we can see female athletes and celebrities, such as Selena Williams, who have accomplished exceptional success while battling for gender equality in numerous sports despite negative prejudice from others, such as being hysterical or insane (see Figure 4). The advertisement was shown in its original English voice-over to the interviewees, who were able to understand this language.



Figure 4. Nike #Dream Crazier advertisement

Source: YouTube| Nike

3.2.3.4. Results of Study1

The findings of Study 1 are reported in this section. The sample characteristics would be provided first, followed by the results of (1) perceived empowering effects of femvertising, by also describing interviewees' opinions about gender equality and women empowerment, and then the (2) brand-related effects of femvertising, including attitude toward the advertisement, the brand and purchase intention. The two countries, Hungary and Mexico would be compared. The results of the Hungarian interviews partly, but not entirely have been already published in two different studies (Török & Malota, 2021; Török, Malota & Mucsi, 2022).

Following the specific sample selection criteria described earlier, working women aged 30-50, in committed relationships and having at least one child, and me-time through sports were interviewed. The age in the Hungarian sample included women between 35 and 49, while in the Mexican sample between 30 and 50. The jobs of the interviewees varied in both countries from entrepreneurs, corporate managers, coordinators, teachers, lawyers, journalists, and physicists. All the interviewees exercised regular sporting activities in various fields, such as running, cycling, and swimming. The detailed table of the names (pseudonyms), ages, and sports of the interviewees can be seen in Table 12.

Table 12. Demographic profile of the sample in Hungary and Mexico

Hungarian interviewees			
	Name	Age	Sports
1	Ildikó	35	Bowling
2	Anita	36	Gymnastics, swimming, pilates
3	Eszter	37	Strengthening, dancing
4	Juli	38	Swimming, gymnastics, hiking
5	Brigi	39	Triathlon, long-distance running
6	Viola	41	Running, cardio, strengthening
7	Gabi	41	Bowling, aquafitness
8	Renáta	46	Yoga, cycling, cardio
9	Mónika	48	Running, swimming, strengthening
10	Éva	49	Running, gymnastics, swimming, dancing

Mexican interviewees			
	Name	Age	Sports
1	Sofía	30	Running
2	Valentina	34	Running
3	Regina	34	Running
4	Camila	36	Running
5	María	38	Running
6	Valeria	40	Running
7	Carmen	41	Fitness
8	Verónica	44	Running and swimming
9	Teresa	47	Cycling, volleyball, running
10	Gloria	50	Running

Source: own edition

As the results of empowering effects of femvertising, gender equality through social expectations from women, the definition of women empowerment, and the empowering effects of femvertising, in general, are investigated in both countries.

In the case of gender equality, first, the potential social expectations from women were asked.

In both countries, first of all, based on the interviews, women are expected to form a family, give birth, take care of the children, and do housework: *"It is evident that a woman's role is to give birth to a child, as only she is capable of doing so. And if you have already given birth to a child, you must take care of it"* (Éva, Hungary). In other words: *"Every day, there must be cooked food on the table, the house must be in order, and the children must be cared for. The children's homework should be ready, and we should play with them"* (Ildikó, Hungary); *"Unfortunately, I think that although we have been making progress in this process of empowering women, there is still a lot to do with the idea, there are many people who still think that women should be at home. And that she should be 100% dedicated to the family"* (Verónica, Mexico).

Secondly, most of the interviewees in both countries believe that women should be attractive and in perfect physical condition: *"Women should be extremely good looking and attractive"* (Viola, Hungary). Interviewees felt that women are under pressure and have high expectations towards them, which can come from within (they try to exceed targets due to their internal motivation) and from outside (from men and other women): *"I don't think that only men expect all this from women, but women also expect it from each other"* (Anita, Hungary); *"Outlook is so important within a society, and more so in Monterrey. As society demands it from you in some way, you also demand it from yourself, so you take care of your body and appearance"*. (Gloria, Mexico).

Thirdly, most Hungarian respondents emphasized the expectation that women should work and they should perform there especially well: *"Women are taught that they are not a human being if they don't work"* (Eszter, Hungary). Additionally, it is challenging to fulfill these expectations while still taking care of other responsibilities related to the household: *"The main dilemma of today's society is how a woman can solve this issue, so she does not end up in a disadvantageous position and can also be able to succeed in areas of life which were previously solely available for males"* (Éva, Hungary). However, more interviewees felt that they have fewer opportunities in the workplace as a woman. There may be several reasons for this, such as fixed gender stereotypes: *"There is such oppression against women at my workplace. A*

woman has to do much more for the same recognition. Also, if a decision has to be made, then by default only men are appointed to certain positions" (Brigi, Hungary).

Participants were asked in both countries what women empowerment mean to them. The results of the cultural comparison can be found in this section.

In general, the findings of the interviews in both countries on women empowerment are consistent with the definitions are given by Mahmud et al. (2012), Ashraf et al. (2010), Aziz et al. (2011), and Metcalfe (2011), which include the elements of living the life one desires, increasing one's influence, exercising freewill and decision-making, and having access to resources and control over one's life. However, based on the interviews, women empowerment does not necessarily imply possessing all of the elements stressed by previous literature (decision making, control over money, freedom of mobility, self-esteem, community leadership, and time management - see, for instance, Jejeebhoy, 2002b; Mahmud et al., 2012; Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015), and it is also culturally bounded. According to the respondents, empowerment may take several forms, such as having a profession or remaining at home as a housewife. In Hungary, interviewees emphasized that an empowered woman knows what she wants and actively does things to achieve her goals and obtain better positions. Achievements in personal life, work, and leisure activities are also important factors: *"Many kinds of women have many kinds of empowerment. For me, getting more empowered means that I realize myself in addition to career and family"* (Gabi, Hungary). Interviewees also mention the influence of the close family, which can even serve as a bad example, highlighting the parents and their partner/husband, as well as their relationship with each other: *"For me, getting more empowered doesn't mean money and career. I come from a family, and my chosen partner is also someone who values that I can create harmony"* (Juli, Hungary). While in Mexico, empowerment was more defined by the freedom to decide: "Empowerment is when you feel capable and use this capability to accomplish your goals when you have the flexibility to make decisions in every area of your life" (Valeria, Mexico); *"Even if you decide to stay at home, you can only feel empowered by your own choice. You also have the option of becoming a housewife."* (Gloria, Mexico).

The main distinction between Mexico and Hungary is that Mexican women stress sorority and the significance of supporting one another, as well as participating in leadership roles: *"Empowerment entails encouraging other women to think that they can accomplish more. It is to boost your own and other women's self-esteem"* (Camila, Mexico). Whereas Hungarian women do not highlight these qualities and instead focus on the self: *"I imagine her as a strong*

lady who is extremely purposeful and knows what she wants out of life, in private, at work, and in leisure” (Ildikó, Hungary).

The empowering effect of femvertising, in general, has been also discussed. Only the benefits of femvertising were highlighted by Mexican women: *“This style of advertising implies that we are all the same. We are all the same, whether we are men or women, and we all have the same capacity to attain our goals.”* (Verónica, Mexico). In contrast, Hungarian women claimed that while femvertising does empower women, it does not influence them directly and only has an impact on other women: *“I wouldn't assume that such a brand marketing might affect or support my empowerment. However, I believe it can benefit other ladies.”* (Juli, Hungary). This is consistent with the findings of Dahlén et al. (2013) and Gunther & Storey (2003), who discovered that consumers may assume that advertising has a greater impact on others than on themselves. The latter might be attributable to varied interpretations of women's empowerment among Hungarian women, as well as diverse opinions regarding the influencing effects of advertising in Hungarian society.

According to the findings in both countries, femvertising can also affect feelings owing to the emotions elicited by these commercials, as observed in earlier work of Drake (2017) and Kapoor & Munjal (2019): *“It can motivate people to be active and impact on their leisure activities”*. (Renáta, Hungary); *“When I see Nike's powerful advertisements, it can empower me in a way that I get the impression that if I wear their running shoes, I will be able to run faster or for longer distances”* (Carmen, Mexico).

As the results of brand-related effects of femvertising, the attitude towards the advertisement, brand, and purchase intention has been investigated with two different types of advertisements: (1) one local advertisement, using traditional stereotypes, and (2) femvertising, which aims to empower women and avoid the usage of stereotypes.

Attitude towards the advertisement has been asked by various questions, including the stereotypes portrayed in the advertisements, by showing a traditional local advertisement in Hungary (Bonbonetti) and in Mexico (Bodega Aurrera) to the interviewees and they were. In both countries, traditional advertisements were perceived both positively and negatively. This is most likely explained by the fact that the influence and perception of stereotypes are affected by a variety of circumstances. Such influencing factors can be, for example, demographic

variables (Deyoung & Crane, 1992), personal, psychological reactions (Åkestam, 2018, Kapoor & Munjal, 2019), identification with feminist values (Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019), attitude towards gender (Orth & Holancova, 2004) or culture (Harker et al. 2005). These results demonstrate that although it is common for Mexican and Hungarian women to see women portrayed as housewives and caregivers (Lopez, 2018; Hofmeister-Tóth & Malota, 1999), particularly in food-related advertisements (Instituto Federal de Telecomunicaciones, 2019; Hofmeister-Tóth & Malota, 1999). In case of the positive reactions, those interviewees who did not reject the traditional family model and gender roles and were satisfied with their role in the household and their respect were mainly positive about the presentation of traditional female roles, highlighting the situation within the family and the caring role of women: *“It's a perfectly normal ad. At least it's a nice advertisement. The mother of the family is pretty much average. I like it.”* (Brigi, Hungary); *“These positions appear traditional. The family includes a kind woman. Her concern is acknowledged by her spouse. That is okay with me.”* (Viola, Hungary); *“Regarding the family welfare, I can relate.”* (Camila, Mexico). On the other hand, negative opinions included the submissive position of women and gender inequality shown in the advertisements. It was mainly those interviewees who had a particularly negative opinion about the portrayal of roles, who identify more with the feminist value system, and who also had some kind of personal involvement concerning traditional gender roles (for example, they are not completely satisfied with their role in the household, or they are discriminated at work just because they are women). Few highlights from the interviews from Hungary: *“It is unsettling to observe that the lady should be at the washing machine while the father and children are merely seated on the sofa, and she is scurrying around the flat cleaning. I find absolutely nothing alluring about it”* (Mónika, Hungary); *“I feel that the mother in this commercial is not an important member of the family. There is a problem with respect”* (Renáta, Hungary), *“Unfortunately, the portrayed roles show the Hungarian reality. Our situation is about the same. Interestingly, what the advertisement presents is less appealing to me”* (Eszter, Hungary). Examples from the opinion of Mexican women: *“Even though we are capable of everything, it appears as though we need a rescuer, as symbolized by the Mama Lucha figure in the advertisement. This salvation, however, is for submissive women”* (Regina, Mexico); *“Gender equality is not portrayed in this advertisement. The woman needs to visit the grocery, so why is that? It could be my husband as well”* (Camila, Mexico).

The Nike advertisement represented femvertising in both countries. After watching the commercial, it turned out that the attitude towards the advertisement was mainly positive, and encouraging as it while empowering women to make a difference, it tries to break with

traditional stereotypes (Åkestam et al., 2017; Kapoor & Munjal, 2019). Those interviewees identified the most with the empowered, possibly rebellious female characters presented in the femvertising advertisement, who are more open to gender equality and the value system of feminism: *“Real and authentic roles are depicted. I believe that strong, powerful women like them are required. I have a strong connection with them”* (Gabi, Hungary); *“Advertising shows social expectations and how they can be challenged. It encourages everyone to achieve what they want”* (Juli, Hungary); *“The advertisement highlights women who pursue their dreams, who don't care if they're seen as crazy, but who transcend that societal judgment”* (Brigi, Hungary); *“I have no doubt that I aspire to be like the women in the advertising. I want to be perceived as someone who can attain a wide range of life objectives”* (Teresa, Mexico).

Although femvertising aims to break down gender stereotypes and tackle taboo topics such as body image issues (Champlin et al., 2019), the previously described critical components of femvertising (faux feminism) were also discussed in the interviews. Some Hungarian and Mexican interviewees negatively reacted to femvertising as they believed it does not show only true feminist ideas but also portrays stereotypes. According to those who participated in the interviews, femvertising continues to promote stereotypes like becoming a professional sportswoman or portraying roles that are primarily associated with males. Besides, male-typical scenarios (for example, boxing) appeared in the advertising, which failed to take into consideration the peculiarities resulting from specific living circumstances (for example, as a mother, it is difficult to fulfill the obligations associated with being a competitive athlete). Thus, during the interviews, the concept evolved that, based on the respondents' personal experiences, women in leadership positions frequently have to behave like males to be successful, which idea is supported by the current ad of Nike: *“It depicts roles that are usually portrayed by males but are here by women”* (Éva, Hungary); *“I have nothing to do with women boxing or displaying such physical violence; aside from totally accepting it, I don't feel like I can stand behind it; I can't relate with it”* (Renáta, Hungary); *“Well, the problem is that when you start a family, you have to decide, in my opinion, at least in my case, whether you are a mother of a family or a professional athlete. Anyone, from a boxer to a runner, takes a lot of work to achieve one of these things. But that comes at the expense of something, which is usually the family”* (Eszter, Hungary); *“I'd like to discover a brand that reflects me not only as an athlete but also as a mother and business owner”* (Camila, Mexico); *“This isn't who I am. I'm an amateur sport lady. I've never seen a brand that features a mother doing sports with her kids”* (Sofia, Mexico).

The attitude towards the brand related to the local advertisements showed a similar pattern to the attitude towards the advertisement: those who liked the advertisement and were more open towards traditional gender stereotypes were more positively talking about the brand, and also on the contrary. Hungarians stated the following: *“I believe it is a cute family advertisement of Bonbonetti. I feel positive about it.”* (Ildikó, Hungary); *“The ad was horrible, how can Bonbonetti let this advertisement be aired? I don’t even like the slogan”* (Anita, Hungary). While Mexican women said the following: *“Despite being in 2019, Mama Lucha, the main character of Bodega Aurrera represents the stereotype of the Mexican family, the mother dedicated to the house, to housework. I feel that this character of the brand lacks a lot of dignity”* (Gloria, Mexico).

The attitude towards the brand related to femvertising (Nike) by Hungarian and Mexican women was related more to previous experience with the brand, than to the actual advertisement: *“I’m not addicted to brands. But I have to admit that sports brands have really good commercials, especially Nike”* (Ildikó, Hungary); *“I don’t like Nike. Very expensive and not even good. I don’t even like these clothes with a huge arrow on them.”* (Brigi, Hungary), *“I love Nike and its advertisements”* (Valeria, Mexico).

The results about purchase intention were also diverse and related to the product, the attitude towards the advertisement and the brand, and previous relation to the brand (Lin & Lu, 2010).

Regarding the traditional advertisement, the majority of Hungarian women did not claim the intention to buy the product: *“I’m not going to the store to buy a Bonbonetti after this advertisement, that’s for sure.”* (Anita, Hungary), as well as Mexican women did not mention that they want to shop at the supermarket in the local advertisement.

The results related to femvertising of the Hungarian interviewees coincide with the findings of Drake (2017) in Hungary, as the positive attitude towards femvertising affects women’s forwarding intention of advertisement, but it does not make any self-reported purchase intent: *“I like the ad, but I would not buy the product”* (Brigi, Hungary). On the contrary, results in Mexico are in line with the work of Abitbol and Sternadori (2016) and Kapoor and Munjal (2019), as seeing a femvertising type of advertisement makes women buy the product: *“If I am in a store with the intention of not buying anything, but then I see the advertisement...then I see a training T-shirt... I end up buying it!”* (Verónica, Mexico).

3.2.3.5. Conclusion of Study1

The purpose of the first qualitative study was to acquire a thorough and deep knowledge of the key terms related to the research questions and what they mean in the two new cultural contexts studied, by a rarely used interviewing technique related to the research of femvertising.

Regarding the first research question (*What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?*), gender equality and women empowerment were discussed in general, to understand the cultural aspects, and then femvertising's perceived empowering effects were asked.

Based on the interviews, women are expected to form a family and be at home and dedicate most of their time to the family in both countries, compared to men. It is in line with the present Hungarian government's policy, which is more conventional and conservative than that of Western nations, by emphasizing traditional male and female roles (Fodor, 2022). Besides, in Mexico advertising still supports gender stereotypes in a traditional role context and gender equality is still a problem (Mensa & Bittner, 2020). Besides, they are also expected to be attractive and in perfect physical condition. Hungarian women also emphasized that women should work as well, which might be related to socialist times, where women were supposed to work full-time and be "productive citizens" while also being moms and housewives (Bodó, 2015).

Different types of women empowerment were identified in both countries, which are also culturally bounded. In Hungary, the self was placed in the center while talking about women empowerment, probably as a result of the individualistic mindset of the West after the transition from a post-communist state (Fülöp & Berkics, 2015). Whereas in Mexico the importance of sorority was emphasized, in line with the aspiration of women of building coalitions to obtain the critical mass (Rodríguez, 2019). In both countries, decision-making, self-esteem, time management, leadership in the community, and women's ability to control income were mentioned (Alkire et al. 2013; Jejeebhoy, 2002b; Knudsen & Wærness, 2008; Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015). However, as it seems not so relevant in Mexico and Hungary, their freedom of mobility (Jejeebhoy, 2002b) was not highlighted. It also turned out that women should possess all of these aspects of women empowerment to become empowered woman.

Femvertising's empowering and positive effects were declared by both Hungarian and Mexican interviewees, emphasizing its ability to evoke positive feelings and feelings (Drake 2017; Kapoor & Munjal 2019).

However, culture can have an impact on how women perceive femvertising, as women in Mexico focused solely on the positive effects of femvertising on them, ostensibly as a way of supporting women to increase their influence and fight back against the traditional Mexican gender system (Ortiz-Hernández & Granados-Cosme 2006), whereas interviewees in Hungary reacted more passively, stating that others are more affected by femvertising as themselves (Dahlén et al. 2013; Gunther & Storey 2003), thus, accepting the ideas of traditional roles of men and women currently ruling in Hungary (Fodor, 2022).

The results related to the second research question (*What are the brand-related effects of femvertising?*), investigated attitudes towards advertising, brand, and purchase intention with the help of the projective technic by comparing traditional advertising with femvertising in both countries.

The reception and the attitude towards the local and femvertising advertisements were mixed. However, Nike's femvertising advertisement performed better in both countries, maybe also due to the avoidance of traditional stereotypes applied in the advertisement. However, traditional and all kinds of other stereotypes in the advertisements might be accepted differently in diverse cultures, especially as women became increasingly aware of the lack of gender equality. In the current case, although femvertising intends to avoid stereotypes (Åkestam et al. 2017, Kapoor & Munjal 2019) in general, it still might not always use the appropriate gender portrayal and stereotypes to empower women. This also became an issue in Nike's femvertising advertisement, which turned out to use stereotypes that are associated mainly with men and elite athletes. According to the literature, the fourth wave of feminism, including femvertising, is strongly tied to the second and third waves of feminism (Maclaran, 2015). A pattern typical of the second wave of feminism might be seen in the Nike Dream Crazier advertising, based on which conventional feminine values and conduct are largely rejected and masculine values and behavior are preferred (Lazar, 2009). Furthermore, the representation of women's roles in the third wave arises, in which women are shown as strong, rugged, and attractive protagonists who refuse to cede physical strength and athletics as greatness to males (Bruce, 2016). Overall, the respondents were not in all cases able to accept the advertising depicting women with masculine characteristics, which is mainly related to the fact that in Hungary, the majority still strongly opposes the changing of conventional social roles (Pongrácz & Molnár, 2011); and in Mexico,

traditional gender stereotypes, and androcentrism are among the major ideologies (Ortiz-Hernández & Granados-Cosme, 2006).

Attitude towards the brand featuring in the local advertisement, among other factors, reflected gender equality attitude: people who appreciated the advertising and were more accepting of traditional gender norms spoke more favorably about the brand, and also on the contrary, if they had a negative attitude towards traditional gender roles, they did not favor the brand that much. These findings are in line with previous literature, as consumers' preexisting beliefs toward sex-role presentation have a significant influence on reactions across genders (Orth & Holancova, 2004). According to Putrevu (2004), people respond well to messages that are consistent with their established gender roles. Regarding femvertising, the previous brand experience counted as more important than seeing the actual advertising.

The findings related to purchase intention were likewise varied in both countries and for both the local and femvertising advertisements, as seen in previous literature (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016; Drake, 2017; Kapoor & Munjal, 2019). Besides, purchase intention was connected to the product, attitude toward the commercial and the brand, and past relationship with the brand (Lin & Lu, 2010). Thus, it has been difficult to distinguish the influence on purchasing intention from other factors, which should be also further investigated.

3.2.4. Study 2 – comparison with Iceland

The two countries, Hungary and Iceland were chosen based on the lack of research data regarding the two regions where they belong: Central-Eastern Europe and Nordic countries. Furthermore, Iceland, along with several other Nordic nations, is at the top of the list of Global Gender Gap in 2022, having taken first place for the thirteenth time, serving as a benchmark for other countries. The current comparison provides rich data and highlights the differences between the two countries.

3.2.4.1. Comparative research context – Iceland

Iceland is distinguished by freedom of choice, equality, hard work, and a high standard of living, as part of the Viking cultural heritage. To maintain individuality, it is important for Icelandic people also to take responsibility. From an early age they are taught to work very

hard, be self-reliant and before seeking help from others, make an effort to solve the problems by themselves. Materialistic gain is also important for them as part of progress (Lacy, 2000).

In many ways, Iceland can be regarded as a global leader in gender equality (Gender Gap Index Report, 2022; Bjarnason & Hjalmsdottir, 2008). Iceland's labor market is one of the most equal in the world (Gender Gap Index Report, 2022). In 2000, legislation introduced the right to government-paid parental leave, granted not only to mothers but both to fathers and mothers. This has been recently modified in 2021, and the new rule on parental leave allows each parent at least six months off, which is the longest paternity leave in the Nordics (Hallgrímur, 2022).

During the 1980 presidential elections, Vigds Finnbogadóttir became the world's first woman to be elected head of state in a general election. Besides, Icelandic women were among the first in the world to be granted the same economic rights as men in 1900, and universal suffrage was gradually achieved between 1882 and 1915. The overall public's attitude toward gender equality reflects recent political and economic advancements (Bjarnason & Hjalmsdottir, 2008).

3.2.4.2. Qualitative sample and data collection

In the second qualitative study, the interviewers were again chosen using a non-probability sampling strategy, which also allows for the selection of respondents who are relevant to the research (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Thus, the combination of purposive and snowball sampling has been applied this time as well. As for the purposive sampling technique, the study's information-rich examples were selected based on different, broader, and more accurate criteria as in the first study.

Researchers have a method to examine historical shifts in viewpoints thanks to generational cohorts. They can offer a means to comprehend how many formative experiences (such as global events and technical, economic, and social transformations) interact with the life cycle and aging process to alter people's perceptions of the world (Dimock, 2019). Thus, people are classified into different generations according to when they were born. Individuals for instance who were born between 1981 and 1996 are known as Generation Y or Millennials (PEW Research Center, 2019).

The requirements for participating in Study 2 were not as narrow as in Study1, as it resulted to be a research limitation in interviewing women with too many expectations, as well

as they were hard to reach. The entry criteria for the interviews of Study 2 were gender (women), age (25-41), and nationality (Hungarian or Icelandic). The age was chosen based on the criteria of belonging to the Y generation (Millennials) since the literature frequently emphasizes the Millennial generation's sensitivity and reactivity to femvertising and societal concerns in general (Drake, 2017; Sterbenk et al, 2021). According to several studies (see for instance: Varghese and Kumar, 2020b; Sterbenk et al., 2021), attitudes towards femvertising vary significantly among generations. As these generations have distinct expectations, it may have a significant impact for instance on their purchase intentions (Drake, 2017). Additionally, companies try to attract Millennials as their potential consumers or employees due to their growing purchasing power and their importance in the labor market (Champlin et al., 2019).

The interview process started with reaching out to the potential interviewees through various social media (Facebook, Instagram, Whatsapp) and other groups in Hungary and Iceland. If they fulfilled the admission criteria, they were requested to engage in the research of their own will and also invite others with similar profiles to participate. Between February and April 2022, 16-16 interviews were held with Hungarian and Icelandic women. Interviews were made mainly with women from Budapest, Hungary, and Reykjavík, Iceland. The interviews lasted an average of 45-70 minutes. Due to the Covid-19 epidemic, the mode of the interviews (personal/online) was customized to the respondents' interests.

3.2.4.3. Projective technique

The research used a projective technique as well and interviewees had to evaluate two advertisements from distinct development phases of femvertising. This was necessary to discern disparities in women's attitudes regarding these types of advertisements. After seeing each advertisement, interviewees were asked to discuss their thoughts and sentiments regarding the advertising. The sectors that primarily target women or both genders and actively utilize femvertising in their marketing strategies were chosen based on the literature (Åkestam et al., 2017; Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019). Based on this, the beauty, sports, and apparel industries were chosen.

As an earlier example of femvertising, Pantene #Labels against women advertising (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=luLkfXixBpM>) (2013, 1:00) from the beauty sector was selected. The campaign, which debuted in 2013 at the start of the fourth wave of feminism, might be viewed as an early example of femvertising. In the advertising, men and women are

compared in the same roles, but with males receiving favorable labels in certain cases—such as boss, persuasive, and dedicated, while women receive unfavorable labels, such as bossy, pushy, and selfish (see: Figure 5). The advertising still displays elements of the third wave of feminism, such as the portrayal of women as attractive and "superwomen" (Maclaran, 2012), but it also incorporates the key message of the fourth wave by criticizing and questioning traditional female stereotypes (Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019; Varghese & Kumar, 2020), and bringing attention to the unfavorable societal attitudes and the importance of gender equality. The advertisement was shown in English voice-over, but with Hungarian subtitles for the Hungarians and English for Icelandic interviewees.



Figure 5. Pantene #Labels against women advertisement

Source: YouTube| Pantene

For the newer femvertising advertisement, again Nike #Dream Crazier (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zWfX5jeF6k4>) (2019, 1:30) was shown within the sports and clothing industry. This advertisement is characterized by the fourth wave of feminism and its female representation, as diversity and inclusion characterize this advertisement, which depicts women of different ethnicities, skin colors, and ages, even in male-dominated roles and sports. In Hungary and Iceland as well, the advertising was shown to the interviewees in the English language.

3.2.4.4. Results of Study2

In this section, the results of Study 2 are summarized. First, the sample characteristics would be presented, then the results related to (1) empowering effects of femvertising, again also investigating interviewees' opinions about gender equality and women empowerment, and then the (2) brand-related effects of femvertising, including attitude towards the advertisement and the brand, and purchase intention are discussed. Hungary is compared to Iceland in this section. Certain parts of the results are being published in the study of Török & Malota & Horváth (in press).

Based on the sample selection criteria described earlier, the sample consisted of Hungarian or Icelandic women, aged 25-41. The age in the Hungarian sample varied between 25 and 38, while in Iceland between 25 and 41. Among the interviewees in both countries, different kinds of professions could be found, for instance, student, entrepreneur, pharmacist, project manager, lawyer, teacher, artist, and consultant. The detailed table of the names (pseudonyms), ages, and sports of the interviewees can be seen in Table 13.

Table 13. Demographic profile of the sample in Hungary and Iceland

Hungarian interviewees				Interview carried out in
	Name	Age	Family status	person / online
1.	Karolina	25	single	in person
2.	Panna	25	living with fiancée	in person
3.	Zsuzsanna	25	living with partner	online
4.	Rebeka	25	single	online
5.	Blanka	26	married	online
6.	Dóri	28	single	online
7.	Júlia	28	living with partner	online
8.	Lilla	29	living with fiancée	online
9.	Krisztina	29	married	online
10.	Réka	29	single	online
11.	Ágnes	30	single	online
12.	Vivien	32	married, expecting a baby	online
13.	Zsófi	33	married with 2 children	online
14.	Csenge	33	single	online
15.	Zita	33	married	in person
16.	Lili	38	single	online

Icelandic interviewees				Interview carried out in
	Name	Age	Family status	person / online
1.	Alda	25	single	in person
2.	Freyja	26	living with a partner and small child	in person
3.	Jóhanna	27	living with fiancée and small child	online
4.	Kristín	27	living with partner	in person
5.	Margrét	27	living with partner	online
6.	Njála	27	living with partner	online
7.	Katla	28	living with fiancée	online
8.	Vigdis	28	single	online
9.	Birta	29	married with small children	online
10.	Unnur	29	living with fiancée and 2 children	online
11.	Ingibjörg	30	living with fiancée and small children	online
12.	Dagny	35	single with 2 children	online
13.	Rut	36	single	online
14.	Embla	37	married with 3 children	online
15.	Sigrún	38	married	in person
16.	Valdis	41	married with 3 children	online

Source: own edition

Among the results of empowering effects of femvertising, gender equality through social expectations from women, the definition of women empowerment, and the empowering effects of femvertising, in general, are investigated in both countries.

Women are expected in both countries to succeed in all areas of life, which might put a lot of pressure on them: *"We must excel in all aspects of life, including our careers, personal lives, and family lives"* (Panna, Hungary); *"Women need to succeed in everywhere: at work, at home, at work, and with friends. It is expected much more from women than from men"* (Embla, Iceland).

In both countries, the duties of women having a family, giving birth, and being a housewife were mentioned. However, in Hungary, these aspects related to traditional female roles are required as the main expectation from women, and were always mentioned as the first duty of them: *"Society forces women to stay at home and be housewives and perpetuates traditional stereotypes, stating that woman's primary responsibilities are being a mother and taking care of the home"* (Zsófi, Hungary); *"Even in 2022, the main emphasis in Hungary is on us, women, staying at home and having children"* (Panna, Hungary). Whereas Icelandic interviewees did not mention these family-related duties in the first place. More women even emphasized these are not necessarily requirements for women anymore and they do not feel the pressure of society related to these aspects. On the other hand, others highlighted that in Icelandic society it is seen well to get married early and have children under 30, but it is not an

obligation. What they emphasized in the first place is education, and also being hard working was highlighted in almost every interview: *“Women should be educated. There is no pressure on being a full-time mother, but it is seen well to have a family early, before 30, and to buy your own apartment”* (Freyja, Iceland); *“They should be independent, hard-working. But the expectations of society do not influence me, I believe people can be who they want to be”* (Jóhanna, Iceland); *“It is expected for women to be educated, smart, have a career and family, to be independent, work a lot - to be busy”* (Ingibjörg, Iceland).

The expected pretty outlook from women was also mentioned in both countries, but it did not get such an emphasis as in Study1. Some examples are highlighted from the interviews: *“Women should look pretty and neat”* (Zita, Hungary); *“They should be happy and look good”* (Júlia, Hungary); *“Being with my peers is maybe the only occasion when I fear how I look”* (Jóhanna, Iceland).

However, the last area, which resulted to be the expectation from women to succeed in work and career, was mentioned mostly by all interviewees in both countries. The main difference between the two countries is that in Iceland it is expected for women to work hard also while having a family and work itself seems to have equal importance as having a family. Whereas in Hungary, having a family and children stay the primary expected obligation of women: *“Career might be a secondary role, and those who want to have it face ongoing remorse from society for not being at home with their children”* (Zsófi, Hungary); *“The government and society put pressure on women to marry and have a family and children, even if they do not want to have children, and there is also an expectation that they have a career as well”* (Zita, Hungary); *“It is expected from women to have a career, family, and to work a lot”* (Ingibjörg, Iceland).

In terms of women empowerment, it can be stated that both countries value freedom of choice and decision-making, as well as gender equality. The difference between the two countries resulted to be that Icelandic ladies emphasize gender-neutral aspects such as being yourself, expressing your opinion, and helping other women, whereas the Hungarian interviewees emphasize living and celebrating femininity. It is interesting to note that Icelanders emphasize not gender-specific factors, whereas Hungarian women emphasize concepts related to women. Icelandic women expressed the following: *“Be strong, independent, and true to yourself! Don't let other people's words influence you.”* (Jóhanna, Iceland); *“Even if you have your own family, just be yourself. Encourage and assist other ladies.”* (Freyja, Iceland). On the other hand, Hungarian ladies had a different opinion: *“For me, female empowerment means that*

as a woman I have every right to make my own decisions about my life, whether it's starting a family or career, and that society should respect my decisions." (Panna, Hungary); *"For me, it means to experience femininity: being a woman is a wonderful thing and it is a privilege that we can bring life into the world."* (Zsófi, Hungary).

The possible empowering effects of femvertising in both countries consisted of feeling more powerful by its non-traditional gender role portrayal, by showing diversity, gender equality, and being inclusive. At the same time, femvertising can positively influence women's emotions and attitudes by using examples and messages that are personally relevant and empowering – related to that many Icelandic women emphasized that women should be shown as CEOs in advertisements: *"Femvertising can be empowering by representing all ethnicities and body types, without Photoshop"* (Zsuzsanna, Hungary); *"Through messages about self-love, acceptance, tolerance towards differences, showing women in typically male occupations and portraying them competent and equal"* (Réka, Hungary); *"Showing different kinds of women (colors, etc.). To show we can do what we want. Portray them working as a CEO and to show a role model"* (Alda, Iceland); *"They say 'If you have seen it, you can be', thus it would be important showing more CEOs that are women. And not to put people in boxes! As anything is possible"* (Embla, Iceland).

As for the brand-related effects of femvertising, the attitude towards the advertisement, brand, and purchase intention has been investigated with two different femvertising types of advertisements: (1) the Pantene advertisement represented the early, less diverse, and inclusive, initial femvertising from 2013, (2) while Nike displayed the later, more diverse femvertising that appeared in 2019, containing fewer stereotypes. It was examined who the interviewees from the two countries think the two advertisements are aimed at, what they think about the gender roles shown, how much they identify with these roles, and what is their general attitude towards the advertisement.

Regarding the attitude towards the Pantene advertisement, in addition to the dominance of career and corporate environment as a context, according to the Hungarian interviewees, the advertisements appeal to a wider group than to the Icelandic women, for whom the target audience is less defined and rather young. Icelandic women are more critical of the portrayed roles: they point out that the advertisement uses stereotypes and presents a very narrow range

of women, so they identify less with the roles. They believe that the advertisement only shows young, thin, white models, or professionals who do great jobs, look amazing and wear nice clothes. In addition, they explain that, in their opinion, it would be necessary to present more diverse roles, a criticism that appears only seldom in Hungarian interviews. Based on the interviews, Hungarian women mention the extreme content of the message as negative, which they think turns women and men against each other. Overall, the attitude of the Icelandic interviewees is twofold due to the stereotypical roles displayed and the content of the message, while Hungarian women, on the other hand, generally have a more positive attitude towards the commercial itself: *"It depicts a very narrow social layer of women who are attractive, young, thin, and models, as well as professionals in high positions."* (Ingibjörg, Iceland); *"The displayed roles should be more diverse."* (Embla, Iceland); *"For me, the roles and situations depicted were too extreme, instead of bringing the sexes closer, it turns men and women against each other."* (Lili, Hungary); *"I liked the commercial. I think that this topic is still relevant today and it is important to talk about it"* (Rebeka, Hungary).

Regarding the attitude towards the more recent femvertising Nike advertisement, the difference based on the results of the interviews conducted in the two countries was smaller than in the case of the early Pantene femvertising advertisement. Both Icelandic and Hungarian interviewees consider the portrayed roles to be diverse. Although the majority of both Icelandic and Hungarian interviewees were able to identify with the portrayed roles and overall have a positive attitude towards the commercial, the Icelandic interviewees criticized the fact that the commercial shows professional athletes instead of ordinary ladies: *"The roles depicted are diverse and inclusive of women from all over the world, as well as women of various skin tones and disabled women. However, because I am not an athlete, I couldn't identify with the roles I saw"* (Margrét, Iceland); *"I can identify with what they do in the commercial, for example, the tennis player women competing again after having a baby, but I can't identify with the sport itself"* (Alda, 25, Iceland); *"I could identify with the roles portrayed, even though it shows elite athletes, as the challenges they have to face and the obstacles to overcome can also be projected onto everyday life."* (Dóri, Hungary); *"Even if people think women are crazy, it is important to keep going and fighting for what we want and believe in because we are capable of achieving it"* (Zsófi, Hungary); *"The advertisement depicts athletes' struggles; they are emotional, but these emotions are also common in everyday women"* (Lilla, Hungary).

The attitude towards Pantene, as a brand, was controversial for the Hungarian interviewees, as the majority of them believe it's great that Pantene supports and promotes awareness of such a societal issue, and has a positive attitude towards the brand, but at the same time had negative feelings because the advertisement portrayed beautiful ladies as having a perfect appearance. Additionally, for the majority it was hard to connect the brand itself to the advertisement, they were mainly surprised to see that the brand featuring in the advertisement resulted to be Pantene: *“Although the advertisement was a little extreme for me, I believe it is vital to talk about the issue and raise awareness”* (Blanka, Hungary); *“For me, the brand is quite neutral because it shows women with extremely shining hair, which is not at all realistic”* (Dóri, Hungary); *“Although I did not see a connection between the brand and the advertisement, I did admire how it raises awareness about the problem”* (Rebeka, Hungary); *“I was surprised that it was a Pantene advertisement, but I think it's great that they support women”* (Vivien, Hungary). For Icelandic women, although the brand is present in Iceland, it was not very familiar, thus most of the women had a neutral opinion of the brand and only a few of them stated that they have a positive opinion about it. Most of the interviewees believed that the advertisement did not exactly fit the shampoo product category of the brand: *“I haven't used this brand, I have no opinion about it”* (Alda, Iceland); *“I haven't heard about this brand, but it is cool”* (Freyja, Iceland); *“I like the brand, already used it, but I believe the advertisement does not fit exactly with the product”* (Jóhanna, Iceland); *“I'm indifferent about the brand, the advertisement did not change my opinion about it. But I have to admit that the advertisement - has nothing to do with a shampoo”* (Ingibjörg, Iceland).

On the contrary, the message of the Nike #Dream Crazier advertisement seems to fit well the brand itself, and the attitude towards Nike has been mainly positive or in some cases neutral, supposedly for those interviewees who did not project their positive feelings of the advertisement towards the brand, and those who are more conscious and aware about the brand in a corporate level: *“I love Nike, it is inspiring that they support women”* (Panna, Hungary); *“I like the brand, I think that the diversity is also proper in Nike's organizational culture, the brand also supports women”* (Rebeka, Hungary); *“The advertisement did not change my opinion of the brand, because I believe what they are doing on a business level is more essential”* (Ágnes, Hungary); *“Good and cool brand, strong in advertising and evoking emotions”* (Freyja, Iceland); *“I like it, buy it, but the brand is not always ethical”* (Kristín, Iceland).

The purchase intention towards Pantene could not be separated from previous experience and attitude towards the brand in both countries. Most of the women would not buy the brand, mainly because of the product type, as they already have a favorite shampoo brand and they would not switch from that, or because of previous negative experiences, such as they have tried it before but did not work for them: *“I would not change from my favorite brand, I also prefer more natural products”* (Csenge, Hungary); *“No, I would not buy it, I have tried it before, it wasn’t good for my hair”* (Zita, Hungary); *“No, I would not buy it, but only because of the product type, I already have my favorite shampoo”* (Réka, Hungary); *“Maybe I would buy the product, but I already have my favorite shampoo”* (Alda, Iceland); *“I would not buy it”* (Kristín, Iceland).

The purchase intention towards Nike was more determined by the economic situation of the interviewees. Most of the Hungarian interviewees would not buy the Nike brand after watching the ad, although their attitude was positive towards the brand. The reason behind this is that women find the price of Nike products too expensive, furthermore, this is not a product category that they use every day thus the decision-making about the purchase is more complex: *“I wouldn’t buy the product as I would rather decide based on attributes and price”* (Panna, Hungary); *“I would consider it, but it is too expensive”* (Krisztina, Hungary). On the other hand, the majority of Icelandic women would buy the product or continue buying it, which can also be influenced by their better economic situation: *“Yes, I would buy it”* (Birta, Iceland); *“Yes, I will continue buying it”* (Kristín, Iceland).

3.2.4.5. Conclusion of Study2

The goal of the second qualitative study was to gain a deeper understanding of the key terms related to femvertising and the current study’s research questions by using interviewing technique and investigating what they mean in the two new cultural contexts: comparing Hungary with Iceland, a country, serving as a benchmark, which has taken first place in the Gender Gap for the thirteenth time in 2022.

The first research question (*What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?*) included the investigation of gender equality and women empowerment and then femvertising’s perceived empowering effects have been discussed.

In Hungary, the main expectation from women is to have a family and children, which are more related to traditional gender stereotypes, emphasized by the current Hungarian government (Fodor, 2022), which presumably have an impact on gender inequalities affecting economic aspects (wage differences between the sexes; low number of women in a legislator, senior official, and managerial positions), as well as on the low level of political participation of women. While in Iceland, work itself seems to have equal importance as having family, in line with the importance of hard work (Lacy, 2000) and gender equality (Bjarnason–Hjalmsdottir, 2008) seen in the literature.

Women empowerment - in addition to freedom of decision-making and gender equality - in Iceland means gender-neutral aspects like being yourself, expressing your opinion, and helping each other, presumably connected to the importance of gender equality (Bjarnason–Hjalmsdottir, 2008), whereas the Hungarian interviewees highlighted the experience of femininity, rather supporting traditional female roles (Fodor, 2022).

Among the possible empowering effects of femvertising, the usage of non-traditional gender role portrayal, diversity, gender equality, and inclusivity was emphasized in both countries. Icelandic women also highlighted the importance of women being in high positions, in line with their aspirations and achievements related to gender equality (Bjarnason & Hjalmsdottir, 2008) and ranking in the Global Gender Gap Report (2022)

The second research question (*What are the brand-related effects of femvertising?*) contained the investigation of the attitude towards the advertising, brand, and purchase intention with the help of the projective technic. In this study, two advertisements from distinct development phases of femvertising have been used: Pantene #Labels against women as an earlier type of femvertising, and Nike #Dream Crazier, as a newer femvertising.

Regarding the attitude towards the advertising, the Pantene advertisement was liked less by the interviewees than the Nike advertisement because they believed it was less inspiring, less motivating, and provoked unpleasant feelings in some of the interviewees. As a result, this supports the need for a more inclusive and diverse depiction of women, which is more characteristic of the fourth wave of feminism and recent phases of femvertising, as opposed to the early phases of femvertising, which still bears the impact of the third wave of feminism (Maclaran, 2012; Bruce, 2016). Also by comparing the early and later femvertising commercials, it can be seen that femvertising advertisements have also undergone development,

especially regarding the representation of gender equality (Varghese & Kumar, 2020), which manifests itself in an increasingly positive perception on the part of increasingly conscious individuals. Interestingly, Icelandic interviewees resulted to be more conscious when evaluating commercials, and it is more important to them than for Hungarian women that a given advertisement presents diversity and is inclusive, and not only features, for example, beautiful "superwomen" or elite athletes (Maclaran, 2012).

The attitude towards the brand "Pantene", and the brand familiarity were not the same for the Hungarian and Icelandic interviewees. Icelandic women had almost no previous experience with the brand and had a mainly neutral opinion about it. While Hungarians know the brand, but had controversial feelings towards it after seeing #Labels against women advertisement. However, interviewees of both countries agreed that the advertisement fits not very well with the shampoo category, thus Pantene could not entirely demonstrate its legitimacy in its CSR efforts (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019). The message of the Nike #Dream Crazier advertising, on the other hand, seems to fit the brand well, and the opinions of Nike have generally been positive or occasionally neutral. To conclude, it is important to emphasize that the interviewees' brand attitudes are relative depending on their motivation as to which brand is closest to meeting their needs (Percy & Rossiter, 1992).

Purchase intention of Pantene shampoo brand was mainly defined by previous experience and attitude towards the brand, and results indicated the simple fact that consumers are not willing to buy the given product (Lee, Lee & Yang, 2017), which was supposedly due to individual's perception of value, which is generally comprised of perceived quality as well (Chang & Wildt, 1994). Whereas the purchase intention of Nike was determined more by the economic situation of the interviewees and in this case the willingness to buy involved the other aspects indicated by Lee, Lee & Yang (2017): it could have represented what the consumer want to buy in the future or was more connected to the repurchase decision. The attitude towards the brand, which shapes the purchasing intention (Lin & Lu, 2010) has been generally higher than for Pantene.

3.2.4. Conclusion of the qualitative research

The detailed conclusion of Study1 and Study2 has been already discussed in the previous chapters. Thus, this section aims to collect the facts and details that can be drawn from the two research, which provide guidelines for the quantitative research.

Based on the two qualitative studies, it turned out that it is better to investigate not only a very narrow group of women as in the first qualitative study but better to choose a well-defined, broader group, as Millennials were in the second study. Besides, Millennials serve as a target group of companies (Champlin et al., 2019). Cultural comparison is hard to make in the context of an experiment, as it is difficult to explore the underlying factors related to culture, as it could be seen in the meaning of women empowerment, and gender equality in the qualitative studies. Therefore, only one country would be chosen for the experiment (as seen in the majority of the research, eg. Drake, 2017; Åkestam et al., 2017; Teng et al., 2020; Bue and Harris, 2020). The chosen country for the quantitative research is Hungary, due to the lack of quantitative research related to femvertising.

Regarding the choice of the advertisement, based on the two qualitative studies, showing and comparing traditional and femvertising types of advertisements could offer more insights, as there can be bigger differences between them than between the earlier and more recent femvertising. It is important to choose femvertising and traditional advertisements that belong to the same industry and the same, well-known brand. It seems to be a better choice to use an adapted advertisement, which is appropriate in the given culture, preferably with a voice-over in the local language, which might eliminate the bias of understanding well foreign languages used in the experiment. Besides, the usage of a well-known brand, with gender-neutral characteristics seems more appropriate for future research. It is also worthwhile to implement advertising selection in the framework of pre-testing among the target group.

Regarding the empowering effects of femvertising, the measurement of women empowerment at the level of individuals generally encounters several problems, so within the framework of quantitative research, the focus should be on the perceived women empowerment in the advertisement.

Related to the effects of femvertising on brand and purchase intention, it proved to be hard to measure them, as these effects also depend on many other factors, such as previous experience and brand preference. Besides, the relation to the given product category can't be eliminated. Thus, product consumption frequency should be also measured in the experiment.

While investigating the attitude towards the advertisements, the underlying role of the general attitude towards gender roles and stereotypes came into focus, as those women in the interviews who identify more with the feminist value system tend to have a negative opinion about the portrayal of traditional gender roles. Thus, in the experiment, the role of gender role equality attitude should be measured, as it might influence the relationship between perceived women empowerment and attitude towards the advertisement.

3.3. Quantitative research

As the second step of the exploratory design, the main research questions were investigated by quantitative methods.

Internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity form the four main pillars of the validity of quantitative research. Internal (contextual) validity is one of the most important factors of validity, referring to whether it is possible to draw valid conclusions from a study based on its research design and the controls employed (Ryan et al., 2002). It is important that confounding factors are controlled and that the changes in the dependent variable result only from variations in the independent variable(s) (Klenke, 2008; Abernethy et al., 1999). To minimize the threats coming from internal validity, an extensive and detailed literature analysis has been conducted to understand the phenomena and their logic. Besides, data collection, analysis, and interpretation have been done based on the literature related to methodology, and special care has been taken to avoid for instance illusory correlation or causal error (Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). External validity refers to what extent the findings in the research sample apply to the population from where the sample was drawn (Klenke, 2008). It determines whether it is possible to make more general conclusions based on the model used and data collected and whether these results can be generalized to other samples, periods, and settings. The main problems that can threaten external validity are population, time, and environmental validity. Population validity is related to the question of whether conclusions can be drawn from a study of a given population. Time validity concerns whether the results of the study at a certain point in time can be generalized to other time periods. Environmental validity means whether results can be generalized across settings (Ryan et al., 2002). Reliability of quantitative research means the extent to which the variables are consistent in what they intend to measure (Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). To minimize threats of reliability, the quantitative method, pretest has been

made to make sure whether the questions are in proper order, all alternatives are provided, and the questionnaire of the experiment is easy to understand, and its length is appropriate (Fink & Kosecoff, 1985). Objectivity is claimed as an advantage of quantitative research design, including more objective data and allowing more objective analysis (Jayaratne, 1993). All these four pillars were taken into account in the following quantitative research.

3.3.1. Research hypotheses and the proposed research model

According to the extent literature review, the qualitative analysis, and the research questions, the following hypotheses were formulated. All the hypotheses are discussed along with the research question that it belongs.

The first hypothesis is related to the first research question (*What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?*). Based on Mahmud et al. (2012), exposure to media can help to empower women in several different dimensions. Social movements for diversity, equity, and inclusion, such as #Metoo and #Blacklivesmatters, are a matter of feminism, which inspired advertising and the development of femvertising (Varghese & Kumar, 2020a). Femvertising has the potential to increase women's empowerment (Champlin et al., 2019). Previous literature proved in many cases that femvertising types of advertisements are considered more empowering than traditional advertisements (Åkestam et al., 2017; Drake, 2017; Kordostami & Kordostami, 2020; Teng et al., 2020; Varghese & Kumar, 2020a; Vadakkepatt et al., 2022).

In the light of the above factors, the following hypothesis has been formulated:

H₁: Femvertising has a more positive effect on perceived women empowerment than traditional advertisement.

The second, third, and fourth hypothesis is made in connection to the second research question (*What are the brand-related effects of femvertising?*), focusing on the *attitude towards the advertisement, the brand, and purchase intention*.

The information delivered through advertising can influence consumer behavior directly or indirectly (Bauer, Berács, & Kenesei, 2007). In line with the previously discussed potential empowering effects of femvertising, it is not surprising that consumers perceive messages on

women's empowerment positively (Elhajjar 2021; Teng et al., 2020). This is might be owing to the positive emotions evoked by femvertising (Drake, 2017), and it may develop a favorable attitude towards advertising (Åkestam et al., 2017). Besides, a positive attitude about a specific message or commercial can influence the consumer's forwarding behavior, for instance, purchase intention (Eckler & Bolls, 2011). A vast number of articles (see for instance: Spears & Singh, 2004; Mitchell & Olson, 1981) found that the attitude towards the advertising has a significant effect on the attitude towards the brand and purchase intention. Regarding advertising and brand attitudes, as discussed previously, femvertising messages induce a more favorable perception towards these attitudes than those using traditional stereotypes (Åkestam et al. 2017; Åkestam, 2018; Drake, 2017; Elhajjar, 2021; Teng et al., 2020). Åkestam et al. (2017) also argue, that compared to traditional advertising, femvertising generates lower levels of advertising reactance, therefore it leads to better advertising attitudes among the female target audience, which can lead to a positive impact on the brand as well, building an emotional connection to the brands (Drake, 2017). Behavioral intention, including purchase intention, rather than being regarded as a part of the attitude, according to Fishbein (1966), should be considered an independent phenomenon. It's also worth noting that determining whether or not an attitude and a specific sort of behavioral aim are associated is difficult, but the current study aims to investigate these relationships. Regarding purchase intention, Kapoor and Munjal (2017) have concluded that femvertising does not lead to a higher purchase intention. Abitbol and Sternadori (2016) came to the same result: femvertising messages did not make any self-reported purchase intent among women interviewed. In contrast, Drake (2017) found that women empowerment in advertisements has a positive impact on purchase intention in the women target group due to the emotions evoked from these advertisements. Based on the above, the following hypotheses were made:

H2: Perceived women empowerment has a positive effect on the attitude towards the advertisement.

H3: Positive attitude towards the advertisement has a positive effect on the attitude towards the brand.

H4: Positive attitude towards the brand has a positive effect on purchase intent.

The fifth hypothesis is also related to the second research question (*What are the brand-related effects of femvertising?*), as it focuses on the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement by investigating the moderating role

of gender role equality attitude on this relationship, whether it strengthens or weakens this relationship. A body of research (e.g. Zawisza et al. 2006) has shown that gender role identity and attitudes have a significant effect on consumer responses, with persons with stronger non-traditional gender attitudes being more receptive towards non-traditional gender depictions in advertisements. Teng et al. (2020) also stated that people's reactions to femvertising will differ depending on their gender-related attitudes. Gender stereotypes, as seen in the literature review, are mainly defined by role behaviors, occupations (Ashmore & Del Boca, 1981; Eagly & Steffen, 1984), and role-bound activities (Diekmann & Eagly, 2000). On one hand, based on other authors, stereotypes also include sex-related traits, including different types of characteristics (Deaux & Lewis, 1984; Browne, 1998). On the other hand, according to Biernat (2003), a comparison of men's and women's occupational positions might provide light on societal preconceptions. Men are often represented as breadwinners, while women are typically shown as a housewife. Men, who typically hold higher-status positions, are disproportionately represented in roles that call for agentic traits like self-assurance and assertiveness, while women, who typically hold lower-status positions, are disproportionately represented in roles that call for communal traits like kindness and concern for others. Therefore, these various representations are linked to the characteristics of the social roles and the individuals who fill them, leading people to get the conclusion that women are kind and caring while males are self-reliant and in control (Kite, Deaux & Haines, 2007). Thus, in the current study, the attitude towards gender stereotypes is solely represented by the attitude towards gender role equality.

Consumers are aware of the negative effects of using gender stereotypes in advertising and consider this when evaluating advertisements (Åkestam, 2018). Advertisements with gender stereotypes are seen less favorably by female consumers than advertisements without stereotypes (Åkestam et al., 2017; Eisend et al., 2014). As femvertising tries to avoid gender stereotypes, it creates a more favorable perception of the advertisement than those that use traditional stereotypes (Åkestam et al. 2017; Åkestam 2018; Drake 2017; Elhajjar 2021) as it conveys empowering ideas and encourage women to take charge of their lives with confidence (Teng et al., 2020).

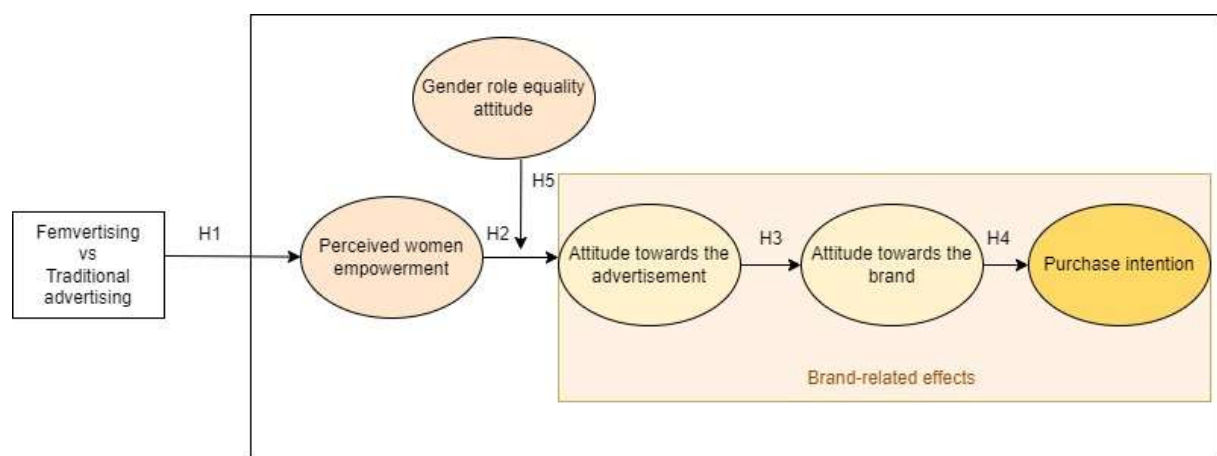
Taking into account the above, the attitude towards gender role equality will most likely influence the relationship between perceived gender stereotypes and the attitude towards the advertisement:

H5: Gender role equality positively moderates the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement.

In other words, the positive attitude towards gender role equality positively moderates the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement, such as the positive attitude towards gender role equality strengthens the positive influence of perceived women empowerment on the attitude towards the advertisement.

Related to the literature review, the research questions, and the hypotheses, the following model is proposed (see: Figure 6). The relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement and purchase intention, among other variables as well (such as CSR), has been investigated by Teng et al. (2020), while Abitbol & Sternadori (2019) focused on the attitude towards femvertising and purchase intention. For the brand-related effects (named like this by Åkestam et al., 2021), including attitude towards the advertisement and brand, purchase intention, the models of Spears & Singh (2004), Mitchell & Olson (1981), Kordostami & Kordostami (2020) and Åkestam et al. (2017) were taken into account, although perceived women empowerment was not present in their models. Based on the combination of specific details of these diverse models, the current model includes perceived women empowerment as an exogenous variable, while brand-related effects of the advertising (femvertising or traditional), and gender role equality attitude are the endogenous variables. Gender role equality attitude is investigated in the new context of femvertising, focusing on its moderating role between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement.

Figure 6. Proposed model



Source: own edition

3.3.2. Manipulation check

Before carrying out the experiment, a manipulation check has made based on Teng et al. (2020) and Åkestam et al. (2017).

The stimulus used by previous studies has been different in many cases: (1) mostly videos, comparing advertisements from the same brand (Teng et al., 2020; Drake, 2017) or different brands from the same industry (Åkestam et al., 2017; Varghese & Kumar, 2020a; Vadakkepatt et al., 2022); or (2) magazine advertisements (Åkestam et al., 2017; Kordostami & Kordostami, 2020; Åkestam et al., 2021). The current study aimed to compare two real video advertisements from the same brand. Using real video advertisements from existing brands was important as previous research indicated that real commercials improve external validity (Feiereisen et al., 2009).

The aim of testing the stimuli from the same brand was to prove the validity of the underlying assumption that the given femvertising type of advertisement is perceived as more empowering than the advertising using traditional stereotypes. In total 4 stimuli have been tested, including two pairs from two brands, Activia and Pantene. As seen before, based on Osváth (2012), Activia yogurt commercials usually feature actual women who have a family, go shopping, and do housework, but struggle with their weight. Activia sells them a new style, a program, a way of life in which their bodies and lives have been cleaned up, they go jogging, eat regularly, they are organized, and they have time for themselves and, of course, their families. Thus, two Activia advertisements with the same mindset are chosen, one which gives empowering and inspiring ideas for women to realize themselves, and another one, which uses more traditional stereotypes. Pantene is selected as the other brand, as it is frequently researched in previous studies, in many cases comparing its femvertising advertisement with its traditional advertisement (eg., Åkestam et al., 2017; Teng et al., 2020).

As Activia femvertising in the current study, Activia #InSync portrait (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2acPfYPsTGY>) (2016, 1:41) was chosen with Ildikó, Czigány, the first Hungarian women pilot (see: Figure 7). She makes an empowering short talk about finding herself along with her different passions (including music, flying, literature, sports, and animals) and her ambitious goal of becoming the first woman pilot in Hungary, although at that time it seemed not possible. As Activia advertising using traditional stereotypes, Activia #Fitt Basket (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R8Pd7b-lNHM>) (2015, 0:26) was selected (see: Figure 8). This advertisement shows a woman running, then taking care of her children, who are eating in the kitchen while she declares that she has now more

time for herself and her family. She is also shown in a supermarket buying yogurts, and the recommendation of the Hungarian National Association of Dietitians of eating one yogurt every day can be heard. Both Activia advertisements were with Hungarian voice-over.



Figure 7. Activia femvertising #InSync portrait with Ildikó, Czigány

Source: YouTube| Activia



Figure 8. Activia traditional advertisement #Fitt Basket

Source: YouTube| Activia

For Pantene, femvertising was represented by Pantene #Labels Against Women (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U1yhLu6z0qc&feature=emb_imp_woyt) (2013, 1:00) (also used in other studies, see for instance Åkestam et al., 2017). The advertisement shows gender bias, by comparing men and women exhibiting the same behaviors but labeled differently (such as persuasive vs pushy, boss vs bossy). The traditional advertisement from

Pantene has been Pantene # Milky Damage Repair with Camila Queiroz (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_VfuN6RevKY&feature=emb_imp_woyt) (2017, 0:30), showing the beautiful and elegant Camila with nicely done hair, makeup among aerial white silks. Both Pantene advertisements were shown with English voice-over, but with Hungarian subtitles.

One out of the 4 advertisements was randomly assigned to participants in an online questionnaire built in Qualtrics software, which they had to evaluate based on their perceived women empowerment on a Likert-scale scale (1 = not at all; 7= very much) used by Teng et al. (2020). The original scale consisted of three items, however, the third item referring to product functionality has been eliminated due to its irrelevance to the current study. The remaining two items were the following: “What extent this ad is empowering” (statement also used by: Drake, 2017) and “What extent the women in the ad are powerful”. The text of the manipulation test can be seen in Annex2.

Mean (M), standard deviation (SD), P value (independent sample t-test), reliability, and validity of the measurement scale have been analyzed. In total 75 valid responses were collected. The criteria to participate in the study were related to gender (only females), age (more than 18 years old), and nationality (Hungarians). The average age has been 28,8 years, and 18-19 participants viewed each advertising type. Results show that for both Activia and Pantene, the femvertising type of advertisement was evaluated as more empowering. For Activia, the femvertising advertisement (Cronbach’s alpha = 0,858) was perceived as significantly more empowering than the traditional advertisement (Cronbach’s alpha=0,879) ($M_{\text{femvertising}} = 5.94$; $M_{\text{traditional}} = 4.11$); 2 items, measured on seven-point Likert scales, $P \text{ value} < 0,001$). For Pantene, the femvertising advertisement (Cronbach’s alpha= 0,613) was also perceived significantly more empowering than the traditional advertising (Cronbach’s alpha= 0,734) ($M_{\text{femvertising}} = 5.03$; $M_{\text{traditional}} = 3.82$), 2 items, measured on seven-point Likert scales, $P \text{ value} = 0,007$). The results can be seen in Table 14.

Table 14. M and SD by the four types of advertisements of the manipulation check

N=	19		19		18		19	
	Activia - femvertising		Activia traditional advertising		Pantene - femvertising		Pantene – traditional advertising	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Perceived women empowerment	5,94	1,2	4,11	1,61	5,03	1,28	3,82	1,29

Source: own edition

Based on the results, the experiment would be carried out with the advertisements of Activia (femvertising and traditional), as the Activia femvertising advertisement is perceived as more empowering than Pantene femvertising advertisement. Besides, Cronbach's alpha values are also higher for the Activia advertisements.

3.3.3. Research instruments

In this section, the specific scales, which would be applied for measuring the constructs and their relationships with the indicators, are discussed.

Among the commonly used scaling techniques, the semantic differential scale is said to be pan-cultural as it was already tested in a vast number of cultures, and in general, it produces similar results worldwide (Malhotra et al., 1996). On the other hand, Yu et al. (1993) argue that Likert and other semantic differential scales which are used for attitude measures might be culture-specific. In addition, Malhotra et al. (1996) point out that in the case of using a Likert-type scale or a semantic differential scale, international marketing researchers need to test the significance and appropriateness of anchors, whether respondents understand the same on for instance “agree/disagree”. In the current survey 7-point Likert scales and one 7-point semantic differential scale would be used, taking into account the above characteristics of these scales for Hungary when analyzing the results and comparing them with other international studies.

From the previously described scales in the literature review, the ones chosen for the current study were selected based on relevance and suggestions from previous studies. The scales were adapted to the current study.

To measure perceived women empowerment, Teng et al.'s (2020) 7-point scale including 3 items would be used by adding one more item from the same study's pre-test, namely: "This ad is empowering". This amplification of scale is done to get richer data for this variable.

The attitude towards advertising is investigated by the adapted version of the Emotional Quotient (EQ) Scale of Wells' (1964) with 5 items. The original scale was modified and used by Abitbol & Sternadori (2019), Sternadori & Abitbol (2019), Kapoor & Munjal (2017), and further adapted to the current study, also by modifying it to a 7-point scale and reducing the number of items based on relevance to the current study by eliminating general statements not related to the advertisement seen.

The attitude towards the brand is measured by the three-item long semantic differential scale of Mitchell & Olson's (1981), which has been modified by Dahlén et al. (2008), and also used by Åkestam et al. (2017), Åkestam (2018) and Åkestam et al. (2021).

Purchase intent will be measured by Teng et al.'s (2020) (originally 9-point) Likert scale with 3 items.

For measuring gender role equality attitudes, the modified Gender Role Attitudes Scale (GRAS) of García-Cueto et al. (2015) would be used. The new scale by Jinah (2022) includes 10 items, which were further adapted to the current study. For the adaptation, first, the content of the scale items was taken into consideration, reducing the statements for those related to social function transcendent, family function sexism, and employment function sexism. Secondly, factor loadings of the original study of García-Cueto et al. (2015) and the results of the pre-test of the current study were also considered, and only scale items with factor weights higher than 0,6 were included in the study, which resulted in five items.

As most of the scales had a 7-point Likert scale, Wells' (1964) scale related to attitude towards advertising, Teng et al.'s 9-point scale (2020) of purchase intention, and García-Cueto et al.'s (2015) 5-point Likert scale have been also modified to 7 points. The summary of the used scales can be seen in Table 15.

Table 15. Measurement scales for the quantitative primary research

Model components	Operational definitions	Source	Scale
Perceived women empowerment	1. This ad is empowering (PWE1) 2. The women in the ad are powerful. (PWE2) 3. The women in the ad are independent. (PWE3) 4. The women in the ad have more control. (PWE4)	Teng et al. (2020)	7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)
Attitude towards the advertising	1. This ad is very appealing to me (ATA1) 2. I dislike this ad” (reverse) (ATA2) 3. I would probably skip this ad if I saw it again on TV or online (reverse) (ATA3) 4. This ad makes me feel good (ATA4) 5. This ad has little interest for me (reverse) (ATA5)	Adapted Emotional Quotient (EQ) Scale of Wells (1964) - scale also used by Abitbol & Sternadori (2019), Sternadori & Abitbol (2019), Kapoor & Munjal (2017)	7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)
Attitude towards the brand	What is your opinion on the brand? bad/good (ATB1) dislike/like (ATB2) negative opinion/positive opinion (ATB3)	Mitchell & Olson’s (1981) scale modified by Dahlén et al. (2008), also used Åkestam et al. (2017), Åkestam (2018), Åkestam et al. (2021)	7-point semantic differential scales
Purchase intention	1. I will choose this product over other similar products (PI1) 2. I am interested in this product (PI2) 3. I would like to purchase the product. (PI3)	Teng et al. (2020)	7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)
Gender role equality attitude	1. People can be active, considerate and kind to others regardless of sex (GREA1)	Gender Role Attitudes Scale (GRAS) by García-Cueto et al. (2015),	7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	2. People should be treated equally regardless of sex (GREA2) 3. Both men and women can demonstrate their abilities regardless of the type or content of work (GREA3) 4. Both men and women can hold responsible positions (GREA4) 5. Mothers and fathers should be equally involved in raising children (GREA5)	modified by Jinah (2022) and adapted to the current study	
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Source: own edition

3.3.4. Experiment – research design

Femvertising and its effects have been researched by different types of quantitative research designs in the international literature. Surveys and experiments have been the most used tools to investigate this phenomenon. Surveys have been applied by for instance Abitbol & Sternadori (2019), Sternadori & Abitbol (2019), Kapoor & Munjal (2019), Abitbol & Sternadori (2020), and Elhajjar (2021). Experiments were made by Drake (2017), Åkestam et al. (2017), Teng et al. (2020), Bue and Harris (2020); Varghese & Kumar (2020a), and Kordostami & Kordostami (2020).

An experiment influences the value of one or more independent variables and measures its effect on the dependent variable or variables while controlling for the effect of control variables (Malhotra & Simon, 2009). The current study uses a between-subjects (between-groups) experiment, in which every participant experiences only one condition (advertisement), and group differences between participants were measured (Charness, Gneezy & Kuhn, 2012). The effects of two stimuli were measured: an actual femvertising for a real brand (Activia) with the same brand's traditional advertisement, serving as a control ad. Subjects of the experiment have been randomly exposed to one of the advertisements. The experiment has been done in an online survey form in Qualtrics. A survey is a structured questionnaire to which a sample of the population responds. Its purpose is to obtain some information from the respondents. Survey has been used in the current study due to its advantages, namely, the questionnaire is simple to apply, and the data collected is reliable because responses are limited

to predefined alternatives. Besides, the pre-recorded answers reduce the variety of responses that different interviewers give. The coding, the analysis, and the interpretation of the data are relatively straightforward (Malhotra & Simon, 2009).

The independent variable in the experiment, whose value is altered and whose effects are assessed and compared, is perceived women empowerment in the current research. While the dependent variables, which measure the effect of independent variables on test subjects (Malhotra & Simon, 2009) are attitude towards the advertisement, attitude towards the brand, and purchase intention.

One moderating variable is also included in the research. Based on the hypothesized relationship, attitude towards gender role equality positively influences the relationship between the independent variable (perceived women empowerment) and one of the dependent variables, attitude towards advertising.

Product consumption frequency of the product featured in the advertisement, namely yogurt is also measured in the experiment. As dairy products, and therefore yogurt is a specific category, whose consumption might be related to lactose intolerance and other issues, controlling this variable is essential in the current experiment. The measurement of the control variable has been done based on Kaplan et al. (2007) by asking the subject to “Please indicate, how often do you eat a yogurt? Daily/almost daily/sometimes/rarely/never”.

The survey of the experiment in Qualtrics starts with asking for basic demographic information, functioning also as a screening questionnaire, then subjects are randomly exposed to one of the advertisements (femvertising vs traditional advertising). After watching the dedicated advertisement, they are asked to indicate their yogurt consumption frequency and evaluate the advertisement based on different aspects. To start with, they are asked to rate the advertisement’s perceived women empowering power, then indicate their attitude towards the advertisement, and brand, rate their purchase intention, and finally, their gender role equality attitude is measured. The text of the survey can be found in Annex 3. The text was translated from English to Hungarian, and then back-translated to English and checked by two professional English teachers.

3.3.5. Quantitative sample and data collection

For the quantitative sample, a non-probability sampling strategy, with the combination of purposive and snowball sampling has been applied the same way as for the qualitative Study2.

Additionally, the same requirements were set as in Study 2 for inclusion in the sample, meaning gender (women), age (25-41), and nationality (Hungarian). Due to their sensitivity to femvertising and societal issues in general (Drake, 2017; Sterbenk et al, 2021), as well as their attractiveness to companies (Champlin et al., 2019), women from the Y generation (Millennials) have stayed at the center of the quantitative research as well.

Potential participants for the experiment were recruited in two different ways: (1) First, social media platforms were used, such as Facebook, Instagram, and Whatsapp in Hungary, offering a direct link to the survey of the experiment; (2) Second, to make the sample more diverse, participants have been also invited through Prolific (<https://www.prolific.co/>) service provider, where participants were paid to answer the questions. The questionnaire of the experiment started with basic demographic questions as a form of screening, where the requirements should be met to be able to fill out the whole questionnaire. The questionnaire was open between the 22 and 30 of August.

3.3.6. Analytical method: CB-SEM

In the recent research on femvertising, more and more studies use Structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze their research data from their survey (see for instance: Kapoor & Munjal (2019); Elhajjar (2021)). Although it is not very common to analyze the results of experiments with structural equation modeling, the current studies follow the work of DeWitt, Nguyen & Marshall (2008) by doing it so.

With the help of structural equation modeling simply by turning theoretical and derived concepts into unobservable (latent) variables and empirical concepts into indicators, which are linked by a set of hypotheses, it is feasible to develop a research model that embodies a particular theory. This model can then be graphically depicted by a path diagram, and the theoretical and measurement equations can also be set up (Diamantopoulos, 1994). The theoretical equations are also referred to as the structural model (also called the inner model), while the measurement equations form the measurement model (also called the outer model)—the term structural equation model encompasses both of these two models (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Hair et al., 2016). When SEM is used, the path model visually displays the hypothesis and variable relationships that are investigated (Hair et al., 2011). In the path model, constructs, the variables that are not directly measured are shown in circles/ovals, whereas the directly

measured proxy variables, the indicators (manifest variables) are represented in rectangles. Relationships between constructs, as well as between constructs and their assigned indicators, are depicted as single-headed arrows (Hair et al., 2016).

Structural equation modeling (SEM) permits the simultaneous modeling of links among many independent and dependent constructs, as opposed to regression-based techniques, which evaluate only one layer of linkages between independent and dependent variables at the same time (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000). SEM also allows researchers to include unobservable variables that are measured indirectly by indicator variables. Besides, it makes it easier to account for measurement errors in observed variables (Chin, 1998).

In SEM, exogenous and endogenous latent variables are distinguished instead of the dependent and independent variables. Exogenous variables are not explained by the proposed model and hence operate as independent variables all of the time. Endogenous variables are explained by the model's relationships (Diamantopoulos, 1994). In general, indicators (manifest variables) are classified into two types: (a) reflective indicators that are dependent on the construct and (b) formative indicators (also known as cause measures) that cause the formation of or changes in an unobservable variable (Bollen & Lennox, 1991).

There are two techniques for estimating the parameters of an SEM: the covariance-based method (CB-SEM) and the variance-based (or components-based) method (PLS-SEM). The CB-SEM method is mostly applied to confirm or reject theories, and it can be performed using a variety of tools, including EQS, AMOS, SEPATH, COSAN, as well as the LISREL program (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). In contrast, the PLS-SEM is used in exploratory research to develop theories and can be performed for instance by using Adanco, SmartPLS program (Hair et al., 2016).

Since the primary goal of the current study is to test theoretically founded relationships, the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) method has been used, which confirms the proposed relationships by minimizing the differences between the observed and estimated covariance matrixes (Hair et al., 2017). The IBM SPSS Amos 27 software was applied to the analysis.

3.3.7. Results of the quantitative research

In the following chapter, the results of the quantitative research would be presented, including sample demographics, program characteristics, the results of the measurement and structural model, moderating and control variables, the research hypothesis, and closing the session with the conclusion of the quantitative research.

3.3.7.1. Sample demographics

The survey has been filled out by 373 respondents, however, only 335 people finished it. Eliminating the not valid responses, which did not meet the criteria (men, aged less than 25 or more than 41 and non-Hungarians), resulting in a total of 286 valid cases. From the sample, 224 respondents were recruited with purposive and snowball sampling, while 62 respondents were gained from the website of Prolific as mentioned before to make the sample more diverse. From the sample, 141 respondents saw the Activia femvertising advertisement (average age: 30,91 years), and 145 women saw the Activia advertisement which uses traditional stereotypes (average age: 30,44 years). Respondents from higher education were overrepresented in the sample. The detailed demographic distribution of the sample can be seen in Table 16.

Table 16. Demographic distribution of the sample

	Activia femvertising		Activia traditional advertising	
Sample size	141		145	
Average age	30,91 years		30,44 years	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Education				
Vocational school	5	4%	2	1%
High school	15	11%	13	9%
Bachelor's degree	47	33%	43	30%
Master's degree	60	43%	72	50%
Post-graduate	7	5%	10	7%
Other	7	5%	5	3%

Source: own edition

The subsamples were made based on which advertisement (femvertising or traditional) did the respondent receive in a randomized way. The independent sample t-test and Levene's test for equality of variances were carried out and it showed that the groups were statistically different ($P < 0,001$) from each other based on the perceived women empowerment (PWE) variable. Femvertising's more positive effect on perceived women empowerment than those of traditional advertisement was accepted as the femvertising advertisement (Cronbach's alpha = 0,858) was perceived as significantly more empowering than the traditional advertisement (Cronbach's alpha=0,854) ($M_{\text{femvertising}} = 6,06$; $M_{\text{traditional}} = 4,13$); 4 items, measured on seven-point Likert scales, $P \text{ value} < 0,001$) (see Table 17).

Table 17. M and SD for femvertising and traditional advertising

N=	141		145	
	Activia - femvertising		Activia traditional advertising	
	M	SD	M	SD
Perceived women empowerment	6,06	1,03	4,13	1,36

Source: own edition

3.3.7.2. Measurement model results

The two different types of advertisement stimuli (femvertising or traditional) ensured that respondents with lower and greater perceptions of women's empowerment were distributed evenly within the sample. However, this distinction between the two types of advertising (femvertising or traditional) has not been indicated as part of the measurement model due to the relatively small sample size of the subsamples (141 for femvertising, 145 for traditional advertising). Thus, in the following section, only one model including aggregate data (286 responses) is measured.

The overall measurement model, including both subsamples indicates a good model fit, as TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) was 0,955 (≥ 0.95) (West et al., 2012), χ^2 (CMIN) /df (Chi Square/Degrees of Freedom) =2,022 (≤ 3.0) had acceptable fit (Kline, 1998), as well as GFI (Goodness of Fit Index) = 0,9 (≥ 0.90) (Hu & Bentler, 1998), while CFI (Comparative Fit Index) = 0,962 (≥ 0.90) showed excellent fit (West et al., 2012) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square of Error Approximation) =0.06 (< 0.08) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) resulted in reasonable model-data fit.

Factor loadings, construct reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs were used to evaluate the measurement model.

Construct reliability evaluation assesses the extent to which a variable or group of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure (Straub, Boudreau, & Gefen, 2004). All items had a high internal consistency of the constructs, as they had acceptable factor loadings ($\lambda > 0.6$) (Hair et al., 2006) and Cronbach alpha ($\alpha > 0.7$) (Cortina, 1993). High construct validity was also proved by Composite Reliability (CR) values ($CR > 0.6$) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Convergent validity is the degree to which different measurements of a construct that should theoretically be connected are related (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau, 2000). Average Variance Extracted is used to test convergent validity (AVE). The AVE measures how much of the variance in the indicators can be explained by the latent unobserved variable. An AVE greater than 0.50 indicates convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) because the relevant latent variable explains more than half of the variance in the belonging indicators. Since the average variance extracted (AVE) measures were more than 0.5 for all constructs, convergent validity was supported. The detailed parameters can be seen in Table 18.

Table 18. Factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, Composite reliability, and AVE values

	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
Perceived women empowerment (PWE)		0,91	0,8	0,7
This ad is empowering. (PWE1)	0,84			
The women in the ad are powerful. (PWE2)	0,90			
The women in the ad are independent. (PWE3)	0,85			
The women in the ad have more control. (PWE4)	0,81			
Attitude towards the ad (ATA)		0,92	0,8	0,7
This ad is very appealing to me. (ATA1)	0,93			
I dislike this ad. (reverse) (ATA2)	0,83			
I would probably skip this ad if I saw it again on TV or online. (reverse) (ATA3)	0,77			
This ad makes me feel good. (ATA4)	0,86			
This ad has little interest for me. (reverse) (ATA5)	0,74			
Attitude towards the brand (ATB)		0,95	0,7	0,9
The brand is bad - good. (ATB1)	0,90			
I dislike - like the brand. (ATB2)	0,97			
I have a negative opinion - a positive opinion of the brand. (ATB3)	0,92			
Purchase intention (PI)		0,92	0,7	0,8
I will choose this product over other similar products. (PI1)	0,82			
I am interested in this product. (PI2)	0,94			
I would like to purchase the product. (PI3)	0,93			
Gender role equality attitude (GREA)		0,79	0,8	0,5
People can be active, considerate and kind to others regardless of sex (GREA1)	0,77			
People should be treated equally regardless of sex (GREA2)	0,63			
Both men and women can demonstrate their abilities regardless of the type or content of work. (GREA3)	0,63			
Both men and women can hold responsible positions. (GREA4)	0,72			
Mothers and fathers should be equally involved in raising children. (GREA5)	0,61			

Source: own edition

Discriminant validity was assessed first by using the Fornell-Lacker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The square root of the extracted average variance (AVE) is compared to the correlation of latent constructs in this technique. A latent construct should better explain its own indicator's variation than the variance of other latent constructs. As a result, the square root of the AVE of each construct should be larger than the correlations with other latent constructs. Since the AVE values were greater than the squared multiple correlations with other constructs, this supported the discriminant validity of the constructs. In Table 19, the correlation coefficients of the constructs can be seen, while the values on the diagonal show the square root of AVEs.

Table 19. Correlation coefficients of the constructs

	PWE	ATA	ATB	PI	GREA
PWE	0,85				
ATA	0,80	0,83			
ATB	0,43	0,53	0,93		
PI	0,29	0,45	0,54	0,90	
GREA	0,14	0,04	0,11	-0,05	0,67

Source: own edition

Secondly, the construct elements displayed larger factor loadings within their own constructs compared to other constructs. The model's constructs, therefore, satisfy the requirement of discriminant validity (see: Table 20).

Table 20. Cross-loadings of construct items

	PI	ATB	GREA	ATA	PWE
PI1	0,124	0,003	-0,001	0,005	-0,002
PI2	0,36	0,008	-0,003	0,014	-0,005
PI3	0,318	0,007	-0,003	0,012	-0,004
ATB1	0,006	0,15	0,002	0,007	0,002
ATB2	0,023	0,537	0,006	0,024	0,005
ATB3	0,008	0,177	0,002	0,008	0,002
GREA1	-0,007	0,005	0,259	-0,011	0,016

GREA2	-0,003	0,002	0,114	-0,005	0,007
GREA3	-0,002	0,001	0,081	-0,003	0,005
GREA4	-0,005	0,003	0,186	-0,008	0,011
GREA5	-0,002	0,002	0,089	-0,004	0,005
ATA1	0,01	0,006	-0,003	0,378	0,052
ATA2	0,004	0,002	-0,001	0,133	0,018
ATA4	0,004	0,003	-0,001	0,168	0,023
ATA3	0,002	0,001	-0,001	0,091	0,012
ATA5	0,002	0,001	-0,001	0,081	0,011
PWE1	-0,002	0,001	0,002	0,026	0,152
PWE2	-0,004	0,001	0,004	0,051	0,29
PWE3	-0,002	0,001	0,003	0,03	0,173
PWE4	-0,002	0,001	0,002	0,024	0,137

Source: own edition

3.3.7.3. Structural model results

The structural model also indicates a good model fit, as TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) was 0,96 (≥ 0.95) (West et al., 2012), χ^2 (CMIN) /df (Chi Square/Degrees of Freedom) = 2,486 (≤ 3.0) had acceptable fit (Kline, 1998), as well as GFI (Goodness of Fit Index) = 0,905 (≥ 0.90) (Hu & Bentler, 1998), while CFI (Comparative Fit Index) = 0,967 (≥ 0.90) resulted in excellent fit (West et al., 2012) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square of Error Approximation) = 0.072 (< 0.08) (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) showed reasonable model-data fit.

The squared multiple correlation (R^2 or the coefficient of determination) also shows how well the data fit the regression model. R^2 can take any value between 0 to 1. The structural path's strength is adequate when $R^2 > 0.1$ (Falk & Miller, 1992). The R^2 was 0,647 for attitude towards advertising, 0,29 for attitude towards the brand, and 0,297 for purchase intention. That means that 65% of the variance in attitude towards advertising is accounted for by perceived women empowerment, 29% of change in attitude towards the brand can be accounted for by attitude towards the advertisement, and 30% of the change in purchase intention can be accounted by attitude towards the brand. It is important to note that R-squared is not a reliable indicator of how well a regression model works. A good model may have a low R-squared value, whereas a model that does not match the data may have a high R-squared number.

The study assessed the impact of perceived women empowerment on attitude towards the advertisement, the impact of attitude towards advertising on the attitude towards the brand, and the impact of attitude towards the brand on purchase intention. Based on the results, the impact of perceived women empowerment (PWE) on attitude towards the advertisement (ATA) was positive and significant ($\beta = 0,804$, $t=14,22$, $p < 0,001$). The impact of attitude towards the advertisement on the attitude towards the brand (ATB) was also positive and significant ($\beta = 0,538$, $t=9,53$, $p < 0,001$). Finally, the impact of attitude towards the brand on purchase intention (PI) resulted to be positive and significant ($\beta = 0,545$, $t=9,19$, $p < 0,001$) as well. The results are summarized in Table 21.

Table 21. Hypothesized relationships, standardized estimates, t- and p-values

Hypothesized relationship	Standardized estimates (β)	t-value	p-value
H2: PWE \rightarrow ATA	0,804	14,22	0,001
H3: ATA \rightarrow ATB	0,538	9,53	0,001
H4: ATB \rightarrow PI	0,545	9,19	0,001
R-Square			
ATA	0,647		
ATB	0,29		
PI	0,297		

source: own edition

3.3.7.4. Moderating variable results

The effect of gender role equality attitude (GREA) as a moderating variable (Mo) for the relationship between perceived women empowerment (PWE, independent variable, X) and attitude towards the advertisement (ATA, dependent variable, Y) has been investigated.

First, in SPSS the mean of each variable has been calculated. Then the interaction variable has been created by multiplying the values of perceived women empowerment with the values of

attitude towards the advertisement. Finally, all the values have been standardized. Then the moderation analysis was performed in AMOS.

The results show that the interaction effect of the perceived women empowerment variable on attitude towards advertising is significant ($p\text{-value}=0,001 < 0,05$) and positive ($\beta=0,721$), as well as the interaction effect of the interaction variable on the attitude towards the advertisement is significant ($p\text{-value}=0,005 < 0,05$) and positive (0,123). On the other hand, the interaction effect of gender role equality attitude (Mo) on attitude towards the advertisement (independent variable) is not significant ($p\text{-value}=0,948 > 0,005$). However, if the interaction effect of the independent and the interaction variable is having a significant impact on the dependent variable, there is a moderation effect (Memon et al., 2019). Therefore we can state that gender role quality attitude positively and significantly moderates and strengthens the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the attitude. Thus H_5 can be accepted. See Table 22 for detailed data.

Table 22. Regression weights – summary of moderation analysis

Relationship	Standardized estimates (β)	t-value	p-value	Significant / not significant
PWE \rightarrow ATA	0,721	17,69	0,001	significant
PWE*GREAA \rightarrow ATA	0,123	2,82	0,005	significant
GREAA \rightarrow ATA	0,003	0,07	0,948	not significant

source: own edition

3.3.7.5. Control variable results

The role of product consumption frequency (PCF), as a control variable, has been investigated in the model in AMOS software. The results of the regression weights (see: Table 23) show p values lower than 0,05 for the relationship between product frequency and attitude toward the advertisement ($p=0,049$), attitude towards the brand ($p=0,003$) and purchase intention ($p=0,011$). Thus, product consumption frequency confounds the relationships specified in the model. However, the original regression weights between perceived women empowerment and

attitude towards the advertisement (PWM->ATA), attitude towards the brand (ATA->ATB) and purchase intention (ATB->PI) remain significant ($p < 0,001$). Besides, the model's original standardized regression weights only slightly change due to the effect of product consumption frequency. The details of the comparison can be seen in Table 24.

Table 23. Regression weights including a control variable

Relationship	Estimates	t-value	p-value	Significant / not significant
PCF → ATA	0,162	1,96	0,049	significant
PCF → ATB	0,236	3,01	0,003	significant
PCF → PI	0,225	2,56	0,011	significant

source: own edition

Table 24. Hypotheses, standardized estimates, t- and p-values, and decision – original model and model including a control variable

Hypothesized relationship	Original model			Model including a control variable		
	Standardized estimates (β)	t-value	p-value	Standardized estimates	t-value	p-value
PWE → ATA	0,804	14,22	0,001	0,793	14,08	0,001
ATA → ATB	0,538	9,53	0,001	0,54	9,65	0,001
ATB → PI	0,545	9,19	0,001	0,509	8,62	0,001

source: own edition

3.3.8. Research hypothesis results

The hypothesis is discussed in this section related to the research question that it belongs.

The first research question (*What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?*) included one hypothesis to investigate the relationship between femvertising and perceived women empowerment by comparing the effect with traditional advertising:

H1: Femvertising has a more positive effect on perceived women empowerment than traditional advertisement.

Champlin et al., (2019) proved that femvertising may empower women. Previous studies (Åkestam et al., 2017; Drake, 2017; Kordostami & Kordostami; 2020; Teng et al., 2020; Varghese & Kumar, 2020a; Vadakkepatt et al., 2022) found that femvertising type of advertisements is considered more empowering than traditional advertisements. This finding is in line with the essence and definition of female empowerment advertising, which aims to convey empowering ideas and encourage women to take charge of their lives (Teng et al., 2020), thus empowering women and girls (Skey, 2015). The results of the current experiment proved the same results as those of the international literature, as this study also confirmed that **femvertising has a more positive effect on perceived women empowerment than traditional advertisement**, thus **H1 is accepted**.

The second research question (*What are the brand-related - attitude towards the advertising, brand, and purchase intention - effects of femvertising?*) is connected to the following four hypotheses:

H2: Perceived women empowerment has a positive effect on the attitude towards the advertisement.

H3: Positive attitude towards the advertisement has a positive effect on the attitude towards the brand.

H4: Positive attitude towards the brand has a positive effect on purchase intent.

H5: Gender role equality positively moderates the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement.

Previous research indicated that when consumers view messages on women's empowerment positively (Elhajjar 2021; Teng et al., 2020), which might be owing to the emotions elicited by femvertising (Drake, 2017), it creates a favorable attitude toward advertising (Åkestam et al., 2017). The current research proved that indeed **perceived women empowerment has a strong, positive significant effect on attitude towards the brand** ($\beta=0,804$, $p<0,001$). **Therefore H2 can be accepted.**

Literature related states that the attitude towards the advertising has a significant effect on the attitude towards the brand (Spears & Singh, 2004; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Femvertising is seen more favorably than advertising using traditional stereotypes, and the positive attitude towards the advertisement might lead to a positive impact on the brand as well, building an emotional connection to it (Drake, 2017). The results of the current research indicate the same connection that the **positive attitude towards the advertisement has a positive effect on the attitude towards the brand**, thus **confirming H3**.

The relation between attitude towards the brand and purchase intent is also a widely researched area. Eckler & Bolls (2011) confirmed that a positive attitude about a specific message or commercial can influence the consumer's forwarding behavior, thus purchase intention as well. Spears & Singh (2004), and Mitchell & Olson (1981) also found that the attitude towards the advertising has a significant effect on the attitude towards the brand and purchase intention. Although in the literature related to femvertising, findings are two folded regarding the effect of femvertising on purchase intention, and its effect is doubted by Kapoor and Munjal (2017) and Abitbol and Sternadori (2016), the results of the current research are in line with the findings of Drake (2017), proving that **positive attitude towards the brand has a positive effect on purchase intent**. Thus **H4 can be accepted** as well.

It has been proven by previous literature (see for instance: Zawisza et al., 2006) that gender role identification and attitudes have a substantial impact on consumer responses, with those who hold more non-traditional gender views being more open to non-traditional gender portrayals in commercials. Customers take into account the detrimental consequences of gender stereotypes in advertising when evaluating the commercials (Åkestam, 2018), thus it is not surprising to see that female consumers are less likely to favor commercials that have gender stereotypes than those that avoid them (Åkestam et al., 2017; Eisend et al., 2014). Femvertising, which tries to avoid gender stereotypes, creates a more positive perception of the advertisement than those that use traditional stereotypes (Åkestam et al., 2017; Åkestam, 2018; Drake, Elhajjar, 2021). Based on the outcomes of the current research, in line with previous literature, **gender role equality positively moderates the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement**. Therefore, **H5 can be accepted** as well.

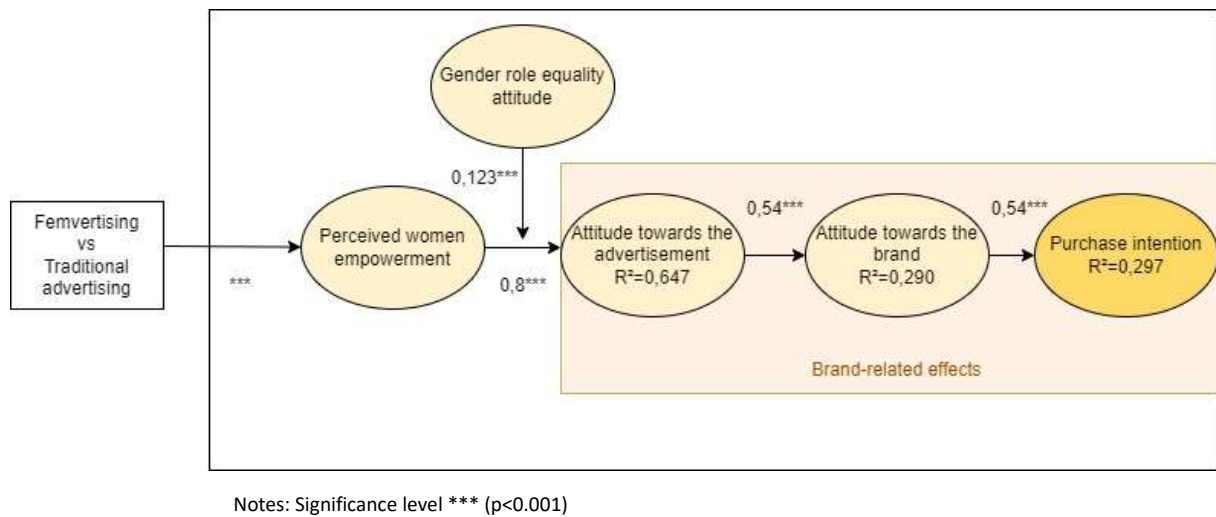
The summary of the research hypothesis can be seen in Table 25, while the significant paths can be seen in Figure 9.

Table 25. Summary of research hypotheses results

Hypothesized relationship	Decision
H1: Femvertising → Perceived women empowerment	accepted
H2: Perceived women empowerment → Attitude towards the advertisement	accepted
H3: Attitude towards the advertisement → Attitude towards the brand	accepted
H4: Attitude towards the brand → Purchase intention	accepted
H5: Gender role equality attitude moderating: Perceived women empowerment - Attitude towards the advertisement	accepted

source: own edition

Figure 9. Significant paths and R²



Source: own edition

3.3.9. Conclusion of the quantitative research

The quantitative research provided useful insights of the examined constructs and their relationships.

First, perceived women empowerment has been examined by the effects of two different advertisements from the same brand (Activia), the empowering femvertising, and an advertisement that portrays women in more traditional roles. Perceived women empowerment in advertising as a construct has not been researched in many cases in the international literature,

therefore it also lacks different available scales for its measurement. Usually, this construct was used only in the pre-test of advertisements, measured by one-item scales (see for instance Drake, 2017 or Teng et al. 2020). The first available 3-item long measurement scale is used by Teng et al. (2020), which was combined with one more item taken from the pre-test of the same study to the current study. This scale resulted to be reliable and valid, meeting all the requirements of the application of Structural Equation Modeling in Amos software. Moreover, it proved that **femvertising has a more positive effect on perceived women empowerment than traditional advertisement**, although the same brand has been used. This finding is less surprising since femvertising's fundamental goal is to empower women (Skey, 2015, Becker-Herby, 2016; Varghese & Kumar, 2020a; Teng et al., 2020). However, as will be seen in the next section, this perceived higher empowering effect generates additional impacts that can already be associated with brand-related goals.

Second, among the brand-related effects of femvertising it has been proved that **perceived women empowerment has a positive and strong impact on the attitude towards the advertisement**. This relationship resulted to be the strongest effect measured in this experiment. Thus, if an advertisement is seen as highly empowering and perceived positively, it may further affect the attitude towards the advertisement itself. The construct of attitude towards the advertisement has been measured by the scale of Wells' (1964), called the Emotional Quotient (EQ) scale, which has been adapted to the current study by taking into account the work of previous research related to femvertising (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019; Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019; Kapoor & Munjal, 2017). The usage of this scale generated that the construct of attitude towards the advertisement was reliable and valid.

The current experiment has also proved the **positive impact of the attitude toward the advertisement on the attitude towards the brand**, as well as the **positive impact of the attitude toward the brand on purchase intention**. These relationships are highly researched in brand-related literature and have been investigated by a vast number of researchers (see for instance: Spears & Singh, 2004; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). However, it is important to measure these constructs related to femvertising, as apart from only empowering women, femvertising may trigger an overall growth in sales of the brand it presents, being a beneficial advertising technique for the companies as well (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016). From the company's perspective, the basic purpose of advertising is to induce a change in attitude, as a result of which the consumer forms a more favorable opinion about the products or the given brand (Bauer, 1996).

The current research investigated the role of gender role equality attitude. This construct has been measured by the scale of Gender Role Attitudes Scale (GRAS) of García-Cueto et al. (2015), updated by Jinah (2022). The scale has been further adapted and reduced to the current study, by eliminating those items that performed not very well and had low factor weights and AVE values. Although the new scale used in the current research is a reduced one, the final version performed well, resulting in a valid and reliable construct. Thus, the current study was able to prove that **gender role equality attitude has a moderating role between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement**. This relationship was also suggested by the results of the qualitative research, where those women who identify more with the feminist value system tend to have a negative opinion about the portrayal of traditional gender roles. This is an important finding, as it had not been researched before in the literature related to femvertising. This relation has been proved in a sample of the target group of women from the Y generation, who are very much sensitive to gender equality and societal issues in general (Drake, 2017; Sterbenk et al, 2021). This generation is extremely important in the research related to femvertising, as they serve as an attractive target group for companies (Champlin et al., 2019), therefore the findings provide important insights for marketing managers as well, which are detailed in the next chapter.

It is always essential to measure the potential control variables, which may alter the effects of the constructs. In the current research, as the product category has been yogurt, which might not be consumed by many, the control variable of production frequency has been added to the research. It has shown a significant effect on the variables, but only changed the strength of the existing relationships in a minimum way.

4. SUMMARY

This section summarizes the empirical research findings concerning the research questions, the theoretical and practical contributions, and limitations and future research directions of the dissertation, including the two qualitative studies and the quantitative study.

4.1. Summary of the results

Among the results of the dissertation, the extensive literature review and the empirical research including qualitative and quantitative studies should be emphasized. The results of the empirical research are presented by the main research questions.

The dissertation provides a profound literature review based on the most cited publications from the Scopus database in different disciplines, related to women empowerment, gender equality, and stereotypes with special attention to femvertising and its perceived empowering and brand-related effects. The most important concepts are synthetically collected, interpreted, and linked in the dissertation, which is facilitated by the presentation of various summary tables.

The current study starts with an overview of the development of femvertising, discussing its “route” to its popularity. To understand the phenomenon of femvertising, women empowerment is discussed in detail. The connection between women's empowerment and femvertising literature is deepened in the dissertation, which offers new insights into the notion of femvertising. Besides, the existence of gender stereotypes in general and in advertising as well are highlighted, and a comparison is made of the different periods of feminism and gender stereotypes in advertising. This comparison is made with a specific focus on femvertising, shedding light on its evolution. The numerous definitions that have appeared since the emergence of femvertising are also described, as well as a synthesized analysis of the varied effects of femvertising. These effects are classified into two groups: (1) the perceived women empowering effects of femvertising, and (2) the brand-related effects of femvertising, including the attitude towards the advertisement, the brand, and purchase intention.

The goal of the qualitative and quantitative studies was to give a clear picture of the differing effects of femvertising on women. Furthermore, it aimed to make the relationship between the various concepts more understandable. This way the effects of femvertising on perceived women empowerment, as well as on brand-related goals such as attitudes towards advertising, brand, purchase intention, and gender role equality are investigated, to contribute to the expansion of international and Hungarian literature. The research was made not only in Hungary by the investigation of femvertising type of advertisements, but a comparison with traditional advertisements, different types of femvertising are also included, in a cross-cultural setting, comparing Hungary with Mexico and Iceland in the qualitative studies. These comparisons helped to make the obtained data comparable and also facilitated the interpretation of the results while offering a unique cross-cultural comparison.

The research questions investigated were the following: *What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?* and *What are the brand-related (attitude towards the advertising, brand, and purchase intention) effects of femvertising?*

Research question 1: What are the perceived empowering effects of femvertising?

To understand the empowering effects of femvertising, the qualitative studies first shed light on gender equality through social expectations from women and the definition of women empowerment in Hungary, Mexico, and Iceland.

In Hungary, women are expected in the first place to form a family and be at home and dedicate most of their time to the family, which is supported by the current Hungarian government's policy (Fodor, 2022). In the second place, women are expected to work as well. Women empowerment was defined by them from an individualistic perspective (Fülöp & Berkics, 2015), focusing on feminine values. The gender inequalities also seen in the interviews might affect economic aspects as well, such as wage differences between the sexes or women's possibilities to occupy high positions (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022).

Mexican women emphasized the dominance of traditional gender roles, the importance of the outlook of women, and the problem of gender inequality (Mensa & Bittner, 2020). The importance of sorority was also emphasized by the interviewees (Rodríguez, 2019).

For Icelandic women, work itself resulted to have equal importance as having a family (Lacy, 2000), and gender equality is realized in a large percentage (Bjarnason-Hjalmsdottir, 2008). The concept of women empowerment is defined by gender-neutral aspects by them (Bjarnason-Hjalmsdottir, 2008).

Femvertising's empowering and positive effects, including non-traditional gender role portrayal, diversity, gender equality, and inclusivity, were declared by all three countries, emphasizing its ability to evoke positive feelings (Drake 2017; Kapoor & Munjal 2019). However, culture might influence how women perceive femvertising. Hungarian women mostly reacted passively to its empowering effects, claiming that femvertising has a greater impact on others than on themselves (Dahlén et al. 2013; Gunther & Storey 2003). Women in Mexico concentrated completely on the positive impacts of femvertising on them, most likely as a kind of resistance to the traditional Mexican gender system (Ortiz-Hernández & Granados-Cosme 2006). Icelandic women particularly emphasized the necessity of depicting women in prominent positions in femvertising, in keeping with their gender equality objectives and achievements (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022).

The quantitative study proved that femvertising has an empowering effect: it resulted to evoke significantly higher perceived women empowerment than traditional advertising, which finding is in line with femvertising's core attribution to empower women (Åkestam et al., 2017; Champlin et al., 2019; Drake, 2017; Kordostami & Kordostami, 2020; Teng et al., 2020; Varghese & Kumar, 2020a; Vadakkepatt et al., 2022).

Research question 2: What are the brand-related (attitude towards the advertising, brand, and purchase intention) effects of femvertising?

The qualitative studies indicated that the attitude regarding local traditional and femvertising commercials was varied. Additionally, by comparing the earlier and later femvertising types of advertisement, the earlier one was liked less by the interviewees than the newer one as of a lack of inclusivity and diversity in the portrayal of women (Maclaran, 2012; Bruce, 2016). Thus, traditional and other stereotypes in advertisements may be perceived differently in different cultures, especially as women become more aware of the absence of gender equality. Although femvertising in general aims to eliminate stereotypes (Åkestam et al. 2017; Kapoor & Munjal 2019), it may not always employ suitable gender representation and stereotypes to empower women (as evidenced in Nike's femvertising).

In addition to other factors, people's attitudes toward the brand featured in the traditional advertisement reflected their attitudes toward gender equality: on the one hand, those who valued the advertising and were more accepting of traditional gender norms spoke more favorably about the brand; on the other hand, those who had a negative attitude toward

traditional gender roles did not favor the brand as much (Orth & Holancova, 2004). Attitude toward feminist advertising was more closely related to brand knowledge and prior brand experience (Percy & Rossiter, 1992).

According to earlier research, the findings on purchase intention differed similarly for both local and femvertisings (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016; Drake, 2017; Kapoor & Munjal, 2019). In addition, purchase intent was linked to the product, attitude towards the advertisement and brand, and previous interactions with the brand (Lin & Lu, 2010). Because of this, it has been challenging to separate the influence on purchasing intention from other factors, which merit additional research.

In line with previous literature, the quantitative study provided evidence that there is a significant positive relationship between the measured constructs, as perceived women empowerment proved to have a positive effect on the attitude towards the advertisement (Åkestam et al., 2017), as well as the positive attitude towards the advertisement had a positive effect on the attitude towards the brand (Spears & Singh, 2004; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Drake, 2017). Besides, the positive attitude towards the brand had a positive effect on purchase intent (Eckler & Bolls, 2011; Spears & Singh, 2004; Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Drake, 2017).

Gender role identification and attitudes have a substantial impact on consumer responses, with those who hold more non-traditional gender views being more open to non-traditional gender portrayals in commercials (Zawisza et al., 2006). As femvertising intends to avoid gender stereotypes, investigating the attitude towards gender role equality portrayal is important. The current study proved that indeed, gender role equality positively moderates the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement.

4.2. Theoretical and practical contribution

The main goal of the dissertation was to expand the existing literature related to femvertising by providing an extensive literature review and by exploring and confirming new theoretical connections related to diverse disciplines, such as marketing, sociology, and psychology. Besides, this study also aimed to respond to the previously identified research gaps regarding femvertising by exploring the phenomenon cross-culturally, and also by providing future research directions.

Thus, the dissertation expanded the current theoretical framework by the following contributions, related to theory, methodology, context, and future research directions.

- (1) An **extensive literature review** has been provided, which is based on the most cited publications from the Scopus database in different disciplines, related to women empowerment, gender equality, and gender stereotypes, with special attention to femvertising and its perceived empowering and brand-related effects. The findings are also presented in summary tables.
- (2) **New connections between concepts were identified and new variables were tested** by structural equation modeling. This is one of the first studies of femvertising to link various constructs in a single theoretical framework, providing a comprehensive understanding of femvertising and its perceived empowering and brand-related effects. The innovative findings consisted of the dimensions of women empowerment, such as decision-making, control over income, and self-esteem, which were discussed along femvertising in qualitative research, among the first studies to discuss this complex phenomenon in a marketing setting. Additionally, another variable has been investigated in the setting of femvertising, which has not been at the center of previous research related to this topic: by including gender role equality attitude in this research related to femvertising, both in the qualitative and quantitative studies, several useful insights were gained, proving its moderating role on the relationship between perceived women empowerment and the attitude towards the advertisement.
- (3) A **rarely used methodology related to the literature on femvertising, interviewing has been applied** for the exploration of this concept (as recommended by Middleton et al., 2020), providing further insights on its empowering and brand-related effects.
- (4) In addition to the theoretical framework's new findings, the dissertation **tested the following scales in the context of femvertising**: perceived women empowerment (Teng et al., 2020), attitude towards the advertising (Wells, 1964; modified by Abitbol & Sternadori, 2019; Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019; Kapoor & Munjal, 2017), attitude towards the brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; modified by Dahlén et al., 2008), purchase intent (Teng et al., 2020) and gender role equality attitude (Gender Role Attitudes Scale of García-Cueto et al., 2015; modified by Jinah, 2022). The results provided additional insights into the applicability of these scales.
- (5) The phenomenon of femvertising has been investigated in a **new context** in the current research, realizing **cross-cultural qualitative studies** with interviewing techniques in

Hungary, Mexico, and Iceland and a quantitative study in Hungary. Among the first studies, the dissertation explored femvertising in Eastern Europe, Latin America, and other Nordic countries other than Sweden, instead of investigating it in well-researched, English-speaking nations with high gender equality, such as the United States and the United Kingdom (Global Gender Gap Report, 2022).

- (6) **New future research directions** have been also provided to further investigate the phenomenon of femvertising.

The current study has several different practical contributions, which may serve as guidelines for marketing managers. These recommendations include insights on the appropriate portrayal of women in advertisements, the potential negative brand-related effects caused by the use of traditional or not adequate portrayal of gender roles, the significant impacts of femvertising on brand-related goals, and insights on the Y generation as a target group.

Based on the qualitative studies of the current research, one of the most important findings is that although the values represented by femvertising, such as the pursuit of diversity, are a good direction and can increase revenues (Abitbol & Sternadori, 2016), it is also necessary to strive so that ordinary women, looking at the women presented in advertisements, see themselves as such as they are, rather than encouraging them to act almost like men to be successful. In addition to the varied representation, the different ages, shapes, sexual orientations and the different roles played by women should be emphasized even more, and the local cultural differences should be also taken into account. All these factors affect the attitude towards advertising. In addition, it is important to note that although it is difficult to measure the attitude towards the brand (separately from previous experience with the brand) and the possible purchase intention, an inappropriately chosen advertisement that uses stereotypes that do not correspond to the given culture can influence immediately the brand attitude and might have an influence on future purchase intentions.

The quantitative study proved how important impacts can femvertising have on brand-related goals through its perceived empowering power. Not only femvertising's perceived women empowerment has a positive influence on the attitude towards the advertisement, but may also affect brand attitude and purchase intention as well. Besides, as the Y generation serves as an important target group for many companies (Champlin et al., 2019), it is important

to note that this generation is sensitive to gender equality and other social causes (Drake, 2017; Sterbenk et al, 2021), thus the appropriate usage of femvertising is highly recommended.

Finally, it should be mentioned that in addition to expanding the literature and providing practitioners with relevant results to improve their advertising strategy, the current study aims to assist participants in the interviews and surveys, and women in general in gaining new knowledge about women empowerment and femvertising, as well as better understanding their current situation, encountering new ideas and ways of thinking and making small changes in their own lives and those around them.

4.3. Limitations and future research directions

In this section, research limitations and future research directions are discussed related to qualitative and quantitative research.

Among the limitations and possible future research directions of qualitative research, it is important to note that the results are based on small samples (10 to 16 interviews in each country). It would be worthwhile to conduct the research on a larger sample in the future, not only in Budapest, Hungary, Monterrey, Mexico, Reykjavík, Iceland, and its surroundings. As another research limitation, the very narrow sample of Study 1 with too many expectations can be also mentioned, which group was hard to reach. The expanded size of the target group of the sample, including the Millennial women generation group in Study 2, and the quantitative analysis is intended to compensate this problem. However, another limitation of the sample can be also highlighted that women with higher education were overrepresented in the samples. In the future, it may be more worthwhile to examine an even wider target group, and also to address the opinions of men, or even compare different generations. Despite the previously stated advantages of the methods, convenience and snowball sampling can also be mentioned as limitations, as there are many potential sources of bias in their usage, and they do not represent any definable population (Malhotra & Simon, 2009).

The selection of specific advertisements can also be considered as a limitation since the present research only presented advertisements of a specific brand of one industry in each category (traditional or femvertising). Besides, the possible problems of understanding the language of the advertisements could have occurred, as the Nike advertisement was shown in the English language in all countries.

Limitations and potential directions for further research can be also discussed related to quantitative research.

Even though the experiment provided evidence for the presence of all of the constructs and their interrelationships, the sample size (286 valid cases) does not represent the complete population of women in Hungary from the Y generation, thus the results cannot be generalized. Thus, as a limitation of the quantitative research the small size (286 cases), the overrepresentation of women from higher education, and the usage of convenience and snowball sampling can be highlighted. To make the sample more diverse, the service provider Prolific was also used, which is also recommended for further research. The research is recommended to be done in a larger sample, also by combining different generations, and nations, and also including men.

The choice of the two Activia advertisements (femvertising and traditional advertising) based on the manipulation check should be mentioned as a limitation. Both Activia advertisements were made 6-7 years ago, which is a significant amount of time since femvertising was created in 2014, therefore it is more worthwhile to use more recent advertisements in the future. Besides, the content and length of the advertisement of the femvertising and the traditional one differed from each other, which made it more difficult to accurately measure the impact of advertising. Besides, the femvertising advertisement did not show the product itself (yogurt), and the logo and brand were not emphasized, while the traditional advertisement displayed yogurt, highlighted the importance of yogurt consumption, and even presented a shopping scene. In general, it is a typical aspect of femvertising that the product and the brand do not appear in a prominent place, however, it might make it difficult in the current research to measure the effect of the advertising on the attitude towards the brand and the willingness to buy. Besides, men did not appear in the advertisements, which might also influence the responses towards perceived women empowerment and gender role equality attitude. It is highly advised for future research to choose two advertisements from the same brand which are femvertising and traditional advertising, but they do not differ very much in content and length.

In the case of the measurement scales, most of them performed very well. However, the Gender Role Attitudes Scale (GRAS) scale of Jinah (2022), which was adapted and reduced for her Japanese study from the original scale of García-Cueto et al. (2015), did perform less well in the Hungarian context. The original scale included reverse statements as well and had 20 items, thus the usage of this original scale or other scales is recommended for future research to gain more insights regarding this construct. It is also recommended to develop a scale

measuring whether an advertisement is femvertising or not, which might help the realization of even more accurate future research related to this phenomenon. Currently, the only available scale is intended to measure perceived women empowerment (Teng et al. 2020), also used in the current research. Besides, in future research other constructs can be included as well in the models to further expand the theoretical framework. It would be interesting to measure along with perceived women empowerment additional constructs appearing in other articles, such as perceived gender stereotypes in the advertisement (Åkestam et al., 2017; Åkestam et al., 2021), support for women's rights, and feminist self-identification (Sternadori & Abitbol, 2019).

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6. ANNEXES

1. Interview guideline with quotes from literature

Questions	Quotes from literature
Introduction	
1. Talk about yourself. What is the most important thing in your life?	
Empowerment in general	
2. What does women empowerment mean to you?	Women's empowerment is multi-layered and incorporates intersecting social and economic dimensions (Farah 2006). It embraces a woman's ability to access finance, education, and income, as well as to have control over life choices through active engagement in politics and organizations Metcalfe (2011).
3. What kind of expectations does society have from you and women in general?	
Empowerment	
Decision making	
4. Who decides about the following attributes in your household? Home (purchase and repair of homes, durable goods)	Household matters (Swain & Wallentin, 2009; Banerjee et al (2015); purchases of daily household needs (Rahman et al., 2011; Tarozzi, 2015)
5. Food and daily household needs	Household matters (Swain & Wallentin, 2009; Banerjee et al., 2015), food eaten at home (Tarozzi, 2015)
6. Clothing - who decides to buy a husband or wife, young children, and teenagers?	Banerjee et al. (2015); Own, children's spouse's clothes (Tarozzi, 2015)
7. Work (working away from home)	Work (Swain & Wallentin, 2009; Aziz et al., 2011), whether the woman works outside the household (Tarozzi, 2015)

8. Money - Who makes decisions on how to spend the income, how it is decided to buy high-priced items (cars, home, school, travel)	Large and expensive purchases (Tarozzi, 2015); expensive purchases, assisting family members, family purchases, recreational use of the money, personal use of the money (Ashraf et al., 2010), she has money she can spend as she wishes (Mahmud et al., 2012)
9. Free time - Who decides how to spend free time and how they organize the expenses of these activities	Time the woman spends socializing (Tarozzi, 2015)
10. Freedom - inquire how free you feel about decision-making in your life, what barriers / obstacles you face, and what drives you to continue in your freedom	
11. Health (visiting physician, treatment for sick children, medical expenses)	Treatment for sick children, visiting doctor for self (Mahmud et al., 2012); health and medical expenditure (Banerjee et al., 2015); own and children's health care (Rahman et al. (2011), and spouse's health as well (Tarozzi, 2015)
12. Education (levels of school fees, educational fees, and expenses, school enrollment)	Education (Aziz et al. (2011); levels of spending on school tuition, fees, and other education expenses (Banerjee et al., 2015), and children's education (Tarozzi, 2015; Ashraf et al., 2010)
13. Family life (family planning, number of children, use of contraceptives, family visits) and children's lives.	Having more children, using family planning, visiting her father's home (Mahmud et al., 2012); marriage and life of children and family (Aziz et al., 2011); teenage girls' and teenage boys' school enrollment (Banerjee et al., 2015); visits to family or relatives (Rahman et al. (2011); the number of children to have & contraceptive use & when daughters can marry (Tarozzi, 2015); the number of children, schooling of children, and use of family planning (Ashraf et al., 2010)
14. Participation in social networks	Swain & Wallentin (2009)

15. Do you decide what to do in your spare time? Or about the things you like?	Time the woman spends socializing (Tarozzi, 2015)
16. Do you fear social disapproval (to please others) if you act according to your values?	This indicator probes the person's own understanding of the situation and how he or she balances different motivations—to avoid punishment or social disapproval and to act on his or her values (Alkire, 2007)
Control over income (income / expenditures)	
17. Do you have any property (for instance a house or a car)?	Ownership of assets and purchase, sale, or transfer of assets and Access to and decisions about credit (Alkire et al., 2013), access to economic resources (Kabeer, 2011), she has money she can spend as she wishes (Mahmud et al., 2012)
18. Do you work for remuneration?	Whether the woman works outside the household (Tarozzi, 2015; Mahmud et al., 2012), or works for pay (Mabsout & Staveren, 2010), she has money she can spend as she wishes (Mahmud et al., 2012)
19. Do you have any savings? Can you decide how to spend them? If you have any properties, can you decide when to sell them, or when to buy more?	Spending family savings, taking a loan (Mahmud et al., 2012); investments (Banerjee et al., 2015), decisions on large and expensive purchases, and savings Tarozzi (2015); She has money she can spend as she wishes (Mahmud et al., 2012)
Time management	
20. How do you distribute your time between your work and housework, family, and your relationship?	Time the woman spends socializing (Tarozzi, 2015), deduced working hours (de Celis et al., 2015)
21. How much time do you have for entertainment, hobbies and to rest?	Leisure = Satisfaction with time for leisure activities (Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015)
22. Do you think this amount of time is enough?	Leisure = Satisfaction with time for leisure activities (Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015)

Leadership in community	
23. Do you belong to any association or political party? If yes, do they play any leadership role in them?	Membership in economic or social groups (Alkire et al., 2013; Malapit & Quisumbing, 2015; Swain & Wallentin, 2009)
Freedom of mobility	
24. Have you traveled alone recently, or with friends? Do you go to meetings alone?	Time the woman spends socializing (Tarozzi, 2015)
25. Have you considered the possibility of moving out of town?	
26. Do you think you have the freedom to move wherever you want? Why?	Visiting her father's home (Mahmud et al., 2012); Empowerment is also often seen only partially, as women's increased autonomy and freedom (Mahmud et al., 2012; Rahman et al., 2011)
Marketing	
Female portrayed	
27. Do you think brands represent women like you are at the moment?	Advertising with women empowerment themes has been accepted for challenging gender stereotypes in the media and raising awareness about everyday issues facing females and by empowering women of all ages (Becker-Herby, 2016)
28. What brands do you think represent you? Which ones do you usually buy?	L'Oréal ads suggest authenticity; however, they also incorporate the standard expectation of beauty codes (youthful, thin, white and middle class) (LaWare & Moutsatsos, 2003)
29. What values do they promote?	
30. What activities, beliefs, and lifestyles?	
31. Which brands do you think do not represent you? Why not? (values, beliefs, activities, lifestyles, stereotypes)	

32. What kind of communication do they have? What does the brand tell you in its campaigns, and promotions?	Advertising has the potential to create personal needs; self-image; and self-preferences (Lin& Yeh, 2009)
33. Can you remember any advertising campaigns where you have been reflected at some point? How was it? How it made you feel, promote, think, reflect, etc.?	
34. Do you think brands represent women as sexual objects?	Malson et al. (2011)
Femvertising and women empowerment	
35. Do you think brands help empower you and other women like you? If yes, which ones? How do they positively empower them? How do they do that? What brand does it?	Gill (2008)
36. How do you think brands are empowering women like you? (In which areas of your life, roles, beliefs, values, activities, etc.) What advertising campaigns do you remember in digital media or traditional media? What did they communicate?	Female stereotypes and roles in society (Eisend, 2010) - female portrayals in advertising have followed changes in society, rather than the other way around (Åkestam et al., 2017).
37. Do you think that brands influence the way women act and feel like you? In what way?	
38. Do you think brands influence your personality?	
Traditional vs femvertising advertisements – projective technique	
39. Who are they talking to in the advertisement?	
40. What do you think about the gender roles represented here? Do you identify with these roles?	
41. What do you think about the advertisement? What do think about the brand? Would you buy the product?	

2. Text of the survey of the manipulation test

Hello!

I am Anna Török, Ph.D. student at Corvinus University of Budapest. I am preparing a research for my dissertation, in connection with which I would like to ask you to fill out this questionnaire.

Filling out the questionnaire takes a maximum of 3 minutes, during which you will see a commercial and then give your opinion.

Thank you in advance for your help!

Demography (requirements to fill in the questionnaire)

- Gender: woman
- Age: more than 18 years old
- Nationality: Hungarian

Femvertising vs. traditional ad (control ad)

- Please watch this advertisement. It is really important that you watch the whole advertisement from the beginning to the end.

Women empowerment

- Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = not at all; 7= very much) to what extent this ad is empowering:

1 (not at all).....7 (very much)

- Please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = not at all; 7= very much) to what extent the women in the ad are powerful:

1 (not at all).....7 (very much)

Thank you very much for filling out the questionnaire!

I would be extremely grateful if you could share the questionnaire with your female friends (Hungarian, over 18).

Thanks in advance! Have a nice day!

3. Text of the survey of the experiment

Hello!

I am Anna Török, Ph.D. student at Corvinus University of Budapest. I am preparing a research for my dissertation and I would like to ask you to fill out this questionnaire in connection with it.

Filling out the questionnaire takes a maximum of 5 minutes, during which you will see a commercial and then give your opinion.

Thank you for your help in advance!

Demography

- Gender: woman / man
- Age: -24, 25-41, 42+
- Nationality: Hungarian / other
- Job: student, entrepreneur, employee, on maternity leave, unemployed, other
- Family status: single, in a relationship, married, divorced, other

- Number of children: 0, 1, 2, 3, more
- Education: high school, BA, MA, Doctoral degree, Vocational school, Other
- Living in: capital, big town, small town

Non-stereotyped (femvertising) vs. stereotyped ad (control)

- Please watch this advertisement. It is really important that you watch the whole advertisement from the beginning to the end.

Product consumption frequency

- Please indicate how often you eat yogurt!
 - Daily
 - Almost daily
 - Sometimes
 - Rarely
 - Never

Perceived women empowerment

- Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) to what extent you agree with the statements:
 - 1. This ad is empowering
 - 2. The women in the ad are powerful
 - 3. The women in the ad are independent
 - 4. The women in the ad have more control.

Gender role equality attitude

- Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) to what extent you agree with the statements:

1. People can be active, considerate and kind to others regardless of sex
2. People should be treated equally regardless of sex
3. Both men and women can demonstrate their abilities regardless of the type or content of work
4. Both men and women can hold responsible positions
5. Mothers and fathers should be equally involved in raising children

Attitude towards the ad

- Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) to what extent you agree with the statements:

1. This ad is very appealing to me
2. I dislike this ad” (reverse)
3. I would probably skip this ad if I saw it again on TV / online (reverse)
4. This ad makes me feel good
5. This ad has little interest for me (reverse)

Attitude towards the brand

- Please indicate on this seven-point semantic differential scale your opinion on the brand (Activia) which was shown in the ad!

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Bad.....*Good*
Dislike.....*Like*
Negative opinion.....*Positive opinion*

Purchase intention

- Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) to what extent you agree with the statements:

1. I will choose this product over other similar products
2. I am interested in this product
3. I would like to purchase the product.

Thank you very much for filling out the questionnaire!

I would be extremely grateful if you could share the questionnaire with your female friends (Hungarian, 25-41 years old).

Thanks in advance! Have a nice day!

7. LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

In this section, the journal publications and conferences related to the dissertation topic are listed.

Journal articles

In Hungarian

1. Török A. & Malota E. (2021). Femvertising: A nők társadalmi szerepének megerősödése és a reklámokkal való kapcsolata. *JEL-KÉP: KOMMUNIKÁCIÓ KÖZVÉLEMÉNY MÉDIA*. 2. 103-117., 15 p. <https://doi.org/10.20520/JEL-KEP.2021.2.103>
2. Orehóczki Zs. & Török A. (2022). A femvertising és a hagyományos reklám attitűdre és vásárlási hajlandóságra gyakorolt hatásának vizsgálata. *VEZETÉSTUDOMÁNY*, 53 (4). 17-27., 11. <https://doi.org/10.14267/VEZTUD.2022.04.02>
3. Török A., Malota E. & Mucsi A. (2022). A nők attitűdje a tradicionális és a femvertising reklámokban megjelenő női sztereotípiákkal szemben. *MARKETING & MENEDZSMENT*, 55 (4). 5-14., 10. <https://doi.org/10.15170/MM.2021.55.04.01>
4. Török A., Malota E. & Horváth A. (in press). Mi a titkuk? Nemi egyenlőség és a nőket megerősítő, femvertising reklámok Magyarországon és Izlandon. *MAGYAR TUDOMÁNY*

Participation at conferences with the full paper submitted:

In Hungarian

1. Török A., Malota E. & Pérez Lomelí A. S. (2020). A nők társadalmi szerepének megerősödése a reklámok által: A femvertising jelensége. In: Ercsey, Ida (ed.) *Marketing a digitalizáció korában : Az Egyesület a Marketing Oktatásért és Kutatásért XXVI. Országos konferenciájának előadásai*, Győr, Magyarország: Széchenyi István Egyetem (2020) 593-594. , 2 p. ISBN: 978-615-5837

2. Török, A. (2021). A feminizmus korszakai és a reklámok – A női ábrázolásmód változásai. In: Mitev, Ariel; Csordás, Tamás; Horváth, Dóra; Boros, Kitti (ed.) “Post-traumatic marketing: virtuality and reality” – Proceedings of the EMOK 2021 International Conference, Budapest, Magyarország: Corvinus University of Budapest. 558. 507., ISBN: 978-963-503-8

In English

3. Gomez C., Török A. Centeno E. & Malota, E. (2022). Systematic literature review of the female stereotypes in advertising within the different periods of feminism: Structured Abstract, In: Juliann, Allen; Bruna, Jochims; Shuang, Wu (ed.) Celebrating the Past and Future of Marketing and Discovery with Social Impact: 2021 AMS Virtual Annual Conference and World Marketing Congress Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing (2022) 598 p. pp. 319-320., 2 p.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-95346-1_100
4. Gomez C. L. G., Török A., Centeno E. & Malota E. (2022). The influence of self-identification with feminism on the attitude towards femvertising: The case of Mexico and Spain (2022), BALAS2022 Annual Conference, June 10-13th 2022, Lisbon, Portugal