

The effect of disclosing influencer food advertising on adolescent consumers' attitude, the moderating role of advertising literacy and parasocial relations



Tom Verhagen

970710874120

Thesis code: MCB-80436

Supervisor: dr.ir. P.W. van Kleef

Second reader: dr. I.E. de Hooge

Date: 12-07-2020

Abstract

Adolescents are increasingly influenced by influencer marketing in their attitude towards brands and in the food choice they make. This phenomenon contributes to the childhood obesity problem. This research focused on the effect of disclosures on the development of a critical attitude towards commercial persuasion influencer content. The study tried to explain how disclosures could contribute to the creation of more critical adolescents who can defend themselves against influencer marketing. This was done by researching the effect of disclosures on the level of skepticism towards an influencer video or the disliking of this video adolescents showed. This research also focused on the moderating role of conceptual advertising literacy and parasocial relationships. An experimental research was administered and one hundred and forty seven adolescents participated in this research. The respondents were divided in two conditions: a disclosure condition and a non-disclosure condition. The results showed that disclosures lead to more recognition of the commercial persuasion intent. However, no significant effect of disclosures on skepticism or disliking was found. The moderating effects of conceptual advertising literacy and parasocial relations could also not be found. Finally, this study showed that adolescents can also develop a critical attitude towards advertising without disclosures.

Keywords: Disclosure; Skepticism; Disliking; Conceptual advertising literacy; Parasocial relationships; Recognition of advertising

Table of Contents

1. Introduction	5
2. Theoretical Background	10
2.1 The Broader Concept: Persuasion Knowledge, Advertising Recognition and Advertising Literacy	10
2.2 The Dependent Variable: Attitudes Towards Message	11
2.3 Use and Effects of Disclosures in Social Media Marketing	12
2.4 Recognition of Persuasion Attempts as Explaining Mechanism in Understanding Effects of Disclosures	15
2.5 Conceptual Advertising Literacy as Moderator	16
2.6 Parasocial Identification as Moderator	17
2.7 Hypotheses and Conceptual model	20
3. Methodology	23
3.1 Design	23
3.2 Procedure	24
3.3 Respondents	24
3.4 Measures	25
3.4.1 Dependent variable: skepticism and disliking towards an advertisement	25
3.4.2 Mediator: recognition of commercial persuasion intent	25
3.4.3 Moderators: conceptual advertising literacy and parasocial relationships	25
3.5 Manipulation Check	26
3.6 Control Variables	26
3.7 Data Analysis	26
4. Results	28
4.1 Descriptive Information and Randomization Check	28
4.2 Manipulation Check	29
4.3 Descriptive Statistics	29
4.4 Main Analyses of Hypotheses	30
4.4.1 Disclosure effect on dependent variable	30
4.4.2 Disclosure effect on recognition of advertisement	31
4.4.3 Recognition effect on dependent variable	31
4.4.4 Moderating effect of conceptual advertising literacy on the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent	32

4.4.5 Moderating effect of parasocial relations on the relation between recognition and the dependent variables	32
5. Discussion	34
References.....	38
Appendix A	47
Appendix B	49
Appendix C	54

1. Introduction

The problem of childhood obesity has been increasing in the past decades. The global proportion of children with obesity has increased from on average 0.8% in 1975 to 6.7% in 2016 (Bauman, Rutter, & Baur, 2019). This notable increase in child obesity can, in its turn, cause an increased risk of developing adverse health conditions such as diabetes, heart disease, high blood pressure, and even some types of cancers later in life (Kim, Cubbin, & Oh, 2019). This rise in child obesity can be explained with health habits, nutrition, and social and economic circumstances of children that have worsened over time (Kranjac, & Wagmiller, 2019). Next to these factors, social media also plays a role in the increase of the child obesity rate. Children who use social media have a greater risk of obesity (Mazur et al., 2018). One of the reasons is that the persuasive effects food marketing through social media are believed to be partly responsible for the increase in overweight and obesity in children (Khajeheian et al., 2018).

Social media is a phenomenon that is increasingly popular among children and adolescents, and thus growing in importance. Half of the adolescents log in daily to a social networking site like Instagram, Facebook, or YouTube (Coyne, Padilla-Walker, Holmgren, & Stockdale, 2019). The popularity of social media is also noticeable from the fact that more than two thirds of the adolescents has a social media profile (Orben, 2020). Children and adolescents also spend an increasingly large amount of their time on these social media sites (Willoughby, 2019). This could also be proven by the fact that on average an adolescent spends two hours and twenty minutes a day on social media (NOS, 2020). The most popular social media sites for adolescents are YouTube, Instagram, Snapchat, Facebook, and Twitter (Potvin-Kent, Pauzé, Roy, De Billy, & Czoli, 2019). This research will focus on the social media platform YouTube.

The rise of social media led to various new marketing techniques which aim at the social media user (Alves, Fernandes, & Raposo, 2016). One of these marketing techniques is the use of social media influencers. Influencers are seen as social media personalities with a lot of followers. They create their own content, often focused on one product category, and their followers are engaged with them and trust their recommendations (Fainmesser & Galeotti, 2019). Marketers use these influencers by paying them to endorse brands and products (Fainmesser & Galeotti, 2019). The use of this marketing technique is increasing; in 2017, two billion euro was spent on it while it will hit between the five and twenty billion euro in 2022 (Abratt, 2019). Companies use social media marketing to reach and engage young people online (Potvin-Kent et al., 2019). This causes children to be frequently exposed to influencer marketing of food and beverage products and brands on social media (Coates, Hardman, Halford, Christiansen, & Boyland, 2020).

Less healthy food and beverages which are shown in the content of influencers may give children the impression that these influencers regularly consume these items and encourage similar behavior (Olsson & Martínez, 2019). Children are exposed to marketing of food and beverages high in fat, sugar and salt (HFSS) four times more than healthier products (Kelly et al., 2019). The exposure to HFSS cues in social media, including the influencer content, increases a positive attitude towards eating and drinking these products (Coates, Hardman, Halford, Christiansen, & Boyland, 2019). These HFSS products are believed to contribute to the increase in the obesity level (Coates et al., 2019). The marketing of these foods is considered a powerful environmental determinant of unhealthy diets which causes the rise in child obesity (Potvin-Kent et al., 2019).

The increased exposure towards influencer marketing leads to the question whether children can distinguish between content with a commercial intent (advertisement) or content without any commercial intent of the influencer. Folkvord and colleagues (2019) show that most of the children do not understand that the content they are viewing is essentially an advertisement. Not only children have troubles with distinguishing the difference; even parents have difficulties with making this distinction (Evans, Hoy, & Childers, 2018). Drawing on the theory of cognitive development, there are two crucial factors; being able to distinguish advertisements from other content and recognizing the underlying persuasive intent of advertisements (Livingstone & Helsper, 2006). Children grow in their cognitive capability and understanding of advertising. This is called their advertising literacy, which appears to be related to age. Children are affected by advertisements at early ages, but only start developing the ability to discern advertising from content at the age of ten. They develop a critical attitude toward such messages around the age of eleven or twelve (Meeus, Walrave, Van Ouytsel, & Driesen, 2014). According to Piaget (1964), there are four stages of cognitive development: the sensorimotor (birth to two years), preoperational (two to seven years), concrete operational (seven to eleven years) and formal operational stage (eleven to adolescence). Persuasion knowledge accumulates over time, so the persuasion expertise of children increases with age (Amazeen & Wojdyski, 2019), meaning older children have a higher level of advertising literacy.

In this research, the focus will be on children in the formal operational stage. This will be done because they progress to a more adult-like thought pattern, but are still able to learn cognitive skills which might impact their behavior (Vanwesenbeeck, Ponnet & Walrave, 2017). Children in this group also start choosing what they eat independently from their parents or educators, whose influence is declining in the formal operational stage (Contento, Williams,

Michela, & Franklin, 2006). Not only in food consumption it is a critical age stage, but adolescents are also the children who are most influenced by advertising (Livingstone & Helsper, 2006). Next to these arguments, the choice to focus on adolescents was also based on the feasibility of the research. The lack of time and opportunities in a lockdown period prevented this research to also focus on younger children. Research focused on this group would require approval of their parents and approval of the ethical commission, which was unfeasible.

John (2008) explained more about the behavior of adolescents in the formal operational phase or reflective phase, as she calls it in her article. In this phase, the adolescents view advertising in a more skeptical, analytical, and discerning way, but they also think of advertising as entertaining, interesting, and socially relevant. Brands start to get meaning as they are able to sense the prestige associated with brands, but also start to see brands as symbols for group identity and belonging to certain groups (John, 2008). Adolescents are more able to adjust their decision-making strategies to more complex decision environments in this phase, and develop a repertoire of influence strategies which they understand. Their motivation for consumptions is mainly based on materialism (John, 2008). The children entering adolescence have the strongest materialistic tendencies, while the older adolescents already focus more on achievements (John, 2008).

Advertising disclosures are labels or cues which are designed to clearly identify the persuasion attempt of an advertisement and to protect consumers (Evans, Phua, Lim, & Jun, 2017). These disclosure are often required by organizations like the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), the law, or by the social media platforms (Evans et al., 2017). Disclosures are believed to be important for consumers in determining the nature of the relationship between the influencer and the promoted product or brand (Bladow, 2017). In practice, there is often a lack of disclosures (De Veirman, Hudders & Nelson, 2019). Previous research examined the effect of disclosures on whether viewers can recall the disclosure, their recognition of advertising, and whether understanding of the persuasive intent is increased (Boerman & Van Reijmersdaal, 2019). Despite the increasing importance of this topic and the increasing impact in the children's media environment, the research on this topic is still limited (De Veirman et al., 2019).

The present study will make the knowledge on this topic less limited. The focus will be on the influence of disclosures on key dimensions of children's advertising literacy (Rozendaal, Van Reijmersdal, & Buijzen 2019). This will be done with an experiment where adolescent respondents will be exposed to a video of an influencer. Two conditions will be used for this experiment: the first group will be exposed to a disclosure before watching the influencer video,

whilst the second group will be used as a control group and will not see the disclosure before the video. Both groups will see the same video. After this moment of exposure, it will be examined to what extent the respondents are more critical towards the message of the video. It is expected that respondents with a higher score on advertising literacy will develop a more critical attitude towards the message than respondents who score lower on advertising literacy. The score that respondents get on advertising literacy will be measured.

Moreover, we expect that the effect of disclosure is different for people who can identify with the influencer in a parasocial way. Identifying with someone in a parasocial way means that a relationship exists between a viewer and a creator of content with an illusion of intimacy, that makes it look like a real interpersonal relationship (Dibble, Hartmann, & Rosaen, 2016). It is possible that the viewer establishes this relationship while the creator is unaware it exists (Sokolova & Kefi, 2020). It has been shown that the parasocial relations consumers have with influencers also moderate the effect between persuasion knowledge and purchase intentions (Hwang & Zhang, 2018). The study of Hwang and Zhang (2018) showed that the power of the persuasion knowledge consumers have are reduced by the parasocial relationship. In this study, the extent to which a respondent identifies in a parasocial way with the influencers is examined for its potential moderating role. It is expected that the parasocial relation will reduce the skepticism and disliking caused by disclosures in the current research. This moderating effect can be explained by the boundaries that parasocial relations of adolescents can form on disclosure effects (Boerman & Van Reijmersdaal, 2019).

The relation between disclosures and social media has been researched before (Evans et al., 2017; Boerman, Willemsen, & Van der Aa, 2017; Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). However, the combination of studying disclosures in social media messages, parasocial identification, and advertising literacy makes the setup of this study unique and valuable. This study does not only focus on how disclosures influence the development of a critical attitude in adolescents. It also aims to examine how the recognition of commercial persuasion intent influences this development. In addition to that, the moderating influence of conceptual advertising literacy will be tested. Also, the moderating influence of parasocial identification on how recognition of commercial persuasion intent leads to skepticism towards or disliking of advertising message is also researched. These different variables are combined in one model (Figure 1), with the goal of explaining the development of a critical attitude of consumers toward influencer advertisement.

Insights of this research could be used to raise more awareness of potential problems in the field of influencer marketing, especially regarding the effect disclosures and parasocial

relationships have on the advertising literacy of adolescents. This knowledge can be used to create regulations around influencer marketing by policy makers. It could also be used to determine which kind of disclosures are most useful in encouraging critical thinking about advertising on social media among adolescents. Moreover, this research can be used to make decisions about to what extent parasocial relationships should be taken into account in regulations or the creation of disclosures. Furthermore, it can make influencers more aware of the effect of their advertised content.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 The Broader Concept: Persuasion Knowledge, Advertising Recognition and Advertising Literacy

To understand advertising literacy, it is important to understand the broader concept of persuasion knowledge. According to Wright, Friestad and Boush (2005), advertising literacy develops by obtaining persuasion knowledge, which is the knowledge consumers have about the tactics used in persuasion attempts. This knowledge helps them to identify how, when, and why marketers try to influence them, and how to respond to it (Friestad & Wright, 1974). Persuasion knowledge does not have to be true, but it is what the consumer believes to be true (Ham & Nelson, 2019). It can be divided into two parts: conceptual persuasion knowledge and attitudinal persuasion knowledge (Boerman, Van Reijmersdal, & Neijens, 2012). Conceptual persuasion knowledge is the cognitive dimension of persuasion knowledge that leads to the recognition of advertising, the intended audience, and determines how the persuasive intent is seen (Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). The attitudinal persuasion knowledge is about how consumers feel about the advertiser; how honest, trustworthy, and credible they estimate the advertiser is (Boerman et al., 2012).

Persuasion knowledge is particularly important in a context where advertising is integrated into content that is not commercial like the content of an influencer (Youn & Shin, 2020). In these contexts, coping strategies of consumers, which they use to counter persuasion, are less likely to be activated (Youn & Shin, 2020). This coping strategy is determined by how consumers perceive a persuasion attempt (Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019).

Advertising recognition and persuasion knowledge are seen as the underlying components that need to be measured to estimate advertising literacy in an accurate way (Zarouli et al., 2019). To use this concept of advertising literacy, it is important to better explain what it means. Advertising literacy can be seen as a part of media literacy, which was already defined in 1992 as “the ability of a citizen to access, analyze, and produce information for specific outcomes.” (Silverblatt, Miller, Smith, & Brown, 2014, p. 4). Later, it was defined as “the ability to recognize, analyze, interpret and evaluate advertising attempts.” (Hudders et al., 2017, p. 4).

The theory of advertising literacy is used for many years now, for example in research on how critical people were regarding advertising in the more traditional media such as television and radio (O’Donohoe, 2001). With the rise of social media and the marketing techniques that have been developed, making a distinction between advertising and other content became even harder (Evans et al., 2018). Compared to traditional advertising

techniques, these online techniques are more implicit and integrated (Daems, Moons, & De Pelsmacker, 2017). The integration of commercial messages in content causes the line between advertising and other content to be more blurry. This makes it even more challenging for children and adolescents with a less developed advertising literacy to recognize the advertising message (Daems et al., 2017).

Rozendaal, Lapierre, van Reijmersdal & Buijzen, (2011) divide advertising literacy in three dimensions (see Table A1). Those dimensions are the earlier mentioned conceptual advertising literacy, advertising literacy performance, and attitudinal advertising literacy. Looking at the different dimensions of persuasion knowledge (Boerman et al., 2012), conceptual advertising literacy and advertising literacy performance together are comparable with conceptual persuasion knowledge, while attitudinal advertising literacy is comparable with attitudinal persuasion knowledge. The research of Rozendaal et al. (2011) is important for how advertising literacy is used in this research.

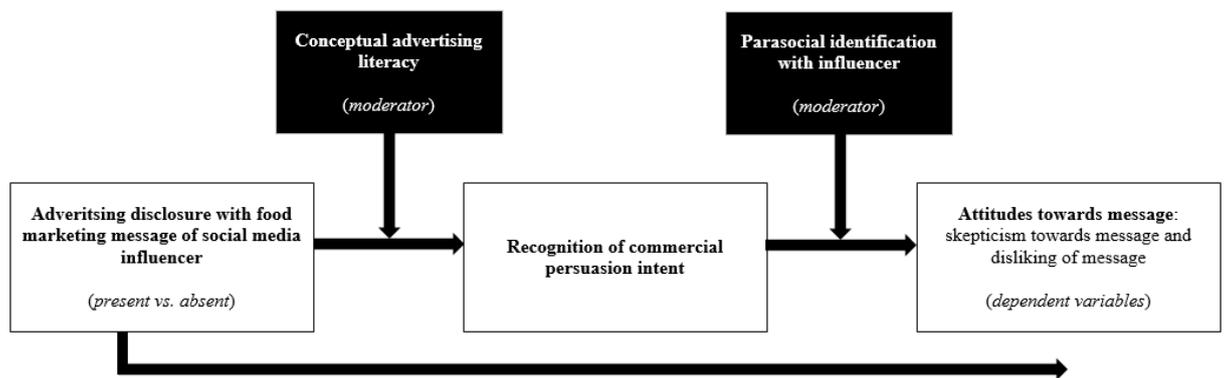


Figure 1. Conceptual model

2.2 The Dependent Variable: Attitudes Towards Message

This research ultimately wants to show how advertising disclosures in influencers' content on social media lead to a more critical attitude towards the message as shown in Figure 1. This critical attitude is needed to make a decision about accepting or rejecting the persuasive message of influencer content (van Dam & Van Reijmersdal, 2019). There are multiple attitudes towards a message that an adolescent can choose. In this research, there will be a focus on two key attitudes a consumer can develop. These two attitudes were chosen based on the research of Rozendaal et al. (2011), which shows that the attitudes "skepticism" and "disliking" are most strongly linked to advertising literacy. In their research (Rozendaal et al., 2011) the attitudes were involved because these attitudes are the most successful in altering the children's response to advertising. In the current research, skepticism and disliking are seen as the dependent

variables. This was done because the ultimate goal of this research is to prepare adolescents to deal with persuasive ads.

Skepticism toward advertising is defined as the tendency toward disbelief of claims made in advertising (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998). The other component is the disliking of advertising; if consumers dislike an advertisement, their brand attitude is affected negatively (Fam, De Run, Shukla, Waller, & He, 2013).

Why is it important to know how to be skeptical towards advertisement? Skepticism is necessary and beneficial because it protects consumers from persuasive practices in advertisements that try to mislead them (Koslow, 2000). Some consumer affair researchers even believe skepticism is a protective tool that should be taught to children (Gaeth & Heath, 1987). This tool can be taught by being exposed to advertising, as this improved skepticism (Clow & Cole, 2006). Also, higher levels of knowledge about advertising lead to a higher level of skepticism (Clow & Cole, 2006). The more advertising literacy consumers have, the more they develop a healthy form of skepticism (Austin, Muldrow, & Austin, 2016). This skepticism in turn leads to a lower desire in the advertised product, which causes more resistance to persuasion (Rozendaal, Buijs, & Reijmersdal, 2016a). This also changes their attitude toward the advertising and their intention of sharing it (Lee, Kim, & Ham, 2016).

A step further than skepticism is disliking the advertisement and the brand or product belonging to this ad. Children have a critical attitude towards a commercial message when disliking and disbelief are caused by an advertisement (Rozendaal, Oprea, & Buijzen, 2016b). The disliking can also be caused by a suppressed emotional reaction. This would be disliking of the persuasion or as a reaction on a situation that threatens their freedom. Those reactions also diminish the effects of advertisements (Hudders et al., 2017). Rozendaal et al. (2016a) showed in their research that these critical attitudes only occur when adolescents see a message with a manipulative or deceptive nature. The adolescents get the feeling they are manipulated or deceived and develop a more critical attitude toward the message. There is, however, a nuance to this principle. Adolescents should realize that not all persuasive messages are necessarily deceptive, that there are several factors to determine if that is the case, and all persuasive messages should be assessed critically nevertheless (Rozendaal et al., 2016b).

2.3 Use and Effects of Disclosures in Social Media Marketing

To diminish the effect of influencer marketing on adolescents, it is important to create more critical adolescents. For that to happen, it is necessary to empower adolescents, which can be done by disclosures (Van Dam & Van Reijmersdal, 2019). Disclosures are designed to give consumers information about the commercial intentions of a message or video. They should

support consumers to recognize advertising and activate their knowledge about persuasion (Boerman et al., 2017). These disclosures are needed in non-traditional contexts such as television programs, computer games, magazines, and nowadays social media environments (Boerman et al., 2012).

When advertised content is embedded in non-advertised content, the source and persuasive intent of the message are not clear to distinguish, which makes it harder to make such a distinction for consumers (Boerman et al., 2012). This is also why disclosures are mandatory on television, and for social media contexts, regulations concerning disclosures are in development. The FTC (Federal Trade Commission) has set up regulations for the USA which push marketers to create explicit disclosures for any advertising on social media, including influencer marketing as well (Boerman et al., 2012). In Europe, there are regulations and guidelines as well. For example, in the Netherlands there is the Dutch Advertising Code (2017), which states that advertising in content should be recognizable and influencers should also communicate their relationship with a certain brand explicitly. There are guidelines developed in multiple other countries as well to make sure disclosures are used in influencer marketing (Boerman & Van Reijmersdal, 2019). Despite of the guidelines, the amount of disclosures used in influencer content is low. The Dutch media authority researched the visibility of brands and products in YouTube videos. Their results showed that more than 75% of the content they researched did not show a clear disclosure of advertisement (Hoogenraad, 2017)

Disclosures can trigger the persuasion knowledge of consumers, but there are some characteristics a disclosure should have according to research to improve their effectivity. The most important characteristic for disclosures is to be visible and recognizable. It is important that content creators ensure that they create disclosures in a way that facilitates discovery (Mathur, Narayanan, & Chetty, 2018). Next to visibility, timing is an important characteristic of disclosures. Disclosures shown prior to the start of sponsored content result in a better recognition of the advertising intentions (Van Reijmersdal et al., 2020; Boerman, Van Reijmersdal, & Neijens, 2014). Rozendaal and Van Reijmersdal (2017) came up with other important characteristics that help to make the disclosure more effective. Those characteristics, for example, are using text that can be seen on screen, or using a recognizable logo or icon to indicate advertisement. For the disclosure to stand out, it is good if a striking colour is used on a contrasting background with a big font style (Rozendaal & Van Reijmersdal, 2017). A striking placement of the disclosure is important as well; the consumer should not be able to miss the disclosure. Furthermore, it should be visible for at least three seconds and have a clear

formulation (Rozendaal & Van Reijmersdal, 2017). Coursaris, Van Osch & Kourganoff (2018) argue that it is even better to use multiple disclosures in advertised social media content, since the combination of in-content disclosures and platform-based disclosures increases recognition. In platform-based disclosures, tools of the social media platform are used to disclose the advertising intentions of the content, for example the headers of the post could be used for that.

Recognizing advertising is the most important component with regard to activating persuasion knowledge and the coping skills which are linked with this knowledge (Brown, Jones, & Wang, 2016). A study was done on this recognition topic, in which the screens of children and adolescents were captured to examine their exposure to food and beverage marketing. This study led to the conclusion that an advertising disclosure can increase the awareness of advertising with 44%, which is the difference between 32% awareness without a disclosure and 76% with a disclosure (Coates et al., 2019). Disclosures have a positive influence on the recognition of advertising intentions in influencer content (Wojdynski & Evans, 2016; Evans et al., 2017; Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019; Rozendaal & Van Reijmersdal, 2017; Coursaris et al., 2018).

Next to recognition of advertising, disclosures can also trigger persuasion knowledge (Boerman et al., 2017). Disclosures activate conceptual persuasion knowledge which in turn triggers the attitudinal persuasion knowledge, including skepticism and disliking of an advertising message (Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). This was also found by Holvoet (2018), who stated that the influencer credibility, attitude towards the content and brand, and the purchase intention diminished after showing a disclosure. This was found by comparing the condition with disclosure and the condition without disclosure with each other. The activation of conceptual and attitudinal persuasion knowledge was found to lead to a lower credibility and more disliking of the message.

This leads to the following hypotheses:

H1a: Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in higher skepticism towards the message.

H1b: Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in higher dislike ratings of the message.

2.4 Recognition of Persuasion Attempts as Explaining Mechanism in Understanding Effects of Disclosures

In this research, advertising literacy is divided into two dimensions. The first dimension is the usage of advertising literacy in situations where adolescents are confronted with advertisements. This will be called the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent in this research and is comparable to the advertising literacy performance dimension in the research of Rozendaal et al. (2011). The second dimension in this research is conceptual advertising literacy, which can be seen as the adolescent's conceptual knowledge of advertising. This understanding of an advertising's intentions and tactics is the main defense adolescents have against advertising and can be used as a filter when processing advertising messages (Rozendaal et al., 2011).

The recognition of commercial persuasion intent is considered to be a key dimension of being able to think critically about advertising (Rozendaal et al., 2011). There are two proceedings necessary to successfully recognize the commercial persuasion intent. The first proceeding being the retrieval of advertising literacy. The retrieval of advertising literacy can be defined as to what extent consumers are capable of spontaneously retrieving persuasion knowledge while processing an advertising message (Buijzen & Mens, 2007). This can only be learned by trial and error with similar advertising practices, and successful application will lead to expansion and refinement of their advertising literacy (De Pauw, 2018). This application of advertising literacy is the other proceeding mentioned above. Retrieval of the knowledge alone is not enough to be successful as a defense mechanism against advertising; applying this knowledge is also necessary. Application of advertising literacy is defined as applying the relevant knowledge that is retrieved when the consumer is confronted with advertising (Hudders et al., 2017). So for recognition of the commercial persuasion intent to be successful, the adolescent does not only have to have certain knowledge or understand why advertisers do certain things, but it is also required to use this knowledge in the moments it matters. This part of advertising literacy is used as a process mediator in this research to understand the relation between disclosures and the attitude towards an advertising message.

As stated earlier, advertising disclosures help with activation of persuasion knowledge (Boerman et al., 2017). Disclosures activate the conceptual persuasion knowledge, which triggers critical attitudes towards the advertising message (Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). Disclosures can facilitate the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent of an adolescent.

This leads to the following hypotheses:

H2: Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in a higher likelihood that the commercial persuasion intent is recognized.

H3: When recognition of commercial persuasion intention takes place, the attitude of adolescents towards the message will be more negative (i.e. more skepticism and disliking).

2.5 Conceptual Advertising Literacy as Moderator

Conceptual advertising literacy consists of different types of knowledge needed to defend oneself versus advertising (Rozendaal et al., 2016a). People who are literate when it comes to ads have been shown to respond differently to advertising messages (Rozendaal et al., 2016a). We expect a moderating effect of this characteristic on the ability to recognize the commercial intent of an influencers' message, even when there is no disclosure.

Conceptual advertising literacy consists of various knowledge components. The first type of knowledge that is needed is the recognition of advertising, which can be seen as distinguishing advertising content from other content (Tutaj & Van Reijmersdal, 2012). Recognition of advertising is a crucial component in activating other persuasion knowledge which consumers need to cope with advertised content (Brown et al., 2016). After a distinction is made between advertisement and other content, adolescents also need to understand the selling intent of an advertisement. This is the process where consumers have to understand that a message is created for the benefit of the seller, who tends to provide only the positive information of products (Attaran, Notarantonio, & Quigley, 2015).

When the selling intent is understood, adolescents need to understand where the message is coming from. Recognition of an advertising's source is the next component of conceptual advertising literacy. This means that the consumer understands who pays for the advertising message (Rozendaal et al., 2011). The source can have a strong influence on how consumers see the credibility and trustworthiness of a advertising message and to what extent they develop a favorable attitude toward the content (Shareef, Mukerji, Dwivedi, Rana, & Islam, 2019). Knowing what the source of an advertisement is, is not enough in conceptual advertising literacy. It is also important to have a perception of the intended audience. To what extent do consumers understand that an audience is targeted with a message (Rozendaal et al., 2011)? The targeting of consumers has become more and more easy with social media, relevant consumers can be reached on higher scales (Dwivedi, Kapoor & Chen, 2015). On the social network Facebook for example, companies can specify their target on many factors, like, gender, age, likes, interests, relationship status, workplace, education and even location (Funk,

2014). With such smart targeting, advertisers can reach the consumers they want to reach effectively, which makes it also more important for consumers to create a understanding about the audience targeted with a certain advertisement (Nadaraja & Yazdanifard, 2013).

Next to understanding the target audience and source of certain content it is also important to understand the persuasive intent of a message. To what extent do consumers understand that marketers try to influence their behavior (Crilly, 2011). This influence is not only exercised on their behaviour but also on their mental states, which makes it more difficult to understand for consumers (Moses & Baldwin, 2005). For understanding to happen it is important that the consumer puts themselves in the position of advertiser and applies their reasoning (Rozendaal et al, 2019).

Moreover the understanding of persuasive tactics is important knowledge in the context of conceptual advertising literacy. The adolescent should not only be able to consider the advertisers perspective but be able to think about the effects that such tactics should have on similar viewers (Rozendaal, Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2011). Adolescents are more likely to become suspicious and start considering these persuasive tactics when an ad is repeated often. This also happens when an ad features negative comparisons with competitors or ads use borrowed-interest appeals, where advertisers use an unrelated interest of the consumer to trigger interest in their product or service (Fransen, Verlegh, Kirmani, & Smit, 2015).

The final knowledge needed to have sufficient conceptual advertising literacy is the understanding of the advertising's bias. This bias is about the discrepancies between the advertised and actual product (Rozendaal et al., 2016b). In conceptual advertising literacy, the difficulty of the knowledge the adolescents need to understand increased step by step from recognizing a message is advertisement to thinking as an advertiser and understanding the effects of their actions (Rozendaal et al., 2016b).

This leads to the following hypothesis:

H4: Conceptual advertising literacy has a moderating influence on the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent. Adolescents who score high on conceptual advertising literacy are more likely to recognize commercial persuasion intent of a message.

2.6 Parasocial Identification as Moderator

Parasocial relations could have a moderating effect on the influence of disclosures on advertising literacy of children. To determine if this is the case, parasocial relations should be defined first. A parasocial relation can be seen as the illusion of having a relationship on a personal basis with a media personality (Horton & Wohl, 1956). Children perceive their favorite media characters as friends they can trust, which also means they estimate the credibility of

these characters higher (Calvert, Richards, Jordon, & Romer, 2014). Parasocial relationships develop, and people perceive more and more similarities with a media character. Because of these similarities the uncertainty about such a media character reduces over time (Lee & Watkins, 2016). A concept similar to parasocial relationships is the concept of parasocial interactions. The difference between these concepts is that the parasocial relationships are more of an enduring relationship that encompasses more than one exposure (Boerman & Van Reijmersdaal, 2019). In this research these concepts will be used interchangeably.

Parasocial relationships are also different than (inter)personal relationships. The differences can be found based on three factors (Yuan, Kim, & Kim, 2016). The first factor is proximity, which is seen as interaction where both parties are co-present. This has to be physical presence for a relationship to be (inter)personal, since virtual presence is not a significant replacement (Urry, 2002). In parasocial relationships both communicating parties are distant from one another. The imaginary relationship alone is sufficient for most parasocial relationships (Giles, 2002).

The second factor which shows differences between the different relationships is similarity. The more individuals can identify with media characters, the more attractive those characters become (Yuan et al., 2016). Perceived similarity between the person itself and the media character is positively related with building a parasocial relationship (Tolbert & Drogos, 2019). In both the types of relationships people tend to like others who they see as similar to themselves on certain characteristics (Snijders, Steglich, & Schweinberger, 2007). The difference between (inter)personal relations and parasocial relations is that in parasocial relations, only one way wishful identification takes place (Hoffner & Buchanan, 2005). Wishful identification includes wanting to be like and behave similar to the media character (Bui, 2017). In (inter)social relationships, people want to be like each other (Snijders et al., 2007), while in parasocial relationships the viewer wants to be like the media character (Lim, Choe, Zhang, & Noh, 2020).

The third factor which shows the difference between the relationships is attraction, which plays a fundamental role in all relationships (Yuan et al., 2016). Attraction leads to parasocial interaction which leads to relational importance. The more viewers who like a media character, the more importance they attach to their parasocial relationship with that character (Kurtin, O'Brien, Roy, & Dam, 2018). The difference between parasocial relationships and (inter)personal relationships is that in parasocial relationships, this attraction only comes from the desire the viewer has to the media character (Dibble et al., 2016).

These parasocial relations are promoted by the new interactive digital environments like Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube (Kurtin et al., 2018). YouTube, for example, is seen as a technology of intimacy because of the illusion of closeness the videos create (Reinikainen, Munnukka, Maity, & Luoma-aho, 2020). Content creators on these new media environments like YouTube are able to interact more direct with their audience and get direct feedback, which enables the viewers to create parasocial relations very easily (Webster, 2019). The distinctions and boundaries between viewers and media characters are fading; viewers can now follow or be friends with media characters which reduces distance between them (Kurtin et al., 2018). Viewers can approach the media characters on these platforms which makes their relation seem more than a parasocial relationship (Hsu, 2020). The relation, however, is restricted to a parasocial relationship only because the media character determines to what extent interaction is possible (Stever & Lawson, 2013). Interaction also enhances parasocial relations; interactivity and referring to viewers by their usernames has been found to improve the experience and relationship (Labrecque, 2014). The possibility for interaction, perceived closeness of viewers, and fading boundaries make these new social media environments ideal for parasocial relationships (Reinikainen et al, 2020).

Parasocial identification is important for this research because it is expected to have a moderating effect between disclosures and advertising knowledge (Hwang & Zhang, 2018). Because the media characters are seen as friends, the viewers expect less ulterior motives from them (Van Dam & Van Reijmersdaal, 2019). Because viewers do not really expect marketing motives, advertising knowledge is less easily triggered, which increases the impact the influencer content has (Van Dam et al., 2019). This shows that the persuasion knowledge of a viewer is influenced by parasocial relationships (De Jans, Cauberghe, & Hudders, 2018).

Disclosures and parasocial relationships are also related. Boerman et al. (2017) showed that persuasion is reduced when influencers disclose that they are sponsored. They also showed that this effect did not occur when a brand disclosed sponsoring in a message. Wood and Quinn. (2003) showed that people who get a forewarning generate resistance towards the thing they are warned for. However, disclosures do not damage the parasocial relationship a viewer has with a media character (Boerman, 2020). The parasocial relationships did not diminish after disclosure and ad recognition in their study. The effect of disclosures, however, is reduced by parasocial relationships. Even when viewers recognize the marketing intentions because of disclosures, they still have a tendency to buy because they see the media characters as trustworthy because of the parasocial relationship (Isaac & Grayson, 2017). Choosing to use a disclosure can even strengthen the trust and satisfaction in the relationship as the consumers

appreciate the transparency of the media character (Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). Disclosures do not necessarily trigger the activation of persuasion knowledge. The viewers may perceive an advertising disclosure as an honest action, reflecting the fairness of the media character, which in turn decreases the negative effects of advertising disclosures and can even lead to an increased parasocial relationship (De Jans et al., 2018).

This leads to the following hypothesis:

H5: Parasocial identification is expected to have a moderating effect on consumers’ attitudes towards the message when recognizing a commercial intent of a message. In other words, respondents who identify with the influencer are less likely to have negative attitudes (i.e. skepticism and dislike) towards the message than respondents that do not identify with the influencer.

2.7 Hypotheses and Conceptual Model

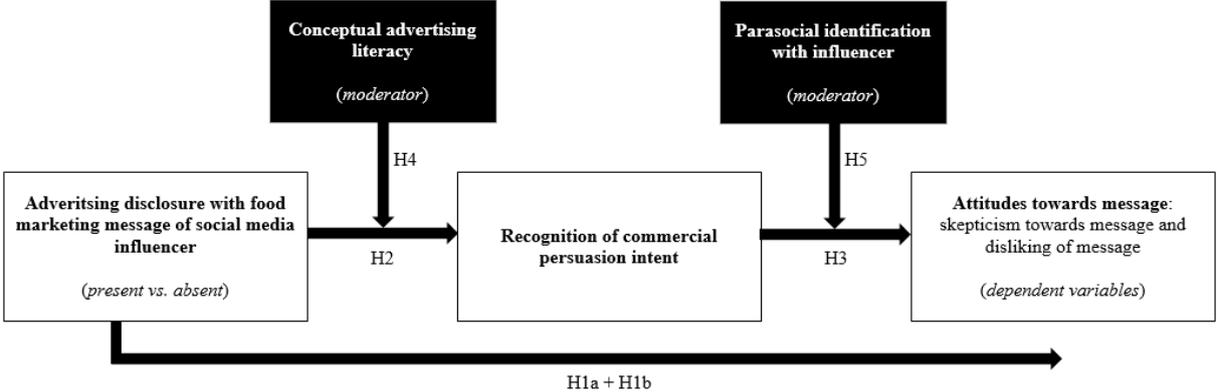


Figure 2. Conceptual model and hypotheses

This research ultimately wants to show what the effect of disclosures in social media influencer messages are on young consumers’ attitude towards the message (i.e. skepticism and dislike). For adolescents to reach a critical view towards influencers’ commercial messages, they need to possess a certain level of advertising literacy (Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). Adolescents have to recognize the commercial persuasion intent of influencer content, and so increase their level of advertising literacy to become more critical (Hudders, Cauberghe, & Panic, 2016). This critical attitude is needed for adolescents to become skeptic or to get a negative attitude towards an influencer message. Figure 2 shows how the concepts mentioned above come together, combined with the hypotheses of this research, this model is explained more elaborately.

Advertising disclosures help in increasing the recognition of commercial persuasion intent in influencer messages (Wojdyski & Evans, 2016). These recognition levels are influenced by the use of disclosures. This leads to the first two hypotheses:

H1a: Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in higher skepticism towards the message.

H1b: Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in higher dislike ratings of the message.

H2: Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in a higher likelihood that the commercial persuasion intent is recognized

The bigger the extent of recognition in such situations, the higher their level of skepticism towards or disliking of a message is. The more the adolescents feel that the influencer is trying to manipulate them and is focusing on their personal financial interests instead of being unbiased, the more skeptical they get (Koslow, 2000). Also, the more advertising literacy the adolescents have, the easier this critical view will develop and the more the credibility of the message will be damaged (Hudders, Cauberghe, & Panic, 2016). This leads to the third hypothesis:

H3: When recognition of commercial persuasion intention takes place, the attitude of adolescents towards the message will be more negative (i.e. more skepticism and disliking)

Conceptual advertising literacy is the ability to recognize and understand advertising messages. People who are literate when it comes to ads have been shown to be more critical towards advertising messages (Rozendaal et al., 2016). We expect a moderating effect of this personality characteristic on the ability to recognize the commercial intent of a influencers' message, even when there is no disclosure. Adolescents have a certain level of conceptual advertising literacy. The higher this level, the higher the chance that they recognize the commercial persuasion intent of influencer advertising. This leads to the fourth hypothesis:

H4: Conceptual advertising literacy has a moderating influence on the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent by disclosures, in that adolescents who score high on conceptual advertising literacy are more likely to recognize commercial persuasion intent of message without a disclosure.

The more the adolescents recognize the commercial persuasion intent, the more skeptic they become towards the ad or the less they will like the ad is not necessarily the case. A part

of the adolescents is assumed to have built a parasocial relationship with the influencer which exposes them to the ad. This parasocial relation could have a moderating effect on the development of skepticism and how much they like an advertisement. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H5: Parasocial identification is expected to have a moderating effect on consumers' attitudes towards the message when recognizing a commercial intent of a message. In other words, respondents who identify with the influencer are less likely to have negative attitudes (i.e. skepticism and dislike) when exposed to messages with a disclosure.

3. Methodology

3.1 Design

A between-subjects experiment was carried out in which one factor was manipulated: disclosure of commercial intent versus no disclosure at the start of a video of an influencer. In the control condition the respondents were exposed to influencer advertisement without a disclosure. In the experimental condition the respondents were exposed to the same advertisement but now there was a disclosure present. In this research, a between-subject design is used as the respondents will only experience one of the two conditions without knowing this from one another. For the 147 respondents that participated, 62 respondents were in the experimental condition and 85 respondents in the control condition.

In this research, the content of famous Dutch YouTuber Jeremy Frieser was used to get to the results. He is a popular influencer for the target group we chose in this research, as he was chosen to be the most popular Vlogger and comedy YouTuber in the 2019 VEED Awards (VEED, 2019). This is a Dutch YouTube award show where the viewers decide the winners. A certain fragment of a video on his YouTube channel will be used for the purposes of this research. This is a video in which he advertises Fanta products (Frieser, 2019). The used fragment has a duration of approximately one minute. In the original video, there were no disclosures included (see Figure 3), in the manipulation however disclosures were added (see Figure 4 and 5) considering the research of Rozendaal & van Reijmersdal (2017). As already mentioned in the theory chapter of this research Coursaris et al. (2018) suggested to use two different disclosures in one video to increase recognition of advertisement. That is why there are two disclosures implemented in the experimental condition of this research. One disclosure was visible for three seconds before the video started. The other disclosure was visible at the bottom of the screen for the beginning of the video to remind the adolescents of the message.



Figure 3. Video without disclosure (Frieser, 2019)



Figure 4. Disclosure used before video (own photo)



Figure 5. Disclosure used during video (Frieser, 2019)

3.2 Procedure

After providing informed consent, the adolescents were told that they participated into a research about vlogs. The adolescents were asked to watch the video that was randomly assigned to them (with or without disclosures). After that, the adolescents were asked to answer some questions about the video. Before they started, they were assured that there were no right or wrong answers and their opinion mattered. The adolescents filled in the survey from their own devices. The survey started with the video, followed up by questions about their attitude towards the video and whether they recognized the commercial intent of the video. After these questions, the survey continued with questions about their conceptual advertising knowledge and their parasocial relationship with the influencer. The survey ended with a manipulation check and some control variables, for example if they watch the videos of this influencer frequently or if they use the product used in the video regularly. After that, we asked about some characteristics of the adolescents (for example their age and gender), thanked them for their participation, and debriefed them.

3.3 Respondents

This survey was distributed with the use of social media (Facebook, Instagram, and WhatsApp). The target group of this research are adolescents aged 16 to 21 years old. As already stated, this choice has been made because adolescents in this age are progressed to a

more adult-like thought pattern but are still able to learn new cognitive skills (Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2017).

3.4 Measures

3.4.1 Dependent variable: skepticism and disliking towards an advertisement. To measure the dependent variable of skepticism and disliking towards an advertisement, items from the research of Rozendaal et al. (2016) were used. Both the constructs were measured on five point scales. To measure skepticism, the five following statements were used: “To what extent to you think the video you just watched is fair (reverse), tells things that are untrue, tells the truth (reverse), is lying, or is trustworthy (reverse)?” We asked all those items separately, followed by the same kind of statements to measure the disliking part of the dependent variable. To measure disliking, we gave the adolescents the statements: “To what extent do you think the video you just watched is nice (reverse), funny (reverse), boring, beautiful (reverse), stupid, or ugly?”

3.4.2 Mediator: recognition of commercial persuasion intent. The mediator “recognition of commercial persuasion intent” was measured by giving the respondents a statement to which they can agree or disagree. The statement was: “Jeremy Frieser was being paid by Fanta in this video to show their product.” This was measured with a five-point scale, ranging from one (highly unlikely) to five (highly likely). By doing this, it will be clear to what extent the respondents had a recognition of the commercial persuasion intent.

3.4.3 Moderators: conceptual advertising literacy and parasocial relationships. Based on the research of Rozendaal et al. (2016), we developed four items on a five-point scale to measure the conceptual advertising literacy of the adolescents. The first item is used to measure the understanding of the selling intent; “It’s clear for me when social media content is trying to make me buy stuff.” The second item was meant to measure the recognition of the advertising’s source; “It is always clear when videos on social media are advertisements or not.” The final two items were to measure to what extent the respondents understand the persuasive intent and persuasive tactics of the content. These items are “Social media posts about products are meant to make you think positively about the certain product.” and “I have difficulties with social media posts that make me want to buy products”(reverse).

The last construct that needed to be measured is the influence of the second moderator, parasocial relation. This will be done by using the items from Boerman (2020). The respondents are asked to indicate on a five-point scale to what extend they agree with the following statements: ”Jeremy Frieser seems to understand the things I want to know”, “I would like to meet Jeremy Frieser in person”, “When I see a video of Jeremy Frieser, I feel as if I am part of

the group”, “Jeremy Frieser feels like an old friend”, and “I like to compare my ideas with what Jeremy Frieser says”. Next to these items, another item is added; “How often do you watch the content of this influencer?” This question is added to check how strong the relationship between the respondent and the influencer is.

3.5 Manipulation Check

It is important to check if the respondents noticed the disclosure. That is why we included a disclosure check in this research. This was done by asking if the adolescents noticed the disclosure before the video started and/or the disclosure during the video. This was done with the following question: “Did you see a warning in the video, warning you for advertisement?” There were four possibilities for the respondents to answer, the first being “No, I did not see something like that”, the second “Yes, I saw a warning before the video started”, the third; “Yes, I saw a warning during the video in the bottom of the screen”, and the final being “Yes, I saw a warning before the video started and a warning during the video in the bottom of the screen.”

3.6 Control Variables

To control the chosen variables, we asked the adolescents how often they used the product which was advertised in the video. Furthermore, we asked them about their familiarity with the YouTuber and how often they watched his videos on YouTube. The following questions were used to measure these variables. To check the familiarity with Jeremy Frieser, we asked “To what extent did you already know the YouTuber, Jeremy Frieser?” with the following answering possibilities: “I had never heard of Jeremy Frieser”, “I heard of Jeremy Frieser but never saw his videos”, “Once in a while I watch some videos of Jeremy Frieser”, and “I watch the videos of Jeremy Frieser regularly.” Next to that, the following question was used to measure the familiarity with the brand Fanta: “To what extent do you know the brand Fanta?” with the answering possibilities varying from “I am not familiar with the brand Fanta” to “I am very familiar with the brand Fanta.”

3.7 Data Analysis

Randomization checks were conducted on the two conditions used in this research to check whether participants were divided equally across conditions with regard to age and gender. The conditions did not differ on the variables measured ($p > .05$, see Table 2). Randomization checks were also conducted for age and gender, which were also equally divided (see Table 2). Furthermore, the items that were measured with reversed questions were reversed in the results.

To check hypothesis 1, the difference in skepticism and dislike ratings between the two conditions needed to be examined. To do this, an ANCOVA was used to check if there is a significant difference between the conditions. Such an ANCOVA test was also used to measure if there were differences in the recognition of commercial persuasion intent for the second hypothesis. To prove the third hypothesis, a linear regression analysis was needed to show the relation between recognition of commercial persuasion intent and negative attitudes toward a message. For the fourth and fifth hypotheses, a moderation analysis was performed. The moderation was analyzed using the interaction effect of the moderator and the independent variable in a linear regression. To check the fourth hypothesis it was required to check the moderating influence of conceptual advertising literacy on the effect found in the second hypothesis. For the fifth hypothesis, the moderating effect of parasocial identification on the relation between the recognition of commercial persuasion intent and negative attitudes towards a message was also checked with a linear regression analysis.

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive Information and Randomization Check

In total, there were 147 respondents that participated in the survey. The sample included 109 women, 37 men and one of the respondents wanted to keep this information private. The youngest respondent was 16 years old and the oldest was 21 years old ($M = 19.4$, $SD = 1.5$). Most respondents were 20 or 21 years old. ANOVA and Pearson χ^2 analysis did not show significant differences between the two conditions in age ($F(1,145) = 1.618$, $p = .205$) and gender ($\chi^2 = 1.170$, $p = .557$). In the disclosure condition (22.6% male, 77.4% female) the average age was 19.2 years ($SD = 1.5$, range 16-21), and in the non-disclosure condition (27.1% male, 71.8% female, 1.2% other) the average age was 19.5 years ($SD = 1.5$, range 16-21) (see Table 1). Pearson correlations showed that the control variables age and “Did you already know the influencer?” significantly correlated with the dependent variable disliking (see Table 2). Age had a positive correlation with disliking ($r = .191$, $p = .021$). The older the respondents, the more they disliked the message. Because of this correlation, age was taken into account in as a covariate for the first two hypotheses. The variable “Did you already know the influencer?” had a negative correlation with disliking ($r = -.258$, $p = .002$), which means when the respondents knew Jeremy Frieser, they disliked the message less. The other control variables (Gender and “Did you already know the brand?”) did not correlate with the dependent variables (Skepticism and Disliking) in this study.

Table 1
Characteristics of study respondents

Condition	Disclosure	Non- Disclosure
Gender		
Male	14 (22.6%)	23 (27.1%)
Female	48 (77.4%)	61 (71.8%)
Different/rather not tell	0 (0%)	1 (1.2%)
Total	62 (100%)	85 (100%)
Age (mean, SD)	19.2 (1.5)	19.5 (1.5)

Table 2

Pearson correlations between main variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age (Years)	-								
2. Gender (male N=0)	-.051	-							
3. Control variable Fanta ^a	.039	.052	-						
4. Control variable influencer ^a	-.299**	-.237**	-.179*	-					
5. Recognition advertisement ^b	.095	.086	.224**	-.049	-				
6. Parasocial relation ^b	-.213**	-.202*	-.171*	.630**	-.154	-			
7. Cognitive Advertising Literacy ^b	.062	-.091	.063	-.168*	.223**	-.188*	-		
8. Disliking ^b	.191*	.003	.002	-.258**	.104	-.464**	.278**	-	
9. Skepticism ^b	-.041	-.026	-.055	-.150	.020	-.292**	.244**	.298**	-
Mean	19.4	1.76	3.5	1.5	4.5	9.5	25.0	17.5	19.6
SD	1.5	.4	.6	.8	.9	4.3	3.8	4.8	3.6

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ ^a Measured by a 4-point scale (Range 1-4). ^b Measured by a 5-point scale (range 1-5).

4.2 Manipulation Check

The disclosure manipulation was checked by asking the respondents who were presented with a disclosure if they noticed the disclosure message during the video. Of the 62 respondents which were in the disclosure condition, 15 (24.2%) of them did not notice the disclosure. This means 47 (75.8%) of the respondents in the disclosure condition noticed the disclosure.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Before performing the statistical analyses to test the hypotheses, the descriptive statistics have been collected. This includes the number of respondents per variable, the

average, the standard deviation, the range, the minimum and the maximum. These descriptive statistics can be found in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Skepticism (Dependent variable)						
Disclosure	62	19.39	3.68	17	8	25
Non-disclosure	85	19.72	3.61	14	11	25
Dislike (Dependent variable)						
Disclosure	62	16.68	4.25	18	9	27
Non-disclosure	85	18.19	5.05	24	6	30
Recognition of commercial persuasion intent (Mediator)						
Disclosure	62	4.79	.52	3	2	5
Non-disclosure	85	4.24	1.00	4	1	5
Cognitive Advertising Literacy (Moderator)						
Disclosure	62	25.74	3.37	17	18	35
Non-disclosure	85	24.52	4.09	22	12	34
Parasocial relation (Moderator)						
Disclosure	62	10.32	4.78	20	5	25
Non-disclosure	85	8.87	3.82	20	5	25

4.4 Main Analyses of Hypotheses

4.4.1 Disclosure effect on dependent variable. *“Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in higher skepticism and dislike ratings of the message.”*

A correlation was found between skepticism and disliking ($r = .298, p < .01$), showing the dependent variables are positively linked to each other. To test the first hypothesis two one-way ANCOVA analyses have been done with “skepticism” as the dependent variable in the first analysis and “disliking” as the dependent variable in the other analysis. The variable

“condition” was used as the fixed factor in this ANCOVA and “age” was used as the covariate. This was done because of the positive correlation it had with the dependent variable disliking, as mentioned before. The ANCOVA analysis revealed there was no significant effect of disclosures on skepticism ($F(1,144) = .358, p = .551$) nor disliking ($F(1,144) = 2.882, p = .092$). This means that the first hypothesis cannot be proven for skepticism (non-disclosure: $M = 19.7, SD = 3.7$; disclosure: $M = 19.4, SD = 3.6$) nor for disliking (non-disclosure: $M = 18.0, SD = 5.0$; disclosure: $M = 16.6, SD = 4.1$).

4.4.2 Disclosure effect on recognition of advertisement. *“Compared to being exposed to food marketing messages without a disclosure, being exposed to food marketing messages with a disclosure will result in a higher likelihood that the commercial persuasion intent is recognized.”*

To test the second hypothesis, a one-way ANCOVA analysis was done with “recognition of commercial persuasion intent” as the dependent variable and “condition” as the fixed factor. “Age” was again used as a covariate. This ANCOVA analysis showed a significant effect of disclosures on the recognition of commercial persuasion intent ($F(1,144) = 17.517, p < .01$). The partial Eta Squared of this effect was .108. The covariant “age” did not have a significant influence on this effect. However, this was a positive significant effect which shows that the respondents who were exposed to a disclosure ($M = 4.9, SD = 0.4$) recognized the persuasion intent better than the respondents that did not see a disclosure ($M = 4.3, SD = 1.0$). The second hypothesis can be confirmed by these results.

4.4.3 Recognition effect on dependent variable. *“When recognition of commercial persuasion intention takes place, the attitude of adolescents towards the message will be more negative (i.e. more skepticism and disliking).”*

To test if there is a relation between the recognition of commercial persuasion intent and the dependent variables “skepticism” and “disliking”, two regression analyses have been done. The first regression analysis had “skepticism” as the dependent variable and “recognition of commercial persuasion intent” as the independent variable. This analysis showed there was no significant effect of the recognition of commercial persuasion intent on skepticism as a dependent variable ($F(1,145) = .056, p = .812$). The second regression analysis had “disliking” as the dependent variable and “recognition of commercial persuasion intent” as the independent variable. This analysis showed no significant effect of recognition on disliking as a dependent as well ($F(1,145) = 1.579, p = .211$). This means the third hypothesis cannot be proven; there was no significant effect found between recognition of the commercial persuasion intent and skepticism nor disliking. To make sure there was no relation between recognition and the

dependent variables, a correlational relation between the variables was checked. The Pearson correlations showed no significant correlational relation between recognition of the commercial persuasion intent and any of the dependent variables (see Table 2).

4.4.4 Moderating effect of conceptual advertising literacy on the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent. *“Conceptual advertising literacy has a moderating influence on the recognition of the commercial persuasion intent by disclosures, in that adolescents who score high on conceptual advertising literacy are more likely to recognize commercial persuasion intent of message without a disclosure.”*

To test the fourth hypothesis, the moderation of conceptual advertising literacy was checked by using a linear regression analysis. First, an interaction variable was computed to look at the interaction effect and whether or not such an effect is significant in predicting the dependent variable. The first variable used for this interaction variable was “condition”, which was multiplied by the “cognitive advertising literacy” variable. In the linear regression, those variables separately filled the first block of the independent variables while “recognition of a commercial persuasion intent” was used as the dependent variable. The newly computed interaction variable was used to fill the second block of dependent variables. Because no effect was found for the covariate “age” with the first three tests, the covariate was not taken into account for the moderation tests. After executing the test, the first thing to check was whether the model was significant without the interaction term, which was the case ($F(2,144) = 10.807$, $p < .01$). The second step was to check whether the model with the interaction term was still significant, which was also the case ($F(3,143) = 8.011$, $p < .01$). The third step was to check if the second model with the interaction term had significantly more variance than the model without the interaction term, which was not the case ($R^2 = .013$, $p = .137$). This means no moderating effect of cognitive advertising literacy was found on the relation between disclosures and recognizing a commercial persuasion intent. However, after checking the Pearson correlations (see Table 2), it was found that recognition of commercial persuasion intent does have a positive correlation with cognitive advertising literacy ($r = .223$, $p = .007$). Cognitive advertising literacy also has positive relations with both the dependent variables “skepticism” and “disliking” (skepticism: $r = .244$, $p = .003$; disliking: $r = .278$, $p = .001$). Despite these correlations, the fourth hypothesis could not be proven.

4.4.5 Moderating effect of parasocial relations on the relation between recognition and the dependent variables. *“Parasocial identification is expected to have a moderating effect on consumers’ attitudes towards the message when recognizing a commercial intent of a*

message. In other words, respondents who identify with the influencer are less likely to have negative attitudes (i.e. skepticism and dislike) when exposed to messages with a disclosure.”

To test the final hypothesis, the moderation of parasocial relations that consumers might have with an influencer on the relation between recognition of the commercial persuasion intent and the dependent variables (“Skepticism” and “Disliking”) is checked. The parasocial relation respondents had with Jeremy Frieser was measured in the survey. The Pearson correlations already showed there was a positive correlation between knowing this influencer and a parasocial relation ($r = .630, p < .01$)(see Table 2). To test whether this parasocial relation moderated the relation between “recognition” and “scepticism” or “disliking”, two linear regression analyses were used.

First, an interaction variable was computed by multiplying the “parasocial” variable with the “recognition” variable. For the first block of the linear regression analysis, “parasocial” and “recognition” were used as the independent variables. “Skepticism” was used as the dependent variable in the first analysis and “disliking” in the second. After executing the test with “skepticism” as a dependent variable, the model without the interaction variable was found to be significant ($F(2,144) = 6.750, p < .01$). The model with the interaction variable was also significant ($F(3,143) = 5.667, p < .01$). The next step was to check if the second model had significantly more variance than the first model, which was not the case ($R^2 = .021, p = .072$). Therefore, the fifth hypothesis could not be proven for skepticism.

The linear regression analysis was also executed for disliking. This test showed that the model without the interaction term was significant ($F(2,144) = 19.897, p < .01$). The second model with the interaction term was also significant ($F(3,143) = 14.281, p < .01$). However, the second model did not have significantly more variance than the first model ($R^2 = .014, p = .109$). This shows that the final hypothesis could not be proven for disliking nor skepticism. The moderating effect of parasocial relations on the relation between recognition and the dependent variables was not found. There were some correlations between the “parasocial” variable and the dependent variables “disliking” and “skepticism”. Parasocial had a negative correlation with disliking ($r = -.464, p < .01$) as well as with skepticism ($r = -.292, p < .01$)(see Table 2). This shows that the stronger the parasocial relation between the respondent and Jeremy Frieser was, the weaker their skepticism and the less they disliked the message of the video.

5. Discussion

The goal of this research was to get more understanding in how disclosures could lead to a more critical attitude of adolescents towards commercial persuasive messages in influencer content. This was studied using an experimental research design with two conditions: an experimental group which was exposed to a video message with disclosure, and an control group which was exposed to the same video without the disclosure. We examined whether this disclosure led to a more critical attitude by adolescents (i.e., skepticism toward and disliking of the advertising message). Furthermore, the moderating effect of conceptual advertising literacy and parasocial relations were examined. Findings showed a significant effect of disclosures on the recognition of commercial persuasion intent. 75.8% of the respondents who were exposed to the disclosure were later in the survey able to tell they saw the disclosure. This finding corresponded with the earlier research in this field (Wojdynski & Evans, 2016; Evans et al., 2017; Rozendaal & Van Reijmersdal, 2017; Coursaris et al., 2018; Dhanesh & Duthler, 2019). When compared to the other articles, the recognition of advertising in this research is higher. This could be explained by the disclosure used in this research which was created following all recommendations of the earlier research of Rozendaal and Van Reijmersdal (2017). The disclosure was clearly visible on the screen, was visible for at least three seconds, and had the right size and striking colours.

Disclosures did not have that same significant effect on skepticism and disliking, however. This could be explained by the fact that no effect was found between the recognition of commercial persuasion intent and the dependent variables “scepticism” and “disliking in this research. In other words, respondents who were aware they saw a disclosure did not become more skeptical towards the advertising message. They also did not dislike the message more than the respondents who did not see the disclosure. According to Dhanesh and Duthler (2019), conceptual persuasion knowledge should be triggered in order to trigger the attitudinal persuasion knowledge which includes skepticism and disliking. So, the lack of an effect of disclosures on skepticism and disliking could have been because the conceptual persuasion knowledge of the respondents has not been triggered. Another explanation for the disclosure to not have an effect on the dependent variables could have been the respondents. Both conditions scored relatively high on skepticism and also on disliking. The respondents in both groups already had a relatively critical attitude towards the message of this video. The non-disclosure condition had an even more critical attitude towards the message than the disclosure condition. This shows the critical attitude of the respondents was already developed without a disclosure.

The critical attitude of all respondents may have led to the finding that the effect of the disclosure on the attitude of respondents was not significant.

There was no moderation effect of conceptual advertising literacy found in the results of this study. The lack of an effect of conceptual advertising literacy on the relation between disclosure and recognition of the commercial persuasion intent could have been caused by the video used in the survey. The advertising message in the video could have been too obvious for respondents. As Youn and Shin. (2020) showed in their research, advertising literacy has to be activated when the advertising message is integrated in the content. It could be possible that the commercial intent of the video used in this research was obvious to the respondents. This may have caused the respondents to create a more critical attitude towards the message before activating their advertising literacy. A positive correlation between the recognition of commercial persuasion intent and conceptual advertising literacy was found. This means that higher scores on conceptual advertising literacy lead to a higher recognition of advertising like Rozendaal et al. (2011) already predicted in their article. However, the effect of conceptual advertising literacy has not found to be significant enough to moderate the relation between disclosures and recognition of advertising. Conceptual advertising literacy could have had a role in the process of creating critical adolescents, as it correlates positively with both skepticism as well as disliking. Conceptual advertising literacy could be used to optimize the use of disclosures by creating disclosures in a way that this literacy is activated in the most efficient way. Another way conceptual advertising literacy could be used in disclosure research is by using it as a mediator or dependent variable, rather than a moderator.

The effect of parasocial relations as a moderator on the relation between recognition of a commercial persuasion message and the dependent variables skepticism and disliking could not be found. This could have multiple reasons, the first being the weakness of the relation between recognition and the dependent variables as mentioned before. Next to that, the respondents scored relatively low on parasocial relation in the survey. This could have to do with the fact that 69% of the respondents did not know the influencer used in the survey despite him being a good fit with the target population. A positive correlation was found between the people who knew the influencer and parasocial relations. Both knowing the influencer and parasocial relations correlated negatively with the dependent variables. The limited number of respondents that had a parasocial relation with the influencer in this research could have led to the lack of an effect of parasocial relations. This was enforced by the limited moderating effect of the parasocial relations that were found.

This study has added value to the existing literature in confirming the relation between disclosures and the recognition of advertising. Next to that, the results of this study can be used in future research aimed at the protection of adolescents against unhealthy food advertisements in influencer content. The high scores on skepticism and disliking showed an encouraging critical attitude of adolescents towards advertising messages in influencer content. This research is also useful because it gives more direction for future research aimed at the role of advertising literacy in disclosure research. As the moderator effect of advertising literacy could not be found, future research could aim at using advertising literacy as a mediator or dependent variable as mentioned earlier.

This study focused on adolescents between the age of sixteen and twenty-one; this group turned out to be relatively critical towards advertising messages. This group was chosen because of the limitations this research had due to a lack of time and a pandemic. Future research should try to focus on children in different age categories to compare the results of the different groups to each other and see which phase in their education is the best time to teach them about advertising literacy. This research showed that adolescents already have a critical attitude towards advertising; probably because they already have higher literacy level than younger children. This also corresponds with the research of Livingstone and Helsper (2006), who show that younger children are more likely to be persuaded by advertising as they have a lower advertising literacy. This also could mean that focusing on younger children in disclosure research could be promising.

Respondents of this study were critical towards the advertising message. This could also have something to do with education, but as respondents' educational level was not measured, we do not know this for sure. However, since the survey was shared in social groups which exist out of university students and other students with a higher education, the expectation was formed that education was one of the main reasons the respondents were critical. For future research, it could be better to aim at more diverse groups education wise. Another improvement that can be made on this study is the used influencer content. The video used in this research had a quite explicit advertising message. In future research, it would be better to use ads better integrated in the influencer content. This would make sure the respondents would be required to activate the advertising literacy they have. Future research could also try to find a moderating effect of conceptual advertising literacy, but has to keep the some suggestions in mind: try to use respondents with a lower age or use a bigger variation of age groups, use a group of respondents with a bigger variation in educational level, and use influencer content with a more integrated advertising message.

This research used one influencer video and focused on the difference between respondents in the disclosure condition versus the non-disclosure condition. Future research should try to research disclosure effects by using multiple influencer videos (with and without disclosure) and determine if there is a difference between the two conditions. Participants should be shown multiple videos in one research, including videos with and without a disclosure. By doing this, the difference in attitude between disclosure and non-disclosure can be measured for the same respondent. Another way to improve the knowledge around disclosure effects is to look at the effect of disclosures on different types of influencer content. It is really interesting to see if there is a difference between beauty influencers and gaming influencers for example. Making a distinction between the different types of influencers could also help in measuring the moderating effect of parasocial relations. If different types of influencers are used, it is easier to make a distinction between the attitude respondents have towards the influencer they have a parasocial relation with and the ones they do not know.

This research could be used to further improve the regulations which exist around the use of disclosures in influencer advertising. As this research showed, disclosures can make sure adolescents recognize advertising messages in influencer videos, and these kind of disclosures could be helpful in the implementation of disclosure regulations for YouTube. This research also showed that a disclosure before the video is easier to recognize than a small disclosure in the bottom of the screen. This information could be helpful in creating disclosure regulations as well. The current research also showed that adolescents could develop a critical attitude towards a quite explicit advertising message in influencer advertising. This could lead to the creation of a standard in explicitness of advertising in influencer content. Finally, this research could be used as a source of inspiration to keep parasocial relations in mind in the creation process of disclosure regulations.

References

- Abratt, R. (2019). *The impact of influencer marketing on consumer based brand equity* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Alves, H., Fernandes, C., & Raposo, M. (2016). Social media marketing: a literature review and implications. *Psychology & Marketing, 33*(12), 1029-1038.
- Amazeen, M. A., & Wojdyski, B. W. (2019). Reducing native advertising deception: Revisiting the antecedents and consequences of persuasion knowledge in digital news contexts. *Mass Communication and Society, 22*(2), 222-247.
- Attaran, S., Notarantonio, E. M., & Quigley Jr, C. J. (2015). Consumer perceptions of credibility and selling intent among advertisements, advertorials, and editorials: A persuasion knowledge model approach. *Journal of Promotion Management, 21*(6), 703-720.
- Austin, E. W., Muldrow, A., & Austin, B. W. (2016). Examining how media literacy and personality factors predict skepticism toward alcohol advertising. *Journal of health communication, 21*(5), 600-609.
- Bauman, A., Rutter, H., & Baur, L. (2019). Too little, too slowly: international perspectives on childhood obesity. *Public health research & practice, 29*(1).
- Bladow, L. E. (2017). Worth the click: Why greater FTC enforcement is needed to curtail deceptive practices in influencer marketing. *Wm. & Mary L. Rev., 59*, 1123-1164.
- Boerman, S. C. (2020). The effects of the standardized instagram disclosure for micro-and meso-influencers. *Computers in Human Behavior, 103*, 199-207.
- Boerman, S. C., & Van Reijmersdal, E. A. (2019). Disclosing influencer marketing on YouTube to children: The moderating role of parasocial relationship. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*, 3042.
- Boerman, S. C., Van Reijmersdal, E. A., & Neijens, P. C. (2012). Sponsorship disclosure: Effects of duration on persuasion knowledge and brand responses. *Journal of Communication, 62*(6), 1047-1064.
- Boerman, S. C., Van Reijmersdal, E. A., & Neijens, P. C. (2014). Effects of sponsorship disclosure timing on the processing of sponsored content: A study on the effectiveness of European disclosure regulations. *Psychology & Marketing, 31*(3), 214-224.
- Boerman, S. C., Willemsen, L. M., & Van Der Aa, E. P. (2017). "This post is sponsored": Effects of sponsorship disclosure on persuasion knowledge and electronic word of mouth in the context of Facebook. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 38*, 82-92.

- Brown, R. E., Jones, V. K., & Wang, M. (Eds.). (2016). *The New Advertising: Branding, Content, and Consumer Relationships in the Data-Driven Social Media Era [2 volumes]: Branding, Content, and Consumer Relationships in the Data-Driven Social Media Era*. ABC-CLIO.
- Bui, N. H. (2017). Exploring similarity characteristics, identification, and parasocial interactions in choice of celebrities. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture, 6*(1), 21
- Buijzen, M., & Mens, C. (2007). Adult mediation of television advertising effects: A comparison of factual, evaluative, and combined strategies. *Journal of Children and Media, 1*(2), 177-191.
- Calvert, S. L., Richards, M. N., Jordon, A., & Romer, D. (2014). Children's parasocial relationships. In Jordan, A.B., & Romer, D. (Red.), *Media and the well-being of children and adolescents* (pp. 187-200). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Clow, K. E., & Cole, H. S. (2006). Skepticism of college students towards advertising and news reporting. In Kehoe W.J., & Whitten, L.K. (Ed.), *Advances in Marketing* (pp. 12-15). Mobile, AL: Society for Marketing Advances.
- Coates, A. E., Hardman, C. A., Halford, J. C. G., Christiansen, P., & Boyland, E. J. (2019). Food and beverage cues featured in youtube videos of social media influencers popular with children: an exploratory study. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*, 2142.
- Coates, A. E., Hardman, C. A., Halford, J. C. G., Christiansen, P., & Boyland, E. J. (2020). "It's Just Addictive People That Make Addictive Videos": Children's Understanding of and Attitudes Towards Influencer Marketing of Food and Beverages by YouTube Video Bloggers. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(2), 449.
- Contento, I. R., Williams, S. S., Michela, J. L., & Franklin, A. B. (2006). Understanding the food choice process of adolescents in the context of family and friends. *Journal of adolescent Health, 38*(5), 575-582.
- Coursaris, C. K., Van Osch, W., & Kourganoff, C. (2018). Designing the medium and the message for sponsorship recognition on social media: The interplay of influencer type, disclosure type, and consumer culture. *SIGHCI 2018 Proceedings*. 15.
- Coyne, S. M., Padilla-Walker, L. M., Holmgren, H. G., & Stockdale, L. A. (2019). Instagrowth: a longitudinal growth mixture model of social media time use across adolescence. *Journal of research on adolescence, 29*(4), 897-907.
- Crilly, N. (2011). Do users know what designers are up to? Product experience and the inference of persuasive intentions. *International Journal of Design, 5*(3), 1-15.

- Daems, K., Moons, I., & De Pelsmacker, P. (2017). Co-creating advertising literacy awareness campaigns for minors. *Young Consumers*.
- De Jans, S., Cauberghe, V., & Hudders, L. (2018). How an advertising disclosure alerts young adolescents to sponsored vlogs: the moderating role of a peer-based advertising literacy intervention through an informational vlog. *Journal of Advertising*, 47(4), 309-325.
- De Pauw, P. (2018). *Children's advertising literacy: empowering children to cope with advertising. A multiperspective inquiry into children's abilities to critically process contemporary advertising* (Doctoral dissertation, Ghent University).
- De Veirman, M., Hudders, L., & Nelson, M. R. (2019). What is influencer marketing and how does it target children? A review and direction for future research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 2685.
- Dhanesh, G. S., & Duthler, G. (2019). Relationship management through social media influencers: Effects of followers' awareness of paid endorsement. *Public Relations Review*, 45(3), 101765.
- Dibble, J. L., Hartmann, T., & Rosaen, S. F. (2016). Parasocial interaction and parasocial relationship: Conceptual clarification and a critical assessment of measures. *Human Communication Research*, 42(1), 21-44.
- Dwivedi, Y. K., Kapoor, K. K., & Chen, H. (2015). Social media marketing and advertising. *The Marketing Review*, 15(3), 289-309.
- Evans, N. J., Hoy, M. G., & Childers, C. C. (2018). Parenting "youtube natives": the impact of pre-roll advertising and text disclosures on parental responses to sponsored child influencer videos. *Journal of Advertising*, 47(4), 326-346.
- Evans, N. J., Phua, J., Lim, J., & Jun, H. (2017). Disclosing Instagram influencer advertising: The effects of disclosure language on advertising recognition, attitudes, and behavioral intent. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 17(2), 138-149.
- Fainmesser, I. P., & Galeotti, A. (2019). The Market for Online Influence. *Johns Hopkins Carey Business School Research Paper*, (18-13).
- Fam, K. S., de Run, E. C., Shukla, P., Waller, D. S., & He, J. (2013). Advertising dislikeability in Asia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 25(1), 144-161.
- Folkvord, F., Bevelander, K. E., Rozendaal, E., & Hermans, R. (2019). Children's bonding with popular YouTube vloggers and their attitudes toward brand and product endorsements in vlogs: an explorative study. *Young Consumers*.

- Fransen, M. L., Verlegh, P. W., Kirmani, A., & Smit, E. G. (2015). A typology of consumer strategies for resisting advertising, and a review of mechanisms for countering them. *International Journal of Advertising*, *34*(1), 6-16.
- Frieser, J. (Jeremy Frieser). (2019, June 4). The Message – Part 1: Een wens in het water! (Video). YouTube, retrieved from: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_RIyYeyVxYs
- Friestad, M., & Wright, P. (1994). The persuasion knowledge model: How people cope with persuasion attempts. *Journal of consumer research*, *21*(1), 1-31.
- Funk, T. (2014). *Advanced social media marketing: How to lead, launch, and manage a successful social media program*. New York, NY: Apress.
- Gaeth, G. J., & Heath, T. B. (1987). The cognitive processing of misleading advertising in young and old adults: Assessment and training. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *14*(1), 43-54.
- Giles, D. C. (2002). Parasocial interaction: A review of the literature and a model for future research. *Media psychology*, *4*(3), 279-305.
- Ham, C. D., & Nelson, M. R. (2019). The Persuasion Knowledge Model (1994–2017). In Rodgers, S., & Thorson, E. (Ed.), *Advertising Theory*. Abingdon, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Hoffner, C., & Buchanan, M. (2005). Young adults' wishful identification with television characters: The role of perceived similarity and character attributes. *Media Psychology*, *7*(4), 325-351.
- Holvoet, C (2018). Instagram Influencer Marketing: Een onderzoek naar de impact van sponsoring disclosure op consumentengedrag en de modererende rol van korting (Master Thesis). Retrieved from: https://lib.ugent.be/fulltxt/RUG01/002/482/473/RUG01-002482473_2018_0001_AC.pdf
- Hoogenraad, E. (2017). Mag sluikreclame door influencers?. VMT. Retrieved 3 Juli 2020, from http://www.vmt.nl/Nieuws/Mag_sluikreclame_door_influencers-170531083000
- Horton, D., & Richard Wohl, R. (1956). Mass communication and parasocial interaction: Observations on intimacy at a distance. *Psychiatry*, *19*(3), 215-229.
- Hsu, C. L. (2020). How vloggers embrace their viewers: Focusing on the roles of parasocial interactions and flow experience. *Telematics and Informatics*, *49*, 101364.
- Hudders, L., Cauberghe, V., & Panic, K. (2016). How advertising literacy training affect children's responses to television commercials versus advergames. *International Journal of Advertising*, *35*(6), 909-931.

- Hudders, L., De Pauw, P., Cauberghe, V., Panic, K., Zarouali, B., & Rozendaal, E. (2017). Shedding new light on how advertising literacy can affect children's processing of embedded advertising formats: A future research agenda. *Journal of Advertising*, 46(2), 333-349.
- Hwang, K., & Zhang, Q. (2018). Influence of parasocial relationship between digital celebrities and their followers on followers' purchase and electronic word-of-mouth intentions, and persuasion knowledge. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 87, 155-173.
- Isaac, M. S., & Grayson, K. (2017). Beyond skepticism: Can accessing persuasion knowledge bolster credibility?. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 43(6), 895-912.
- John, D. R. (2008). Stages of consumer socialization: The Development of Consumer Knowledge, Skills and Values From Childhood to Adolescence. In Haugtvedt, C. P, Herr, P. M., & Kardes, F. R. (Ed.), *Handbook of Consumer Psychology* (pp. 221-241). New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Kelly, B., Vandevijvere, S., Ng, S., Adams, J., Allemandi, L., Bahena-Espina, L., ... & Castronuovo, L. (2019). Global benchmarking of children's exposure to television advertising of unhealthy foods and beverages across 22 countries. *Obesity Reviews*, 20, 116-128.
- Khajeheian, D., Colabi, A. M., Shah, A. K., Binti, N., Radzi, B. W. M., Jasimah, C. W., & Jenatabadi, H. S. (2018). Effect of social media on child obesity: Application of structural equation modeling with the Taguchi method. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 15(7), 1343.
- Kim, Y., Cubbin, C., & Oh, S. (2019). A systematic review of neighbourhood economic context on child obesity and obesity-related behaviours. *Obesity reviews*, 20(3), 420-431.
- Koslow, S. (2000). Can the truth hurt? How honest and persuasive advertising can unintentionally lead to increased consumer skepticism. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 34(2), 245-267.
- Kranjac, A. W., & Wagmiller, R. L. (2019). Decomposing Trends in Child Obesity. *Population Research and Policy Review*, 39, 375-388.
- Kurtin, K. S., O'Brien, N., Roy, D., & Dam, L. (2018). The development of parasocial interaction relationships on YouTube. *The Journal of Social Media in Society*, 7(1), 233-252.
- Labrecque, L. I. (2014). Fostering consumer-brand relationships in social media environments: The role of parasocial interaction. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 28(2), 134-148.

- Lee, J., Kim, S., & Ham, C. D. (2016). A double-edged sword? Predicting consumers' attitudes toward and sharing intention of native advertising on social media. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 60(12), 1425-1441.
- Lee, J. E., & Watkins, B. (2016). YouTube vloggers' influence on consumer luxury brand perceptions and intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(12), 5753-5760.
- Lim, J. S., Choe, M. J., Zhang, J., & Noh, G. Y. (2020). The role of wishful identification, emotional engagement, and parasocial relationships in repeated viewing of live-streaming games: A social cognitive theory perspective. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 106327.
- Livingstone, S., & Helsper, E. J. (2006). Does advertising literacy mediate the effects of advertising on children? A critical examination of two linked research literatures in relation to obesity and food choice. *Journal of communication*, 56(3), 560-584.
- Martínez, C., & Olsson, T. (2019). Making sense of YouTubers: how Swedish children construct and negotiate the YouTuber Misslisibell as a girl celebrity. *Journal of Children and Media*, 13(1), 36-52.
- Mathur, A., Narayanan, A., & Chetty, M. (2018). Endorsements on social media: An empirical study of affiliate marketing disclosures on YouTube and Pinterest. *Proceedings of the ACM on Human-Computer Interaction*, 2(CSCW), 1-26.
- Mazur, A., Caroli, M., Radziewicz-Winnicki, I., Nowicka, P., Weghuber, D., Neubauer, D., ... & Hadjipanayis, A. (2018). Reviewing and addressing the link between mass media and the increase in obesity among European children: The European Academy of Paediatrics (EAP) and The European Childhood Obesity Group (ECOG) consensus statement. *Acta Paediatrica*, 107(4), 568-576.
- Meeus, W., Walrave, M., Van Ouytsel, J., & Driesen, A. (2014). Advertising literacy in schools: evaluating free online educational resources for advertising literacy. *Journal of media education*, 5(2), 5-12.
- Moses, L. J., & Baldwin, D. A. (2005). What can the study of cognitive development reveal about children's ability to appreciate and cope with advertising? *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 24(2), 186-201.
- Nadaraja, R., & Yazdanifard, R. (2013). Social media marketing: advantages and disadvantages. *Center of Southern New Hampshire University*, 1-10.
- NOS. (2020) Nederlanders zitten anderhalf uur per dag op social media. Retrieved on 28 February from: <https://nos.nl/artikel/2320098-nederlanders-zitten-anderhalf-uur-per-dag-op-sociale-media.html>

- Obermiller, C., & Spangenberg, E. R. (1998). Development of a scale to measure consumer skepticism toward advertising. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 7*(2), 159-186.
- O'Donohoe, S. (2001). Living with ambivalence: attitudes to advertising in postmodern times. *Marketing Theory, 1*(1), 91-108.
- Orben, A. (2020). Teenagers, screens and social media: a narrative review of reviews and key studies. *Social psychiatry and psychiatric epidemiology, 55*, 407-414.
- Piaget, J. (1964). Cognitive development in children. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 2*(2), 176-186.
- Potvin-Kent, M., Pauzé, E., Roy, E. A., de Billy, N., & Czoli, C. (2019). Children and adolescents' exposure to food and beverage marketing in social media apps. *Pediatric obesity, 14*(6), e12508.
- Reinikainen, H., Munnukka, J., Maity, D., & Luoma-aho, V. (2020). 'You really are a great big sister'—parasocial relationships, credibility, and the moderating role of audience comments in influencer marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management, 36*(3-4), 279-298.
- Rozendaal, E., Buijs, L., & Van Reijmersdal, E. A. (2016a). Strengthening children's advertising defenses: The effects of forewarning of commercial and manipulative intent. *Frontiers in Psychology, 7*, 1186.
- Rozendaal, E., Buijzen, M., & Valkenburg, P. (2011). Children's understanding of advertisers' persuasive tactics. *International Journal of Advertising, 30*(2), 329-350.
- Rozendaal, E., Lapierre, M. A., Van Reijmersdal, E. A., & Buijzen, M. (2011). Reconsidering advertising literacy as a defense against advertising effects. *Media Psychology, 14*(4), 333-354.
- Rozendaal, E., Oprea, S. J., & Buijzen, M. (2016b). Development and validation of a survey instrument to measure children's advertising literacy. *Media Psychology, 19*(1), 72-100.
- Rozendaal, E., & Van Reijmersdal, E. (2017). *Hoe kan de transparantie van reclame in online video's vergroot worden voor minderjarigen? Een literatuuronderzoek naar de effecten van vermeldingen*. Amsterdam: Universiteit van Amsterdam.
- Rozendaal, E., Van Reijmersdal, E., & Buijzen, M. (2019). Children's Understanding of Persuasion. *The International Encyclopedia of Media Literacy, 1-6*.
- Silverblatt, A., Miller, D. C., Smith, J., & Brown, N. (2014). *Media literacy: Keys to interpreting media messages: Keys to interpreting media messages*. Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, LLC.

- Shareef, M. A., Mukerji, B., Dwivedi, Y. K., Rana, N. P., & Islam, R. (2019). Social media marketing: Comparative effect of advertisement sources. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 46, 58-69.
- Snijders, T. A., Steglich, C. E., & Schweinberger, M. (2007). Modeling the co-evolution of networks and behavior. *Longitudinal models in the behavioral and related sciences*, 31(4), 41-71.
- Sokolova, K., & Kefi, H. (2020). Instagram and YouTube bloggers promote it, why should I buy? How credibility and parasocial interaction influence purchase intentions. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 53.
- Stever, G. S., & Lawson, K. (2013). Twitter as a way for celebrities to communicate with fans: Implications for the study of parasocial interaction. *North American journal of psychology*, 15(2), 339-354.
- The Dutch Advertising Code (2017). "The Dutch Advertising Code. With Information About the Working Procedures of the Advertising Code Committee and the Board of Appeal," Retrieved on 30 April from: https://www.reclamecode.nl/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/SRCNRCENboekje_oktober2017.pdf
- Tolbert, A. N., & Drogos, K. L. (2019). Tweens' Wishful Identification and Parasocial Relationships With YouTubers. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 2781.
- Tutaj, K., & Van Reijmersdal, E. A. (2012). Effects of online advertising format and persuasion knowledge on audience reactions. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 18(1), 5-18.
- Urry, J. (2002). Mobility and proximity. *Sociology*, 36(2), 255-274.
- Van Dam, S., & van Reijmersdal, E. (2019). Insights in adolescents' advertising literacy, perceptions and responses regarding sponsored influencer videos and disclosures. *Cyberpsychology: Journal of Psychosocial Research on Cyberspace*, 13(2), article 2.
- Van Reijmersdal, E. A., Rozendaal, E., Hudders, L., Vanwesenbeeck, I., Cauberghe, V., & van Berlo, Z. M. (2020). Effects of disclosing influencer marketing in videos: An eye tracking study among children in early adolescence. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 49, 94-106.
- Vanwesenbeeck, I., Ponnet, K., & Walrave, M. (2017). Young adolescents' advertising literacy and purchase intention in social network games: Influence of perspective taking and need for cognition. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 16(1), 23-33.
- VEED. (2019) Dit waren de VEED awards 2019! + Winnaars. Retrieved on 15 may from: <https://veed.nl/waren-veed-awards-2019-winnaars/>
- Webster, P. (2019). *Parasocial Relationships in New Media* (Doctoral dissertation).

- Willoughby, M. (2019). A review of the risks associated with children and young people's social media use and the implications for social work practice. *Journal of Social Work Practice, 33*(2), 127-140.
- Wojdyski, B. W., & Evans, N. J. (2016). Going native: Effects of disclosure position and language on the recognition and evaluation of online native advertising. *Journal of Advertising, 45*(2), 157-168.
- Wood, W., & Quinn, J. M. (2003). Forewarned and forearmed? Two meta-analysis syntheses of forewarnings of influence appeals. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*(1), 119.
- Wright, P., Friestad, M., & Boush, D. M. (2005). The development of marketplace persuasion knowledge in children, adolescents, and young adults. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 24*(2), 222-233.
- Youn, S., & Shin, W. (2020). Adolescents' responses to social media newsfeed advertising: the interplay of persuasion knowledge, benefit-risk assessment, and ad scepticism in explaining information disclosure. *International Journal of Advertising, 39*(2), 213-231.
- Yuan, C. L., Kim, J., & Kim, S. J. (2016). Parasocial relationship effects on customer equity in the social media context. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(9), 3795-3803.
- Zarouali, B., De Pauw, P., Ponnet, K., Walrave, M., Poels, K., Cauberghe, V., & Hudders, L. (2019). Considering children's advertising literacy from a methodological point of view: Past practices and future recommendations. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 40*(2), 196-213.

Appendix A

Table 1.

A Three-Dimensional Conceptualization of Children's Advertising Literacy

Dimensions	Components	Definitions
Conceptual advertising literacy	1. Recognition of advertising	The ability to differentiate advertising from other media content
	2. Understanding selling intent	The ability to understand that advertising tries to sell products.
	3. Recognition of advertising's source	The ability to understand who pays for advertising messages.
	4. Perception of intended audience	The ability to understand the concept of audience targeting and segmentation.
	5. Understanding persuasive intent	The ability to understand that advertising attempts to influence consumers' behavior by changing their mental states, for instance their attitudes and cognitions about a product.
	6. Understanding persuasive tactics	The ability to understand that advertisers use specific tactics to change consumers' attitudes, cognitions and behaviors.
	7. Understanding advertising's bias	The awareness of discrepancies between the advertised and the actual product.
Advertising literacy performance	8. Retrieval of advertising literacy	The ability to retrieve relevant advertising-related knowledge from memory while processing an advertising message.
	9. Application of advertising literacy	The ability to apply retrieved advertising-related knowledge to an advertising message while processing the message.
Attitudinal advertising literacy	10. Skepticism toward advertising	The tendency toward disbelief of advertising.
	11. Disliking of advertising	A general negative attitude toward advertising.

From “Reconsidering advertising literacy as a defense against advertising effects,” by E. Rozendaal, M. A. Lippierre, E. A. Reijmersdal, & M. Buijzen, 2011, *Media Psychology*, 14, p. 346. Copyright 2011 by the American Psychological Association.

Appendix B

Survey 1 (Control condition)

Q1 Welkom

Bedankt dat je mee wilt werken aan dit korte onderzoek over Social Media.

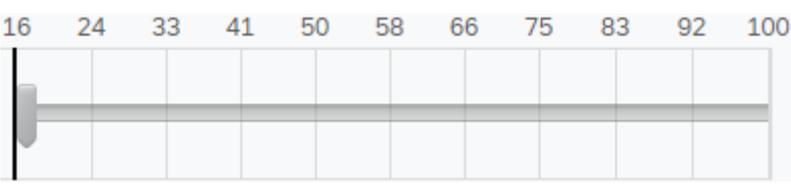
Dit onderzoek is bedoeld voor mensen tussen de 16 en 21 jaar oud. Het invullen van de vragenlijst zal ongeveer 5 minuten duren. Dit onderzoek gaat over vlogs van YouTubers en jouw mening hierover. We zullen eerst wat persoonlijke vragen stellen om te bepalen of je geschikt bent voor deze enquête. Op het begin van het onderzoek zul je een fragment van een video te zien krijgen, hierna vragen we je daar een aantal vragen over te beantwoorden.

Er zijn geen goede of foute antwoorden, daarnaast worden de antwoorden vertrouwelijk behandeld en zullen ze niet met derden worden gedeeld.

Druk op de pijl om akkoord te gaan en de vragenlijst te beginnen.

Q2 Wat is je leeftijd?

Mijn leeftijd is...



- Voorwaarde: mijn leeftijd is... is kleiner dan 16. Ga naar: Einde enquête.

- Voorwaarde: mijn leeftijd is... is groter dan 21. Ga naar: Einde enquête.

Q3 Wat is je geslacht?

- Man
- Vrouw
- Anders / Wil ik liever niet zeggen

Q31 Er zal nu een video volgen van ongeveer 1 minuut. We willen je vragen de video rustig en in zijn geheel uit te kijken. Nadat u de video afgekeken hebt kun je doorklikken naar de volgende pagina's waar we je een aantal vragen zullen stellen naar je mening over deze video.

Let op: Als je de video op je telefoon bekijkt is het het beste om naar rechtsonder te swipen en daar de video op volledig scherm te openen.

Q4 *Video of Jeremy Frieser without disclosure*

Q6 In hoeverre denk je dat de video die ne net bekeken hebt:

	Helemaal niet	Niet	Misschien wel, misschien niet	Wel	Helemaal wel
Eerlijk is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Een boodschap overbrengt die niet waar is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
De waarheid vertelt:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Liegt:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Geloofwaardig is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q7 In hoeverre denk je dat de video die je net bekeken hebt:

	Helemaal niet	Niet	Misschien wel, misschien niet	Wel	Helemaal wel
Leuk is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grappig is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Saaï is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mooi is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Dom is:	<input type="radio"/>				
Lelijk is:	<input type="radio"/>				

Q27 Hieronder wordt een stelling gegeven, waarbij het de vraag is aan te geven hoe waarschijnlijk je deze stelling vindt.

	Ze er onwaarschijnlijk	Onwaarschijnlijk	Noch waarschijnlijk, noch onwaarschijnlijk	Waarschijnlijk	Ze er waarschijnlijk
Jeremy Frieser, de YouTuber die de video die je net gekeken gemaakt heeft, is betaald voor het laten zien van Fanta producten:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q30 Op YouTube maar ook op andere sociale media kanalen als Facebook, Instagram en snapchat zijn Influencers actief. Deze influencers plaatsen regelmatig video's, foto's en andere posts hun social media kanalen. Dit wordt gezien als de content van een influencer. Hieronder krijg je wat stellingen te zien met de vraag aan te geven hoe vaak je denkt dat deze stelling van toepassing is op de influencer content zoals hier beschreven.

Q9 Geef aan hoe vaak je denkt dat de volgende stellingen van toepassing zijn op de hierboven beschreven content:

	Nooit	Bijna nooit	Af en toe	Vaak	Heel vaak
Het doel van influencer content is het verkopen van producten.	<input type="radio"/>				
Influencer content wordt gesponsord.	<input type="radio"/>				

Influencer content wordt gemaakt om me positiever te laten denken over een bepaald product.	<input type="radio"/>				
Influencer content is niet gemaakt om me een product te laten kopen maar om me te vermaken.	<input type="radio"/>				
Influencers geven objectieve informatie over de producten en diensten die ze laten zien in hun content.	<input type="radio"/>				
Een influencer maakt content over producten omdat hij/zij het belangrijk vindt dat zijn/haar volgers dit zien, zonder invloed van buitenaf.	<input type="radio"/>				
De influencer maakt content met als enige doel het vermaken van zijn of haar volgers.	<input type="radio"/>				

Q10 Je zult nu een aantal stellingen te zien krijgen. Deze stellingen gaan over de influencer/YouTuber Jeremy Frieser waarvan je zojuist een video hebt gezien. Het is de bedoeling hier aan te geven in hoeverre je het eens of oneens bent met de stellingen.

	Helemaal oneens	Oneens	Neutraal	Eens	Helemaal eens
Jeremy Frieser begrijpt wat ik wil horen.	<input type="radio"/>				
Ik zou Jeremy Frieser graag persoonlijk willen ontmoeten.	<input type="radio"/>				
Als ik een filmpje van Jeremy Frieser zie voel ik me deel van een groep.	<input type="radio"/>				

Ik zou mijn band met Jeremy Frieser omschrijven als die met een oude vriend.

Ik vind het fijn om mijn ideeën en gedachten te vergelijken met die van Jeremy Frieser.

Q11 Hieronder nog twee afsluitende vragen over de YouTuber, Jeremy Frieser en het product Fanta dat je voorbij hebt zien komen.

Q12 In hoeverre had je al eens gehoord van de YouTuber, Jeremy Frieser?

- Ik had nog nooit van Jeremy Frieser gehoord.
- Ik heb wel van Jeremy Frieser gehoord.
- Ik heb regelmatig van Jeremy Frieser gehoord.
- Ik volg Jeremy Frieser intensief.

Q13 In hoeverre ben je bekend met het merk Fanta?

- Ik ben helemaal niet bekend met het merk Fanta.
- Ik ben een beetje bekend met het merk Fanta.
- Ik ben bekend met het merk Fanta.
- Ik ben zeer bekend met het merk Fanta.

Q14 **Afsluiting**

Dit is het einde van de vragenlijst.

Vergeet niet je antwoorden op te slaan door op de pijl te klikken.

Heb je vragen en/of opmerkingen? Je kunt ze hieronder achterlaten of mailen naar tom.verhagen@wur.nl. Voor meer informatie over het doel van dit onderzoek kun je ook mailen naar het hiervoor genoemde e-mailadres.

Hartelijk bedankt voor het invullen van de vragenlijst.

Appendix C

Survey 2 (Experimental condition)

Q1 Welkom

Bedankt dat je mee wilt werken aan dit korte onderzoek over Social Media.

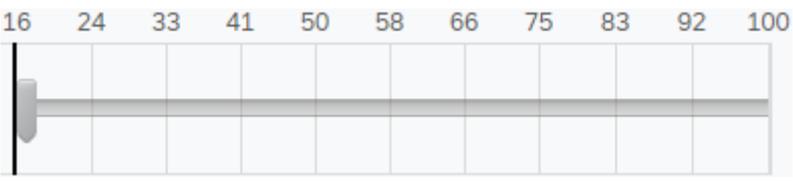
Dit onderzoek is bedoeld voor mensen tussen de 16 en 21 jaar oud. Het invullen van de vragenlijst zal ongeveer 5 minuten duren. Dit onderzoek gaat over vlogs van YouTubers en jouw mening hierover. We zullen eerst wat persoonlijke vragen stellen om te bepalen of je geschikt bent voor deze enquête. Op het begin van het onderzoek zul je een fragment van een video te zien krijgen, hierna vragen we je daar een aantal vragen over te beantwoorden.

Er zijn geen goede of foute antwoorden, daarnaast worden de antwoorden vertrouwelijk behandeld en zullen ze niet met derden worden gedeeld.

Druk op de pijl om akkoord te gaan en de vragenlijst te beginnen.

Q2 Wat is je leeftijd?

Mijn leeftijd is...



- Voorwaarde: mijn leeftijd is... is kleiner dan 16. Ga naar: Einde enquête.

- Voorwaarde: mijn leeftijd is... is groter dan 21. Ga naar: Einde enquête.

Q3 Wat is je geslacht?

- Man
- Vrouw
- Anders / Wil ik liever niet zeggen

Q 32 Er zal nu een video volgen van ongeveer 1 minuut. We willen je vragen de video rustig en in zijn geheel uit te kijken. Nadat u de video afgekeken hebt kun je doorklikken naar de volgende pagina's waar we je een aantal vragen zullen stellen naar je mening over deze video.

Let op: Als je de video op je telefoon bekijkt is het het beste om naar rechtsonder te swipen en daar de video op volledig scherm te openen.

Q5 *Video of Jeremy Frieser with disclosure*

Q6 In hoeverre denk je dat de video die ne net bekeken hebt:

	Helemaal niet	Niet	Misschien wel, misschien niet	Wel	Helemaal wel
Eerlijk is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Een boodschap overbrengt die niet waar is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
De waarheid vertelt:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Liegt:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Geloofwaardig is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q7 In hoeverre denk je dat de video die je net bekeken hebt:

	Helemaal niet	Niet	Misschien wel, misschien niet	Wel	Helemaal wel
Leuk is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grappig is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Saaï is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mooi is:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Dom is:	<input type="radio"/>				
Lelijk is:	<input type="radio"/>				

Q33 Hieronder wordt een stelling gegeven, waarbij het de vraag is aan te geven hoe waarschijnlijk je deze stelling vindt.

	Zeer onwaarschijnlijk	Onwaarschijnlijk	Noch waarschijnlijk, noch onwaarschijnlijk	Waarschijnlijk	Zeer waarschijnlijk
Jeremy Frieser, de YouTuber die de video die je net gekeken gemaakt heeft, is betaald voor het laten zien van Fanta producten:	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q34 Op YouTube maar ook op andere sociale media kanalen als Facebook, Instagram en Snapchat zijn Influencers actief. Deze influencers plaatsen regelmatig video's, foto's en andere posts hun social media kanalen. Dit wordt gezien als de content van een influencer. Hieronder krijg je wat stellingen te zien met de vraag aan te geven hoe vaak je denkt dat deze stelling van toepassing is op de influencer content zoals hier beschreven.

Q35 Geef aan hoe vaak je denkt dat de volgende stellingen van toepassing zijn op de hierboven beschreven content:

	Nooit	Bijna nooit	Af en toe	Vaak	Heel vaak
Het doel van influencer content is het verkopen van producten.	<input type="radio"/>				
Influencer content wordt gesponsord.	<input type="radio"/>				

Influencer content wordt gemaakt om me positiever te laten denken over een bepaald product.	<input type="radio"/>				
Influencer content is niet gemaakt om me een product te laten kopen maar om me te vermaken.	<input type="radio"/>				
Influencers geven objectieve informatie over de producten en diensten die ze laten zien in hun content.	<input type="radio"/>				
Een influencer maakt content over producten omdat hij/zij het belangrijk vindt dat zijn/haar volgers dit zien, zonder invloed van buitenaf.	<input type="radio"/>				
De influencer maakt content met als enige doel het vermaken van zijn of haar volgers.	<input type="radio"/>				

Q36 Je zult nu een aantal stellingen te zien krijgen. Deze stellingen gaan over de influencer/YouTuber Jeremy Frieser waarvan je zojuist een video hebt gezien. Het is de bedoeling hier aan te geven in hoeverre je het eens of oneens bent met de stellingen.

	Helemaal oneens	Oneens	Neutraal	Eens	Helemaal eens
Jeremy Frieser begrijpt wat ik wil horen.	<input type="radio"/>				
Ik zou Jeremy Frieser graag persoonlijk willen ontmoeten.	<input type="radio"/>				
Als ik een filmpje van Jeremy Frieser zie voel ik me deel van een groep.	<input type="radio"/>				

Ik zou mijn band met Jeremy Frieser omschrijven als die met een oude vriend.

Ik vind het fijn om mijn ideeën en gedachten te vergelijken met die van Jeremy Frieser.

Q37 Hieronder nog drie afsluitende vragen over de video die je gezien hebt, de YouTuber, Jeremy Frieser en het product Fanta dat je voorbij hebt zien komen.

Q11 Heb je een waarschuwingstekst gezien in dit filmpje dat waarschuwde voor advertentie?

- Nee, ik heb niks soortgelijks gezien.
- Ja, ik heb een waarschuwing gezien voordat het filmpje begon.
- Ja, ik heb een waarschuwing klein onderin het scherm zien staan tijdens het filmpje.
- Ja, ik heb een waarschuwing gezien voordat het filmpje begon en een waarschuwing onderin beeld tijdens het filmpje.

Q38 In hoeverre had je al eens gehoord van de YouTuber, Jeremy Frieser?

- Ik had nog nooit van Jeremy Frieser gehoord.
- Ik heb wel van Jeremy Frieser gehoord.
- Ik heb regelmatig van Jeremy Frieser gehoord.
- Ik volg Jeremy Frieser intensief.

Q39 In hoeverre ben je bekend met het merk Fanta?

- Ik ben helemaal niet bekend met het merk Fanta.
- Ik ben een beetje bekend met het merk Fanta.
- Ik ben bekend met het merk Fanta.
- Ik ben zeer bekend met het merk Fanta.

Q40 **Afsluiting**

Dit is het einde van de vragenlijst.

Vergeet niet je antwoorden op te slaan door op de pijl te klikken.

Heb je vragen en/of opmerkingen? Je kunt ze hieronder achterlaten of mailen naar tom.verhagen@wur.nl. Voor meer informatie over het doel van dit onderzoek kun je ook mailen naar het hiervoor genoemde e-mailadres.

Hartelijk bedankt voor het invullen van de vragenlijst.