

Native Advertising: Effective or Misleading?

Investigating the effect of disclosure within native advertising on the purchase intention, and whether this is influenced by the perceived deception of consumers.

Student Name: Merel Rosamarijn Krot

Student Number: 422943

Supervisor: Dr. Petra Tenbült

Erasmus School of History, Culture, and Communication

Erasmus University Rotterdam

Master of Media and Business. Thesis

June 20, 2016

Native Advertising: Effective or Misleading?

Abstract

In recent years, the use of native advertising has increased on news websites. Native advertising has developed into a popular advertising tool and can play a significant role in gaining a competitive advantage. Native advertising is seen as the answer to banner advertisements, which consumers perceive as disturbing and disruptive. Consequently, consumers avoid banner advertisement by using ad blockers. This leads to lower advertisement revenue for news websites, which is unfavourable. Hence, native advertising is proposed as the solution, as it is not seen by consumers as disturbing and disruptive.

However, some scholars argue that the success of native advertising relates to the consumers' inability to distinguish native advertising from the news website's own content. Furthermore, research about disclosure types and native advertising success is scarce. Hence, the aim of this research is to study three different disclosure positions in addition to no disclosure and to examine the effects on the purchase intention. Furthermore, this study involves the measurement of perceived deception to determine whether it influences the relationship between the different positions of disclosure and the purchase intention.

An online experiment ($N=120$) was conducted to reconstruct the appearance of a native advertisement. The findings of this study indicate that while consumers feel more deceived when reading a native advertisement, the position of the disclosure does not affect this feeling of deception or the purchase intention. In addition, the findings indicate that when a strong feeling of deception is perceived while reading the native advertisement, it negatively influences the purchase intention. While no significant results are found in this study, the findings tentatively suggest the use of a strong and prominent disclosure in native advertising to inform consumers about the origin of the advertisers, which is also supported by the literature. This could potentially help consumers feel less deceived and create a higher purchase intention.

The results of this study can serve as a foundation for future studies that aim to research the success of native advertising and the effects of disclosure. Furthermore, it is suggested to examine the brand attitude of the brand featured in the native advertising, to determine if a certain attitude effects the perceived deceptiveness or the purchase intention. In addition, this study discusses managerial implications and suggestions for future research.

KEYWORDS: Native advertising, news websites, purchase intention, deception, disclosure

Table of Content

Abstract and Keywords

1. Introduction.....	1
1.1. Problem Background	1
1.1.1 Ad Blockers	2
1.1.2. Native Advertising.....	3
1.2. Research Question.....	4
1.2.1. Sub Questions	5
1.3. Social and Academic Relevance	5
1.3.1 Social Relevance	6
1.3.2 Academic Relevance	7
1.4. Chapter Outline	8
2. Theoretical Framework	10
2.1. What is Native Advertising?.....	10
2.2. What is Disclosure within Native Advertising?.....	12
2.3. What is Purchase Intention?.....	14
2.4. How does Disclosure within Native Advertising Influence Purchase Intention?	15
2.5. What is the Relationship between the Perceived Deception and Purchase Intention?	16
2.6. How does the Perceived Deception Influence the Relationship between the Disclosure within Native Advertising and the Purchase Intention?.....	18
2.7 Summary	19
3. Methodology	21
3.1. Research Design	21
3.1.1. Quantitative Research Design.....	21
3.1.2. Stimulus Material	22
3.1.3. Sampling.....	23
3.1.4. Procedure	25
3.2. Operationalization and Measurements.....	26
3.2.1. Measurements	26
3.2.2 Manipulation Check	27

3.2.3 Confounding Variable,	28
3.3. The Analysis	28
3.4 Summary	29
4. Results	31
4.1 Data Screening	31
4.2 Descriptive Statistics	32
4.3 Internal Consistence	32
4.4 Hypotheses Testing	32
4.4.1 General Results of the Multivariate Analysis	33
4.4.2 Hypothesis A	34
4.4.3 Hypothesis B	35
4.4.4 Hypothesis C	36
4.4.5 Hypothesis D	36
4.5 Summary	37
5. Discussion and Conclusion	40
5.1 Discussion and Conclusion	40
5.2 Managerial Implications	43
5.3 Limitations and Future Research	44
5.4 Conclusion	45
References	48
Appendix A, The online experiment	56
Appendix B, Graphs	69

1. Introduction

In recent years, the appearance of online native advertising, also referred to as content marketing or advertorials, on news websites has been attracting more attention from advertisers and consumers and is proposed as the most effective advertising method (Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). In addition, most Dutch newspapers and news websites, such as the *AD*, *Volkskrant*, *Metro*, *NRC Handelsblad*, and *Nu.nl*, use native advertising (Van Wierden, 2016). However, while many scholars, advertisers, and marketers are positive about native advertising, some argue that this success relates to the consumers' inability to distinguish native advertising from the news website's own content (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015).

1.1. Problem Background

Since the beginning of the internet, people's lives have changed immensely (Schneider, 2011). In 1993, the internet had approximately 14 million users, which quickly increased to 1 billion users in 2005 and 2 billion in 2010. In 2014, more than 40% of the global population used the internet, which translates to approximately 3 billion people (Internet Live Stats, 2014). These numbers indicate that, at the end of 2015, more than 45% of the world population used the internet. As this number is so extensive, the internet is seen as a major opportunity for advertisers to reach consumers (Priyanka, 2012).

Over the years, online advertisements have changed as the web provided more opportunities for displaying advertisements (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Cormode & Krishnamurthy, 2008). It changed from simple forms of global advertising to a better integration of electronic commerce with multiple approaches (Schneider, 2011). Supported by the continuous rise of new technologies, online companies have the opportunity to create advertisements that fit the brand and can persuade the consumer to buy (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015).

However, consumers do not perceive all online advertisements as positive (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; The Economist, 2016; Van Wierden, 2016). As the number of internet users grows and the number of hours that people spend on the internet continues to rise, consumers are exposed to a significant number of advertisements. Consumers often perceive this as an annoyance. Usually, flashy banners, intrusive sounds, or moving images irritate consumers (Palant, 2011; Sandvig, Bajwa, & Ross, 2011). Moreover, this slows down consumers' computers and mobile devices (Chen, 2015; Palant, 2011). Therefore, consumers frequently install ad blockers to circumvent annoying advertisements.

1.1.1 Ad Blockers

In response to the annoyance consumers' experience regarding online advertising, ad blockers were invented (The Economist, 2016). Ad blockers, as defined by *the Interactive Advertising Bureau* (n.d.), are programs (usually in the form of an app) that people can install on their desktops and mobile phones to prevent advertisements downloading on webpages. Ad blockers reduce the number of advertisements displayed on consumers' desktops and mobile phones (Palant, 2011; Sandvig et al., 2011). According to research by PageFair and Adobe (2015a), there were 198 million active ad block users in 2015. Consequently, ad blockers have gained popularity among consumers because ad blockers offer them significant advantages. These advantages relate to certain problems that consumers encounter when encountering online advertisements and can be divided into three groups; privacy and security issues (Pikas & Sorrentino, 2014; Vratonjic, Manshaei, Grossklags, & Hubaux, 2013), distraction and disruption issues (Cho & Cheon, 2004), and functionality issues (Palant, 2011).

However, consumers' perception of advertising and the use of ad blockers have multiple negative effects on the business models of websites, such as news websites, the online gaming industry, social networking sites, and other technology websites that sell advertising space to advertisers (PageFair & Adobe, 2015b). Van Ammelrooy (2015) argues that especially news websites are targeted whose revenue models predominantly focus on online advertising. The news publishing industry has undergone multiple changes during the last couple of years, where the main change focuses on the shift from printed media to online content (IDIO, n.d.). When consumers try to circumvent advertisements (i.e. by using ad blockers), it has a negative effect on the revenue models of news websites as they sell advertisement space for the number of views or clicks an advertisement draws (Vallade, 2009; Van Ammelrooy, 2015). According to a report by PageFair and Adobe (2015a), companies will lose approximately 22 billion US dollars in 2015 due to ad blocking. As the losses are extensive and the number of ad block users keeps rising, unwanted and annoying advertisements are becoming a real problem for news websites. As a result, news websites are realizing that the traditional revenue streams of online advertising are not sufficient to support them in the digital age, and that new ways of advertising, which do not annoy consumers, need to be found (Sondermann & Tran, 2013; Van Wierden, 2016). For example, Aqsa and Kartini (2015) describe in their research that “effective advertisements” not only offer information, but also create a positive image of companies. Moreover, they propose that the placement and layout of online advertisements needs to be considered carefully because consumers readily regard online advertisements as annoying. In reaction

to problems that consumers encounter, a new form of advertising is proposed by scholars (Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015).

1.1.2. Native Advertising

In practice and in the literature, a new form of advertising raises a positive reaction from consumers, namely native advertising (Cho & Cheon 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). Native advertising is “paid content that matches a publication’s editorial standards while meeting the audience’s expectations” (Farnworth, 2014, para. 1). In online media, native advertising is currently one of the most up-to-date topics (Hoezel, 2014; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). In addition, marketers and publishers are positive about the developments of native advertising (Hoezel, 2014). One of the first webpages that used native advertising was *The New York Times*, with a *Dell* advertisement in 2014 (Sebastian, 2014). The advertisements resembled *The New York Times* news articles, but were ‘advertorials’ sponsored by *Dell*. The only way to distinguish a native advertisement from a news article is the presence of a disclosure in the form of the word “Sponsored” or “Advertorial”. Examples of native advertising of *Dell* within *The New York Times* and an example of the Dutch bank *ING* within the Dutch webpage *Nu.nl*, are presented in figure 1.1. Moreover, native advertising is proven to be more effective and draw higher click rates (and thus more revenue) than traditional (banner) advertising (BI Intelligence, 2015). As the literature argues for more “acceptable advertisements” (D’Onfro, 2015; Rothenberg, 2015), native advertising could potentially be the solution (Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015).

However, literature describes criticisms of native advertising that relate to the uncertainty about who wrote the advertisements and the ambiguity of the relationship between the news websites and the advertisers (Carlson, 2015; Hart 2014; Van Wierden, 2016). Native advertising is described as an effective new advertisement method (Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015), thus the question remains whether this is due to consumers not recognizing the content as advertising (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). Previous literature (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Hoy & Andrews, 2004; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015; Xie & Boush, 2011) expressed criticism about the disclosure and ambiguity of native advertising that could deceive consumers. Consequently, these scholars recommend further research on these topics. Hence, the next section outlines the research question and the proposed sub questions related to this research problem.



Figure 1.1: example of native advertising by the *ING* within *Nu.nl*, and from *Dell* within *The New York Times*.

1.2. Research Question

The previous sections demonstrate the conflict between consumer use of ad blockers and news websites that suffer consequently (Vallade, 2009). As scholars, professionals, and consumers demand a balance between advertisement and the consumers' perception of them, new ways of advertising need to be found (D'Onfro, 2015; Rothenberg, 2015; Van Wierden, 2016). Native advertising is proposed as the most effective advertisement method (Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). However, this could also be due to consumers not recognizing the content as an advertisement (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). In addition, when consumers feel deceived by the native advertising, their purchase intention of the product featured in the advertisement will decrease (Darke & Ritchie, 2007; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Newell, Goldsmith, & Banzhaf, 1998).

Therefore, this study researches native advertising and determines which position of disclosure participants recognize most. In addition, the purchase intention is measured to ascertain the success of native advertising, as this is the proposed variable to measure online advertising success (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). This study measures the effect of the disclosure in native advertising on the purchase intention, and how the perceived deception of consumers influences this relationship by conducting an online experiment. Additionally, this study provides insights for advertisers who want to ensure the strongest effect of purchase intention and news websites that are seeking a new way of advertising.

This research focuses on the news websites as this group encounters the greatest

difficulties regarding native advertising (Bakshi, 2015; Van Ammelrooy, 2015). Bakshi (2015) describes several reasons why news websites struggle to survive. First, the shift from print to online had led to plummeting revenue. Second, news websites are losing advertising revenue, as the options for advertising in different ways on the web have increased. This leads to the third reason, namely that there is more competition for advertising revenue. Moreover, advertisers use social media platforms more often than websites for advertising. Fourth, tools to measure the success of an advertisement are developing rapidly. Consequently, advertisers can directly view the outcome of an advertisement and adjust their direct future spending's accordingly. The current struggle of news websites presents an interesting research topic regarding native advertising, especially as the outcomes can directly influence the news websites.

Hence, to add to the existing literature regarding native advertising, disclosure, deceptiveness, and purchase intention, the following research question is addressed:

“What is the effect of disclosure within native advertising on news websites on the purchase intention and how is this influenced by consumer perception of deceptiveness?”

1.2.1. Sub Questions

To answer the research question, the following sub questions define the different areas of this research.

1. What is native advertising?
2. What is disclosure within native advertising?
3. What is purchase intention?
4. How does disclosure within native advertising influence purchase intention?
5. What is the relationship between the perceived deceptiveness and purchase intention?
6. How does the perceived deceptiveness influence the relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention?

1.3. Social and Academic Relevance

While the previous sections introduce the research field and the research question, this section outlines the social relevance (1.3.1) and the academic relevance (1.3.2) for this research to draw upon the research problem identified. The social relevance explains the need for more research about native advertisements to support the field and the use of native advertising on websites that will positively influence consumers. The academic

relevance examines the literature to draw upon previous research questions and provide an overview of the problem identified.

1.3.1 Social Relevance

Many scholars, advertisers, and marketers suggest that native marketing is the ideal method to create effective advertising (Hoezel, 2014; The Economist, 2016; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), and suggest native advertising as the solution to annoying advertisements (Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). However, research and literature about native advertising and consumer perception is limited. As native advertising on news-publishing websites is increasing and gaining popularity, this research will be of great benefit to practitioners in the field. Therefore, this research aims to provide insight into the potential of native advertising for marketers, advertisers and news websites and thus provide social relevance.

Furthermore, native advertising is an online-advertising trend among marketers and advertisers over the last few years (Hoezel, 2014; The Economist, 2016; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). Bakshi (2015) describes three reasons why native advertising appeals to advertisers and marketers. First, although never firmly stated, native advertising on news websites can be mistaken for content that is in fact written by the news websites. Bakshi (2015) refers to third party evaluation, where content from a news website is relatively trustworthy. According to Bakshi (2015), this can make consumers more willing to read, share, and address the content as true. Second, advertisers want to present content to consumers in a way that will interest or engage the consumer. As native advertising is created to fit the look and feel of the news website, this will most likely be a favourable written and visual style for the consumer and thus appeal more. The third reason relates to the influence advertisers can have by covering themes in the native advertising. For example, Bakshi (2015) states that "advertisers may want to raise awareness about a particular issue and, they may or may not want to be explicitly mentioned in relation to that issue" (p. 8). Furthermore, Bakshi (2015) argues that native advertising is often mistaken for news websites content and confuses consumers. This could then raise consumers' feelings of deception (Bakshi, 2015). Moreover, no empirical research examines the much-needed relationship between native advertising and the feeling of deception. It is especially important to be aware of the effects of deception in native advertising and its relation to consumers that could potentially be negative influenced by the feeling of deception (Bakshi, 2015). Therefore, this research will investigate the effect of disclosure on the perceived deception of consumers and thus provide social relevance.

1.3.2 Academic Relevance

The studies of native advertising and its effect on consumers have increased. However, literature on the effect of disclosure and the possible feeling of deception is scarce (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015; Xie & Boush, 2011). Most studies focus on the type of disclosure in native advertising (Rich, 2014; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015) and some studies briefly discuss the purchase intention of native advertising (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015), and the consumers' feeling of deception when exposed to native advertising (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Xie & Boush, 2011). Nevertheless, many scholars have recommended more research on the topic due to various reasons as outlined below.

First, it is academically relevant to examine the different positions of disclosure and to investigate the effects on the advertisement recognition. While Wojdyski and Evans (2015) state that native advertising has grown on the internet because of its effectiveness, the question remains whether this is because consumers do not recognize native advertising as advertising content. Wojdyski and Evans (2015) conclude that only 8% of the participants ($N=242$) in their research recognized native advertising as advertising content. The use of disclosures prevents consumers from feeling deceived or misled by providing consumers information about the nature of the advertising (Hoy & Andrews, 2004). However, in native advertising these disclosures have different forms, shapes, and languages (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). In their directions for further research, Wojdyski and Evans (2015) argue for more research on disclosure types, as only 8% of their participants recognized the content as being an advertisement. This research will focus on different positions of disclosure and will measure the advertisement recognition and thus provide academic relevance.

Furthermore, as mentioned in the social relevance section (1.3.1), this study provides insights to advertisers who want to ensure the strongest effect of purchase intention, as this is favourable in terms of revenue (Hoezel, 2014). In the literature, purchase intention is a measurement of effective online advertisements (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). When consumers find online advertisements annoying, there is a low intention to buy the products (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015). As native advertising is a relatively new form of advertising, research about the purchase intention in relation to native advertising has not yet been conducted. Thus, this study could benefit the existing literature and will reveal more about the alleged effectiveness.

Moreover, Xie and Boush (2011) identify the need for research about consumer perception of deceptive advertisements, as this could provide insight into the effect of

deceptive advertisements on different consumer groups. Therefore, this research examines the perceived deception of consumers and examines how this influences the relationship between the disclosure and the purchase intention, thus providing academic relevance. Boerman, Van Reijmersdal, and Neijens (2014) researched the disclosure of sponsorship and its duration on persuasive knowledge on television. The authors found that by exposing consumers to disclosers, consumers are better able to distinguish commercial from editorial content. However, this also might result in distrusting the sponsored content more and even in experiencing more critical feelings towards the advertising (Boerman et al., 2014). Russo, Metcalf, and Stephens (1981) state that an advertisement is misleading “if it creates, increases, or exploits a false belief about expected product performance” (p. 128). According to Xie and Boush (2011), “If the context of deceptive advertising, susceptibility refers to the extent to which consumers are more or less likely to acquire false information, from misperceptions, and engage in consumptive behaviours to their detriment” (p. 297). Xie and Boush (2011) argue for more research about the perceived deceptiveness of advertisements, as it could define deceptive practices more precisely.

Bearing the above-mentioned in mind, it is important to investigate the deceptiveness of the disclosure in native advertising and the effect on the purchase intention. Although disclosures are proposed as a way of effective advertising recognition, this could have a negative effect on the purchase intention of consumers (Boerman et al., 2014; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), which is not desired by marketers, advertisers and news websites. In addition, the negative feeling towards the advertisement could be derived from the perceived deceptiveness when consumers realize the content is an advertisement due to disclosure. Therefore, this research will benefit future research and can contribute to the creation of a framework. Furthermore, it adds to the knowledge of native advertising and provides suggestions for using native advertising on news websites.

1.4. Chapter Outline

This section introduces the reading guide of this research and then addresses the subjects of each chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction provides an overview of online advertisement since the beginning of the rise of the internet. This chapter then demonstrates a shift from successful advertisements to the negative reaction of consumers on online advertising. Hence, a new promising advertising method is proposed, namely native advertising. This chapter proposes multiple questions and views related to native advertising. Second, the research question and the sub questions are proposed to add to the existing literature. This chapter ends by

outlining the social and academic relevance. *Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework* is consisting of a critical review and analysis of relevant theories and prior research findings. This chapter includes several sections related to the theory and sub question proposed. This section answers the following sub questions: what is native advertising (2.1.), what is disclosure within native advertising (2.2.), what is purchase intention (2.3.), how does disclosure within native advertising influence purchase intention (2.4.), what is the relationship between perceived deceptiveness and purchase intention (2.5.), and how does the perceived deceptiveness influence the relationship between disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention (2.6.). Each of the sections, 2.4., 2.5., and 2.6., concludes with a hypothesis regarding the discussed effects in this chapter. *Chapter 3: Research Methods* outlines the research design. A detailed overview of the chosen method, the sampling method, measurements, experimental outline, and the procedure is provided. This is the foundation for chapter 4. In *Chapter 4: Results*, the results of the data analysis are introduced. In addition, the formulated hypotheses are tested and answered in this chapter. *Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion* concludes by answering the main research question in the conclusion. Finally, the thesis ends by examining limitations and reflecting on the used methods, as well as providing suggestions for further research.

2. Theoretical Framework

The second chapter of this research concerns a critical review and analysis of relevant theories and prior research findings. This chapter includes several sections related to the theory and sub questions proposed. First, section 2.1 will explain native advertising in the context of online advertisements and its revenue models. Second, 2.2 will explain disclosures in native advertising. Third, section 2.3 will give some background on the purchase intention in combination with native advertising. Fourth, the disclosures in native advertising will be discussed in combination with the effect on the purchase intention (2.4). Fifth, the relationship between the perceived deception of native advertising and the purchase intention will be discussed in section 2.5. Sixth, section 2.6 will combine the previous sections and will discuss the influence of the perceived deception of consumers on the disclosure and the purchase intention. This chapter ends with providing a summary of the discussed subjects.

2.1. What is Native Advertising?

Native advertising is a form of online advertisement. To provide a clear view on the description of native advertising, the context of online advertisements is described. Online advertisement is a marketing strategy that uses the internet to spread a promotional message that consumers will view on certain webpages. The goal is to generate increased visitor numbers to the company's webpages (online traffic) that present the company's products and services (Janalta Interactive Inc, 2015). Moreover, online advertisements can increase the number of sales of the advertised product by creating an established marketing program online (Armstrong, 2001). Internet marketing is referred to as “the marketing (generally promotion) of products or services over the internet” (Priyanka, 2012, p. 461). In addition, De Pelsmacker, Geuens, and Van Den Bergh (2004) state that online advertising can be defined as spreading a commercial message in standardized formats on rented spaces on websites of other companies. Aqsa and Kartini (2015) propose that online advertising has no geographical boundaries to reach consumers, which is one of the advantages. More advantages are mentioned in Berthon, Pitt, and Watson's article (1996), which includes awareness efficiency, contact efficiency, conversion efficiency, and retention efficiency of online advertisements. Furthermore, Berthon et al. (1996) describe the advantages in terms of measuring the success of online advertisements by a rise in active visitors to the webpage, purchases, and online traffic. As awareness and brand perception are two key strengths of online advertising, which can drive these factors to create a positive

image, companies recognize the significant potential of online advertising (Drèze & Hussherr, 2003; Goldsmith & Lafferty, 2002; Microsoft Advertising, 2008).

Furthermore, as the number of internet users continues to grow, the amount of spending's on online advertisements is also increasing. In 2012, 104.58 billion US dollars were spent on online advertising, which quickly rose to approximately 170.5 billion in 2015, and is predicted to continue rising to 252.02 billion in 2018 (Statista, 2015a). While there is a rise in online advertising, printed advertising is selling on a much lower scale, and is even experiencing a drop, from nearly 144 billion US dollars in 2008 to less than 121.2 billion US dollars in 2015 (Statista, 2015b). For instance, as one of the first websites to discover online advertisements, *Google* recognized the significant potential for websites to sell advertising space online (Schneider, 2011). As *Google* became more popular as a search engine and became one of the most important websites on the Internet in terms of users, it explored advertising and charged high rates for advertising space (Schneider, 2011). The more reach *Google* has as a webpage, the more reach advertisements on *Google* have. This, in turn, creates many opportunities for *Google* to implement certain revenue models.

Multiple revenue models are linked to online advertisements. Online revenue models are based on different strategies, such as CPM (cost per thousand impressions), CPC (cost per click), and CPA (cost per acquisition) (Stokes, 2009). In the different revenue model options, website owners charge advertisers a certain price per action. An advertisement based on CPM revenue model can be purchased on the basis of impression. In the CPC model, the websites owner charges the advertiser for the number of times an advertisement is clicked on and not on how many times it is displayed. The CPA model is seen as effective because advertisers only pay when the advertising has met its purposes. In this case, the advertiser only needs to pay when the advertisement delivers an acquisition (Stokes, 2009). The CPM, CPC, and CPA are seen as more traditional revenue models (Stokes, 2009), which due to ad blockers are no longer sustainable. Therefore, native advertising is based on a different revenue model, which seems to be more reliable than the traditional revenue models (Stokes, 2009). In native advertising, advertisers pay a fee to publish their advertising content directly on the webpage of a company. This content then resembles the content on the website and ad blockers will not stop the display of the native advertising, as it is an integral part of the website. As *Forbes* managing director Charles Yardley explains in an interview with *E-consultancy* reporter Simpson (2015), “When a brand posts a piece of content, the content experiences the exact same organic journey as content written by a *Forbes* staff journalist or contributor, enjoying the same distribution and visibility” (para. 5).

In addition, BI Intelligence (2015) researched the digital ad-market in the United States, where some of the findings referred to the use of native advertising as positive. The revenue from native advertising is increasing and is estimated to rise above 21 billion US dollars in 2018 (BI Intelligence, 2015). Moreover, native advertising appears to be performing even better than the traditional banner advertisement, which is perceived as somewhat disruptive (BI Intelligence, 2015). The click rate is reported to be higher in native advertising, which makes them more effective for promotion purposes. Furthermore, the report describes that consumers have a generally positive attitude towards native advertising when these advertisements are perceived as relevant and trustworthy (BI Intelligence, 2015).

Nevertheless, Yardley highlights the fact that transparency regarding the advertised content should be clear (Simpson, 2015). Previous literature (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Hoy & Andrews, 2004; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015; Xie & Boush, 2011) expressed criticism of the disclosure and the deceptive nature of native advertising. An article in the Dutch Newspaper *nrc.next*, also addresses this point (Van Wierden, 2016). Therefore, the next section introduces disclosure within advertising and examines the effects and previous literature.

2.2. What is Disclosure within Native Advertising?

Disclosures in online advertisements are used to prevent consumers from feeling deceived or misled by providing information about the nature of the advertisement (Hoy & Andrews, 2004). The effects of disclosure on the recognition and evaluation of native advertising was researched by Wojdyski and Evans (2015). They argue that native advertising has grown extensively on the internet because of its effectiveness. Marketers expect that, by creating content in the same format as the webpages, consumers will experience the advertisements as less disruptive and annoying (Benton, 2014; Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014).

However, the question remains whether this could be because consumers do not recognize native advertising as advertisements (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). Different scholars describe several critical viewpoints of native advertising that relate to the unclearness of who has written the advertisements and the ambiguity of the relationship between the websites and the advertisers (Carlson, 2015; Hart, 2014). As news websites are known for providing newsworthy information, native advertising could potentially disturb the relationship between the consumers and the news websites (Carlson, 2015). Wojdyski and Evans (2015) stress the importance of a clear disclosure as they determined that only 8% of the participants ($N = 242$) in their research recognized native advertising as

advertising content. Rieder (2013) adds, “The problem is that sponsored content appeals to advertisers because it feels more like news and less like advertising. That can be a somewhat slippery slope. It’s crucial to keep the boundary sharply delineated” (para. 5). In an interview with Steigrad, reporter of the *WWD* (2015), Baquet, executive editor at *The New York Times*, mentioned that it is important that consumers can easily identify the content as an advertisement and that the news websites have nothing to do with it.

Additionally, Friestad and Wright (1994) explain why certain content appeals more to consumers than others do. The recognition of the persuasive nature of the message can be anticipated by the consumers’ ability to effectively grasp the advertising message, as described in the Persuasive Knowledge Model (PKM) of Friestad and Wright (1994). Boerman et al. (2014) researched the disclosure of sponsorship on persuasive knowledge on television. The authors found that disclosure affects persuasive knowledge and sponsored content. However, this depends on the duration of the disclosure. Furthermore, the authors conclude that by exposing consumers to disclosures, consumers are better able to distinguish commercial content from editorial content. However, this also results in increased distrust of the sponsored content, which is further explained in section 2.5.

Nevertheless, in native advertising, most advertisements have some type of disclosure. However, these differ on different aspects such as language and position of disclosure (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). Nonetheless, scholars are inconclusive about the correct type of disclosure. The Federal Trade Commission (2015), Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015), and Wojdynski and Evans (2015) present three different views of disclosure, which are presented below. First, Wojdynski and Evans (2015) conclude that disclosure in the middle of the native advertising is more effective than disclosure at the top or the bottom of the page. This may be the case as consumers start to read in an F-shaped pattern and they may ignore a disclosure above the headlines (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). Another explanation could be that the content of native advertising is disturbed when a disclosure is placed in the middle of the content, which can attract more attention (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). Findings regarding language indicate that commonly used terms such as “Advertisement” or “Sponsored Content” could lead to more recognition than “Presented by” or “Brand-Voice” (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). Second, during a workshop called *Blurred Lines: Advertising or Content*, Federal Trade Commission’s director Rich (2014) adds that one of the important aspects is that consumers can distinguish native advertising from editorial content. Therefore, the *Federal Trade Commission* created a guidance list in December 2015 to demonstrate what native advertising should look like (Federal Trade Commission, 2015). The advertisements need the addition of the words “Ad”,

"Advertisement", "Paid Advertisement", or "Sponsored Advertising Content". In addition, the disclosure of the advertisement needs to be prominent. With these guidelines, the *Federal Trade Commission* aims to eradicate some of the ambiguity of native advertising (Federal Trade Commission, 2015). Third, Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) conclude in their research about the deceptiveness of editorial content that, even with a prominent disclosure, a large percentage of their sample did not recognize the content as an advertisement. They also propose the use of the advertiser's name in the disclosure, for example "Sponsored Content by [company's name]." However, Bakshi (2015) states that "when the corporate sponsor is disclosed clearly, the disadvantages of native advertising are largely mitigated and consumers can obtain benefits associated with new content that would not otherwise be available" (p. 15).

As purchase intention is proposed to measure the success of online advertisements (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), the next section focuses on the purchase intention related to native advertising.

2.3. What is Purchase Intention?

The term purchase intention is defined by many authors and is used to examine the willingness to purchase a product in the future (Bickart & Schindler, 2001; Doh & Hwang, 2009; Lee & Lee, 2009; Park & Kim, 2008; Park, Lee, & Han, 2007; Sher & Lee 2009; Xia & Bechwati, 2008). Aqsa and Kartini (2015) and Wojdyski and Evans (2015) use purchase intention in their researches as a measurement to determine whether an online advertisement is successful. In addition, companies can easily collect data about consumer purchase intention in order to predict more precisely the future sales of their products or services when examining the purchase intention (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015). Indeed, many researchers have found a positive relationship between purchase intention and purchase behaviour (Adams, 1974; Chen, 2007; Hidayat & Diwasasri, 2013; McNeil, 1974; Morwitz, Steckel, & Gupta 1996; Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005).

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) of Ajzen (1991) is widely used to research how consumer attitudes, social norms, and the perceived behaviour predict and affect consumer interests. According to Ajzen (1991), cited by Aqsa and Kartini (2015), "the actual behaviour of a person to perform a particular action is directly influenced by the behaviour intention, which is jointly determined also by the attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control such behaviour" (p. 234). Lee, Park, and Han (2008) define behavioural intent as a measure of consumer willingness to make an effort when performing certain behaviours. Ajzen (1991) adds that intention can be measured by how hard consumers will

try to perform a behaviour. In addition, Aqsa and Kartini (2015) explain that “attitude is organizing the process of motivation, emotion, perception and long-term cognitive and deals with aspects of the surrounding environment” (p. 231). Consumer attitude is measured by examining the attitude towards the advertising (Bhat, Leigh, & Wardlow, 1998; Okazaki, Mueller, & Taylor, 2010), and the attitude towards the brand (Spears & Singh, 2004). Aqsa and Kartini (2015) state that when an advertisement is perceived as positive, the attitudes of consumers towards the advertisement and brand are also perceived as positive. Therefore, “a good attitude will encourage interest from consumers to view, search information about the product and will ultimately foster an interest to buy” (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015, p. 234).

The next section introduces disclosure in advertisements and the effect on the purchase intention.

2.4. How does Disclosure within Native Advertising Influence Purchase Intention?

As previously mentioned, disclosures in advertising are used to prevent consumers from feeling misled. The Federal Trade Commission (2015) provides multiple guidelines and rules on how native advertising should be visualised, to prevent advertisers from making use of wrongful advertisements which trick the consumers into buying. However, in the case of native advertising, there are different views on the most effective way of disclosure. Where Wojdyski and Evans (2015) conclude that a disclosure in the middle of the advertisement works best, the Federal Trade Commission (2015) state in its guidelines that the disclosure should be at the top of the advertisement. In addition, the research of Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) conclude that even with a strong disclosure, many consumers do not recognize native advertising. All three researches argue for the use of strong language such as “Sponsored Advertisement”. Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) add that the name of the advertising company should be added. Therefore, this research will examine three types of disclosure positions in native advertising (top, middle, bottom) accompanied with the text “**Sponsored Advertisement by [company name]**”, to determine whether people recognize the content as an advertisement.

Furthermore, the research of Boerman et al. (2014) demonstrated that by exposing consumers to disclosures, consumers are better at distinguishing commercial from editorial content. However, this also results in distrusting the sponsored content more, which provides a more negative attitude towards the advertisement. In addition, Wojdyski and Evans (2015) state that while disclosure in native advertising may increase transparency about the advertisement, it could also lead to a more negative perception of the news credibility and the attitude towards the advertiser.

Moreover, as previous research states that the position of the disclosure (top, middle, bottom) is of influence of the advertisement recognition, this could eventually lead in raising more critical feelings and distrust from consumers (Boerman et al., 2014; Federal Trade Commission, 2015; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). This might result in a lower purchase intention (Boerman et al., 2014). As one of the measurements of effective advertising is the purchase intention, it is interesting to research how a strong disclosure in native advertising will influence the purchase intention. Based on the existing literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H0a: Disclosure in native advertising does not have a negative effect on purchase intention.

H1a: Disclosure in native advertising has a negative effect on purchase intention.

2.5. What is the Relationship between the Perceived Deception and Purchase Intention?

As mentioned in the previous section, disclosures prevent consumers from feeling deceived or misled by providing consumers information about the nature of the advertisement (Bakshi, 2015; Hoy & Andrews, 2004). In native advertising, the barriers between the webpages and the advertisers are blurred, which could lead to consumers feeling deceived when they recognize the content as an advertisement (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) state that “[...] advertorials mislead in how they get the consumers’ attention, and because a substantial minority of consumers never even realize that advertorials are advertisements” (p. 15).

Bakshi (2015) describes five ways in which consumers are being deceived by native advertising when a disclosure does not allow them to recognize the content as an advertisement. First, consumers trust news websites content and are more likely to trust an advertisement when they think it is from a reliable news website. Second, when products are promoted in a native advertisement and consumers do not recognize the content as an advertisement, they are less likely to question the reliability of the product or wonder whether facts were excluded. Third, consumers are deceived by being led to believe that a news website recommends the product. Fourth, by making the advertisement resemble news content, consumers are more willingly to read the advertisement, while they would have otherwise skipped over it. This relates to the fifth form of deception, which states that a news website’s mission is to provide relevant and trustworthy information. This information needs to be independent.

However, native advertising is corporate information that aims to sell a product or service, which thus can easily deceive consumers. Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) explain that recognizing content as advertising is critical to consumer protection. They examine the psychology to determine why and how native advertising may deceive consumers. First, Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) relate the deception of consumers to the Schema Theory and Omission of Material facts: “Schemas are cognitive maps that organize one’s knowledge about a particular domain” (p. 4). Advertisers use native advertising to go beyond the advertisement scheme consumers may have by creating an advertisement that does not resemble a typical advertisement (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). Second, Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) explain the Theory of Source-Based Misleading. This relates to consumers trusting content of a news websites more than that of an advertiser. Because native advertising resembles the news websites content, consumers perceive the advertisement as more trustworthy (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). News websites are trusted to provide newsworthy content, when the lines between news and advertisements become blurred, consumers could be easily misled (Anderson, 2011; Van Wierden, 2016). Carlson (2015) adds, “the consternation directed toward native advertising for fooling readers rested on the presumption that journalistic objectivity normatively forbade such tactics” (p. 8). Overall, the perceived deceptiveness of native advertising has a negative effect on the attitude towards the brand (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). More specifically, perceived deception leads to a negative attitude toward the brand and has a negative effect on purchase intention (Darke & Ritchie, 2007; Newell et al., 1998). As consumers are more likely to relate to the native advertising as news content, they feel misled when they discover that the content is an advertisement (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Van Wierden, 2016). Therefore, based on the existing literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H0b: Disclosure in native advertising does not have a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers.

H1b: Disclosure in native advertising has a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers.

H0c: The perceived deception of native advertising does not have a negative effect on the purchase intention.

H1c: The perceived deception of native advertising has a negative effect on the purchase intention.

2.6. How does the Perceived Deception Influence the Relationship between the Disclosure within Native Advertising and the Purchase Intention?

As native advertising could mislead consumers to engage with the content in the first place, consumers' feelings towards these advertisements may be negative even when a disclosure is provided (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). Disclosures have the purpose to prevent consumers from feeling deceived or misled (Hoy & Andrews 2004). However, Boerman et al. (2014) and Wojdyski and Evans (2015) found that disclosure could have negative effects on the attitude towards the advertisement. Aqsa and Kartini (2015) add that a negative attitude towards the brand could lead to a lower purchase intention, which is unfavourable for advertisers.

Multiple marketers and advertisers state that native advertising is the way to proceed, as opposed to annoying banner advertisement (Cho & Cheon 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). However, the question remains whether this is due to consumers' lack of advertising recognition within native advertising (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). Although disclosures are proposed as a way of effective advertising recognition, this could have a negative effect on the purchase intention of consumers (Boerman et al., 2014; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), which is not desirable for marketers and advertisers. In addition, the negative attitude towards the advertising could be influenced by the perceived deception when consumers realize the content is an advertisement.

A substantial body of literature has been published about the deceptive techniques advertisers use to mislead consumers (e.g., Darke & Ritchie 2007; Moog, 1990; Packard, 1991). However, consumer perception of deception of native advertising and whether this influences the effect of disclosure on the purchase intention is lacking. In this research, the perceived deceptiveness of native advertising is used as the interaction effect between the disclosure and the purchase intention. Based on the existing literature, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H0d: The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is not influenced by the perceived deception of consumers.

H1d: The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is influenced by the perceived deception of consumers.

2.7 Summary

This section summarizes the findings described in the theoretical framework.

Native advertising is a new form of online advertisement on websites. As native advertising generates a higher click rate on webpages compared to traditional banner advertising, it makes native advertising more effective for promotional purposes (BI Intelligence, 2015). Furthermore, consumers react positively to native advertising, which they perceive as trustworthy and relevant (BI Intelligence, 2015).

Nevertheless, the literature is critical about the effectiveness of native advertising. Some scholars argue that native advertising is effective due to consumers not realizing that they are reading an advertisement (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Hoy & Andrews, 2004; Van Wierden, 2016; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015; Xie & Boush, 2011). Therefore, the use of disclosure is urged concerning native advertising to prevent consumers from feeling misled or deceived (Federal Trade Commission, 2015; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). Previously conducted research is considered as this research examines three types of disclosure positions in native advertising (top, middle, bottom) accompanied by the text “**Sponsored Advertisement by [company name]**”, to determine whether people recognize the content as an advertisement.

Previous research states that the position of the disclosure influences advertisement recognition, which could eventually lead to increased critical feelings and distrust from consumers (Boerman et al., 2014; Federal Trade Commission, 2015; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015). This might result in a lower purchase intention (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Boerman et al., 2014), which is unfavourable for advertisers. Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed; H1a: *Disclosure in native advertising has a negative effect on purchase intention.*

According to Bashi (2015), consumers are being deceived when they do not recognize a disclosure of native advertising. Bakshi (2015) defines five methods of deception: trust issues, reliability issues, wrongful third party validation, tricking consumers into reading, and the use of native advertising on news websites contradicts their mission to be independent and relevant. Consequently, perceived deception leads to a negative attitude towards the brand, which can result in a negative purchase intention (Darke & Ritchie, 2007; Newell et al., 1998). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b states: *Disclosure in native advertising has a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers.* Hypothesis 1c states: *The perceived deception of native advertising will have a negative effect on the purchase intention.*

Moreover, as native advertising could mislead consumers to engage with the content in the first place, consumers' feelings towards these advertisements may be negative even when a disclosure is provided (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). Therefore, Hypothesis 1d states: *The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention will be influenced by the perceived deception of consumers.*

The next chapter outlines the methodology of this research and the proposed research design to answer the research question.

3. Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodology of this research. The first section of this chapter (3.1.) describes the research design of this study, the stimuli, the sampling, and the procedure. Second, section 3.2. details the used measurements of this study, the manipulation check and the confounding variable. Finally, the last section (3.3.) provides an overview of the proposed analysis techniques used in this study. This chapter will end with a summary in section 3.4.

3.1. Research Design

3.1.1. Quantitative Research Design

This research is a quantitative approach as it seeks to understand the effect of certain variables, which requires a quantitative approach (Babbie, 2007). Consequently, this research examined the effect of disclosure in native advertising on purchase intention and how this could be influenced by the perceived deception of consumers. Quantitative research often has a deductive approach that is based on whether certain patterns discussed in the literature actually occur when tested (Babbie, 2007). In addition, the previous chapter discussed four hypotheses that will be tested. According to Punch (2003), quantitative research allows the testing of hypotheses and facilitates researching the relationship between the variables. Hence, a quantitative approach was selected as this seems to be the most appropriate method for the proposed research question. As this research aims to examine the effects of native advertising on the purchase intention of consumers, an online experiment reconstructed the feel of a native advertisement. This research comprises an online experiment using *Qualtrics*, and participants were exposed to native advertising on a webpage and were asked to answer questions afterwards.

An online experiment was selected because this replicates the origin of the conditions (native advertising). In addition, the research topic needed to be suitable for the Internet population, which can minimize the selection bias (Eysenbach & Wyatt, 2002). In this research, online native advertising was researched on a news website, which is viewed by internet users (Eysenbach & Wyatt, 2002). Therefore, the Internet population was a suitable sample for this research and minimized the selection bias. One advantage of an online experiment is that the data can be easily exported and analysed into a database (Eysenbach & Wyatt, 2002). Second, experiments can be administered to participants in a relatively short period due to the possibilities of the Internet (Carter & Emerson, 2012). Third, the number of responses from participants could also be increased as they are recruited through the internet (Bryant, 2004).

However, there are some disadvantages of an online experiment. First, it is difficult to control an online experiment as respondents have their own nature of surfing the internet, such as they like to visit the internet in the evening, at work, briefly, or on their phones, which can result in increased variability (McGraw, Tew, & Williams, 2000). However, the noise in an online experiment can be compensated for by a large sample size (McGraw et al., 2000). Second, certain ethical areas need to be considered to ensure that participants receive fair treatment (Smith & Leigh, 1997). Smith and Leigh (1997) explain that consideration must be given to subject recruitment, which includes an informed consent before participating in the experiment, information about the experiment, and the option to contact the researcher. Furthermore, the protection of a subject's right to withdraw participation should be clarified before participants start the experiment and participants should be protected from subject fraud while maintaining subject anonymity and data security. The third disadvantage is that a single respondent can participate multiple times in the experiment. Hence, the IP addresses were identified to exclude people with the same IP addresses (Bryant, 2004; Smith & Leigh, 1997). Fourth, online experiments have the general problem that there is potentially a high dropout rate. Therefore, this research examined the articles of Reips (2002a, 2002b), which provides general steps for conducting an online experiment and reducing the dropout rate. For example, Reips (2002b) states that an online experiment should be tested, have a clear and truthful introduction, a logical structure, and use a template that does not allow respondents to leave an item unanswered. Furthermore, Reips (2002b) argues for a survey where the questions are placed on multiple webpages so that the researcher can determine the dropout rate at each question and compare these. These examples are implemented and tested when creating the online experiment to reduce the potential dropout rate.

3.1.2. Stimulus Material

The study has four conditions: three levels of disclosure (i.e. disclosure at the top, middle, and bottom of the advertisement) and one control condition (i.e. no disclosure) to measure the differences in purchase intention and to determine the effect of deceptiveness (high vs low) of the native advertising. This research design will be a between subject's design with a post-test only. The research has a truly experimental approach, as the subjects were not assigned to a specific condition, but were randomly assigned (Tenbült, 2015). The conditions were divided into three positions where disclosure appeared in native advertising and one condition with no disclosure, which were displayed on the news website *Nu.nl*. These different positions are borrowed from the research of Wojdynski and Evans

(2015) and the Federal Trade Commission (2015). As “**Sponsored Advertisement by [company name]**” is perceived in the literature (Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky, 2015) as the most effective combination for recognition, this wording was used in all disclosure conditions. The product featured in the advertisement is an existing native advertising from a savings account of the Dutch bank *ING*. The disclosure of the native advertising was created and added to the text for this study.

One of the four conditions was displayed to the participants on the news website of *Nu.nl*, which is known for its news articles and a well-visited news website in the Netherlands with approximately 2,5 million visitors a day (Sanoma Media, n.d.). *Nu.nl* visitors are almost equally divided between male female and the age groups vary from 13-19 (8%), 20-34 (29%), 35-49 (32%), and 50+ (31%) (Sanoma Media, n.d.).

3.1.3. Sampling

The data collection took place from April 10th 2016 to April 28th 2016. According to the *Erasmus University Methodological Guidelines for Thesis Research* (2014), a minimum of 30 respondents per condition is required in an experiment. This is in line with Christensen (2007) who states that a sample of 30 to 50 participants is needed for every condition. As this research has four conditions (disclosure: top, middle, bottom, and no disclosure), a sample of at least 120 and a maximum of 200 participants is required. In this research, the target population are Dutch students aged between 18-34 years, as the condition is displayed on *Nu.nl*, a Dutch news webpage. In addition, students were chosen to participate in the online experiment because they represent and form the perception of advertising today as in the future (Dianoux, Linhart, Vnoučková, 2014). Furthermore, they fit the target population and age group of *Nu.nl*.

There are two main methods to gather a sample: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling relates to random selection where the researchers have no influence on who will participate (De Vaus, 2013). The opposite occurs when choosing a non-probability sampling method, where the researcher has a choice in who participates in the research. In this research, non-probability sampling was used as probability sampling is often not appropriate nor possible (Babbie, 2007). Therefore, in order to reach the respondents, a non-probability sampling method was used. The participants were collected via the internet, as “[the internet] reach[es] thousands of people with common characteristics in a short amount of time, despite possibly being separated by great geographic distances” (Wright, 2005, para. 9).

Hence, in this research the proposed non-probability method was the snowball sampling method. The snowball sampling method refers to the re-sharing of respondents to others (Babbie, 2007; Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). To gather the responses, announcements of the experiment were posted on various social media platforms (Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, and Instagram), with the request to complete the survey and to share it. The announcements were placed on the personal profile of the researcher and were then spread, using the snowball sampling technique to reach beyond the researcher's personal network. In addition, according to De Vaus (2012), social media platforms are suited to snowball sampling.

Nevertheless, the snowball sampling method is prone to self-selection bias. This includes the non-representative nature of respondents, also called the “volunteer effect” (Friedman, Wyatt, Smith, & Kaplan, 1997). According to Eysenbach and Wyatt (2002), “people are more likely to respond to questionnaires if they see items which interest them” (p. 3). Although some scholars argue that self-selection bias can decrease the external validity (Birnbaum, 2000), there are ways to increase the validity in this research. First, according to Smith and Leigh (1997), student samples, as most samples, have a certain level of bias, as they do not represent the population. However, a sample of students is often used in research and additional biases in age, profession, and education level are seen as acceptable (Smith & Leigh, 1997). In addition, Internet samples often have a broader age distribution than student samples. In this research, the internet allows one to generate a sample that is better suited to the target population. As the age was set to 18-34, this exceeded the average student age and this sample was less biased than a ‘general’ student sample (Smith & Leigh, 1997). Second, as Nosek, Banaij, and Greenwald (2002) explain, a self-selection bias can be reduced by randomly assigning participants to a certain condition after they agree to participate, which was the case in this research. According to Punch (2003), this ensures validity, as it increases the chance that the subjects do not differ in any systematic way. Third, the research topic needed to be suitable for the Internet population, which can minimize bias and increase the validity (Eysenbach & Wyatt, 2002). In the case of this research, online native advertising was researched on *Nu.nl*, which is viewed by internet users. Therefore, the Internet population was a suitable sample for this research. Fourth, Eysenbach and Wyatt (2002) state that the potential self-selection bias can be estimated by measuring the response rate. The measurements can be made by calculating the number of people who viewed the experiment divided by those who completed the experiment. By examining these measurements, an indication of the selection bias can be made.

When considering the previously described ways to increase the validity, the self-selection bias decreases as the validity of this research increases.

3.1.4. Procedure

This section demonstrates the procedure of the experiment. The questionnaire was pre-tested on 10 individuals. After these individuals provided their feedback, the questionnaire was revised and the online experiment was distributed. Appendix A provides an overview of the experiment. After distribution, by using the snowball sampling method, participants could take part in the experiment at any a time. By clicking on the link, they were redirected to the experiment in *Qualtrics*. As this research was an online experiment, participants were either exposed to the condition on a desktop, mobile phone, tablet, or laptop.

First, the experiment commenced with an introduction and disclaimer, which explained the study subject briefly by only mentioning that the study would examine the perception of online product content. Furthermore, the introduction stated the amount of time the experiment would take, the number of questions to be answered, and a disclaimer that participants are granted full anonymity. Second, the experiment asked questions about the general perception of the participants of online advertisements; this was used as the confounding variable. Third, one of the conditions (i.e. disclosure: top, middle, bottom, or no disclosure) of native advertising was displayed to the participants. The conditions were randomly assigned to the participants, which would provide an equal number of responses per condition. Fourth, the questionnaire commenced by asking whether the participants had any problem reading the text of *Nu.nl*, to ensure that the respondents read the text. Next, the purchase intention was measured by asking respondents three questions regarding their intent to buy the product. The respondents were asked whether they noted any type of advertisements when reading the text on *Nu.nl*. Subsequently, the respondents were presented with a text, a disclosure, which stated that the text they read on *Nu.nl* was an advertisement. This was stated to ensure that people realized that the text they read was an advertisement. The deceptiveness was then measured by asking three questions about the perception of the advertisement. Then the questions about purchase intention were asked again to determine whether the results differed from the answers about purchase intention before the disclosure. These questions could all be answered on a 7-point scale, which facilitates performing a statistical analysis (Howitt & Cramer, 2007). All the questions required answers, and participants could not skip a question. When a participant completed a question, they needed to click the “next button” to move to the next question. At the end of

the questionnaire, participants were asked about their demographics, such as gender, age, level of education, and in which country they live. These questions reflect market segmentation (Kotler, 1999). The experiment concluded with thanking the participant for their time and offering the opportunity to provide feedback.

3.2. Operationalization and Measurements

As the research question of this research is *“What is the effect of disclosure within native advertising on news websites on the purchase intention and how is this influenced by consumer perception of deceptiveness?”* the measurements of this research are deceptiveness and purchase intention (3.2.1), the manipulation disclosure (3.2.2), and the confounding variable general perception towards online advertisements (3.2.3). This chapter assesses the measurements and the operationalization of the variables.

3.2.1. Measurements

The variables were measured by posing certain questions to the participants. The Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated for each of the questions to ensure a high reliability. Reliability refers to the replicability of the research (Salkind, 2011). To ensure a high reliability, the Cronbach’s Alpha was measured to examine the reliability of the measurements. This will increase the internal consistency reliability, which examines whether items in a test are consistent with one another and that the items represent only one dimension (Salkind, 2011). According to Salkind (2011), “The higher the value, the more confidence you can have that this is a test that is internally consistent or measures one thing, and that one thing is the sum of what each item evaluates” (p. 111). In research, a score of $\alpha = .70$ or above is considered reliable (Salkind, 2011). The Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated in the literature for the measurements of deceptiveness and purchase intention, which were all above $.70$. This indicates a high reliability and validity (Salkind, 2011).

Deceptiveness

The first variable is the perceived deceptiveness (table 3.1). The scale to measure the feeling of deceptiveness by participants is based on the research by Maddox (1982) tested by Newell et al. (1998) in the field of advertising ($\alpha = 0.92$). Perceived deceptiveness was measured by a three-item, seven-point, two bipolar adjective scale. The questions were translated into Dutch to fit the research design and the sample group.

Table 3.1: measurement perceived deceptiveness

Item	Statement
1	I perceive the advertisement as: <i>7-point bipolar adjective scale strongly misleading =1; strongly accurate =7</i>
2	I perceive the advertisement as: <i>7-point bipolar adjective scale strongly deceptive =; strongly truthful =7</i>
3	I perceive the advertisement as: <i>7-point bipolar adjective scale strongly distorted =1; strongly factual = 7</i>

Purchase Intention

The second variable purchase intention is linked to the sales forecast of products and services (Armstrong, Morwitz, & Kumar 2000). Purchase intention was measured (table 3.2) using the three-item Likert scale based on the Purchase Intention scale by Sääksjärvi and Morel (2010) ($\alpha = 0.80$). Purchase Intention was asked twice in the online experiment, once before the disclosure of the native advertising and once afterwards. The questions were translated into Dutch to fit the research design and the sample group.

Table 3.2: measurement purchase intention

Item	Statement
1	How positive or negative is your judgment of the product? <i>7-point Likert scale with strongly negative=1; strongly positive =7</i>
2	How interesting do you find the product? <i>7-point Likert scale with strongly uninteresting=1; strongly interesting =7</i>
3	How likely is it that you will buy the product within half a year from now? <i>7-point Likert scale with strongly unlikely=1; strongly likely =7</i>

3.2.2 Manipulation Check

To test the manipulation of the disclosure in the native advertisement, the participants needed to rate their advertisement recognition on a scale. The impact of the conditions of disclosure (top, middle, bottom, or no disclosure) was measured by examining the advertising recognition. An answer to the question, “Was there any advertising on the webpage?”, reveals the awareness of the disclosure and the perception of the advertisements as such (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015) (table 3.3). Based on the method of Tutaj and Van Reijmersdal (2012) and adjusted to this research, disclosure was measured

on a one item, seven-point, two bipolar adjective scale. The question was translated into Dutch to fit the research design and the sample group.

Table 3.3 measurement advertisement recognition

Item	Statement
1	Was there any advertising on the webpage? <i>7-point bipolar adjective scale strongly disagree=1; strongly agree =7</i>

3.2.3 Confounding Variable,

The confounding variable will explain whether other variables can explain why participants in one condition differ from those in other conditions. To guarantee that the perception towards the native advertising is measured accordingly, first the general view on online advertisement of the participants was asked. According to the results of Dianoux et al., (2012) the general perception towards online advertising is important to measure. This will demonstrate whether the participants, before they start the experiment, already have a positive or negative feeling towards online advertisements that can influence the perception towards native advertising (Dianoux et al., 2014). Subjects were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with three statements on a seven-point Likert scale (Dianoux et al., 2014) (table 3.4). The questions were translated into Dutch to fit the research design and the sample group.

Table 3.4: measurement general perception towards online advertisements

Item	Statement
1	Overall, I consider online advertising a good thing. <i>7-point Likert scale with strongly disagree=1; strongly agree =7</i>
2	My general opinion about online advertising is unfavourable (reverse coded). <i>7-point Likert scale with strongly disagree=1; strongly agree =7</i>
3	Overall, I do like online advertising <i>7-point Likert scale with strongly disagree=1; strongly agree =7</i>

3.3. The Analysis

After the online experiment was conducted, the quantitative data was collected from *Qualtrics* and placed into the SPSS dataset. This transformed the received results into numerical data and made it possible to use the data for different analyses (Babbie, 2007). This study analysed the descriptive results, and performed a Multivariate Analysis and a

Linear Regression Analysis in a SPSS dataset, to answer the research question and the hypotheses.

The Multivariate Analysis was used, because this study involves observations and analyses of more than one variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2008). The Multivariate Analysis was used to answer hypotheses 1a: *Disclosure in native advertising has a negative effect on purchase intention*, 1b: *Disclosure in native advertising has a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers*, and 1d: *The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention was influenced by the perceived deception of consumers*. The fixed factors are the conditions (top, middle, bottom, and no disclosure) and the dependent variables general perception of online advertisement, purchase intention before disclosure, deception, and purchase intention after disclosure. Tabachnick and Fidell (2008) describe some advantages of a Multivariate Analysis; the analysis contains realistic data and analyses the phenomena in an overarching way on multiple levels. Moreover, it provides univariate information on the effect of the independent variables on each dependent variable and demonstrates potential interaction effects (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2008). Therefore, it is easier to determine which variable is truly important. Second, the Multivariate Analysis can also protect against Type I errors that might occur if multiple Analyses of Variance are conducted independently. Third, it can determine the structure of the next analysis. In addition, a large sample size is required to interpret the data and to arrive at the most reliable results.

The Linear Regression Analysis will be used to answer H1c: *The perceived deception of native advertising has a negative effect on the purchase intention*. As the relationship between perceived deception and purchase intention was researched, a Linear Regression Analysis suits this hypothesis best (Norusis, 2008). More precisely, a Linear Regression Analysis is used to predict “the value of one variable from the value of an other” (Salkind, 2011, p. 267).

3.4 Summary

This section briefly summarises the research design described in the above sections of this chapter.

This research is a quantitative research as it examines the effects of disclosure and deception in native advertising on the purchase intention. This is researched by conducting an online experiment in *Qualtrics*, as this replicates the origin of the condition (native advertising). This research design will be a between subject’s design with a post-test only and has a true experimental approach.

The research has four conditions: three levels of disclosure (i.e. disclosure at the top, middle, and bottom of the advertisement) and one control condition (i.e. no disclosure) to measure the differences in purchase intention and determine the effect of deceptiveness (high vs low) of the native advertising. The conditions demonstrate three positions where disclosure appeared in native advertising and one condition with no disclosure, displayed on the news website *Nu.nl*. As “**Sponsored Advertisement by [company name]**” is perceived in the literature as the most effective combination for recognition, this wording was used in all three disclosures conditions.

The data collection took place from April 10th 2016 to April 28th 2016 and included 120 responses. As students represent and form the perception of advertisements in the future (Dianoux et al., 2014), the sample consists of Dutch students (i.e. 18-34). The respondents were collected by using the snowball sampling method, which refers to the re-sharing of respondents to others (Babbie, 2007).

The online experiment was tested on 10 individuals before distribution, to receive additional feedback and eliminate flaws. The experiment commenced with an introduction to the study. Second, the general perception of online advertisements was examined. Third, one of the conditions was demonstrated. Fourth, the questionnaire commenced with asking about the purchase intention and the recognition of the advertisement. Thereafter, participants were presented a disclosure that explained the nature of the text (native advertising). Then the deceptiveness and the purchase intention after the disclosure were measured. The experiment concluded with thanking the respondents and offered a possibility for feedback.

To analyse the data, the following variables were measured: disclosure, deceptiveness, purchase intention, and the confounding variable general perception of online advertisements. The Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated for each measurement to ensure a high reliability (Salkind, 2011). The measurement was analysed by conducting a Multivariate Analysis and a Linear Regression Analysis. These results helped to answer the research question.

The next chapter outlines the results of the online experiment and tests the hypotheses.

4. Results

This chapter discusses the results of the conceptual framework. First, 4.1 outlines and describes the process of the data screening. Second, 4.2 provides the descriptive statistics of this research. This section discusses details about the respondents, including their age group and education level. Thereafter, the internal consistence is calculated in section 4.3 to examine the reliability of the measurements (Salkind, 2011). Fourth, the results of all hypotheses are discussed, including a brief explanation on these results (4.4). Fifth, this chapter concludes with section 4.5, which provides a summary of the results.

4.1 Data Screening

After the data was collected, the responses were transferred into a SPSS dataset. The dataset contains the answers of 196 respondents and was screened for errors, missing values, and extreme values. First, the data was examined for missing values. The respondents who did not complete the questionnaire or did not read the entire text on *Nu.nl* were excluded from this research. A sample of 120 respondents remained for analysis, which is in line with the sample requirements of Christensen (2007). The conditions were randomly assigned to the respondents, which should provide an equal number of responses per condition. However, because of the exclusion of some participants due to missing values or respondents not meeting the requirements of this research, condition 2, has been viewed 27 times and condition 4, 33 times (table 4.1).

Concerning the demographic questions, a specific sample was asked to complete the survey, namely students between 18-34 years. Consequently, all respondents who participated in the online experiment fulfilled these requirements. Second, the data was screened for extreme variables. Outliers were not possible, because most of the variables were based on a Likert scale. In addition, none of the other variables contained extreme values.

Table 4.1: sample size per condition

Conditions	N
1.00 (Top)	30
2.00 (Middle)	27
3.00 (Bottom)	30
4.00 (No)	33
	Total 120

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

In total, 120 Dutch men and woman participated in this study. However, more females participated in the online experiment (70%) than males (30%). Their ages ranged from 18 to 33 years, with an average of 23,81 years ($SD = 2,79$). Table 4.2 provides additional background information regarding the education level of the participants and gender. All participants were students and most had completed their bachelor (40%) or master’s degree (55,8%), which indicates that the sample is relatively well educated.

Table 4.2: socio-demographics of the sample

	Frequency		Frequency
Gender		Education	
Male	36	High school	2
Female	84	Bachelor	48
		Master	67
		Doctorate	3
Total	120		120

4.3 Internal Consistence

To determine the internal consistency, the Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated for the question about the general perception of online advertisements ($\alpha = .78$), the purchase intention before disclosure ($\alpha = .74$), the deception ($\alpha = .77$), and the purchase intention after disclosure ($\alpha = .80$). The subscale consisted of 3 items on a 7-point Likert scale. The numbers indicate a high level of internal consistency for this scale. Therefore, the mean of the questions was computed for each variable to create the new variables general perception of online advertisement, purchase intention before, deception, and purchase intention after.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

In this section, the main data analysis is discussed to answer the research question *“What is the effect of disclosure within native advertising on news websites on the purchase intention and how is this influenced by consumer perception of deceptiveness?”* First, the general results of the Multivariate Analysis are described. This includes the first overall results (4.4.1). Second, the four hypotheses are tested and discussed individually (4.4.2, 4.4.3, 4.4.4, and 4.4.5).

4.4.1 General Results of the Multivariate Analysis

A Multivariate Analysis was performed in order to examine the differences between the test variables and the conditions (table 4.3). There was not a significant difference between the conditions (top, middle, bottom, and no disclosure) when considered the variables general perception of online advertising, purchase intention before disclosure, deception, and purchase intention after disclosure, Wilk’s $\Lambda = .84$, $F(299.26, 12) = 1.74$, $p = .058$, $\eta^2 = .93$.

A separate Analysis of Variance was conducted within the Multivariate Analysis for each test variable, with each Analysis of Variance evaluated with a reliability of 95%. First, the results indicate that no significant difference was detected between the four conditions on the variable of general perception of online advertising, $F(3, 116) = 2.33$, $p = .068$, $\eta^2 = .06$. Although the results are not significant, a so-called marginal significant effect was found. This means that the p value is situated between .05 and .1, which indicates that a significant difference could have been found when using a larger sample size (Brooks, 2014). However, a not significant level was desirable in this case because it would prove that there was no difference between the respondents on the general perception of online advertisement. This then excludes the general perception of online advertisements as a factor that can influence the experiment. In this case, a marginal effect was found, which indicates that the participants did differ on a small scale on the general perception of online advertisement and the groups where thus not divided equally. This could tentatively influence the results and thus should be addressed carefully. Second, a significant difference was not determined between the four conditions on purchase intention before disclosure, $F(3, 116) = .96$, $p = .415$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Third, a significant difference was not detected between the four conditions on deception, $F(3, 116) = .85$, $p = .467$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Fourth, a significant difference was not detected between the four conditions on purchase intention after disclosure, $F(3, 116) = .43$, $p = .739$, $\eta^2 = .01$.

Table 4.3: result of the Multivariate Analysis ($N = 120$)

	Sum of squares	df	M	F	p
General perception online advertising	10.40	3	3.47	2.44	.068
Purchase intention before	4.22	3	1.41	.96	.415
Deception	3.03	3	1.01	.85	.467
Purchase intention after	2.05	3	.68	.42	.739

4.4.2 Hypothesis A

This section tests and discusses the first hypothesis, which examines the effect of the disclosure on the purchase intention; H0a: *Disclosure in native advertising does not have a negative effect on purchase intention*, H1a: *Disclosure in native advertising has a negative effect on purchase intention*. The disclosure was measured by creating the four different conditions (top, middle, bottom, and no disclosure) and determined whether differences occurred in the data related to the purchase intention. As seen in the previous sections, there was not a significant difference between the four conditions and the purchase intention before disclosure, $F(3, 116) = .96, p = .415, \eta^2 = .02$ (table 4.3). The results indicate that respondents had a relatively low purchase intention before ($M = 3.3, SD = 1.21$) and after ($M = 3.1, SD = 1.27$) disclosure.

In order to define whether the respondents saw the disclosure in the text on *Nu.nl*, a question was asked regarding their awareness of advertising on the webpage. The respondents were divided in two groups (1 = did not recognized the text as an advertising, 2 = recognized the text as an advertising). A second and third Multivariate Analysis was performed, which analysed group 1 ($N = 34$) and 2 ($N = 86$) separately to determine any difference in purchase intention. The analysis of group 1 demonstrated no significant difference between the four conditions on purchase intention before disclosure when only investigating group 1 (1 = did not recognized the text as an advertising), $F(3, 30) = .67, p = .578, \eta^2 = .06$ (table 4.4). This indicates that the purchase intention of respondents who did not recognize the text as an advertisement does not significantly differ between the conditions. The analysis with group 2 demonstrated that there was not a significant difference between the four conditions on purchase intention before disclosure when only investigating group 2 (2 = recognized the text as an advertising), $F(3, 82) = .67, p = .578, \eta^2 = .06$ (table 4.5). This indicates that the purchase intention of respondents who recognized the text as an advertisement does not significantly differ between the conditions. However, a sufficient sample size of 30 respondents per condition was not matched in both groups.

In both cases (i.e. group 1 and 2 tested separately and together), a disclosure in the top, middle, bottom of the text, or no disclosure does not have a negative effect on the purchase intention. As a result, the null-hypothesis needs to be accepted, H0a: *Disclosure in native advertising does not have a negative effect on purchase intention*.

Table 4.4: result of the Multivariate Analysis of participants in group 1 (N = 34)

	Sum of squares	df	M	F	p
General perception online advertising	2.48	3	.83	1.25	.310
Purchase intention before	3.59	3	1.20	.67	.578
Deception	1.46	3	.49	.64	.594
Purchase intention after	3.84	3	1.28	.65	.587

Table 4.5: result of the Multivariate Analysis of participants in group 2 (N = 86)

	Sum of squares	df	M	F	p
General perception online advertising	3.06	3	1.02	1.11	.351
Purchase intention before	1.57	3	.52	.40	.757
Deception	5.78	3	1.93	1.44	.237
Purchase intention after	.25	3	.08	0.6	.938

4.4.3 Hypothesis B

The second hypothesis examined the effect of disclosure in native advertising on the perceived deceptiveness of consumers; H0b: *Disclosure in native advertising does not have a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers*, H1b: *Disclosure in native advertising has a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers*. As section 4.4.1 explained, there was no significant difference between the four conditions on deception, $F(3, 116) = .85, p = .467, \eta^2 = .02$ (table 4.3).

Respondents were questioned about feelings of deceptiveness after each of them was presented a text in which it was stated that the text they read on *Nu.nl* was indeed an advertisement. Consequently, all respondents were equally aware of the native advertising. Nevertheless, no significant difference was found between the four conditions on the feeling of deception. On a 7-point Likert scale, the perceived deception has a mean score of $M = 4.4, SD = 1.09$, which indicates that respondents did feel a certain level of deception; however, this was not significant. This indicates that a disclosure in the top, middle, bottom of the text, or no disclosure does not have a positive effect on the deceptiveness. As a result, the null-hypothesis needs to be accepted, H0b: *Disclosure in native advertising does not have a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers*.

4.4.4 Hypothesis C

The third hypothesis examined the relation between the perceived deceptiveness and the purchase intention by conducting a Linear Regression Analysis; H0c: *The perceived deception of native advertising does not have a negative effect on the purchase intention*, H1c: *The perceived deception of native advertising has a negative effect on the purchase intention*. A Linear Regression makes several key assumptions regarding the relationship between the dependent and the independent variable, which were reflected upon before conducting a Linear Regression Analysis. First, a Linear Regression Analysis is linear. Second, there are no outliers in the sample as most questions were based on a 7-point Likert scale. Third, the normality of the residuals and the homoscedasticity were checked and accepted (appendix B for the Linear Regression plots). A Linear Regression was calculated to predict the purchase intention based on the perceived deception ($R^2 = .03$, $F(1,118) = 3.37$, $p = .069$) (table 4.6).

Table 4.6: output Linear Regression Analysis

	b	SE	Beta	p
Deception	-0.19	.10	-0.17	.069
R2	.03			

Although the results are not significant, there is a so-called marginal significant influence which indicates that a weak association was found. This indicates that the null-hypothesis may be rejected under the assumption that when a larger sample size is used, a significant difference can be found (Brooks, 2014). As a result, the null-hypothesis is rejected, which leads to the tentatively acceptance of the following hypothesis, with a marginal effect, H1c: *The perceived deception of native advertising has a negative effect on the purchase intention*. This means that a small negative effect is found between the level of deception and the relation between the purchase intention. To conclude, when consumers perceive more deception the purchase intention will decrease $b = (-0.19)$.

4.4.5 Hypothesis D

The fourth hypothesis combines the previous hypotheses a, b, and c. Hypothesis d examined the relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention, and whether this is influenced by the perceived deceptiveness of consumers. H0d: *The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is not influenced by the perceived deception of consumers*. H1d: *The relationship between*

the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is influenced by the perceived deception of consumers. As the previous sections demonstrate, no effect was found between the four conditions (top, middle, bottom disclosure, and no disclosure) in native advertising and the purchase intention ($p = .578$) (Hypothesis a). In addition, no effect was found between the four conditions in native advertising and the perceived deception of consumers ($p = .467$) (Hypothesis b). However, a relationship was found between the perceived deceptiveness of native advertising and the purchase intention ($b = -0.19$) (Hypothesis c).

To summarize, no effect could be found between the four conditions (top, middle, bottom disclosure, and no disclosure) and the purchase intention, which indicates that the type of disclosure did not have an influence on the purchase intention of consumers. As no effect was found between disclosure and deceptiveness, the deception of consumers does not influence the relation between disclosure and purchase intention. However, there is a weak relationship between the deception and the purchase intention, although this is not affected by the different types of disclosure.

As a result, the null-hypothesis needs to be accepted, H0d: *The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is not influenced by the perceived deception of consumers.*

4.5 Summary

This section briefly summarises the result section to answer the research question “*What is the effect of disclosure within native advertising on news websites on the purchase intention and how is this influenced by consumer perception of deceptiveness?*”.

First, before starting the analysis, the Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated for each measurement, which were all above .70, thus indicating a high reliability.

Second, the descriptive statistics indicate that more females participated in the online experiment (70%) than males (30%) ($N = 120$). Furthermore, the sample population was relatively well educated, as 55% are following or have just completed a master’s degree.

Third, the hypotheses were analysed by first conducting a Multivariate Analysis. There was no significant difference between the conditions (top, middle, bottom, and no disclosure) when considered the variables: general perception of online advertising, purchase intention before disclosure, deception, and purchase intention after disclosure, Wilk’s $\Lambda = .84$, $F(299.26, 12) = 1.74$, $p = .058$, $\eta^2 = .93$.

Fourth, the hypotheses were analysed separately. Hypothesis an examined the effect of disclosure on purchase intention. There was not a significant difference between

the four conditions and the purchase intention before disclosure, $F(3, 116) = .96, p = .415, \eta^2 = .02$. Next the respondents were divided into two groups (1 = did not recognize the text as an advertising, 2 = recognized the text as an advertising). A second and third Multivariate Analysis was performed which analysed group 1 ($N = 34$) and 2 ($N = 86$) separately to determine whether a difference occurs in purchase intention. However, both analyses demonstrated that there was no significant difference found between group 1 ($F(3, 30) = .67, p = .578, \eta^2 = .06$) and group 2 ($F(3, 82) = .67, p = .578, \eta^2 = .06$). In addition, H0a needs to be accepted.

Hypothesis b examined the effect of disclosure in native advertising on the perceived deceptiveness of consumers. The results concluded that there was not a significant difference between the four conditions on deception, $F(3, 116) = .85, p = .467, \eta^2 = .02$. Therefore, H0b needs to be accepted.

Hypothesis c researched the relation between the perceived deceptiveness and the purchase intention. A Linear Regression was calculated to predict the purchase intention based on the perceived deception ($R^2 = .03, F(1, 118) = 3.37, p = 0.069$). This result indicated, that the null-hypothesis may be rejected tentatively, under the assumption that when using a larger sample size, a significant difference could be found (Brooks, 2014). As a result, H1c is accepted, although only weakly.

The fourth hypothesis combines the previous hypotheses a, b, and c. Hypothesis d examines the relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention and whether this is influenced by the perceived deception of consumers. To summarize, there is no effect found between disclosure and purchase intention. Which indicates that the type of disclosure did not have an influence on the purchase intention of consumers. As there is no effect found between disclosure and deceptiveness, the deception of consumers does not influence the relation between disclosure and purchase intention. Nevertheless, there is a relationship, although weakly, between the alleged deception and the purchase intention. However, the different types of disclosure do not affect this. As a result, H0d needs to be accepted. Table 4.7 presents the four hypotheses and the results of the analysis.

The next chapter will discuss the findings of this research and will present the conclusion. Moreover, the limitations and suggestions for further research will be outlined.

Table 4.7: overview of the hypotheses of this research.

Hypotheses	Accept/Reject
H0a: Disclosure in native advertising does not have a negative effect on purchase intention.	Accept
H0b Disclosure in native advertising does not have a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers.	Accept
H0c: The perceived deception of native advertising does not have a negative effect on the purchase intention.	Reject
H0d: The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is not influenced by the perceived deception of consumers.	Accept

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter outlines the discussion and conclusion of this research and answers the research question. First, 5.1 presents the discussion concerning the research question, the hypotheses, and the conclusions which follow from them. Then, 5.2 provides managerial explanations for the field and outlines the importance for academic relevance. Section 5.3 provides a sketch of the limitations of this research and proposes suggestions for further research. Finally, this chapter and this research conclude by answering the research question in section 5.4.

5.1 Discussion and Conclusion

Native advertising has become a successful advertising method that has proliferated on news websites (Cho & Cheon, 2004; Hoezel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). While many scholars, advertisers, and marketers are positive about native advertising, some argue that the successes relate to the consumers' inability to distinguish native advertising from the news website's own content (Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). As a result, many scholars have studied the effect of disclosure on consumer advertisement recognition (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Bakshi, 2015; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdynski & Evans, 2015). However, studies on the effects of disclosures on the alleged perceived deception and purchase intention of consumers are not yet conducted. This could provide insights into the effects of native advertising and consumer behaviour towards them. Hence, this study aimed to explore native advertising and to contribute to the current limited research on native advertising on news websites. As a result, the main objective of this research was to explore whether different disclosures affect consumers' alleged feeling of deception regarding the product and, consequently, their purchase intention. Therefore, this study investigated the effect of disclosure within native advertising on the purchase intention, and whether this is influenced by the perceived deception of consumers. The discussion concerning this research is outlined in the next five sections.

First of all, this study did not find a significant result when examining the effect of disclosure on the deceptiveness and purchase intention of consumers. This indicates that the positions of disclosure in this research did not make a difference to the consumers' habits. A reason for this finding could be that the general online perception of participants was not equal between groups, as a marginal effect was found between the four conditions and the general feeling of online advertisement ($p = .068$). This indicates that using a larger sample size could have delivered significant results (Brooks, 2014). This is unfavourable for this research as it means that the conditions did change in the general feeling towards online

advertising. Hence, the sample population may not be representative of the population. This could have led to a biased view on online advertising while participating in the online experiment, which decreases the reliability and validity (Salkind, 2011).

Furthermore, a further reason for the contradicting results is found in the literature and potentially affects the validity. Literature on the effectiveness of disclosure in native advertising is contradictory, meaning that these results contradict the outcomes of research by other scholars. For example, the Federal Trade Commission (2015) claims for a stronger advertisement recognition when a disclosure is placed at the top of the native advertising, while Wojdyski and Evans (2015) argue for a disclosure in the middle of the text. This research examined the disclosure at the top, middle, bottom, and no disclosure, and none of these placements had an effect on either the disclosure, deception, or purchase intention. In addition, in this research, 86 participants ($N=120$) recognized the native advertising as an advertisement, which is higher than that of other researches (Federal Trade Commission, 2015; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), which could explain these differences.

Moreover, based on theories and previous research, the expectation was that disclosures would have a negative effect on the purchase intention. However, a significant effect was not found between the four conditions and the purchase intention of the product featured in this research (i.e. The *ING* savings account). These results lead to the acceptance of the H0a: *Disclosure in native advertising does not have a negative effect on purchase intention*. Although this research determined that the different types of disclosure did not have an effect on the purchase intention, the results indicate that the general perception of consumers towards the native advertising was mainly negative. Nonetheless, this was not significant. Participants had a relatively low purchase intention before and after the disclosure of the product featured in the advertising. While many scholars confirm the success of native advertising, this study found controverting results. Purchase intention is used to measure the success of advertisements (Aqsa & Kartini, 2015; Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), thus it was expected to find a positive relationship when examining the reactions from the field (Cho & Cheon 2004; Hoewel, 2014; Kraan, 2015; Krell, 2015; Rotherberg, 2015). However, this was contradicted by the researches of Boerman et al (2014), Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015), and Wojdyski and Evans (2015), which stated that disclosure could have a negative effect on the purchase intention of consumers. These differences in the result could have occurred due to the participant's advertisement recognition. In this research, the advertisement recognition was much higher than that in the research of Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015) and Wojdyski and Evans (2015), which led to the

participant experiencing the native advertising in a different manner. Furthermore, this research used three types of disclosure borrowed from the research of the Federal Trade Commission (2015) and Wojdyski and Evans (2015), to increase the validity and reliability. However, these researches are inconclusive about the best type of disclosure and refer to each other in their discussion, therefore this research choose to use three positions of disclosure to improve the reliability and validity. Hence, this research adds to this discussion and provides additional insights to existing literature about the positions of disclosure in native advertising. Consequently, this research concludes that a disclosure can have a negative effect on the purchase intention of consumers. However, this does not change according to the different types of disclosure presented.

In addition, previous research mentions the need of a disclosure to prevent consumers from feeling misled (Bakshi, 2015; Hoy & Andrews, 2004). However, research points out that consumers do not always immediately recognize that native advertising is an advertisement, when consumers do realize they could feel more deceived (Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015; Van Wierden, 2016). This research indeed determined that consumers did feel deceived when they realized that the text was an advertisement. However, these results were not significant. These results lead to the acceptance of the H0b: *Disclosure in native advertising does not have a positive effect on the perceived deception of consumers*. Furthermore, a weakly marginal result was found when examining the relationship between deception and purchase intention. This indicates that the more a consumer feels deceived by the native advertising, the lower their purchase intention is. In addition, H0c may be rejected under the assumption that using a larger sample size will lead to a significant difference (Brooks, 2014). This leads to the acceptance, although weakly, of H1c: *The perceived deception of native advertising has a negative effect on the purchase intention*. This is in line with previous research that relates to consumers trusting content of a news websites more than that of an advertiser (Bakshi, 2015; Hoofnagle & Meleshinsky, 2015). This can be explained by the research of Burkhalter (1990) and Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015), which states that native advertising resembles news websites content, so consumers perceive the advertisement as more trustworthy. When consumers realize that the text is an advertisement, they can feel misled (Anderson, 2011; Van Wierden, 2016).

Nevertheless, it was expected that deception could influence the relation between disclosure and purchase intention. However, there were no significant results found in this study for this relation. This results in the acceptance of the H0d: *The relationship between the disclosure within native advertising and the purchase intention is not influenced by the perceived deception of consumers*. This is fundamentally different from the literature, which

states that indeed disclosure has a negative effect on the purchase intention, disclosure has a positive effect on the perceived deception, and that deception has a negative effect on the purchase intention, as was stated in the previous sections. As was expected due to the prior research results explained in this research, the effect of deception between the different types of disclosure and the purchase intention was not found. This indicates that the perceived deception of consumers does not differ between the four conditions and does not have an influence on the relation between the disclosure and the purchase intention. Previous studies pinpoint the need for research about the deception of consumers in combination with the disclosure. While it was expected that deception did have an influence on the relation between the position of disclosure and the purchase intention, the results of this study indicated the opposite. This could be because the respondents acted differently than expected, the Dutch population has a specific perception concerning online ads, or that the respondents had a higher advertisement recognition than expected when examining the previous researches.

5.2 Managerial Implications

The findings of this research have implications for the ongoing discussion regarding the types of disclosure in native advertising and the effects on the perceived deception and purchase intention. In addition, it also provides some general guidelines for advertisers, marketers, and the news websites.

Firstly, the findings of this study suggest that the type of disclosure does not have an effect on the deception or the purchase intention when examining the Dutch population. However, the research of Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015), the Federal Trade Commission (2015), and Wojdyski and Evans (2015) suggest that a prominent disclosure be placed in native advertising, such as “**Sponsored Content by [company’s name].**” This type of disclosure was used in this study’s experiment and generated a higher advertisement recognition than previous studies demonstrated (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015), which used different types of disclosures.

Second, the results also offer some consideration for news websites when using or contemplating using native advertising. While many advertisers and scholars react positively about native advertising, consumers do not always feel that the news websites provide reliable information when they realize the content is native advertising. It is recommended that news websites use a prominent disclosure and remain transparent about using native advertising. Consequently, consumers know that they are reading a native advertising and

are less likely to perceive a difference in credibility of the content between news website's own content and native advertising (Wojdyski & Evans, 2015).

For news websites who want to commence native advertising, it is an effective method to create an advertisement that appeals more to consumers than banner advertisements do. Nevertheless, as ad blockers can block banner advertisements and thus decrease the revenue streams of news websites, native advertising seems like a promising direction.

However, it is important to realize that while a disclosure is suggested to increase the transparency and standardization of native advertising, such disclosures may lead to a more negative attitude towards the advertisement and the product it features. This can also result in a reduced purchase intention, which is not desirable for news websites, marketers, and advertisers. Future research is recommended to examine more closely the relation between disclosure in native advertising and the possible perceived deception.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

This section outlines the limitation of this research and provides suggestions for further research.

First, future research is recommended to examine more closely the potential impact of disclosure and familiarity of the brand and brand attitudes in a native advertising context. This research used the existing native advertising of *ING* on the news website of *Nu.nl*. Both brands, *ING* and *Nu.nl*, are familiar to the Dutch population. However, this research did not examine the brand attitude of the *ING* and *Nu.nl* before conducting the experiment. This could have led to participants having prior knowledge and attitudes towards the brands. However, this was not controlled in this research. As this research did not find significant results, one reason could be that the attitude towards the brand was already quite positive or negative. Therefore, it is advised that future researchers test the news website and the brand used in the native advertising before conducting the experiment. Then a brand that ranks as a neutral brand can be used in the experiment and will provide a more balanced perspective of the experiment. Furthermore, future research can use different types of native advertising where the attitude of the brand is high, medium, or low and compare and contrast the results. This could then provide insight on the use of native advertising within different types of companies.

Second, there was a marginal significance found for the general online perception. This means that participants could differentiate between the condition on the overall general perception of online advertisement, which could have influenced the results of the rest of the

experiment. A not significant result was preferred as this means that the respondents do not differ on their view of online advertisement in general. Therefore, it is suggested that future research replicate this study with a larger sample size to determine whether this influences the results. In addition, this could improve the reliability and validity (Salkind, 2011) and create a more representative sample size.

Third, the generalizability of the research results to other examples of online native advertising may be limited by the specifics of the stimulus materials and the experimental design, as the experimental design is used for news websites and Dutch participants. For future research, it would be interesting to examine different cultures and different age groups or a specific gender to determine whether different results occur. This could then provide managerial implications on which age group native advertising provides the best results and how to implement possible differences.

Fourth, there are no significant results found in this research, but there is a marginal effect found between the perceived deception and the purchase intention. Therefore, it is recommended that further studies research certain measurements, such as the disclosure, deception, and purchase intention of this research within a larger sample population to increase the external validity (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Moreover, the sample size of this study was limited, which means that it is not possible to make valid generalizations for the overall Dutch Internet population. As a sample population of 30-50 participants is required per condition in experimental research (Christensen, 2007), this research had 120 respondents, which just meets this criterion. It would be interesting to determine whether a larger sample population would provide more significant results, especially concerning the relationship between deception and purchase intention.

To summarize, this study has made an interesting starting point in researching the effects of different types of disclosure in native advertising on the perceived deception and the purchase intention of consumers. Further research in this environment is necessary to extend the academic knowledge and to provide marketers, advertisers, and news websites with greater in-depth knowledge, so that they are able to make the right decisions concerning the use of native advertising now and in the future.

5.4 Conclusion

Until now, research on native advertising on news websites was still limited, while the use of native advertising has spread among these websites. Therefore, this research aimed to gain insights into this subject, which can contribute to the framework on this topic with the following research question: *“What is the effect of disclosure within native advertising on*

news websites on the purchase intention and how is this influenced by consumer perception of deceptiveness?"

Hence, this research adds value to the existing literature of disclosures in native advertising by treating two specific research areas where little research has been undertaken until now, namely by researching the purchase intention of consumers and the perceived feeling of deception. The main objective was to examine whether different types of disclosure had an effect on the purchase intention of the product featured in the native advertising, and whether this could potentially be influenced by the perceived deception of consumers when realizing the content of the text was an advertisement.

Moreover, the type of disclosure was borrowed from the researches of the Federal Trade Commission (2015), Hoofnagle and Meleshinsky (2015), and Wojdyski and Evans (2015), which proposed a transparent and explicit disclosure and which thus provides reliability for this research. As a result, the participants in this research recognized the native advertising on a larger scale than in previous researches.

Although this research did not find significant results regarding the research question, a weakly marginal result was found between the perceived deception and the purchase intention. As the perceived deception increased, the purchase intention decreased. While many scholars, advertisers, and marketers are positive about native advertising, some argue that this success can be related to the consumers' inability to distinguish native advertising from the news website's own content. In addition, participants did feel deceived when they noticed that the native advertising was an advertisement, although these results were not significant when examining the different conditions used in this study.

Nevertheless, considering the previously mentioned limitations in section 5.4 and the effect this could have had on the validity and reliability of this research, it could not be assumed that the expected effects, which were not found, indeed do not exist. For instance, the products featured in the native advertising can have an effect on the attitude towards a specific brand, which has an effect on the feeling of deception and the purchase intention. Hence, this could be the reason for the differences in results when compared to previous studies on the effectiveness of native advertising as this can influence the validity and reliability of this research. Furthermore, the sample population of this research could also potentially be an argumentation for the differences in results when examining the confounding variable general perception of online advertisements. Here a marginal significant result was found, which means that the four groups could have had different perceptions towards online advertisement before they started the research. This could

influence the reliability of this research as it means that the participants are not equally divided between the groups. In addition, native advertising has grown exponentially and consumers are more exposed to native advertising. This can lead to more recognition of native advertising when it becomes the standard. This could then furthermore influence the types of disclosure, deception, and purchase intention. Additionally, the changes in the field and in the brand attitude, which seem to influence consumer behaviour, also make it an interesting subject for further research.

References

- Adams, F. G. (1974). Commentary on McNeil, federal programs to measure consumer purchase expectations. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 1, 11-12.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211.
- Anderson, C. W. (2011). Between creative and quantified audiences: Web metrics and changing patterns of news work in local US newsrooms. *Journalism*, 12: 5, 550–566.
- Armstrong, J. S., Morwitz, V. G., & Kumar, V. (2000). Sales forecasts for existing consumer products and services: Do purchase intentions contribute to accuracy? *International Journal of Forecasting*, 16: 3, 383-397.
- Armstrong, S. (2001). *Advertising on the internet (2nd edition)*. United States: Kogan Page Limited.
- Aqsa, M., & Kartini, D. (2015). Impact of online advertising on consumer attitudes and interests buy online. *International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research*, 4: 4, 230-236.
- Babbie, E. (2007). *Introduction to Social Research (4th edition)*. Stamford, CT: Cengage Learning Inc.
- Bakshi, A. C. (2015). Why and how to regulate native advertisement in online news publications. *Journal of Media Law & Ethics*, 4: 3/4, 4-27.
- Benton, J. (2014). Like it or not, native advertising is squarely inside the big news tent [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://www.niemanlab.org/2014/09/like-it-or-not-native-advertising-is-squarely-inside-the-big-news-tent/>
- Berthon, P., Pitt, L. F., & Ricard, T. (1996). The World Wide Web as an advertising medium. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 36: 1, 43-54.
doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0021849996960067>
- Bhat, S., Leigh, T. W., & Wardlow, D. L. (1998). The effect of consumer prejudice on ad processing: Heterosexual consumers' responses to homosexual imagery in ads. *Journal of Advertising*, 27: 4, 9-29. doi:10.1080/00913367.1998.10673566
- Bickart, B., & Schindler, R. (2001). Internet forums as influential sources of consumer information. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 15: 3, 31-40.
- BI Intelligence. (2015). Global programmatic-advertising: Mobile, video, and real-time bidding drive growth [report 2015]. *Marketing Weekly News*, 447.
- Birnbaum, M. H. (2000). *Psychological experiments on the Internet*. Chicago: Elsevier.

- 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, 241-224.
- Brooks, C. (2014). *Introductory econometrics for finance*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Bryant, S. (2004). *Computer-based experiments: Obstacles*. United States: University of South Florida.
- Burkhalter, H. (1990). Advertorial advertising and the commercial speech doctrine. *25 Wake Forest*, 861.
- Carlson, M. (2015). When news sites go native: Redefining the advertising–editorial divide in response to native advertising. *Journalism*, 16: 7, 849–65.
- Carter, L. K., & Emerson, T. L. (2012). In-class vs. online experiments: Is there a difference? *The Journal of Economic Education*, 43: 1, 4–18.
doi:10.1080/00220485.2011.636699
- Chen, M. F. (2007). Consumer attitudes and purchase intentions in relation to organic foods in Taiwan: Moderating effects of food-related personality traits. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18: 7, 1008-1021.
- Chen, B. X. (2015). Putting mobile ad blockers to the test. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com/2015/10/01/technology/personaltech/ad-blockers-mobile-iphone-browsers.html?r=0>
- Cho, C., & Cheon, H. (2004). Why do people avoid advertising on the Internet? *Journal of Advertising*, 33: 4, 89-97.
- Christensen, L. (2007). *Experimental methodology*. Boston: Pearson.
- Cormode, G., & Krishnamurthy, B. (2008). Key differences web 1.0 and web 2.0. *First Monday*, 13: 6.
- Darke, P. R., & Ritchie, R. J. B. (2007). The defensive consumer: Advertising, deception, defensive processing, and distrust. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 44: 1, 114–27.
- De Pelsmacker, P., Geuens, M., & Van Den Bergh, J. (2004). *Marketing communications: A European perspective*. United Kingdom: Pearson Education Limited.
- De Vaus, D. (2013). *Surveys in social research*. United Kingdom: Taylor & Francis Books Ltd.
- Dianoux, C., Linhart, Z., & Vnoucková, L. (2014). Attitude toward advertising in general and attitude toward a specific type of advertising: A first empirical approach. *Journal of Competiveness*, 6: 1, 87-103. doi:10.7441/joc.2014.01.06

- Doh, S. J., & Hwang, J. S. (2009). How consumers evaluate eWOM (electronic word-of-mouth) messages. *Cyber psychology & Behavior*, 12: 2, 193-197.
- D’Onfro, J. (2015). Google ad boss: Ad blockers are 'a blunt instrument and we need to be worried. *Business Insider*. Retrieved from <http://uk.businessinsider.com/google-ad-bosssridhar-ramaswamy-on-ad-blockers-201510>
- Drèze, X., & Hussherr, F. (2003). Internet advertising: Is anybody watching? *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 17: 4, 8–23.
- Erasmus University. (2014). Methodological guidelines for thesis research [Guideline]. Retrieved from <http://www.eshcc.eur.nl/english/mamedia/current/guidelines/methods/>
- Eysenbach, G., & Wyatt, J. (2002). Using the Internet for surveys and health research. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 4: 2. doi:10.2196/jmir.4.2.e13
- Farnworth, D. (2014). Copy blogger’s 2014 state of native advertising report [Report]. Retrieved from <http://www.copyblogger.com/native-advertising-2014/>
- Federal Trade Commission. (2015). Native advertising: A guide for businesses [Guideline]. Retrieved from <https://www.ftc.gov/tips-advice/business-center/guidance/native-advertising-guide-businesses>
- Friedman, C. P., Wyatt, J. C, Smith, A. C., & Kaplan, B. (1997). *Evaluation methods in medical informatics*. New York: Springer
- Friestad, M., & Wright, P. (1994). The persuasion knowledge model: How people cope with persuasion attempts. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21: 1, 1–31.
- Goldsmith, R. E. & Lafferty, B. A. (2002). Consumer responses to web sites and their influence on advertising effectiveness. *Internet Research: Electronic Networking Applications and Policy*, 2: 4, 318–328.
- Hart, P. (2014). Native’ advertising: Another word for deceptive? *Extra!*, 27: 2.
- Hidayat, A., & Diwasasri, A. (2013). Factors influencing attitudes and intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands among Indonesian consumers. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 5: 4, 143-151.
- Hoezel, M. (2014). Spending on native advertising is soaring as marketers and digital media publishers realize the benefits. *Business Insider*. Retrieved from <http://uk.businessinsider.com/spending-on-native-ads-will-soar-as-publishers-and-advertisers-take-notice-2014-11?r=US&IR=T>
- Hoofnagle, C. J., & Meleshinsky, E. (2015). Native advertising and endorsement: Schema, source-based misleadingness, and omission of material facts. *Technology Science*. doi. 2015121503. Retrieved from <http://techscience.org/a/2015121503>

- Howitt, D., & Cramer, D. (2007). *Statistiek in de sociale wetenschappen*. United Kingdom: Pearson Education.
- Hoy, M. G., & Andrews, C. J. (2004). Adherence of prime-time televised advertising disclosures to the ‘clear and conspicuous’ standard: 1990 versus 2002. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 23: 2, 170–82.
- IDIO. (n.d.). New publishing business model [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://www.idioplatform.com/the-new-publishing-business-model/>
- Interactive Advertising Bureau. (n.d.). IAB believes ad blocking is wrong: The industry must take steps to keep it from proliferating [Blog post]. Retrieved from <http://www.iab.com/iab-believes-ad-blocking-is-wrong/>
- Internet Live States. (2014). Internet users. Retrieved from <http://www.internetlivestats.com/internet-users/>
- Janalta Interactive Inc. (2015). Online advertising. Retrieved from <https://www.techopedia.com/definition/26362/online-advertising>
- Kotler, P. (1999). *Kotler on marketing: How to create, win and dominate markets*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kraan, J. (2015, September 18). Hoe overleven websites in het tijdperk van de Adblocker? *Nu.nl*. Retrieved from <http://www.nu.nl/weekend/4128593/overleven-websites-in-tijdperk-van-adblocker.html>
- Krell, E. (2015). Lovely unites brides and brands in native-ad bliss. *DM News*, 37: 2, 30-31.
- Lee, J., Park, D. H., & Han, I. (2008). The effect of negative online consumer reviews on product attitude: An information processing view. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 7: 3, 341-352.
- Lee, J., & Lee, J. N. (2009). Understanding the product information inference process in electronic word-of-mouth: An objectivity-subjectivity dichotomy perspective. *Information & Management*, 46: 5, 302-311.
- Maddox, R. N. (1982). The structure of consumers’ satisfaction: Cross product comparisons. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 10: 1, 37-53.
- Malhotra, N. K., & Birks, D.F. (2007). *Marketing research, an applied approach (3rd European Edition)*. Unites States: Pearson Education Limited.
- McGraw, K. O., Tew, M. D., & Williams, J. E. (2000). The integrity of web-delivered experiments: Can you trust the data? *Psychological Science*, 11: 6, 502–506.
- McNeil, J. M. (1974). Federal programs to measure consumer purchase expectations, 1946-73: A post-mortem. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1, 1-10.
- Microsoft Advertising. (2008). From Coca-Cola to Cacharel [Report]. Retrieved from

- http://advertising.microsoft.com/international/WWDocs/User/Europe/ResearchLibrary/ResearchReport/FMCG_compendium_19_11_08_1.pdf.
- Moog, C. (1990). *Advertising and Identity*. New York: Morrow.
- Morwitz, V. G., Steckel, J., & Gupta, A. (1996). When do purchase intentions predict sales? Working Paper, Stern School of Business, New York University, NY 10012.
- Newell, S. J., Goldsmith, R. E., & Banzhaf, E. J. (1998). The effect of misleading environmental claims on consumer perceptions of advertisement. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 6: 2, 48-60.
- Norusis, M. J. (2008). *SPSS 16: Statistical procedures companion*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Nosek, B. A., Banaji, M. R., & Greenwald, A. G. (2002). E-research: Ethics, security, design, and control in psychological research on the Internet. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58: 1, 161-176.
- Okazaki, S., Mueller, B., & Taylor, C. R. (2010). Measuring soft-sell versus hard-sell advertising appeals. *Journal of Advertising*, 39: 2, 5-20. doi:10.2753/JOA0091-3367390201
- Packard, V. O. (1991). *The hidden persuaders*. London: Penguin Books.
- PageFair & Adobe. (2015a). The 2015 Ad Blocking Report [Report]. Retrieved from http://downloads.pagefair.com/reports/2015_report-the_cost_of_ad_blocking.pdf
- PageFair & Adobe. (2015b). The cost of ad blocking [Report]. Retrieved from http://downloads.pagefair.com/reports/2015_reportthe_cost_of_ad_blocking.pdf
- Palant, W. (2011). Adblock Plus user survey [Blog]. Retrieved from <https://adblockplus.org/blog/adblock-plus-user-survey-results-part-2>
- Park, D. H., Lee, J., & Han, I. (2007). The effect of online consumer reviews on consumer purchasing intention: The moderating role of involvement. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 11: 4, 125-148.
- Park, D. H., & Kim, S. (2008). The effects of consumer knowledge on message processing of electronic word-of-mouth via online consumer reviews. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 7: 4, 399-410.
- Pikas, B., & Sorrentino, G. (2014). The effectiveness of online advertising: Consumer's perceptions of ads on Facebook, Twitter and YouTube. *The Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, 16: 4, 70-81. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1566175341?accountid=13598>
- Priyanka, S. (2012). A study on the impact of online advertising on consumer behavior. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Sciences*, 3: 4, 461-465.

- Punch, K. F. (2003). *Survey research: The basics*. London: Sage.
- Reips, U. D. (2002a). Internet-based psychological experimenting five do's and five don'ts. *Social Science Computer Review*, 20: 3, 241-249.
doi:10.1177/089443930202000302
- Reips, U. D. (2002b). Standards for internet-based experimenting. *Experimental psychology*, 49: 4, 243-256. doi:10.1027//1618-3169.49.4.243
- Rich, J. L. (2014). Blurred lines: Advertising or content? [Workshop].
Retrieved from <https://www.ftc.gov/news-events/events-calendar/2013/12/blurred-lines-advertising-or-content-ftc-workshop-native>
- Rieder, R. (2013). Marking the boundary: The lessons of the flap over the *Atlantic* and its scientology advertorial [Blog post]. Retrieved from
<http://ajrarchive.org/article.asp?id=5486>
- Rothenberg, R. (2015). Ad blocking: The unnecessary internet apocalypse: the ad industry needs to disrupt the disruptors. *Ad Age*. Retrieved from
<http://adage.com/article/digitalnext/ad-blocking-unnecessary-internet-apocalypse/300470/>
- Russo, E. J., Metcalf, B. L., & Debra, S. (1981). Identifying misleading advertising. *Business Faculty Publications and Presentations*, 4: 2, 119-131.
- Sääksjärvi, M., & Morel, K. P. N. (2010). The development of a scale to measure consumer doubt toward new products. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 13: 3, 272-293. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/14601061011060120>
- Salkind, N. J. (2011). *Statistics for people who (think they) hate statistics (4th edition)*. London: Sage.
- Sandvig, J. C., Bajwa, D., & Ross, S. C. (2011). Usage and perceptions of internet ad blockers: An exploratory study. *Issues in Information Systems*, 12: 1, 59-69.
Retrieved from <http://www.iacis.org>
- Sanoma Media (n.d.). Nu.nl. Retrieved from
<http://www.sanoma.nl/merken/artikel/nunl/digital/merk-profiel/>
- Schneider, G. P. (2011). *E-Business*. Canada: Cengage Learning, Inc.
- Sebastian, M. (2014). The year in native ads, 2014 [Blog post]. *Ad Age*. Retrieved from
<http://adage.com/article/media/year-content-marketing-native-ads/296436/>
- Sher, P., & Lee, S. (2009). Consumer skepticism and online reviews: An elaboration likelihood model perspective. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37: 1, 137-143.
- Simpson, J. (2015). How Forbes.com developed a native content revenue model. *E*

- Consultancy*. Retrieved from <https://econsultancy.com/blog/67210-how-forbes-com-developed-a-native-content-revenue-model/>
- Smith, M. A., & Leigh, B. (1997). Virtual subjects: Using the Internet as an alternative source of subjects and research environment. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 29: 4, 496-505.
- Sondermann, J., & Tran, M. (2013). Understanding the rise of sponsored content. *American Press Institute*. Retrieved from <https://www.americanpressinstitute.org/publications/reports/white-papers/understanding-rise-sponsored-content/single-page/>
- Spears, N., & Singh, S. N. (2004). Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 26: 2, 53-66. doi:10.1080/10641734.2004.10505164
- Statista. (2015a). Digital advertising spending worldwide from 2012 to 2018 (in billion U.S. dollars). Retrieved from <http://www.statista.com/statistics/237974/online-advertising-spending-worldwide/>
- Statista. (2015b). Global print advertising expenditure from 2000 to 2016 (in billion U.S. dollars). Retrieved from <http://www.statista.com/statistics/272944/global-print-advertising-expenditure/>
- Steigrad, A. (2015). Magazine firms wrestle over native ad rules. *WWD*. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1660957684?accountid=13598>
- Stokes, R. (2009). *eMarketing: The essential guide to online marketing*. United States: Quirk eMarketing.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2008). *Using multivariate statistics*. United States: Pearson. Retrieved from <http://tocs.ulb.tu-darmstadt.de/135813948.pdf>
- Tarkiainen, A., & Sundqvist, S. (2005). Subjective norms, attitudes and intentions of Finnish consumers in buying organic food. *British Food Journal*, 107: 11, 808-822.
- Tenbült, P. (2015). Methods of media research 1, methods 2, experiments (1) [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from https://bb-app02.ict.eur.nl/bbcswebdav/pid-47218-dt-content-rid-67999_1/courses/CM4100-15/Experiments%201.pdf
- The Economist. (2016). Invisible ads, phantom readers. *The Economist*. Retrieved from <http://www.economist.com/news/business/21695388-worries-about-fraud-and-fragmentation-may-prompt-shake-out-crowded-online-ad>
- 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.

- Vallade, J. (2009). Adblock plus and the legal implications of online commercial-skipping. *Rutgers Law Review*, 61: 3, 823-854.
- Van Ammelrooy, P. (2015, October 22). Geen reclame, geen toegang. *De Volkskrant*, 22.
- Van Wierden, A. (2016, April. 5). Is het nieuws of een advertentie? *Nrc.next*, 3-5.
- Vratonjic, N., Manshaei, M. H., Grossklags, J., & Hubaux, J. (2012). Ad-blocking games: Monetizing online content under the threat of ad avoidance. Workshop on the Economics of Information Security (WEIS), Berlin, Germany.
- Wojdynski, B. W., & Evans. N. J. (2015). Going native: Effects of disclosure position and language on the recognition and evaluation of online native advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 45: 2, 157-168. doi: 10.1080/00913367.2015.1115380
- Wright, K. B. (2005). Researching Internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 10: 3. doi: 10.1111/j.1083-6101.2005.tb00259.x
- Xia, L., & Bechwati, N. (2008). Word of mouth: The role of cognitive personalization in online consumer reviews. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 9: 1, 3-13.
- Xie, G., & Boush, D. M. (2011). How susceptible are consumers to deceptive advertising claims? A retrospective look at the experimental research literature. *The Marketing Review*, 11: 3, 293-314. doi:10.1362/146934711X589480

Appendix A, The online experiment

Beginning

Geachte Heer/ Mevrouw,

Hartelijk dank voor het participeren in dit onderzoek. Dit onderzoek wordt uitgevoerd als onderdeel van een master scriptie voor de Master Media & Business van de Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam. Het doel van dit onderzoek is om te kijken naar de perceptie van nieuwswebsites. De vragenlijst bestaat uit 14 vragen en het duurt ongeveer 5-10 minuten om de vragen in te vullen. Er zijn geen strikvragen of goede of foute antwoorden.

De resultaten worden alleen gebruikt voor de master scriptie en worden dus niet gebruikt voor commerciële doeleinden. Meedoen aan dit onderzoek is geheel vrijwillig en anoniem. Daarnaast kunt u op elk moment besluiten te stoppen.

Heeft u enige vragen tijdens of na het invullen van de vragenlijst, neemt u dan contact op met Merel Rosamarijn Krot via merelkrot@gmail.com.

Hartelijk dank voor het invullen van de vragenlijst!

Met vriendelijke groet,
Merel Rosamarijn Krot

Confounding variable: Online Advertisements

1. De volgende vragen gaan over het gebruik van online advertenties.

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent dat je er helemaal oneens mee bent en 7 dat je er helemaal mee eens bent.

	1.	2.	3.		5.	6.	7.
	Helemaal	Grotendeels	Enigszins	4.	Enigszins	Grotendeels	Helemaal
	oneens	mee	mee	Neutraal	mee	mee eens	mee
		oneens	oneens		eens		eens

Over het
algemeen
vind ik

online advertenties iets goeds	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn algemene mening over online advertenties is negatief	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Over het algemeen vind ik online advertenties leuk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Conditions 1 Top

Lees de volgende tekst op de website van NU.nl, de volgende vragen gaan over deze tekst. Let op, het kan even duren voordat de tekst laadt!

The screenshot shows the NU.nl website interface. At the top left is the NU.nl logo. To its right, the date "Vrijdag 01 april 2016" and the text "Het laatste nieuws het eerst op NU.nl" are displayed. Below the logo is a navigation menu with categories: "Voorpagina", "Net binnen", "Algemeen", "Binnenland", "Buitenland", "Politiek", "Terreur Europa", "Economie", "Geld", "Ondernemen", "Beurs", "Belastingaangifte", "Sport", "Voetbal", and "Champions". A blue banner below the menu reads "NU.nl > Gesponsorde Advertentie van ING". The main content area features a large image of silhouetted hands raised against a bright sun. The text "Foto: ING/123RF" is in the top right corner of the image. Below the image, the headline "Besparen op uitgaan, zonder op plezier in te leveren" is visible.

- Formule 1
- Wielrennen
- MijnTeam
- Tech**
- Internet
- Gadgets
- Games
- Mobiel
- Entertainment**
- Achterklap
- Films en series
- Muziek
- Boek en cultuur
- Media
- Lifestyle**
- Gezondheid
- Eten & Drinken
- Werk & Privé
- Wonen
- Reizen
- Overig**
- Wetenschap
- Opmerkelijk
- Dieren
- Auto
- Video's
- Regionaal**

Gepubliceerd: 11 maart 2016 01:26
 Laatste update: 15 maart 2016 10:09



Ruim eenderde van de Europeanen heeft vorig jaar zijn bestedingsruimte zien groeien door goed op de uitgaven te letten. Hoe kun je van de nood een deugd maken?

Van alle Europeanen die vorig jaar hun bestedingsruimte zagen groeien, zegt 36 procent daar in geslaagd te zijn door harder te sparen. Vooral Frankrijk, Oostenrijk en België kenden veel succesvolle spaarders, zo blijkt uit een recent internationaal onderzoek van ING onder bijna 1.500 personen in 15 landen.

Die besparingen lijken vooral invloed gehad te hebben op de vrije tijd. ING wijst op statistieken van Eurostat, gemeten tussen oktober 2014 en oktober 2015, waaruit blijkt dat Europeanen het meest bespaard hebben op vrije tijd. De vakantiebestedingen daalden met 15 procent en uitgaansbestedingen met 12 procent. Hoe zorg je ervoor dat dat niet ten koste gaat van het plezier?

Onderstaande tips wijzen je op alternatieven die je, naast de gebruikelijke gratis evenementen en kortingskaarten, zomaar over het hoofd zou zien:

1. Breng je tijd door met 'locals'

Zonder dat het veel hoeft te kosten kun je met verschillende apps en websites een leuke tijd beleven met 'locals' die je tot voor kort niet kende. Airbnb, de particuliere marktplaats voor bed & breakfasts, is een bekend voorbeeld. Denk ook aan mobiele applicaties als Party with a Local, waarmee je iemand gratis kan vragen of je met haar/zijn vriendengroep mee uit mag gaan. Pas natuurlijk wel op je uitgaven.

2. Breng je tijd door met toeristen

Nederland wordt jaarlijks overspoeld door toeristen. Verschillende bedrijven verdienen hier een aanzienlijk deel van hun omzet aan, maar ook particulieren kunnen er de vruchten van plukken. Afgezien van het aanbieden van een slaapplek op Airbnb, kun je op Withlocals.nl ook onder meer diners en thuisconcerten aan toeristen aanbieden. Het kan, naast een gezellige avond, zelfs inkomsten opleveren.

3. Verplaats jezelf op alternatieve wijze

Voor het rondtoeren of het op en neer reizen ben je niet per se aangewezen op de gevestigde vervoersopties. Huur relatief goedkoop een auto van je burens via Snappcar.nl of ga carpoolen via Blablacar.nl. Op Goboat.nl en Barqo.nl zijn particuliere boten beschikbaar die, afhankelijk van de inleg van het aantal passagiers, relatief weinig hoeven te kosten.

Heb jij goed zicht op jouw financiële situatie? Met hulp van het Financieel fit Gesprek en de online tools van ING kun je snel en simpel je inkomsten en uitgaven, woonsituatie, vermogen of pensioen onder de loep nemen. Pak nu aan. Grote kans dat je dan meer uit je geld kunt halen.

0	0	0	-	-
Reageer	Share	Tweet	1	E-mail

- Muziek
- Boek en cultuur
- Media
- Lifestyle**
- Gezondheid
- Eten & Drinken
- Werk & Privé
- Wonen
- Reizen
- Overig**
- Wetenschap
- Opmerkelijk
- Dieren
- Auto
- Video's
- Regionaal**

vakantiebestedingen daarden met 15 procent en uitgaansbestedingen met 12 procent. Hoe zorg je ervoor dat dat niet ten koste gaat van het plezier?

Onderstaande tips wijzen je op alternatieven die je, naast de gebruikelijke gratis evenementen en kortingskaarten, zomaar over het hoofd zou zien:

Gesponsorde Advertentie van ING

1. Breng je tijd door met 'locals'

Zonder dat het veel hoeft te kosten kun je met verschillende apps en websites een leuke tijd beleven met 'locals' die je tot voor kort niet kende. Airbnb, de particuliere marktplaats voor bed & breakfasts, is een bekend voorbeeld. Denk ook aan mobiele applicaties als Party with a Local, waarmee je iemand gratis kan vragen of je met haar/zijn vriendengroep mee uit mag gaan. Pas natuurlijk wel op je uitgaven.

2. Breng je tijd door met toeristen

Nederland wordt jaarlijks overspoeld door toeristen. Verschillende bedrijven verdienen hier een aanzienlijk deel van hun omzet aan, maar ook particulieren kunnen er de vruchten van plukken. Afgezien van het aanbieden van een slaapplek op Airbnb, kun je op Withlocals.nl ook onder meer diners en thuisconcerten aan toeristen aanbieden. Het kan, naast een gezellige avond, zelfs inkomsten opleveren.

3. Verplaats jezelf op alternatieve wijze

Voor het rondtoeren of het op en neer reizen ben je niet per se aangewezen op de gevestigde vervoersopties. Huur relatief goedkoop een auto van je bureu via Snappcar.nl of ga carpoolen via Blablacar.nl. Op Goboat.nl en Barqo.nl zijn particuliere boten beschikbaar die, afhankelijk van de inleg van het aantal passagiers, relatief weinig hoeven te kosten.

Heb jij goed zicht op jouw financiële situatie? Met hulp van het Financieel fit Gesprek en de online tools van ING kun je snel en simpel je inkomsten en uitgaven, woonsituatie, vermogen of pensioen onder de loep nemen. Pak nu aan. Grote

0	0	0	-	-
 Reageer	 Share	 Tweet	 8+ 1	 E-mail

Conditie 3 bottom

Lees de volgende tekst op de website van NU.nl, de volgende vragen gaan over deze tekst. Let op, het kan even duren voordat de tekst laadt!



Video 04 april 2019 | Het laatste nieuws het eerst op NU.nl

Voorpagina

Net binnen

Algemeen

Binnenland

Buitenland

Politiek

Terreur Europa

Economie

Geld

Ondernemen

Beurs

Belastingaangifte

Sport

Voetbal

Champions League

Formule 1

Wielrennen

MijnTeam

Tech

Internet

Gadgets

Games

Mobiel

Entertainment

Achterklap

Films en series

Muziek

Boek en cultuur

Media

Lifestyle

Gezondheid

Eten & Drinken

Werk & Privé

Wonen

Reizen

Overig

Wetenschap

Opmerkelijk

Dieren

NU.nl >



Besparen op uitgaan, zonder op plezier in te leveren

Gepubliceerd: 11 maart 2016 01:26
Laatste update: 15 maart 2016 10:09



Ruim eenderde van de Europeanen heeft vorig jaar zijn bestedingsruimte zien groeien door goed op de uitgaven te letten. Hoe kun je van de nood een deugd maken?

Van alle Europeanen die vorig jaar hun bestedingsruimte zagen groeien, zegt 36 procent daar in geslaagd te zijn door harder te sparen. Vooral Frankrijk, Oostenrijk en België kenden veel succesvolle spaarders, zo blijkt uit een recent internationaal onderzoek van ING onder bijna 1.500 personen in 15 landen.

Die besparingen lijken vooral invloed gehad te hebben op de vrije tijd. ING wijst op statistieken van Eurostat, gemeten tussen oktober 2014 en oktober 2015, waaruit blijkt dat Europeanen het meest bespaard hebben op vrije tijd. De vakantiebestedingen daalden met 15 procent en uitgaansbestedingen met 12 procent. Hoe zorg je ervoor dat dat niet ten koste gaat van het plezier?

Onderstaande tips wijzen je op alternatieven die je, naast de gebruikelijke gratis evenementen en kortingskaarten, zomaar over het hoofd zou zien:

1. Breng je tijd door met 'locals'

Zonder dat het veel hoeft te kosten kun je met verschillende apps en websites een leuke tijd beleven met 'locals' die je tot voor kort niet kende. Airbnb, de particuliere marktplaats voor bed & breakfasts, is een bekend voorbeeld. Denk ook aan mobiele applicaties als Party with a Local, waarmee je iemand gratis kan vragen of je met haar/zijn vriendengroep mee uit mag gaan. Pas natuurlijk wel op je uitgaven.

2. Breng je tijd door met toeristen

Nederland wordt jaarlijks overspoeld door toeristen. Verschillende bedrijven verdienen hier een aanzienlijk deel van hun omzet aan, maar ook particulieren kunnen er de vruchten van plukken. Afgezien van het aanbieden van een slaapplaats op Airbnb, kun je op Withlocals.nl ook onder meer diners en thuis-

Conditie 2 Middle

Lees de volgende tekst op de website van NU.nl, de volgende vragen gaan over deze tekst. Let op, het kan even duren voordat de tekst laadt!



The screenshot shows the NU.nl website interface. At the top left is the NU.nl logo. To its right, the date 'Vrijdag 01 april 2016' and the slogan 'Het laatste nieuws het eerst op NU.nl' are displayed. A search icon is on the far right. A navigation bar below the header contains the text 'NU.nl >'. On the left side, there is a vertical menu with categories: 'Voorpagina', 'Net binnen', 'Algemeen' (with sub-items: Binnenland, Buitenland, Politiek, Terreur Europa), 'Economie' (with sub-items: Geld, Ondernemen, Beurs, Belastingaangifte), 'Sport' (with sub-items: Voetbal, Champions League, Formule 1, Wielrennen, MijnTeam), 'Tech' (with sub-items: Internet, Gadgets, Games, Mobiel), and 'Entertainment' (with sub-items: Achterklap, Films en series). The main content area features a large image of silhouetted hands raised against a bright sun. The photo credit 'Foto: ING/123RF' is in the top right corner of the image. Below the image is the article title 'Besparen op uitgaan, zonder op plezier in te leveren'. Underneath the title, the publication date 'Gepubliceerd: 11 maart 2016 01:26' and the last update 'Laatste update: 15 maart 2016 10:09' are shown. To the right of these dates are social media sharing icons for LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter, and Google+. The article text begins with 'Ruim eenderde van de Europeanen heeft vorig jaar zijn bestedingsruimte zien groeien door goed op de uitgaven te letten. Hoe kun je van de nood een deugd maken?'. The next paragraph states: 'Van alle Europeanen die vorig jaar hun bestedingsruimte zagen groeien, zegt 36 procent daar in geslaagd te zijn door harder te sparen. Vooral Frankrijk, Oostenrijk en België kenden veel succesvolle spaarders, zo blijkt uit een recent internationaal onderzoek van ING onder bijna 1.500 personen in 15 landen.' The final paragraph starts with 'Die besparingen lijken vooral invloed gehad te hebben op de vrije tijd. ING wijst op statistieken van Eurostat, gemeten tussen oktober 2014 en oktober 2015, waaruit blijkt dat Europeanen het meest bespaard hebben op vrije tijd. De'.

Auto
Video's
Regionaal

concerten aan toeristen aanbieden. Het kan, naast een gezellige avond, zelfs inkomsten opleveren.

3. Verplaats jezelf op alternatieve wijze

Voor het rondtoeren of het op en neer reizen ben je niet per se aangewezen op de gevestigde vervoersopties. Huur relatief goedkoop een auto van je bureu via Snappcar.nl of ga carpoolen via Blablacar.nl. Op Goboat.nl en Barqo.nl zijn particuliere boten beschikbaar die, afhankelijk van de inleg van het aantal passagiers, relatief weinig hoeven te kosten.

Heb jij goed zicht op jouw financiële situatie? Met hulp van het Financieel fit Gesprek en de online tools van ING kun je snel en simpel je inkomsten en uitgaven, woonsituatie, vermogen of pensioen onder de loep nemen. Pak nu aan. Grote kans dat je dan meer uit je geld kunt halen.

Gesponsorde Advertentie van ING

0	0	0	-	-
Reageer	Share	Tweet	8+ 1	E-mail

Conditie 4 No discoure

Lees de volgende tekst op de website van NU.nl, de volgende vragen gaan over deze tekst. Let op, het kan even duren voordat de tekst laadt!

NU.nl

Vrijdag 01 april 2016 Het laatste nieuws het eerst op NU.nl

NU.nl >

Foto: ING/123RF

- Sport**
- Voetbal
- Champions League
- Formule 1
- Wielrennen
- MijnTeam
- Tech**
- Internet
- Gadgets
- Games
- Mobiel
- Entertainment**
- Achterklap
- Films en series
- Muziek
- Boek en cultuur
- Media
- Lifestyle**
- Gezondheid
- Eten & Drinken
- Werk & Privé
- Wonen
- Reizen
- Overig**
- Wetenschap
- Opmerkelijk
- Dieren
- Auto
- Video's
- Regionaal**



Besparen op uitgaan, zonder op plezier in te leveren

Gepubliceerd: 11 maart 2016 01:26
 Laatste update: 15 maart 2016 10:09



Ruim eenderde van de Europeanen heeft vorig jaar zijn bestedingsruimte zien groeien door goed op de uitgaven te letten. Hoe kun je van de nood een deugd maken?

Van alle Europeanen die vorig jaar hun bestedingsruimte zagen groeien, zegt 36 procent daar in geslaagd te zijn door harder te sparen. Vooral Frankrijk, Oostenrijk en België kenden veel succesvolle spaarders, zo blijkt uit een recent internationaal onderzoek van ING onder bijna 1.500 personen in 15 landen.

Die besparingen lijken vooral invloed gehad te hebben op de vrije tijd. ING wijst op statistieken van Eurostat, gemeten tussen oktober 2014 en oktober 2015, waaruit blijkt dat Europeanen het meest bespaard hebben op vrije tijd. De vakantiebestedingen daalden met 15 procent en uitgaansbestedingen met 12 procent. Hoe zorg je ervoor dat dat niet ten koste gaat van het plezier?

Onderstaande tips wijzen je op alternatieven die je, naast de gebruikelijke gratis evenementen en kortingskaarten, zomaar over het hoofd zou zien:

1. Breng je tijd door met 'locals'

Zonder dat het veel hoeft te kosten kun je met verschillende apps en websites een leuke tijd beleven met 'locals' die je tot voor kort niet kende. Airbnb, de particuliere marktplaats voor bed & breakfasts, is een bekend voorbeeld. Denk ook aan mobiele applicaties als Party with a Local, waarmee je iemand gratis kan vragen of je met haar/zijn vriendengroep mee uit mag gaan. Pas natuurlijk wel op je uitgaven.

2. Breng je tijd door met toeristen

Nederland wordt jaarlijks overspoeld door toeristen. Verschillende bedrijven verdienen hier een aanzienlijk deel van hun omzet aan, maar ook particulieren kunnen er de vruchten van plukken. Afgezien van het aanbieden van een slaapplek op Airbnb, kun je op Withlocals.nl ook onder meer diners en thuisconcerten aan toeristen aanbieden. Het kan, naast een gezellige avond, zelfs inkomsten opleveren.

3. Verplaats jezelf op alternatieve wijze

Voor het rondtoeren of het op en neer reizen ben je niet per se aangewezen op de gevestigde vervoersopties. Huur relatief goedkoop een auto van je burens via Snappcar.nl of ga carpoolen via Blablacar.nl. Op Goboat.nl en Barqo.nl zijn particuliere boten beschikbaar die, afhankelijk van de inleg van het aantal passagiers, relatief weinig hoeven te kosten.

Heb jij goed zicht op jouw financiële situatie? Met hulp van het Financieel fit Gesprek en de online tools van ING kun je snel en simpel je inkomsten en uitgaven, woonsituatie, vermogen of pensioen onder de loep nemen. Pak nu aan. Grote kans dat je dan meer uit je geld kunt halen.





Gelezen ja of nee?

2. Heeft u de tekst van NU.nl helemaal kunnen lezen?

- Ja, ik heb de tekst helemaal gelezen
 - Nee, ik heb de tekst niet helemaal gelezen
 - Nee, de tekst laden niet
 - Anders:
-

Purchase intention voor disclosure

3. Hoe negatief of positief is uw oordeel over de spaarrekening van de ING?

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent zeer negatief en 7 zeer positief.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Ze^er negatⁱef Ze^er positⁱef

4. Hoe interessant vindt u de spaarrekening van de ING?

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent zeer oninteressant en 7 zeer interessant.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Ze^er onint^eressant Ze^er int^eressant

5. Hoe waarschijnlijk is het dat u de spaarrekening van de ING binnen een half jaar zal afnemen?

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent zeer onwaarschijnlijk en 7 zeer waarschijnlijk.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Zeer onwaarschijnlijk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer waarschijnlijk

Disclosure

6. Heeft u enige vorm van adverteren gezien op de webpagina van NU.nl?

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent dat u zeker geen advertenties heeft gezien en 7 dat u zeker weet dat u een advertentie heeft gezien.

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
	Helemaal mee oneens	Grotendeels mee oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neutraal	Enigszins mee eens	Grotendeels mee eens	Helema mee eens
Ik heb enige vorm van adverteren gezien op de webpagina van NU.nl	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Deception

De tekst die u net heeft gelezen is een gesponsorde tekst van de ING. Dit wordt native advertisement genoemd. Native advertisement is wanneer de advertentie, in dit geval van de ING, de vorm aanneemt van de website waarop deze wordt geplaatst, in dit geval NU.nl. Nu u op de hoogte bent dat u een advertentie hebt gelezen kunt u doorgaan met de volgende vragen

7. In de volgende drie vragen wordt u gevraagd antwoord te geven op de vraag hoe u de advertentie van de ING heeft ervaren.

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. De antwoord mogelijkheden zijn anders bij elke vraag.

Ik heb de advertentie van de ING ervaren als:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Zeer nauwkeurig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer misleidend
Zeer waarheidsgetrouw	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer bedriegelijk
Zeer feitelijk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer vervormd

Purchase intention na disclosure

Nu u weet dat de tekst op NU.nl een advertentie is willen we u vragen de volgende vragen opnieuw te beantwoorden.

8. Hoe negatief of positief is uw oordeel over de spaarrekening van de ING?
Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent zeer negatief en 7 zeer positief.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Zeer negatief	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer positief

9. Hoe interessant vindt u de spaarrekening van de ING?

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent zeer oninteressant en 7 zeer interessant.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Zeer oninteressant	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer intressant

10. Hoe waarschijnlijk is het dat u de spaarrekening van de ING binnen een half jaar zal afnemen?

Gelieve aan te geven op een schaal van 1 tot 7. Waar 1 betekent zeer onwaarschijnlijk en 7 zeer waarschijnlijk.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Zeer onwaarschijnlijk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zeer waarschijnlijk

Demographics

Als laatste willen we u vragen om de volgende gegevens in te vullen:

11. Wat is uw leeftijd?

12. Wat is uw geslacht?

- Man
 Vrouw
-

13. In welk land woont u?

14. Met welke opleiding bent u op dit moment bezig?

- Ik ben nog niet klaar met de middelbare school
 Middelbare school diploma
 Bachelor diploma
 Master diploma
 Doctoraat
 Anders:
-

Druk op de >> om u antwoorden op de slaan!

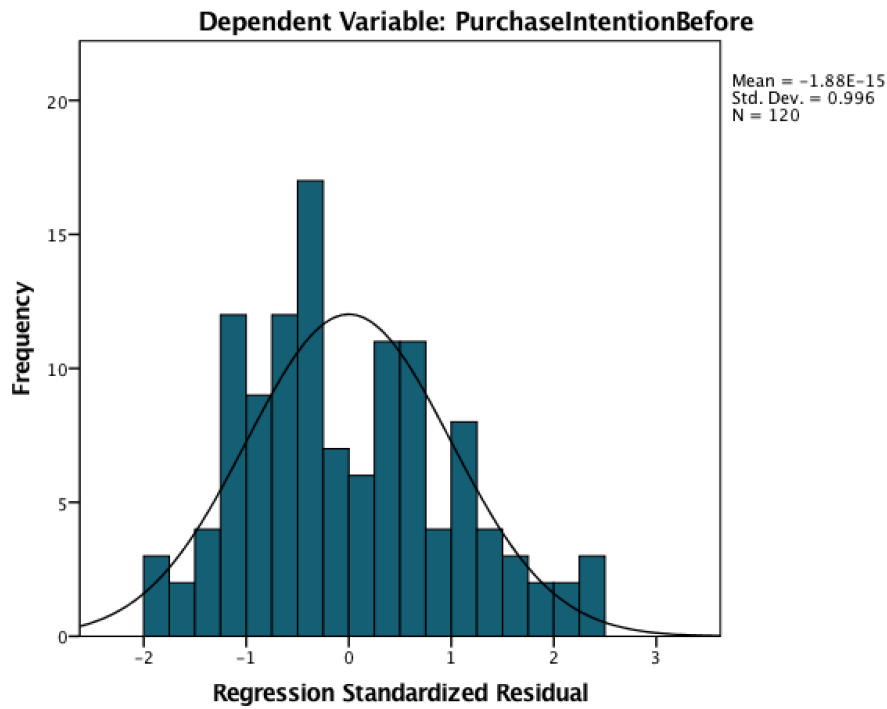
U bent aan het einde gekomen van de vragenlijst. Hartelijk dank voor het invullen van de vragenlijst!

Als u vragen of feedback heeft over de vragenlijst of het onderzoek, dan kunt u deze hieronder invullen. Als u wilt dat er contact met u wordt opgenomen, dan dient u tevens uw e-mail adres in te vullen.

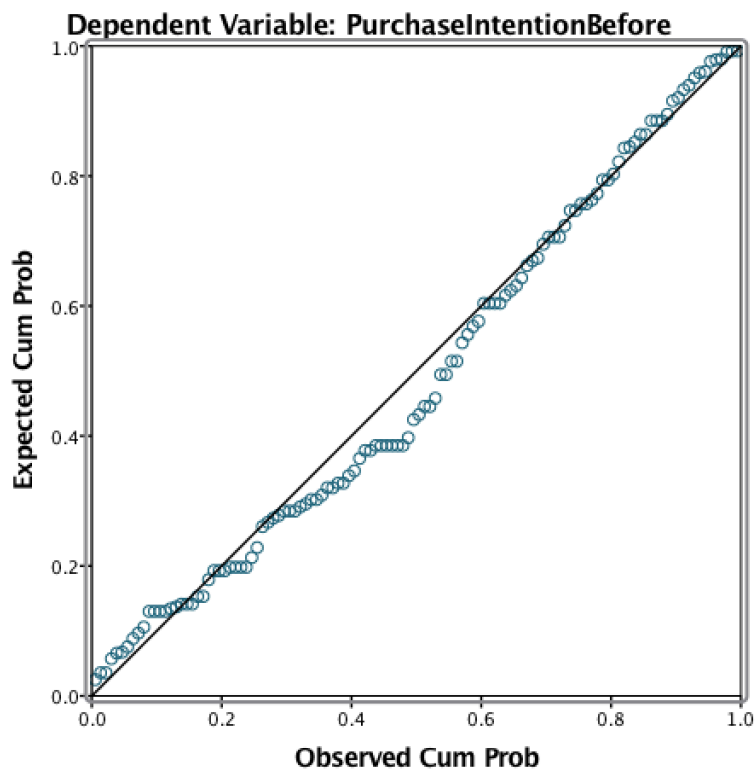
Het is belangrijk om op de >> te klikken om u antwoorden op de slaan!

Met vriendelijke groeten,
Merel Rosamarijn Krot

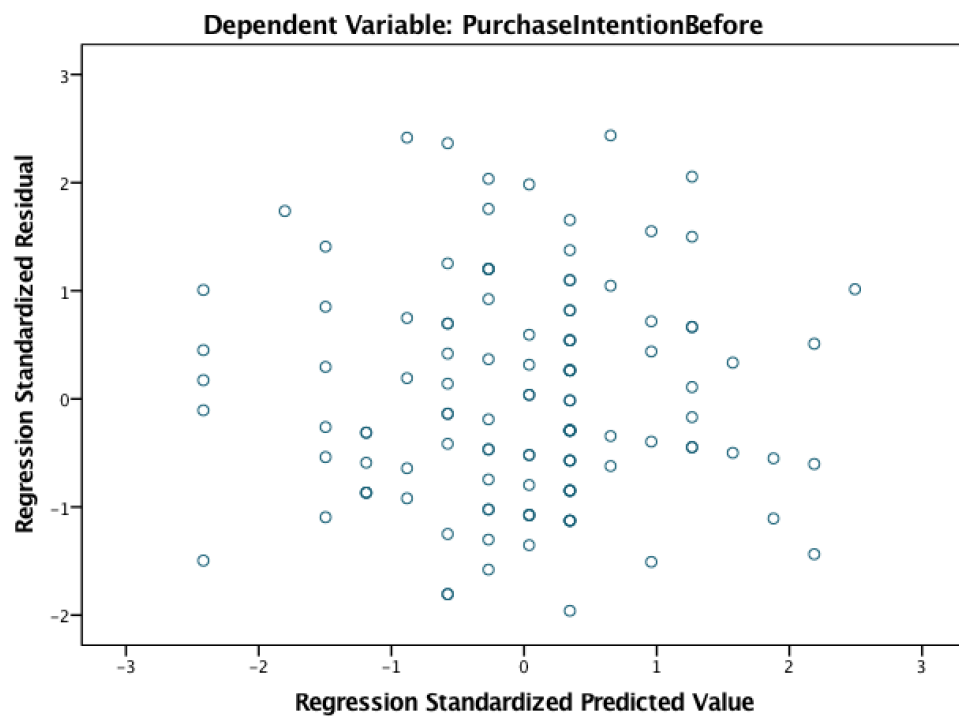
Appendix B, Graphs



Graph B1: assumption check Linear Regression Analysis - Histogram



Graph B2: normal P-P plot of Linear Regression Analysis standardized residual



Graph B3: scatterplot