How YouTube influencers are renewing the 'art of advertising'

Comparing the effects of unboxing videos and official product launch videos on YouTube, on the product attitudes of Generation C consumers.

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Abstract

This study has investigated the effect of influencer marketing and native advertising practices, in comparison to traditional marketing and advertising techniques. Several different videos were used as research stimuli to trigger respondents to form an opinion on a product that was displayed in all videos. In order to get a complete sense of people's product attitudes, this concept was measured with three sub-variables: brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking. To compare the effects that exposure to influencer marketing, native advertising, and traditional marketing messages have on people's product attitudes, an experiment with a post-test only control group design was conducted. The experiment consisted of four conditions in total: three experimental groups and one control group. Data was collected for this experiment using an online questionnaire that was distributed through the researcher's personal network. Analyzing the gathered data through various statistical tests found that influencer marketing in the form of non-sponsored unboxing videos was not found to be better at generating more positive product attitudes than either native advertising or traditional marketing messages. Actually, the latter were found to be more effective in increasing people's product attitudes as a whole, compared to native advertising messages. When compared to influencer marketing, traditional marketing messages were found to be better at increasing product liking and generating more positive brand attitudes. Additional variables like product owning, brand familiarity, familiarity with the videos, and YouTube usage motivations were found to also have an effect the product attitude variables. Business should according to these results not fixate on influencer marketing and native advertising, but keep designing traditional marketing messages as well, as they are found to be particularly more effective in enhancing brand attitudes and product liking. In addition, people who already own a product from the brand and people who reported to be familiar with the brand were found to overall hold more positive product attitudes. Organisations should use this information and target these people in order to further enhance their product attitudes, and perhaps use them in spreading a positive word about their brand and products. Finally, to generate the most positive product attitudes, organisations should consider the YouTube usage motivations of their target group before deciding on what type of message to use.

Keywords: online influencers, influencer marketing, native advertising, YouTube, product attitude

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1. Introduction

"A good advertisement is one which sells the product without drawing attention to itself".

(Endsor, 2017)

This quote was once stated by one of the 'fathers of advertising', David Ogilvy (Hayden, 2013). In his years as an advertising executive, he created many ads and wrote books that are still read by today's marketing and advertising practitioners. Ogilvy states with this quote that an effective advertisement (i.e. an advertisement that persuades people to buy) does not draw too much attention to the product. What truly matters is the story in an ad (Hayden, 2013). This quote is interesting to consider since Ogilvy was apparently already considering the idea of 'soft sell ads' in the 1950s (Hayden, 2013). Whereas back in the days marketers thought that direct and overt advertisements were the most effective in persuading consumers to buy, this idea is not applicable anymore nowadays.

With the rise of the internet, marketing, advertising, and PR practices have changed drastically as a result of the interactivity, dialogue, and engagement that social media have brought along (O'Reilly, 2007). As a result, practitioners are required to follow these developments and adapt to them by changing existing practices. To stand out from the clutter and make their brand unique and appealing, advertising practitioners need to listen carefully to the desires of their target audiences (De Keyser, Lemon, Klaus, & Keiningham, 2015). With this, content marketers nowadays can learn a lot from Ogilvy's ideas on soft sell ads. He was convinced that in order to connect with a certain audience, you should speak their language:

"If you're trying to persuade people to do something, or buy something, it seems to me you should use their language, the language they use every day, the language in which they think." (Emig, 2017)

With this quote, Ogilvy stated that it is of vital importance that marketers first understand their target group, and get to know their desires, needs, and most importantly, the language that appeals to them (Hayden, 2013). This notion of putting the consumer central is applied in today's marketing world more than ever. Organizations are facing a vast growth in competition every year, and hence more and more products are added to the pool of options that customers can nowadays choose from when buying a certain product (Palmatier, Kumar,

& Harmeling, 2017). In addition, marketing and PR practitioners are confronted with an increasing amount of media channels that they can use to spread their messages. The questions that marketers these days mostly struggle with is therefore not so much how to spread their message, but rather how to stand out from the clutter, catch the attention of consumers, and design a persuasive message that is effective (Palmatier, Kumar, & Harmeling, 2017). In other words, marketers and advertisers have come to realize that they should 'ride the (social) media wave' and make use of its popularity and reach in order to spread marketing messages.

In order to attract and keep the attention of consumers, organizations are required to get to know their consumers; speak their language and know their desires and needs (Palmatier, Kumar, & Harmeling, 2017). Social media are nowadays becoming more and more popular platforms for companies to advertise their products. There are various ways for marketers to create awareness around their products using these social media platforms, and obviously marketers and advertisers are searching for the most profitable strategy to create this awareness. To achieve this, organisations are engaging more and more in new forms of marketing and advertising, referred to as *influencer marketing* and *native advertising*. These two concepts should not be used interchangeably since they refer to two vastly different approaches. What both approaches do have in common is a collaborative relationship between an organisation and *online influencers*. Influencers are –as their name reveals- people who have a rather large reach and can therefore contribute greatly to the spread of a marketing message (Nazerali, 2017). Where *influencer marketing* refers to a non-contractual collaboration with the influencer, *native advertising* is an approach where influencers are directly sponsored by an organisation in exchange for product or service promotion. Linqia (2017) conducted research on how organisations are using influencer marketing, and whether and how they plan to further elaborate and build on this strategy. Their survey revealed that in 2017, 86% of the marketers who participated in the study, used influencer marketing. No less than 92% of them reported that they found this strategy very effective. These results show the relevance of influencer marketing and how the employment of the strategy is rising in the past years.

Most of these influencers nowadays operate online and use various social media platforms to spread their messages. One of the most popular platforms where these online influencers are present is YouTube (Nazerali, 2017). When Google acquired YouTube in 2006, their main aim was to make the platform more commercial, and hence develop a revenue-generating product (Gerhards, 2017). Content creators are recognizing this trend too, which results in a drastic rise in new 'YouTubers' creating engaging content in favor of numerous brands and products (Gerhards, 2017). The number of 'YouTubers' is rising rapidly, and so is

the number of sponsorships that companies offer these influencers to advertise their products. Often, when YouTube influencers close a sponsorship deal with a certain brand, this entail that they place the product in one of their videos, and subsequently also post an affiliated link in the description box under the YouTube video. This way, the YouTuber will get rewarded when the product is purchased by people clicking on that specific link, or using a specific coupon code that is attributed to the YouTuber (Wu, 216). Important to note is the difference between product placement and advertising. If the content of the video is controlled by the brand, it is referred to as *advertising*, yet when the influencer determines the nature of the content and the way the product is displayed, it falls under the category *product placement* (Gerhards, 2017).

YouTube influencers foster a strong relationship with their followers, which results in a very engaged and tied audience. Research proved that especially younger consumers are just as likely to believe an influential YouTuber, as a celebrity (Stanford, 2017). This study examines respondents from 'Generation C' a sub-group within the larger Millennial generation (i.e. people born between 1980 and 1999), consisting of consumers born between 1990 and 2000 who deeply value creation, curation, connection and community (Williams, Crittenden, Keo, & McCarty, 2012). Generation C consumers are less susceptible to direct advertising, but rather seek for authentic brands that distribute genuine and fresh messages (Stanford, 2017). Moreover, a study amongst Millennials revealed that 40% of YouTube subscribers states that they relate more to YouTube creators than to traditional celebrities, or even to some of their friends (O'Neil-Hart & Blumenstein, 2016). Millennials also reported to believe that YouTube influencers are trendsetters, and 60% even says they would follow their advice in making a purchase decision (O'Neil-Hart & Blumenstein, 2016).

Since these developments in influencer engagement are still relatively new, it is interesting to find out what the consequences are of these new strategies. Are these influencers truly as successful as previous research stated? Is this just all a massive buzz that will blow over in a few years, or are we at the forefront of an 'influencer revolution'? These questions are very relevant to many businesses today that are using social media in their marketing and advertising campaigns. Marketers need to stay up-to-date with the latest developments in the field to keep their brand alive and memorable.

Influencer marketing and native advertising sound very appealing in the first place. However, since these are two relatively new techniques, their consequences and effects are still quite undiscovered. Therefore, there are some gaps in the current academic literature regarding influencer marketing and native advertising. Even though both strategies are proven to be effective, it is also found that disclosure of sponsorships evokes consumers' persuasion

resistance. This study will test whether the above-mentioned assumptions are true for the category tech products. The framework that this research uses to test the assumptions is innovative since it compares the effects of sponsored and non-sponsored unboxing videos created by YouTubers, to the effects of official product launch videos, which are considered to be a traditional advertising message. Never before have these effects been compared in one study. Moreover, the findings of this research can contribute to the literature on whether it is effective for marketers to cooperate with YouTube influencers to advertise a product, or that perhaps traditional marketing messages are more effective since they are expected not to evoke persuasion resistance. Lastly, this study also vastly contributes to the advertising literature since it examines Generation C consumers, who have thus far remained yet unexamined. Since they are considered to be the future generation, it is highly important to study their behaviour, attitudes, and opinions.

1.1 Research questions

This research will thus contribute to filling the above-mentioned gaps by examining which type of product placement in YouTube videos has the most positive effect on people's product attitude. Traditional advertising techniques are compared to the new wave of influencer marketing and native advertising practices. The effect of an official product launch video that is carefully designed by an organisation itself, will be compared to the effect of an unboxing video made by either a sponsored or a non-sponsored YouTube influencer. The effects of these videos will be measured in terms of people's product attitude. This is an overarching concept that consists of three smaller concepts: purchase intention, brand attitude, and product liking. These research objectives led to the following research questions:

1. *Is there a difference in the product attitudes of Generation C consumers after watching an official product launch video as opposed to watching an unboxing video on YouTube?*
2. *Is there a difference in the product attitudes of Generation C consumers after watching a sponsored or a non-sponsored unboxing video created by a YouTube influencer?*

To test these conditions and compare their outcomes, an online experiment was conducted. The experiment was designed in an online survey software, which resulted in a questionnaire that was distributed online.

In the remainder of this thesis, the theoretical foundations on which the study is built will be explained in detail first. These central concepts should be understood thoroughly in order to fully understand the context of the research. After that, the methodological design of this study will be outlined. The sample that was used to gather data from, and the data collection instrument that was designed to gather this data will be clarified. Next, the results of the analysis performed will be presented in detail, together with their statistical meanings. After that, the implications of these results will be discussed. The Master's thesis will be concluded by acknowledging the limitations of this study and providing the reader with interesting suggestions for future research.

2. Theoretical framework

Over the past few years, a lot of developments were set in motion because of the rise and expansion of Web 2.0. One of the main advocates of *Web 2.0* and its accompanying developments is Tim O'Reilly. After the burst of the dot-com bubble in 2001, he was the first to come up with a new term to describe all the positive consequences of the crash (O'Reilly, 2007). The main factor that differentiates Web 1.0 from Web 2.0 is that Web 2.0 embraces the power of *collective intelligence* (O'Reilly, 2007). Basically, Web 2.0 exists because of its *users* who collectively and actively create, consume, and spread new content and sites.

The rise of Web 2.0 has brought along many buzzwords like interactivity, social media, dialogue, and engagement. According to O'Reilly (2007), these developments that are now on the forefront of society have had, and keep having, a massive impact on the business world. Especially in the fields of marketing, advertising, and PR, every campaign or idea is nowadays based on the notions of interactivity, dialogue and engagement (Palmatier, Kumar, & Harmeling, 2017). Terms like customer engagement, customer experience, and the customer journey have become central to every marketing department to create successful campaigns that appeal to consumers. These concepts will be briefly described in the coming paragraphs, together with an explanation on how they relate to influencer marketing and native advertising on YouTube. These concepts are important to understand since the effect of influencer marketing and native advertising practices on people's attitudes will be examined, when these practices are used in unboxing videos and official product launch videos distributed on the social medium YouTube.

2.1 Customer engagement

Concepts like 'customer relationship management' and 'relationship marketing' have always implied that organisations need to build some sort of connection with their customers to gain mutual understanding, and with that, long-term loyalty and trust (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). Yet, these words are slowly being forced to make room for a broader term: *customer engagement*. This concept has been widely addressed by many academics over the last couple of years and is thus a 'hot topic'. Over the past years, when social media became more and more incorporated in most companies' marketing strategies, marketers started to realize that marketing is not just about increasing customers' purchases, but that there is so much more to gain beyond sales (Palmatier, Kumar, & Harmeling, 2017). Engaged customers are people who have had positive experiences with an organisation, are satisfied with their purchase(s), and

feel an emotional connection towards the organisation (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). In other words, businesses can gain engaged customers by making sure their experiences with the organisation are as positive and pleasant as possible.

2.2. Customer experience

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the main desire for many organisations is to have engaged customers with whom the organisation shares an important and valuable connection that gains them some important benefits like loyalty and trust (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). According to a study by Accenture (2015), many organisations have therefore recognized the importance of optimizing the *customer experience*. A customer's experience is "comprised of cognitive, emotional, physical, sensorial, spiritual, and social elements" (De Keyser et al., 2015, p. 23), that are activated in response to various contact moments with the organisation (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). Customer experiences arise from the interactions that customers have with the organisations and its products (Verhoef, Lemon, Parasuraman, Roggeveen, Tsiros, & Schlesinger, 2009). These interactions are also referred to as *touchpoints*. Organisations are aware that their customers are interacting with them through increasingly more touchpoints. Most touchpoints nowadays are online, for instance social media platforms, websites, and so on (Verhoef et al., 2009). Because of technological developments like social media and Web 2.0, more and more touchpoints are added to the options consumers can choose from. As a result, consumers can take multiple 'paths' to 'collect their experiences' with a certain organisation, product, or service. Such a path is in academic literature on customer experiences often referred to as the customer journey (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016).

2.3 Customer journey

Lemon and Verhoef (2016) describe the *customer journey* as "a collection of experiences with a firm over time during the purchase cycle across multiple touchpoints" (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016, p.74). In other words, the customer journey is an assembly of all touchpoints that a customer has encountered in their 'path' of gaining customer experiences. The customer journey is called a journey because it consists of several 'stages' or 'phases' that the customer goes through in a purchase process (Verhoef et al., 2009). The customer journey consists of three main phases: (1) prepurchase, (2) purchase, and (3) postpurchase (Puccinelli, Goodstein, Grewal, Price, Raghubir, & Stewart, 2009).

Because of the increasing number of touchpoints through which consumers can nowadays interact with a firm, the customer journey is becoming ever more complex. Hence,

improving the customer journey requires quite some investments in terms of time and money. However, these investments will eventually pay off since researchers have found that a clear and accessible customer journey will result in more positive customer experiences, which will in turn improve the bottom line of the organisation by increasing customer loyalty and positive recommendations by consumers (Homburg, Jozić, & Kuehnl, 2017).

2.4 Consumer-generated content

The first stage of the customer journey called the 'pre-purchase stage' is the focus of this study. This stage involves all the experiences that a customer gathers before the actual purchase of a product or service (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). The customer journey always starts off with the customer recognizing a desire or need for a certain product. This recognition is followed up by the customer searching and gathering information, taking into consideration various options, and eventually making an informed decision about what product or service to purchase (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016).

With the rise of online social media platforms, the options to explore the various possibilities in a certain product or service category have grown immensely. Social media are characterized by user-generated content (Shao, 2009; Gillins, 2008). In this study, the term *consumer-generated content* would perhaps be more applicable (Williams, Crittenden, Keo, & McCarty, 2012). More and more consumers are creating, initiating, and circulating new sources of information online with the intent to educate and inform their fellow consumers about products, services, and brands (Gillins, 2008; Williams et al., 2012). Another study by Shao (2009) also proved this point by using the 'uses and gratifications theory' to explain why people are using user-generated content. They found that one of the three main motives for people to use user-generated content was consuming it for information and entertainment purposes (Shao, 2009). In other words, consumers are getting more and more accustomed to searching and retrieving valuable information about products and services from their fellow Internet users (Shao, 2009; Liu, Jiang, Lin, Ding, Duan, & Xu, 2015).

2.5 Online influencers on YouTube and influencer marketing/native advertising

People who are perceived to have obtained a high online status when it comes to informing other people about products or services are referred to as *online influencers* (Liu et al., 2015). Lately, social media influencers are often referred to with the term 'micro-celebrities' (Arthurs, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). Like general celebrities, micro-celebrities are influential, and recognized by a group of people. In the case of micro-celebrities

however, influencers have a smaller following than general celebrities. High visibility on social media is positively related to an increased micro-celebrity status (Arthurs, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). The higher the status of the micro-celebrity, the more influence they can exert, and thus the more valuable they are to marketers and advertisers who are in search for an influential person to help spread messages about their brand.

Marketers and advertisers have come to recognize the rise of online influencers and their persuasive power, and are therefore more and more considering to collaborate with them to promote products or services. There are three different ways in which brands can collaborate with influencers: (1) hire them to become ambassadors (owned media), (2) sponsor them to promote their products (paid media), or (3) convince them to collaborate for free (earned media) (Pollitt, 2017). The term *influencer marketing* is used to refer to the latter form of collaborative relationship. In this collaboration, the influencer does not have a financial contract with the organisation, yet can still receive incentives in return for their promotion efforts (e.g. money or the product itself). With *native advertising* on the other hand, marketing messages are distributed by using the credibility of a content publisher to successfully spread a message (Wojdunski & Golan, 2016). In this case, the influencer is directly under contract with the organisation to help promote a certain product or service in return for a pre-established (monetary) incentive (Pollitt, 2017). As a results of the contractual collaboration, the content that sponsored influencer make is often different from the content they would produce when they are not sponsored, seeing that the brand that sponsors them wants to control what is being said and how the product is portrayed in the video.

In essence, the idea of influencer marketing stems from the two-step flow model of communication, established by Katz and Lazarsfeld in the mid-nineties. The *two-step flow model* rests on the notion that ideas from mass media, first go to opinion leaders, who will then spread the message to a wider audience (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955). Social media enables people to easily spread content, resulting in the rise of more and more content creators. This content is often watched, commented on and shared by so called 'followers' (Mohr, 2014). As a result, social media has become a recognized and increasingly popular source of information to many people. In fact, Nielsen (2015) conducted a global survey on trust in advertising and found that the majority of the consumers worldwide reported that they have more trust in the information their peer-influencers convey, over any other form of marketing. Influencer marketing is found to be very effective since people consider the messages form an influential person to be more authentic and genuine than traditional advertising messages coming from the company itself (Arthus, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). Influencers are often found to be perceived as

'friends' or 'like-minded people', without a double agenda, but instead solely the intent to genuinely inform people about a certain product or service. Together with the growing popularity of social media, these facts are persuading more and more marketers to invest in innovative social media campaigns (eMarketer, 2017).

2.5.1 YouTube influencers

One platform that is specifically on the rise to become the most widely used platform amongst online influencers is YouTube (Kim, 2012). YouTube is a platform displaying an enormous collection of video content (Smith, Fischer, & Yongjian, 2012). The platform was only founded in 2005, yet has grown to become the largest video-content platform in the world. Users of the medium can consume, create, share, and comment on all videos uploaded on the platform (Smith, Fischer, & Yongjian, 2012). A lot of content on the platform has the purpose of entertaining the users, yet there is an increase in the amount of brand-related user-generated content (Smith, Fischer, & Yongjian, 2012).

In its early days, YouTube's distinctive characteristic was the fact that it contained amateur videos, rather than content created with commercial intentions. After Google purchased YouTube in 2006, the future plans for the platform changed drastically, making the platform more attractive to marketers and advertisers (Arthurs, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). As a result, the platform has gained many new content creators who gradually aim to monetize their videos, opposed to their fellow creators who only use the platform for pleasure purposes in the past (Gerhards, 2017). Because of these developments, many content creators on YouTube are improving their production skills, making their content more compatible and attractive to advertisers' needs and desires, resulting in a more professionalized and commercialized platform (Gerhards, 2017).

YouTube has now evolved into a commercial platform on which the production of user-generated content is increasingly driven by commercial motives (Arthurs, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). The technical framework on which YouTube is built makes the platform highly suitable for measuring viewer engagement such as likes, views, shares, subscriptions, and comments. This information is often used to assess the value and effectiveness of a certain video. YouTube content creators (influencers) obviously want their videos to score high on engagement, in order to receive monetary rewards for their efforts (Arthurs, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). In other words, YouTube influencers are thus required to leverage on a positive reputation to get sponsorships or generate revenue for their promotional efforts.

2.5.2 Ethical concerns regarding native advertising

The phenomenon of native advertising on YouTube emerged around 2009, when an amateur video content creator reached one million subscribers (Gerhards, 2017). Messages spread by YouTube influencers are often considered to be more credible than traditional marketing messages, because of the amateur and independent origins of the YouTuber (Gerhards, 2017). This is exactly what makes YouTubers particularly interesting for marketers. Ever since then, more and more marketers started to consider the platform for advertisements and product placements deals (Gerhards, 2017). Even though native advertising has been seeing an increasing popularity over the past years (Wojdunski & Golan, 2016), researchers have discovered some important problems in terms of its persuasive power (Lee, Kim, & Ham, 2016). Native advertising has proven to be more successful than general advertising campaigns since the persuasive message is more or less covert and less interruptive (van Reijmersdal, Fransen, van Noort, Opree, Vandeberg, Reusch, Lieshout, & Boerman, 2016). However, this 'covert' nature of native advertising has also raised some ethical concerns among practitioners in PR, marketing and journalism (Sweetser, Ahn, Golan, & Hochman, 2016; Schauster, Ferrucci, & Neill, 2016). Often, consumers have a hard time recognizing the persuasive messages that are hidden in the format of native advertising content. Practitioners in PR, marketing, and advertising admit that native advertising is hence a beneficial revenue generator, while also voicing concerns because of its lack of transparency and the deceptive nature of the content. These two characteristics of native advertising go against the building blocks of social responsibility of the marketer, and therefore raise some ethical concerns (Schauster, Ferrucci, & Neill, 2016).

An example of the ethical concerns about native advertising is the establishment of 'The Social Code YouTube' in the Netherlands. A group of around 20 Dutch YouTubers has established a so called 'Social Code YouTube', along with a complete website that contains all the information about this code (https://www.desocialcode.nl). The code was initiated by these YouTubers since they found it important to increase the transparency about advertising in online videos. The development of this code contributes to the professionalization of the YouTube Community in the Netherlands (https://www.desocialcode.nl). In essence, this code requires YouTube influencers to be open about whether or not they are paid to advertise a certain product, or when they have received some product for free. In the end, codes like these should create more clarity for all YouTubers, advertisers, and consumers.

2.6 Persuasion theories: The Elaboration Likelihood model

This thesis is built on various persuasion theories on how people's attitudes are influenced. The Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion is a theory that describes two different ways in which people's attitudes can change: the central and the peripheral route to persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Often, people believe that when they have to make an important decision (e.g. regarding a purchase), they should carefully consider all the information available that is related to the purchase, and use this information in their decision-making process. In the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), this way of processing is referred to as the *central route to persuasion*. However, in reality it is often the case that people do not so carefully contemplate various options, but instead are guided by more peripheral cues that are in fact not that crucial in the decision-making process. This way of processing information is therefore referred to as the *peripheral route to persuasion.*

Marketers and advertisers often use peripherical cues to persuade people to purchase a certain product or service. In fact, research on persuasion has discovered six main principles of persuasion that marketers and advertisers often apply in their attempt to persuade people to buy: reciprocity, scarcity, authority, consistency, liking, and consensus. Of these six, the principles *authority* and *liking* are perhaps the most important to this study. The authority principle rests on the idea that people follow the lead of credible, knowledgeable experts (Cialdini, 2009). In order to apply this principle in practice, it is important to signal to the people that need to be persuaded why the source of the message is a credible, knowledgeable authority. The liking principle simply states that people like to agree with or say yes to people that they like (Cialdini, 2009). Persuasion science tells that people like other people that are similar to them, pay them compliments, and cooperate with them towards mutual goals. Both principles fit very well with the central concepts in this study: influencer marketing and native advertising. These two strategies make use of the authority and liking principles by using an influential, credible, and likeable person to convey a certain message, with the aim to positively influence people's attitudes towards a certain product or service.

2.7 Influencing people's product attitudes

The efforts made by marketers to create advertising messages, possibly with the help of YouTube influencers in the advertising process, are aimed to persuade people to form a favorable attitude towards the product that they aim to advertise (Wojdunski & Golan, 2016)). *Product attitude* can simply be described as the opinions that people have towards a certain product (Spears & Singh, 2004). Since attitudes are quite complex and dependent on various

factors, the variable product attitude is in this research split up into three sub-variables: brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking.

First of all, *brand attitude* is referred to by Spears and Singh (2004) as "a relatively enduring, unidimensional summary evaluation of a brand that presumably energizes behavior" (p.55). In other words, brand attitudes are a relatively stable and persistent assessment of everything related to a certain brand. Brand attitudes are likely to influence people's behaviour (Spears & Singh, 2004), and will in this study therefore be likely to influence the attitude people hold towards the product behind the brand. Secondly, *purchase intention* refers to "an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand" (Spears & Singh, 2004, p.56). If people are intending to buy a certain product or service, their overall attitude towards the product will likely be positive. Lastly, *product liking* can best be described as a variable that indicates the extent to which a consumer perceives a product to be good, desirable, and pleasant (Howard & Gengler, 2001). If a certain product appeals to a consumer, their score on the variable product liking will be high. The outcomes of these three sub-variables together will determine a person's overall product attitude.

Lots of research has been conducted on the effects of product placements and advertisements. Generally, it has been found that exposure to product placements or exposure to an advertisement have a positive effect on people's attitude towards a certain product or service advertised in that ad (De Gregorio & Sung, 2010; Bendixen, 1993). Consequently, it is expected that exposure to any type of product placement or advertising will positively influence respondents' product attitude, as opposed to not being exposed to any advertising at all. Hence, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_1: Respondents watching unboxing videos or product launch videos will have higher product attitudes scores than respondents who do not.

2.7.1 Unboxing videos vs. official product launch videos

As mentioned previously, YouTube content creators are increasingly creating videos in which they clearly display a certain brand or product, explain their features, and share their opinion with their viewers. The way in which YouTube influencers create their videos is an act referred to as 'vlogging'. *Vlogging* is basically a version of blogging, yet not written but instead moving images are used; a combination of video and blogging resulted in vlogging (Arthurs, Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). Vlogging is different from other types of video in that the content is often perceived as authentic, relatable, human-like, and genuine (Arthurs,

Drakopoulou, & Gandini, 2018). A study by Blythe and Cairns (2009) found that these videos in which YouTubers display a product are referred to as 'unboxing' videos. *Unboxing videos* are basically videos in which a YouTube influencer is unpacking a product and showing the viewers everything that they encounter while doing so (Blyth & Cairns, 2009; Google, 2014).

A central feature of an unboxing video is product placement. *Product placement* can best be defined as "the purposeful incorporation of a brand into non-commercial settings" (Williams, Petrosky, Hernandez, Page Jr, 2011, p.2). It is important to emphasize the significant difference between product placement and *advertising*. If the content of the video is controlled by the brand, it is referred to as advertising (Williams et al., 2011). YouTubers that get sponsored by brands, are often being told how to display the product, and are thus not fully in charge of determining the content of the video. With non-sponsored product placement on the other hand, the YouTube content creator determines the nature of the content and the way the product is displayed, not the marketer (Gerhards, 2017). Therefore, unboxing videos in which non-sponsored YouTubers unpack a certain product can rather be classified as product placements, instead of advertisements.

Opposed to these unboxing videos, YouTube also still contains traditional advertising messages that are produced by organisations themselves (Anderson, 2017). A profound example of such a company-generated advertising message is an *official product launch video*. Product launch videos are videos that explain and visualize the tangible benefits of a product (Anderson, 2017). These videos are carefully designed and crafted by a company with the aim to introduce a new product of service to their target audience. Product launch videos are especially effective when they explain more than just the product, by elaborating on the problem that it will solve, and the experience that users will gain (Anderson, 2017).

The affordances of unboxing videos and official product launch videos are quite similar, yet the makers of the video are different. Because of their amateur and independent origins, YouTubers' opinions are usually considered to be more credible than official advertising messages (Gerhards, 2017). Research by Nandagiri and Philip (2018) found that influencers have a vast impact on their followers since they perceive their influencers to be credible sources, and are likely to believe them regarding the products they review and endorse. As a result, Nandagiri and Philip (2018) found that people prefer product reviews over advertisements. Moreover, they also found that viewers of a product review video are likely to form an opinion on the reviewed product that is similar to that of the influencer (Nandagiri & Philip, 2018). In other words, social media users are thus likely to adopt the same thinking frame as the influencer does. Findings of an extensive study by RhythmOne (2016) confirm

this since they found that the profitability and effectiveness of influencer marketing campaigns are three times higher than that of traditional marketing practices, proving the persuasive power of online influencers. As a result, it is expected that the effect of influencer marketing messages is way stronger than the effect of traditional marketing messages created by the brand itself. Even when comparing the sponsored messages of YouTube influencers who are sponsored by a brand, to the advertising messages that are directly distributed by a company, YouTubers are still expected to be perceived more credible (Wu, 2016), and therefore their messages are expected to have a more positive effect on people's product attitudes:

H_2: Respondents who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video will score higher on product attitudes than respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video.

H_3: Respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video will score higher on product attitudes than respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video.

2.7.2 Sponsored vs. non-sponsored unboxing videos

As mentioned before, many brands are turning to online influencers to promote their products or services. It is important to note that the sponsorship that is discussed in this thesis does not consider so called 'in-stream video ads'. These are ads that appear when people want to play a YouTube video, either in the beginning of the video (pre-roll), during (mid-roll), or at the end of the content (post-roll) (Google, n.d.). Influencer marketing are not related to any form of in-stream video ads since the sponsoring companies are not involved with YouTube at all, yet just close a commercial deal directly with the influencer (Wu, 2016).

Research by Wu (2016) has categorized sponsorships with YouTube influencers into three types: (1) direct sponsorship, in which the YouTuber works together with a brand to produce content and gets paid a standardized fee, (2) affiliated links, which the YouTube receives commission on the sale if the product that he/she advertised gets purchased through the YouTuber's personalized link, and (3) free product sampling, where products will be sent to the YouTuber without any costs, hoping that they will get shown in a video.

The 'Social Code: YouTube' that was touched upon in section 2.5.2, is drastically changing the way native advertising is often perceived. Previous research has shown that consumers were already becoming more skeptical towards native advertising, and are developing more persuasion knowledge that helps them to resist persuasive messages (Lee, Kim, & Ham, 2016). Persuasion knowledge is consumers' ability to recognize a message as being an advertisement (van Reijmersdal et al., 2016). In their research, van Reijmersdal et al.

(2016) found that when people's persuasion knowledge is activated, they are less susceptible to the persuasive messages in the advertisement. In other words, when YouTube influencers disclose that the content they produce is sponsored by the brand that they advertise, their viewers are according to Reijmersdal et al. (2016) less likely to be persuaded. Consequently, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_4: Respondents who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video will score higher on product attitudes than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video.
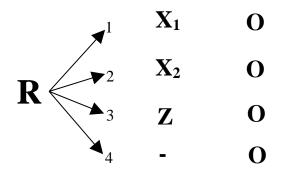
3. Methodology

3.1 Research design

The main purpose of this study was to compare the effects of exposure to an official product launch video that is carefully designed by an organisation for pure marketing purposes, to the effects of exposure to an unboxing video made by a sponsored or non-sponsored YouTube influencer, on people's product attitude. To be more precise, the aim of this research was to find out which of these three types of videos is the most effective in positively influencing people's product attitudes. To examine this, the differences between the effects of various conditions on people's product attitudes were measured and compared. In other words, this was a comparative and explanatory study (Sue & Ritter, 2012). Comparing the effect of an official product launch video and an unboxing video on YouTube on people's product attitude was found to be relevant since literature has stated that followers often perceive YouTube influencers as very credible, trustworthy and honest (Stanford, 2017). It will be interesting to see whether the persuasive power of these YouTubers is stronger than that of an official message from the organisation itself.

Nonetheless, the persuasive power of YouTube influencers is also found to be limited. Researchers discovered that sponsorship disclosure evokes persuasion knowledge with the receiver of the message. If people consciously realize they are being persuaded, they will likely activate resistance strategies, resulting in the message having no effect (van Reijmersdal et al., 2016; Boerman, Reijmersdal, & Neijens, 2012). Therefore, another comparison was made to find out whether it is true that disclosing sponsorship in an unboxing video will decrease the persuasive power of YouTubers, and thus have no or a negative effect on people's product attitude. This was examined by comparing the product attitude scores of respondents who have been exposed to a sponsored unboxing video, versus the scores of respondents who saw a non-sponsored unboxing video.

To measure whether the change that occurred in people's product attitude can truly be attributed to the exposure to the stimulus, a fourth group was added to the research design, called the *control group* (Babbie, 2012). The control group is a group that consists of the same characteristics as the other experimental groups, yet is not exposed to the research stimuli. This makes the experimental design a '*post-test only control group design*' (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Respondents in the experimental group of this study were first exposed to one of the three research stimuli, after which they were asked to answer some questions about, among other things, their attitude towards the product that was shown in the video. The results of this

study enabled the researcher to find out which type of video is more effective in enhancing consumers' product attitude.

This design was deliberately chosen because it did not have a pre-test at all, but instead a control group was used to measure the attitudes that people hold towards the brand and product used as an example, without being exposed to any research stimuli. This way, the design controlled for the testing itself having an effect on the outcome variables. In this study it is of major importance that respondents cannot guess what the study is about, and thus the influence of the stimuli can be measured more purely (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). This made the researcher decide that eliminating the pre-test would be a good choice. The complete research design is explained in Figure 1 below:

	1	X_1	O	**R** = respondents were randomly assigned to one of the four groups
R	2	X_2	O	X_1 = unboxing video, sponsored X_2 = unboxing video, non-sponsored
	3	Z	O	**Z** = official product launch video
	4	-	O	**O** = measurement

Figure 1: Overview post-test only control group design.

3.1.1 Online experiment

To answer the research questions, data was gathered through an online experiment. Experimental research is defined by Muijs (2010) as "a test under controlled conditions that is made to demonstrate a known truth or examine the validity of a hypothesis" (p.13). Central to experimental research is *control.* In order to find out whether the presence of one variable influences the scores of another variable, all environmental factors that could have an impact on this effect should be controlled for (Muijs, 2010). In other words, experimental research tests whether the presence of some variable, causes other variables to change. Since the purpose of this research was to test whether exposure to either an official product launch video or an unboxing video had a more positive effect on people's product attitude, all other factors that could have been of influence on people's product attitude were controlled for. An experimental design seemed to be the most suitable methodology to test these effects in isolation (Muijs, 2010).

The online experiment was conducted through a survey that was distributed online. Distributing a survey online is inexpensive, fast, convenient, and allows for a broader demographic reach as opposed to offline distribution (Ilieva, Baron, & Healey, 2002). Also, since the survey could simply be opened by clicking an URL, this link could easily be shared on various social media and other web-based platforms. This ease of spreading the survey is advantageous since it speeded up the data collection process (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Some scholars have argued that a major disadvantage of spreading surveys online is that not everyone from the population under study might have access to the Internet, and therefore the sample that is reached with the survey is not representative for the full population (Evans & Mathur, 2005). However, since this study was about the effects of influencer marketing and native advertising practices on the social medium YouTube, people who never use the internet were not relevant to the research question. Therefore spreading the survey online was the best possible method in terms of efficiency, reach and relevance.

3.1.2 Quantitative research

By conducting an online experiment, quantitative data was gathered from the respondents participating in the online survey. Quantitative research was chosen to be the most suitable in answering the central research questions of this study because the main aim of this research is to find out whether the differences in effects of the two research stimuli are significant (Muijs, 2010). Moreover, quantitative research is often used in a deductive manner, meaning that the researcher examines whether previously established theories hold true in several different conditions (Babbie, 2008). To conduct deductive research, hypotheses were formulated based on previously conducted research, tested using statistical programs, and eventually either be confirmed or rejected, depending on the significance level of the test. The quantitative data that was gathered from respondents participating in the online experiment allow for statistical analyses needed to test the hypotheses formulated earlier in the Theoretical Framework (Chapter 2). In other words, since the main aim of this research was not to explore new areas of research, but rather to test whether existing theories hold true in certain circumstances, quantitative research was conducted (Muijs, 2010).

3.1.3 Research stimuli

As mentioned above, this online experimental research tested whether there was a difference in the effect that being exposed to either a sponsored or a non-sponsored unboxing video by an influencer on YouTube, or exposure to an official launch video of that same

product made by the company itself, had on peoples' attitude towards the product shown in the videos. The main research objective of this study was thus to explore whether the scores of the respondents in this study differed significantly across the four conditions that were created in this experiment.

As can be seen in Figure 1 above, this experiment used two research stimuli to evoke the opinions and attitudes of the respondents participating in the survey on a certain brand and product (in the Figure referred to as stimuli X and Z). Both stimuli were a video in which a product from the brand Fitbit was shown. The product is an electronic wearable watch called the 'Fitbit Ionic'. In the next section 3.1.4 the company Fitbit and the product Fitbit Ionic will be explained more in depth.

The first research stimulus was an official product launch video that is made by the brand Fitbit itself. This video was uploaded on the social medium YouTube (Fitbit, 2017, August 28). The video was approximately one minute long, professionally designed, and shows all the features of a new Fitbit product, the 'Fitbit Ionic'. This video was created by Fitbit with the purpose of launching the new product into the market and creating awareness (Fitbit, 2017, August 28). The second research stimulus was a fragment from an unboxing video that was created by a YouTube influencer that is known for unboxing various types of tech products. The video was uploaded on YouTube on the channel of DC Rainmaker (DC Rainmaker, 2017). His channel is full of in-depth sports technology reviews (e.g. GPS watches, action cameras, activity trackers and so on). In the comments of this video, someone asked him whether he was sponsored by Fitbit, to which he officially replied that he was not paid to make this video and that he does not accept any products that are sent to him (DC Rainmaker, 2017). The unboxing video was 11:49 minutes long, and was therefore not used in full. Several important fragments throughout the whole video that were regarded to be important in terms of information about the product, have been extracted and put together into a shortened video of 03:19 minutes long.

While the experiment only consisted of two different stimuli, three different conditions were created. The shortened fragment from the video in which DC Rainmaker unboxes the Fitbit Ionic was used twice: in one condition, respondents were exposed to a short paragraph of text in which it was stated that DC Rainmaker is sponsored by Fitbit, the text in the other condition stated that he is not sponsored. Respondents in both conditions were thus exposed to the exact same video, yet the text that they read before exposure is what differentiates them.

3.1.4 About Fitbit

Fitbit is a company that produces electronic wearable devices that enable the user to keep track of everything they do on a daily basis: activity, food, exercise, weight and sleep (https://www.fitbit.com/whyfitbit). Fitbit gathers data about these things and tells its users whether they are making progress. This data can also be stored in the Fitbit app that can be downloaded on a smartphone. Fitbit's mission is to empower and inspire people to live a healthier and fit life (https://www.fitbit.com/about).

On September 25 2017, Fitbit published a press release in which they announce the global availability of their new activity tracker the Fitbit Ionic (Fitbit, 2017). As described in the press release, the Fitbit Ionic "delivers advanced and innovative health and fitness features like industry-leading GPS, enhanced heart rate tracking, on-device guided workouts and automatic sleep tracking with Sleep Stages, all powered by up to 5 days of battery life and cross-platform smartphone compatibility." (Fitbit, 2017). From the 1st of October 2017, the Fitbit Ionic was available for purchase in stores worldwide.

The Fitbit Ionic falls under the category of tech products. Tech products were chosen a suitable product category for the stimulus material since tech products are according to various researchers the most frequently 'unboxed' products on YouTube (Blyth & Cairns, 2009). Moreover, Google (2014) also proves that unboxing videos are "wildly popular for gadgets and technical products". The brand Fitbit was chosen to be a suitable brand with the right product since according to various statistics, the brand is getting increasingly popular, and it is expected that the sales of Fitbit will keep increasing, proving that Fitbit is doing well and therefore a relevant brand to study (Tractica, 2017). Also, around the time that this study was proposed, Fitbit released the Fitbit Ionic. Because of its newness, it was less likely that people already had formed a certain attitude towards the product. This was important in this study since it aimed to examine the effect of unboxing videos and official product launch videos in isolation (i.e. without prior-knowledge).

3.1.5 Data collection instrument

The data collection instrument in this study was an online experiment, in the form of a survey that was designed and distributed through the online questionnaire program Qualtrics. Qualtrics is an experience management company producing software that enables their customers to collect and analyze data by creating questionnaires online (https://www.qualtrics.com/about/). In many cases, data does not naturally appear in a quantitative manner. Yet, the questionnaire in this study was designed in such a way that non-

numerical data can be converted in a quantitative form so that it can be used for statistical analysis. Besides asking the respondents questions about the video that they watched, the product Fitbit Ionic, and the brand Fitbit itself, questions about demographics were included in the survey as well. In order to make sure the respondents were less likely to guess the true aim of the experiment, some mock questions about fitness and exercising in general, and tech-savviness perceptions were asked too.

The questionnaire consisted of three thematic blocks, (1) introductory block with demographic questions, (2) exposure block, and (3) post-exposure block. The introductory and the post-exposure block were similar for every respondent. The exposure block on the other hand was controlled by a randomizer, which randomly assigned participants to one of four possible conditions. As mentioned previously, these conditions were: a sponsored unboxing video, a non-sponsored unboxing video, an official product launch video, and the control group stimulus, which was a picture of the Fitbit Ionic. A picture was chosen for the control group since participant did have to be able to form some sort of opinion on the Fitbit Ionic, since they would be asked questions about it in the post-exposure block.

Some questions came with a short paragraph to clarify certain concepts in the question, or the question as a whole. The survey was designed in such a way that the respondent was always required to answer a question before moving on to the next one. This 'force response' option was used to eliminate item non-response and decrease the amount of invalid answers (Evans & Mathur, 2005). To test the quality of the questionnaire, it was pre-tested before officially sending it out. It is important to pre-test a data gathering instrument because it should be understandable for various types of people; solely the researcher's judgement is insufficient to conclude that the questionnaire is understandable for the general population. The questionnaire was pre-tested on a group of four students from the same Master's program. All pre-test respondents received a link to the survey and were asked to check whether they could detect any spelling mistakes or ambiguous questions. The feedback and suggestions of these test-respondents was incorporated in the final version of the survey before it got distributed to the real sample.

3.2 Sampling

3.2.1 Population

People are often classified in terms of generations. One of the most controversial generations nowadays is *Generation Y*, more often referred to as the *Millennials* (Crampton & Hodge, 2011). Generation Y/Millennials are people born between around 1980 till 1999,

characterized as "the most educated, well-travelled and technology sophisticated generation to date" (Crampton & Hodge, 2011, p. 3). Millennials are more focused on enjoying life, working to live, as opposed to the hard-working generations preceding them. Millennials are in a few years about to become the largest generation in the world, yet literature on how to manage and approach these people is still scarce (Crampton & Hodge, 2011).

Compared to prior generations, Millennials are found to be a lot harder to influence through traditional marketing and advertising efforts. Because they grew up in a world full of advertising messages on various media channels, Millennials are found to be more skeptical towards traditional advertising (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Instead, Millennials report they would rather base their opinions and attitudes on recommendations from friends or influential people they trust. Millennials are more attracted to online media, where they have the freedom to openly interact and express their feelings and interests. As a result, marketers are now shifting their focus towards online and more targeted campaigns in order to reach the Millennials in the most effective way, which is focused on creating awareness and a purchase desire around a certain product or service.

Within Generation Y/the Millennials, a smaller segment has emerged, referred to by scholars as 'Generation C' (Williams et al., 2012; Friedrich, Peterson, Koster, & Blum, 2010). People from Generation C are born after 1990 and are thus part of the larger group of people born between 1981 and 2000, the Millennials (Williams et al., 2012). Today, Generation C encompasses everyone between 18 and 30 years old. Since people from Generation C are born and raised in a world where digitalization and technologies have always been present, they are often referred to as *digital natives* (Williams et al., 2012). Digital natives are described as technologically savvy, digitally literate and up to date with the latest developments in various technologies and social media (Williams et al., 2012).

The 'C' in Generation C refers to the terms that describe them best: "connected, communicating, content-centric, computerized, community-oriented, always clicking" (Friedrich et al., 2010, p.15). An important characteristic of Generation C consumers is their passion for creating and distributing content. They are likely to be active in online communities through participation in online discussions (Dye, 2007). Also, Generation C consumers prefer to have control over their own lives and will not shrink back in complex situations (Dye, 2007). According to Google (2012), Generation C are better described as 'the YouTube Generation' since they are twice as likely to watch YouTube, opposed to people from other generations. This, together with the fact that Generation C consumers are constantly connected online, and

hence highly familiar with social media and their affordances, made them the perfect population of study for this research (Friedrich et al., 2010).

3.2.2 Sampling method

The respondents in this online experiment were recruited through the researcher's personal network, as well as the personal networks of relatives and friends of the researcher. This sampling procedure can best be described as convenience and snowball sampling (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). Both types of sampling are non-probability sampling methods, meaning that not all members of the population under study have the same chance of getting included in the sample. Non-probability sampling is not recommended since the samples that are gathered through these methods are generally not representative of the full population, and therefore the results of the study are eventually less reliable (Babbie, 2012). However, the goal of this study was not necessary to get a representative sample, since random assignment to conditions ensured that participants can at least be investigated and compared on how they reacted to the research stimuli. Obviously, a representative sample is always better and desirable, yet a lack of time and resources to use a probability sampling technique have made the researcher decide to still decide for convenience and snowball sampling.

3.2.3 Sample

In total, 393 people participated in the survey. From this total amount, only 251 participants made it till the very end of the survey, resulting in a completion rate of 63.9%. Of these 251 participants who managed to complete the whole survey, 11 people were not eligible to participate because they were either below 18 or above 30 years old, which is beyond the age margins of the population under study (i.e. Generation C). Eventually, the valid sample consisted of 240 participants. Of the 240 respondents participating in this study, 64 were exposed to an official product launch video, 51 to a non-sponsored unboxing video, 52 to a sponsored unboxing video, and 73 were assigned to the control group condition. A chi-square goodness-of-fit test was conducted to see whether the distribution of participants was equal amongst the four conditions in the experiment. The minimum expected frequency was 60. The size differences between the four conditions were not found to be significant ($\chi^2(3) = 5.5$, $p = .139$), meaning that the distribution of participants was roughly equal for every condition.

104 participants indicated to be male (43.3%), 135 female (56.3%), and 1 person indicated to be non-binary (0.4%). The age distribution in the sample was as follows: 15 participants were 18 years old (6.3%), 14 participants were 19 years old (5.8%), 16 participants

were 20 years old (6.7%), 32 participants were 21 years old (13.3%), 48 participants were 22 years old (20.0%), 34 participants were 23 years old (14.2%), 35 participants were 24 years old (14.6%), 15 participants were 25 years old (6.3%), 11 participants were 26 years old (4.6%), 8 participants were 27 years old (3.3%), 6 participants were 28 years old (2.5%), 4 participants were 29 years old (1.7%), and 2 participants were 30 years old (0.8%). As can be concluded from these numbers, the majority of the sample consisted of participants between 21 and 24 years old (62.1%). Regarding educational levels, more than half of the participants completed at least a BA degree (University degree or degree from University of Applied Sciences) (76.7%). From these 184 people who obtained at least a BA degree, 41 also obtained a MA degree (17.1%), and 9 even a MBA degree, PhD degree, or postgraduate training (3.8%). Respondents were also asked to report on their nationality. By far, most respondents were Dutch; 171 people indicated to be Dutch, making up 71.3% of the total sample. The second most represented nationality was German: 13 participants, 5.4%. 11 people reported to be American (4.6%), 8 people to be Italian, and 8 people to be English (both 3.3%). 6 respondents were Greek (2.5%). 3 participants were French, and 3 people were South African (both 1.3%). 2 people reported to be Austrian, and two people Chinese (both 0.8%). There was one Norwegian participant, one Swiss, and one Spanish (all 0.4%). Lastly, 10 people indicated to have another nationality than the ones on the shortlist, which they could enter in a text-entry field. 4 of these people were Bulgarian (1.7%), 3 Indonesian (1.3%), one Slovakian, one Saudi-Arabian, and one Russian (all 0.4%).

Besides these demographics, respondents were also asked to indicate their social media usage habits. The majority of the respondents (95) indicated to use social media several times a day (39.6%), followed closely by 94 people use social media several times an hour (39.2%). 40 people said to use social media once an hour (16.7%), 6 people only use it once a day (2.5%), and the remaining 5 respondents reported to only use social media several times a week (2.1%). Followed by the question on people's general social media usage, respondents were also asked to report on their use of the medium YouTube in particular. 70 respondents reported to use YouTube only several times a week (29.2%), and 70 respondents reported to use YouTube several times a day. 43 respondents said to use YouTube once a day (17.9%), followed by 18 respondents stating to use the medium several times a month (7.5%). Additionally, 14 people use YouTube once a week (5.8%), 13 respondents indicated to use the medium several times an hour (5.4%), 6 people reported to use YouTube once an hour (2.5%), 4 people only once the medium once a month (1.7%), and 2 only several times a year (0.8%).

3.3 Measures

The overarching outcome variable is in this research is *product attitude*. Product attitude is measured by three other variables: purchase intention, brand attitude, and product liking. All items in this survey that measured respondents' attitudes used seven-point semantic differential scales, high scores indicating positive dispositions towards the brand or product. Other questions in which respondents were asked to indicate their agreement or likelihood on a certain statement were based on seven-point Likert scales.

3.3.1 Brand attitude

The variable brand attitude was measured using a scale by Bruner (1998) that asked participants on a five-item seven-point semantic differential scale to indicate how they feel about a certain product (bad/good, unappealing/appealing, unpleasant/pleasant, unattractive/attractive, boring/interesting, dislike/like). In addition, Spears and Singh (2010) also proposed a 31-item scale to measure brand attitude. From this scale, 24 items have been deleted because they were either similar to the items proposed earlier by Bruner (1998), or they simply did not match the research objectives of this study and were therefore not relevant to include in the survey. Seven items (unfavorable/favorable, undesirable/desirable, not distinctive/distinctive, unsophisticated/sophisticated, unenjoyable/enjoyable, worthless/valuable, not advisable to choose/advisable to choose) have been added to the initial scale by Bruner (1998). The item 'not distinctive/distinctive' has been rephrased as 'not special/special' since the word 'special' is more commonly used opposed to 'distinctive'. Eventually, brand attitude was measured on a thirteen-item seven-point semantic differential scale. Since the scale was quite long, the answer options of some items were reversed to keep respondents alert when filling out their answers.

Before a factor analysis could be conducted, the items measuring brand attitude that were reversed in the survey had to be recoded. Once this was done, a factor analysis was conducted on the 13-item seven-point semantic differential scale that was used to measure respondents' brand attitude. All 13 items were entered into the factor analysis using Principle Component Extraction with Varimax rotation based on Eigenvalues higher than 1.00, *KMO* = .92, χ^2 ($N = 240$, 78) = 2012.87, $p < .001$. The KMO-value being higher than the threshold of .60 and the significance of the Bartlett's test prove that it could safely be assumed that there were significant patterns among the items included in the test, and that it thus made sense to conduct a factor analysis. Based on an Eigenvalue > 1.00, two factors were detected among the items, together explaining 65.1% of the variance in respondents' brand attitude scores.

Having a closer look at these two factors and their accompanying items, it could be concluded that the outcomes of this factor analysis were most likely the result of people losing focus and answering items the wrong way round. The items who were assigned to factor two, were precisely all the recoded items who were reversed in the survey (i.e. low scores indicating a positive attitude and high scores indicating a negative attitude, opposed to the non-reversed variables where low scores indicate a negative attitude and high scores a positive attitude). It was assumed that these two factors have emerged because of inattentiveness from the respondents, who did not notice that some items were reversed and therefore just kept filling out the items thinking that high values would always represent positive attitudes and low values always negative.

Therefore, a reliability analysis was conducted on the total 13-item scale to see whether the full scale would be reliable enough to proceed with. Internal consistency was confirmed (Cronbach's α = .92), indicating that the total 13-item scale is highly reliable. It was found that the scale was the most reliable if all items would be retained, so nothing was deleted. The high Cronbach's α value indicated that the scores of the scale are very reliable. It was hence decided that all thirteen items would be included in the same scale, instead of creating two separate scales based on the factor analysis results. Accordingly, a new brand attitude variable was created (M = 4.62, SD = 1.00).

3.3.2 Purchase intention

Purchase intention was measured by asking respondents "Please indicate how you would rate your opinion in terms of buying the Fitbit Ionic:" on a four-item seven-point semantic differential scale from Li, Daugherty and Biocca (2002) (unlikely/likely, never/definitely, improbable/probable, and uncertain/certain). One item from the seven-point semantic differential scale by Spears and Singh (2010) has been added (very low purchase interest/very high purchase interest).

A factor analysis was conducted on the five-item seven-point Likert-type scale measuring respondents' purchase intention. All five items were entered into the factor analysis using Principle Component Extraction with Varimax rotation based on Eigenvalues higher than 1.00, KMO = .89, χ^2 (N = 240, 10) = 1096.25, p < .001. The KMO-value being higher than the threshold of .60 and the significance of the Bartlett's test prove that it could safely be assumed that there were significant patterns among the items included in the test, and that it thus made sense to conduct a factor analysis. Based on an Eigenvalue of higher than 1.00, only one factor was found among the five items. This factor explained 78.5% of the total variance in

respondents' scores on purchase intention. All items were found to have a high factor loading of at least > .70, indicating a highly cohesive scale.

A reliability analysis was conducted to see whether the scale's scores were reliable. Internal consistency was confirmed (Cronbach's α = .93), indicating a highly reliable scale. The test results indicated that the Cronbach's α could even be further increased by deleting the item 'Uncertain: Certain' from the scale. Yet, since the reliability of the scale's scores was already quite high, it was decided to keep this item in the scale. All five items were included in a new purchase intention variable ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.44$).

3.3.3 Product liking

Respondents' product liking scores were measured with two separate questions. One item asked people "How much do you like the product 'Fitbit Ionic'?", which people could answer on a one-item seven-point semantic differential scale ranging from 'Very much dislike' to 'Very much like' (scale was copied from Landwehr, McGill & Herrmann, 2011). In addition, another question asked respondents to complete the following sentence: "I personally feel the Fitbit Ionic is …" by selecting the most appropriate score on a three-item seven-point semantic differential scale. (bad/good, undesirable/desirable, unpleasant/pleasant) (scale was adopted from Howard and Gengler (2001)).

A factor analysis was conducted on the two different questions that measured respondents' product liking scores. Since the questions were both measured on a similar scale (i.e. high values indicating higher scores on liking of the product Fitbit Ionic), all four items were put together in one factor analysis using Principle Component Extraction with Varimax rotation based on Eigenvalues higher than 1.00, $KMO = .80$, χ^2 ($N = 240$, 6) $= 822.75$, $p <$ .001. The KMO-value being higher than the threshold of .60 and the significance of the Bartlett's test proved that it could safely be assumed that there were significant patterns among the items included in the test, and that it thus made sense to conduct a factor analysis. Based on an Eigenvalue > 1.00, one factor was found among the four items. This factor explained 82.8% of the total variance in respondents' scores on product liking.

A reliability analysis was conducted to see whether the scale's scores of the items included in the factor that was found, were reliable. Internal consistency was confirmed (Cronbach's α = .93), indicating a highly reliable scale. The scale was found to be the most reliable if all four items would be kept in the scale. Accordingly, a new product liking variable was created including all four items ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 1.13$).

3.3.4 Social media usage and YouTube usage

Social media usage and YouTube usage have been measured using two items. On the first item, respondents were asked the following question: "Please think about your social media usage in the past year. Generally speaking, how often do you use social media?", followed by the answer options: several times an hour, once an hour, several times a day, once a day, several times a week, once a week, several times a month, once a month, several times a year, and never. The second item asked people about their YouTube usage frequency: "Considering your overall social media usage, how often do you use the social medium YouTube in particular?", followed by the same answer options as the first item. From the original scale that was used by Rosen, Whaling, Carrier, Cheever and Rokkom (2013), the answer option of 'all the time' was deleted, and the answer option 'several times a year' was added. It was decided to remove the answer option 'all the time' from the scale, because it was seen as vague and redundant, and 'several times a year' was added to make the scale more consistent.

3.3.5 YouTube usage motivations

Besides asking people about their social media and YouTube usage in terms of frequency, YouTube usage motivations were measured as well to get a more holistic image of the respondents' general behaviour on YouTube. In order to measure YouTube usage motivations, several items from a scale by Khan (2017) were used. On a 10-item seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'Very unlikely', to 'Very likely', people were asked to select the most applicable option. All statements were preceded by the question: "On average in any given week, express how likely it is that you use YouTube to …?". The initial scale by Khan (2017) consisted of 21 items, yet just 10 items that were the most suitable to this research have been selected: get information about things that interest you, learn how to do things, provide others with information, generate ideas, impress other users, feel important, meet interesting people, feel like I belong to a community, be entertained, and relax.

A factor analysis was conducted on the 10-item seven-point Likert-type scale that measured YouTube usage motivations. All 10 items were entered into the factor analysis using Principle Component Extraction with Varimax rotation based on Eigenvalues higher than 1.00, *KMO* = .77, χ^2 (*N* = 240, 45) = 984.38, *p* < .001. The KMO-value being higher than the threshold of .60 and the significance of the Bartlett's test proved that it could safely be assumed that there were significant patterns among the items included in the test, and that it thus made sense to conduct a factor analysis. Based on an Eigenvalue > 1.00, three factors were extracted

which together explained 68.6% of the total variance in the variable YouTube usage motivations. Table 1 below provides an overview of all items and their accompanying factor loadings. Factor loadings of below .30 were excluded from the table to make the table neater and better readable. The items 'Provide others with information' and 'Generate ideas' correlated both to the factors *Social motivations,* as well as *Educational motivations*. Based on their factor loadings and personal naming of the factors and reading of the items, it was decided that the item 'Provide others with information', with a factor loading of .58 to Social motivations, opposed to a factor loading of .47 to Educational motivations, better fit with Social motivations. Following the same rationale, the item 'Generate ideas' was with a factor loading of .69 assigned to the factor Educational motivations, instead of the factor Social motivations, for which the factor loading was only .37.

As can be seen in Table 1, the first factor was named *Social motivations.* Items included in this factor all had to do with social interaction with other users on YouTube: provide others with information, impress other users, feel important, meet interesting people, feel like I belong to a community. A reliability analysis was conducted on these five items that were found to correlate to this factor, to check the reliability of the scale's scores. This analysis initially resulted in a Cronbach's α of .85, confirming the internal consistency of the scale. The test results showed that removing the item 'Provide others with information' from the scale, could increase the reliability of the scale's scores to .86. However, since the scale was already highly reliable (Cronbach's α = .85), it was decided to keep the item in the scale. A new variable called *YouTube usage social motivations* was created, ($M = 2.30$, $SD = 1.25$).

The second factor that was found consisted of four items: get information about things that interest you, learn how to do things, provide others with information, and generate ideas. Since all these items have an educational concept in common, the factor was named *Educational motivations*. Internal consistency was confirmed (Cronbach's α = .66), indicating an acceptable scale. According to the test results, the reliability of the scale's scores was optimal with these items. Therefore, all four items have been kept, and a new variable called *YouTube usage educational motivations* was created ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.26$).

The third and last factor only consisted of two items: to be entertained, and relax. This factor was named *Recreational motivations* because both items had to do with leisure and relaxation. The reliability test provided a Cronbach's α of .85, proving the internal consistency of the items, indicating a highly reliable scale. A new variable called *YouTube usage recreational motivations* was created ($M = 6.11$, $SD = 1.22$).

Table 1: Factor and reliability analysis for *YouTube usage motivations* (N = 240).

Respondents were asked the following question: "On average in any given week, express how likely it is that you use YouTube to …?", followed by 10 items, each representing a different motivation.

Item	Social motivations	Educational motivations	Recreational motivations
Get information about things that interest you.		**.65**	
Learn how to do things		**.79**	
Provide others with information	**.58**	.47	
Generate ideas	.37	**.69**	
Impress other users	**.84**		
Feel important	**.87**		
Meet interesting people	**.83**		
Feel like I belong to a community	**.78**		
Be entertained			**.90**
Relax			**.92**
R^2	36.73%	20.66%	11.25%
Cronbach's α	.85	.61	.85

Note: **factor loadings < .30 are suppressed. Factor loadings in bold indicate which items belong to which factor.**

3.3.6 Brand familiarity and familiarity with the videos

To control for variables that might have had an influence on the strength of the effect that the research stimulus had on respondent's product attitudes, respondents were asked to indicate how familiar they were with unboxing and official product launch videos in general, and the brand Fitbit and its products in particular. Respondents were asked to indicate their familiarity with these three concepts by selecting the option that best suited their feelings on a seven-point semantic differential scale ranging from 'Not familiar at all' to 'Very familiar' (scale was copied from Biswas, 1992). Moreover, besides asking respondents to what extent they are familiar with the brand Fitbit, they were also asked whether or not they already owned a Fitbit product. This was done by simply asking them the question: "Do you currently own a product from Fitbit", followed by the answer options 'yes', 'no', and 'not sure'.

3.3.7 Sports and physical health perceptions

Some mock-questions were added to the survey as well to distract the respondents from guessing the true aim of the research. Nevertheless, they were still used to conduct several analyses. Since the product that is used as an example in this study, the Fitbit Ionic, is an activity tracker, the researcher thought it was applicable and in line with the overall research to ask people questions about their perceptions on sports and physical health. Respondents were asked to indicate on a seven-point Likert scale the extent to which they agree with several statements about their interest in sports and physical health ("I would consider myself to be an athletic person.", "I enjoy working out and exercising.", "I like to keep track of my fitness progress and improve my physical health.").

A factor analysis was conducted on the three-item seven-point Likert-type scale that measured people's sports and physical health perceptions. All three items were entered into the factor analysis using Principle Component Extraction with Varimax rotation based on Eigenvalues higher than 1.00, *KMO* = .67, χ^2 (N = 240, 3) = 330.22, p < .001. The KMO-value being higher than the threshold of .60 and the significance of the Bartlett's test proved that it could safely be assumed that there were significant patterns among the items included in the test, and that it thus made sense to conduct a factor analysis. Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00, just one factor was found, explaining 75.8% of the total variance in respondents' scores on sports and physical health perceptions.

A reliability analysis was conducted on all three items, to check for the reliability of the scale's scores. Internal consistency among the items was confirmed (Cronbach's α = .84). Even though the test results indicated that the Cronbach's α could be increased to .88, it was decided

to keep all items, since the internal consistency of the initial scale was already fairly high. Accordingly, a new sports physical health perceptions variable was created using all three items ($M = 4.83$, $SD = 1.45$).

3.3.8 Tech-savviness perceptions

Just like the sports and physical health perceptions variable, some items measuring people's tech-savviness perceptions were added to the questionnaire to distract people from guessing the true aim of the research: ("I would consider myself to be a tech-savvy person.", "I generally enjoy using electronic devices.", "I encourage the development of new technologies."). The researcher assumed it would also be interesting to see whether peoples' scores on how tech-savvy they perceive themselves to be, would influence their product attitude scores. Therefore, the items were used to conduct several analyses.

A factor analysis was conducted to see whether a reliable scale could be created from the three-item seven-point Likert scale measuring tech-savviness perceptions. All three items were entered into the factor analysis using Principle Component Extraction with Varimax rotation based on Eigenvalues higher than 1.00, $KMO = .72$, χ^2 ($N = 240, 3$) $= 386.53$, $p < .001$. The KMO-value being higher than the threshold of .60 and the significance of the Bartlett's test proved that it could safely be assumed that there were significant patterns among the items included in the test, and that it thus made sense to conduct a factor analysis. Based on Eigenvalue > 1.00, one factor was extracted, explaining 80.4% of the total variance in respondents' scores on tech-savviness perceptions.

A reliability analysis was conducted to check the reliability of the new scale's scores. Internal consistency was confirmed (Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$), indicating a highly reliable scale. The scale was the most reliable if all items would be preserved. A new tech-savviness perceptions variable was created using all three items ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 1.26$).

3.4 Data collection and analysis

3.4.1 Data collection

The online experiment was conducted from the 9th of April 2018, until the 2nd of May 2018. This time frame was chosen because it was expected that around 3 weeks' time was needed to collect a sufficient number of respondents. The respondents were initially collected through the researcher's personal social network, and the social network of the researcher's friends. The survey link was posted on both LinkedIn and Facebook, aiming to receive many responses from the researcher's personal relatives and friends. In order increase the reliability

of the research results, respondents from outside the researcher's personal network were recruited as well. This was done by distributing the survey link on the forum Reddit and recruiting people in face-to-face situations.

3.4.2 Data analysis

After all the necessary data was collected, it was prepared for statistical analysis in the IBM SPSS 24 Statistics software (https://www.ibm.com/analytics/data-science/predictive-analytics/spss-statistical-software). Several factor analyses were conducted first to test whether the items measured in the research could be reduced to cohesive factors. Also, the reliability of the scales that were used to measure the variables was tested as well. Next, to see whether respondents in the three experimental groups scored higher on their product attitudes compared to respondents in the control group, a one-way MANOVA with a Dunnett's test was conducted. To test the hypotheses, independent samples t-tests were performed to compare the mean scores on product attitude from people belonging to different conditions. Finally, in order to test the effect of other variables that might have had an influence on people's product attitude, several ANOVAs, MANCOVAs and regression analyses were conducted.

3.5 Validity and reliability

Validity was addressed by proving that the research that was conducted, was truly conducted the way it was initially intended to answer the research questions central to the study (Babbie, 2008). The validity of the study was ensured by making sure that all conceptualizations in this study were based on previous literature that studied YouTube influencers and sponsorship disclosure, and have been operationalized using validated scales from previous studies. Accordingly, these variables have been operationalized in a way that the questions were suitable for measuring what is needed to answer the research questions. In order to further increase validity, this research measured some additional variables that could have been of influence on the effect that the research stimuli were having on people's product attitude scores. A threat to the validity of this research was the internet connection that was needed to answer the survey questions. A handful of respondents reported that the video they were supposed to watch was not loading, and therefore they were unable to watch it properly. This could have harmed the validity since respondents might have answered the post-exposure questions differently opposed to when they would have properly watched the video.

Reliability refers to the extent to which the results of a study are replicable, and worth paying attention to in a larger context (Babbie, 2008). The reliability of this research is

concerned by clearly describing and validating the research design. All the scales used in this study showed a Cronbach's α of at least .60, proving reliability. Additionally, the online survey that was created to gather data from the respondents that are of interest to this study, is included in the appendix the thesis to increase the reliability of the research. However, a factor that could be of negative influence on the reliability could be the fact that the survey is distributed through the researcher's personal network, and the personal network of close friends from the researcher. This makes the results of the study less reliable since the respondents that were gathered are not fully representative of the entire worldwide Generation C population. Threats to the validity and reliability in this study are further addressed in the Limitations section in the last chapter of this thesis.

4. Results

In the following chapter, the results of the data analyses that were performed in IBM SPSS Statistics 24 will be described in detail. All tests were analyzed with a confidence level of 95% ($p < .05$). However, in some cases, a confidence level of 90% ($p < .10$) was used, which was then referred to as 'marginally significant'. Firstly, the results of all confirmatory analyses (i.e. hypotheses) will be presented according to the order in which the hypotheses were formulated in Chapter 2. Next, the results of the exploratory analyses in which all possible control and moderating variables have been tested, will be explained in detail.

4.1 Confirmatory analyses

4.1.1 Experimental groups vs. control group

The first hypothesis in this study read as follows: 'Respondents watching unboxing videos or product launch videos will have higher product attitude scores than respondents who do not'. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to see whether people who have been exposed to any form of video stimulus, had more positive product attitudes in general, compared to people who have not been exposed to any type of video stimulus. Three measures of product attitude were assessed: brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking. Wilks's Lambda was used to determine the significant difference between groups of the independent variables, based on their scores on the dependent variables. A significant difference was found between the conditions on the combined dependent variables, $F(9,569.65) = 1.90$, $p = .049$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .93$, partial $\eta^2 = .024$. Next, it was analyzed on which dependent variables the respondents from different groups scored significantly different. It was found that respondents from different conditions significantly differed in their scores on product liking, $F(3, 236) = 3.41$, $p = .018$; partial $\eta^2 = .042$. Respondents were found not to differ significantly on their brand attitude $F(3, 236) = 1.59$, $p = .192$; partial $\eta^2 = .020$, and purchase intention scores $F(3, 236) = 1.17$, $p = .321$; partial $\eta^2 = .015$.

A post-hoc test was run to identify which groups differed significantly on their product liking scores. Dunnett's test of Multiple Comparison was chosen to be the most appropriate post-hoc test since it allows to compare the mean scores of experimental groups to the scores of a control group. On the dependent variable product liking, it was found that only the scores of respondents from group 1 (i.e. exposure to an official product launch video) differed significantly from the scores of the respondents in the control group. Respondents from group 1 (i.e. exposure to an official product launch video) scored higher on product liking ($M = 5.12$,

$SD = 1.02$) than group 4 (i.e. the control group) ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.03$), a mean increase of 0.51, $SE = 0.19$, which was significant ($p = .013$). Group 2 ($M = 4.58$, $SD = 1.18$, $p = .815$) and 3 ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.24$, $p = .825$) did not report significantly different scores on their product attitudes compared to the scores of the respondents in the control group.

From these results, it can be concluded that respondents who have watched an official product launch video, reported significantly higher scores on product liking, compared to the respondents who did not get exposed to any type of advertising. The rest of the groups all did not score significantly higher than the control group respondents on either brand attitude, purchase intention or product liking. As a result, hypothesis 1 was only partially accepted.

4.1.2 Non-sponsored unboxing video vs. official product launch video

The second hypothesis in this research read as follows: 'Respondents watching non-sponsored unboxing videos will have higher product attitude scores than respondents exposed to an official product launch video'. Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to see whether respondents who were exposed to a *non-sponsored unboxing video* scored significantly higher on their *brand attitude, purchase intention,* and *product liking* scores than respondents who were exposed to an *official product launch video.*

It was found that respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video were found to score marginally significantly higher on their brand attitude scores ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 0.98$) than respondents who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 1.02$), $t(113) = 1.61$, *one-tailed p = .056*. Also, respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video ($M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.02$) scored significantly higher on their product liking scores, opposed to respondents who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.58$, $SD = 1.18$), $t(113) = 2.56$, *one-tailed p = .006*. On the variable brand attitude, respondents who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video did not score significantly higher ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 1.47$) than respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.45$, $t(113) = 1.02$, *one-tailed p = .155*.

These results suggested that respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video reported (marginally) significantly more positive brand attitudes and liked the shown product significantly better than respondents who have seen a non-sponsored unboxing video. The exact opposite effect was hypothesized; it was assumed that respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video would have scored higher on their product liking scores than respondents exposed to an official product launch video. Since respondents who were exposed to the non-sponsored unboxing video did not score significantly higher on their brand

attitude, purchase intention, and product liking scores, opposed to people who have been exposed to an official product launch video, hypothesis 2 is rejected.

4.1.3 Sponsored unboxing video vs. official product launch video

The third hypothesis in this research read as follows: 'Respondents exposed to a sponsored unboxing video will score higher on product attitude than respondents exposed to an official product launch video'. Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to see whether respondents who were exposed to a *sponsored unboxing video* would score significantly higher on their *brand attitude, purchase intention,* and *product liking* scores than respondents who were exposed to an *official product launch video.*

Respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 0.98$), scored significantly higher on their brand attitude scores than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(114) = 2.02$, *one-tailed p =* .023. In addition, respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video scored marginally significantly higher on their purchase intention scores ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.45$) than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 1.47$), $t(114) = 1.55$, *one-tailed p =* .062. Lastly, respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video scored significantly higher on their product liking scores ($M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.02$) than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.24$), $t(98.52) = 2.48$, *one-tailed p =* .008.

In sum, respondents who have seen an official product launch video have significantly more positive brand attitudes, higher purchase intentions, and like the product better than respondents who have watched a sponsored unboxing video. The hypothesis assumed an effect in the exact opposite direction; it was expected that respondents exposed to a sponsored unboxing video would have scored higher on their product attitudes than respondents exposed to an official product launch video. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is rejected.

4.1.4 Non-sponsored vs. sponsored unboxing videos

The last hypothesis in this study read as follows: 'Respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video score higher on product attitude than respondents exposed to a sponsored unboxing video'. Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to see whether respondents who were exposed to a *non-sponsored unboxing video* scored significantly higher on their *brand attitude, purchase intention,* and *product liking* scores than respondents who were exposed to a *sponsored unboxing video.*

Respondents who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 1.02$), did not score significantly higher on their brand attitude scores than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(101) = 0.32$, *one-tailed p = .373*. Similarly, respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 1.47$), did not score significantly higher on their purchase intention scores than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 1.47$), $t(101) = 0.49$, *one-tailed p = .312*. Lastly, respondents who have seen a non-sponsored unboxing video also did not score significantly higher on their product liking scores ($M = 4.58$, $SD = 1.18$) than respondents who were exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($M = 4.58$, $SD = 1.24$), $t(101) = 0.03$, *one-tailed p = .490*.

Altogether, since respondents who have seen the non-sponsored unboxing video did not score significantly higher on their brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking scores, compared to people who have been exposed to a sponsored unboxing video, hypothesis 4 is rejected.

4.2 Exploratory analyses

In order to make more valid statements about the effect of the experimental conditions on people's product attitudes, effects should be studied in isolation. This means that variables that might have an influence on the effect of the treatments on people's product attitudes, should have been controlled for. This section discusses the additional tests that have been conducted to find out whether other variables might have influenced the effect of or interacted with other independent variables, which might have affected respondents' scores on the product attitude variables: brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking.

4.2.1 Brand familiarity

In order to see whether prior knowledge on the brand Fitbit and its products was of influence on respondents' product attitudes, simple linear regression analyses were conducted. It was analysed how well the independent variable *brand familiarity* predicted the change in the continuous dependent variables brand attitude, purchase intention and product liking. Firstly, it was found that brand familiarity as the independent variable significantly explained 8.1% of the variance in respondents' predicted *brand attitude* scores, $F(1, 238) = 20.93$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in brand familiarity, increased respondents' predicted brand attitude scores with .13 ($SE_B = .03$, $\beta = .28$, beta is weak, positive, and significant). Secondly, brand familiarity also significantly explained 9.8% of the variation in respondents' predicted

purchase intention scores, $F(1, 238) = 25.74$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in brand familiarity, increased respondents' predicted purchase intention scores with .21 ($SE_B = .04$, $\beta = .31$, beta is moderate, positive, and significant). Lastly, brand familiarity significantly explained 10.2% of the variation in respondents' predicted product liking scores, $F(1, 238) = 26.96$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in brand familiarity, increased respondents' predicted product liking scores with .16 ($SE_B = .03$, $\beta = .32$, beta was moderate, positive, and significant). In sum, brand familiarity significantly predicted respondents' product attitudes scores. This means that irrespective of the condition that the respondents were assigned to, people who reported to be more familiar with the brand Fitbit, also reported more positive product attitudes.

Conducting a one-way MANCOVA to see whether the experimental conditions had a significant effect on the respondents' product attitudes while controlling for their brand familiarity scores, revealed the significant main effect of brand familiarity on the combined product attitude variables, $F(3, 233) = 9.79$, $p < .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .89$, partial $\eta^2 = .112$. However, it was found that there was a marginally significant difference between the experimental conditions in terms of the combined product attitude variables, after controlling for brand familiarity, $F(9, 567.21) = 1.66$, $p = .096$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .94$, partial $\eta^2 = .021$. In other words, after controlling for their brand familiarity scores, the scores of respondents from different experimental conditions still differed significantly.

Regression analyses revealed that brand familiarity only significantly explained the predicted *brand attitude* scores of respondents exposed to non-sponsored unboxing videos ($F(1, 49) = 12.34$, $p = .001$, $B = .22$, $SE_B = .06$, $\beta = .46$, beta was moderate, positive, and significant). These results suggested that an increase in brand familiarity would increase the predicted brand attitudes of respondents exposed to non-sponsored unboxing videos. In other words, the predicted brand attitude scores of respondents exposed to non-sponsored unboxing videos increased when they also reported to be more familiar with the brand. Brand familiarity was not found to significantly influence the effect that exposure to an official product launch video ($F(1, 62) = 0.10$, $p = .749$), and a sponsored unboxing video ($F(1, 50) = 0.26$, $p = .613$) had on respondents' predicted brand attitudes.

Secondly, brand familiarity was found to significantly influence the predicted *purchase intention* scores of respondents exposed to an official product launch video ($F(1, 62) = 9.80$, $p = .003$, $B = .26$, $SE_B = .08$, $\beta = .37$, beta was moderate, positive, and significant), and marginally significantly of the respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video ($F(1, 49) = 3.95$, $p = .053$, $B = .19$, $SE_B = .10$, $\beta = .27$, beta was weak, positive, and significant). These results suggested that an increase in brand familiarity would increase the predicted purchase intention

scores of respondents exposed to official product launch videos and non-sponsored unboxing videos. In other words, the predicted purchase intention scores of respondents exposed to official product launch videos and non-sponsored unboxing videos increased when they also reported to be more familiar with the brand. Brand familiarity was not found to significantly influence the effect that exposure to a sponsored unboxing video had on respondents' predicted purchase intentions ($F(1, 50) = 1.21$, $p = .277$).

Lastly, brand familiarity was found to significantly influence the predicted *product liking* scores of respondents exposed to an official product launch video ($F(1, 62) = 5.32$, $p = .024$, $B = .14$, $SE_B = .06$, $\beta = .28$, beta was weak, positive, and significant), and a non-sponsored unboxing video ($F(1, 49) = 10.35$, $p = .002$, $B = .23$, $SE_B = .07$, $\beta = .42$, beta was moderate, positive, and significant). These results suggested that an increase in brand familiarity would increase the predicted product liking scores of respondents exposed to official product launch videos and non-sponsored unboxing videos. In other words, the predicted product liking scores of respondents exposed to official product launch videos and non-sponsored unboxing videos increased when they reported to be more familiar with the brand. Brand familiarity was not found to significantly influence the effect that exposure to a sponsored unboxing video had on respondents' predicted product liking ($F(1, 50) = 0.03$, $p = .874$).

4.2.2 Product owning

One-way ANOVAs with independent samples t-tests were conducted to investigate whether people who owned a product from Fitbit scored significantly different on their product attitudes opposed to people who did not. Based on their product owning status, the variable classified respondents into three groups: Yes (N = 22), No (N = 216), and Not sure (N = 2). The two people who answered 'Not sure' were excluded from the analyses. The results of the first one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of product owning on *brand attitude:* $F(2,237) = 6.02$, $p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .048$. People who reported 'Yes' on the question whether they already owned a product from Fitbit, scored significantly higher on brand attitude ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.40$), than people who reported 'No' ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(22.90) = 2.47$, *one-tailed p* = .011. The second one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of product owning on *purchase intention*: $F(2,237) = 15.43$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .115$. People who reported 'Yes' on the question whether they already owned a product from Fitbit, scored statistically significantly higher on purchase intention ($M = 5.22$, $SD = 1.37$), than people who reported 'No' ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.36$), $t(25.43) = 5.32$, *one-tailed p* < .001. The last one-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of product owning on *product liking*: $F(2,237) = $

7.96, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .063$. People who reported 'Yes' on the question whether they already owned a product from Fitbit, scored statistically significantly higher on product liking ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 1.44$), than people who reported 'No' ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.06$), $t(236) = 3.62$, *one-tailed p* $< .001$. In sum, people who reported to already own a product from Fitbit generally scored significantly higher on the product attitudes variables than people who did not own a product from Fitbit.

It was tested whether the categorical variable measuring product owning interacted with the experimental conditions in predicting the combined product attitude variables. A two-way MANCOVA revealed a marginally significant interaction effect between the experimental conditions and product owning, $F(9, 557.48) = 1.68$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .94$, partial $\eta^2 = .061$, $p = .091$. In other words, the effect of the experimental conditions is dependent on whether or not people reported to already own a product from Fitbit. People who already owned a product from Fitbit responded differently to the effect of the experimental conditions on their product attitudes, compared to people who did not own a product from Fitbit. It would have been interesting to further test this variable and see how it interacts with the various conditions of the experiment, yet since the category 'Yes' only consisted of 22 respondents, comparing the interaction effects of this group across the various conditions would be meaningless since the amount of respondents who answered 'Yes' per condition would be too small to make significant statements about.

4.2.3 Familiarity with the videos

After the respondents from all three experimental groups were exposed to one of the stimuli (i.e. a video), they were asked to report on their *familiarity with the video*. To measure whether this variable might have been on influence on the product attitudes of the respondents, regression analyses were conducted. Firstly, simple linear regression analyses were conducted to test whether respondents' scores on *familiarity with official product launch videos* were of influence on their product attitude scores. Familiarity with official product launch videos turned out to explain 5.4% of the variance in respondents' predicted purchase intention scores, a marginally significantly effect $F(1,62) = 3.52$, $p = .065$. Every one unit increase in familiarity with official product launch videos, increased respondents' predicted purchase intention scores with .24 ($SE_B = .13$, $\beta = .23$, beta is weak, positive, and significant). Familiarity with official product launch videos did not significantly predict respondents' *brand attitude* $F(1,62) = 0.60$, $p = .443$ and *product liking* scores $F(1,62) = 0.74$, $p = .394$. In sum, familiarity with official

product launch videos only partially and marginally significantly predicted the variance in respondents' product attitude scores.

Secondly, *familiarity with non-sponsored unboxing videos* did not significantly predict respondents' *brand attitude* $F(1,49) = 0.29$, $p = .595$, *purchase intention* $F(1,49) = 0.37$, $p = .544$, and *product liking* scores $F(1,49) = 0.55$, $p = .464$. In sum, familiarity with non-sponsored unboxing videos did not significantly predict the variance in respondents' product attitude scores.

Lastly, *familiarity with sponsored unboxing videos* significantly predicted respondents' *brand attitude* scores $F(1,50) = 5.89$, $p = .019$, and marginally significantly predicted *product liking* scores $F(1,50) = 3.05$, $p = .087$. The model turned out to explain 10.5% of the variance in the predicted brand attitude scores and 5.7% of the variance in the predicted product liking scores. Every one unit increase in familiarity with sponsored unboxing videos, increased respondents' predicted brand attitude scores with 0.17 ($SE_B = .07$, $\beta = .33$, beta is moderate, positive, and significant). Moreover, every one unit increase in familiarity with sponsored unboxing videos, increased respondents' predicted product liking scores with 0.17 ($SE_B = .10$, $\beta = .24$, beta is weak, positive, and significant). Familiarity with sponsored unboxing videos did not significantly predict respondents' *purchase intention* $F(1,50) = 2.07$, $p = .156$. In sum, familiarity with sponsored unboxing videos only partially significantly predicted the variance in respondents' product attitude scores.

4.2.4 YouTube usage motivations

As explained in the Measures section in the Methodology chapter, a factor analysis was conducted on the variable *YouTube usage motivations*. From this analysis, three factors were extracted: YouTube usage social motivations, YouTube usage educational motivations, and YouTube usage recreational motivations. It was researched whether these three categories of respondents' motivations to use the social medium YouTube were of influence on the effect that the experimental conditions respondents were assigned to had on their product attitudes. A one-way MANCOVA was conducted to find out whether there was an interaction effect of the various YouTube usage motivations variables, on the effect that the three experimental conditions had on respondents' product attitudes.

It was found that exposure to the experimental conditions did not significantly predict respondents' product attitude scores when respondents' scores on the three YouTube usage motivations variables were controlled for $F(9, 540.44) = 0.59$, $p = .806$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .98$, partial $\eta^2 = .008$. In other words, the experimental conditions by themselves did not significantly

influence respondents' scores on product attitude (i.e. the combined dependent variables) when their scores on the YouTube usage motivations variables were adjusted for. A significant interaction effect was found between the experimental conditions and the variable *YouTube usage social motivations* $F(12, 587.65)$, $p < .001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .83$, partial $\eta^2 = .061$. These results imply that people's scores on YouTube usage social motivations cause them to react differently in terms of product attitudes across the different experimental conditions. YouTube usage educational motivations and YouTube usage recreational motivations were not found to have a significant interaction effect on the combined dependent variables.

The variable *YouTube usage social motivations* had a significant interaction effect on purchase intention $F(4, 224) = 6.44$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .103$, and a marginally significant effect on brand attitude $F(4, 224) = 3.02$, $p = .083$, partial $\eta^2 = .036$, and product liking $F(4, 224) = 2.06$, $p = .084$, partial $\eta^2 = .036$. Regression analyses were conducted to investigate how YouTube usage social motivations explained the predicted product attitude scores from respondents across the three different experimental conditions. Firstly, it was found that the interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage social motivation scores on their *purchase intention* scores was significant for respondents across all three experimental conditions. As for the people who were exposed to the official product launch video, YouTube usage social motivations significantly explained 7.1% of respondents' predicted purchase intention scores, $F(1, 62) = 4.76$, $p = .033$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage social motivations increased the predicted purchase intention scores from respondents exposed to the official product launch video with .31 ($SE_B = .14$, $\beta = .27$, beta is weak, positive, and significant). Likewise, YouTube usage social motivations significantly explained 7.1% of the predicted purchase intention scores of the respondents who were exposed to the non-sponsored unboxing video, $F(1, 49) = 9.72$, $p = .003$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage social motivations increased the predicted purchase intention scores from respondents exposed to the non-sponsored unboxing video with .47 ($SE_B = .15$, $\beta = .41$, beta is moderate, positive, and significant). Lastly, YouTube usage social motivations also significantly explained 7.1% of the predicted purchase intention scores of the respondents who were exposed to the sponsored unboxing video, $F(1, 50) = 13.98$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage social motivations increased the predicted purchase intention scores from respondents exposed to the sponsored unboxing video with .68 ($SE_B = .18$, $\beta = .47$, beta is moderate, positive, and significant). Secondly, it was found that the interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage social motivation variable and the experimental conditions variable on their predicted *brand attitude* scores was not significant for respondents across all three experimental conditions

(official product launch video: $F(1, 62) = 0.04$, $p = .844$, non-sponsored unboxing video: $F(1, 49) = 0.09$, $p = .772$, sponsored unboxing video: $F(1, 50) = 0.03$, $p = 0.870$). In other words, respondents from different experimental conditions did not differ significantly in how their YouTube usage social motivations scores influenced their brand attitudes. Lastly, it was found that the interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage social motivations scores on their *product liking* scores was only marginally significant for respondents exposed to the official product launch video $F(1, 62) = 3.10$, $p = .083$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage social motivations increased the predicted product liking scores of respondents exposed to the official product launch video with .18 ($SE_B = .10$, $\beta = .22$, beta is weak, positive, and significant). The interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage social motivation scores on their product liking scores was not significant for respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video ($F(1, 49) = 0.60$, $p = .441$), and respondents exposed to a sponsored unboxing video ($F(1, 50) = 2.42$, $p = .126$).

The variable *YouTube usage educational motivations* had a significant interaction effect on brand attitude $F(4, 224) = 3.02$, $p = .019$, partial $\eta^2 = .051$, and a marginally significant interaction effect on purchase intention $F(4, 224) = 2.06$, $p = .087$, partial $\eta^2 = .035$. YouTube usage educational motivations did not have a significant interaction effect on product liking $F(4, 244) = 1.71$, $p = .148$, partial $\eta^2 = .030$. The interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage educational motivations scores on their *brand attitude* scores was significant for respondents exposed to the official product launch video $F(1, 62) = 5.56$, $p = .022$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage educational motivations increased the predicted brand attitude scores of respondents exposed to the official product launch video with .22 ($SE_B = .09$, $\beta = .29$, beta is weak, positive, and significant). This interaction effect was also found to be significant for people exposed to the sponsored unboxing video $F(1, 50) = 5.83$, $p = .019$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage educational motivations increased the predicted brand attitude scores of respondents exposed to the sponsored unboxing video with .21 ($SE_B = .09$, $\beta = .32$, beta is moderate, positive, and significant). Respondents exposed to the non-sponsored unboxing video did not report significantly higher brand attitudes when also scoring high on YouTube usage educational motivations $F(1, 49) = 0.75$, $p = .392$. Furthermore, the interaction effect of YouTube usage educational motivations on people's *purchase intention* scores was also examined across the three different experimental conditions. It was found that the interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage educational motivations scores on their purchase intention scores was significant for respondents exposed to the official product launch video $F(1, 62) = 10.02$, $p = .002$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage educational

motivations increased the predicted purchase intention scores of respondents exposed to the official product launch video with .42 (SE_B = .13, β = .37, beta is moderate, positive, and significant). This interaction effect was also found to be significant for people exposed to the sponsored unboxing video $F(1, 50) = 4.23$, $p = .045$. Every one unit increase in YouTube usage educational motivations increased the predicted purchase intention scores of respondents exposed to the sponsored unboxing video with .29 (SE_B = .14, β = .28, beta is weak, positive, and significant). The interaction effect of respondents' YouTube usage educational motivations scores on their purchase intention scores was not significant for respondents exposed to the non-sponsored video $F(1, 49) = 1.62$, $p = .210$.

4.2.5 Sports and physical health perceptions

A simple regression analysis was conducted to see whether respondents' scores on *sports and physical health perceptions*, predicted their brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking scores. Adding sports and physical health perceptions as an independent variable to the regression model of the dependent variable *brand attitude*, significantly explained 6.4% of the variation in respondents' predicted brand attitude scores, $F(1, 238) = 16.38$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in sports and physical health perceptions scores, increased respondents' predicted brand attitude scores with .18 (SE_B = .04, β = .25, beta is weak, positive, and significant). Additionally, sports and physical health perceptions was also found to significantly explain 8.1% of the variation in respondents' predicted *purchase intention* scores, $F(1, 238) = 20.98$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in sports and physical health perceptions scores, increased respondents' predicted purchase intention scores with .28 (SE_B = .06, β = .29, beta is weak, positive, and significant). Finally, sports and physical health perceptions were found to significantly explain 5.6% of the variation in respondents' predicted *product liking* scores, $F(1, 238) = 14.10$, $p < .001$. Every one unit increase in sports and physical health perceptions scores, increased respondents' predicted product liking scores with .18 (SE_B = .05, β = .24, beta is weak, positive, and significant).

In sum, respondents' scores on their sports and physical health perceptions significantly predicted their product attitude scores. In other words, the more people perceived themselves to be sporty and physically healthy, the more positive their product attitudes.

4.2.6 Tech-savviness perceptions

A simple regression analysis was conducted to see whether respondents' scores on *tech-savviness perceptions*, predicted their product attitude scores. Tech-savviness perceptions as

an independent variable was found to marginally significantly explain 1.5% of the variation in predicted brand attitude scores, $F(1, 238) = 3.72$, $p = .055$. Every one unit increase in tech-savviness perceptions scores, increased respondents' predicted brand attitude scores with .10 ($SE_B = .05$, $\beta = .12$, beta is weak, positive, and marginally significant). Additionally, tech-savviness perceptions was also found to marginally significantly explain 1.1% of the variation in respondents' predicted purchase intention scores, $F(1, 238) = 2.75$, $p = .099$. Every one unit increase in tech-savviness perceptions scores, increased respondents' predicted purchase intention scores with .12 ($SE_B = .07$, $\beta = .11$, beta is weak, positive, and marginally significant). Finally, tech-savviness perceptions significantly explained 1.8% of the variation in respondents' predicted product liking scores, $F(1, 238) = 4.39$, $p = .037$. Every one unit increase in tech-savviness perceptions scores, increased respondents' predicted product liking scores with .12 ($SE_B = .06$, $\beta = .14$, beta is weak, positive, and significant).

In sum, tech-savviness perceptions (marginally) significantly predicted respondents' product attitude scores. In other words, the more people perceived themselves to be tech-savvy, the more positive their product attitudes.

5. Conclusion and discussion

Influencer marketing and native advertising are two business approaches that organisations use to sell or create awareness around a product or service. These strategies are enabled by the interactive and engaging nature of Web 2.0. Nowadays, more and more organisations are starting to engage in these strategies to stand out from their competitors. With the help of online influencers, organisations aim to create a credible and trustworthy image around their brand and the products they sell, and subsequently increase sales and generate profit. Since native advertising and influencer marketing are two relatively new approaches, the topic is still slightly undiscovered and therefore highly relevant among scholars. This study aimed to contribute to the pool of literature on influencer marketing and native advertising by examining the effects of unboxing videos and official product launch videos on the social medium YouTube on people's product attitudes. The main objective of this study was to find out which type of videos were the most effective in triggering positive product attitudes.

5.1 Main findings

The effect of three different types of videos were compared to see which type of product placement in YouTube videos had the most positive effect on people's product attitude: non-sponsored unboxing videos, sponsored unboxing videos, or traditional official product launch videos. The main results of all tests that were conducted showed that only the respondents who watched an official product launch video, reported higher scores on product liking, compared to the respondents who did not get exposed to any type of advertising. Another finding was that respondents who watched the non-sponsored unboxing video did not score higher on their product attitudes scores, compared to people who saw the sponsored unboxing video. Interestingly, it was found that respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video reported (to a certain extent) more positive brand attitudes and liked the shown product better than respondents who have seen a non-sponsored unboxing video. These results are remarkable since the exact opposite effect was hypothesized; respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video were expected to score higher on their product attitudes scores than respondents exposed to an official product launch video. An opposite effects was found again seeing that respondents who watched the official product launch video reported more positive brand attitudes, higher purchase intentions, and liked the product better than respondents who watched the sponsored unboxing video.

All in all, these results suggest that influencer marketing in the form of non-sponsored unboxing videos was not found to be better at generating more positive product attitudes than either native advertising in the form of sponsored unboxing videos, or traditional marketing messages in the form of official product launch videos. Actually, the latter (i.e. traditional marketing messages in the form of official product launch videos) was found to be more effective in increasing people's product attitudes as a whole, compared to native advertising in the form of sponsored unboxing videos. On that same note, traditional marketing messages in the form of official product launch videos were also found to be better at increasing product liking and generating more positive brand attitudes, compared to influencer marketing messages in the form of non-sponsored unboxing videos.

Besides these answers to the main research questions of this study, it was found that some additional variables had an effect on respondents' overall product attitude as well. People who reported to already own a product from Fitbit, scored higher on their product attitudes than people who did not own a product yet. Also, increased brand familiarity was found to enhance people's product attitudes, especially when people watch an influencer marketing message. Besides familiarity with the brand, people exposed to official product launch videos who reported to be familiar with these videos, reported (to a certain extent) higher purchase intentions. Similarly, people exposed to a sponsored unboxing video who reported to be familiar with these videos, were likely to report higher brand attitudes and product liking. Furthermore, it was found that people who mostly use YouTube for social reason, react differently to different types of videos, opposed to people who use YouTube mainly for educational purposes. Exposing people who often use YouTube for social reasons to a traditional marketing message, increased their purchase intentions and product liking. Their purchase intentions were also enhanced when they watched an influencer marketing or native advertising message. For people who mostly use YouTube for educational purposes, traditional marketing and native advertising messages were the most effective, enhancing their brand attitudes and purchase intentions.

5.2 Theoretical implications

5.2.1 Confirmatory analyses

When testing whether exposure to any type research stimuli caused people to score more positively on their product attitudes compared to people who did not get exposed to any type of video advertising, it was found that on the dependent variable product liking only, the scores of respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video were significantly

higher than the scores of the respondents who did not get exposed to any video. The rest of the experimental groups all did not score significantly higher on either brand attitude, purchase intention or product liking than respondents in the control group. These findings actually oppose the studies by De Gregorio and Sung (2010) and Benixen (1993) in which they found that that exposure to a type of product placement or advertising will positively influence respondents' product attitude, compared to not being exposed to any advertising at all. The fact that these expectations are not confirmed in this study can perhaps be explained by a classic model called the *persuasion knowledge model* (Friestad & Wright, 1994), that was already validated in the years before the rise of Web 2.0 and all its associated developments regarding marketing and advertising tactics. The persuasion knowledge model (PKM) implies that people develop personal knowledge regarding marketers' persuasion attempts to influence their beliefs, attitudes, decisions, and actions (Friestad & Wright, 1994). They use this knowledge to protect themselves from being influenced by the various messages that marketers and advertisers send out to convince people that they should purchase their product or service. In other words, persuasion knowledge influences how people react to persuasion attempts from marketers and advertisers (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Persuasion knowledge keeps growing over time, and therefore consumers are becoming smarter the longer they get exposed to persuasive attempts (i.e. advertisements). The results of this study could suggest that the PKM is still valid today since people who were exposed to any form of advertisement in this study did not hold more positive product attitudes than people who did not get exposed to any type of advertisement.

Exposure to a non-sponsored unboxing video did not cause people to have significantly more positive brand attitudes or higher purchase intentions than people who watched an official product launch video. Interestingly, respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video were found to like the shown product better and hold more positive brand attitudes than respondents who have seen a non-sponsored unboxing video. Also, it was found that people who watched a sponsored unboxing video did not have significantly higher purchase intentions than people who watched an official product launch video. In fact, concerning their brand attitudes and product liking, respondents who have seen an official product launch scored significantly higher than respondents who have watched a sponsored unboxing video. Unlike what was hypothesized, respondents who have seen a sponsored unboxing video did not score higher on their brand attitude, purchase intention, and product liking scores, compared to respondents who were exposed to an official product launch video.

The results of both comparisons did not prove the hypothesized effect at all, and thus contradicts the findings of studies by Nandagiri and Philip (2018), Gerhards (2017), and Wu (2016), who all provided evidence supporting the persuasive power of influencer marketing. These results could perhaps be explained by the results of research conducted by Wojdynski and Evans (2016), who found that the use of wording like 'advertising' or 'sponsored' evoke advertising recognition, which they describe as people's ability to better understand the selling and persuasive intentions of advertisements (Wojdynski & Evans, 2016). This could explain why people who were exposed to a video called a 'sponsored' unboxing video, hold more negative product attitudes than people who watched an official product launch video. Moreover, Wu (2016) did state that consumers are often not capable of recognizing the difference between sponsored and non-sponsored content. This could explain why people who were exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video did not score higher on their product attitudes than people exposed to an official product launch video. Generally, increased advertising recognition leads to a negative evaluation of the brand and the product that was advertised (Wojdynski & Evans, 2016).

Last of all, it was found that people who saw a non-sponsored unboxing video did not have more positive product attitudes than people who watched a sponsored unboxing video. Again, this result contradicts current literature by Reijmersdal et al. (2016) who stated that when YouTube influencers disclose that the content they produce is sponsored by the brand that they advertise, their viewers are less likely to be persuaded. However, Wu (2016) possibly offers the answer to this contradiction, by proving that often, consumers or viewers of unboxing videos on YouTube do not consider either of the three types of sponsored native advertising to be actual advertising, since the commercial agenda is more or less hidden in the reputation of the YouTuber, who is mostly considered to be more authentic and genuine than general marketing messages (Wu, 2016). In other words, people might not always be consciously aware that a video is sponsored. Yet, these results could also mean that people did notice the sponsorship disclosure, but that this simply did not make them feel more negative about the product, opposed to when they would have seen non-sponsored content.

5.2.2 Exploratory analyses

It was found that people who reported to already own a product from Fitbit, scored higher on their product attitudes, compared to people who indicated not to own a product from Fitbit already. These results could imply that people who already purchased a product from Fitbit before, have had positive customer experiences, and therefore hold more positive brand

attitudes, are likely to purchase a product from Fitbit again, and like the new product from Fitbit better than people who have not had a purchase experience with a Fitbit product yet. These findings would be in line with the research by (Verhoef et al., 2009) who state that customer experiences highly important in generating positive product and brand attitudes. It was moreover found that the effect of the videos on people's product attitudes was dependent on their product owning status. The videos had a different effect on the product attitudes from people who already owned a product from Fitbit, compared to people who did not. Since it was not possible to run valid tests to see which videos were more or less effective when taking into account people's product owning status, these results so far imply that people who already own a product are more or less susceptible to the effects of certain videos in terms of their product attitude change, compared to people who do not own a product from Fitbit yet. People who already possess a product from Fitbit might be more inclined to change their attitudes by a traditional marketing message, since they are already familiar with the functions of the watch, whereas new customers might be more likely to generate positive product attitudes after watching an unboxing video in which the watch is unpacked and evaluated in much more detail.

Additionally, it was tested whether people's brand familiarity scores moderated or enhanced the effect of exposure to the videos on their product attitudes. It was found that the predicted brand attitude scores of respondents exposed to non-sponsored unboxing videos increased when they also reported to be more familiar with the brand. Also, an increase in brand familiarity was found to cause an increase in the predicted purchase intention scores of respondents exposed to official product launch videos and non-sponsored unboxing videos. Lastly, the predicted product liking scores of respondents exposed to official product launch videos and non-sponsored unboxing videos increased when they reported to be more familiar with the brand. In other words, the effect of exposure to a non-sponsored unboxing video on people's brand attitudes, purchase intentions, and product liking was found to be enhanced by increased brand familiarity. So, the more familiar the respondents exposed to a non-sponsored unboxing video were with the brand, the higher their product attitudes. Likewise, the effect of exposure to an official product launch video on people's product liking and purchase intention scores was found to be enhanced by increased brand familiarity. So, the more familiar respondents exposed to an official product launch video were with the brand, the higher their product liking and purchase intentions.

The effect of people's *familiarity with the videos* that they were exposed to on their product attitudes was tested as well. When people who were exposed to the official product launch video reported to be more familiar with the video, their predicted purchase intentions

increased as well. This effect was however marginally significant. For the second condition, people who reported to be more or less familiar with non-sponsored unboxing videos did not score differently on their product attitude scores. For the people who watched a sponsored unboxing video it was found that the more familiar they indicated to be with sponsored unboxing videos, the more positive their brand attitudes and the more they liked the shown product. The latter (i.e. product liking) was however a marginally significant effect. From these results in can be concluded that the more familiar people were with official product launch videos (i.e. traditional marketing messages), the higher their intention to purchase the product shown in the video. On that same note, the more familiar people were with sponsored-unboxing videos (i.e. native advertising messages), the more likely they were to like the product better and feel more positive towards the brand.

It was moreover investigated whether people's *motivations to use the social medium YouTube* have had an influence on their product attitudes. It was found that respondents exposed to the official product launch video, the non-sponsored unboxing video, and the sponsored unboxing video all reported higher purchase intentions when they also indicated to often use YouTube for social motivations. On the contrary, respondents from the three experimental conditions did not differ in how their YouTube usage social motivations scores influenced their brand attitudes, meaning that for none of the experimental conditions, using YouTube for social purposes enhanced people's brand attitudes. Respondents who watched the official product launch video and reported to often use YouTube for social motivations, were likely to report higher product liking scores. This interaction effect was not present for people who watched the non-sponsored and the sponsored unboxing videos. In sum, when it comes to increasing the purchase intentions of people who often use YouTube for social purposes, it was found that any type of video is effective. Yet, in terms of enhancing the brand attitudes of people who often use YouTube for social purposes, none of the videos was found to be effective. Increasing the product liking of people who often use YouTube for social purposes can best be achieved by exposing them to official product launch videos. In addition, respondents exposed to the official product launch video and the sponsored unboxing video who also reported to often use YouTube for educational purposes, held more positive brand attitudes and reported higher purchase intentions. In other words, both official product launch videos and sponsored unboxing videos are the most effective in enhancing the brand attitudes and purchase intentions of people who often use YouTube for educational purposes.

Lastly, it was found that *sports and physical health perceptions* predicted respondents' product attitude scores across all conditions. In other words, the more people perceived

themselves to be sporty and physically healthy, the higher their product attitudes. Likewise, people's *tech-savviness perceptions* also predicted their product liking, and to a lesser extent their brand attitude and purchase intentions. That is, people who reported themselves to be more tech-savvy, were likely to score higher on their product attitudes. These results probably only apply to this particular research since the product that was used in the research stimuli was a tech-product used to measure physical activity. Measuring the effects of these two variables showed that other factors like people's perceptions on tech and sports influence their product attitude scores as well.

5.3 Practical implications

The stakeholder who benefits the most from the results of this study are most probably businesses. As mentioned in many of the theories that the foundation of this research was built on, more and more companies are investing in influencer marketing and native advertising campaigns to stand out from their competitors and get across their message. Unlike what is often said in previous literature, this study found that the power of influencer marketing and native advertising is not necessarily bigger than traditional advertising campaigns. In fact, traditional marketing practices in the form of official product launch videos were found to be more effective in increasing product liking and triggering more positive brand attitudes, opposed to influencer marketing or native advertising attempts. Practically seen, business should according to these results not fixate on influencer marketing and native advertising, but keep designing traditional marketing messages as well, as they are found to be particularly more effective in enhancing brand attitudes and product liking.

Furthermore, since people who already own a product, or people who are familiar with a brand, are found to hold more positive attitudes towards the product, these are perhaps things that companies should keep in mind when targeting their campaigns. These people might be used as ambassadors to spread a positive word about the product to others who are not that familiar with the brand or have not bought a product from the brand yet. Also, organisations can best target people that are already familiar with their brand with non-sponsored unboxing videos (i.e. influencer marketing) when they want to increase their overall product attitudes, and official product launch videos when their aim is to enhance the product liking and purchase intentions.

When organisations decide to use the social medium YouTube to reach their target group, the most effective strategy would be to find out for what reasons their target groups actually uses YouTube. If they report to use YouTube mostly for social purposes, influencer

marketing, native advertising, and traditional marketing were all found to be effective when the aim is to increase people's purchase intentions. When the aim is to increase the product liking of the target group who reported to use YouTube mostly for social reasons, it is best to use traditional marketing messages. When the target audience of the organisation is found to use YouTube mostly for educational purposes, and the aim is to enhance their brand attitudes and purchase intentions, it is best to target them with traditional marketing and native advertising messages.

5.4 Limitations

The insignificant results of this study do not necessarily imply that business should stop investing in influencer marketing and native advertising strategies, as these results are not saying that influencer marketing and native advertising are not effective at all. Even though solid theoretical and methodological foundations were used to conduct this study, there were some limitations that could have been improved. For instance, the sample that was used in this study is not fully representative of the whole Generation C population. Most of the respondents were recruited through the personal network of the researcher. Hence, most of the people who got reached are relatively similar in terms of demographics, cultural values, and socialization. Also, people from all nationalities were eligible to participate, but since the survey was distributed through the researcher's personal network, which mostly consists of Dutch people, the majority of the respondents were Dutch (71.3%). In sum, the people included in the research sample were most probably not very representative because they were selected through convenience and snowball sampling, which are non-probability sampling techniques where not everyone in the population has the same chance of getting selected in the sample. Therefore, it is not completely reliable to generalize the statements made about this sample to the full Generation C population worldwide.

Additionally, during and after the data collection phase, the researcher received feedback from respondents regarding the length of the videos that were used as research stimuli in the online survey. Several respondents reported that the unboxing videos were too long, and therefore most people did not watch the full video or indicated that they got bored and lost their focus. These complaints might have had an impact on the validity of the research, since people might have answered more negatively to the post-exposure questions because of their boredom or annoyance with the length of the video. The unboxing videos should thus have perhaps been made a bit shorter in order to decrease the response bias.

Finally, this study aimed to investigate the influencer marketing and native advertising culture on YouTube. The videos that respondents were exposed to during the survey were therefore shown through a URL from the medium YouTube. However, the context of the video was not visible, and thus the YouTube context was not fully clear either. In other words, the video could have also been shown on another online video platform (e.g. Vimeo), which might have resulted in similar results. Hence, the results of this study are not uniquely applicable to the social medium YouTube, but rather to online video platforms in general.

5.5 Suggestions for future research and strengths

Following up on the last-mentioned limitation, future research could build on this study by further incorporating the *YouTube context* in the research. For instance, the amount of likes or views that a video received might have an effect on people's attitude towards the value of the video in general. To put it differently, it would be interesting to see if the YouTube lay-out including likes, views, comments and recommended videos, might influence people's product attitudes as well. If the affordances and lay-out of the medium YouTube would be included more prominently in the study, it could also be investigated what people think about the video in general regarding aesthetics and relevance of its content. This way, people's opinions on the videos can be controlled for in measuring their product attitudes.

Another variable that might have been interesting to study in addition to the variables that were studied now is *source credibility*. This study has solely looked at the effects of unboxing videos in comparison to traditional marketing messages, not diving all too deep into unboxing videos in particular. Since so much research conducted on native advertising and influencer marketing discusses the importance of the influencer, it would have been interesting to see whether people's perceptions on the credibility and trustworthiness of the influencer would have played a significant role in the effects that exposure to both sponsored and non-sponsored unboxings video had on people's product attitudes. That it, it would have been interesting to test whether people's evaluations on the source's credibility would have interacted with the effect that non-sponsored and sponsored unboxing videos had on their product attitudes. This way, it could have been examined if the effects of sponsored and non-sponsored unboxing videos on people's product attitudes were enhanced or moderated by how credible people perceive the influencer in the videos to be. These analyses would enable the researcher to test the authority and liking principles by (Cialdini, 2009) that were touched upon in the Theoretical framework of this study more in depth.

Moreover, future research could use the framework of this study, and apply it to a *different product category*. This study focused on tech-products, yet it would be interesting to see if the results differ for other product categories like for instance cosmetics, clothing, or for instance non-tangible products like games or movies. Since tech-products are often relatively expensive and durable goods, it would be interesting to see whether the effects of all the variables and research stimuli measured in this study might differ in other categories of for instance less durable products. In fact, the framework this research used, being a direct comparison between the effect of unboxing or 'review' videos and traditional marketing messages on people's product attitudes, could be applied in studies on different product categories as well.

Finally, future research could build on the idea that people *recognize persuasion attempts*, and as a result activate resistance against the persuasion. It would be interesting to study due to which factors or aspects people are best able to tell that the content they are watching is sponsored, and how they accordingly react towards the displayed product after consciously realizing that the content is sponsored by the displayed brand. This way, it can firstly be tested whether people are truly able to recognize content as being sponsored, and secondly it can be studied whether people then also report more negative product attitudes, compared to situations in which they did not recognize the content as being sponsored.

Despite some limitations and suggestions for future research, this research has been a valid contribution to the current literature on influencer marketing and native advertising in today's rapidly evolving online world. Conducting research on influencer marketing and native advertising that directly compares the effects of those approaches to the effects of traditional marketing and advertising efforts has been innovative in the academic field of online marketing. The results of this study contribute to the field of knowledge that already exists on influencer marketing and native advertising. Furthermore, the findings of this study also form a building block that future studies can use as a reference.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Online survey experiment

<u>Introduction/Pre-exposure</u>

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for participating in this research. This research is conducted by a Master's student from the international Master's program Media and Business at the Erasmus University Rotterdam.

The study you are about to participate in is an online survey in which advertising on YouTube is investigated. You will be asked a few questions about YouTube, your opinion on a certain product, as well as some questions about your perception on sports and technologies.

Please be aware that your participation is completely voluntarily, meaning that you can quit at any time during your participation. Furthermore, your anonymity is fully guaranteed, and your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. The findings of this survey will be used solely for research purposes.

Completing this survey will take approximately 10 minutes. If you have any questions during or after your participation, please feel free to contact the researcher Ms. Jessy Grootveld 405645jg@student.eur.nl.

- o I agree and would like to participate in this research.
- o I do not agree and will not participate in this research.

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Welcome to this survey on advertising on YouTube!
Before the real survey starts, I would like to ask you to complete the following general questions.

What is your age in years?
_____

What is your gender?
- o Male
- o Female
- o Other, please specify _____

What is the highest educational level that you have attained?
- o Primary school
- o Secondary school
- o Intermediate vocational education degree (practical education/MBO)
- o BA degree (University degree or degree from University of Applied Sciences/HBO)
- o MA degree (University degree or degree from University of Applied Sciences/HBO)
- o MBA degree, PhD degree, or other postgraduate training
- o Other, _____

What is your nationality?

[Drop-down menu]
- - Dutch
- - German
- - English
- - French
- - American
- - Norwegian
- - Swedish
- - Finnish
- - Danish
- - Polish
- - Lithuanian
- - Austrian
- - Swiss
- - Spanish
- - Italian
- - Greek
- - Australian
- - South African
- - Indian
- - Other, please specify: _____

----------------------- Page Break -----------------------

Since this study is about the social medium YouTube, we would like to ask you some questions about social media usage in general, and the medium YouTube in particular.

Please think about your social media usage in the past year.
Generally speaking, how often do you use social media?
- o Several times an hour
- o Once an hour
- o Several times a day
- o Once a day
- o Several times a week
- o Once a week
- o Several times a month

- o Once a month
- o Several times a year
- o Never

Considering your overall social media usage, how often do you use the social medium YouTube in particular?
- o Several times an hour
- o Once an hour
- o Several times a day
- o Once a day
- o Several times a week
- o Once a week
- o Several times a month
- o Once a month
- o Several times a year
- o Never

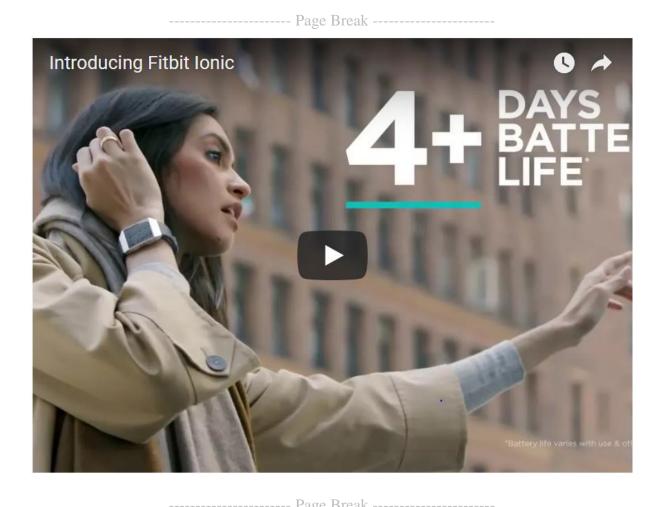**On average in any given week, express how likely it is that you use YouTube to …?**

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Slightly unlikely	Neutral	Slightly likely	Likely	Very likely
Get information about things that interest you	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Learn how to do things	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Provide others with information	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Generate ideas	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Impress other users	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Feel important	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Meet interesting people	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Feel like I belong to a community	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Be entertained	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Relax	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Condition 1: official product launch video

You are about to watch a YouTube video, designed by the brand Fitbit.
In this video, the new Fitbit activity tracker, the Fitbit Ionic, will be introduced.

The video is a little over a minute long. After watching the video, you can click on the arrow at the bottom of the page to continue with the survey.

Please pay close attention to the video and the product that is shown, because in the remainder of the survey, you will be asked some questions about it.

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Please confirm whether you have watched the full video.
   o   Yes, I watched the full video.
   o   No, I did not watch the full video, because: _____

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

The video you have just watched is called an 'official product launch video'. Please answer the following questions about this video and the product that was shown in it.

On a scale from 1 to 7, how familiar are you with these types of videos on YouTube?
Not familiar at all   0 0 0 0 0 0 0   Very familiar

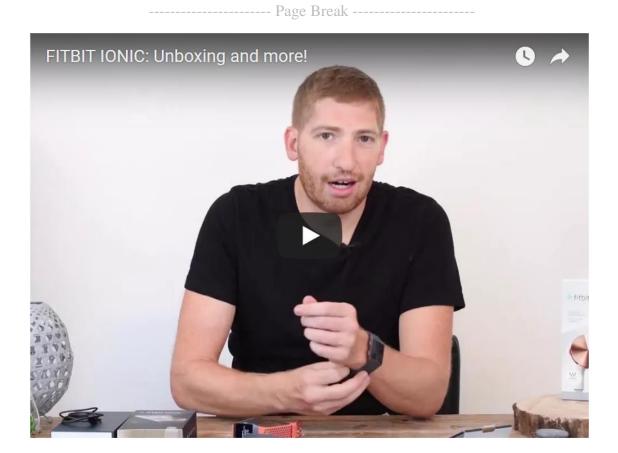---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Condition 2: non-sponsored unboxing video

You are about to watch a YouTube video, created by the YouTuber DC Rainmaker.
In this video, he will introduce you to the new Fitbit activity tracker, the Fitbit Ionic.

DC Rainmaker is an independent YouTuber who is not sponsored by Fitbit.

The fragment is a little over 3 minutes long. After watching the video, you can click on the arrow at the bottom of the page to continue with the survey.

Please pay close attention to the video and the product that is shown, because in the remainder of the survey, you will be asked some questions about it.

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Please confirm whether you have watched the full video.
- o   Yes, I watched the full video.
- o   No, I did not watch the full video, because: _____

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

The video you have just watched is called an 'unboxing video'. Please answer the following questions about this video and the product that was shown in it.

On a scale from 1 to 7, how familiar are you with these types of videos on YouTube?
Not familiar at all   0 0 0 0 0 0 0   Very familiar

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Condition 3: sponsored unboxing video

You are about to watch a YouTube video, created by the YouTuber DC Rainmaker.
In this video, he will introduce you to the new Fitbit activity tracker, the Fitbit Ionic.

DC Rainmaker is a YouTuber that is sponsored by the company Fitbit to make this video, and with that, create awareness around the new Fitbit Ionic.

The fragment is a little over 3 minutes long. After watching the video, you can click on the arrow at the bottom of the page to continue with the survey.

Please pay close attention to the video and the product that is shown, because in the remainder of the survey, you will be asked some questions about it.

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

Please confirm whether you have watched the full video.
- Yes, I watched the full video.
- No, I did not watch the full video, because: _____

The video you have just watched is called an 'unboxing video'. Please answer the following questions about this video and the product that was shown in it.

On a scale from 1 to 7, how familiar are you with these types of videos on YouTube?
Not familiar at all   0 0 0 0 0 0 0   Very familiar

Condition 4: control group

Fitbit is a company that produces electronic wearable devices that enable the user to keep track of everything they do on a daily basis: activity, food, exercise, weight, and sleep.

Recently, Fitbit launched a new activity tracker called the Fitbit Ionic, which can be seen in the picture below.

Post-exposure

On a scale from 1 to 7, how familiar are you with the brand Fitbit?
Not familiar at all   0 0 0 0 0 0 0   Very familiar

Do you currently own a product from Fitbit?

- o Yes
- o No
- o Not sure

Please indicate your attitude towards the brand Fitbit on the following scales:

Bad	0 0 0 0 0 0	Good
Appealing	0 0 0 0 0 0	Unappealing
Unpleasant	0 0 0 0 0 0	Pleasant
Unattractive	0 0 0 0 0 0	Attractive
Interesting	0 0 0 0 0 0	Boring
Dislike	0 0 0 0 0 0	Like
Unfavorable	0 0 0 0 0 0	Favorable
Desirable	0 0 0 0 0 0	Undesirable
Special	0 0 0 0 0 0	Not special
Unsophisticated	0 0 0 0 0 0	Sophisticated
Unenjoyable	0 0 0 0 0 0	Enjoyable
Valuable	0 0 0 0 0 0	Worthless
Not advisable to choose	0 0 0 0 0 0	Advisable to choose

How much do you like the product 'Fitbit Ionic'?

Very much dislike	0 0 0 0 0 0	Very much like

Please complete the following sentence by ticking the box of the option that best suits your feelings:

"I personally feel the Fitbit Ionic is …"

Bad	0 0 0 0 0 0	Good
Undesirable	0 0 0 0 0 0	Desirable
Unpleasant	0 0 0 0 0 0	Pleasant

Please indicate how you would rate your opinion in terms of buying the Fitbit Ionic:

Unlikely	0 0 0 0 0 0	Likely
Never	0 0 0 0 0 0	Definitely
Improbable	0 0 0 0 0 0	Probable
Uncertain	0 0 0 0 0 0	Certain
Very low purchase interest	0 0 0 0 0 0	Very high purchase interest

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about sports and physical health:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I would consider myself to be an athletic person.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy working out and exercising.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like to keep track of my fitness progress and improve my physical health.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The concept 'tech-savviness' refers to the extent to which a person is familiar with and capable of using modern technologies and electronic devices.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about tech-savviness:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I would consider myself to be a tech-savvy person.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I generally enjoy using electronic devices.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I encourage the development of new technologies.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

---------------------- Page Break ----------------------

What do you think the researcher of this study is examining?

_____

Was there anything that went wrong during your participation in this study? If yes, please explain what happened.

- ○ No
- ○ Yes: _____