

**User-Generated Advertising: The effects of consumer-created brand videos
and self-construal on brand attitudes**

By

Paulo César Mora Avila

**A thesis submitted to The University of Birmingham for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

Department of Marketing

**Birmingham Business
School**

**The University of
Birmingham**

September 2014

UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

University of Birmingham Research Archive

e-theses repository

This unpublished thesis/dissertation is copyright of the author and/or third parties. The intellectual property rights of the author or third parties in respect of this work are as defined by The Copyright Designs and Patents Act 1988 or as modified by any successor legislation.

Any use made of information contained in this thesis/dissertation must be in accordance with that legislation and must be properly acknowledged. Further distribution or reproduction in any format is prohibited without the permission of the copyright holder.

ABSTRACT

The impact of consumer-generated brand communications on attitudes and behaviour have been widely studied by academic and marketing practitioners; technological advances and social media allow consumers to conduct marketing functions traditionally carried out by firms, especially user-generated advertising (UGA). From the receiver's perspective, psychosocial characteristics like self-construal are also considered to affect attitudes and behaviours in response to advertising.

Despite the importance of these constructs, there is little research examining the impact of user-generated advertising and self-construal on attitudes and behaviour; this thesis attempts to fill this gap and contribute to the literature by evaluating these constructs from a consumer's perspective by expanding existing knowledge on the effects of UGA on consumers' brand attitudes and behavioural intentions.

Literature in the fields of consumer psychology, advertising and social media was reviewed to frame UGA in the context of existing theoretical persuasive communication knowledge. The study included three stages. First, a content analysis of 230 UGA from YouTube was conducted to determine the characteristics of this type of brand communication. Second, 25 videos were selected, and a panel of expert judges validated their valence as positive, negative or neutral before specific UGA were selected as stimuli. Finally, an Internet self-completion questionnaire was sent to the University of Birmingham's Business School students, and 208 usable questionnaires were obtained.

The results were analysed through a mixed within-between-subjects ANOVA to test the research hypotheses; overall, the findings suggest that when compared to firm-generated advertising, exposure to UGA has more impact on attitudes towards the brand and behavioural intentions and that individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal are more affected by UGA. Also, different types of UGA have different impacts: in particular, negatively valenced UGA has more impact than positive and neutral.

The theoretical and practical implications of this study may serve academics and practitioners in the understanding of the UGA phenomenon and its attitudinal-behavioural effects on consumers and potential impact on brand equity. Furthermore, the results sustain the managerial necessity to develop and maintain strategies to monitor and respond to negative UGA in social media.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere and most heartfelt gratitude to all the people that helped me throughout my research journey...

First, to my supervisors, Dr. Sheena Leek and Professor Douglas West for their invaluable guidance and support. Douglas, thank you so much for being there and for believing in me; you have been a mentor and a friend, and I would not have been able to achieve this without your guidance. Sheena, although you joined my supervision team in the later stages, thank you for all of your help and support and for being available and always willing to help. Also, to Dr. George Christodoulides for his invaluable guidance during the first stages of my research: George, your expertise in the topic and your advice helped me immensely to find my way in the research maze.

To the administrative staff, especially Marleen and Beverly, for always being helpful and supportive.

To my friends and colleagues for all of their support and for all those interminable sessions of emotional coaching when the strength to complete the task was vanishing.

To my parents for their constant preoccupation and prayers to keep me going.

and to George... I have no words to express my gratitude for everything you have done for me and all the help to complete this task.

Thank you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background to the research problem	1
1.2. Justification for the research	2
1.3. Research aim and objectives	4
Research aim:	4
Research objectives:	4
1.4. Methodology and data analysis.....	5
1.5. Summary of Findings.....	5
1.6. Main research contributions.....	6
1.7. Thesis outline	7
2. LITERATURE REVIEW (I).....	9
2.1. Introduction.....	9
2.2. The foundations of advertising	10
2.3. The objectives of advertising communications	12
2.4. The advertising communication process.....	13
2.5. An understanding how advertising communications might work	14
2.6. The advertising message	25
2.6.1. Types of advertising messages	26
2.6.2. The message content	27
2.6.3. Television advertising messages	30
2.6.4. Creative elements of audio-visual advertising messages	32
2.7. The role of Self-Construal in advertising effectiveness.....	35
2.7.1. Dimensionality of the Self-Construal construct	37
2.7.2. Effects of Self-Construal in Cognitions, emotions and behaviour.....	39
2.7.2.1. Effects of self-construal on cognitions	39
2.7.2.2. Effects of self-construal on emotions	41
2.7.2.3. Effects of self-construal on behaviour.....	41
2.8. A psychological approach of advertising effectiveness: The importance of attitudes and attitude change	44

2.8.1. The structure of Attitudes.....	47
2.8.1.1. The tripartite orientation of attitude dimensions	48
2.8.1.2. The unidimensional orientation of attitude dimensions	50
2.8.2. The attitude-behaviour relationship	51
2.8.2.1. Theory of Reasoned Action.....	52
2.8.2.2. Theory of Planned Behaviour.....	54
2.8.3. Attitudes and information processing	60
2.8.4. The effects of persuasive message on attitude change.....	61
2.8.5. The effects of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand.....	65
2.9. The role of advertising in brand building	66
2.9.1. Brand interpretation from a firm’s perspective	68
2.9.2. Brand interpretation from a consumer’s perspective	72
2.9.3. Brands interpretation as evolving entities	75
2.10. The importance of brands for stakeholders.....	78
2.10.1. Firm-Based Brand Equity	80
2.10.2. Consumer-Based Brand Equity.....	81
2.11. The role of advertising in consumer-based brand equity.....	82
2.12. Conclusion	84
3. LITERATURE REVIEW (II)	86
3.1. Introduction.....	86
3.2. User Generated Advertising.....	86
3.3. User-Generated Content	88
3.3.1. User’s motivations for creating user-generated content.....	93
3.3.2. User-generated advertising valence	95
3.3.3. User’s motivations for consumption of user-generated advertising.....	97
3.4. User-generated advertising: a creative form of electronic-word-of-mouth	100
3.5. The World Wide Web and the Internet.....	103
3.5.1. Internet usage and UGC in the UK	107
3.6. Social Media	112
3.6.1. Social Media Classification.....	113

3.6.2. Social media: a new paradigm for brand communications	116
3.6.3. YouTube: a socio-technical content community.....	118
3.7. User-Generated advertising effectiveness	125
3.7.1. The study understands audiences’ responses to UGA: an attribution theory perspective.....	126
3.7.1.1. Source: User-Generated Advertising compared to Firm-Generated Advertising	129
3.7.1.2. Content: UGA valence.....	130
3.7.1.3. Context: Social Media	132
3.7.1.4. Self-Construal.....	133
3.8. Conclusion	134
4. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	136
4.1. Introduction.....	136
4.2. The theoretical foundations of the study.....	136
4.3. The advertising message: Firm-generated advertising compared to user-generated advertising.....	138
4.4. The role of self-construal in advertising effectiveness	140
4.5. The effects of advertising communications: Attitudes towards the ad.....	142
4.5.1. The influence of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand	143
4.6. The effects of advertising communications: Attitudes towards the brand.....	144
4.7. The effects of advertising communications: Behavioural intentions.....	145
4.7.1. Intention to purchase and consume the product or brand.....	146
4.7.2. Intention to switch product within brand or switch brands.....	147
4.7.3. Intention to engage in word-of-mouth activities	148
4.7.4. Intention to engage in electronic word-of-mouth activities.	149
4.7.5. Intention to engage in user-generated activities.....	150
4.8. Conclusion	151
5. THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	154
5.1 Introduction.....	154
5.2. The foundations of the research study	154
5.2.1. Ontological considerations of the study.....	156

5.2.2. Epistemological considerations of the study	157
5.2.3. The philosophical position of the study: Objective positivism	159
5.3. General ethical considerations of the study	159
5.4. Methodological considerations of the study	163
5.4.1. The Research Design.....	163
5.4.2. The Research Methods	164
5.4.2.1. Stage 1: Content analysis of the YouTube video population	165
5.4.2.2. Stage 2: Stimuli Selection and validation through a panel of judges	182
5.4.2.3. Stage 3: Internet-based questionnaire.....	187
5.5. Conclusion	205
6. RESEARCH FINDINGS	206
6.1. Introduction.....	206
6.2. Video content analysis	207
6.2.1. Video metrics	207
6.2.1. Advertising techniques used in UGA.....	209
6.2.2. UGA valence	211
6.3. Data preparation: coding, screening and manipulation.....	212
6.3.1. Response rate, completion rate and non-response bias	213
6.3.2. Data manipulation	215
6.4. Data analysis	216
6.4.1. Sample Demographics.....	216
6.4.2. Descriptive statistics: sample's self-construal characteristics.....	217
6.4.3. Test of Normality	218
6.4.4. Reliability of the measures	222
6.4.5. Inferential statistics: comparison of changes on 'brand attitude' as a result of exposure to firm-generated and different types of user-generated advertising for different types of self-construal groups	225
6.4.6. Inferential statistics: comparison of changes on 'ad attitudes' as a result of exposure to firm-generated advertising and different types' user-generated advertising for different types of self-construal groups.....	230
6.4.7. Inferential statistics: examination of associations between attitudes towards the ad and attitudes towards the brand	235

6.4.8. Inferential statistics: comparison of changes on behavioural intentions as a result of exposure to firm-generated advertising and different types of user-generated advertising for different types of self-construal groups	237
6.4.8.1. Purchase intention of Coca-Cola	240
6.4.8.2. Intention to switch product within Coca-Cola brand or switch brands	247
6.4.8.3. Intention to engage in word-of-mouth activities	250
6.4.8.4. Intention to engage in e-word-of-mouth activities	266
6.4.8.5. Intention to engage in user-generated activities	278
6.5. Conclusion	284
7. DISCUSSION	285
7.1. Introduction.....	285
7.2. The user-generated advertising (UGA) communication effects model	286
7.3. Self-construal typology.....	288
7.4. Self-construal impact on advertising effectiveness.....	289
7.5. Comparison of the effectiveness of firm-generated vs user-generated advertising.....	290
7.6. The effects of different types of user-generated advertising	292
7.7. Attitudes towards the ad	293
7.8. The effects of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand	294
7.9. Attitudes towards the brand	295
7.10. Behavioural Intentions	296
7.10.1. Purchase intention.....	297
7.10.2. Switching intentions	298
7.10.3. Word-of-mouth intentions	298
7.10.4. User-generated content creation intentions.....	300
7.11. The user-generated advertising (UGA) communication effects model	301
7.12. Theoretical and empirical contributions	305
7.13. Managerial implications.....	308
7.14. Research limitations.....	311
7.15. Recommendations for future research	313
8. CONCLUSION.....	316
9. REFERENCES.....	319

10. APPENDICES.....	369
Appendix 1.....	370
Appendix 2.....	371
Appendix 3.....	372
Appendix 4.....	373
Appendix 5.....	378
Appendix 6.....	387
Appendix 7.....	398
Appendix 8.....	406
Appendix 9.....	436
Appendix 10.....	446
Appendix 11.....	447
Appendix 12.....	448
Appendix 13.....	449
Appendix 14.....	450
Appendix 15.....	451

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1 Thesis outline.....	8
Figure 2-2 The traditional one-directional communication model.....	13
Figure 2-3 The FCB grid of how advertising works	21
Figure 2-4 Tripartite Orientation of attitude dimensions.....	49
Figure 2-5 The unidimensional orientation of attitude dimensions.....	50
Figure 2-6 Analogy of brands as icebergs	77
Figure 2-7 Thesis approach of how advertising works	85
Figure 3-1 Traditional one-to-many marketing communication model	104
Figure 3-2 Many-to-many communication model for Web 2.0	106
Figure 3-3. Internet use by educational qualifications	109
Figure 3-4 Internet use by life stage	109
Figure 3-5 Comparison of UGC creation and uploading in the UK by year.....	111
Figure 3-6 Comparison of UGC creation and uploading in the UK by lifestage	112
Figure 3-7 Thesis approach of how user generated advertising may works	135
Figure 4-1 The conceptual framework of the study	151
Figure 6-1 Chapter outline.....	206
Figure 6-2 Comparison of frequency of YouTube users who ‘like the video’ observed for a sample of 230 UGA videos	208
Figure 6-3 Questionnaire section completion rate.....	214
Figure 6-4 Brand attitudes mean differences across five types of advertising between groups via self-construal type.....	227
Figure 6-5 Interaction plot for the means of the five measured brand attitudes grouped with self-construal type.....	228
Figure 6-6 Mean differences between ad attitudes grouped by self-construal type	232

Figure 6-7 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured ad attitudes grouped by self-construal type.....	233
Figure 6-8 Mean differences between measured <i>intentions to buy Coca-Cola</i> after the various UGA exposures	241
Figure 6-9 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured behavioural <i>intentions to buy Coca-Cola</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	242
Figure 6-10 Mean differences between measured <i>intentions to maintain intake of Coca-Cola</i> after different exposures	244
Figure 6-11 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured <i>behavioural intentions to maintain intake of Coca-Cola</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	245
Figure 6-12 Mean differences between measured <i>intentions to tell family/friends to maintain intake</i> after exposures	251
Figure 6-13 Mean differences between <i>intentions to tell family/friends to maintain intake</i> grouped via self-construal type.....	252
Figure 6-14 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured <i>behavioural intentions to tell family/friends to maintain intake</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	253
Figure 6-15 Mean differences between measured <i>intentions to tell family/friends to buy</i> after exposures	255
Figure 6-16 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured <i>behavioural intentions to tell family/friends to buy</i> grouped by self-construal type	256
Figure 6-17 Mean differences between measured <i>intentions to tell family/friends to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i> after exposures	258
Figure 6-18 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured <i>behavioural intentions to tell family/friends to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i> grouped with self-construal type.....	259

Figure 6-19 Mean differences between measured <i>tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i> after exposures	261
Figure 6-20 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of <i>tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i> grouped with self-construal type.....	262
Figure 6-21 Mean differences in <i>intend to tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced tea, etc.)</i> by exposure type	264
Figure 6-22 Differences in <i>intend to tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink</i> by exposure type	265
Figure 6-23 Differences in <i>intend to post a negative comment about the video</i> by exposure type	266
Figure 6-24 Differences between subjects mean for <i>intend to post a positive comment about the video</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	268
Figure 6-25 Mean differences between-subjects mean for <i>intend to share the video</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	270
Figure 6-26 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of <i>intend to share the video group</i> by self-construal type	271
Figure 6-27 Different between-subjects means for <i>intend to post a negative comment about Coca-Cola</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	273
Figure 6-28 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of <i>intend to post a negative comment about Coca-Cola</i> by self-construal type	274
Figure 6-29 Different between-subjects means for <i>intend to post a positive comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola</i> in a brand forum grouped by self-construal type	276
Figure 6-30 Different between-subjects means for <i>intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola</i> grouped by self-construal type.....	278

Figure 6-31 Different between-subjects means for <i>intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola</i> after exposure.....	279
Figure 6-32 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of <i>intend to produce a positive video</i> by self-construal type.....	280
Figure 6-33 Differences for <i>intend to produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet</i>	282
Figure 7-1 User-generated advertising communication effects model.....	301

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2-1 Sequential Models of Advertising communication.....	14
Table 2-2 Taxonomy of Models of How Advertising Works	16
Table 2-3 Comparison of Vakratsas and Ambler and Rossiter and Percy advertising communication models.....	24
Table 2-4 Type of advertising messages and their creative elements	26
Table 2-5 Main rational and emotional appeals used in advertising.....	29
Table 2-6 Other technical elements used in audio-visual advertising.....	33
Table 2-7 Summary of key differences between independent and interdependent self-construal	36
Table 2-8 Elements of brand interpretations from firm, consumer and evolutionary perspective	68
Table 3-1 Most Widely Accepted User Generated Content definitions.....	89
Table 3-2 Internet users and non-users by age group (years), 2013.....	107
Table 3-3 Internet users by sex.....	108
Table 3-4 Percentage of Internet activities by age group and sex, 2013	110
Table 3-5 Classification of social media	113
Table 3-6 Comparison of paid, owned and earned media	116
Table 5-1 Comparison of qualitative and quantitative communication research methods....	166
Table 5-2 Video Metrics.....	171
Table 5-3 Advertising techniques and characteristics	172
Table 5-4 UGA valence.....	175
Table 5-5 Summary of the brand reports used to select the pool of brands for the study	176
Table 5-6 Sample of brands.....	178
Table 6-1 Video popularity among male and female YouTube audiences	207

Table 6-2 Emotional advertising appeals used in UGA	209
Table 6-3 Rational advertising appeals used in UGA	210
Table 6-4 Advertising techniques used in UGA.....	211
Table 6-5 Overall valence of UGA analysed (n=230).....	212
Table 6-6 Summary of participants' demographic profile	216
Table 6-7 Summary of participants' SC characteristics	218
Table 6-8 Test of Normality for total brand and total ad attitudes pre and post exposure to brand-related advertising	219
Table 6-9 Test of normality for behavioural intentions after exposure to brand-related advertising	220
Table 6-10 Reliability test for the research constructs (Cronbach's alpha)	222
Table 6-11 Comparison of mean attitudes towards the brand for different exposures pre and post exposure to brand-related advertising for all participants.....	226
Table 6-12 Differences in attitude towards the brand between different groups pre and post exposure to brand-related advertising.....	229
Table 6-13 Comparison of mean attitudes towards the ad for different exposure to brand- related advertising for all participants	231
Table 6-14 Differences in ad attitudes between different groups after exposure to different types of brand-related advertising	234
Table 6-15 Regression analysis summary results of the relationship between A_{Ad} and A_b ...	236
Table 6-16 Summary of sphericity and uniformity variances assumptions	238
Table 6-17 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to buy Coca-Cola</i> for self-construal groups and different exposures	243
Table 6-18 . Descriptive statistics for measurement of <i>Intend to maintain intake of Coca-Cola</i> in subgroups and total score	246

Table 6-19 Summary of the descriptive statistics for measurement of <i>intend to buy</i> and <i>intend to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i>	248
Table 6-20 Summary of the descriptive statistics for measurement of <i>intend to drink</i> and <i>intend to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink</i>	249
Table 6-21 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to tell friends/family members to maintain intake</i> in subgroups and total score	254
Table 6-22 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to tell friends/family members to buy</i> in subgroups and total score.....	257
Table 6-23 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i> in subgroups and total score.....	260
Table 6-24 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i>	263
Table 6-25 Descriptive statistics (subgroups and total score) for <i>intend to post a negative comment about the video</i>	267
Table 6-26 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to post a positive comment about the video</i>	269
Table 6-27 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to share the video</i> on the Internet with family/friends	272
Table 6-28 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to post a negative comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola</i>	275
Table 6-29 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to post a positive comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola</i>	277
Table 6-30 Descriptive statistics for <i>intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet</i>	281
Table 6-31 Descriptive statistics (subgroups and total score) for <i>intend to produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet</i>	283

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Affect Transfer Hypothesis (ATH)
Attention-Interest-Desire-Action (AIDA)
Attitude-Behaviour Relationship (A-B)
Behavioural Intentions (BI)
Consumer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE)
Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)
Electronic Word-of-mouth (eWOM)
Equidistant Self-Construal (EQUISC)
Foote, Cone and Belding Grid (FCB)
Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM)
Independent Self-Construal (INDSC)
Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB)
Interdependent Self-Construal (INTSC)
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
Proportional Reduction Loss (PRL)
Purchase Intentions (PI)
Self-Construal (SC)
Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)
Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)
University of Birmingham (UoB)
User-Generated Advertising (UGA)
User-Generated Content (UGC)
Word-of-mouth (WOM)
World Wide Web (WWW)

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the research problem

Consumer-generated brand communications and their role in shaping attitudes and behaviours has been a subject of interest for academics and marketing practitioners for decades. Technological advances facilitate consumer creation of brand-related content and its dissemination via social networks and communities in the form of review sites (TripAdvisor), blogs (Blogger), microblogs (Twitter), or videos (YouTube). Consequently, brand communications are not limited to firm-consumer approaches, and brands cannot wholly control their advertising content.

As a piece of brand communication, consumer-generated messages have been considered to be more influential in consumer behaviour than firm-generated messages as people rely more on peer-to-peer recommendations than mass media messages. In addition, self-construal or people's self-definition and meaning in relation to others is also considered to have an effect in shaping people's behaviour and to have a moderating effect on brand attitudes and purchase intentions in response to traditional advertising. However, the effects of the individual's self-definition in relation to others, or self-construal, and user-generated advertising on consumer brand attitudes and behavioural intentions have not been explored in previous research.

1.2. Justification for the research

The role of brand communications, and more specifically advertising, is often to create and/or change consumers' brand attitudes and behaviour. Traditionally, advertising is generated by firms or agencies and is diffused through media; however, the Internet and social media have enabled people to perform brand communication functions by creating and broadcasting advertisements to wide audiences via the web, generally known as 'consumer-generated brand communications'.

These consumer-generated brand communications may be positive, strengthening the firms' official marketing objectives. Conversely, if negative, they may harm the brand image and sales, especially if consumers trust peer-to-peer recommendations and opinions more than firm-generated advertising. Although consumer-generated brand communications are not new, before social media these discussions were more limited (e.g. to conversations in the office or a social gathering). With the advent of the Internet and social media, these communications have a much wider potential reach and may occasionally even reach a global audience.

That is the case of one well-known user-generated advertising (hereafter UGA) called '*United breaks guitars*'¹, where one dissatisfied customer created a video that became rapidly popular generating high media attention and causing a public relation crisis for the brand. This led to the company's stock price dropping by 10 per cent with a loss of approximately US\$180 million for shareholders (The_Economist 2009).

¹ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5YGc4zOqozo>

Throughout the literature, the power of consumers who informally influence others' attitudes and behaviours is recognised; in the case of UGA (Cheong and Morrison 2008; Bronner and de Hoog 2010), this study demonstrates that brand-related videos have the potential to affect brand evaluations and purchases. Furthermore, UGA and YouTube have the potential to affect others' attitudes towards the brand and furthermore to turn any consumer into a corporate hazard in a short period of time, as was the case with Dave Carroll and *'United Breaks Guitars'*.

Consumer-generated brand communications have always existed, and most of the previous studies in peer-to-peer brand communications online and offline have investigated the impact of these communications on attitudinal changes, purchase decisions and consumer reliance on the information obtained from these communications (Dichter 1966; Day 1971; Kiecker and Cowles 2001; Bambauer-Sachse and Mangold 2011). Similarly, the phenomenon of user-generated content creation and consumption has also been a topic of research among academics and practitioners (Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008; Shao 2009; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2011; Mutinga, Moorman et al. 2011), as well as what this content represents for brands (Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2011; 2012).

Moreover, with regard to self-construal, the literature reveals that the individual's psycho-social characteristics concerning their personality and their relations to others have an effect on individuals' information processing and on the effectiveness of persuasive messages, which is that self-construal influences how individuals react to advertising messages (Choi and Miracle 2004; Polyorat and Alden 2005; Lin, Moore et al. 2011). However, despite its importance, there are surprisingly few studies evaluating the effects of self-construal and peer-to-peer brand conversations (Lee, Kim et al. 2012) on consumer behaviour or the impact of self-construal on user-generated video advertising effectiveness. This study fills this

research gap through an evaluation of the effects of user-generated advertising and self-construal on attitudes towards the brand and behavioural intentions. Furthermore, it provides marketing practitioners with an explanation of user-generated advertising and recommendations on how to manage this phenomenon.

1.3. Research aim and objectives

Research aim:

The aim of this research is to assess the effects of video-based, brand-related user-generated advertising (UGA) and consumers' self-construal on the evaluation of the advertised brand, brand communications and behavioural intentions.

Research objectives:

To achieve this aim, the following objectives are formulated:

1. Determine the effects of exposure to firm-generated advertising and different types of user-generated advertising on consumers' attitudes towards the brand, the ad and behavioural intentions.
2. Determine the effects of different types of consumer self-construal on the impact of UGA on attitudes towards the brand, attitudes towards the ad and behavioural intentions.
3. Evaluate if attitudes towards user-generated advertising have an effect on attitudes towards the brand.

1.4. Methodology and data analysis

This study was conducted in three stages: first a content analysis was conducted on a sample of 230 consumer-generated, brand-related videos taken from the population of YouTube in order to gain an understanding of this type of brand communication and to obtain knowledge about the characteristics of the video population; second, from this sample, 25 videos were selected and validated through a panel of expert judges to confirm their valence as positive, negative or neutral with regard to the brand advertised. From this sample, the stimuli that were used for the final stage were selected. Finally, an Internet-based self-completion questionnaire was sent to a University of Birmingham student sample. From this sample, 208 questionnaires were deemed to be usable.

To test the research hypotheses, a mixed within-between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to find out if there is a significant difference in scores on attitudes towards the brand. The similar statistic test was conducted to evaluate differences in attitudes towards the ad and on behavioural intention between different groups of self-construal after exposure to different types of user-generated advertising (negative, positive and neutral) and compared to firm-generated advertising.

1.5. Summary of Findings

The analysis of the data collected served to address the study's aims and objectives outlined in section 1.3; overall, these findings reveal that exposure to user-generated advertising (UGA) has an effect on attitudes towards the brand (A_b) and attitudes towards the ad (A_{ad}) and behavioural intentions (BI), considerably making them more negative. With regard to the valence of the videos, exposure to negative UGA caused the lowest scores in

participants' A_b , A_{ad} and BI compared to neutral and positive UGA. Conversely, exposure to firm-generated advertising (FGA) had no effect on participants' existing attitudes towards the brand (A_b) and produced positive attitudes towards the ad (A_{ad}); moreover, this type of exposure in general cued positive behavioural intentions (BI).

Additionally, the results also show that the type of self-construal also affected participants A_{ad} , A_b and BI; where individuals with a dominant interdependent self-construal (INTSC) were more likely to be affected by UGA in its three types, whereas individuals with independent self-construal (INDSC) were less likely to be affected. Although individuals with equidistant self-construal (EQUISC) were also affected after the exposure, their reactions were between those of INDSC and INTSC participants.

1.6. Main research contributions

This research makes three main contributions to the consumer behaviour and social media literature. First, it contributes to existing knowledge on consumer behaviour and decision making by applying the existing attribution theory to explain the effects of phenomenon of UGA where it has not previously been applied. Second, this study also contributes to clarifying the existing debate over the effectiveness of YouTube in bringing about attitudinal changes and more specifically of UGA by providing empirical evidence that exposure to UGA in its different types (i.e. negative, positive and neutral) influences an audience's brand evaluations and further behavioural intentions. Finally, this study demonstrates the importance of the co-existence of both types of self-construal and the inclusion of what is described as the '*equidistant self-construal*' group as essential, especially as previous empirical studies have deliberately excluded this important group from their samples.

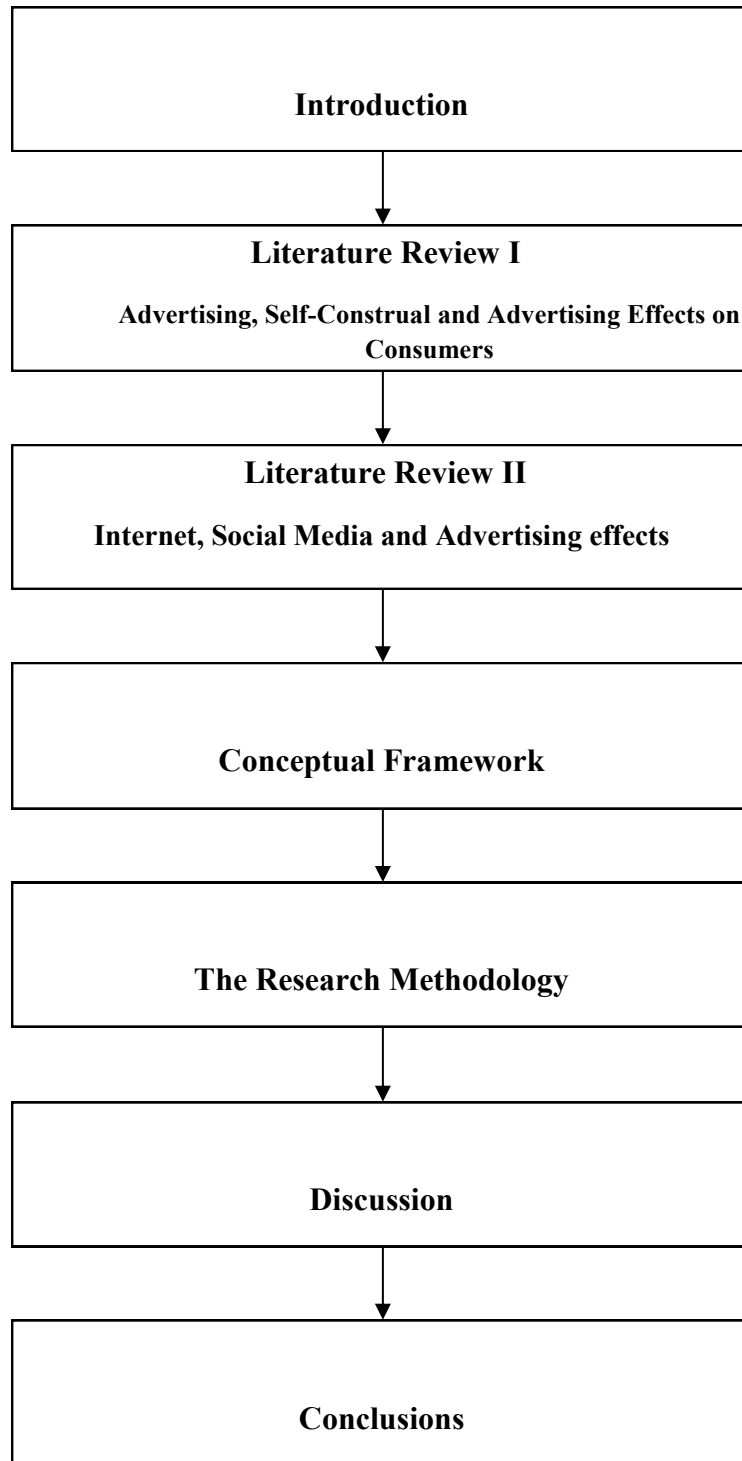
1.7. Thesis outline

This thesis is organised into eight chapters; the current chapter introduces the reader to the research problem, the thesis objectives and how these objectives are achieved. The second chapter reviews the literature of the key concepts for this study regarding brands, advertising communication theories and how these communications affect attitudes towards the brand. Chapter three then explores the literature regarding the Internet, social media and user-generated content. Chapter four discusses the conceptual framework and the theoretical underpinning that guides the thesis; this chapter connects the thesis to existing knowledge in the fields of psychology and marketing by introducing the constructs of self-construal and user-generated content to the understanding of consumer behaviour and social media. Chapter five discusses the methodology, explaining first how the data were collected, including the design of the research instrument, sampling and questionnaire administration as well as the selection of the scales used to measure the research constructs outlined in the conceptual framework. Second, this chapter outlines the methods for data analysis. In chapter six, the study's findings are reported based on the data gathered and the statistical methods applied. This chapter states the analysed findings arranged in a logical sequence so the reader can examine the results.

Chapter seven discusses the research results, interpreting and assessing the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables and evaluating if the results support the research hypotheses. This chapter compares this study's results with previous studies in the disciplines of marketing and psychology. It also presents the study's theoretical contributions as well as the implications for marketing and brand managers. Similarly, the limitations of this research and recommendations for further studies are also presented in this chapter. The

eighth and final chapter provides a summary of main conclusions, key findings and contributions and key managerial implications. Figure 1-1 illustrates the outline of this thesis.

Figure 1-1 Thesis outline



2. LITERATURE REVIEW (I)

ADVERTISING, SELF CONSTRUAL AND ADVERTISING EFFECTS ON CONSUMERS

2.1. Introduction

People are exposed to a myriad of advertising messages from childhood; it is believed that on a daily basis, individuals consciously or unconsciously read, watch, look and/or listen to an average of ninety advertising messages per day (Foxall, Goldsmith et al. 1998). These messages have proven to be powerful brand strategies with observable effects on audiences. As an omnipresent component of human life, advertising and brand communication practices entice attention and debate among academics, practitioners and general audiences because of their complexity and richness. This chapter analyses the extant literature on advertising's nature and objectives and sets a foundation for the theoretical understanding of contemporary advertising practices and their effects on audiences.

The chapter starts with a definition of advertising and its foundations, explaining the key elements used to achieve its objectives before evaluating the literature related to communication theory and how audiences process messages. This includes the communication effects on attitudes and behaviour as well as the importance of individuals' psycho-social characteristics for advertising effectiveness. Finally, an analysis of the literature on communication effects on brand building is provided by explaining the concept of brands and its importance for stakeholders in order to lay the foundations for the understanding of user-generated advertising and its effect in consumer attitudes.

2.2. The foundations of advertising

Advertising is an important marketing communication tool that aims to inform and influence audiences; this section establishes the foundations of advertising communications in order to understand how they work and their effects. Advertising is distinguished by '*its explicitly promotional, mediated and paid-for characteristic*' (Hackley 2005, p. 7); in essence, firms pay for media spaces for brand communications. From a traditional advertising point of view, this definition contains four key elements: first, it is a tool used by firms; second, its main objective is to promote a firm's offering (i.e. a product, service or brand); third, it is diffused via mass media; and finally, it is financed by the firm.

However, with advances in technology and consumer culture in which individuals seek personal control of brands, a more comprehensive definition of advertising is:

'The placement of announcements and persuasive messages in time or space purchased in any of the mass media by business firms, organisations, government agencies and individuals who seek to inform and/or persuade members of a particular target market or audience about their product, services, organisations or ideas'
(American Marketing Association 1995, p.26)

This definition may be more suitable to understand this concept as it clearly includes not only business firms but also government entities and individuals as the origin of the message. Furthermore, it highlights the informative and persuasive nature of the message that is not only limited to advocacy of a product, service or brand but also is to inform and persuade audiences. This implies that these communications may not necessarily endorse the communication's subject.

One limitation of the definitions of the American Marketing Association (1995) and Hackley (2005) is that both allude to the 'paid mass media' characteristic of advertising. In the context of this thesis, the advances in technology, the Internet and social media have facilitated a new paradigm for brand communications, evolving from payment-generated advertising to consumer-generated communications.

For this reason, in this thesis advertising will be understood using the definition of the American Marketing Association. However, it is important to make clear that the connotation of advertising as '*placed in time or space purchased by firms in any of the mass media*' limits the definition of the concept for the purposes of this study. Currently, consumers can perform these marketing functions as well, albeit with different aims from those of the firm.

Ultimately, advertising communications aim to increase the firm's profits; to achieve this objective, successful advertising must produce a sequence of effects on audiences. In this regard, Rossiter and Percy (1985) identify three stages of advertising communication prior to obtaining a firm's profit. First, audiences must be exposed to the advertising stimulus. Second, audiences must process the stimulus in order to achieve the next stage in which the stimulus produces a persuasive effect related to brand or product awareness, generation or change of attitudes and brand positioning in consumer's minds. Finally, these effects lead audiences to take action concerning the advertised product or brand. This suggests that advertising communications produce a sequence of effects in audiences prior to achieving the firm's ultimate goal of obtaining revenue.

2.3. The objectives of advertising communications

Advertising communications intend to inform and transform audiences. Since its origins, advertising aimed to identify product manufacturers, and whilst advertising is still generally informational, its role has evolved to persuade audiences to change attitudes, beliefs and behaviours. Advertising's objectives are achieved by generating awareness about a brand, product or service; by creating or changing consumer's attitudes; and by stimulating purchase intentions (Rossiter and Percy 1985).

With this in mind, advertising is usually created to broadcast positive messages to persuade audiences to take positive actions towards a brand, product or service. From a firm's perspective, in the short term, advertising aims to increase sales; in the long term, advertising seeks to build stronger brands by positioning the product and services in the mind of consumers (Breuer and Brettel 2012). Therefore, firms may determine the success of advertising communications by evaluating their impact on the change in variables such as brand perceptions, attitudes and behaviour (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; Keller 1993; Clancy and Rabino 2007).

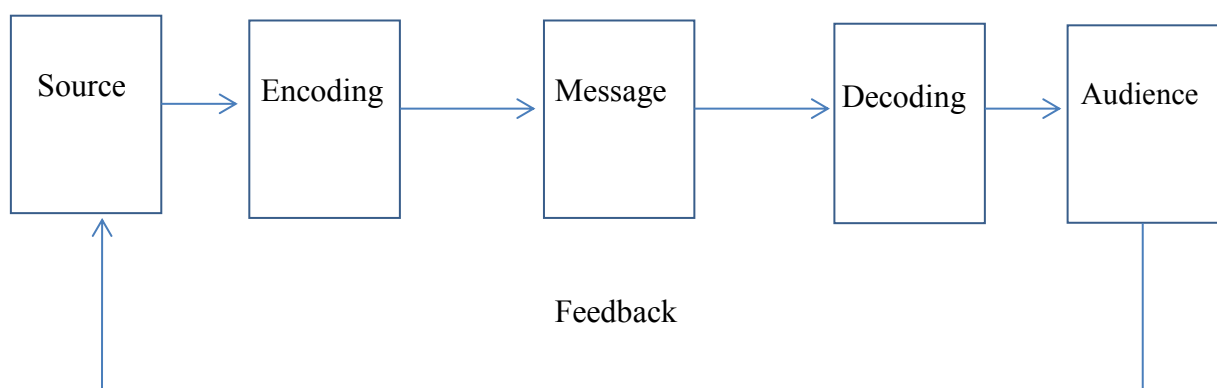
Ogilvy (1983, p 104) considers effective advertising as an 'interesting and fascinating personal conversation' with the audience. In this regard, in the contemporary market place, effective advertising is based more on emotions than on factual information (Tellis and Fornell 1988). Advertising communications that convey concrete affective appeals are proven to develop strong attitudes in audiences (Bülbul and Menon 2010); evidence from social psychology research provides grounds to support attitude change through the advertising communication process (Greene and Stock 1966; Muehling and Laczniak 1992; Percy and

Rossiter 1992). In order to understand the effectiveness of advertising, the next sections evaluate advertising as a form of communication.

2.4. The advertising communication process

As a form of communication, advertising follows a traditional, one-directional and linear model in which the information is transmitted from sender to receiver (Schramm 1955; Shannon and Weaver 1962). Considered the most influential model of communication, this process begins when a sender or source selects an appropriate combination of understandable symbols, words, images and/or sounds to transmit the message to the receiver (figure 2-1), which is known as encoding. Once exposed to the message, the receiver decodes or interprets the information received according to a series of perceptions, experiences, attitudes and values that will affect the meaning inferred to the message. The main purpose of the communication process is to affect audiences after being exposed to the message in the form of feedback or a response that is sent back to the sender.

Figure 2-1 The traditional one-directional communication model

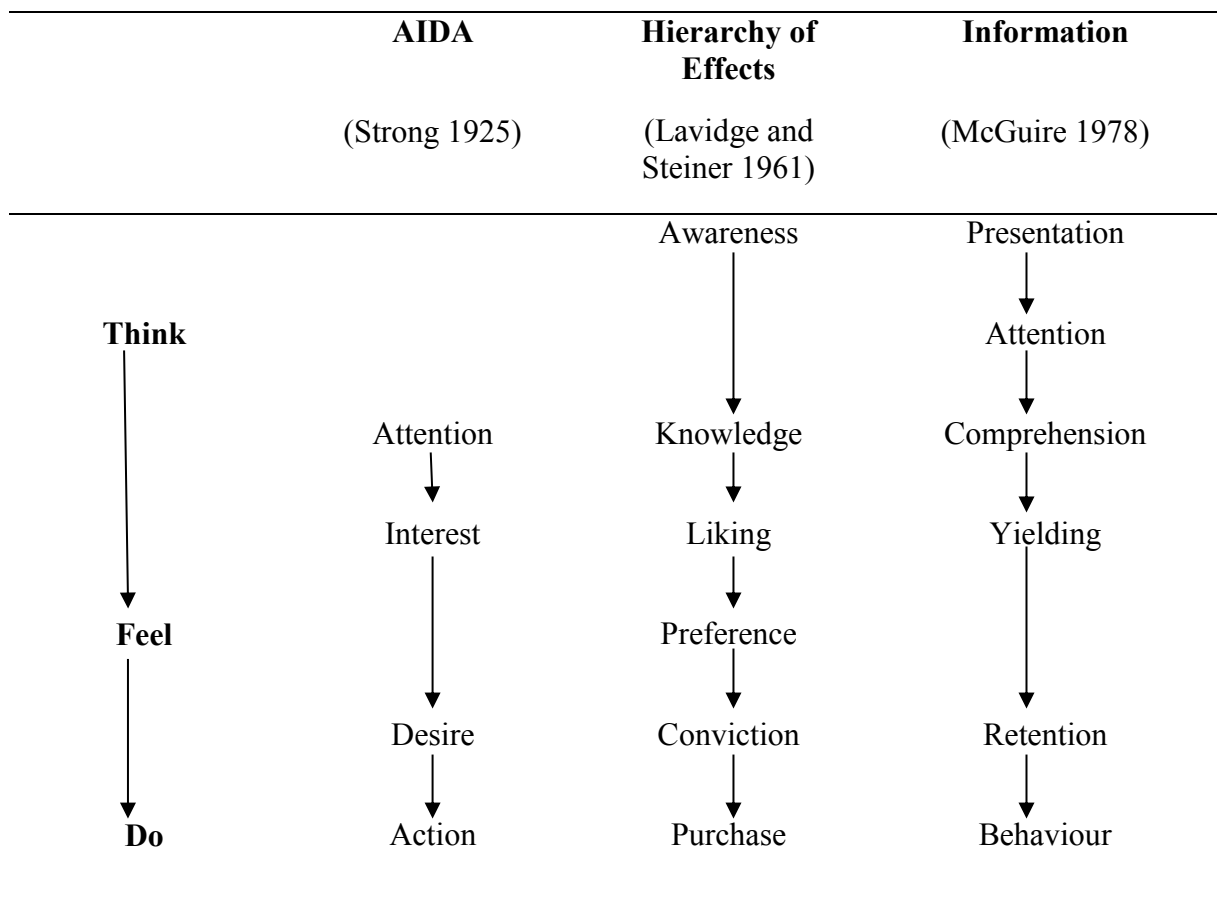


Source: Adapted from Schramm (1955) and Shannon and Weaver (1962)

2.5. An understanding how advertising communications might work

Advertising performance and its effects on audiences have been topics of extensive investigation by academics and professionals aiming to understand the effects of advertising on receivers' responses. Traditional advertising is based on the above-mentioned linear model of communication; different sequential models have been proposed to understand how people process and respond to advertising communications. The most common explanation of advertising effects is based on sequential models of advertising: Attention-Interest-Desire-Action (AIDA), Hierarchy-of-Effects and Information-Sequence (Lavidge and Steiner 1961; McGuire 1978), as illustrated in table 2.1.

Table 2-1 Sequential Models of Advertising communication



Source: The author

These models entail individuals acting in a sequential manner; ‘think-feel-do’ when exposed to advertising. This means that audiences first react in a logical, cognitive-rational manner, moving to an affective stage before reaching a final behavioural stage resembling the attitude models previously discussed.

For instance, the AIDA model considered the basic framework of persuasive communication (Strong 1925), suggests that receivers follow successive stages of attention to the stimulus, interest and desire, which produces an action that implies that consumers react to advertising in a mechanical manner. The Hierarchy-of-effects model (Lavidge and Steiner 1961) proposes an extension of AIDA, assuming that even when receivers pass through a series of steps, advertising does not produce an immediate behavioural response. Instead, a series of effects in the mind of consumers must occur and be fulfilled at each stage before progressing to the following stage.

The model proposed by McGuire (1978) expands the hierarchy-of-effects model, suggesting that the appropriate view of the receiver of persuasive advertising is as an information processor with the ability to understand and retain information that is valid and relevant before producing an effect on behaviour. The contribution of this model is that it recognises the individual as an intelligent being who is able to process, understand and store information. Furthermore, it demonstrates that advertising also provides information for use by a prospective buyer when a purchase decision is not to be made immediately but at some time in the future.

However, perhaps the most serious disadvantage of the three sequential models is that they all assume that the information received through advertising is processed in a logical, orderly manner. They fail to take into account that the order of the effects may not necessarily

happen in a fixed sequence; this position has been challenged by academics who argue that message receivers may have to first interact with the brand in order to develop an attitude about it (Smith and Swinyard 1982; Scholten 1996). Therefore, the stages of the sequence of effects may be altered.

This issue of sequential advertising communication paradigms is addressed by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999), who provide a taxonomy of different models of how advertising operates based on various theoretical principles and empirical evidence. Synthesizing advertising paradigms in seven main models as illustrated in table 2.2, the taxonomy ranges from models that assume there are no intermediate effects, such as the market response model, moving through different classifications of the sequence of effects, and ending on models assuming that there is no particular hierarchy of effects.

Table 2-2 Taxonomy of Models of How Advertising Works

Model	Sequence of Effects
Market response	No intermediate advertising effect considered
Cognitive information	‘Think’
Pure affect	‘Feel’
Persuasive hierarchy	‘Think’-‘Feel’-‘Do’
Low-involvement hierarchy	‘Think’-‘Do’-‘Feel’
Integrative	Hierarchy not fixed, depends on product involvement
Hierarchy free	No particular hierarchy of effects proposed

Source: Vakratsas and Ambler (1999)

The focal point of this taxonomy is the intermediate effects of the communication models, assuming that upon exposure, consciously or subconsciously, advertising has an effect on the mind of the audience by evoking brand awareness, memory or attitudes before affecting consumer behaviour. These intermediate effects can be classified into two major groups: cognitive, related to ‘rational’ responses, and affective, related to ‘emotional’ responses. Still, the main issue of how advertising works prevails on the variability of the assumptions of the effects of advertising and their sequence.

The market response model, based on studies regarding the commercial effects of advertising (Arora 1979; Leone and Schultz 1980; Assmus, Farley et al. 1984; Givon and Horsky 1990; Lodish, Abraham et al. 1995), is focused on ‘econometric models’ of market responses to advertising. This model analyses the correlation between elements of the marketing mix such as advertising, price and promotion, with measures of purchasing behaviour such as sales, market share and brand choice. This implies that it is a firm-oriented explanation model and therefore beyond the scope of this study, which is analysing consumers’ reactions to advertising. Therefore, this model will not be used in this thesis.

Conversely, the cognitive information model is based on the assumptions that: advertising only provides consumers with information and/or the utilities necessary to reduce search costs, and therefore consumer preferences and decisions are rational; and consumer preferences regarding product attributes are not changed by advertising. One particular point of this model is that it divides products into experience goods, where quality is assessed by purchase and use, and search goods, where product quality and validity of the advertising claims is judged by inspection without trial and the evaluation of objective information (Davis, Kay et al. 1991). This model expects advertising to be more effective for experience goods because it provides information that inspection does not (Nelson 1974; Verma 1980).

However, one of the limitations of this model is that classification of goods into experience or search may present some issues, as many products, cars, for instance, have both attributes: leather seats (search) and driving feel (experience). Another limitation of this model is that it excludes completely the emotional element of the communication process.

In contrast, the pure affect model assumes that consumer responses to advertising are purely affective and result from the familiarity and feelings the advertisement may evoke, overlooking partially or totally the cognitive criterion. This model is based on studies that suggest that advertising does not need to be purely informative to be effective and that visual elements in both print and television advertising enhance advertising effectiveness (Resnik and Stern 1977; Rossiter and Percy 1978; Rossiter and Percy 1980; Stern, Krugman et al. 1981; Zajonc and Markus 1982; Zajonc 1984). Studies conducted by Holbrook and Batra (1987), Edell and Burke (1987) and Micu and Plummer (2010) suggest that emotional reactions to advertisements are either positive or negative and may lead to the formation of attitudes towards the advertisement and of opinions towards the brand, especially when consumers link previous emotional experiences with the brand.

An important contribution of this model is that it acknowledges the affective responses as an important part of advertising effects; these responses lead to the formation of brand attitudes and attitudes (or the likability) towards the ad (Mitchell and Olson 1981). However, the key problem with this explanation is that it ignores almost completely the cognitive element of advertising; and, similarly to purely cognitive models as previously explained, purely affective models may not be entirely adequate to understand the nature of advertising. Furthermore, the absence of the cognitive element in communications may be problematic to demonstrate, as cognitive processes in the order of cognitive bias arise when enquiring about feelings (Sawyer 1981). Likewise, a serious weakness of pure affective (or pure cognitive)

models is that they are relatively implausible, as advertising operates on both levels with degrees of variance (Holbrook and Batra 1987).

The persuasive hierarchy model expands the previous paradigms by suggesting that advertising works on both cognitive and affective perspectives, and as a result consumers follow a process of cognition, feeling and behaviour when processing advertisements. Therefore, this paradigm is in line with the hierarchy-of-effects theory discussed earlier. Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) ELM earlier provided one of the most comprehensive approaches of this model by establishing a 'think, feel, do' sequence of events, where the elaboration avenue is essentially cognitive with additional avenues of responses to advertising. Perhaps the most important contribution of this model is the emphasis on the existence of pre-conditions that are determinants for the effectiveness of the advertisement: involvement with and attitudes towards the ad. Regarding involvement, Petty, Cacioppo et al. (1983) suggest that a consumer who is highly involved will have a more elaborate and sophisticated thought process in assessing the quality of the message's information and ultimately in forming an opinion, whereas a consumer with low involvement levels will likely rely on other cues, for example, the celebrity status of an endorser, to process the information and form an opinion. However, this leads to possibly the main limitation of this model, which is that in essence, the persuasive hierarchy follows a multipath approach based on differences in consumers' reactions to advertising on account of their level of involvement. Therefore, a single hierarchy-of-effects model may not be sufficient to understand how advertising works.

The low involvement hierarchy model is an alternative to the previously explained model; based on the assumption that product experience prevails in consumer's beliefs, attitudes and behaviour whereas advertising reinforces consumer's attitudes and behaviours, it is considered 'low-involvement' for its correlation to routinized choice behaviour where

consumers are not involved in any decision making at all. Previous studies (Bettman and Park 1980; Johnson and Russo 1984; Rice and Bennett 1998; Brakus, Schmitt et al. 2009) have demonstrated that product usage, in conjunction with expertise and involvement, affects product class knowledge, the extent of the informational search and ultimately advertising effectiveness (Zaichkowsky 1985). For example, Romaniuk and Wight (2009) suggest that advertising information is more easily processed by a consumer who has bought and/or used a brand and therefore has established a memory bank about that brand.

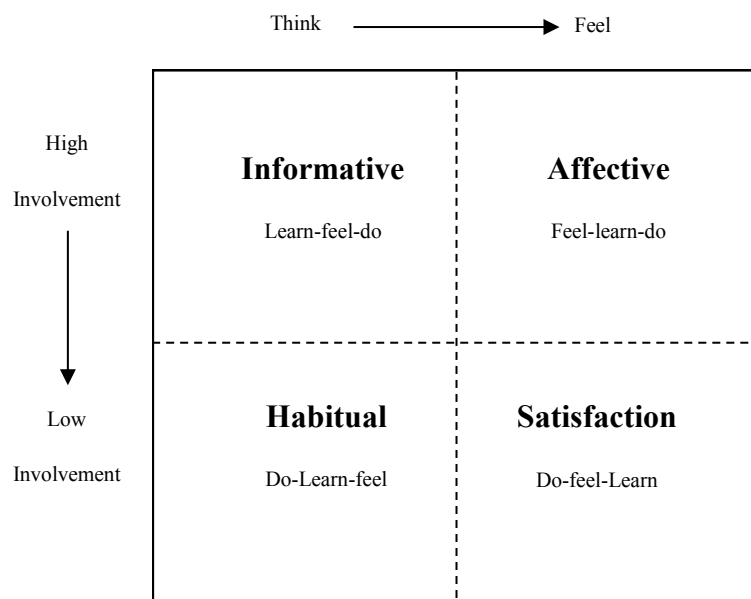
Although the dimension of the concepts of involvement, expertise and usage may be interrelated, they differ in the nature of the consumer-product relationship. Involvement can be characterised by an affective attachment and connection between the consumer and the brand (Brakus, Schmitt et al. 2009). In this line of reasoning, Zaichkowsky (1985, p.342) defines involvement as a 'person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests', where the person may be involved with advertisements, products and purchase decisions. In relation to advertising, the construct refers to a mediating variable in determining if the ad is relevant to the receiver, whereas in relation to the product, the mediating variable is gauged by the needs and values of the person (Zaichkowsky 1986).

Conversely, Brakus, Schmitt et al. (2009) conceptualise a different explanation of brand experience by stating that subjective internal responses, such as sensations and feeling, result from the stimuli provided by the tangible aspects of the brand, such as the logo, the design, the packaging, etc. This interaction can be direct when there is physical contact with the product or indirect when the product is presented virtually or through advertisement (Hoch and Ha 1986). Under these circumstances, product usage is the actual physical contact with the product or service through purchase or use; actual brand usage and involvement are part of the brand experience. In this line of reasoning Zaichkowsky (1985), suggests that there is a

relationship between usage and involvement; however, usage does not necessarily develop into product involvement if the product does not satisfy consumer expectations or results in other negative experiences.

The integrative model considers different hierarchies from the previously discussed models depending on the context in which the advertising takes place. Based on the Foote, Cone and Belding (FCB) grid developed by Vaughn (1980; 1986) and as illustrated in figure 2-2, the model combines high-low involvement with thinking-feeling information processing on a matrix to classify product categories, allowing academics and practitioners to understand the operationalisation of advertising efforts.

Figure 2-2 The FCB grid of how advertising works



Source: Vaughn (1980; 1986)

However, Vaughn's (1980; 1986) grid of this model relies heavily on involvement as a predominant motivator in the classification of product categories, which presents difficulties in practice as it is questionable whether the consumer will always express involvement characteristics rather than brand familiarity or knowledge. Additionally, these models rely too heavily on mass communication media in which the information is firm-generated.

A more integrated model of online advertising perception and processing is suggested by Rodgers and Thorson (2000), including the key element of the functional perspective that is of relevance in identifying people's motives to use the Internet. Additionally, the authors suggest that sender and receiver equally control important aspects of the communication. This includes, for instance, aspects that are user controlled regarding Internet usage and motives, information exposure decision, time and repetition of the ad, whereas aspects such as structure, ad type and formats are advertiser controlled. Central to this notion is Rappaport's (2007) demand model that argues that the consumer is the content aggregator, filterer, scheduler, exposer and disposer of the brand-related information on the Internet.

Finally, the hierarchy-free model suggests that although hierarchies exist to convey information through different stages, the human brain operates in a synchronic way. Therefore, cognitive and affective elements of information processing occur simultaneously and interactively. As a result, from this point of view, the previous hierarchy-of-effects models are inaccurate; however, a major drawback of this approach is the lack of evidence in the literature of how they may work.

As has been noted, advertising effects can work in different ways that are explained in different models; these models build progressively from approaches that assume that there are no intermediate effects in the mind of consumers and are based only in economic benefits for

the firm; to models that assume that only one type of intermediate effect is expected. either a cognitive or affective nature, which then develops in a hierarchy that assumes more than one type of effect is expected, to finally models that assume there is no hierarchy of effects at all.

Drawing from the above taxonomy, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) propose a parsimonious framework of how advertising may work. This framework includes key communication elements as the advertising input constituted mainly by the message content, which is filtered by the receiver's ability to process the message in order to produce a cognitive and affective effect in the receiver. Such an effect is directly related to attitudinal reactions in the mind of the consumer, which will develop in an overt behaviour in the manner of brand choice, consumption and loyalty, among others. Vakratsas and Ambler's (1999) model supports Rossiter and Percy's (1985) advertising communication model, which is based on similar elements following a sequence of exposure to the message, receiver's processing of information and the communication effects on the audience's mind's, which aims to trigger an action. Both frameworks are illustrated in table 2.3.

Table 2-3 Comparison of Vakratsas and Ambler and Rossiter and Percy advertising communication models

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999)	Rossiter and Percy (1985)
Advertising input (message content)	Exposure to message
↓	↓
Filter (motivation, ability)	Receiver's processing
↓	↓
Effects in audience (cognitive, affective)	Communication effects (Brand attitudes, purchase intention)
↓	↓
Consumer behaviour (brand choice, consumption, loyalty)	Audience's action (choice, purchase, loyalty)

Source: Rossiter and Percy (1985); Vakratsas and Ambler (1999)

Central to the entire discussion of the effectiveness of advertising as a marketing tool is the concept of the advertising message itself. In this regard, an effective advertising message follows a specific strategy or the intentions of the firm; how the message is executed is also important. This includes all the elements and structure used to inform and persuade audiences (Laskey, Fox et al. 1995).

2.6. The advertising message

Following the communication model previously explained in figure 2-1, senders transmit the advertising message or *'the visual and/or auditory information prepared by an advertiser to inform and/or persuade an audience'* (American Marketing Association 1995, p. 8) via diverse channels that constitute the communication media. Since its origins, advertising messages have evolved as a result of developments in communication channels and technology. For instance, conventional print advertisements found in newspapers, flyers and magazines developed into advertisements that included sounds, music and human voices with the advent of the radio in the early 1920s (Berkman 1987). As communication technology advanced, radio advertisements outgrew into television advertising based on the similar wireless technology with the addition of visual images. With the advent of the Internet in 1994, print, radio and television advertising began to be transmitted in this new medium. However, the advent of Internet advertising did not replace traditional advertising channels, nor did print, radio and television replace each other but rather are complements in facilitating advertising communications (McDonald and Scott 2007).

The literature in media communications suggests that media selection is based on the advertising communication objectives, which in turn define the type of message transmitted. Studies by Rossiter and Percy (1980) and Rossiter (1982) conclude that for transformational brand attitude objectives, a combination of visual and verbal content is more effective in inducing audiences' evaluative responses to the messages. In this regard, television advertisements are considered superior for their richness and versatility.

This study focuses on audio-visual advertising specifically generated and broadcasted by consumers on the Internet. To gain an understanding of the characteristics of these types of

messages, it is appropriate to analyse the structure and impact of television advertising as it is believed that a close relationship between both media exists. Television ads are considered high in communication richness, allowing firms and brands to deliver a message in diverse formats creating audio-visual messages that consumers can relate to. In other words, this represents archetypes of daily life oriented to generate consumers' emotional identification (Caldwell, Henry et al. 2010).

2.6.1. Types of advertising messages

According to their objectives, advertising messages are classified in two main types: *informational*, providing audiences with product/brand facts; and *transformational*, associating consumer's product/ brand use experiences with a set of psychological characteristics (Laskey, Day et al. 1989). Each type has followed specific creative strategies that are summarised in table 2.4.

Table 2-4 Type of advertising messages and their creative elements

Informational Advertising	Transformational Advertising
Demonstration	Entertainment
News (ideas, information)	Slice-of-Life
Testimonials	Problem solution

Source: Laskey, Day et al. 1989

The main informational advertising strategies are *demonstration*, depicting how the product performs and providing the benefits obtained by its use; *news*, providing information considered beyond the normal, in essence, the latest facts about the product or brand; and

testimonials, portraying average consumers or celebrities testifying about the benefits of using the product or the brand (Ogilvy and Raphaelson 1982; Laskey, Day et al. 1989).

Transformational advertising mainly uses the strategies of *entertainment*, providing amusement to audiences associated with the use of the product or brand; *slice-of-life*, depicting the use of the product in a non-acted scene; and *problem solution*, also related to demonstration where the use of the product or brand will satisfy an existing consumer need (Ogilvy and Raphaelson 1982; Laskey, Day et al. 1989).

These types of messages are not mutually exclusive to one specific type of advertising; in fact, most advertising messages combine them in order to persuade consumers. To further understand the type of advertising message, the next section analyses what the message conveys about a brand, product or subject.

2.6.2. The message content

The message content defines the type of advertisement and relates to the essence of what is being said in the advertising message about a product, brand or subject (Singh and Cole 1993). It is an important element used in advertising creativity to attract the audience's attention and influence their responses.

The message content categorises advertising messages in cognitive or *rational* and affective or *emotional* depending on the type of appeals or the approach used in creating the message (Ruiz and Sicilia 2004). *Rational* appeals utilise informational and logical arguments along with visual images, music and language to reinforce cognitive arguments. Common rational appeals include *safety*, using claims of security from external threats, absence of hazards, potential injury or other risks; *product feature*, proposing knowledge, expertise and

experience; *price*, addressing bargains, expensiveness, good value and pricelessness; *quality*, using claims of efficiency, being long lasting, strong, powerful, handy, easy and accessible; *customer care*, proposing helpfulness, responsibility and reputability; and *information availability* (Pollay 1983; Mortimer and Grierson 2010).

Conversely, *emotional* appeals utilise mainly components that evoke, emphasise and transfer feelings. Emotional appeals include *love*, addressing expressions of affection, gratitude, nurturance and kinship; *happiness*, using distinctive claims of having fun, being happy, celebration, enjoyment, festivities and parties; *excitement*, proposing adventure-seeking, thrill or excitement; *arousal*, using claims having intense sensuality, feeling sexual, erotic behaviour and lust; *ambition*, proposing non-conformism, aspiration and desire to improve economically; *comfort* claims, contentment, being at ease, convenience and well-being; recognition, using distinctive claims of being liked and accepted by peers, colleagues and the community at large; *status*, proposing social status, prestige, pride of ownership, wealth and seeking compliments; and *respect*, proposing traditionalism and time-honoured venerability (Pollay 1983; Mortimer and Grierson 2010). The main rational and emotional appeals are summarised in table 2.5. The use of appeals in advertising, besides defining if the video is based on emotional or rational content, is proven to drive recipients' behavioural intentions towards the advertised brand (Bülbul and Menon 2010; Heath 2011).

Table 2-5 Main rational and emotional appeals used in advertising

Rational appeals	Emotional appeals
Safety	Love
Feature/Specification	Happiness
Price	Excitement
Quality	Arousal
Customer Care	Ambition
Information availability	Comfort
	Recognition
	Status
	Respect
	Fear

Source: Edell and Burke (1987); Mortimer and Grieson (2010); Paek, Kim et al. (2010)

The advertising appeals summarised in table 2.6 are generally based on positive or negative valence (Edell and Burke 1987); previous research concluded that the manner in which a message is ‘framed’ (i.e. if the message is created using positive or negative valence) also affects its effectiveness. For instance, a study by Smith and Petty (1996) concluded that positively elaborated messages are more effective when communicating brand messages as audiences are more inclined to associate with constructive brand information; whereas messages oriented to social marketing (i.e. use of preservatives or seat belts) are more effective when framed negatively. These results are also supported by Chang (2008), who concluded that for consumption products, positively framed persuasive messages are more effective than negative ones, and the creative elements of the message used to create the message are important in achieving these framing effects.

Having established the type of advertising messages and the importance of the appeals used to persuade audiences, the next section discusses television advertising messages and its characteristics. The audio-visual combination of elements in the advertising stimuli is believed to increase the message's effects on audiences and is comparable to the understanding of user-generating advertising for its audio-visual components (Grass and Wallace 1974; Liu and Stout 1987).

2.6.3. Television advertising messages

As previously mentioned, technological media advances support the proliferation of different types of advertising messages. Television is the most widely watched mass communication media: a Nielsen's (2010) survey of more than 27,000 consumers in over 55 countries reports that 90 per cent of global consumers use their home television at least once per month, spending an average of 3 hours 28 minutes in front of a screen. Furthermore, television advertising is built on audio-visual elements and is considered one the most effective traditional media and the most influential channel in consumer attitudes and purchase decisions (MarketingCharts 2014; 2013).

The effectiveness of audio-visual advertising is associated with the effects of moving images on consumer responses and attitude changes towards a brand, as visual imagery increases cognitive responses to advertising communication. In essence, images may have stronger communication effects than plain words on consumer advertising processing and acceptance (Wright 1973; Rossiter and Percy 1978; 1980; Friestad and Wright 1994).

However, the effects of visual imagery in advertising have been disputed; for instance, Clancy and Rabino's (2007) study on the effects of messages' visual attributes on brand perception conclude that visual stimuli have little effects on the consumer's responses to

product benefits and attributes. Nevertheless, an early study on audio-visual advertising (Grass and Wallace 1974) concluded that television advertising is more effective in attracting consumers' attention and further brand associations as the combination of audio and visual elements increase internal neural activation in consumer memory. Similarly, Rossiter and Percy (1978; 1980; 1983) extensively studied the effects of visual images on consumer brand beliefs, attitudes and responses, where high visual conditions induce positive brand perceptions.

One limitation of television advertising is that advances in technology allow consumers to use alternative methods to watch television programmes and/or digital services connected to their TV, as well allowing audiences to avoid commercials by changing channels or leaving the room during commercial breaks or '*zapping behaviour*', which reduces advertising's effectiveness on consumers and leads to media spending waste for brands (Kaplan 1985; Lee and Ching Bui Tse 2001). For this reason, publishers are perceiving an increase in synergies between television and digital advertising to maximise effectiveness (eMarketer 2014). Furthermore, because of this, firms are taking advantage of advances in technology broadcasting television ads in electronic media, thereby maximising their investment and expanding their reach to harness the effectiveness of the characteristics of audio-visual messages.

2.6.4. Creative elements of audio-visual advertising messages

Other aspects of audio-visual advertising related to length and position of audio, music and/or sound effects and how the brand is portrayed visually, verbally or both are also considered important elements of advertising creativity that influence the effectiveness of the message. For instance, advertising length is considered essential not only regarding broadcasting costs, but also for the effects of the message. The length of advertising messages has been a topic of debate as traditional television advertising messages range between 5 seconds and 60 seconds. In the early stages of television, audiences had fewer choices of channels; modern audiences not only have a wide choice of channels but also can change channels more easily because of technology. Empirical studies based on advertising recall suggest that 15- to 30-second messages are more effective for both rational and emotional messages as they do not compromise modern television attention spans. Furthermore, they are effective for low attention spans, especially for low awareness products/brands (Singh and Cole 1993).

Advertising position is also considered important in the effectiveness of the message. Haugtvedt and Wegener (1994) expanded knowledge in the primacy/recency of message order effects, arguing that when individuals are exposed to two opposing messages, high personal relevance of the message topic leads to the occurrence of primacy (i.e. the individual's judgement of the message is based on the first exposure); whereas when the relevance of the message topic is low, message recency occurs (i.e. judgements are consistent with the second message), also demonstrating that the effects of primacy/recency influence cognitive responses to the messages and subsequently affect audiences' attitudes.

In a similar vein, the recent study of Christodoulides, Michaelidou et al. (2012) suggests that message order effects (i.e. primacy/recency) are also affected by the individual's psycho-social characteristics. Their results suggest that when exposed to different messages (i.e. positive vs. negative), individuals attached to society's norms and groups tend to follow the most recent information regardless of its valence, whereas people with individualistic characteristics are more inclined to pay more attention to negative information, irrespective of its position.

Finally, other important technical elements of advertising summarised in table 2.6 include the use of audio, music and sound effects; how the brand appears in the advertisement (i.e. visual, verbal, visual-verbal or implicit); the use of brand/product endorsers (i.e. consumers, celebrities) and how they interact with the camera; and the number of mentions of the brand/or product in the ad.

Table 2-6 Other technical elements used in audio-visual advertising

Technical element	Characteristic
Audio	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sound Saturation (background sound in the video clip, including street noise or other sounds, rather than simply a person talking in the video. • Background music: to accompany the dialogue or action of the video. • Sound effects: unusual sound that could not have occurred in real life heard in the video clip, including 'gongs' and other noises. • No audio effects • Just dialogue
Brand depiction in ad	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visual only • Verbal only • Visual and verbal

Type of brand display	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Brand /actual product • Logo appearance • Direct text/mention of brand or product with no actual appearance • Indirect text/mention of brand or product
Brand position in relation to the camera	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In foreground • Close-up
Verbal incidents of the brand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One mention only • Two mentions (at beginning and end) • Three or more (throughout the video)
Type of incident involving character interaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Visual only (character appears on camera but does not speak) • Verbal only (of camera narrator) • Visual and verbal (character on camera speaking)
Type of character involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use brand only • Mention brand only • Use and mention brand

Source: Ogilvy and Raphaelson (1982); Avery and Ferraro (2000); Paek, Kim et al(2010)

Drawing from the above discussion, it is arguable that the use of appeals in advertising communications is of particular importance to guarantee the persuasive effectiveness of the message as well as the use of creative message elements individually or in combination to stimulate consumer responses. However, people react differently to persuasive messages; in this regard, empirical studies demonstrate that individuals' emotional and cognitive dispositions affect their reactions to advertising communications. For instance, a highly emotional individual will react more favourably to emotional stimuli than an individual with a dominant rational disposition. Furthermore, audiences' psycho-social characteristics may also have an impact on the effectiveness of advertising messages (Aaker and Williams 1998). For instance, in societies that highly value reverence to the elderly and authority (i.e. Korea), emotional appeals of these types may be more effective than in more individualistic cultures (i.e. Germany) where appeals related to happiness or safety may be more effective (Aaker and Williams 1998; Zhang 2009).

To further understand how advertising works, it is also necessary to analyse the receiver's characteristics and their interaction with other communication variables like the source, content and context of the message (Cushing and Tate 1985). Extensive research has been conducted and has concluded that the receiver's involvement is an important determinant of how people react to advertising and make decisions (Gardner, Mitchell et al. 1985; Zaichkowsky 1986; Putrevu and Lord 1994). By involvement, these studies refer to the person's engagement with the message and their desire to understand and process the information received.

However, little research has been conducted on the individual's psycho-social characteristics and their influence on how people incorporate advertising information (Zhang 2009; Lin, Moore et al. 2011). For instance, evidence suggests that self-construal along with consumer involvement and product knowledge are characteristics that moderate the persuasiveness of advertising messages and therefore have an impact on the receiver's attitudes towards the brand, the advertising and purchase intentions (Tsai 2007).

Following this study's objectives, the following section will review the literature regarding the consumer as audience of the communication process and the effects of the individual's psychological and social characteristics or self-construal and their impact on advertising effectiveness.

2.7. The role of Self-Construal in advertising effectiveness

Self-construal (SC), or *'the constellation of thoughts, feelings, and actions concerning one's relationship to others, and the self as distinct from others'* (Singelis 1994, p. 581), introduced by Marcus and Kitayama (1991), explains a person's self-definition and meaning in relation to others. Self-construal affects individuals' behavioural patterns, cognitive

performance, aesthetic preferences and their social interactions. This construct is conceptualised in two main dimensions, independent and interdependent, the differences for which are summarised in table 2.7.

Table 2-7 Summary of key differences between independent and interdependent self-construal

Feature	Independent	Interdependent
Definition	Separated from social context	Connected with social context
Structure	Bounded, unitary, stable	Flexible, variable
Important features	Internal, private thoughts and feelings	External, public roles and relationships
	Ability to express self, validate internal attributes	Ability to adjust, restrain self, maintain harmony with social context

Source: Markus and Kitayama (1991)

The *independent self-construal* (INDSC) relates to the self as an autonomous, independent person; in other words, an INDSC person can be regarded as individualistic, autonomous, idiocentric and self-contained (Markus and Kitayama 1991). This suggests that INDSC is conceptualised as bounded, unitary and separate from social context, with a high emphasis on internal abilities, thoughts and feelings, as well as being unique and expressing the self. Furthermore, individuals within this category value internal strengths and promote their own goals (Markus and Kitayama 1991; Singelis 1994).

Conversely, *interdependent self-construal* (INTSC) refers to a person connected to others; thus it can be regarded as a sociocentric, holistic and collective. The main characteristic of INTSC is that people's behaviour is determined and organised in relation to others, emphasising social aspects such as roles, relationships, belonging, being in direct communication with others and fitting in (Markus and Kitayama 1991; Singelis 1994). In essence, an INTSC person's behaviour is regulated by their relationships with others and the context in which this relationship takes place; more importantly, individuals with highly developed INTSC are likely to adapt their behaviour to act in accordance with their group.

Focusing on the individual's self-identity level, SC is related to the psychological constructs of idiocentrism and allocentrism (Triandis, Chan et al. 1995), converging on the idea that individuals' psychological characteristics are moulded for, and are reflected by, their relationship with the socio-cultural environment in which they live. In essence, a person's idiocentric tendencies emphasise the values of a comfortable life, competition, pleasure and social recognition, whereas a person's allocentric tendencies emphasise the values of cooperation, equality and honesty (Triandis, Leung et al. 1985). Drawing from the above, it is clear that the dimensionality of SC is analogous to other constructs postulated to define individuals' socio-cultural dimensions (i.e. idiocentrism and allocentrism). The next section provides an analysis of the dimensionality of the SC construct.

2.7.1. Dimensionality of the Self-Construal construct

Extensive debate exists about the dimensionality of SC. Some researchers have reported that the two orientations of SC (INDSC and INTSC) appear to be unrelated to one another and represent the opposite poles of a one-dimensional construct (Hofstede 1990; Markus and Kitayama 1991; Lee, Aaker et al. 2000), whereas other researchers support the

two-dimensionality of the construct where high INDSC is not considered to be equivalent with low INTSC. In other words, without a single continuum, the two would not be considered to be equally and inversely related to the other variable (Singelis 1994; Polyorat and Alden 2005). Numerous studies argue for the orthogonality and coexistence of the two SC (Singelis 1994; Ryder, Alden et al. 2000; Oyserman, Coon et al. 2002; Polyorat and Alden 2005; Lin, Moore et al. 2011).

This proposition, suggesting that some individuals may have two well-developed self-concepts, has been supported in studies by Bhawuk and Brislin (1992) and Cross (1995). For instance, by using the constructs of INDSC and INTSC, Cross (1995) reports that East Asian participants had better developed INTSC than their American counterparts but were similar in the development of their INDSC, referring to this pattern as a ‘bicultural self-system’. In sum, these results suggest that the two aspects of self in relation to the collective can coexist, even though most prior attempts to measure idiocentrism-allocentrism have assumed a single bipolar dimension.

In addition, Singelis’ (1994) SC scale, which is one of the most widely used measures of the construct (Lee, Aaker et al. 2000; Polyorat and Alden 2005; Lin, Moore et al. 2011; Burton, Gore et al. 2012; Lin, Chang et al. 2012; Su, Lee et al. 2013), was developed to measure the strength of INDSC and INTSC in participants with different ethnic backgrounds, and although it is suggested that both traits coexist in individuals, Singelis’ (1994) results suggest that one trait is more dominant than the other.

Following this proposed dominance of one characteristic over the other, most empirical studies tend to focus only on two dimensions of SC (i.e. INTSC and INDSC), disregarding individuals who possess both equally developed dimensions (Aaker and Lee

2001; Agrawal and Maheswaran 2005; Escalas and Bettman 2005; Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007). However, one question that needs to be asked is whether Singelis' (1994) argument is consistent and whether individuals do have one SC characteristic dominating the other (i.e. INDSC vs. INTSC), or if it is possible for the hypothesised 'co-existence' of both dimensions in equal magnitude and the possibility of individuals with a well-defined 'middle' trait. Notwithstanding, evidence in the literature demonstrates that SC influences individuals' motivations, attitudes and behaviour.

2.7.2. Effects of Self-Construal in Cognitions, emotions and behaviour

As mentioned earlier, SC may affect the individual's everyday experiences, influencing cognitions, emotions and behaviours. Evidence suggests that SC has an impact on individuals' self-expression preferences, either directly or indirectly (Hara and Kim 2004), in coping with stressful situations on a daily basis (Cross 1995), on inferring meaning to brands (Escalas and Bettman 2005), or in processing information obtained from brand communication (Polyorat and Alden 2005; Zhang 2009; Lin, Moore et al. 2011).

2.7.2.1. Effects of self-construal on cognitions

Evidence suggests that differences in SC (INTSC and INDSC) affect how people think and their preferences. A study by Zhang, Feick et al. (2008) suggested that SC affects people's aesthetic preferences between angular versus rounded shapes following the idea that differences in shapes evoke personality differences: angular shapes are associated with confrontation, whereas rounded shapes are associated with compromise. The study concluded that people with INDSC favour angular shapes, congruous with the characteristics of this SC type; in contrast, people with INTSC favoured rounded shapes, also concordant with the characteristics of this type of SC.

Similarly, the effects of SC on individuals' information processing has been analysed in studies suggesting two primary ways that variation in SC affects cognition: differences in attention to the context or relationships; and different information processing styles (Cross, Hardin et al. 2011). For instance, persons with high INTSC are more likely to describe themselves in terms of their social context, including close relationships and group membership; research conducted by Kühnen and Hannover (2000) and Lee, Aaker et al. (2000) concluded that when the thought process requires the cohesion of several interrelated ideas, an INTSC is more effective in influencing cognitive reactions than INDSC. In essence, the way individuals with INDSC process information will be more oriented to their personal goals and preferences than to the individuals presenting the INTSC characteristic, as their processing will be influenced by the relations with others.

Moreover, another study conducted by Hamilton and Biehal (2005) revealed that when people display characteristics of INTSC, they are more likely to make choices that are 'safe' or accepted within the bounds of societal norms; conversely, individuals who show traits of INDSC tend to make choices based on personal enhancement, regardless of whether that choice is within the bounds of what society delineates as 'normal'. Thus, INTSC results in choices based on duty rather than personal fulfilment with the goal of minimising problems rather than maximising gains. This individual's choice is more cautiously made and is more conservative in nature. Conversely, when a person displays characteristics of INDSC, the focus tends to be on personal gain, regardless of the level of acceptance within the societal boundaries, and therefore, the individual makes choices that are less cautious and riskier.

2.7.2.2. Effects of self-construal on emotions

Additionally, people's emotions are influenced by their patterns of social interaction. Such patterns can be described in terms of SC. For instance, the study of Kitayama and Markus (2000) suggested that an individual's social orientation is an important component of their emotional experiences and varies across different cultural contexts. This study was based on a sample of 630 Japanese participants and 283 Americans and reported that the frequency of general positive emotions (e.g. calm, elated) was most closely associated with the reported frequency of interpersonally *engaged* positive emotions (e.g. friendly feelings) in Japan. However, the reported frequency of interpersonally *disengaged* positive emotions (e.g. pride) in the United States suggested a positive correlation ($r = .58$) between self-construal and the emotions for Japanese participants and ($r = .54$) for American participants.

A similar study (Nezlek, Kafetsios et al. 2008) that examined the relationships between SC and emotions in social interactions and how such relationships vary across social structures, based on a sample comprising participants in the United Kingdom and Greece, reported that in the UK, daily affective experiences (happiness, enthusiasm and activity) were more related to INDSC characteristics. In Greece, on the other hand, the same daily affective experiences were found to be related to INTSC characteristics; these results are consistent with Sagiv and Schwartz' (2000) study, which found that people whose individual values are closer to the social norm are happier than individuals whose values are less normative.

2.7.2.3. Effects of self-construal on behaviour

Self-construal may also affect people's behaviour, not only shaping interpersonal behaviour where people priming INTSC present a greater likelihood of imitating the behaviour of another person compared with people priming INDSC (van Baaren, Maddux et

al. 2003), but also influencing consumer behaviour. For instance, Ybarra and Trafimow's (1998) study suggests that INTSC reduces the degree of impulsive behaviour in purchase decisions; as the individual is basing a decision on societal norms within a defined group, the decision must be safe so that it is acceptable within the preferences of that group. In contrast, individuals who act with INDSC are more likely to engage in behaviour that is more in tune with their personal preferences regardless of the preferences and attitudes of others, as Markus and Kitayama (1991) suggest. Another study, by Zhang and Shrum (2009), also concluded that SC moderates impulsive consumption, reporting that participants with INDSC presented more disposition to drink alcohol following the characteristic of uniqueness when acting out internal feelings. Conversely, participants with INTSC presented restraint on alcohol consumption following social norms in tune with the characteristics of fitting in and observing social conventions.

Drawing from the findings discussed above, it is arguable that individuals with INTSC are markedly more inclined to put their personal preferences aside and fulfil the goals defined by the collective group within which he/she functions, whilst an individual with INDSC will place personal interest first through the pursuit of personal preferences and choose the most personally gratifying goal. These individuals are more likely to partake in impulsive behaviour as they do not need to conform to the set rules of their environment.

Similarly, SC is considered to influence brand evaluations (Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007), brand meaning (Escalas and Bettman 2005), brand selection (Grubb and Hupp 1968), the persuasiveness of various advertising appeals (Agrawal and Maheswaran 2005), brand extensions evaluations (Ng and Houston 2006) and advertising effectiveness (Lin, Moore et al. 2011). Additionally, a study by Agrawal and Maheswaran (2005) concluded that self-

construal is a moderating factor that influences consumer brand commitment, which in turn leads to either positive or negative brand evaluations, which has a moderating effect on brand persuasions in the form of advertising and as it relates to this study, UGA.

To support this, the study of Escalas and Bettman (2005) concluded that self-construal determines the level of connection of the individual with the brand, and that the way people see themselves in relation with a reference social group will therefore affect this consumer-brand relationship. Adding to this notion, another study by Swaminathan, Page et al. (2007) suggested that there is a correlation between self-construal and the processing of information about a brand. For example, in the case of exposure to negative information about a brand, self-construal leads to lower expectations and adverse attitudes towards that brand.

However, despite its wide use and versatility, the theory of SC has also been the focus of extensive debate and controversy, and some authors even question its validity in measuring individual psycho-social differences. For instance, a study by Matsumoto (1999) challenges the validity of Markus and Kitayama's (1991) theoretical framework, claiming that the assumption that differences in nationality affect psycho-social behaviour are not substantiated and that INTSC and INDSC do not explain cross-national differences in behaviour based on the premise that multiple construal can co-exist within individuals (Oyserman 1993; Kosmitzki 1996).

Similarly, a study by Levine, Brenahan et al. (2003) concluded that SC scales present inconsistency in measuring cross-cultural characteristics, as these measures are sensitive to situational priming, and furthermore that the conceptualisation of the construct is not adequate and multiple dimensions may exist. These criticisms, however, are refuted by a comprehensive article by Gudykunst and Lee (2003), which provided evidence that Markus

and Kitayama's (1991) theoretical conceptualisation of self-construal is consistent and proven by studies based on the main scales of SC in Singelis (1994) and Gudykunst, Matsumoto et al. (1996).

Drawing from these accounts, it can be noted that SC may have issues in ascertaining cross-cultural differences. However, there is ample evidence of its adequacy as a psycho-social measure of the self; furthermore, it can be argued that although the main dimensions of INTSC and INDSC are conceptually robust, another other possible dimension may exist that represents individuals with an equal coexistence of INTSC and INDSC.

Therefore, this study will consider self-construal as a psycho-social construct, influencing individual's motivations, social interactions, attitudes and behaviour (Grubb and Hupp 1968; Stapel and Koomen 2001; Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007; Zhang 2009); this supports the objectives of this study. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that self-construal mediates the effectiveness of advertising communication on attitudes and behaviours. In the next section, advertising effects on audiences are analysed from a psychological perspective, and more specifically on the attitudinal effects of advertising communications.

2.8. A psychological approach of advertising effectiveness: The importance of attitudes and attitude change

Having analysed the literature related to the type of advertising and the psycho-social characteristics of individuals that influence the effectiveness of advertising messages, this section analyses literature related to the attitudinal component of advertising effectiveness and provides a framework for understanding the effects of advertising communications on audiences. The study of attitudes and the effects on consumer behaviour is a complex field of investigation for academics and marketing practitioners; the intricate nature of the human

mind and communication models lead to ample areas of enquiry. Given the diverse nature of the literature, this section will highlight some of the leading theories of attitude and the relation of attitude and behaviour and persuasion in order to provide a theoretical understanding of advertising's effectiveness.

One objective of advertising communications is to change or produce consumers' mindsets about brands; more precisely, it aims to shape and/or change their thoughts, feelings, experiences, images, perceptions, beliefs and attitudes towards a specific brand (Romaniuk and Nicholls 2006). Ample research has been conducted to explain traditional advertising, its effects and the receiver's information processing; this study will follow extant literature on psychological effects of advertising in order to frame a theoretical and comprehensive explanation of how user-generated brand communication actually works and the effects on consumers' brand attitudes and behaviour. For this study, the main conceptual similarity between user-generated and firm-generated advertising is that both are created to convey brand information and build or alter attitudes, as suggested by Stoeckl, Rohrmeier et al. (2007), Berthon et al. (2008) and the Interactive Advertising Bureau (2008).

The construct of attitude has been widely studied by social psychologists; therefore, finding a congruent definition has been a matter of great consideration. Attitudes are states of mind regarding an object, which are generated by a stimulus, which leads to evaluative responses to these stimuli (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). In essence, this suggests that attitudes are intermediate mindsets between an observable stimulus and the observable response to that stimulus, which denotes an individual's stance towards an object.

Attitudes are considered one of the most important constructs in psychology and behavioural literature, since they are fundamental in the decision-making context. From a marketing perspective, attitudes are generally considered an antecedent to purchase intentions and therefore crucial for sales and profit (Aaker and Myers 1987, p. 160). Notably, Percy and Rossiter (1992) consider attitudes as a prevalent objective of brand advertising strategies.

One important aspect of attitudes is that they are *'learned predispositions to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object'* (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975, p.6). In this regard, Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p. 1) remarked that attitudes are psychological tendencies to evaluate an object either favourably or unfavourably. Therefore, this psychological evaluation or valence relates to the positivity or negativity on which the brand is measured (Whan Park, MacInnis et al. 2010).

From the above it can be drawn that first, attitudes are mental states represented in an individual's memory; second, the focus of an attitude is an 'object', which can be abstract such as an idea or issue, or concrete, such as a person, place or item (Eagly and Chaiken 2007). Third, attitudes are evaluated either favourably or unfavourably towards the 'object'; fourth, attitudes are predictors of a reaction; and finally attitudes are learned. In other words, humans are not born with the attitudes they hold towards the object, but instead they learn them through information about the object in the form of advertising or news, by direct experience such as use.

Noticeably, most attitude theorists agree that the evaluative aspect of attitudes is possibly the most important aspect of this construct, an aspect that will guide this study. The *sociocognitive model* (Pratkanis and Greenwald 1989) integrates the evaluative and representational characteristics of attitudes, suggesting that attitudes are defined in people's

memory by an object, an evaluative summary of this object and a supporting knowledge structure that supports this evaluation. In other words, attitudes are cognitive descriptions of people's interpretations of their surrounding world.

In order to understand how attitudes function and their contribution to advertising's effectiveness, the next section analyses the structure of attitudes and the components of this construct.

2.8.1. The structure of Attitudes

Along with the definition of attitudes, ample debate has been found in the literature regarding the composition and the elements that constitute attitudes; prominent academics (Cacioppo and Bernston 1994; Cacioppo, Gardner et al. 1997; Ito, Larsen et al. 1998) claim that attitudes can and should be classified in three main categories: *cognitive*, reflecting people's thoughts about an object; *affective*, reflecting feelings or emotions; and *behavioural*, reflecting actions with respect to the object. Effectively, this suggests that cognitive responses are thoughts or ideas about the object, often conceptualised as beliefs that are understood to be associations or linkages that people establish between the object and various attributes, which can express positive or negative evaluations of the object and can be located at any position from extremely positive to extremely negative, including the neutral point (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). This is supported by Mittal (1990) and Percy and Rossiter (1992), converging in the assumption that consumers' beliefs about brand benefits are considered a central element of brand attitudes.

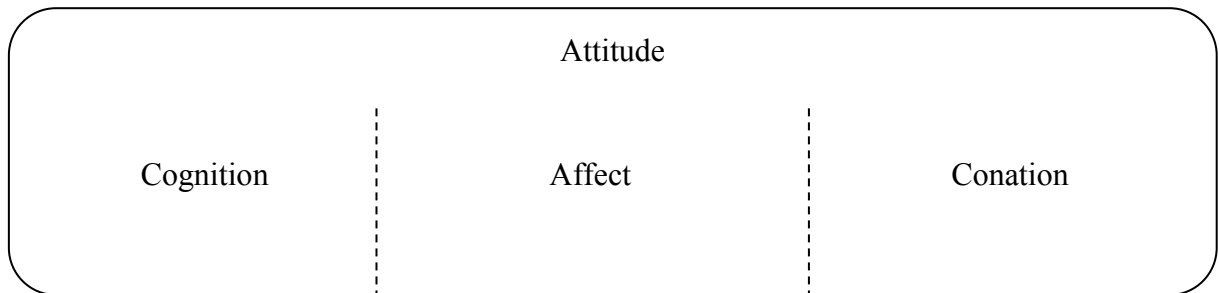
Conversely, affective responses consist of feelings, moods and emotions that people experience in relation to the object; these responses can also range from extremely positive to extremely negative. Finally, behavioural responses consist of the actions that people exhibit in relation to the object. These responses also range from extremely positive to extremely negative, and in general people who evaluate an attitude object favourably tend to engage in behaviours that support these attitudes and vice versa. Therefore, it becomes clear that all three types of responses, cognitive, affective and behavioural, differ in the nature of their components (thinking, feeling and action) but converge in that all range from positive to negative valence.

This classification of attitudes has been widely discussed in the academic literature, leading to two major theoretical orientations in the study of attitudes: the tripartite orientation, assuming that attitudes are constituted by three elements (cognition, affection and behaviour); and the unidimensional orientation, which assumes that attitudes are only formed by the affective element preceded and followed by cognition and behaviour, respectively (Lutz 1981).

2.8.1.1. The tripartite orientation of attitude dimensions

The tripartite orientation (figure 2-3) suggests that attitudes are formed by three main components: *cognitive*, or the beliefs consumers have about a specific brand or product; *affective*, or feeling overall positive or negative emotional evaluations about the object; and *conative*, related to a person's intentions and actual behaviours with respect to the 'object' (Lutz 1981).

Figure 2-3 Tripartite Orientation of attitude dimensions



Source: Lutz (1981)

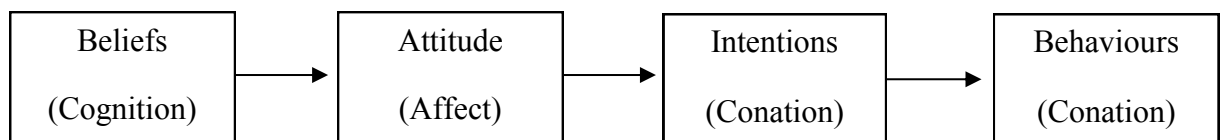
Although this orientation is well established conceptually, the literature suggests that there is little empirical investigation to support its feasibility; initial studies examined correlations between components of this model. Ostrom's (1969) findings suggest that these components were not significantly correlated, arguing that the low variance was a consequence of the nature of the attitude issue and the population used in the study, therefore suggesting a separation between them. Similarly, Kothandapani's (1971) study, which overcome the stimulus-sample issue, reported no relationship between components.

The results of these studies have been criticized by research based on more sophisticated data analysis techniques involving structural equation analysis (Bagozzi 1982; Breckler 1984), concluding that data from Ostrom's (1969) study weakly supported the tripartite orientation, whereas Kothandapani's (1971) data failed to support it. Therefore, this approach of the nature of attitudes is not considered suitable to be applied in marketing research.

2.8.1.2. The unidimensional orientation of attitude dimensions

Conversely, the one-dimensional orientation suggests that attitudes consist only of the affective component; the cognitive and conative components are separated from the attitude representing an antecedent or consequence as suggested by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). Therefore, attitudes only represent the person's emotional favourability or unfavourability towards the 'object', as illustrated in figure 2-4.; also, as can be appreciated, the elements are re-labelled, cognition becomes beliefs and conation is divided into intentions and behaviours.

Figure 2-4 The unidimensional orientation of attitude dimensions



Source: Lutz (1981)

Consequently, it is arguable that the unidimensional orientation goes beyond the tripartite view in specifying causal linkages among various theoretical constructs related to attitudes, which is the underpinning of much current attitude research. An important contribution of this model is the relation between components, which is a difference from the tripartite view that incorporated equally the three components in a consistent manner. This position is based in a causal flow through the components; in other words, beliefs are the immediate causal antecedent of attitudes, and intentions are an intermediate consequence of attitudes and actual behaviour the ultimate consequence of the process.

The dimensionality of attitudinal responses remains an important issue for empirical and theoretical development, and it seems that academics and practitioners differ in finding a

definitive consensus. However, for the purpose of this study, attitudes will be considered to consist solely of affect and will be treated as conceptually and operationally distinct from beliefs, intentions and behaviours. One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether there is consistency among the elements of the model where attitudes lead to behaviour, and if this sequence applies without exception to all attitudes and individuals.

2.8.2. The attitude-behaviour relationship

The presumed attitude-behaviour causal relationship dictates that ‘attitude leads to behaviour’ where attitude measurements are predictors of behaviour (Kassarjian and Robertson 1981); this attitude-behaviour relationship (A-B) has also been the focus of debate in academia, as theoretically attitudes direct behaviour and therefore both variables must be highly correlated. However, existing research often reports low correlations between A-B (Smith and Swinyard 1983).

One of the leading studies supporting this position (Wicker 1969), based on a review of 42 empirical studies, suggests that there is little evidence that people possess stable underlying attitudes that influence their overt behaviour. The seminal studies of Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1974; 1975) support this notion, suggesting that the little correlation between an individual’s attitudes and behaviour towards an object is the result of considering behaviour as a single act criteria, i.e. purchase. Instead, these studies suggest that it should be related to an overall pattern of behaviour or a multiple-act criterion.

Moreover, Shavitt and Fazio (1991) demonstrate the other aspects: for instance, the salient characteristics of an object may affect the expression of attitudes and therefore affect subsequent overt behaviour. Therefore, it is arguable that behaviour should then be observed from a behavioural-intention perspective, which is assumed to mediate the overt or observable

behaviour; this implies that people's intention to perform an action is a joint function of their attitude towards performing that behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein 1972).

Ajzen and Fishbein's (1972) study suggests that a person's attitude towards a specific object has an effect vis-a-vis their overall responses towards the object; however, although the person's attitude towards the object may influence the overall pattern of his/her responses, this attitude does not predict any given action where a single behaviour is determined by the intention to perform the behaviour in question. The basic proposition of this model is that in order to predict a specific behaviour (such as the purchase of a particular brand), it is necessary to measure the person's attitude toward performing that behaviour and not just the general attitude toward the object at which the behaviour is directed (Ajzen and Fishbein 1977). Two main theories lead the understanding of the assumption that attitudes influence behaviour: theory of reasoned action (TRA) and theory of planned behaviour (TPB).

2.8.2.1. Theory of Reasoned Action

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) is a seminal model used in the prediction of behavioural intentions and behaviours, and a leading theoretical framework used as a benchmark for other theories and models in the topic (Olson and Zanna 1993). The TRA holds that behavioural intentions are mediating antecedents to behaviour and a result of a person's beliefs about the likelihood that performing a particular behaviour will lead to a specific outcome; in other words, attitudes and subjective norms drive intentions that lead into volitional behaviours, which is considered to explain attitude-behaviour (A-B) relationships.

The Theory of Reasoned Action claims that attitudes influence behaviours by affecting intentions or decisions to act in a particular way; more precisely, these intentions are a *'cognitive plan to perform a behaviour or action , created through a choice/decision process that focuses on beliefs about the consequences of the action'* (American Marketing Association 1995, p. 22). Furthermore, TRA suggests that behaviour is guided by the person's beliefs about the consequences of the behaviour (behavioural beliefs), beliefs about the normative expectations of other people (normative beliefs) and beliefs about the factors that may further or hinder performance of behaviour (control beliefs). Focusing on normative beliefs, evidence supports that one of the factors influencing a person's attitudes and behaviour is their perception of what others may expect him to do (Ajzen and Fishbein 1972).

A particular strength of TRA is that it suggests that a person's behaviour is determined by their attitudes and their intentions to perform that behaviour; in other words, the best predictor of behaviour is intention, which is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour and therefore considered an antecedent of behaviour. For this reason, in order to measure a specific behaviour (i.e. purchase of a particular brand), it is important to measure the person's attitude towards performing that behaviour (Lutz 1981).

In this regard, research on TRA (Liu, Furrer et al. 2001; Ackermann and Palmer 2014; Michaelidou and Hassan 2014) reveals that intentions are good predictors not only of overt behaviours toward products and services, but also for the use and adoption of Internet and electronic communication methods (Yousafzai, Foxall et al. 2010; Garg and Kataria 2013), which in turn it is congruent with the previously mentioned unidimensional view of attitudes following a process that commences with beliefs, moving through attitude, intention and ending in behaviours.

However, one major criticism of TRA is that expectations are considered better predictors of behaviour than intentions; according to Warshaw and Davis (1985), expectations consider the prospect of successfully accomplishing an activity even if there has not been a previous commitment. On the contrary, an intention is related to making a behavioural commitment to perform or not the activity. However, this argument overlooks the intensity of the intentions and their effects; for instance, a study related to the moderating effects of intentions on the attitude-behaviour relationship (Bagozzi and Yi 1989) concludes that the degree to which the intentions are established will have an effect on the attitude-behaviour relationship. More precisely, strong established intentions definitely mediate the effects of attitudes on behaviour as suggested by TRA, whereas in the case of weak established intentions, behaviour is affected directly by attitudes. Another important criticism of this theory is that it is believed neglects the importance of social factors that in real life can determine individual's behaviour.

2.8.2.2. Theory of Planned Behaviour

Conversely, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen 1985) is an improvement of TRA incorporating the concept of *perceived behavioural control* (PBC), similar to *self-efficacy* or the individual's predisposition to engage in behaviours they think can be achieved (Bandura 1997) as another predictor of intentions along with attitudes and subjective norms. This way, behaviours that are not controlled by volition are included in the model. The application of this theory is particularly relevant in advertising campaigns oriented to achieve changes in prejudicial behaviour (Johnston and White 2003; Stead, Tagg et al. 2005).

The importance of TPB is the assumption that PBC has an effect on intentions and behaviours, especially on inconspicuous ones, and contrary to TRA where intentions are

sufficient to predict behaviours, in TPB the magnitude of the PBC-intention relationship depends on the type of behaviour and the nature of the situation (Ajzen 1991). Empirical research (Armitage and Conner 2001) has validated the adequacy of TPB in anticipating intentions and behaviour; however, their results suggest that PBC enhances the predictive power of the model slightly, confirming Ajzen's (1991) conclusions in his review of studies relevant to TPB.

Although other models of attitude-behaviour have been proposed as the MODE model (Fazio 1990) and the Composite model (Eagly and Chaiken 1993), TRA and TPB are still the two most important A-B models where the 'intention' construct is key in both models to predict behaviour. Therefore, both models are often used as foundations for emerging behavioural theories. This study will follow TPB as a framework for the understanding of A-B relationship; theoretically, TPB is related to the normative beliefs that guide people's actions. Furthermore, the main element of TPB is related to the individual's intentions to conduct a specific action.

2.8.2.2.1 Behavioural Intentions

Behavioural intentions (BI), or *'the degree to which a person formulates conscious plans to perform or not some specified future behaviour'* (Warshaw and Davis 1985, p. 214), are a fundamental element of both the TRA and TPB as an intervening variable of consumer behaviour. Warshaw and Davis' (1985) definition suggests that BI is a construct situated between the individual's favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards an object, and a specific overt behaviour towards the object; in other words, attitudes and BI combined predict an individual's behaviours.

The behavioural literature indicates that BI have been classified differently in various studies; for instance, with regard to consumer's satisfaction or dissatisfaction towards a brand, product or service, a study by Zeithaml, Berry, et al. (1996) on consumer's intention to continue or cease brand support classify BI as favourable including loyalty (i.e. praising a firm and purchase intentions) and willingness to pay more for the product or service. Conversely, the unfavourable BI suggested by Zeithaml, Berry et al. (1996) includes the propensity to switch to competitors, internal response to the situation (i.e. complaining directly to the firm) or external response to the situation (i.e. word-of-mouth).

One issue with this approach is that some of the dimensions suggested by Zeithaml, Berry may be conceptually ambiguous in terms of their valence; for instance, brand loyalty may also have unfavourable connotations when consumers are not faithful to the brand. This is similar to word-of-mouth, which can also be positive or negative in relation to the brand, and furthermore, loyalty may also be related to word-of-mouth and willingness to pay more for the brand.

Another study by Bloemer, de Ruyter et al. (1999) suggested that Zeithaml, Berry et al.'s (1996) BI dimensions are a representation of consumer's *loyalty* towards a service or brand and classify these intentions in repurchase intentions, word-of-mouth communication, price sensitivity and complaining behaviour. One advantage with this classification is that the authors measure the dimensions as a bipolar construct by using a Likert scale. Therefore, each dimension may be considered as favourable or unfavourable towards the brand. Later, Shaw Ching Liu, Sudharshan et al. (2000) investigated consumer's brand satisfaction in terms of repeat purchase and intentions to communicate with others (i.e. directly to brand managers or with other consumers); in this regard, the increase of Internet communications allows consumers to communicate directly and quickly with firms and with other consumers;

furthermore, the Internet provides consumers with tools to find solutions to their brand problems and to create content to communicate their brand experiences (Liu-Thompkins and Rogerson 2012).

Drawing from the above, the dimensionalities of BI can be re-organised into four comprehensive dimensions following the objectives of this study: purchase intention, brand switch, word-of-mouth and the creation of user generated content. For instance, purchase intentions (PI) or the '*individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand*' (Spears and Singh 2004, p. 56) may be considered a consequence of brand attitudes; therefore, evaluating the previous definition, PI may also have two features. In a favourable sense, PI indeed means that consumers are loyal to the brand and will consider the brand as their choice of purchase in the product category; whereas in a negative sense, it may well mean that the consumer's intentions are not to purchase the brand.

Brand (or product) switching or the consumer's decision to substitute a product or brand for another in the same category is considered to be a consequence of their perception of product quality and/or satisfaction of their expectations. In fact, satisfaction is considered to be a factor of brand loyalty whereas dissatisfaction a factor triggering switching and consequently a variable to operationalise consumer behaviour (Kasper 1988). Previous studies in brand switching (Deighton, Henderson et al. 1994; Ahluwalia, Burnkrant et al. 2000) conclude that information received through advertising triggers consumer's positive and negative inferences about the brand and that people interpret this persuasive information in a straightforward manner agreeing with the content of the message or conversely by engaging on a high order cognitive manner by questioning the information received.

Therefore, additional elements may also explain people's intentions not to switch brands/products to another from its competitors. One of these reasons pertains to people's commitment to the brand; the stronger their commitment, the more likely they are to resist negative information or messages from brand competitors or substitute products. Another important determinant of brand switching is perceived risk; empirical research (Choi and Ahluwalia 2013) demonstrates that high perceived risk (e.g. poor quality) is likely to generate brand switching to a safer higher quality product. In essence, both commitment and perceived risk are important elements that trigger or prevent brand switching.

Word-of-mouth (WOM) relates to *'the informal communication between private parties concerning evaluations of goods and services'* (Anderson 1998). Therefore WOM engagement is related to the PI dimension where consumers seek to find an external and internal solution to a brand problem. Furthermore, the Internet and social media shift these conversations from a private context to a public and accessible platform where these conversations are considered as electronic-word-of-mouth (eWOM), empowering consumers to communicate directly and quickly with other consumers. For instance, the existence of microblogging sites like Twitter permits real-time communication where brand information in social media is potentially more powerful than private ones (i.e. via email or telephone). This study will consider consumer-generated brand communications as eWOM following the scope of this study, which is of computer-based communications.

Empirical research (Dichter 1966; Westbrook 1987; Angelis, Bonezzi et al. 2012; Yang, Hu et al. 2012) agrees that a combination of factors including consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the brand, degree of involvement with the brand and the influence of marketing activities leads individuals to engage in eWOM and speak for or against a brand. Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner et al. (2004) and Garg and Kataria (2013) concludes that

consumers' eWOM behaviour follows individuals' internal satisfaction and self-promotion, altruism or concern for other consumers, advice seeking, anxiety reduction and desire for social interaction; also, that by generating eWOM consumers seek to alleviate issues resulting from negative experiences with brands, products and services, seeking retribution from the brand.

Finally, following the scope of this thesis, in a similar manner, consumers' engage in user-generated content creation seeking to satisfy psycho-social motivations; in this regard, empirical studies converge on self-expression, advocacy, empowerment, risk reduction and social interaction as the main triggers of user-generated content creation (Stoeckl, Rohrmeier et al. 2007; Berthon, Pitt et al. 2008; Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2012) as in eWOM motivations. However, user-generated-content and eWOM differ on the creativity element, which is considered fundamental for user-generated content (Harwood and Gary 2010; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2011), as will be discussed in the next chapter. Therefore, from the above discussion, it can be drawn that behavioural intentions in the context of this thesis relate to individuals' purpose to continue consuming a brand, switching to another brand, engaging in eWOM or user-generated content creation as a result of brand communications.

2.8.3. Attitudes and information processing

Social scientists argue that attitudes influence people's information processing from attention, encoding of information, comprehension, interpretation, elaboration and memory (Eagly and Chaiken 1993).

Attitudes therefore may have an effect on individuals' selection of what information to process and interpret (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). A study on the impact of attitudes on an individual's tendency to draw inferences from information processed (Friedrich, Kierniesky et al. 1989), based on the effects of the exposure to stimuli regarding sugared-food advertising on children, concluded that people are more likely to draw inferences about moral prescriptions when their attitudes are consistent with the information provided; this suggests that if people hold attitudes consistent with the message, content will lead them to support and agree with the message even if it implies a moral dilemma, in this case advertising sugared food to children. However, a major limitation of this study is that the results were based on a relatively small sample of thirty-four participants, compromising the generalisability of the conclusions.

Conversely, another study aiming to ascertain people's information processing of health threat messages (Lieberman and Chaiken 1992), and based on a bigger sample (175 participants), concluded that after exposure to high and low health messages framed with fear appeals regarding the health effects of caffeine, coffee drinkers demonstrated lower beliefs of the health threats of coffee than non-drinkers, and furthermore, drinkers demonstrated a biased information processing that actively counter-argues the threats of the message. In other words, people's existing attitudes towards the product used as a stimulus affected the way received information was processed.

2.8.4. The effects of persuasive message on attitude change

A key aspect of the study of attitudes is related to how the exposure to information contributes to attitude formation and changes; influential theories have been proposed to explain attitude development and how to change existing ones. Similar to its components, attitude formation and change have been the focus of academic and practitioner debate.

Although attitude formation is an important aspect for the study of this construct, this thesis is focused on the aspect of modifying already-existing attitudes and will analyse the main theories of attitude change that are of particular relevance to the objectives of the present study because persuasion is an important element of attitude change. Extensive research has been conducted on attitude change that has focused on responses to communication where the nature of the message has an important role in persuasion and attitudinal modifications. In essence, attitudinal changes are an outcome of persuasive messages that impact individuals' attitude-relevant behaviour (Eagly and Chaiken 1993).

Studies in social psychology have produced different theories of attitude change over the past 50 years, claiming that a single action contributes to attitudinal changes; still this myriad of theories undoubtedly contributes to a challenge of interpreting them all (Briñol and Petty 2011). These theories have evolved and can be condensed into two main models considered currently the most popular for understanding attitude change on the basis of information obtained: Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty and Cacioppo 1986) , and Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) (Chaiken, Liberman et al. 1989).

These theories acknowledge that people's attitudes are based not only on the cognitive comprehension and elaboration of persuasive messages, but also depend on the circumstances in which the persuasion process occurs and the person's mindset about the communication, as

Eagly (1992) points out. Certainly, this suggests that most of the theories of attitude change were not necessarily competitors or contradictory, but operated in different circumstances (Petty and Cacioppo 1981). Although the ELM and HSM models are based on different traditions, the models have many similarities and can generally accommodate the same empirical results to explain attitude change (Eagly and Chaiken 1993; Petty, Wegener et al. 1997).

The Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion (ELM) (Petty and Cacioppo 1981) focusses on the processes responsible for attitude change and the strength of the attitudes that result from those processes; this model represents an attempt to integrate conflicting findings in the persuasion literature under one conceptual umbrella by specifying a finite number of ways in which source, message and other variables have an impact on attitude change (Petty, Unnava et al. 1991). A key construct in the ELM is the *elaboration likelihood continuum*, which is defined by how motivated and able people are to assess the central merits of an issue or a position. In essence, the more motivated and able people are to assess the central merits of an issue or position, the more likely they are to fully scrutinize all available issue-relevant information. Consequently, when the elaboration is high, people will assess issue-relevant information in relation to knowledge that they already possess and arrive at a reasoned attitude that is well articulated and bolstered by supporting information (central route). Conversely, when the elaboration is low, information scrutiny is reduced and attitude change can result from a number of less resource-demanding processes that do not require as much effort to evaluate the issue-relevant information (peripheral route). For this reason, attitudes that are changed by low-effort processes are believed to be weaker and not have an impact on behaviour, which is different from attitudes that are changed by high-effort processes.

Similarly to the ELM, the Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) (Chaiken, Liberman et al. 1989) is based on two avenues of persuasion to change attitudes that may take place in distinct scenarios. The Heuristic-Systematic Model was developed to explain how people validate the information received through persuasive messages and assumes that people's primary concern is to develop the right attitudes in relation to relevant facts. In other words, the primary information-processing goal of the accuracy-motivated recipient is to assess the validity of persuasive messages. This is achieved through two processing methods of information processing: heuristic and systematic.

From the heuristic perspective, this model suggests that information processing is focused on structures retrieved from memory that allow people to use simple decision rules or cognitive heuristics to formulate their judgments and decisions. On the other hand, from a systematic perspective considered a comprehensive analytic orientation to information processing in which perceivers access and scrutinise persuasive argumentation and link this information to other information they may possess about the object or issue discussed in the message. Therefore, the systematic approach requires a more elaborate and extended mode of information processing, as well as more cognitive effort and more cognitive resources than heuristic processing (Eagly and Chaiken 1993).

The importance of ELM and HSM theories is that first, both models explain influences on attitudes and behaviour; consequently there are some similarities between the two models, including that both theories have two routes of persuasion as a result of information processing. Second, both theories hold similar views on the antecedents and consequences of the information processing mode. Third, both theories concur that the attitudes resulting from the most extensive route to persuasion (central or systematic) are more related to subsequent behaviour.

However, important differences can be also observed. For instance, both theories hold distinctive conceptions of peripheral route persuasion and heuristic processing; these propositions are unique to one or the other theory. Furthermore, the key aspect of the heuristic processing is the idea that relatively simple rules or heuristics can mediate people's attitudes; this conceptualisation is narrower than the ELM description of the peripheral route of persuasion. Additionally, because the HSM makes no explanatory claims in relation to mechanisms such as conditioning, the ELM might be construed as a more general theory (Eagly and Chaiken 1993).

As previously mentioned, many theories have been proposed to explain the effects of persuasion in attitudes, which are condensed into two main models currently considered the most popular for understanding attitude change on the basis of information obtained: Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty and Cacioppo 1986) and Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) (Chaiken, Liberman et al. 1989). However, although both theories have been proven to be useful in the explanation of persuasion, both present limitations and differences in the persuasion setting, the antecedents and consequences. Therefore, it is arguable that careful consideration of the underlying elements and process must be taken when applying either theory in the representation of the persuasive paradigm. By its nature, the HSM provides a general model of social influence, and as suggested by Chaiken, Liberman et al. (1989), information receivers 'may have' the goal of expressing socially acceptable attitudes, which in turn are related to the self-construal construct, and therefore the HSM may be considered more appropriate to frame the understanding of persuasive advertising messages on attitudes.

2.8.5. The effects of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand

Furthermore, the attitudes generated by the ad are also considered to have an impact on brand attitudes and behavioural intentions; for instance, positive ad attitudes are associated with positive brand attitudes (Shimp 1981; Gresham and Shimp 1985). The relationship between attitudes towards the ad and attitudes towards the brand has been a topic of thorough investigation of a considerable stream of research (Lutz, McKenzie et al. 1983; Lutz 1985; Madden, Allen et al. 1988; Homer 1990). It has agreed on the existence of a hierarchy of effects and concluded that there is a direct influence between both variables (MacKenzie, Lutz et al. 1986).

The role of attitudes towards the ad on the effectiveness of brand communications has been established in the literature (Lutz, McKenzie et al. 1983; Holbrook and Batra 1987; Olney, Holbrook et al. 1991). Attitudes towards the ad are *'predispositions to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion'* (Lutz 1985, p.46). In essence, these attitudes are the consumer's affective reactions to a commercial stimulus reflecting mental or physical changes advertising causes in the recipient. This means that the brand attributes that the advertisement is trying to communicate are not the only determinants of the attitudes towards the brand that are generated, but the recipient's evaluation of the advertising stimulus, which in the case of being negative may also be reflected in the brand advertised (Mitchell and Olson 1981). For instance, ads that generate favourable attitudes are considered to be more effective under low-involvement conditions and in emotionally-based advertising (Mehta 2000).

This relationship can be explained with the *affect transfer hypothesis* (ATH), which postulates a one-way causal flow from attitudes towards the ad to attitudes towards the brand; empirical studies (Mitchell and Olson 1981; Moore and Hutchinson 1983; Gardner 1985; Jinsong, Song et al. 2013) support this relationship. For instance, a regression and covariance analysis (Mitchell and Olson 1981) revealed that attitudes towards the brand are influenced by the receiver's appreciation of the ad itself and also by the visual elements of the stimulus. Therefore, the study reported a significant variance between attitudes towards the ad and attitudes towards the brand that was much stronger than the effects of the consumer's brand beliefs and evaluations; another study (Moore and Hutchinson 1983) reported the positive linear relationship between the affective reactions to the ad and the generated attitudes towards the brand. Furthermore, Gardner's (1985) excellent review concludes that attitude towards the ad is an intervening variable and predictor of attitudes towards the brand under both brand and non-brand set conditions. Finally, a more recent study (Jinsong, Song et al. 2013) also confirms the attitudes towards the ad/attitudes towards the brand linear relationship in a contemporary video advertising.

2.9. The role of advertising in brand building

Drawing from the main advertising objectives previously discussed, it is arguable that advertising is the principal element in consumer-brand communications and brand building, which is related to increasing the strength of the brand name in consumer's minds that may be reflected in economic revenue for the firm (Bruce, Peters et al. 2012).

Several studies suggest that brands represent a series of benefits for firms and consumers; in this regards, the concept of 'brand' is considered fundamental in this study and key to the understanding of user-generated advertising. Therefore, this section provides a

comprehensive understanding of brands and what this concept embodies for different stakeholders.

The different meanings attributed to ‘brands’² is becoming a significant topic for debate between academics and practitioners (Kapferer 2008). The connotation of ‘brand’ as a property identification has evolved to apply to tangible and intangible property: ideas, concepts, images and identities, suggesting that brands are a combination of functional and emotional elements for different stakeholders (de Chernatony 2001). The importance of the stakeholder approach in the definition of ‘brands’ is the comprehensiveness of what consumers and shareholders expect from the brand; for instance, consumers may expect social (i.e. recognition), psychological (i.e. risk reduction) or economic benefits (i.e. time and cost savings), whereas stakeholders mainly expect returns on investments and protection against competitors.

Following the stakeholder approach to the understanding of brands, de Chernatony and Riley (1997; 1998) identify nine elements that to define ‘brands’ from the firm’s (*input-based*); consumer’s (*output-based*); and from an evolutionary (*firm-to-consumer*) perspective, as illustrated in table 2.8.

² According to Stern Stern, B. B. (2006). "What Does Brand Mean? Historical-Analysis Method and Construct Definition." Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 34(2): 216-223. it is believed that the term ‘brand’ was first used in the fifteenth century, implying a mark of ownership of life stock.

Table 2-8 Elements of brand interpretations from firm, consumer and evolutionary perspective

firm's perspective	consumer's perspective	firm's → consumer
input-based	output-based	evolutionary
Legal instrument	Image	Evolving entity
Logo	Personality	
Company	Relationship	
Identity system	Adding value	

Source: de Chernatony and Riley (1997, 1998)

2.9.1. Brand interpretation from a firm's perspective

From a firm's perspective, brands are 'inputs' created by managers to achieve the firm's objectives, obtain economic revenue and protect against competitors. In their elemental representation, brands are considered as trademarks 'TM', registered marks ® or copyrights ©, which are *'words or symbols that are used to distinguish the product or services from one enterprise from those of another (Blackett 1998,p. 3);* therefore, they are legal instruments providing firms with ownership and protection against competitors (de Chernatony and Riley 1998). The European Brands Association (2012) extends this ownership beyond products and services, defining brands as *'Copyright, chiefly in literary, musical, artistic, photographic and audio-visual work'*. This suggests that brands and the elements used in brand communications are also legal instruments providing ownership of intangible elements in the form of patents and rights and therefore legal protection against piracy.

Logos are the most typical representation of brands used by firms for differentiation and communication, with consumers portraying brands' personality and the firm's culture, people and ideology; in this way brands are defined as *'a name, design, term, symbol or any*

other feature that identifies a product or service and distinguishes it from others in the market' (American Marketing Association 1995, p. 27). This definition has been criticised for emphasising visual features as elements for brand differentiation (Arnold 1992; Crainer 1995; Jevons and Gabbott 2009), meaning that brands are much more than visual elements of identification. However, despite this criticism, other authors follow this line of thought defining brands as *'a distinguishing name and/or symbol such as logo, trademark or package design intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors'* (Aaker 1991p, 7) as well as *'a name, term, sign, or a combination of these, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors'* (Kotler, Wong et al. 2005p. 549), whilst Kapferer (2008p. 10) refers to *'a sign or set of signs certifying the origin of a product or service and differentiating it from the competition'*.

The above definitions converge on the fundamental purpose of differentiation indicating that brands are mainly formed by visual elements that aid in achieving brand image goals by facilitating brand recognition and influencing brand selection in consumers (Henderson and Cote 1998). However, one major drawback from this approach is that it is feature-oriented, failing to recognise that brand differentiation is also about finding an attribute important to consumers and that the brand acquires connotations in consumers' minds through their experiences (de Chernatony and Riley 1997).

Although this may be true, this criticism is in part questionable as a logo and other visual features of the brand are important for consumer brand recognition in facilitating the selection process and an important element for branding strategies (Henderson and Cote 1998). This is supported by Farquhar (1989, p. 25) in referring to *'a name, term, design or mark that enhances the value of a product beyond its functional purpose'* as well as by Kotler

(1991, p.442): *' a brand is a name, a term, symbol or design, or a combination of them which is intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or groups of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors'* that emphasise the visual manifestations of the brand. Nike's swoosh, Coca-Cola's combination of red colour and bottle shape, McDonald's golden arches and Mercedes' star are examples of brand logos instantly recognised by consumers.

Brands as companies are defined as *'a projection of the amalgamated values of the corporation that enable it to build a coherent trusted relationship with stakeholders'* (de Chernatony 2001, p.31); this definition suggests that corporate brands represent the organisation's principles and add value to the stakeholder's relationship. In essence, the consumer-company value-added relationship occurs when the brand value built by the company generates positive changes in consumer behaviour towards the brand, securing long-term revenue and opportunities for growth, consequently generating value for the business.

As a company, the brand represents characteristic values that differentiate one firm from another in the form of its culture, people and offerings that are unique to each company, where lines of products and/or services are associated with the corporate name and add direction for strategic positioning and communication programmes. Consequently, the brand, as a company's characteristic, delineates the type of organisation and creates a specific identity, which is how the brand transmits its identity to the stakeholders.

Brand as identity is the sum of all the outward brand expressions and how firms want their brands to be perceived in the market; this involves brand communications adopting a holistic approach to develop brand positioning in the minds of consumers. Brand identity is considered one of the key roles of brands from the firm perspective and implies that

consumers associate brands with functional benefits obtained from its use. Therefore, a successful positioning strategy links a brand to a product category aiming to be a reference point for consumers (de Chernatony 2001); for instance, Coca-Cola aims to position its products worldwide as refreshing carbonated drinks associated with optimism and happiness (Vrontis and Sharp 2003).

However, consumers may have brand attitudes differing from the organisation (de Chernatony and Riley 1997), and if these interpretations are negative, they create reputation and image problems for the brand. Exemplifying this, the Coca-Cola corporation's practices and its products have been scrutinised by environmental, health and corporate activists and accused of devastating the environment and communities where their plants operate, spreading toxic pollution, violating worker's rights and encouraging younger generations to consume unhealthy products. Also, exclusive soda contracts with schools have fuelled a childhood obesity crisis (Blanding 2010), leading to serious crises and boycotts with negative effects for the identity of the brand.

As has been noted, from an 'input' perspective, a brand is a combination of elements created and communicated by the firm following their branding strategy. While a variety of brand definitions have been suggested, this thesis considers Interbrand's (2007p. 14) definition: *'a mixture of attributes, tangible and intangible, symbolised in a trademark, which, if managed properly, creates value and influence'*. This is more suitable for the explanation of the concept of brand from the firm's perspective as it incorporates all of the elements (noticeable and unnoticeable) that constitute a brand as an asset for the company.

2.9.2. Brand interpretation from a consumer's perspective

Having explained the definition of brands from a firm's perspective, this section defines brands from a consumer's perspective; from this point of view brands are conceptualised as an 'output' or an entity developed from their existing mind associations as a consequence of direct or indirect experiences with the brand.

Defining brands as images are prevalent interpretations of the concept from a consumer's perspective. Brand image is the result of brand communication generated either by firms or consumers, reflecting specific interpretations about the brand (Keller 1993; American Marketing Association 2012). From the consumer perspective, brands are defined much the same as from firms' viewpoint as *'the promise of the bundles of attributes that someone buys and provide satisfaction, the attributes that make up a brand may be real or illusory, rational or emotional, tangible or invisible'* (Ambler 1992, p.17). In other words, for consumers, brands represent much more than just the visual representation or logo. With this in mind, this definition suggests that images are subjective and reflect the consumer's experiences with the brand; therefore, it may not be representative of what the brand actually is. A study by Sekuler and Blake (1994) suggests that images require the acquisition and processing of information in the form of a stimulus, which alters the person's reactions towards the object. The person then characterises the stimulus in term of expectations, prejudices and beliefs (Britt 1978).

Under those circumstances, images may be based on past experiences, the product of marketing efforts and consumer's experiences with the brand. Danes et al. (2012) support this argument, suggesting that brand images are formed by people's associations of signs,

symbols, thoughts, feelings and experiences with the brand, and that may or may not reflect objective reality about the brand.

Therefore, this implies that brands as images represent the sum of their functional and psychological attributes and benefits for consumers as suggested by Gardner and Levy's (1955p, 35) definition: *'A brand name is more than the label employed to differentiate among the manufacturers of a product. It is a complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes. It tells the consumers many things, not only by the way it sounds but, more importantly, via the body of associations it has built up and acquired as public object over a period of time'*.

Brands can also be defined by having human characteristics; from this perspective, consumers consider brands as an extension of their own personality and characteristics (Aaker 1997), where brands serve a symbolic or self-expressive function (Keller 1993). An important aspect of this characteristic is that it can help in understanding people's perceptions and attitudes towards the brands. Following Coca-Cola as an example, the brand is associated with personality attributes of coolness, realness and being all-American (Pendergrast 1993); however, this human characterisation of a brand may not always be beneficial to the brand in affecting the consumer-brand relationships and their assessment of the brand.

Defining brands from a relationship point of view is an extension of the concept of brand personality. From this perspective, brands are considered *'an expression of the relationship between consumer and product'* (American Marketing Association 1995, p. 27). Similar to human relationships, brand-consumer relationships can also be positive or negative. Studies conducted by Fournier (1998) and Agarwal (2004) demonstrate that brand-consumer relationships are based on inferences about the brand constructed by consumers that convey human emotions, such as brands that inspire love, memories or enjoyment. The brand then

adds a degree of value in the consumer's perception, influencing brand evaluations and attitudes.

Brands can also be defined as adding extra value to the core benefits of a product or service in the mind of consumers. This non-functional value is a major motivation for consumers to buy or use a product or service (Wood 1996). In this regard, Jones and Slater (2003, p.32) define brands as '*a product that provides a functional benefit plus added values that some consumers value enough to buy*'; although this definition refers to a 'product', it encompasses the idea that brands are the catalyst in the purchasing process adding value to the expected benefit from the purchase. This value proposition goes beyond the functional benefits of the brand to achieve emotional and self-expressive benefits for consumers (Aaker 1996); as appreciated in consumer behaviour literature, people attribute subjective meanings to products in addition to the functional characteristics that they possess (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). Therefore, new brand meanings evolve beyond the utilitarian attributes.

Other authors follow this line of reasoning, arguing that those benefits beyond the functional benefits are considered relevant and unique, and therefore brands are considered '*an identifiable product, service, person or place augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant unique added values which match their needs closely*' (de Chernatony and McDonald 1994, p. 18). Once more, this definition supports the previous one, situating the importance of the brand in the purchasing process as a catalyst for the decision. Thus, from the consumer perspective, brands represent a link between a functional benefit and its representation in the consumer's mind, and this value allows firms to differentiate brands, achieve competitive advantage and charge premium prices (de Chernatony and Riley 1998).

2.9.3. Brands interpretation as evolving entities

Having established that brands can be defined and evaluated from the firm and consumer perspective, brands can also be defined as dynamic entities that evolve from an 'input' to an 'output' perspective; this means that ownership of the brand is transferred from firms to consumers (de Chernatony and Riley 1998). In this regard, Farquhar's (1989p. 25) previously mentioned definition of brands (*'a name, symbol, design, or mark that enhances the value of a product beyond its functional purpose. Depending on which perspective is considered, the brand can have added value to the firm, the trade, or the consumer'*) acquires a more meaningful connotation.

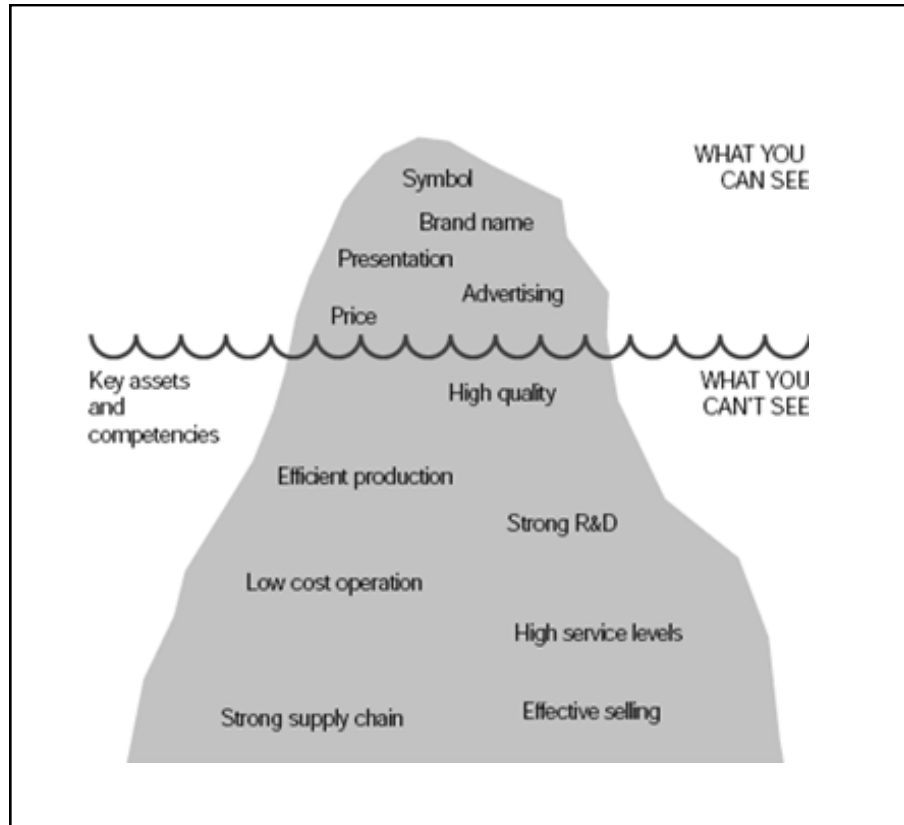
This suggests that brands not only exist to serve managerial purposes of identification and protection against competitors but to create value to consumers that goes beyond the utilitarian benefits of a product or service. In other words, brands are holistic entities that match an organisation's activities with consumer's perceptions. Brands become *'meaningful symbols'* for all sectors of society (Goodyear 1996, p. 112). This brand evolution is nurtured by the emergence of new technologies, and the shift of ownership and control over brands leads to a co-production, which implies a consumer value creation that otherwise was done by the firm (Wikstrom 1995). In this creation of value, consumers are involved to different degrees ranging from the design and production of a new product or service in the development process, to the communication of brand information (Harwood and Gary 2010). Furthermore, technological advances also facilitate consumer creativity, cultivating people's *'capabilities for production, conceptualisation, or development of novel, useful ideas, processes of procedures that may be applied towards solving consumption related problems'*, as pointed out by Hirschman (1980).

This is evident in the influence consumers have over brand communication where brands become accessible cultural resources with dynamic, dialectical relationships that help liberate consumers from the control of brand communication generated by the firms (Holt 2002, p. 80). Consequently, Füller, Mühlbacher et al. (2009) argue that consumers engaged in the brand value creation processes feel more empowered and brands are no longer a firm commodity but part of consumers' idiosyncrasy.

Drawing from the previously discussed definitions, it can be noted that brands have two levels of meaning: one for firms and one for consumers; this means that each stakeholder makes the brands and what they represent their own. In this connection, with technological advances consumers are active participants in brand value creation; therefore, this evolutionary perspective suggests that firms should be cognisant of consumer brand interpretation and consider consumer's attitudes to develop their marketing strategies.

Drawing from the above discussion, it can be argued that brands are much more than logos or physical elements of differentiation that are just the outward representations of what the brand truly represents. This notion can be illustrated with Davidson's (2004) analogy of brands as an iceberg in figure 2-5: the tip of the iceberg is the visual identity of the brand, what is appreciated in the marketplace including the brand name and marks; conversely, what is unseen in the market is the brand strategy developed by firms to delineate the differentiating factors as well as the core-competences of the firm and its competitive advantage.

Figure 2-5 Analogy of brands as icebergs



Source: Davidson (2004, p. 243)

Drawing on this representation, it is arguable that Davidson's (2004) analogy has an 'input' approach and observes the brand only from a firm's perspective where the product, packaging, label are the outward elements created by the firm that can be seen. A more evolutionary approach of this analogy would observe the brand from a consumer's 'output' perspective as well, where consumers also make the brand as their own by generating tangible brand representations as result of brand experiences.

Drawing from the review of the previously discussed brand definitions and assessing the brand elements suggested in the literature, this study defines brands from an evolutionary perspective (i.e. from firm and consumer perspective combined) as: *'a combination of tangible and intangible elements and perceptions that provide a benefit to firms and consumers'*; in other words, a brand is a mixture of attributes that provide benefits for firms, at their most basic level serving as markers for the offering and source of revenue. For consumers, brands simplify choice, reduce risk and/or engender trust (Keller and Lehmann 2006).

2.10. The importance of brands for stakeholders

Drawing from the previous sections it can be argued that brands are an amalgamation of intangible and tangible elements that provide benefits for stakeholders; consequently brands are worthy entities for firms and consumers (McCracken 1993). To that end, brands are often associated with the benefits provided to stakeholders, often associated with brand value and equity and even though both concepts are closely related, they represent two different meanings and are regularly confused in brand literature.

For instance, Aaker's (1991, p 15) seminal brand equity definition is *'set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbols, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and or that firm's customers'*; this alludes to value for both the firm and consumers. Conversely, the American Marketing Association (1995, p. 28) defines brand equity as *'the brand value based on consumer attitudes about positive brand attributes and favourable consequences of brand use'*. This suggests that consumer evaluations and behaviour create demand allowing firms to set a price for a branded product; therefore, it is arguable that brand equity is one factor of brand value (Raggio and Leone

2007; Tiwari 2010). Conversely, brand value relates to what the brand is worth in financial terms to management and shareholders and can be recorded in balance books (Raggio and Leone 2007); therefore the semantic interpretation of the concept of 'value' might be the cause for confusion between equity and value and the reason why it is used interchangeably.

To address this issue, Keller and Lehmann (2006) identify three different perspectives upon which brand equity has been approached: the first one is related to the strength of consumer attachment to the brand and the associations and beliefs the consumer has about the brand, whereas the remaining two are related to the firm and refer to the total value of a brand as a separate asset and the price that firms can set related to the brand. This position is validated by Ailawadi, Neslin et al. (2003) who argue that branded goods allow firms to increase revenues if the adequate marketing mix results in positive brand communication.

Another important aspect drawn from Aaker's (1991) definition is that brands may represent not only positive value to the firm and/or the consumer but also may be a source of negative equity. This seems to suggest that even when firms attempt to produce a successful marketing mix in order to influence the consumer's attitudes and perceptions about a brand, it is the consumer's attitudes and perceptions that decide the success or failure of a brand.

Empirical studies on changes in consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) suggest that although brand crises are bound to exist, negative media content can change perceptions and attitudes towards brand reputations; in this regard, Fan, Geddes and Flory's (2013) study based on quantitative media content scores used a model to predict consumers' trends in their attitudes to Toyota following public opinions from blogs, Internet forums, newspapers and online news. They found that public opinion about the brand dropped precipitously after the product recall, and this change was triggered by media sharing the public's opinion about the

brand. This suggests that brand equity is indeed part of the value of the brand as it is related to the success or failure of the brand and can be measured from a financial perspective; however, different from brand value, it considers external circumstances to the firm or brand owner (Raggio and Leone 2007; 2009).

2.10.1. Firm-Based Brand Equity

The literature suggests that brand-equity relates to the financial value of the brand as one of the firm's principal assets, regarding the revenue brands generate; as previously mentioned, Ailawadi, Lehmann et al. (2003) support this argument with a study whose results demonstrated that brands have financial value on the firm's balance sheets and financial transactions.

Furthermore, BE also represents protection against competitors, and image or a source of reputation. Empirical studies have demonstrated how brand equity positively affects shareholder value (Kerin and Sethuraman 1998; Ailawadi, Neslin et al. 2003), rigidity of prices (Erdem, Swait et al. 2002) and the ability of BE to withstand a crisis (Dawar and Pillutla 2000). By measuring the product and financial market outcome, these studies are able to measure brand equity as the value of the brand to the firm; where marketplace indicators are used to measure the outcome are revenue, profit or price premium as categorised by Keller (2003).

Another importance of brand equity is that by enhancing the perceived quality of the product, brand equity may provide value to the firm and a trusted well-known brand name may increase consumption. Brand equity can also provide a platform for brand extensions and can provide leverage in the distribution channel; a trusted brand name that is proven reduces the surprise factor and may reduce uncertainties about new products from the same brand.

2.10.2. Consumer-Based Brand Equity

From the consumer's perspective, consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) is based on the individuals' brand mindset and regarded as the '*differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand*' (Keller 1993, p2); in other words, CBBE involves consumers' reactions to an element of the marketing mix. These reactions occur when consumers are familiar with the brand and hold brand associations in their memory that may be positive or negative towards the brand; this implies that the individual's memory structure plays an important role in the conceptualisation of CBBE, which can be based on cognitive psychology.

Consumer-based brand equity may also act as a transmitting agent within the context of information economics, with specific characteristics of the brand, through acting as a signal transmitted to consumers (Erdem and Swait 1998); these signals are formed by the totality of marketing activities, which in turn generate value in consumers by creating a sense of security as a result of brand knowledge. Therefore, CBBE is the value of the brand signal to consumers (Erdem and Swait 1998; Erdem, Swait et al. 2006).

Christodoulides and de Chernatony's (2010, p. 48) conceptualise CBBE as '*a set of perceptions, attitudes, knowledge and behaviours on the part of consumers that results in increased utility and allows a brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it could without the brand name*'; this definition assumes that the conceptualisation of CBBE is based on cognitive psychology and information economics research streams and will be followed in this study.

Research suggests that consumers react differently to the marketing mix for a particular product based on whether the product is branded or not; this implies that the

perceived-quality of an unbranded product is less credible for consumers, and the differential benefit between brand and unbranded products is greater when the market is highly brand-differentiated (Tsao, Berthon et al. 2011). Consumers, therefore, associate branded products with a specific benefit and are willing to pay prices in accordance to the perceived benefit from branded products, which in turn may have an impact on a firm's long-term revenue (Keller 1993).

2.11. The role of advertising in consumer-based brand equity

In regard to brand communications specifically, advertising plays an important role in brand equity by transmitting information that provides brand presence in the marketplace; this means that the role of brand communication in brand equity building is to develop thoughts, feelings, perceptions, images, attitudes and experiences that become linked to the brand in the mind of consumers where their responses are based on brand knowledge and their perceptions of quality and trust, as well as the favourability of associations or their attitudes towards the brand.

Brand communications aim to achieve short-term objectives (brand switching and purchase), and long-term objectives (purchase reinforcement and habitual loyalty) by developing cognitive-affective states in the minds of consumers. In this regard, Keller (1993, p. 8) suggests that it is the consumer's reactions to brand communication which ultimately decide the outcome of CBBE; Florack and Scarabis' (1996) empirical study supports this argument pointing out that the brand claims in brand communication are closely related to the associations and recall of the brand in consumers' minds. Based in two quantitative experiments, this study found out that effective brand communication claims about a brand provides consumers with positive mental associations.

In this connection, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) propose a model of how brand communication works in consumers' mind by suggesting that when people watch advertisements, emotional, affective and behavioural aspects are triggered simultaneously in their minds; however, this model was not empirically tested. In fact, Bruce, Peters and Naik's (2012) study provides the first empirical evidence that brand communication and more specifically advertising simultaneously contributes to sales growth and brand building; in other words, to brand equity.

Drawing from the above discussion, it can be argued that brand communications are undertaken with the aim of changing or reinforcing consumer attitudes about brands; therefore, this study considers CBBE as a composite of brand-related beliefs including brand attitudes, desirability, perceptions and purchase intentions (Aaker 1991; Agarwal and Rao 1996). In this connection, Keller and Lehmann (2003) describe five dimensions of the consumer mindset which are related to CBBE: brand awareness (recall and recognition); brand associations (strength, favourability and uniqueness of perceived benefits and attributes); brand attitudes (perceived quality of, and satisfaction with, the brand); attachment (or loyalty); and activity (how much consumers talk about, use, seek out information and promotions regarding the brand).

This study focusses on the attitudinal dimension as brand attitudes are believed to form the basis of consumer behaviour (Kassarjian and Robertson 1981); this relation has been investigated from two different angles in relation to their origins. A study on brand equity development conducted by Cobb-Walgren, Ruble and Donthu (1995) concluded that CBBE had an impact on brand attitudes and consumer preferences and purchase intention. Conversely, Faircloth, Capella and Alford (2001) studied the causal relationship from the reverse point of view, arguing that brand attitudes and perceptions have an effect on brand

equity, and these results confirm the argument of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) that positive brand attitudes influence purchase or usage intentions and enhance brand equity.

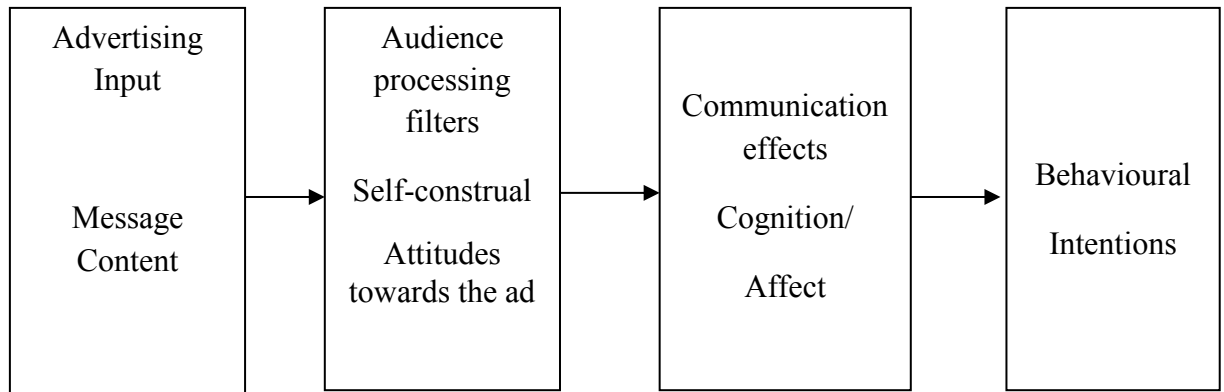
2.12. Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature related to advertising communications, its foundations and its effects on consumers' attitudes and behaviours, especially related to brands and the role of brand communication as tools for brand equity building with the aim to develop thoughts, feelings, perceptions, images and experiences that become linked to the brand in the mind of consumers (Romaniuk and Nicholls 2006).

The literature suggests that advertising is the principal strategy used to change or reinforce the consumer mindset about brands. Based on the discussion provided in the previous sections of this chapter, this thesis understands that advertising communication operates on a flexible hierarchy of effects.

In order to adopt a theoretical structure to understand advertising dynamics, drawing from Rossiter and Percy's (1985) and Vakratsas and Ambler's (1999) parsimonious advertising communication models, a nomological model of advertising communication model is developed including the constructs pertaining to this study as illustrated in figure 2-6, which consists of variables from cognitive psychology and communication theories pertaining to this study.

Figure 2-6 Thesis approach of how advertising works



This model suggests that advertising is represented by a discernible stimulus broadcasted via mass media to generate a response in consumers; this stimulus is filtered through the receiver's psycho-social characteristics, more specifically of self-construal, which influence the information processing, generating attitudes towards the ad which may alter the consumer response to advertising. Once the message has been filtered, intermediate effects in the mind of consumers occur in the form of cognitive and affective responses, which in turn will develop into creating or changing behavioural intentions leading to overt behaviours.

In order to understand advertising effectiveness in audiences, a psychological perspective was considered, critically evaluating the main theories of the attitude-behaviour relationship. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 1985) with the element of behavioural intentions was considered suitable to the understanding of the effects of attitudes on behaviours. Furthermore, in line with the research objectives of this thesis, the Heuristic-Systematic Model of persuasion (Chaiken, Liberman et al. 1989) was also found to be suitable to the understanding of how people manage persuasive advertising messages as they are related to the social conventions of their group. This argument in turn is related to the construct of self-construal, considered to be an important element in the understanding of advertising effectiveness.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW (II)

User-Generated Advertising, the Internet and Social Media

3.1. Introduction

Technological and communication advances, the Internet and the growth of social media facilitate the public's creation and broadcasting of their own informative and entertainment material related to personal experiences and brands, allowing people to perform marketing functions traditionally carried out by firms. The previous chapter provided a comprehensive review of literature regarding advertising messages, communication theory and its effects on consumers' brand attitudes and behaviours; this discussion provides a framework to understand the phenomenon of user-generated advertising examined in this chapter.

The proliferation of UGC epitomises a shift in media and communication technology where traditional one-to-many media evolve into many-to-many participative communications. The following sections provide a review of the existing literature on user-generated advertising, its origins and effects on Internet users; special attention is directed to the Internet and social media as important vehicles for user-generated advertising diffusion to frame the context of YouTube as a user-generated content community.

3.2. User Generated Advertising

User-generated advertising (UGA) refers to the consumers' creation and broadcasting of advertising messages; the phenomenon of consumer-created brand communications is not new and can be appreciated in word-of-mouth, testimonials or advertising pages in

newspapers or magazines, and it has been studied for nearly fifty years (Jevons and Christodoulides 2010). The advent of the Internet and moving images on the Internet facilitate the proliferation of UGA, placing this phenomenon within an important position in academics' and marketing practitioners' interests.

Similar to firm-generated advertising, UGA aims to persuade and influence consumer attitudes and behaviour (Petty and Cacioppo 1983); however, as UGA is created by consumers, other motivations as intrinsic enjoyment, self-promotion in social media and intentions to change people's perceptions may exist rather than with the aim of increasing sales and commercial revenue (Berthon, Pitt et al. 2008; Campbell, Pitt et al. 2011).

Drawing from the nomological framework of advertising explained in the previous chapter³, UGA as a form of brand communication is believed to contain similar elements to firm-generated advertising, including components as the message, the media on which it is transmitted, a receiver or audience and the intended effects for which the message is created, with the difference that it is produced by consumers and Internet users. The concept of UGA is related to a specific brand focus, including testimonials, product reviews and user-generated commercials, and it is a subset of the more general idea of user-generated content (UGC) which is related to the creation and transmission of other non-brand related content (Salwen and Sacks 2008 p.199). The next section is dedicated to exploring the literature related to the definition and drivers of user-generated content in general considered important to the understanding of user-generated advertising.

³ See figure 2-6.

3.3. User-Generated Content

User-generated content (UGC) refers to the creation and broadcasting of messages on the Internet and other electronic forms of communication (i.e. smart phones and tablets), increasingly used by people to share ideas and opinions and diffused via social media sites like YouTube, Facebook and Twitter (Gangadharbatla 2008). User-generated content can appear in the form of text, music and audio, still images and photos, video and film, or a combination of these (see appendix 1). These formats are linked to distribution channels that can support the nature and the content (OECD 2007; Burmann and Arnhold 2008). However, considering the possible combination of content and the nature of some channels, it is difficult to restrict UGC to a specific channel (see appendix 2). The rationale to make this distinction is that it applies to YouTube, given that videos may be diffused via other channels as embedded in Facebook or as an attachment on Twitter.

Although the phenomenon of user-generated content (UGC) represents an important area of study for academics and practitioners, there is no widely accepted definition or consensus about the terminology used to describe this phenomenon. Some scholars refer to this phenomenon in different terms as '*User Generated Content*' (Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2012), others as '*Consumer Generated Content*' (Muñiz and Schau 2007) and yet others as '*User Created Content*' (OECD 2007); however, all of them converge in one important aspect: Internet users digitally creating and broadcasting their own content.

One of the most widely used definitions of UGC from The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) describes it as '*content made publicly available over the Internet, which reflects a certain amount of creative effort and is created outside of*

professional routines and practices’ (OECD 2007, p. 8.). This definition highlights three important characteristics: First, the *origin* or creation outside professional activities and practices; in other words, UGC is not remunerated; second, its *creative element* which implies that UGC requires a certain amount of creative effort in its generation or adapting existing material into a new one; in other words, UGC includes a creative contribution. Finally, its *diffusion*, referring to UGC to be publicly accessible on a website, page or a social networking site: in essence, a person may create a video and post it on YouTube. These characteristics are considered the foundation to the understanding of UGC and will be used as a framework to analyse the different UGC definitions in the literature as compared in table 3.1.

Table 3-1 Most Widely Accepted User Generated Content definitions

Author	Definition	Characteristic		
		Origin	Creativity	Diffusion
OECD (2007)	<i>‘Content made publicly available over the Internet which reflects a certain amount of creative effort and is created outside of professional routines and practices’</i>	*	*	*
IAB (2008)	<i>‘Any material created and uploaded to the Internet by non-media professionals’</i>	*		*
European Commission (2008)	<i>‘User-created content refers to content made publicly available through telecommunication networks, which reflects a certain amount of creative efforts, and is created outside of the professional routines and practices’</i>	*	*	*

Krishnamurthy and Dou (2008)	<i>'Opinions, experiences, advice and commentary about products, brands, companies and services, usually from personal experience, that exists in consumer-created postings on Internet discussion boards, forums, Usenet newsgroups and blogs'</i>	*		*
Cheong and Morrison (2008)	<i>'Content usually generated by ordinary people who are not trained marketers'</i>	*		
Daugherty et al. (2008)	<i>'Media content that is created or produced by the general public rather than by paid professionals and is primarily distributed on the Internet'</i>	*		*
Kaplan and Haenlein (2010)	<i>'The sum of all ways in which people make use of social media'</i>			*
Christodoulides et al. (2012)	<i>'Content created by consumers that is made available through publicly accessible transmission of media such as the Internet, and reflects some degree of creative effort and is created with no monetary remuneration, outside professional routines and practices'</i>	*	*	*

Source: The author

Four main observations can be made from table 3.1. First, all authors converge on the nature of the creator of UGC which is considered to be a consumer or any person outside the firm boundaries; furthermore, most definitions coincide in ordinary consumers and not professionals with commercial purposes. One limitation of these definitions is that they highlight UGA creation of 'non-media professionals' or 'trained marketers' regarding anyone who does not work in the media-advertising business, as seen in Cheong and Morrison's (2008) definition. However, creators may be media and marketing professionals who create

UGC for personal purposes not seeking monetary remuneration outside their professional duties and commitments, as pointed out by Daugherty's et al. (2008) definition, which made a clear distinction on the remunerative aspect of UGC creation. Consequently, any person (professional or non-professional) who generates UGC for purposes other than to fulfil remunerative-oriented objectives may be a UGC creator.

Second, most definitions overlook the element of *creative consumers* with the exception of the OECD (2007), The European Commission (2006) and Christodoulides et al. (2012); this element is considered essential for UGC as individuals' expression and participation in the culture of social media. Berthon, Pitt et al. (2007, p. 43) define creative consumers as '*individuals or groups who adapt, modify or transform a proprietary offering such as a product or a service*', and from a marketing perspective the implications of creative consumers is brand value creation spanning from brand comments in media like Facebook or Twitter, to the creation of videos to promote or demote a brand posted on YouTube (Muñiz Jr and Schau 2011; Berthon, Pitt et al. 2012). In this regard, the definition of Christodoulides et al. (2012) connects with the importance of understanding users' motivating factors to engage in UGC creation and which delineate the valence of the UGC. Furthermore, the definition of Christodoulides et al. (2012) specifically refers to *brand communications*, which is of particular importance in this study.

Furthermore, Christodoulides et al. (2012) highlight the concept of co-creation, in which a firm retains control of the content by 'inviting' consumers to participate in the development process (Harwood and Gary 2010). Through co-creation consumers obtain ownership of the brand and empowerment and firms obtain brand value and control of consumer-collaborative efforts (Wikstrom 1995; Füller, Mühlbacher et al. 2009).

Third, each definition is purpose-defined to fit within the context of the overall study. For instance, Krishnamurthy and Dou (2008), Cheong and Morrison (2008) and Christodoulides et al. (2012) define UGC within the framework of consumer experiences with products and services, which is in accordance with the objectives of this study. However, UGC can also cover a broader spectrum including personal events, music videos, stories, and news (OECD 2007; Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008). Because of divergent opinions, caution must be exercised when adopting a definition of UGC, as one researcher's definition may not be consistent with that of another.

Finally, regarding the diffusion of UGC, most definitions consider it as freely available on the Internet (OECD 2007; IAB 2008; Krishnamurthy and Dou 2008). For instance, Krishnamurthy and Dou's (2008) study refers to the diffusion of UGC as 'posted on Internet platforms'. One limitation of this definition is that UGC is not exclusively Internet-based and may be available through other telecommunication networks (i.e. SMS messages). The OECD (2007), IAB (2008) and Krishnamurthy and Dou (2008) regard the Internet as the sole network of communication; whereas the definitions of Daugherty et al. (2008) and Christodoulides et al. (2012) leave room for other networks of communication by stating that the Internet is the *primary* platform of diffusion. Effectively, this suggests that main channels include Web 2.0 platforms including blogs, review sites, social networking and video sharing sites; however, UGC distribution is not limited to the Internet as a unique channel, and traditional media should also be included, which is the case of firm-controlled UGC broadcasted on television during the Super Bowl in the United States where brands encourage consumers to participate in creating brand content which subsequently will be used by firms as advertising campaigns.

Drawing from the above definitions (OECD 2007; Cheong and Morrison 2008; Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008; IAB 2008; Krishnamurthy and Dou 2008; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2012), this thesis will consider UGC strictly from a brand-related perspective and will be defined as *a piece of brand-related communication generated voluntarily by people outside professional marketing and advertising practices, which includes a certain degree of creative effort and broadcasted through telecommunication networks*. In essence, UGC is the non-remunerated creative brand content creation which is available through any telecommunication media and channel.

3.3.1. User's motivations for creating user-generated content

User-generated content (UGC) creation involves a complex psycho-social mechanism which requires an extensive examination which is beyond the scope of this study aiming to understand its effects on audiences; however, it is necessary to define why people engage in content creation in order to understand its effects.

Research on motivations for UGC creation (Muñiz and Schau 2007; Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008; Krishnamurthy and Dou 2008; Smith 2009; Kozinets, de Valck et al. 2010; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2012) concludes that people's online brand activity follows a combination of psycho-social motivations; for instance, a recent study by Christodoulides, Jevons et al. (2012) identified four major constructs. First, *empowerment*, or the freedom and authority social media gives people to make decisions regarding creation and diffusing UGA (Pires, Stanton et al. 2006). This motivation is supported by studies by Schau and Gilly (2003), Pires, Stanton et al. (2006), Muñiz and Schau (2007), Daugherty, Eastin et al. (2008) and Berthon et al. (2008), converging in that by creating UGA, people fulfil needs of power and control over the information communicated about brands and express personal opinions.

Second, *self-concept* (or self-presentation) or '*a person's perception of itself, and these perceptions are formed through the person's experiences with and interpretations of their environment*' (Shavelson and Bolus 1982, p. 3). Self-concept refers to individuals' self-expression and promotion on social media; in this regard, studies (Muñiz and Schau 2007; Stoeckl, Rohrmeier et al. 2007; Daugherty, Eastin et al. 2008) agree that people engage in content creation as a mechanism of self-disclosure and self-promotion. In essence, people engage in content creation to express themselves and display their creativity and also to attract attention to themselves; people use social media to display their creative talents and opinions related to brands, products and firms (Schau and Gilly 2003). Therefore, people use social media for self-presentation and to differentiate from others within the social context by expressing their beliefs in a creative manner (Chen and Marcus 2012).

Third, through *co-creation* people collaborate in existing company-created activities creating value through UGC (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004). Co-creation activities benefit individuals, by conferring brand ownership as a result of the participative creation process, and firms, by controlling brand content as well as idea generation and product development (Berthon, Pitt et al. 2007; Harwood and Gary 2010).

By fostering co-creation and consumer brand ownership, firms also can establish a foothold within networks and create a presence by engaging with customers who share insight. Furthermore, creative consumer involvement and empowerment through UGC in brand-building experiences may have a positive effect and favourably influence their perception and trust in the brand that may exceed loyalty to an objective assessment of brand value (Joachimsthaler and Aaker 1997; Füller, Mühlbacher et al. 2009).

Finally, *community* and *participation*, which are related to social media, can also be discerned from the literature. The previously mentioned studies have concluded that people create UGC as a mechanism of risk reduction, to change perception and influence people, to fulfil feelings of power and control and also to participate in social discussions to communicate and connect with other people. For instance, social networks, brand communities and video-sharing platforms as YouTube allow people to share information, ideas and thoughts, representing a place of interaction that provides users with a sense of belonging. Research on the social structure of online communities and social networks (Garton, Haythornthwaite et al. 1997; Maclaran and Catteral 2002; Boyd and Ellison 2007), the social relationships and the influence of these communities (Dholakia, Bagozzi et al. 2004; Ridings and Gefen 2004; Gangadharbatla 2008) and the social network structure of YouTube (Lange 2007; Paolillo 2008; Xu, Dale et al. 2008) have found that the Internet and computer communications are a social revolution where people seek identification and interpersonal relationships with others of similar interests. These online communities present the same social ties between members as those presented in off-line social communities; therefore, UGA creators may feel socially motivated by their role within a certain community.

3.3.2. User-generated advertising valence

An important aspect of UGC is the creator's brand sentiment and how it affects the valence of the video which may not always be positive; instead video valence can be positive, negative or neutral (Hoffman and Fodor 2010; Smith, Fischer et al. 2012). This implies that UGA creators play the role of promoters or detractors of the brand in social media (Muñiz and Schau 2007; Berthon, Pitt et al. 2008). This important characteristic that differentiates firm-

generated advertising from UGC is of particular importance in understanding the effects of UGA on consumers.

For instance, in online anti-brand communities and some social networks, consumers express their negative thoughts about brand experiences, representing a source of negative publicity for brands which may impact consumer-consumption and brand value (Weinberger and Lepkowska-White 2000; Kucuk 2008; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk 2009). As firms have limited control over the content of UGA, brands become vulnerable to negative information as negative reviews and comments of brand detractors can harm their reputation and have economic repercussions on product sales volume (Ghose and Ipeiritis 2009). This negative publicity may have its origins in dissatisfied customers, unhappy employees or corporate malpractice, and its diffusion in social media may result in losses in profits and market share (Pitt, Berthon et al. 2002; Reichheld 2004).

Previous studies on the impact of negative publicity (Scott and Tybout 1981; Tybout, Calder et al. 1981) demonstrate that people process information following cognitive experiences, and their responses are a combination of product perception and information processing. Specifically, people process information through mental association with the product and the product attributes stored in their memory; therefore, a person loyal to a brand with positive experiences will not likely change attitudes and behaviour as a result of exposure to negative publicity from UGA. Likewise, the correlation existing between negative brand beliefs resulting from adverse information and brand usage has been previously examined (Weinberger and Lepkowska-White 2000; Winchester and Romaniuk 2008), demonstrating that consumers' past brand experiences may have a major effect in this relationship, and subsequently trigger the creation of negative UGA.

However, preliminary work on the effects of negative information and brand usage (Richey, Koenigs et al. 1975; Weinberger, Allen et al. 1981) concludes that unfavourable product information may have a much stronger influence than similar amounts of favourable information in the consumer's mind, suggesting that one negative comment about a brand, product or company is capable of neutralising five positive comments received about the same brand, which affects consumer decision making.

As previously mentioned, technological advances and the Internet foster people's interaction and the creation and diffusion of ideas and thoughts in the form of UGA; the next section evaluates extant literature related to the Internet and social media as important media of communication of UGA.

3.3.3. User's motivations for consumption of user-generated advertising

Empirical research on UGA consumption is scarce compared to research on UGA creation; three main drivers for UGC consumption can be identified in the literature (Bickart and Schindler 2001; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner et al. 2004; Goldsmith and Horowitz 2006; Kaye 2007; Cheong and Morrison 2008; Shao 2009): information seeking, entertaining and remuneration.

With regard to information seeking, a study on the blog use motivations conducted by Kaye (2007) concluded that people seek specific information, guidance and opinions from peers to assist them in decision making. Similarly, Cheong and Morrison (2008) make reference to people's reliance on consumer recommendations embedded in UGC, finding that as the information is assumed to be posted by other users, the information seeker often does not question the source of the comment and considers it as reliable, especially if the

information is unfavourable to the brand. Conversely, consumers are likely to conclude that firm-generated advertising most likely will be positively biased.

Additionally, this study found that people are more likely to seek product information before purchase, especially for non-convenience goods, where consumers obtain more extensive product information seeking risk reduction, as seen in Porter (1976), and compare this information with official brand messages. However, it should be noted that this study is based only on interviews of 17 participants, and it can be argued that although the study presents plausible results, the conclusions rely too heavily on a small sample which may not be representative of the UGA user population.

Second, with regard to entertainment, existing studies (Goldsmith and Horowitz 2006; Shao 2009; Mutinga, Moorman et al. 2011) demonstrate that people may also consume UGA for entertainment and to fulfil motivations of enjoyment, relaxation and leisure. For instance, Shao's (2009) study about the appeal of user-generated media finds that people seek information in UGA and also consume it for entertainment purposes, especially in contents such as videos, vlogs, pictures and music; however, the practical implications of this study should be carefully considered as it is based solely on theoretical grounds and not on empirical evidence. In this vein, the Mutinga, Moorman et al. (2011) study also concludes that entertainment is one important motivation for UGA consumption oriented to user's own satisfaction.

Finally, with regard to remuneration, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) and Goldsmith and Horowitz (2006) studies conclude that people engage in UGA consumption to seek remuneration or compensation; however, this argument is debatable on the grounds of this study as UGA is considered to be created outside the firm's control. Therefore, the creators'

motive clearly will not follow promotional brand purposes and will not be considered as a valid motive for UGA consumption.

Therefore, the two drivers of UGA consumption, information seeking and entertainment, are considered relevant to this study as they will delineate the effects UGA may have on brand attitudes and behaviours. For instance, a person who is actively engaged in the search of information about a brand may have a different perception of the information provided on a video from a person who watches a video for recreational purposes and therefore does not fully engage with the content of the video.

The cognitive information model discussed in the previous chapter⁴ applied to understanding UGA may be useful in cases where the nature of the video is informative (product reviews, how-tos, or tutorials). However, some researchers (Cheong and Morrison 2008) argue that a consumer's pre-purchase search for information on UGA may be minimal as compared with blogs or product reviews. However, this type of model excludes completely the emotional element from the process, and therefore it is not considered suitable for the understanding of all types of UGA. For instance, in the case of videos that are entertainment-based in nature, there are a number of limitations when applying this approach since brand information is not the primary information conveyed in this type of UGA.

⁴ Section 2.5

3.4. User-generated advertising: a creative form of electronic-word-of-mouth

Despite their theoretical differences, the diffusion of UGA is intricately related to word-of-mouth (WOM); more specifically, to its Internet or electronic version (eWOM). Consumers' engagement in brand conversations and recommendations or word-of-mouth (WOM) are '*oral, person to person communication between a receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial, concerning a brand, a product or a service*' (Arndt 1968, p. 3); when WOM takes place online or in electronic environments, it is regarded as eWOM, or '*any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual or former customers about a product or a company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet*' (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner et al. 2004, p. 39).

The general train of thought is that UGA is often considered as a form of eWOM (Krishnamurthy and Dou 2008; Campbell, Pitt et al. 2011); however, this approach is questionable as UGA and eWOM are thought to be considered analogous and interdependent (Burmam and Arnhold 2008; Cheong and Morrison 2008). For instance, UGA is the 'creative' generation and transmission of consumer-generated brand communications, and therefore the UGA creator is engaging in both the creation and the diffusion of content; conversely, a person who simply 'shares' content created by others is engaging only in eWOM without the creative aspect. In this regard, eWOM is then related to the diffusion act; more precisely, hence, we understand WOM as a channel of dissemination of brand-related UGC.

However, the importance of both UGA and eWOM is that these consumer-generated brand conversations are considered to be highly influential in forging consumer's attitudes

and buying behaviours; in this regard, empirical studies conclude that these conversations not only affect consumer behaviour and brand loyalty, having a strong impact on receivers' attitudes and decision-making, but also that people have the tendency to trust and follow peer recommendations about brands rather than firm-generated messages (Wangenheim and Bayón 2004).

One of the first studies about the importance of consumer communication pertaining to brands was conducted by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955), which found that consumer-to-consumer communications were an important form of influence on purchasing behaviour and twice as effective as firm-consumer advertising, as the impact of personal influence and information transmitted within interpersonal networks is believed to be greater than mass media communication. The study concluded that people regard peer recommendations as an unbiased truth about a brand, whereas mass advertisement is regarded as a sales tool from the firm.

A plausible explanation from this perspective may be found in the source credibility theory (Hovland and Weiss 1951), which focusses on how the receiver of a message perceives the sender as credible; this theory sustains that people consider a source credible according to their expertise and trustworthiness and therefore it is believed that peer recommendations may have greater influence on consumers than paid firm-generated advertisements. However, the effectiveness of these brand communications may also be influenced by the receiver's perspectives and characteristics as well as the characteristics of the message itself (Sweeney, Soutar et al. 2008).

According to a survey conducted among 1,200 consumers, 150 top brand marketers and 6,000 digital influencers, online word-of-mouth is considered an influential source of

brand attitude and purchase behaviour (Higgins 2013). This impact on attitudes and purchase behaviour relies on the notion that consumers trust more in brand information generated by peers than in information generated by firms; this assumption is supported by Cheong and Morrison's (2008) study on consumers' reliance on consumer-generated brand communications which concludes that end-user recommendations are more trustworthy: they are not always positive about products compared to commercial efforts to sell a product.

Having reviewed literature related to UGA, its creation and consumption, the following section will address extant literature pertaining to the Internet and social media as important vehicles of communication for UGA.

3.5. The World Wide Web and the Internet

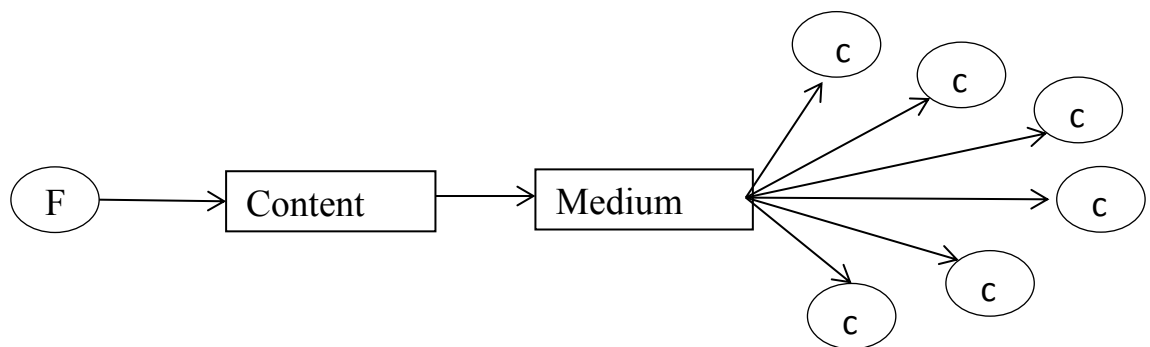
The Internet and World Wide Web (WWW) or Web are terms used interchangeably. However, technically these terms are not synonymous; the Web is a system of computer servers connected through the Internet, which supports the exchange of files in the form of WebPages. Its importance is that it allows human interaction based on technological networks; specifically, it is a techno-social system of communication that enhances communication and cooperation (Aghaei, Nematbakhsh et al. 2012). From a marketing perspective, it is an important tool for firm-consumer and consumer-to-consumer communication and interaction where consumers engage directly in brand communications that may not be controlled by the brand.

Its first generation, Web 1.0, was considered a read-only platform and a system of knowledge gathering where businesses broadcast information providing catalogues or brochures similar to advertisements in newspapers and magazines to present their products and services for consumers to retrieve and contact the firm; it provided limited consumer interactions or content contributions (Cormode and Krishnamurthy 2008; Aghaei, Nematbakhsh et al. 2012). Although Web 1.0 did allow communication between firms and consumers, it was mostly oriented to online commerce based on a one-way communication system from sender to receiver, and interactivity between receivers and their contributions was not allowed.

Web 1.0 was based on a one-to-many communication model (figure 3-1) following the linear models of communication (Lasswell 1948; Katz and Lazarfeld 1955) where the sender (firm, (F)) transmits content to a large group of receivers (consumers (C)) through mass

media: television, radio, newspaper, magazines, direct mail among others; arguably, Web 1.0 follows this models of communication through search engines, electronic mail, and directories.

Figure 3-1 Traditional one-to-many marketing communication model for mass media and Web 1.0



Source: Hoffman and Novak (1996)

Conversely, the second generation, Web 2.0, developed as *'a collection of open – source, interactive and user controlled applications expanding the experiences, knowledge and market power of the users as participants in business and social processes'* (Constantinides and Fountain 2008,p . 232); it supports the creation, dissemination, sharing, editing and referencing of online content by Internet users, representing the ideological and technological foundations through which software developers provide Internet users with functional tools to interact with others (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010; Kietzmann, Hermkens et al. 2011; Laroche, Habibi et al. 2012).

A difference from its predecessor is that Web 2.0 is considered as participative, people-centric, and bi-directional, and a major driver for content creation, user participation,

and networking; therefore, Web 2.0 harnesses collective (Kozinets, Hemetsberger et al. 2008), and individual (Schau and Gilly 2003) intelligence, providing accessible platforms for users to express their ideas and opinions, as well as an interaction platform between users and the media (O'Reilly 2007; Burmann and Arnhold 2008).

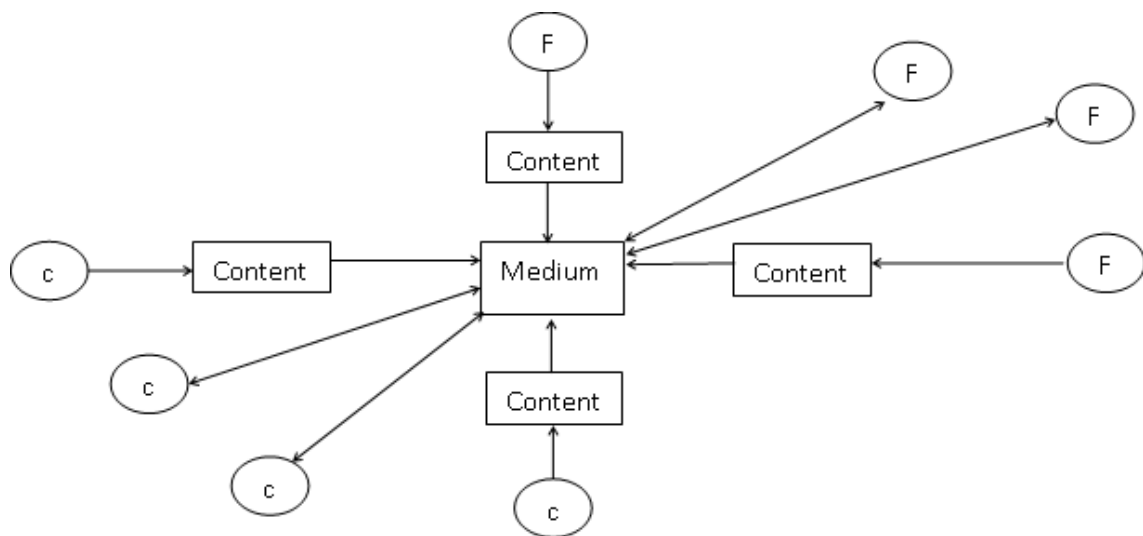
Drawing from the above-mentioned characteristics, Web 2.0 is regarded as a 'social web' where its content is generated and published by its users, and its applications encourage a more human approach to interactivity (Kamel Boulos and Wheeler 2007). Laroche, Habibi et al. (2012) regard the Web 2.0 as software and content which is continuously being produced and published collaboratively by a diverse range of amateur creators, rather than by traditional, professional creators of software and content. This argument supports Kamel and Boulos et al. (2007), who proposed a paradigm of a social software based on the concept of a participative, people-centric and bi-directional network where people interact through the Web 2.0 applications.

From a marketing perspective, Web 2.0's main implication is that users create and distribute their own brand-related content, performing marketing functions traditionally conducted by firms. This socio-technical paradigm shifts control of brand communications from firms to consumers, meaning potential benefits to a brand if the content is positive or challenges if the content is negative (Constantinides and Fountain 2008; Berthon, Pitt et al. 2012).

The marketing conceptual foundations of computer-mediated communications have been addressed in Hoffman and Novak's (1996; 1997) work, which compares traditional media with the Internet suggesting that while mass media communications and Web 1.0 follow a one-to-many communication mass models, Web 2.0 follows a many-to-many model of communication (figure 3-2) where firms and consumers interact using two-way

communication where senders (firms) and receivers (consumers) interact with each other and also with the medium; furthermore, receivers can contribute with content to the medium.

Figure 3-2 Many-to-many communication model for Web 2.0



Source: Hoffman and Novak (1998)

However, one limitation of the many-to-many model is that it overlooks the fact that receivers can also communicate with each other; therefore, the interaction is not limited to firm-consumer communication but extended to consumer-to-consumer communication. In essence, Web 2.0 transformed broadcast media monologues of the Web 1.0 (one-to-many) into social media dialogues (many-to-many) through a series of Internet-based social applications (Berthon, Pitt et al. 2012).

Additionally, the literature suggests that Web 2.0 is developing into Web 3.0 designed as a system of data management oriented to the communication between machines rather than humans. The development of Web 4.0 is still in progress and its structure is yet not clearly

defined (Aghaei, Nematbakhsh et al. 2012). Nevertheless, this study will focus on Web 2.0 as the base for techno-social communications, and will refer to it as the ‘*Internet*’ throughout the rest of the thesis.

3.5.1. Internet usage and UGC in the UK

Data from the Office for National Statistics (2013) reveals that 43.5 million UK adults access the Internet every day; this use is distinguished by various socio-economic and demographic characteristics, such as age, sex, education and life stage. For instance, age is a key factor defining Internet use; almost all adults aged 16 to 24 years (99%) have been online; whereas, only 34% of adults aged 75 and over had used the Internet, representing 1.6 million people, as illustrated in table 3.2.

Table 3-2 Internet users and non-users by age group (years), 2013

	%		
	Used within last 3 months	Used more than 3 months ago	Never used
All	83.3	2.5	14.0
16-24	98.3	0.8	0.6
25-34	97.7	1.1	1.0
35-44	95.8	1.3	2.7
45-54	90.2	2.4	7.2
55-64	81.3	3.5	15.0
65-74	61.1	5.4	33.4
75+	29.1	5.1	65.5

Source: Office for National Statistics

Percentages sum to less than 100 due to ‘don't know’ response

Regarding sex, as of the first quarter of 2013, there were 21.9 million male and 21.7 million female (approximately 51.4 per cent and 50.9 per cent, respectively) Internet users in the UK (National Statistics 2013), as illustrated in table 3.3.

Table 3-3 Internet users by sex

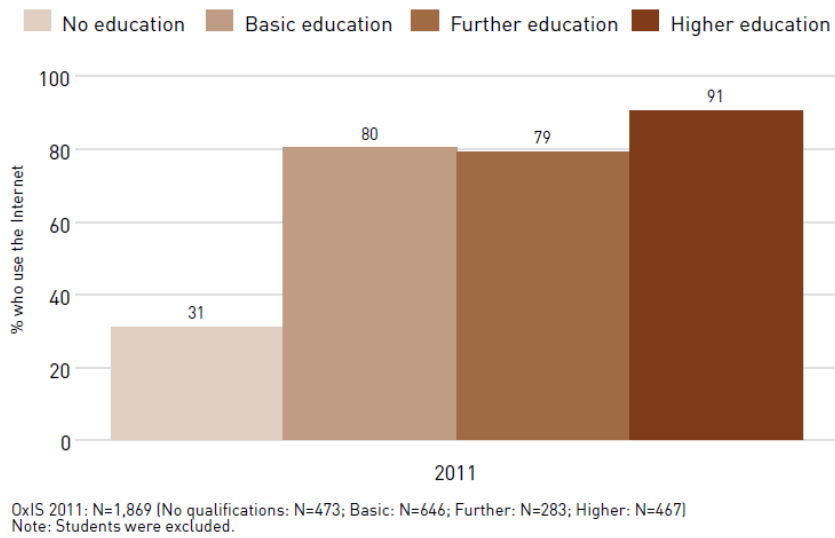
	Millions	%
	Q1 2013	
Male	21.9	51.4
Female	21.7	50.9

Persons aged 16 years and over

Source: Office for National Statistics

Furthermore, an Internet study conducted at the University of Oxford by Dutton and Blank (2011) reveals that Internet users are not solely classified by age and gender but rather the classification can also include education and lifestyle; for instance, in a sample of 1,869 participants aged 14 or over, Internet users with basic educational skills represented approximately 80 per cent, users that had completed further education 79 per cent and users that had completed higher education 91 per cent. Relatively few respondents with no qualifications used the Internet (31%) as illustrated in figure 3-3. It is important to mention that the study did not include those who are currently in the educational system.

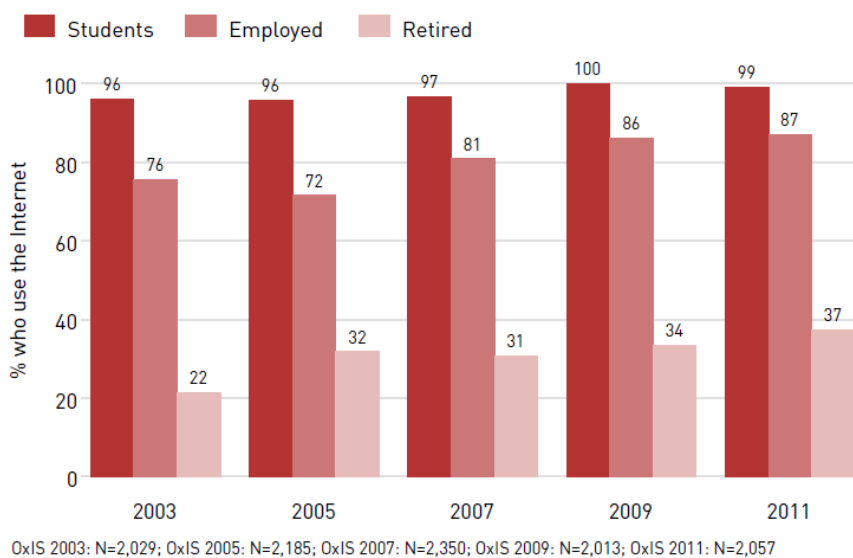
Figure 3-3. Internet use by educational qualifications



Source: Dutton and Blank (2011)

Similarly, Dutton and Blank (2011) report that students are the most likely to use the Internet (99%), followed by people who are employed (87%) and retirees (37%). As illustrated in figure 3-4, these results are consistent with previous surveys conducted by Oxford University.

Figure 3-4 Internet use by life stage



Source: Dutton and Blank (2011)

Additionally, distinct differences exist in how individuals make use of the Internet when analysed by age. As technology ‘early-adopters’, adults aged 16 to 24 are proportionately the largest user group of many of the available Internet activities, and this age group was most likely to engage in online activities that focused on leisure or recreation. This is especially true with social networking (87%), posting messages to chat sites/forums/blogs (60%) or playing or downloading games/films/music (67%), as seen in table 3.4.

Table 3-4 Percentage of Internet activities by age group and sex

Sending/receiving emails	83	87	87	77	69	41	74	72	73
Finding information about goods and services	71	83	81	74	66	34	69	65	67
Buying goods or services over the Internet	79	87	84	72	61	32	68	67	67
Social networking, for example Facebook or Twitter	87	78	62	40	24	10	48	48	48
Internet banking	43	69	65	52	43	18	51	44	47
Reading or downloading online news, newspapers or news magazines	58	66	59	49	38	20	51	44	47
Using services related to travel or travel related accommodation	41	57	55	51	42	22	47	41	44
Playing or downloading games, images, films, or music	67	60	46	36	27	12	43	37	40
Listening to web radio or watching web television	56	55	48	37	27	12	44	32	38
Uploading self-created content for example text, photos, music, videos, etc	60	50	45	32	22	11	36	35	35
Posting messages to chat sites, blogs, forums, or instant messaging	60	56	41	28	18	7	35	32	33
Telephoning or making video calls over the Internet	45	49	40	31	23	11	33	31	32
Selling goods or services, for example eBay	27	36	31	22	15	5	24	20	22
Making a medical appointment	7	15	12	12	11	4	11	9	10
Creating websites or blogs	16	11	7	5	1	1	7	6	6

Base: Adults (aged 16+) in Great Britain

Source: Office for National Statistics

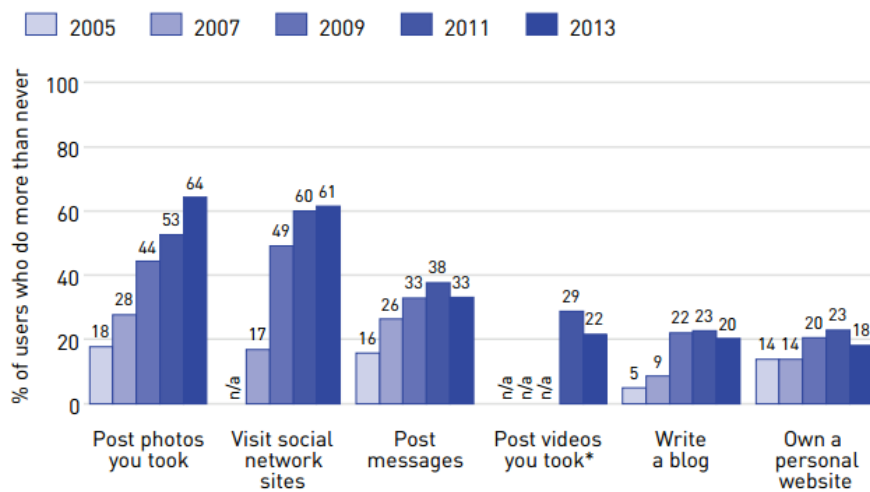
Source: Office for National Statistics (2013)

However, the use of the Internet has grown in popularity among slightly older age groups (25 to 34) who engage in online activities that previously could only be conducted in the real world and now are conducted via websites and mobile applications; therefore, this group reported the highest level of use in activities such as online shopping (87%), email (87%), online banking (69%) and reading online news/newspapers (66%) (National Statistics 2012).

Regarding the use of the Internet for entertainment, a key point from the Office for National Statistics report (2013) is that there is no difference in the use of social networking by men and women (48%) using social networking applications and websites; however, there is a slight difference between the percentage of men (43%) and women (37%) playing or downloading games, images, films or music.

With regard to UGC, a survey conducted by Dutton, Blank et al. (2013) on a sample of 2,083 participants reported an increase in content creation and production in the UK for contributions related to still images uploading (64%) compared to 2011 (53%); a slight decrease (29%) was reported on video generation and broadcast compared to 2011 (29%) as illustrated in figure 3-5.

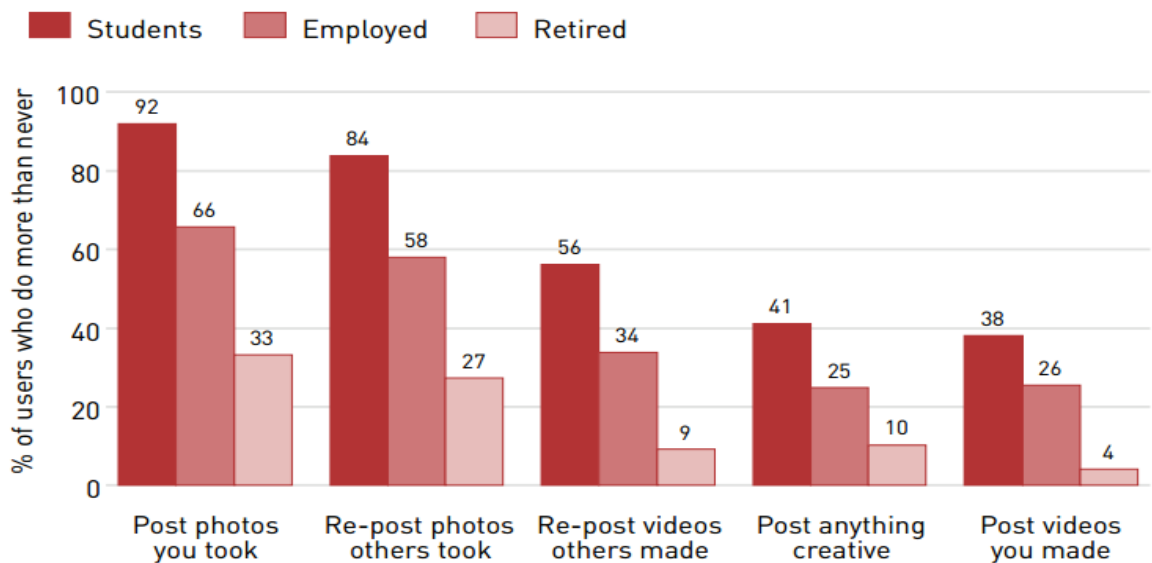
Figure 3-5 Comparison of UGC creation and uploading in the UK by year



Source: Dutton, Blank et al. (2013)

Additionally, in the same study, students reported the major percentage of content creation and uploading in all the different categories: photo content creation (92%), and video content creation (38 %), compared to participants in full-time employment and retired people as illustrated in figure 3-6.

Figure 3-6 Comparison of UGC creation and uploading in the UK by lifestage



Source: Dutton, Blank et al. (2013)

3.6. Social Media

Social media are a *'group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, allowing the creation and exchange of user generated content'* (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010, p61) and are important elements in the diffusion of UGA. With the evolution of Web 2.0 the importance of social media has been focus of attention for academics and practitioners; social media make use of web-based technologies to provide Internet users with a platform to interact, create, share, discuss and modify their own content (Kietzmann, Hermkens et al. 2011, p241).

From a marketing and advertising context, social media can be regarded as the ‘communication channel’ to diffuse UGA messages to a potentially larger audience quicker than traditional media; and more importantly, unlike television, radio and newspaper content, social media allows anyone with access to an online or electronic device to create and diffuse brand content with or without the permission of the brand owner.

3.6.1. Social Media Classification

As social media grows in popularity, understanding how it works is paramount for businesses and academics; consequently researchers have attempted to classify and categorise the different types of social media applications (Rheingold 1993; Kozinets 2002; Dholakia, Bagozzi et al. 2004; Gangadharbatla 2008; Kaplan and Haenlein 2010). A comprehensive classification (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010) suggests six basic types of social media applications summarised in table 3.5 based on two important characteristics; *first*, the degree of technical media richness of content the application allows, that is text, pictures, video, music, sound, and computer animation; and *second*, on the creator itself, the self-presentation portrayed, the type of information disclosed and the interaction with others within the media.

Table 3-5 Classification of social media

		Technical Media richness		
		Low	Medium	High
Self-presentation	High	Blogs	Social networking sites (i.e. Facebook)	Virtual social worlds (i.e. Second Life)
	Low	Collaborative projects (i.e. Wikipedia)	Content Communities (i.e. YouTube)	Virtual game worlds (i.e. World of Warcraft)

Source: Kaplan and Haenlein (2010)

For instance, applications that are text-based are considered to be the basic types of social media applications, and examples of these would be collaborative projects (Wikipedia), Internet diaries or journals (blogs). In this regard, an important type of text-based social media was introduced: micro-blogs or tweets, where people are enabled to send and read short text messages; this type of micro-blogging is more recognised by its most popular application Twitter that is mainly based on text and words.

Weblogs or Blogs are influential forms of personal publishing on the web; in their basic form blogs are text-based media where people broadcast information covering different topics of interest. Basically, a blog is a personal webpage which is constantly updated with entries in reversed chronological order (Blood 2002), and thanks to technological advances, blogs have evolved into a richer media including pictures (photoblogs), audio (podcast) and videos (videoblog) which not only differ in the type of content but also in the delivery method (Gao, Tian et al. 2010); this study considers videoblogs, or ‘vlogs’, as this type of user-generated content that aligns with the main interest of this research. Like its predecessor, *vlogs* are similar to journals where the author or vlogger broadcasts messages using a rich combination of video, sound and text, becoming one of the most popular forms of online conversational video (Biel and Gatica-Perez 2013)

The importance of consumer-generated brand communications in the form of blogs and consumer reviews has been examined in academic literature (Cheong and Morrison 2008; Shu-Chuan and Kamal 2008; Stephen and Galak 2012). These studies suggest that blogs are influential in shaping consumers’ opinions, attitudes and purchase decisions; their main argument is that since they are based on social networking and trust, people rely on family, friends and others in their social networks for commercial insights about products and services (Jansen, Zhang et al. 2009).

In the mid-range this classification locates content communities (YouTube) which broaden the spectrum of communication from text-based only to text-based plus audio-visual communication such as videos, pictures and songs; and social networking sites (Facebook) which allow users to build personal websites accessible to other users for exchange of personal content and communication. Finally, more elaborate technology allows people to create and participate in virtual game worlds (i.e. 'World of Warcraft') or virtual social worlds (i.e. 'Second Life') which attempt to simulate situations in the cyber world as if they were occurring in real-life in real-time. From this classification it can be recognised that social media comprises the context and the content of interactive communication between individuals based on identity, conversations, sharing, presence relationships, reputations and groups as identified by Kietzmann, Hermkens et al. (2011).

However, it is arguable that Kaplan and Haenlein's (2010) classification is not static as some types of social media can be integrated via social network platforms, which is the case of Facebook which allows users to embed and share videos from YouTube and content from other platforms and as technology is constantly advancing.

Furthermore, one of the problems found in the literature is that social media and social networking are often erroneously considered and referred to as one and the same, when in reality there is a clear distinction between them; social networks are websites where two or more people who share common interests, interact and build relationships, whereas social media is the vehicle through which social networking messages are transmitted, and more specifically social media is the engine to share information and social networks are communities of interest to connect with others as embedded within social media.

3.6.2. Social media: a new paradigm for brand communications

Social media has facilitated a new paradigm for brand communications, evolving from paid one-to-many firm-generated advertising to consumer-generated many-to-many communications regarded as *earned media*, where firms do not pay or control brand messages placement and distribution. *Earned media* is not a consequence of social media, but technology fosters its expansion enhancing consumer-generated brand communications and switching branding sources. At the other end of the spectrum *paid media* is originated and controlled by firms, including all types of traditional mass media communications as illustrated in table 3.6. Additionally, *owned media* is designed by firms to encourage consumers and mass media to talk positively about their brands and products and the firms; also considered as *buzz, viral, street or stealth* marketing, this strategy can be considered a hybrid between paid and owned media and is supported and monitored by firms, but its source and diffusion are external to the firm (Thomas Jr 2004; Stephen and Galak 2012).

Table 3-6 Comparison of paid, owned and earned media

Type	Definition	Offline Example	Online Example
Paid	Media Activity related to a company or brand that is generated by the company or its agents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional advertising (TV, radio, print, outdoor) • Direct mail • Sponsorship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Display/banner advertising • Search advertising • Social network advertising (Facebook) • Direct email

Owned	Media Activity related to a company or brand that is generated by the company or its agents in channels it control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In store visual merchandising • Brochures • Press releases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Company/brand website • Company/brand blog • Company owned pages (Facebook fan page, YouTube channel, Twitter account)
Earned	Media activity related to a company or brand that is not directly generated by the company or its agents but rather by other entities such as customers or journalist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional publicity mentions in professional media • Word-of-mouth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Electronic word-of-mouth • Posts in online communities or social networks • Online ratings and reviews

Source: Stephen and Galak (2012)

Drawing from the above typology, it is arguable that *earned social media* may have a greater effect on consumers' brand attitudes and behaviour than *paid media* as consumers trust more in peer recommendations than in firm-generated media. Empirical research has discussed consumer's reliance on brand information found in peer recommendations (Cheong and Morrison 2008) and the preponderance of these communications over traditional advertising (Trusov, Bucklin et al. 2009).

Unlike paid media, peer recommendations are considered to be objective whether the information about brands is positive or negative, and based on peers' experiences with the product or services, therefore held as trustworthy (Cheong and Morrison 2008); furthermore, these peer-to-peer communications also have considerably longer carry-over effects than traditional marketing; in other words they have strong short- and long-term impact on

consumers as the information is retained and available to be accessed in social media platforms (Trusov, Bucklin et al. 2009).

Recent studies considering the influence of peer recommendations including Colliander and Dahlén (2011), Hye-Jin, Hove et al. (2011) and Steyn, Ewing et al. (2011) converge on the importance and effects of the message source. Receivers perceive peer-to-peer messages as more credible and trustworthy as the sources (i.e. other consumers) are considered to have knowledge of the product/brand attributes by use or consumption, a difference from paid media.

3.6.3. YouTube: a socio-technical content community

YouTube is the world's most visited video-sharing website; the Internet information company ALEXA (2010) reported that YouTube reaches 23.82 per cent of the global Internet users who spend an average daily time of 18.565 minutes online and it is linked to 686,159 different websites; approximately 22 per cent of the visitors come from the United States, followed by Japan with 6.4 per cent of traffic and India with 5.4 per cent of visitors, and the United Kingdom is fifth with 3.8 per cent of the total global traffic of visitors to YouTube. Figures from YouTube (2014) suggest that with more than 1 billion hits per month, YouTube is the world's most visited site exceeding MySpace, Facebook and Amazon; furthermore, over 6 billion hours of video are watched every month and 100 hours of video are uploaded to YouTube every minute.

Its content encompasses every imaginable topic and it is used by both amateurs and professionals; YouTube provides a forum for people to share ideas, and more relevant to this research, to disseminate subjective information pertaining to a brand or company (Kim 2012).

However, YouTube is much more than a video sharing platform; its importance as a rich social media communication platform is acknowledged by academics and practitioners; this importance is based on the notion that the website *'provides a simple integrated interface within users could upload, publish, and with streaming videos without high levels of technical knowledge'* (Burgess and Green 2009). In this regard, as technology advances a person with a smart telephone can film and upload a video without having knowledge of filming or broadcasting. This implies that YouTube, besides providing rich media content, also offers the user opportunity to partake in a video community and social network.

Xu et. al. (2008) point out that YouTube is a prominent social media application and not just a video distribution platform, presenting an important characteristic that differentiates the website from traditional media services. Through YouTube, interactive communication and the control people have over brand communications may have a greater impact on brands than firm-generated communications.

YouTube has been the subject of academic research since its creation in 2005; some researchers focus their studies in the search for health-related information (Ache and Wallace 2008; Pandey, Patni et al. 2010; Murugiah, Vallakati et al. 2011; Sood, Sarangi et al. 2011) and its use in innovative instructional and learning functions (Smith and Peck 2010; Clifton and Mann 2011; Juhary 2012; Krauskopf, Zahn et al. 2012). However, very little research has been conducted on the use of YouTube as a platform for diffusion of brand-related videos (IAB 2010; Smith, Fischer et al. 2012).

Although YouTube provides a categorisation of the types of videos, advertising, movies, newsroom, gaming, local, holidays, music, sports, politics, technology, and culture among others (YouTube 2011), academic research (Pace 2008; Burgess and Green 2009;

Hye-Jin, Hove et al. 2011; Kim 2012) has also examined the different categories of videos on YouTube providing a distinction between professionally generated videos uploaded either by a firm's own efforts or by the public's enthusiasm, which is the case of music videos, life performances or news and informational content (Burgess and Green 2009; Cha, Kwak et al. 2009), and user-generated videos of creative redefinition of brand and consumption, users' own TV channels, community storytelling, and marketing spoofs (Pace 2008).

However, the key element of the importance of YouTube is the fact that besides providing a platform to create and disseminate UGA, and the great impact on Internet traffic nowadays, the website presents important characteristics related to social networking which are a key driving force toward the success not only of the website itself, but of the UGA disseminated through it.

Reviewing the studies that investigated the social network characteristics of YouTube revealed that many researchers agree that the social media structure and the social interaction on content propagation are the key driving forces of the popularity of the site and the successfulness of the diffusion of brand-related UGC. An early study, conducted by Lange (2007), examined how YouTube participants developed and maintained social networks. Based on ethnographic methods, the study explored the use of the technical and social characteristics of the site to ascertain how video sharing can support social networks by facilitating socialisation among dispersed family and friends, demonstrating that the frequent interaction between creators and viewers on YouTube is a core component of participation on the site, and this participation is achieved through creating and sharing videos within a pre-existing social network (i.e. family and or friends), or with new connections from developed social networks that did not exist previously and were acquired through watching the creator's videos, reading the video comments and replying to these comments.

Another study by Paolillo (2008) focussed on the social structure of YouTube, specifically on the networks' creators development according to the type of content uploaded, identifying groups formed for mutual support and cultivating particular subject matters. This concludes that YouTube creators are strongly linked to other creators producing similar content, and social interaction is structured in similar ways to other networking sites but with greater semantic coherence around the type of content. However, this study focussed only on the creator's side of the communication process and not on the relationships between creators and viewers, considering that many YouTube users are not creators.

Similarly, Xu, Dale et al. (2008) studied the social networking in YouTube videos finding that links to related videos generated by uploaders' present the characteristic of '*small-world*' phenomenon, which refers to the principle that people are linked to others by short chains of acquaintances; and these networks are chosen based on UGC. However, this research only limited the study of these links to videos and links following a set of uploaded videos and their creators, therefore ignoring the relationships between creators and viewers and relationships between viewers only.

This interaction between creators and viewers was investigated by Haridakis and Hanson (2009) in a study about the social interaction motivations that predict viewing and sharing videos on YouTube, concluding that the website presents a social component which suggests that people not only engage in the creation of videos, but also watch, share and discuss videos they like with family and friends to satisfy needs of entertainment, co-viewing and social interaction.

A more recent study by Smith, Fisher et al (2012), on the differences of brand-related UGC in three different media types, Twitter (a micro blogging site), Facebook (a social

network); and YouTube (a content community), suggests that not only does the type of brand-related content vary across the different platforms (i.e. text, photos or videos), but the use of the different media types also varies according to the dimensions of creator-brand relationships.

The authors identify six dimensions of brand-related UGC and use these dimensions to clarify how UGC differs among platforms. First, self-presentation is a performance; in social media it is related to the user's effort to express a specific image and identity to others (Hogan 2010), where consumers use possessions, brands and other symbols to construct their images and choose what they want to communicate (Schau and Gilly 2003). Second, brand centrality or the role of the brand in brand-related UGC refers to the notion of the position the brand is placed in the UGC; it is the focus of the content or peripherally supporting another argument. Third, market-direction communication: in brand-related UGC, consumers may pose questions or complaints to marketers as well as respond to companies' questions or comments. Fourth is the response to online marketer action, where the content variable addresses whether or not a brand-related UGC post is in response to online marketer actions. Fifth is the idea of factually informative content about the brand, which reflects whether or not brand-related UGC contains factual information about the brand. In brand-related UGC brands may be mentioned for numerous reasons: symbolism, as the focus of opinions or complaints, or as objects of interest. Social media users may also simply share information about brands; and finally, brand sentiment which captures the over-riding brand sentiment expressed in brand related UGC. Sentiment can be differentiated as being positive, negative, neutral or unclear.

Although the results of Smith et al.'s (2012) study are oriented to explain the differences of brand-related UGC between the applications of Facebook, Twitter and

YouTube, this study will concentrate on the outcomes related to YouTube. For instance, following its tagline '*Broadcast Yourself*', YouTube is a popular platform for self-promotion and the website encourages content creators to be the stars of the videos; this supports Berthon et al.'s (2008) self-promotion motivation for video creation. Previous YouTube research suggests that people engage in self-presentation not only by creating and broadcasting UGC but also by joining sub-groups, commenting and sharing other people's videos (Lange 2007; Haridakis and Hanson 2009; IAB 2010); therefore, in this line, this could also endorse the premise that brands are featured peripherally as an identity-supporting prop (Schau and Gilly 2003).

Although YouTube features a number of video types such as reviews, demonstrations, and 'unboxing' of products, which could in principle feature the brand more centrally, previous research conducted by Cheong and Morrison (2008) suggests that consumers find it hard to recall seeing product-related information on the site which indicates that brands may often play a more peripheral role. Nevertheless, this conclusion does not appear to take account of the previously mentioned videos of product reviews, Vlogs, and unboxing, where factual information about the brand is indeed shared, and although Smith et al. (2012) argue that even in this type of videos the brand is peripheral, this could be challenged on the basis that some videos present more informative and tutorial characteristics where the information about the brand is pivotal.

Similarly, a difference from other platforms is that the production skills required to create a video on YouTube are indeed higher than to write a comment or upload a photo from a camera; therefore, the platform is less convenient to communicate directly with marketers; nevertheless, a brand-related video may be also used to convey the creator's message about a brand. This is the case of Dave Carroll, a musician from Halifax who claimed that his guitar

was severely damaged by United Airlines baggage handlers at O'Hare airport, and after several unsuccessful attempts to pursue damage claim with the airline, Carroll posted a video on YouTube in July 2009. By August of the same year the video reached 5 million hits, proving not only the popularity of the video but the importance of the indirect message the creator was conveying about the brand through UGC (Dunne 2010).

Finally, and perhaps the most important argument of Smith et al.'s (2012) study is that on YouTube peripherally located brands may be associated with neutral sentiments of the creator as well as framing the brands either positively or negatively in a similar way.

As it can be observed from the literature, the importance of brand-related UGC videos diffused on YouTube is not only the characteristics of the video and the brand-relationship of the creator, who decides and defines the way the brand is going to be portrayed in the video and what is going to be said about that brand, either positive, negative or neutral, but the impact the video may have on viewers and the importance of the social influence of its diffusion following social networking characteristics.

From a marketing perspective, the importance of video-based UGC and specifically YouTube is the brand exposure the product or service will have online. As a piece of brand communication, video-based UGC may be more influential in purchase decisions than traditional firm-consumer models as interpersonal communications regarding products are more powerful than mass media, given that consumers place a higher trust in peer recommendations than in commercial strategies (Cheong and Morrison 2008).

3.7. User-Generated advertising effectiveness

As the popularity of UGA increases, research has been also focussed on the effectiveness of these consumer-generated brand communications; for instance, a recent study (Vanden Bergh, Lee et al. 2011) suggests that similar to traditional advertising, UGA have an effect on audience's behaviours as well as on intentions to share UGA with family and friends; however, this study was not able to conclude that UGA had an effect on attitudes towards the brand portrayed especially when the brand was subject of ridicule or parody. In this line, Berthon and Pitt (2012) developed a theoretical framework aiming to understand the caricature and spoof of brand on UGA; this framework suggests that people lampoon brands in order to release frustration resulting from negative experiences with the brand; however, this framework does not present a rationale for the effects of brand parodies on consumer's attitudes and behaviours.

With this regard, Sabri and Michel's (2014) empirical study results suggest that when consumers lampoon or ridicule the brands in their own created brand communications, these communications are strongly credible and the information accepted by audiences and the result of these advertisements affect audiences attitudes, behaviour and intentions to share these communications with friends and families.

Additionally, other studies (Ertimur and Gilly 2012; Lawrence, Fournier et al. 2013; Hautz, Füller et al. 2014) conclude that UGA do have an impact on consumer's behavioural intentions as a result of source credibility similar to other consumer-generated brand communications compared to firm-generated advertising, which is perceived to increase sales and revenue. However, one limitation of these studies is that they were based primarily on how the technical quality of the UGA influences credibility and persuasion.

3.7.1. This study's understanding of audiences' responses to UGA: an attribution theory perspective

Audience's responses to UGA communications can be explained using the *attribution theory* (Heider 1958). Attribution theory is considered to be a group of theories converging on the assumption that when people receive a stimulus attempt to evaluate whether the stimulus is accurate in reflecting the object of the message, and if the source of the message is credible (Folkes 1991). This theory has been previously applied in the understanding of advertising effectiveness (Sparkman Jr and Locander 1980) and source credibility (Settle and Golden 1974); but most importantly the attribution theory has been also applied to the understanding of interpersonal influence as a result of peer-generated brand communications and its effects on consumer behaviour (Calder and Burnkrant 1977; Laczniak, DeCarlo et al. 2001).

Interpersonal influence occurs when *'the actions of one or more individuals influence the actions, attitudes or feelings of one or more individuals'* (Wheeler 1970, p.1); as members of society, individuals are not isolated and their interactions with other members of their group influence them. Petty and Caccioppo (1981) suggest that a person's susceptibility to interpersonal influence varies depending of the person's characteristics (i.e. self-esteem or self-construal); for instance, a person with low self-esteem follows the norms of the group to avoid disapproval from their peers; this trait is similar to the self-construal type of the person when individuals with a dominant interdependent self-construal have the tendency to comply with the norms of their group (Singelis 1994).

An early study on the effects of personal influence (Katz and Lazarfeld 1955) suggests that people are persuaded following a hierarchy-of-effects communication model; in other

words, they follow the same process as mass communication messages where receivers are first exposed to a certain type of stimulus, which is filtered and processed before producing an attitudinal-behavioural effect. Furthermore, Katz and Lazarfeld (1955) also suggest that when personal influence and mass media communication are in conflict, personal influence has greater impact in recipients than mass media messages.

This prevalence on the impact on the individual's attitudinal-behavioural changes reflects the effect of the source of the message and how the recipient perceives the source to be credible and trustworthy. In the context of this study, this suggest that people generate causal attributions in response to the information received on the basis of the content or stimulus (UGA), the source or communicator (peers) and/or the context or circumstances where the communication occurs (unofficial related to the brand); this suggests that in the context of social media, peers' opinions about brands may have more credibility than firm-generated brand communications, closely related to people's susceptibility to interpersonal influence (Sparkman Jr and Locander 1980). Therefore, the communication characteristics in relation to similarity to the receiver, credibility and trustworthiness have an effect on interpersonal influence (Bearden, Netemeyer et al. 1989; Herr, Kardes et al. 1991).

Additionally, the credibility of the source also affects the effectiveness of the message; a source is considered to be credible when the receiver regards the message originator as trustworthy or expert (Wiener and Mowen 1986; Goldsmith, Lafferty et al. 2000). For instance, when receivers perceive the source of the message to have low credibility, or to be biased in relate to the message object, the persuasiveness of the message is diminished; conversely, a receiver will be less inclined to disagree with the message if the source is highly credible and therefore the message considered to be more effective (Grewal, Gotlieb et al. 1994).

To increase the effectiveness of advertising, research indicates that firms follow strategies framed with testimonials of other users indicating the benefits of the brand as well as celebrities endorsement (Ogilvy and Raphaelson 1982). Testimonials and celebrity endorsement not only are considered to produce high attention and recall but also are considered to increase the credibility of the source; in this regard Ohanian's (1991) empirical study on the effectiveness of endorsed commercial suggests that the expertise factor was the only determinant of efficacy of the message whereas trustworthiness was not considered a determinant of the effectiveness of the message. This result suggests that consumers perceive endorsers (and advertising models) as paid benefactors of the brand portrayed, and therefore the credibility of the source regarding trustworthiness in firm-generated advertising is constantly questionable.

Conversely, when the source of the message is another consumer, the effects of the message increase as a result of the recipients' perceptions of credibility, trustworthiness and ideological similarity of the creator (Wilson and Sherrell 1993). In this regard, although consumer-generated brand communications (i.e. word-of-mouth) have been long existing and studied, web 2.0 technologies promote online creation and transmission of amateur advertisements.

Recent research (Hye-Jin, Hove et al. 2011; Steyn, Ewing et al. 2011) suggests that when peers generate brand advertising, the characteristics of credibility and trustworthiness are evaluated more favourably compared to a paid firm-generated message; and this positive evaluation influences attitudinal-behavioural responses.

3.7.1.1. Source: User-Generated Advertising compared to Firm-Generated Advertising

Traditional brand communications' main objective is to change and/or reinforce consumer's mindset about brands; these brand communications are characterised for being non-personal, usually paid, and generally firm-generated to persuade audiences via mass-media platforms (Pratkanis 1995; Hackley 2005; Cramphorn 2006; Keller 2009); however, brand communications may also be consumer-generated and diffused via electronic media and the Internet. Evidence suggests that brand communications in the form of user-generated brand communications are considered to be more influential than firm-generated communications as people trust more in peer recommendations than in information generated by companies (Cheong and Morrison 2008).

This suggests that *social earned media* (Word-of-mouth, electronic Word-of-mouth, blogs, online reviews) or activities related to a company or brand which is not generated by the company or its agents but by customers and journalists have a greater impact on consumers attitudes' and behaviour compared to *paid media* (traditional advertising, email advertisements, social network advertising) generated by the company and/or its agents (Doohwang, Hyuk Soo et al. 2011; Stephen and Galak 2012). The effectiveness of consumer-to-consumer brand communication has been reiterated in marketing literature and its influence as a channel of brand communication and purchasing behaviour is widely recognised (Kozinets, de Valck et al. 2010; Lovett, Peres et al. 2013); furthermore, younger Internet users are more likely to trust other consumers' reviews and recommendations than firm-generated advertisements influencing attitudes and behaviour (eMarketer 2012; 2014; 2014a) .

3.7.1.2. Content: UGA valence

Regarding the message content, contrary to firm-generated advertising, the content of which is generally beneficial to the brand, the UGA creator's brand sentiment establishes the valence of the message in relation to the brand; for instance, satisfaction and content may prompt to creation positive messages praising and recommending the brand whereas dissatisfaction or discontent with the brand may prompt the creation of a negative message; a further category includes a neutral message which neither praises nor detracts from the brand (Angelis, Bonezzi et al. 2012; Smith, Fischer et al. 2012).

Positive consumer-generated messages are believed to influence favourably consumer brand attitudes and behaviour; people follow peer recommendations especially when seeking information to reduce risk and in decision making and the opinions of satisfied consumer's in relation to a paid advertisement these are considered to be more credible (Oliver 1993; Nyilasy and Reid 2009). The effectiveness of these positive messages is based on trust and is believed to originate from closer ties: friends, peers and expert consumers' opinions; and are also likely to be passed on to others within their networks (East, Hammond et al. 2008; eMarketer 2010).

However, although the impact of positive messages has been acknowledged, a general agreement exists in that negative brand messages have a greater impression on audiences, influencing attitudes and behaviours considerably more than positive messages, as unfavourable beliefs are quicker to form and are more resistant to being disproved than positive ones (Ito, Larsen et al. 1998; Weinberger and Lepkowska-White 2000; Baumeister, Bratslavsky et al. 2001). Moreover, when receivers attribute the negativity of consumer-generated brand communications (product reviews, complaints, brand mockery) to product

quality, bad customer service and value for money, their brand attitudes decrease (Laczniak, DeCarlo et al. 2001).

This disproportionate influence of negative information is a consistent finding in consumer behaviour literature and a result of a psychological characteristic in which people attend to and assign more importance to negative information than to positive information, which in turn may have an effect on their behavioural intentions. People's sensitivity to negative information, or *negativity bias*, explains why negative information tends to activate people's attitudinal and behavioural expressions as compared to positive information; consequently, people are more influenced by a negative stimulus than a positive one (Cacioppo, Gardner et al. 1997).

Additionally, although neutral brand messages are identified in the literature (Moore and Hutchinson 1983; Oliver, Robertson et al. 1993; Anderson 1998) and it is believed that these have little or no effects on consumer's attitudes and behaviour (Pinkleton 1997; Ito, Larsen et al. 1998) because their content neither praises nor detracts from the brand, most studies have focused on the effects of either positive or negative messages, and therefore little research has actually measured the effects of neutral consumer-generated brand messages. This study addresses this gap by assessing the possible effects of neutral user-generated messages in brand attitudes and behaviours.

3.7.1.3. Context: Social Media

The communication context is another important factor affecting UGA effectiveness; contrary to mass-media context, social media present specific characteristics that contribute to the efficacy of brand-related messages. For instance, people access social media for entertainment, to fill time, to socialise and to search for information; this suggests that people engage in social media to satisfy utilitarian and hedonic needs consistent with the uses of gratification theory (Raacke and Bonds-Raacke 2008; Luo, Chea et al. 2011); furthermore, social interaction and feelings of affinity and belonging increase the credibility and influence of consumer-generated brand communications; therefore brand attitudes and behavioural intentions shall be superior compared to mass-media communications (Colliander and Dahlen 2011; Taylor, Lewin et al. 2011).

The principle behind the effectiveness of social media versus mass media communications is that social media users are active members seeking identity, conversations, sharing, presence, relationships and groups (Kietzmann, Hermkens et al. 2011) where people engage in creation, consumption and agents of distribution of messages, whereas in mass-media communications, consumers are mere receptors of messages. For this reason, UGA becomes a component of people's idiosyncrasy rather than a firm message generated with the aim of increased sales and revenue.

3.7.1.4. Self-Construal

Furthermore, the potential impact of UGA on consumer attitudes and behaviours also depends on the receiver's individual perspective and psycho-social characteristics, more specifically on Self-construal (SC). These individuals' attributes are related to how people define and make sense of themselves in relation to their surrounding world, suggesting that their perceptions, evaluations and behaviour in their social context affects their cognitive performance, aesthetic preferences and social interactions (Markus and Kitayama 1991). As previously discussed, two main SC dimensions are identified: *independent* self-construal (INDSC) relates to the individual's separateness from their social context exhibiting features of stability, individualism and uniqueness; and clear boundaries that separate the self from others, giving higher priority to personal goals than to group goals. Conversely, *interdependent* self-construal (INTSC) relates to the individual's connection with their social context exhibiting features of adaptability, collectivism and fitting in; defining themselves in terms of their relationships to others giving higher priority to group goals than to personal goals.

Self-construal may also affect the effectiveness of advertising communications in attitude formation and modification; for instance, advertising generates more favourable ad and brand attitudes on individuals with dominant INTSC than on individuals with INDSC (Lin, Moore et al. 2011), suggesting that individuals with INTSC are more susceptible to brand information received through advertising (Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007).

Similarly, SC also affects consumer-based brand equity and buying behaviour; individuals with dominant INTSC value the opinion of their reference groups (friends, family, peers) and use these opinions as a source of information for brand evaluation and therefore are

more inclined to prefer brands that are endorsed by the group; whereas for individuals with dominant INDSC, the group opinions and evaluations have less importance (Escalas and Bettman 2005). Additionally, INTSC buying behaviour is prescribed by the consensus and norms of a group whereas INDSC do not follow the collective trend but their own motives (Yinlong Zhang and L. J. Shrum 2009).

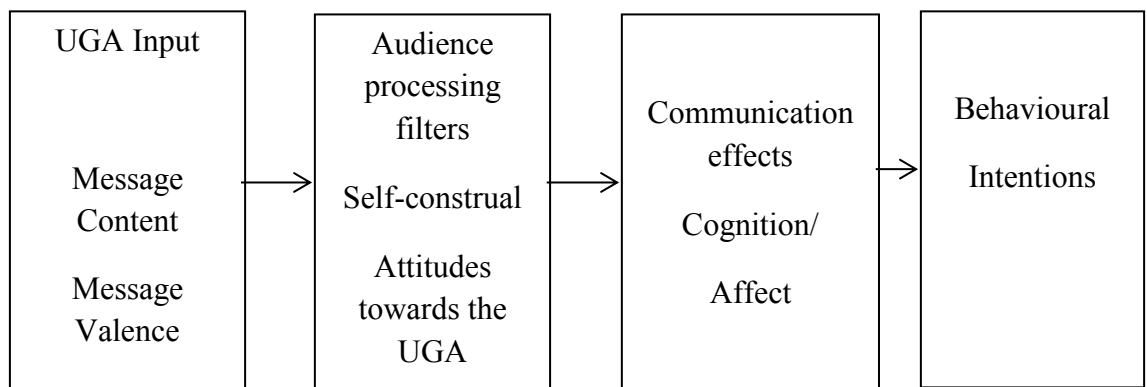
3.8. Conclusion

From the literature reviewed, it can be concluded that user-generated advertising is a subset of broader concepts of user-generated content which specifically refers to the creation of brand-related material and diffusion in social media by the general public outside the boundaries of the firm. As such, firms cannot control what is being said about their brand online and adopt measures as co-creation in order to engage consumers and harness the importance of networking ties for the benefit of the brand; however, not all brand communications are monitored by the firm and therefore the valence of these consumer-created communications may not always be positive and vary in range from positive, negative, or neutral.

From a consumer perspective, more specifically from the user-generated advertising creator, the values of a brand and the representation of these values are considered to be a trigger to engage in user-generated advertising. Conversely, from a receiver perspective, user-generated advertising may be processed following similar patterns as firm-generated; however, the nature of the social ties and the network characteristics on which the message is diffused may have an impact in the effectiveness of the communication effort. Furthermore, considering this parameter, the receiver's self-perception will affect the comprehension and interpretation of their surrounding world and the behaviour of other people towards them.

Expanding the nomological model depicted in figure 2-7, from a consumer perspective by the application of the attribution theory, the communication of user-generated brand information is expected to follow a similar process and including similar elements as illustrated in figure 3-7.

Figure 3-7 Thesis approach of how user generated advertising may works



For instance, as a difference from firm-generated advertising, UGA may be created as framed in negative information towards the brand according to the creator's brand sentiment; this information is diffused in an interactive medium where the receiver's perceptions of the creator and social networking ties may also have an impact on the credibility of the source and the information received in order to generate similar attitudinal and behavioural effects on consumers. In the next chapter, the theoretical framework that will guide this study will be developed.

4. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapters reviewed extant literature on the main elements considered relevant to the concept of user-generated advertising (UGA), its diffusion and its effects on consumer brand attitudes and behaviour; providing a sound base for this thesis research framework presented at the end of this chapter. Following the objective of this study of ascertaining the effects of UGA and self-construal on consumer brand attitudes, the proposed framework is a development of previously discussed advertising communication models; as well as the attribution theory approach to understand interpersonal influence on consumer behaviour and audiences' responses to consumer-generated brand communication.

The model emphasises the relationship between different types of UGA and self-construal in a single exposure and the resulting attitudinal and behavioural variables. Based on these relationships, this chapter further introduces the hypotheses proposed to explain the social phenomenon of UGA and its effects on consumer-brand attitudes and behaviours (White 2009) and will develop a parsimonious research framework to further guide this study.

4.2. The theoretical foundations of the study

Following the traditional communication models discussed in section 2.4, the key elements of advertising communications include the exposure to a firm- or user-generated advertising stimulus, the receiver's information processing and the communication effects on consumer attitudes, which lead to receiver actions or overt behavioural responses (Rossiter and Percy 1985; Vakratsas and Ambler 1999).

The **Elaboration Likelihood Model** (ELM) of information processing provides an understanding of receiver's reaction to advertising messages; for instance, the ELM suggests that for low-attention messages, people tend to process information via a *peripheral* route, where the credibility and expertise of the source will have an impact on attitude change (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). Similarly, the **Heuristic Systematic Model** (HSM) proposes a model of social influence, where the message is processed from information recalled from memory as suggested by Chaiken, Liberman et al. (1989); where the expertise of the source is trusted. without carefully processing the information received Therefore, both the ELM *peripheral* route and HSM *heuristic* processing may be considered more appropriate to frame the understanding of persuasive UGA on attitudes as both imply low processing and influence of the source of the message.

The **Theory of Planned Behaviour** (TPB) is considered suitable to understand the attitude-behaviour relationship, as discussed in section 2.8.2.2. Theoretically, TPB is related to the normative beliefs or the social factors that guide people's actions; furthermore, the main element of TPB is behavioural intentions (BI) related to the individual's intentions to conduct a specific action towards the attitude object.

Finally, the **Attribution Theory** (Heider 1958) discussed in section 3.7.1. is applied in this study to understand the effects of UGA. This theory has been previously applied in the understanding of adverting effectiveness (Sparkman Jr and Locander 1980) and source credibility (Settle and Golden 1974); but most importantly, attribution theory has also been applied to the understanding of interpersonal influence as a result of peer-generated brand communications and its effects on consumer behaviour (Calder and Burnkrant 1977; Lacznia, DeCarlo et al. 2001).

Following research in classical attribution theory, people generate causal attributions in response to the information received on the basis of the content or stimulus (UGA), the source or communicator (peers), and/or the context or circumstances in which the communication occurs (unofficially related to the brand). This suggests that in the context of social media, peers' opinions about brands may have more credibility than firm-generated brand communications, closely related to people's susceptibility to interpersonal influence (Sparkman Jr and Locander 1980).

4.3. The advertising message: Firm-generated advertising compared to user-generated advertising

Firm-generated advertising's main objective is to change and/or reinforce a consumer's mindset about brands. These brand communications are characterised as being non-personal, usually paid, and generally firm generated to persuade audiences via mass-media platforms (Pratkanis 1995; Hackley 2005; Cramphorn 2006; Keller 2009); however, advertising communications may also be consumer generated and diffused via electronic media and the Internet⁵. Evidence suggests that user-generated brand communications are considered more influential than firm-generated communications, as people trust more in peer recommendations than information generated by companies (Cheong and Morrison 2008).

This suggests that *social earned media* (word-of-mouth, electronic word-of-mouth, blogs, online reviews, user-generated advertising)⁶ or activities related to a company or brand that are not generated by the company or its agents but by customers and journalists have a greater impact on consumers attitudes' and behaviour compared to *paid media* (traditional

⁵ See section 3.2.

⁶ Discussed in detail in section 3.6.2.

advertising, email advertisements, social network advertising) generated by the company and/or its agents (Doohwang, Hyuk Soo et al. 2011; Stephen and Galak 2012).

Regarding the valence of the message, contrary to firm-generated advertising, the content of which is generally beneficial to the brand, the UGA creator's brand sentiment establishes whether the message is beneficial or detrimental to the brand. For instance, satisfaction and content may prompt creation of positive messages praising and recommending the brand, whereas dissatisfaction or discontent with the brand may prompt the creation of a negative message; a further typology may include neutral messages which neither praise nor detract from the brand (Angelis, Bonezzi et al. 2012; Smith, Fischer et al. 2012).

Positive consumer-generated messages are believed to favourably influence consumer brand attitudes and behaviour; people follow peer recommendations especially when seeking information to reduce risk and decision making, and the opinions of satisfied consumers in relation to a paid advertisement are considered to be more credible (Oliver 1993; Nyilasy and Reid 2009). The effectiveness of these positive messages is based on trust, and they are believed to originate from closer ties: friends, peers and expert consumers' opinions. They are also likely to be passed on to others within their networks (East, Hammond et al. 2008; eMarketer 2010).

However, although the impact of positive messages have been acknowledged, a general agreement exists in that negative brand messages infer greater impression in audiences influencing considerably more attitudes and behaviours than positive, as unfavourable beliefs are quicker to form and more resistant to disprove than positive ones (Ito, Larsen et al. 1998; Weinberger and Lepkowska-White 2000; Baumeister, Bratslavsky et

al. 2001). Moreover, when receivers attribute the negativity of consumer-generated brand communications (product reviews, complaints, brand mockery) to product quality, bad customer service, value for money, their brand attitudes decrease (Laczniak, DeCarlo et al. 2001).

4.4. The role of self-construal in User Generated advertising effectiveness

Additionally, the potential impact of UGA on consumer attitudes and behaviours may also depend on the receiver's psycho-social characteristics, specifically self-construal (SC). These individual's attributes are related to how people define and make sense of themselves in relation to their surrounding world, suggesting that their perceptions, evaluations and behaviour in their social context affects their cognitive performance, aesthetic preferences and social interactions (Markus and Kitayama 1991).

As previously discussed, two main SC dimensions are identified: *independent* self-construal (INDSC) relates to the individual's separateness from his or her social context, exhibiting features of stability, individualism and uniqueness; clear boundaries separate the self from others, giving higher priority to personal goals than to group goals. Conversely, *interdependent* self-construal (INTSC) relates to the individual's connection with his or her social context exhibiting features of adaptability, collectivism and fitting in; the individual defines himself in terms of relationships to others, giving higher priority to group goals than to personal goals.

Self-construal may also affect the effectiveness of advertising communications in attitude formation and modification; for instance, advertising generates more favourable ad and brand attitudes in individuals with dominant INTSC than individuals with INDSC (Lin,

Moore et al. 2011), suggesting that individuals with INTSC are more susceptible to brand information received through advertising (Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007).

Similarly, SC also affects purchasing behaviour; individuals with dominant INTSC value the opinions of their reference groups (friends, family, peers) and use these opinions as a source of information for brand evaluation; therefore, they are more inclined to prefer brands that are endorsed by the group. For individuals with dominant INDSC, group opinions and evaluations have less importance (Escalas and Bettman 2005). Additionally, INTSC buying behaviour is prescribed by the consensus and norms of a group, whereas INDSC individuals do not follow the collective trend but their own motives (Yinlong Zhang and L. J. Shrum 2009).

Following the arguments about the dimensionality of SC, one group of thought follows a one-dimensionality of the construct in which INDSC and INTSC represent opposite poles (Hofstede 1990; Markus and Kitayama 1991; Lee, Aaker et al. 2000); the other group of thought supports a two-dimensionality of the construct in which high INDSC is not considered to be equivalent to low INTSC (Singelis 1994; Polyorat and Alden 2005).

Most empirical studies focus on the two dimensions of SC (i.e. INTSC and INDSC), proposing the dominance of one characteristic over the other, disregarding individuals who possess both dimensions equally developed (Aaker and Lee 2001; Agrawal and Maheswaran 2005; Escalas and Bettman 2005; Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007). To reach this gap, this study introduces a third dimension of equidistance (EQUISC) to analyse the attitudes and behaviours of individuals with both dimensions (INTSC and INDSC) equally developed.

4.5. The effects of advertising communications: Attitudes towards the ad

The role of attitudes towards the ad in the effectiveness of advertising communications has been well established in the literature (Lutz, McKenzie et al. 1983; Holbrook and Batra 1987; Olney, Holbrook et al. 1991), so audience attitudes towards the ad are considered to be a filter on the effects of the advertisement on attitudes towards the brand. Attitudes towards the ad (A_{Ad}) are the recipient's overall evaluations of the advertising stimulus, which are believed to be one of the determinants of the effectiveness of brand communication and consequent brand attitudes; these mental reactions to the stimulus—either favourable or unfavourable—are considered to have an important effect on achieving the aims of the brand communication and furthermore to influence the brand that is being advertised (Holbrook and Batra 1987).

In low-involvement transformational advertising, where the audience is familiar with the product or brand, the main objective of the brand communication is to change existing brand attitudes, in which case it is fundamental that receivers like the ad (Rossiter, Percy et al. 1991). In addition, considering that the type of product and brand used as a stimulus in this study belongs to the soft drink category⁷, the emotional responses generated by the ad are important to achieve the communication objectives (Kover and Abruzzo 1993).

In this regard, this study is concerned with evaluating the recipient's A_{Ad} as an important element of brand communications and a determinant of attitude-towards-the-brand (Muehling and Laczniak 1992); following a stream of research on A_{Ad} (Gresham and Shimp 1985; Tsai 2007), it is believed that messages framed with positive valence will generate

⁷ Details of the brand stimulus selection are provided in the methodology chapter.

positive A_{Ad} , whereas messages framed with negative valence will generate negative A_{Ad} . To that end, it can be hypothesised that:

*H1. Exposure to **user-generated advertising** will have a greater impact on **attitudes towards the ad** than exposure to **firm-generated advertising** for individuals with dominant **INTSC** than for individuals with dominant **INDSC** and **EQUISC**.*

*H1a. Exposure to **UGA** will have a greater impact in **attitudes towards the ad** than exposure to **firm-generated advertising**.*

*H1b. When exposed to **negative UGA** rather than **positive or neutral UGA**, individuals with dominant **INTSC** will present lower **attitudes towards UGA** than individuals with dominant **INDSC** and **EQUISC**.*

4.5.1. The influence of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand

Having established the effects of message valence on attitudes towards the ad (A_{Ad}), attention will now be directed to the impact A_{Ad} has on attitudes towards the brand (A_b) (Lutz, McKenzie et al. 1983; MacKenzie and Lutz 1989; Homer 1990); this influence is believed to be related based on classical conditioning, as A_{Ad} directly affects A_b . In other words, the more positively consumers react to an ad, the more positive their attitudes towards the brand (Shimp 1981; Gresham and Shimp 1985). Furthermore, this relationship has been found to be more significant under low-involvement conditions and for emotionally based advertising (Mehta 2000), which is the case of the product used as the stimulus in this study (i.e. Coca-Cola) as well as the type of message based on emotional appeals.

The *affect transfer hypothesis* (ATH) discussed in section 2.6.4 supports this relationship suggesting a one-way causal flow from A_{Ad} to A_b . This position has been supported by empirical research, in which it has been observed that there is a significant variance between A_{Ad} , that A_b is stronger than the effects of consumers' brand beliefs and evaluations, and that there is a positive linear relationship between both variables (Moore and Hutchinson 1983; Gardner 1985; Jinsong, Song et al. 2013). Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

*H2. Attitudes towards the ad generated after the exposure to affectively valenced **user-generated advertising** (negative, positive and neutral) will have a significant influence on participants' attitudes towards the brand.*

4.6. The effects of advertising communications: Attitudes towards the brand

Brand attitudes are the mental states in which individuals evaluate an object such as a branded product and structure their responses to advertising communications (Mitchell and Olson 1981). Following the unidimensional model of attitudes discussed in section 2.8.1.2, this study considers attitudes from an affective perspective: attitudes are predictors of the consumer's behaviour towards a brand reflected in behavioural intentions (Ajzen and Fishbein 1972; Aaker and Day 1974).

This study focuses on one of the main goals of advertising: to change consumers' brand attitudes (Greene and Stock 1966). Empirical evidence provided by Aaker and Day (1974) suggests that persuasive messages have a significant effect on brand attitudes; the brand information received through advertising along with consumer's self-construal may have an impact in brand attitudes. Hence it can be hypothesised that:

*H3. Exposure to **user-generated advertising** has a greater impact on **attitudes towards the brand** than exposure to **firm-generated advertising** for individuals with dominant **INTSC** than for individuals with dominant **INDSC** and **EQUISC**.*

*H3a. Exposure to **UGA** will have a greater impact in **attitudes towards the brand** than exposure to **firm-generated advertising**.*

*H3b. When exposed to **negative UGA** rather than **positive or neutral UGA**, individuals with dominant **INTSC** will present lower attitudes towards the brand than individuals with dominant **INDSC** and **EQUISC**.*

Having framed the UGA within the principles of the attribution theory and addressed the effects of SC on brand communication effectiveness, the next section will focus on this study's theoretical framework and on the effects of UGA and self-construal on behavioural intentions.

4.7. The effects of advertising communications: Behavioural intentions

The final proposed component of the advertising communication process relates to consumers' behavioural intentions (BI); following the theory of planned behaviour (TPB)⁸, individuals' intention to perform an action are mediating antecedents to observable behaviour. The TPB sustains that attitudes ultimately influence behaviours by first affecting the individual's intentions to act in a particular way; BI can be related to a wide range of attitudes towards an object. For this study, BI will be focused on branded products and classified in four comprehensive dimensions: purchase intention, brand/product switching, word-of-mouth

⁸ Discussed in section 2.8.2.2.

and engaging in user-generated creation (Zeithaml, Berry et al. 1996). Therefore, the main hypothesis pertaining to BI is:

*H4. Exposure to **user-generated advertising** will have a greater impact on **behavioural intentions** than exposure to **firm-generated advertising** on individuals with dominant **INTSC** and **EQUISC** than on individuals with dominant **INDSC**.*

However, *H4* can be tailored in specific hypotheses to explain each dimension of BI previously highlighted: purchase intention, brand/product switching, word-of-mouth and engaging in user-generated creation as follows:

4.7.1. Intention to purchase and consume the product or brand

Regarding purchase intentions (PI), or the ‘*individual’s conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand*’ (Spears and Singh 2004, p. 56), these intentions may be a consequence of attitudes generated by UGA (positive, negative or neutral). Furthermore, individuals’ self-construal characteristics may also have an impact on the effects of these consumer-generated communications, as previously mentioned, and may be favourable (intention to purchase/drink) or unfavourable (no intention to purchase/drink). Therefore it can be hypothesised:

*H4a. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to **purchase/drink the brand** than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

*H4b. Exposure to **UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to **purchase/drink the brand** for individuals with a dominant **INTSC** and **EQUISC** than for individuals with **dominant INDSC**.*

4.7.2. Intention to switch product within brand or switch brands

Brand or product switching is the consumer's intention to substitute a product or brand for another in the same category, possibly as a consequence of his or her perception of product quality and/or the satisfaction of his or her expectations with the brand as well as a result of exposure to advertising messages. Persuasive brand information received through advertising may generate positive or negative inferences about the brand or product, which may cue a consumer's intention to change to another brand or product (Deighton, Henderson et al. 1994; Ahluwalia, Burnkrant et al. 2000)

Switching intentions may also be advantageous or disadvantageous towards the advertised brand depending on the valence of the message. In the case of unfavourable brand information, the risk perceived by consuming a specific brand or product may lead to an intention to switch brands or products; in other words, high perceived risk (e.g. poor quality, health problems) may generate brand switching to a safer product (Choi and Ahluwalia 2013); conversely, in the case of positive information, the risk is less, and consumers may have no intentions to switch.

Pertaining to the brand used as a stimulus in this study⁹, participants may have the intention to switch to a product within the same brand, seeking to reduce health issues or switch to a product from another brand. Hence:

*H4c. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions of **product/brand switching intentions** than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

⁹ Details of the brand stimulus selection are provided in the methodology chapter

H4d. Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions of product/brand switching intentions on individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than on individuals with dominant INDSC.

4.7.3. Intention to engage in word-of-mouth activities

Word-of-mouth (WOM) or the informal person-to-person brand communication is considered a dimension of BI in this study, WOM represents a consumer's solution to a brand issue by communicating brand information with family and friends. A combination of factors, including consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction and involvement with the brand as well as the influence of brand communications, leads individuals to speak for or against a brand (Dichter 1966; Westbrook 1987; Angelis, Bonezzi et al. 2012; Yang, Hu et al. 2012).

In the case of brand information, either positive or negative, consumers may be inclined to intend to endorse or censure the product with family and friends; therefore, it can be hypothesised that:

*H4e. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to purchase/drink the brand than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

H4f. Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to purchase/drink the brand for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.

*H4g. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to switch product/brand than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

*H4h. Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to switch **product/brand** for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.*

4.7.4. Intention to engage in electronic word-of-mouth activities.

When these brand communications occur on the Internet and social media, they are considered electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). eWOM intentions are related to individuals' internal satisfaction self-promotion, altruism or concern for other consumers, advice seeking, anxiety reduction and desire for social interaction; also, by generating eWOM, consumers seek to alleviate issues resulting from negative experiences with brands, products and services, seeking retribution from the brand (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner et al. 2004; Garg and Kataria 2013).

eWOM can also be considered when consumers 'share' with others UGA created by other consumers; in this case, individuals are engaging in the diffusion of brand content generated by other consumers (Burmann 2010). Faster Internet connectivity and a plethora of UGC contribute to an increase of video sharing; this practice of online video diffusion enhances people's social connections, promoting feelings of belonging and closeness. Many YouTube users engage in content distribution by uploading other users' videos to their profiles and sharing them with family and friends (Shamma, Bastea-Forte et al. 2008; eMarketer 2011). Controversial, uplifting, moving or sneak peak videos are the main triggers for sharing videos (Lake 2011); in other words, videos that have an impact either positive or negative in audiences are considered more likely to be shared. Therefore, it can be hypothesised that:

*H4i. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to **share the ad** with family and friends than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

*H4j. Exposure to **UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to **share the ad** with family and friends for individuals with a dominant **INTSC and EQUISC** than for individuals with **dominant INDSC**.*

*H4k. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to **comment on brand-related videos/engage in online branded conversations** than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

*H4l. Exposure to **UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to **comment on brand-related videos/engage in online branded conversations** for individuals with a dominant **INTSC and EQUISC** than for individuals with **dominant INDSC**.*

4.7.5. Intention to engage in user-generated activities

Engaging in creating and uploading a brand-related video is considered the ultimate level of brand-related activeness (Mutinga, Moorman et al. 2011). People engage in video-creating activities for intrinsic enjoyment, self-promotion and/or to change others' perceptions (Berthon, Pitt et al. 2008); furthermore, video creation may also be a response to another brand-related video. Similarly to video sharing, the creation of brand-related videos as a result of the exposure to other user-generated advertising may be a reaction to videos that have an impact on audiences, either positive or negative. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

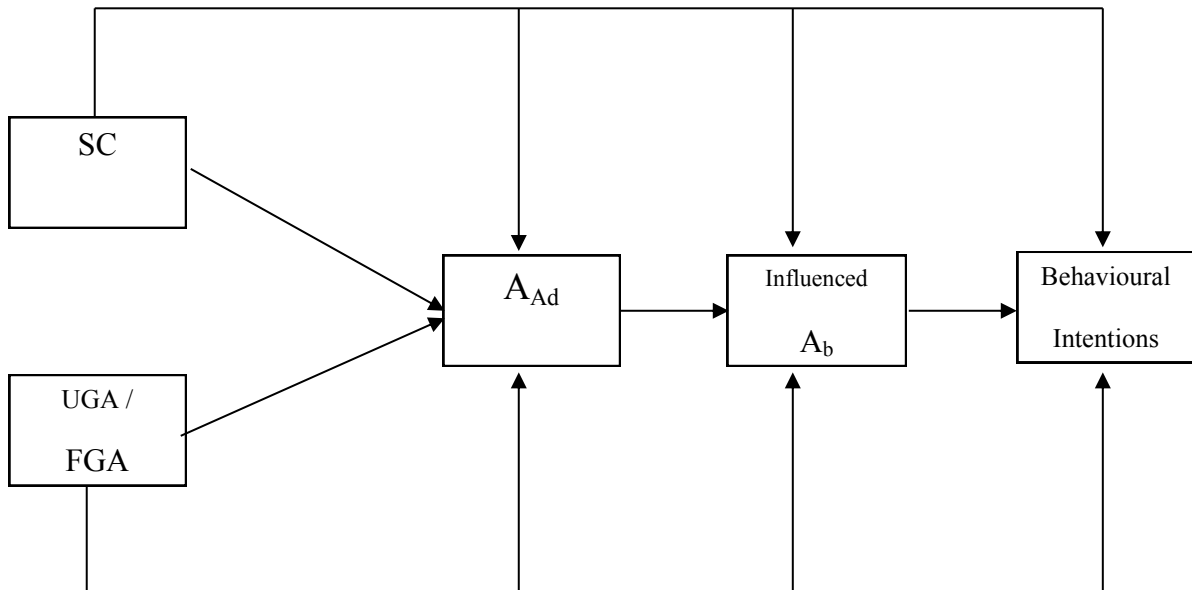
*H4m. Exposure to **negative and positive UGA** will have a greater impact on consumer intentions **produce a video about the brand** than exposure to **neutral UGA**.*

H4n. Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to produce a video about the brand for individuals with dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.

4.8. Conclusion

The study's proposed theoretical framework, depicted in figure 4.1, proposes how advertising communications generated by firms and consumers affect brand attitudes and behaviours; following traditional advertising communication models, the proposed framework suggests the relationship existing between the main research constructs.

Figure 4-1 The conceptual framework of the study



Concordant with established communication models, this study's framework follows a progressive flow of effects from advertising communications in the form of user- and firm-generated advertising and self-construal as independent variables and their impacts on attitudes towards ad and brand as predictors of behavioural intentions. It also suggests that

UGA content may directly affect brand attitude and behavioural intentions above the intervening mediator in attitudes towards the ad.

According to the proposed model, UGA and firm-generated advertising diffused through social media, specifically YouTube, follows the same traditional advertising process and incorporates an important element related to social networking and the effects of peer recommendations on consumers' brand perceptions. This model is based on the premise that similar to exposure to traditional advertising, exposure to UGA follows an integrative model where psycho-social characteristics of the receiver in the form of self-construal have an effect on the way consumers evaluate the brand information provided in UGA communications. In other words, these psycho-social characteristics filter the information received, which subsequently will produce attitudinal responses to the stimulus in the form of brand attitudes which ultimately lead to behavioural intentions.

This conceptual framework is drawn from previous research on consumers' attitudinal responses to advertising (Gresham and Shimp 1985; Rossiter and Percy 1985; Weilbacher 2003), and more importantly on consumer reliance on brand information from user-generated advertising compared to firm-generated advertising (Cheong and Morrison 2008; Ertimur 2010; Christodoulides, Jevons et al. 2012; Ertimur and Gilly 2012). It also draws from studies on the role of self-construal in consumer evaluation of advertising and brands (Choi and Miracle 2004; Polyorat and Alden 2005; Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007; Zhang 2009; Lin, Moore et al. 2011; Burton, Gore et al. 2012) and the mediator effects of attitudes towards UGA on advertising effectiveness (Gardner 1985; Homer 1990).

These studies conclude that after exposure to brand communications, attitudes towards the ad play a mediating role as an intervening variable between advertising content and brand

attitudes. Finally, it also follows research on behavioural intentions as predictors of overt consumer behaviour (Deighton, Henderson et al. 1994; Ahluwalia, Burnkrant et al. 2000; Liu, Furrer et al. 2001).

In sum, this study follows a relatively standard model of communication to explain the effects of UGA on consumer brand attitudes and further behavioural intentions and the role of attitude towards the ad as a mediator variable; however, a new element has been added in the form of self-construal.

Based on the above grounds for the purpose of empirical testing, this study will use hypotheses related to the effects of exposure to UGA on consumer brand attitudes and the relationship between the main constructs related to this process. The following chapter will describe the detailed methodology for testing the research hypotheses developed in this chapter.

5. THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses this study's rationale for the collection and analysis of data. It begins with an explanation of the main research paradigms and considerations that justify the research design. The following section explains in detail the methodological elements of the study and the development of the research design, which will be divided into three main stages: the first stage pertains to a content analysis of a sample of the UGA population on YouTube, the second stage pertains to the selection and validation of the stimuli that were used in the final stage of the research through a panel of expert judges and finally, the third section discusses the development of the research instrument, questionnaire administration, sampling issues and questionnaire pre-test and the data analysis strategy proposed.

5.2. The foundations of the research study

The first consideration in the foundations of this research study was related to the theoretical approach to be adopted; in this regard, social research is conducted to test existing theories or to develop new ones that can explain the social phenomenon being studied (Blaikie 2000; Bryman 2008). This study aimed to test extant communication and attitude-behavioural theories, therefore it is considered to take a *deductive* approach based on existing knowledge related to advertising communications and their effects on consumer attitudes and behaviours. Furthermore, the researcher aimed to formulate hypotheses deduced from the theories to test their applicability to the phenomenon of UGA (deVaus 2001); this type of research approach is usually related to quantitative methods of data collection. Conversely,

the other theoretical approach concerns to theory building and uses *inductive* reasoning from observations of the phenomenon being studied to derive theories from these observations; this approach is mainly related to qualitative methods of data collection in which the researcher infers the implication of the findings to generate a new theory (deVaus 2001).

Having defined the theoretical approach of the study, the next considerations of the foundations of the study concerned the philosophical and methodological paradigms. Social research is guided by three main paradigms: first, *ontology*, dealing with the core of social reality and concerned with the nature of social reality, more specifically what the research is based on; second, *epistemology*, concerned with the nature of knowledge and what is supposed to be obtained from the research, specifically what knowledge it intends to obtain; and finally, *methodology*, concerned with the nature of research design and methods—in essence, how the research will be constructed and conducted and the strategies or a plan of action that will shape the research and *methods*, techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse the data (Bailey 1978; Babbie 1995; Bailey 2005). This hierarchical order means that *ontology* structures the logic of *epistemology*, which in turn structures the nature of *methodology*.

Philosophical considerations observe the nature of scientific evidence, causality and understanding of knowledge about social life; this knowledge must be validated by reliable methods to be regarded *as a justified true belief* (Hansen and Scott 1976; Grayling 2003). Following the deductive theoretical approach, this study is based on scientific beliefs, values and techniques known as paradigms or '*a set of scientific and metaphysical beliefs that make up a theoretical framework in which theories can be tested, evaluated and revised if necessary*' (Kuhn 1962p. 175), which will serve as a guide to indicate the important problems and issues in the discipline based on an explanatory scheme to place these issues in a

framework to solve them. These paradigms will also establish the methodology, instrument and type of data collection that will be used to solve these issues (Filstead 1979). As Deshpande (1983) points out, understanding the nature of paradigms enables the social scientist to determine what problems are worthy of exploration and what methods are available to solve them, as the relationship between theory and knowledge is fundamental for conducting social research.

In essence, the philosophical considerations guide this study in following established and empirically proven grounds found in the work of previous research; in other words, by examining existing empirical research, the assumptions of what the world is, how it works and how the researcher claims knowledge about these realities have been already established by other researchers (Kanouse 1984).

5.2.1. Ontological considerations of the study

Two main ontological positions are followed in social research: *objectivism*, in which social beings are objective and have a real perception external to social factors, and *constructionism*, focused on whether social entities should be built and constructed upon the views and actions of social actors (Bryman 2008).

Objectivism assumes that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent from its social actors; essentially, the researcher cannot influence social phenomena as they are out of his influence (Bryman 2008). The real world does not depend on people's perceptions, and it is revealed but not developed by individuals (Hansen and Scott 1976).

Constructionism assumes that social ideology and its contents are constantly being accomplished by social actors, hinting that findings are produced by social interaction and are in a recurring state of revision; the researcher's own assumptions of social phenomena and assessment of these phenomena are considered knowledge.

5.2.2. Epistemological considerations of the study

Social research follows two main epistemological stances: *positivism*, which argues that in order to study and generate knowledge, researchers must follow scientific methods, therefore perceiving reality in an objective manner based in observation and measurement; and *interpretivism*, arguing that knowledge is acquired through the researcher's subjective meaning of social phenomenon and is therefore based on the researcher's interpretation of the world (Hansen and Scott 1976; Blaikie 2000).

Positivism sustains that methods, concepts and procedures of natural sciences can and should be applied to the study of social life. This position is characterised by two main beliefs: first, social sciences target issues similar to those of the natural sciences; second, social sciences should seek social causation when addressing human activity and aim for deductive explanations (Hansen and Scott 1976). These two principles indicate that the positivist position is an objective approach to the study of social phenomena and that generated knowledge is based on empirical results that support a deductive reasoning, for this reason, this approach is often related to a quantitative strategy based in observation and measurement (Grix 2010; Sarantakos 2013). Social scientists (Deshpande 1983; Guba and Lincoln 1994; Crotty 1998; Bryman 2008) concur that quantitative research in social science is guided by the formulation of hypotheses drawn from theories which should be tested through the objective application of natural science methods.

Furthermore, conventional social science positivism follows four criteria to discipline inquiry: internal validity, or the degree to which findings correctly map the phenomenon in question; external validity, or the degree to which findings can be generalised to other settings similar to the one in which the study occurred; reliability, or the extent to which findings can be replicated or reproduced by another inquirer; and objectivity, or the extent to which findings are free from bias (Denzin and Lincoln 1994). In addition, this paradigm is based on the assumptions that there are universal laws that govern social events and uncovering these laws enables researchers to describe, predict and control social phenomena, which are the purposes of social research. Therefore, positivist epistemology relates to empiricist considerations seeking to confirm knowledge by the generation of hypotheses that can be tested for the explanation of laws.

Interpretivism supports the researcher's reflective assessment and interpretation of the social world; essentially, it emphasizes the researcher's generation of meaning and understanding of different perspectives of social actors, generates knowledge of a subjective nature and is less structured than positivist generation of knowledge (Grix 2010; Sarantakos 2013). Therefore, *interpretivism* is often related to a qualitative strategy and is more concerned with the interpretation of the meaning of words rather than with numbers.

Drawing from the above, ontological and epistemological paradigms are frameworks that characterise the means and concerns of a study and are considered to be accepted frameworks to conduct a specific type or study; to that end, these paradigms are implicit in the research method of data collection, which can be qualitative or quantitative, and researchers are advised not to elaborate or attempt to choose different positions or assumptions underpinning their research and be epistemologically, ontologically and methodologically consistent with scientifically established parameters (Crotty 1998; Grix 2010).

5.2.3. The philosophical position of the study: Objective positivism

This study follows an *objective ontological* position, as the social phenomena of social media, specifically UGA and the effects on brand attitudes exist and are external to the researcher and are beyond his reach or influence. An objective reality means that social phenomena can only be analysed by direct observation and measurement.

This study also holds a *positivist epistemological* position, which is considered the core of scientific research in the behavioural sciences and is used to develop hypotheses of daily life events that are tested through experimentation (Nunnally 1978); along with traditional psychometric theory, the meaningful measurement and quantification of phenomena require explicit interpretation of numbers in the context of theory (Essex and Smythe 1991), as in the use of self-completion questionnaires as an instrument of data collection in order to conduct a statistical analysis to test the research hypotheses and draw inferences of the population based on a representative sample. Before embarking on the methodological aspect of the study, the next section discusses the general ethical considerations followed in this research and considered of paramount significance in the understanding of the research methodology.

5.3. General ethical considerations of the study

This section discusses the general ethical considerations of the research related to the adherence to the University of Birmingham's (UOB) guidelines for doctoral researchers and main social science research ethical guidelines. Other important ethical issues raised during the research process will be addressed in the relevant methodological discussion sections

regarding, for instance, obtaining permission to use the videos for the study and confidentiality anonymity of response.

This study abides by the UOB code of practice for research (2013), which states that *'UOB expects all research carried out at the University of in its name to be conducted to the highest standards of integrity'*; and furthermore, that *'all Registered Students (whether undergraduate or postgraduate) involved in research must abide by this code'*. With this regard, this study will adhere to section 2, subsection 2.2 of the UOB code of practice (2013) that states that *'the primary researcher should identify clear roles and accountabilities for all those involved in any research project'* in the following areas:

- i. The ethical basis of the research and the research design.
- ii. The safety of all involved in the research.
- iii. Management of research data in accordance with the Data Protection Act ('DPA'), 1998 and any other legal provisions, conditions and guidelines that may apply to the handling of personal information.
- iv. Seeking to ensure timely and wide dissemination of research findings.
- v. Maintaining confidentiality in order to achieve protection of intellectual property rights where appropriate.
- vi. Ensuring research participation is voluntary, free from any coercion and that the participants are properly informed of any risks, the broad objectives and of the identity of any sponsors of the research.
- vii. Using all best endeavours to avoid unnecessary harm to participants, other people, animals and the natural environment, having taken due account of the foreseeable risk and potential benefits of the research.

For this matter and since social research is concerned with individuals and their psychological and social environments, ethical issues that may have an impact on the manner in which research is conducted, the way individuals are treated and the nature and manipulation of the data collected (Blaikie 2000; Grix 2010) were therefore considered before starting the study.

Similarly, social research must be based on ethical principles that guarantee fair treatment to participants and adequate use of the data, and adding to subsection iii mentioned above, this study also observes the Economic and Social Research Council's (2005) research ethics framework, which suggests that social research must follow these ethical principles:

- i. Research subjects will be fully informed about the purpose, methods and intended possible use of the research.
- ii. Confidentiality of information will be maintained and identity of participants will be respected.
- iii. The involvement of research participants will be entirely voluntary.
- iv. The independence of the research will be clearly delineated and any conflicts of interest or partiality will be explicit.

Furthermore, abiding by the UK's leading professional social research associations publications, the latest British Sociological Association statement of ethical practices (2012 in Press) and the British Psychological Society code of ethics (2009), the anonymity of the participants and confidentiality of the information collected will be assured to the fullest extent possible by law, and personal details that could make participants identifiable such as address, date of birth and university course, will not be collected.

Another important aspect contemplated in the design of this study follows the section 3 of UOB (2013) code of practice regarding the data collected during the research which states:

- i. Research workers must keep clear and accurate records of the research procedures they followed and the results obtained, including interim result.
- ii. Research data must be recorded in a durable and auditable form, with appropriate references so that it can readily be recovered.
- iii. Data should normally be preserved and accessible for ten years.
- iv. Research workers must ensure that they have each study participant's explicit informed written consent to obtain, hold and use their personal data.

Therefore the data collected and the results of the experiment will be stored securely and password protected separately by the researcher and the supervisors in University of Birmingham's fileserver, managed by the researcher and the two supervisors to guarantee that the data stored in one place is available when required by the researcher and the two supervisors and furthermore, to ensure that data is stored securely minimising the risk of loss, theft or unauthorised use. The data will be stored until the end of the project, and will then be destroyed by deleting it from the server.

Following section 7 of the UOB (2013) research code of practice this study was subject to an ethical review assessment conducted by the Humanities and Social Sciences Ethical review committee and approved on the 9th December 2011 (see appendix 3).

5.4. Methodological considerations of the study

This study also followed specific *methodological considerations* to translate ontological and epistemological principles into plans of action to conduct the research and analyse the data; these considerations guided the researcher in the research design and methods followed in order to obtain knowledge about user-generated-advertising. *Research design* was concerned with the logic structure of enquiry and *research methods* with the instrument used in the collection and analysis of the data (deVaus 2001; Sarantakos 2013).

5.4.1. The Research Design

The objective of the research design is to '*ensure that the evidence obtained enable the researcher to answer the research question as unambiguously as possible*' (deVaus 2001, p. 9). Following the research foundations discussed at the beginning of this chapter, this study aims to develop causal explanations on changes in attitudes and behaviour after the exposure to user-generated compared to firm-generated advertising. Therefore, this type of research answers the type of *why* questions and is considered to be an *explanatory* type of research considering that the advertising phenomenon affects attitudes and behaviour (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999); and that consumer-generated brand communications have a greater impact on consumers than firm-generated (Bronner and de Hoog 2010).

Conversely, another type of social research aims to answer the type of question *what* and is considered to be a *descriptive* type of research; in this regard, literature already suggests that consumers follow online brand reviews and that social media affects purchasing behaviour (eMarketer 2010; 2012); therefore, this study aims to explain this phenomenon rather than provide a description of what is going on.

In tune with the research paradigms, this study corresponds to a *quantitative nature* emphasizing the quantification in data collection and analysis, aiming to test existing attitude-behavioural theories by applying closed methods of data collection with a fixed research design analysing the data obtained with scientific statistical methods (Sarantakos 2013).

This study was based on an experimental design, as it provided definitive answers to questions about attitudes and behaviour; also it allowed the researcher the control and manipulation of variables for a meticulous observation of their relationships and cause-effect in order to obtain valid and reliable results that can be replicated by other researchers (Keppel 1973; Denscombe 1998; Field and Hole 2003). Specifically, this study followed a *quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test* design where observations were taken for all participants' exposures to same stimuli; in other words, this design does not include a control group. However, the pre-exposure measures of brand attitudes serve as a baseline measure of the construct and allow the researcher to compare if existing brand attitudes changed after the exposures to the UGA and firm-generated advertising.

5.4.2. The Research Methods

Having defined the type of research and design of this study, the next element of the methodology considerations of this study was related to the method employed for data collection and analysis (deVaus 2001). This research was conducted in a three-stage process; first an *analysis* of a sample of the video population on YouTube to establish the researcher's knowledge about the general characteristics of the videos and for the selection of a sub-sample of videos to be used in the following stage; second a validation of the valence of the video sample through a *panel of judges'* and scientifically justify the videos chosen for the

final stage. Finally, an *Internet based questionnaire*, using a convenience sample, was used to further evaluate if UGA and consumer self-construal have an effect on consumer brand attitudes.

5.4.2.1. Stage 1: Content analysis of the YouTube video population

This stage analysed existing brand related videos on YouTube to gain an understanding of user-generated advertising (UGA), and establish the researcher's knowledge about the characteristics of the video population in an 'objective, systematic and comprehensive manner' (Hansen, Cottle et al. 1998) before the selection of the videos that were used in the final stage of the study. In the early stages of the research, the creation of the videos to be used as stimuli was contemplated; therefore through a content analysis the researcher could obtain a clear description of the key elements of the three types of UGA; however, as the research progressed, it was agreed that the creation of the videos as stimuli was impractical for the purposes of this study and the decision of using existing videos from the sample observed was adopted; nevertheless, the premises related to the positivity, neutrality or negativity of the video in relation to the brand was maintained and were used for the following stages of the study.

A descriptive *content analysis* was conducted on a sample of UGA messages to analyse their characteristics; for instance, the technique used to create the video, its duration, how the brand appeared in the video; the number of times the brand was mentioned and the overall tone of the video with regards to the brand among other elements; therefore the evaluative features of the video in relation to the brand and the position of the creator could be quantified through a content analysis (Deacon, Pickering et al. 2007).

Media messages can be analysed following different procedures based on the type of message and the unit of analysis: words, text, images (still and moving), and/or sounds; and the objectives of the analysis: for instance, studies that may be concerned with the meaning of the words or the images of the message follow a *qualitative* approach from which the researcher interprets the message elements to reach an understanding of the socio-cultural phenomena that shape the origins of the message (Grbich 2007). The main qualitative methods for analysing media messages summarised in table 5.1 are:

Table 5-1 Comparison of qualitative and quantitative communication research methods

Technique	Unit of Analysis	Research Approach	Researcher's Expertise
Discourse Analysis	Text communications	Qualitative	Competent language user
Rhetorical Analysis	Text and oral communications	Qualitative	An expert and persuasive speaker
Semiotic Analysis	Cultural Signs and Symbols	Qualitative	Competent member of the culture studied
Narrative Analysis	Stories and its participants	Qualitative	competent reader
Content Analysis	Text, words, images	Qualitative/Quantitative	Trained in scientific research methods

Source: adapted from Penn (2000), Neuendorf (2002) and Grbich (2007)

Discourse Analysis: this technique analyses the characteristics of manifested language and words used in media texts and focuses on the use of words and style of language to create a bridge to how the public will ascertain the phenomena and seek consistency and connection of words to theme analysis and establishment of central terms. In this regard, the

communicator's motives and ideology are clearly defined and the crucial factor is that the communicator be a competent language user (Neuendorf 2002; Grbich 2007).

Rhetorical Analysis: This technique analyses the properties of the text (words and images) and focuses on the delivery and presentation of the message as conveyed through words and language style; in other words, the focus is not on the actual words or the style of language but rather on the manner in which these are delivered; therefore, the analyst engages in a reconstruction of the characteristics of text, images or both, such as message's construction form, argumentation structure and choices (Neuendorf 2002). The communicator must be a competent rhetorician whose approach is focused on structural elements, tropes, styles of argumentation and speech acts (Leach 2000).

Semiotic Analysis: Is a more subliminal technique which analyses the deeper meaning of messages, how meaning is created and the relationship between elements based on interpretations theoretically grounded on central themes in culture and society with the aim of understanding the less obvious and hidden and deeper, underlying meanings lying within a message (Neuendorf 2002). The typical researcher within this analysis group is usually a well-rounded and representative member of a culture and thus, interpretation of the message leads to clarification of broad cultural values (Penn 2000).

Narrative Analysis: is concerned with the characters involved in the message rather than with the text used in the message through a *reconstruction of the composition of the narrative*. This analysis is obtained from individuals rather than the text and therefore, the researcher must have a good grasp of collecting, understanding and interpreting narratives (Neuendorf 2002; Grbich 2007).

The advantage of the qualitative methods of analysis mentioned above is that the researcher can analyse messages to understand the social reality from the inside, interpreting the meaning of findings to provide an explanation of the social phenomena being studied. However, as this approach requires the researcher's interpretation of the message structure, context and participants in order to deconstruct, analyse and criticise the message, the researcher must be an expert in the undertaken approach; furthermore, the objectivity of the results have been also questioned as this approach is based in the subjective input of the researcher.

Conversely, the analysis of messages through *quantitative* methods, such as *content analysis* allows a systematic and objective analysis of the message characteristics (Neuendorf 2002); this type of research include texts, words and images all of which would be assigned a numerical value according to valid measurement rules. After applying a statistical analysis, the resulting data can be used to draw inferences about meaning, to describe communication and to differentiate communication within the context of production versus consumption (Riffe, Lacy et al. 2005).

The rationale for selecting this approach among other message analysis methods is that it allowed the researcher to identify objectively the message characteristics enabling the researcher to classify UGA messages as *positive* if the message was articulated with beneficial elements like words, text or images to the brand; *negative* if it was articulated with harmful elements, or *neutral* if the message neither appraised or derogated the brand.

The aim of this stage was to answer the question: *What are the elements that characterise UGA and their valence?*; to identify and count the occurrence of specified message characteristics a coding sheet (see appendix 4) was created following literature on

the characteristics that define traditional television advertising¹⁰ as well as YouTube video metrics and apply them to the analysis and classification of UGA organised in three main areas: video metrics, techniques, and valence (Hansen, Cottle et al. 1998).

5.4.2.1.1. Video Metrics

General information related to the video metrics or statistics related to brands that had an official video channel, the popularity of the video among different audiences by gender and age was analysed following data obtained from YouTube. Further information regarding specific characteristics, such as position of UGA in relation to other videos of the same brand and the existence of official brand channels was also assessed (Burgess and Green 2009).

5.4.2.1.2. Advertising techniques used in UGA

Information about advertising techniques used on each video were studied, regarding the use of *appeals* (i.e. emotional or rational) (Pollay 1983; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010) and advertising techniques used to change brand attitudes and behaviour were also studied. For instance, videos may follow the techniques of problem solution or demonstration of how to use the product, videos could be created just to entertain audiences and use the humour factor, products could be portrayed in a ‘Slice-of-Life’ situation where video capture its use in a non-acted scene, or the video could be based on information about the brand in terms of news or testimonials about the brand (Ogilvy and Raphaelson 1982). Similarly, this stage aimed to ascertain what types of product and services (i.e. search or experience) were portrayed on UGA (Laband 1991; Klein 1998).

¹⁰ See section 2.6.6.

Other technical aspects of the video studied were concerned to length, if the video includes audio, music and or sound effects (Paek, Kim et al. 2010), how the video makes reference to the brand; visually, verbally or both and the visual incidents of brand position on UGA. The number of times the brand is mentioned in the video, the appearance of people and how they appear on UGA were also considered (Aaker and Norris 1982; Avery and Ferraro 2000; La Ferle and Edwards 2006)

5.4.2.1.3. Video Valence

Finally, the most important aspect studied after deciding to use existing videos was the relationship between the creator and the brand as it delineates the tone and the valence of the video; first the overall tone of the video, also the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the creator with the brand (Eroglu and Machleit 1990; Spreng, MacKenzie et al. 1996), if the creator recommends the brand to others (Anderson 1998; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk 2009), if the video parodies or ridicules the brand (Lim and Golan 2011; Vanden Bergh, Lee et al. 2011; Berthon and Pitt 2012) were evaluated to define the valence of the video.

5.4.2.1.4. The measurement of the video characteristics

A code book fully explained mutually exclusive video characteristics to guarantee consistency and clarity of the measures (see appendix 5), based on categorical scales which allowed the researcher to conduct non-parametric tests on the results and evaluate the characteristics of the video sample (Neuendorf 2002; Field 2009).

Characteristics about video metrics as detailed in table 5.2 contains general information about a brand having an official brand channel on YouTube, video length, UGA

position with regard to other videos on every page, video audiences and rating were obtained from the video statistics from YouTube.

Table 5-2 Video Metrics

Characteristic	Coding	Measure Adapted from:
Brand official channel	1. Yes	Kim (2012); YouTube (2013)
	0. No	
Video position	1. Yes	Wheatley (1968) YouTube (2013)
	0. No	
Male video audience	1. 12-19	Taylor et al. (2011); YouTube (2011)
	2. 20-29	
	3. 30-39	
	4. 40-49	
	5. 50+	
	6. Not found	
Female video audience	1. 12-19	Taylor et al. (2011); YouTube (2011)
	2. 20-29	
	3. 30-39	
	4. 40-49	
	5. 50+	
	6. Not found	
Attitude towards the video	1. Positive	(Shavitt, Lowrey et al. 1998; Okazaki, Mueller et al. 2010)
	2. Negative	

Characteristics regarding video techniques¹¹, the use of advertising appeals, parody and spoof, brand displays and character/brand interaction were used as well as other technical aspects concerning the length of the video, if the video included audio, music and or sound effects (Paek, Kim et al. 2010), how the video made reference to the brand; visually, verbally or both, and the visual incidents of brand position on UGA. The number of times the brand was mentioned in the video, the appearance of people and how they appeared (Avery and Ferraro 2000; La Ferle and Edwards 2006) are detailed in table 5.3.

¹¹ See section 2.6.6.

Table 5-3 Advertising techniques and characteristics

Characteristic	Coding	Measure Adapted from:
Advertising technique	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Problem solution 2. Entertain 3. Slice-of-Life (the character using the product in a non-acted scene) 4. News (ideas, uses, information) 5. Testimonials 	Ogilvy and Raphaelson (1982)
Video length	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Less than 59" 2. 1' -1' 59" 3. 2' - 2'59" 4. 3' - 3'59" 5. More than 4' 	Wheatley (1968); Singh and Cole (1993); Paek et al. (2010)
Audio	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sound Saturation (background sound through the video clip including street noise or other sounds, rather than a simply person talking thorough the video. 2. Background music: to accompany the dialogue or action of the video. 3. Sound effects: unusual sound that could not have occurred in real live heard in the video clip, including gongs and other noises. 4. No audio effects 5. Just Dialogue 	Paek et al. (2010)
Brand reference in video	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Visual only 2. Verbal only 3. Visual and verbal 4. No appearance 	Avery and Ferraro (2000); La Ferle and Edwards (2006)
Brand display on camera	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brand / actual product 2. Logo appearance 3. Direct text/ mention of brand 	La Ferle and Edwards (2006)

	4. Indirect text/ mention of brand or product.	
Brand position on camera	1. In foreground 2. Close-up 3. No-appearance	Avery and Ferraro (2000)
Verbal incidents of the brand	1. One mention only 2. Two mention (at beginning and end) 3. Three or more (through the video) 4. No mention	Avery and Ferraro (2000)
Character involvement	1. Yes 0. No	Avery and Ferraro (2000)
Type of incident involving character interaction	1. Visual only (character appears on camera but not speak) 2. Verbal only (of camera narrator) 3. Visual and verbal (character on camera speaking) 4. Not applicable	Avery and Ferraro (2000)
Type of character involvement	1. Use brand only 2. Mention brand only 3. Use and mention brand 4. Not applicable	Avery and Ferraro (2000)
Brand Categories	1. Automotive (cars, motorbikes) 2. Food /groceries/non- alcoholic beverages 3. Retail –household products 4. Clothing/ shoes/accessories (by brand) 5. Toys/games (non- technological) 6. Public Transportation (Airlines, trains, bus, Cruise) 7. Media and Entertainment 8. Technology products (radio, TV, cameras, computers, video games, home appliances, mobile	Laband (1991) Klein (1998)

	phones)		
	9. Telecom services (Internet/mobile and landline providers)		
	10. Banks/Financial services/insurance		
	11. Internet (retail, services)		
	12. Sports/Leisure/Spo rt Clubs		
	13. Charities		
	14. Alcoholic Beverages		
	15. Consumer Products- Health/Beauty/Per sonal Care		
	16. Retail-Fashion		
Love	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Happiness	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Excitement	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Arousal	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Ambition	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Comfort	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Recognition	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Status	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Respect	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Safety	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Fear	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Attributes	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Price	1. Yes 0. No		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
Quality	1. Yes		Mortimer and Grierson (2010)

	0. No	
Customer Care	1. Yes 0. No	Mortimer and Grierson (2010)
General information	1. Yes 0. No	Mortimer and Grierson (2010)

Finally, characteristics regarding video valence and the creator's brand evaluation, satisfaction, brand recommendation, expertise with the brand and the overall valence of the video are summarised in table 5.4.

Table 5-4 UGA valence

Variable	Conceptualisation	Coding	Measure Adapted from:
Overall video tone	UGA valence	1. Positive 2. Negative 3. Neutral	Richins (1983); Westbrook (1987); Berthon et al. (2008); Smith et al. (2012)
Product/brand satisfaction	Creator's degree of satisfaction with the brand/product	1. Satisfied 2. Dissatisfied 3. Neutral /not shown	Eroglu and Machleit (1990), Spreng, MacKenzie et al. (1996)
Product/brand recommendation	The creator recommends the brand to others	1. Yes 0. No	Richins (1983); Westbrook (1987)
Parody and/or spoof	The creator ridicules the brand	1. Yes 0. No	Anderson (1998); Krishnamurthy and Kucuk (2009)

5.4.2.1.5. Brands and video Sampling

The sampling criteria to decide what messages were examined was conducted in two stages; the first stage was concerned with brands; and the second stage was concerned with selecting the videos that were studied.

First, a quota sampling approach was adopted to obtain a sample of the *population of brands*; the sample frame was obtained from recognised brand reports which reduced the

repetitiveness of the sample. Brands with positive equity were obtained from Interbrand's (2010) Top global brand report; and Brandz's (2011) Top 100 most valuable brands report, prepared by Wire and Plastic Products (WPP) a leading marketing communication services group formed by companies in advertising, media, consumer insight and public relations. Brands presenting negative equity were obtained from Brandrepublic's (2006) top hated brands report which at the time of the study was one of the latest reports available and used as base for articles in the field (Curtis 2008), and from the Marketing Magazine's (2009) Top Most hated brands; finally it was also considered to include the top brands mentioned in social media; these mentions were taken from Brandrepublic (2009) and Headstream's (2011) social brands report. A summary of the reports used is presented in table 5.5.

Table 5-5 Summary of the brand reports used to select the pool of brands for the study

Report	Source	Number of brands on the report	Importance of the report for the study
Best Global Brands	Interbrand	100	Brands with positive equity
Top 100 Most Valuable brands	Brandz	100	Brands with positive equity
Top Hated Brands	Brand Republic	50	Brands with negative equity
Top 10 most hated brands	Marketing Magazine	10	Brands with negative equity
Most mentioned brands on Twitter	Brand Republic	100	Brands with presence in social media
Social Brands Report	Headstream	100	Brands with presence in social media

Source: The Author

To select the brands, these reports followed different criteria; for instance Interbrand, (2010) measures brand financial performance, the role of the brand in the market and the strength in terms of the ability of the brand to secure the delivery of future earnings;

Brandrepublic's ratings (2006, 2009) are taken from survey-based studies that measure consumer-brand relationships; and Headstream's (2011) report is concerned with social brands which have the ability to engage with people online. Accordingly, some brands appear in more than one report, to evaluate this occurrence all six reports were compared (see appendix 6); for instance, Coca-Cola appeared in three of the six reports and therefore, it was decided to enter brands only once to obtain a pool.

As a result, a total of 299 brands were obtained, containing brands with positive and negative equity and brands with presence in social media appearing on each report; however, this pool does not include an equal number of brands of each category.

From the pool of 299 brands, a random sample of 25 per cent ($n = 75$) was obtained using Microsoft Excel illustrated in table 5.6. By introducing first all the brand names into an Excel sheet; second by clicking "Data", and "Data Analysis" from the toolbar. Third, by selecting the "Sampling" command and choosing "random sampling" by introducing the sample size required.

The results of this process was a list of randomly selected brands from the list and the brands in this sample were the unit of analysis on which the analysis was based; more precisely, each brand in the sample was used to search for UGA on YouTube.

Table 5-6 Sample of brands

No.	Brand	No.	Brand
1	Amazon	39	Master Card
2	American Express	40	Mingles
3	AOL	41	Moët & Chandon
4	Armani	42	Moo
5	AVG	43	MTS
6	B&Q	44	Muddy Boots Foods
7	Berkshire Hathaway	45	MySpace
8	Blackberry	46	Nescafe
9	BMW	47	Next
10	Bosch	48	N-Gage
11	Bradesco	49	Nike
12	Brays Cottage Pork Pies	50	Nintendo
13	British Airways	51	Nivea
14	BT	52	Old Spice
15	Canon	53	Orange
16	Chase	54	Pampers
17	Childs' I Foundation	55	Pingan
18	Christian Aid	56	Pizza Hut
19	Citi	57	Porsche
20	Coca -Cola	58	Primark
21	Daily Star	59	Qantas
22	Dell	60	Red Bull
23	Disney	61	Rolex
24	Eurosport	62	Ryanair
25	Exxon Mobil	63	Sainsbury's
26	Financial Times	64	Samsung
27	Gower Cottage Brownies	65	Siemens
28	Harley-Davison	66	Specsavers
29	HSBC	67	Starbucks
30	ICICI Bank	68	Tesco
31	Ikea	69	The X Factor
32	J.P. Morgan	70	T-Mobile
33	Kellogg's	71	UBS
34	KLM	72	Virgin Atlantic
35	Lego	73	Virtuous Bread
36	Levi's	74	Visa
37	Manchester City FC	75	Yahoo
38	Manchester United		

Second, to select the videos that were examined, a distinction was made about the different types of videos available on YouTube; as this study is positioned in the field of brand communications, the criteria on which videos were selected was: *First*, videos must be

'brand related', excluding all other types of UGC, music videos, citizen journalism, videos of personal events or movie trailers among others; and *second*, videos should be created/modified by YouTube users that are not linked to the brand channel; this criterion excludes firm-generated advertising posted on personal profiles and those that appear in brand channels (Chun-Yao, Yong-Zheng et al. 2007; Muñiz and Schau 2007) .

The importance of these criteria¹², is that socially earned media, where the media activity is related to a brand or a company in the form of electronic word-of-mouth, posted in online communities or in social networks, as well as consumer's ratings and reviews of products/services, is not generated or requested by the firm and therefore, brand appearances in the form of actual products, logo or verbal mentions in the video are considered to be brand related videos or UGA (Stephen and Galak 2012).

5.4.2.1.6. Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with five random brands from the sample (n=75) to evaluate the feasibility of the search, in other words to find out which brands were subject of UGA; the results demonstrate that when searching for brands in YouTube, different types of videos appeared in the results. For instance, at the time of the study between December 2012 and January 2013, the brand Armani showed 853,000 videos were available, approximately 24 videos per screen; however, in the first six screens (i.e. 144 videos), none qualified as UGA as most of the videos were official brand messages either uploaded in the firm official brand channel or by brand enthusiasts. Similarly, the brand Nintendo showed 6,260,000 videos available; however, the first UGA was video number 29, and moreover, it was the only

¹² See section 3.3.

evidence of UGA in the first 144 videos surveyed. In the same manner, AOL results showed 1,280,000 videos available, and the first evidence of UGA was found in video number 22.

Following the pilot study, a purposive sample of 144 videos per brand (approximately 24 videos in the first six screens) were observed from the population composed of all the videos uploaded on YouTube that can serve for the purposes of this stage (Churchill 1999). However, if within the first six screens no videos considered UGA appeared, then the brand most likely will not present UGA in YouTube. Out of the 75 brands studied, 44 brands (59 per cent) did not present UGA whereas 31 brands (41 per cent) had. Table 5.8 summarises the brands that presented UGA.

Table 5.8. Brands in the sample presenting UGA on YouTube

1	Amazon	17	Lego
2	American Express	18	Levis
3	Blackberry	19	Master Card
4	BMW	20	MySpace
5	British Airways	21	Nike
6	BT	22	Nintendo
7	Chase	23	Nivea
8	Citi	24	Old Spice
9	Coca-Cola	25	Pizza Hut
10	Daily Star	26	Porsche
11	Dell	27	Primark
12	Disney	28	Ryanair
13	Harley-Davidson	29	Sainsbury's
14	Ikea	30	Starbucks
15	Kellogg's	31	Tesco
16	KLM		

Data were collected over a period of a month by the researcher, and a total of 10,800 videos for the 75 brands listed the sample were observed; from these videos, only 230 videos were considered UGA, that is brand-related videos created by consumers reflecting a degree

of creative effort where 136 appeared to be positive, 70 negative and 24 neutral. For full list of video names and YouTube link see appendix 7. Data were recorded manually and one code form was completed for each video; once the data were completed it was recorded on SPSS to further conduct the analysis.

5.4.2.1.7. Methodological Limitations of YouTube videos analysis

The analysis of YouTube material is limited in various ways; for instance, YouTube includes a combination of content that is unique and first-run, along with footage that may have appeared elsewhere in television and movies (i.e. television advertising); furthermore, Internet research presents challenges in establishing a population and sampling frame, since it is a moving universe; specifically, material is uploaded and deleted constantly. However, quota samples are suitable for this type of study, although it may not be possible to use this generalisation for the entire population (Ghose and Wenyu 1998; Riffe, Lacy et al. 2005).

Also, most content analysis involves the use of more than two coders (Neuendorf 2002); however, taking into consideration that this stage was conducted by one person, and to avoid results based on the subjective judgment of the researcher (Jacoby 1978), a sub-sample of the results was submitted to a panel of judges in the second stage of this study in order to obtain an inter-judge agreement to validate the categories selected and guarantee the validity and reliability of the results.

5.4.2.2. Stage 2: Stimuli Selection and validation through a panel of judges

The second stage of this research consisted of the selection and validation of the stimuli used in the final stage of this study by obtaining an inter-judge agreement and to ascertain if the videos selected in the previous stage were positive, negative and neutral to the brand.

5.4.2.2.1. Sample of Videos

To achieve this objective, from the sample of 230 videos studied in the previous stage, 136 were considered to have an overall positive valence, 70 negative and 24 neutral according to the characteristic ‘Overall Creator’s Attitude towards Brand Portrayed’; a purposive nonproportional quota sample of 25 videos using the researcher and the supervisor’s personal judgement of videos containing language, images and appeals that evoke positive and negative feelings towards the brand portrayed, as well as videos that portrayed a neutral feeling towards the brand as illustrated in table 5.9 containing 10 positive, 10 negative and 5 neutral videos were considered fit for the purpose of the study.

This sample involved a degree of the researcher’s subjective judgement; therefore, it was submitted to a panel of judges for validation and to guarantee its objectivity reflecting the three types of valence required when classifying a stimulus into categories. The personal judgment of the researcher may not ensure its reliability and validity, especially when quantitative data analysis is based on content analysis of marketing communications, as is the case in this study (Perreault Jr and Leigh 1989). Another possible way to conduct this stage was to organise the videos by brand (i.e. obtaining a positive, negative and neutral video per brand); however, at the time of conducting this stage, this decision was not contemplated, as

initially the purpose of the previous stage was only to ascertain the characteristics of the videos.

Table 5.9. Sample of 25 videos submitted to the panel of judges

	Brand	Valence	Name of Video
1	British Airways	Positive	BA the best airline Ever
2	Coca-Cola	Positive	I want to be a Coca-Cola
3	Harley Davidson	Positive	No more than ever
4	Starbucks	Positive	Tall Grande or Venti
5	Macbook – Apple	Positive	Macbookair parody
6	Pizza Hut	Positive	How to love Pizza Hut
7	Pop-Tartz	Positive	Parody Song to Dave Days
8	Tesco	Positive	Tesco-Tesco!
9	Old Spice	Positive	You Asked!
10	Dell XPS 630	Positive	Commercial Spoof
11	Chase Bank	Negative	Chase Banks Bitch
12	Citibank	Negative	Citibank Parody Bitch
13	Dell	Negative	Call Centre man go insane
14	Dell	Negative	Lollipop commercial parody
15	Daily Star	Negative	DS paper is a load of...
16	BT	Negative	Angry BT customer
17	Coca-Cola	Negative	How much sugar in a can of Coca Cola
18	Kellogg's	Negative	Special K more like special bullshit
19	Disney	Negative	What Disney Movies taught me
20	Starbucks	Negative	The Starbucks rant son
21	Lego	Neutral	Spec ad life as a Lego Man
22	Levis	Neutral	Commercials Spoof
23	Harley Davidson	Neutral	Harley Davidson Logo
24	Lego	Neutral	Rymdreglage 8bit trip
25	Coca-Cola	Neutral	10 facts about Coca-Cola

Five judges participated in the coding of the 25 selected videos, consistent with Rust and Cooil's (1994) guidelines, which suggest that four or more judges are necessary to achieve an acceptable inter-judge consensus and obtain a minimum acceptable level of agreement of $\alpha = 0.70$ (Nunnally 1978). This panel was formed by four marketing academics and one doctoral student based on the assumptions that marketing academics are experts in brand communications and the doctoral student is an expert in social media.

5.4.2.2.2. Questionnaire design for panel of judges

To validate the valence of the videos in the sample ($n=25$) selected by the researcher, a questionnaire was designed using the online survey Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com). Online or Internet-based surveys have the advantage that they not only allow respondents to choose their own schedule to complete the survey but allow the researcher to incorporate specific types of stimuli and directly relate these stimuli to the questions (Hair, Bush et al. 2003).

Considering that this study's stimuli were audio-visual, Qualtrics was used because it allows videos to be embedded in the questionnaire, facilitating exposure to the stimuli and its completion. Online survey software, Bristol Online Survey (BOS), also facilitates the development and distribution of surveys online; however, this software does not allow the embedding of videos in the survey and only provides a link for participants to access the videos. This was considered a limitation that could lower the response rate for the 25 videos, as each participant would have to switch between screens to see the videos and answer the questionnaire.

The same questionnaire was presented to all five judges (see appendix 8). It consisted of the 25 videos organised randomly by entering all the videos in an Excel spreadsheet and using the Excel function of sorting the list randomly. Each video was followed by three questions: The first question was related to the overall evaluation of the type of video in relation to the brand. This was a closed question with three possible choices: positive, negative or neutral. The second and third questions ascertained whether the judges watched the video in its totality and the amount of viewing time of each video respectively.

5.4.2.2.3. Assessing video validation through proportional reduction in loss reliability

To avoid subjective judgment of the researcher regarding the valence of the videos, this study used the proportional reduction in loss reliability (PRL) approach (Rust and Cooil 1994). This approach is designed to provide a solid theoretical and scientific basis to obtain reliable measures; in essence, the PRL approach seeks to eliminate the researcher's subjective judgement in the selection of elements that are mutually exclusive. In the case of this study, this related to the researcher's judgement of which video was positive, negative or neutral. This approach incorporates quantitative and qualitative indexes of reliability and is considered similar to the coefficient alpha for rating scales. A reliability level of 0.70 is considered acceptable for construct measures and inter-rater agreement for categorical coding (Grayson and Rust 2001).

The scores of each judge were compared with the scores of each of the other judges, obtaining a total of 10 inter-judge pairs for the 25 videos seeking to obtain agreements in the three video categories (positive, negative and neutral) as summarised in table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Summary of the PRL results in terms of agreements and disagreements regarding the types of videos

Video	Name	Valence	Agreements	Total Expected
1	Coca Cola Vs Pepsi	Positive	10	10
2	Mc Book Air Parody	Positive	3	10
3	Levis 39 Commercial Spoof	Neutral	10	10
4	Citibank parody Ad	Negative	10	10
5	Angry BT Customer	Negative	10	10
6	Starbucks Tall, Grande or Venti	Positive	6	10
7	Tesco Music Video	Positive	10	10
8	How much sugar in a can of Coca Cola	Negative	10	10
9	Lego spec Ad	Neutral	4	10
10	British Airways the best airline ever	Positive	4	10
11	You asked! Old Spice	Positive	3	10
12	Harley Davidson Logo	Neutral	6	10
13	Chase Bank Bitch	Negative	6	10
14	Dell XPS 630 Commercial Spoof	Positive	10	10
15	Call Centre man goes insane	Negative	6	10
16	Lollipop Dell Commercial Parody	Negative	6	10
17	Harley Davidson No more than ever	Positive	10	10
18	10 Interesting facts about coca cola	Neutral	6	10
19	Pop Tarts Parody Song	Positive	10	10
20	The Starbucks rant song	Negative	10	10
21	Pizza Hut How to love Parody	Positive	6	10
22	What Disney Movies taught me	Negative	6	10
23	Rymdreglage 8 bit trip Lego	Neutral	4	10
24	Daily Star paper full of...	Negative	10	10
25	Kelloggs Special K more like special K...	Negative	10	10
			186	250
			inter-judge agreement	0.744
			PRL=	.98

Judges reached 186 agreements for the three categories out of a total of 250 possible,; 12 videos reached 100 per cent agreement, and 8 videos reached 60 per cent agreement.

The proportion of inter-judge agreement was .74 (total agreements expected / total agreements obtained); following Rust and Cooil's (1994) guidelines, a .74 inter-judge agreement between five judges is equivalent to a PRL reliability of .98, which is directly

comparable to a Cronbach's alpha of .98, therefore the agreement reached is considered good. The videos selected by the researcher reaching above 60 per cent of inter-judge agreement were considered reliable measures of positive, negative and neutral UGA.

5.4.2.3. Stage 3: Internet-based questionnaire

The final stage of this study sought to ascertain the effects of UGA and self-construal on brand attitudes and behavioural intentions, following the principles of causality, in which one or more independent variables have an effect on one or more dependent variables (Bailey 1978). The proposition that '*UGA and self-construal affect consumer brand attitudes and behavioural intentions*' was tested. To prove this position, attitudes and behavioural intentions were quantitatively measured by data collected through an Internet-based questionnaire on which the researcher manipulated the experimental arrangements in the form of the valence of UGA.

Similar to stage two, this stage was based on a structured self-completion questionnaire designed using the software Qualtrics, which allowed the researcher to embed the video stimuli directly into the instrument and administer it through the Internet. This method of data collection was adopted following the epistemological and ontological foundations of this research; questionnaires are important tools for gathering information about people's attitudes as well as the main instruments of data collection in experimental social research. Furthermore, collecting data through a questionnaire allowed the researcher to accurately measure participants' attitudes and intentions with clearly defined scales representing a range of possible responses facilitating the analysis of the data collected (Aaker and Day 1990; Hague 1993).

Furthermore, the decision to use a self-completion questionnaire was made considering that as videos constituted the main form of stimuli, participants could access the questionnaire in their own time and answer the battery of questions, re-playing each video if necessary. Another alternative was to conduct the study face to face with a group of respondents in one place, but it was more feasible to send the links to the study to a group of participants this way so that they could complete the questionnaire at their own pace and therefore obtain better responses.

Additionally, choosing an online-based questionnaire had many advantages over other methods of administration; it represented a lower cost to the researcher and could be sent to a bigger number of participants at one time. It also represented a quicker turnaround for responses, as the information was transmitted over the Internet. Similarly, it provided the possibility of better design and an attractive format which could help elevate the response rate. Perhaps the most important aspect of choosing this type of questionnaire was that it allowed automatic entry of participants' data, improving the quality of responses through elimination of skip errors and providing the possibility of faster and more accurate tabulation of the answers (Bradburn, Sudman et al. 2004; Bryman 2008). Therefore, other methods of administration commonly used, such as mail, telephone and face-to-face interviews, were therefore discarded for the above-mentioned reasons.

5.4.2.3.1. Questionnaire development

Two main issues were considered in developing the questionnaire: first, the scale selection to measure the research constructs; and second, the questionnaire design, involving ethical considerations, type of questions, layout and stimuli selection.

To measure the research constructs, existing scales were adopted, an accepted practice in social research as it has the advantage that these scales have been empirically tested and used by other researchers (Sarantakos 2013). For instance, the self-construal construct was measured using Singelis' (1994) scale, which presents reliable and valid measures and has been widely used in academic research. Its findings have been replicated in several studies (Lee, Aaker et al. 2000; Grace 2001; Escalas and Bettman 2005; Polyorat and Alden 2005; Zhang 2009; Burton, Gore et al. 2012; Sung and Choi 2012). This scale is formed by 12 items measuring interdependent-self-construal ($\alpha = .74$) and 12 items measuring independent self-construal ($\alpha = .70$) on a sample of $n=160$; it is considered to have an acceptable level of reliability (Nunnally 1978) and be suitable for reproduction in this study.

The self-construal construct has also been measured with other scales following different approaches, such as Khun and McPartland's (1954) "Twenty Statements Test" (TST) measures individuals' self-conceptualisation based on an open response format, the resulting statements may be used as self-construal scores (Cross, Hardin et al. 2011). Gudykunst, Matsumoto et al. (1996) measure self-construal from the individualist-collectivist cultural perspective; however, it is arguable that these scales are measuring distinct constructs and Singelis' (1994) scale was designed specifically to measure this construct, therefore it is the most used.

For the SC scale, two scores were given per participant with the 12 items per scale, therefore, each one received one score for interdependent SC (INTSC) and another for independent SC (INDSC). Subsequently, a median split was conducted and participants were categorised as high or low on each scale (2= high, 1=low); and participants who scored both high and low on each category were then categorised as equidistant (EQUISC); that is, scores of 2-2 or 1-1 were considered equidistant. These high and low scores were then re-coded and the resulting NTSC scores for each participant were either 1=INTSC, 2=EQUISC or 3=INDSC.

Holbrook and Batra's (1987) scale was used to measure attitudes towards the ad (A_{AD}) and attitudes towards the brand (A_B), reporting high reliability $\alpha = .99$ for A_{AD} and $\alpha = .98$ for A_B and suggesting extremely high internal consistency for these measures. It also reported acceptable validity that the empirical measures adequately reflected the real meaning of the constructs of A_{Ad} and A_B ; both constructs were measured with a four-item scale, as illustrated in table 5.11.

Although A_{Ad} and A_B have also been the focus of extensive research, and the construction of scales to measure these constructs has been approached in several studies (Miller and Marks 1992; Darley and Smith 1993; Peracchio and Meyers-Levy 1994; Putrevu and Lord 1994; Schmitt, Pan et al. 1994), some of these studies do not present evidence of the validity of the scales (Putrevu and Lord 1994). Holbrook and Batra's (1987) scale was selected for this study as it is based on how watching different advertisements affected participants A_{Ad} and A_B , arguing that emotional reactions mediate the relationship between advertising content and viewers' reactions, which is in tune with the approach of this study.

Table 5.11 . Operationalisation of the research constructs for this study: Sources and items used

Construct	Source	No. Items	Reliability
Independent self -construal	Singelis (1994)	12	.70
Interdependent self-construal	Singelis (1994)	12	.74
A_{ad}	Holbrook and Batra (1987)	4	.99
A_B	Holbrook and Batra (1987)	4	.98
Behavioural intentions	The author	19	.98

5.4.2.3.2. Questionnaire design

This study adopted a closed questions type with a rigid structure, allowing no flexibility in answering the questions; in this way, the answers were limited to the questions formulated by the researcher, and participants could not include other ideas or alternative answers commonly used in quantitative research (Babbie 1995).

Consequently, the questions of this study were closed ended, making them faster and easier to answer, especially considering that each question was repeated after each video; this type of questions is preferable in self-completion questionnaires and is particularly useful in measuring brand attitudes, consumers' recall of brands used, likes and dislikes of a product, consumer behaviour, and important demographic and psychographic data, as they provide uniformity in responses, consistency in results, and the data collected are easy to code and analyse. This is different from open-ended questions, which—although they give respondents greater freedom of expression—are more difficult to tabulate because the responses from participants are not fixed (Bailey 1978; Churchill 1999; Brace 2008).

Following the studies from which the scales used in this research were obtained, this research followed a Likert format; the construct of self-construal was measured using a 7-

point Likert scale that asked participants to indicate their agreement with the items (Singelis 1994). Similarly, A_{AD} and A_B were measured using Holbrook and Batra's (1987) original 7-point semantic differential scale, which follows a monopolar scale ('like-dislike') to measure the degree to which watching each UGA affected their feelings toward the brand.

This study's questionnaire layout was carefully considered, as in order to be effective, it needed to be attractive to the respondent through its appearance, design and ease of use. Therefore, the researcher tried to capture the attention of the respondent by avoiding confusion and tediousness, which could yield less favourable results (Hague 1993; Bradburn, Sudman et al. 2004).

The questionnaire was divided into eight sections (see appendix 9). Section one covered the research introduction and purpose followed by an informative page including the contact information of the researcher and the research supervisors. It further contained information regarding what was expected of each participant and the confidentiality of the collected information as well as a link to the University of Birmingham's code of practice for research. Section two covered the ethical aspects of the study, including a consent form following the UoB code of practice. This was necessary because the research involved humans as participants and confirmed that participants understood the nature of the research and were willingly participating. It also reiterated that participants could withdraw whenever they felt it appropriate (Churchill, 1999).

The following sections contained the questions to collect the data necessary to achieve the research objectives grouped into blocks related to each specific subject (Hague 1993); section three included measures of self-construal, followed by demographics questions; section four contained brand usage questions and pre-existing brand attitude measures before

exposing participants to the different stimuli. These questions were considered important to ascertain if the subsequent exposures to stimuli had an effect on attitudinal changes.

Sections five to eight contained exposure to the research stimuli followed by a battery of questions measuring brand attitudes and behavioural intentions. The questions were sequenced in this way because it is recommended that behavioural questions are asked after attitudinal ones, as attitudes influence behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein 1977; Wright and Crimp 2000).

The stimuli were arranged in such a manner that all participants were exposed first to a firm-generated advertisement and then randomly to different types of positive, negative and neutral UGA; this decision was considered important in order to avoid order effects, or the impact of the sequence in which the videos were presented on the results. The rationale behind this decision is that consumers' attitudes may be affected by the order in which opposing messages are presented (Haugtvedt and Wegener 1994; Buda and Zhang 2000)¹³.

This final version of the questionnaire contained four exposures, a difference from the original version containing five exposures (i.e. two firm-generated ads and three UGA), however, after the questionnaire pre-test discussed in the following section, it was decided to reduce the number of firm-generated videos to one in order to lower the completion time.

Having decided the questionnaire layout, the next task was to choose the videos used, as stimuli were an important aspect of this study. First, a firm-generated advertisement was included to compare participants' attitudinal and behavioural reactions compared to UGA; the rationale for this decision was that brands' official messages are framed with positive

¹³ See section 2.6.6.

emotional appeals¹⁴ which in the short term are proven to have an effect on consumer attitudes towards the brand and drive behavioural intentions (Bülbül and Menon 2010); the firm-generated video was not included in the panel of judges, as its purpose was to validate the researcher's judgement about the valence of the UGA used in the study in terms of positive, negative or neutral to the official brand message; therefore, it was not considered necessary to include it in the previous section as the video reflects the official brand message.

Second, from the videos in the sample approved by the panel of judges in the previous stage, Coca-Cola was the only brand that presented one video in each category of UGA (positive, negative and neutral). Another reason was that when experimental studies provide participants with a brand-related stimuli, their attitudinal responses may depend on existing cognitive-based assumptions about the brand (Bettman 1982); in other words, when respondents have direct experience with a brand, their attitude-behaviour (A-B) consistency is high (Fazio and Zanna 1981). Considering that Coca-Cola is a globally recognised brand, it was expected that most of the participants had a degree of experience with the brand, especially university students.

5.4.2.3.3. Video sample intellectual property and copyright ethical considerations

The use of existing and publicly accessible videos on the Internet as stimuli for this research also raised important ethical issues to be considered, and especial concern was raised related to the video creator's authorisation to include its material in the study or the possibility of editing the material to suit the purposes of this research. In this sense, although YouTube videos have been previously used as a unit of analysis for Internet research (Ache and

¹⁴ See section 2.6.6.

Wallace 2008; Berthon, Pitt et al. 2011; English, Sweetser et al. 2011; Hussin, Frazier et al. 2011), their use as stimuli in research is scarce.

There is an existing debate over the public or private nature of what is posted on the Internet, and there is no clear agreement about the content once it is posted online. Therefore, the researcher was concerned about the ethical justifications of using publicly available information for the research project; however, it is believed that data that have been made available (both deliberately and voluntarily) in the public Internet domain should be available to researchers, whereas hacking into individuals' files or email accounts is unacceptable (Hewson, Yule et al. 2003). Therefore, especial attention was focused on the copyright of the videos.

To address this particular issue and in order to comply with the ethics and copyright regulations of using existing videos as stimuli for this research, careful analysis of YouTube's Terms of Service (2010), YouTube's community guidelines (2012), Google's Privacy Policy (2012) and YouTube's copyright guidelines (2012) was conducted. The information collected suggest that YouTube videos are subject to copyright standards and that the original videos created by a user and uploaded to the video sharing platform are property of the creator; however, it is possible to use a copyright-protected video without infringing the owner's copyright by giving credit to the copyright owner and stating that no copyright infringement is intended (YouTube 2012). These two issues were addressed in the design of the study as proper credit is given in the study to the creator of the video, and furthermore, it is clearly stated on the information page of the survey that the videos are not the property of the researcher.

However, the question of whether the length of videos could be amended was still unclear, as it was considered problematic to expose participants to a series of videos before they answered the questions, potentially making the research instrument too long. According to section 4b of YouTube's Terms of Service (2012), the researcher was able to access the videos as long as an agreement not to alter or modify any part of the service was stated; therefore the researcher proceeded to request legal advice from the University of Birmingham Legal Services on this matter. As a result, a written consent from either a YouTube administrator or the owner of the video was required to edit (i.e. shorten) the videos in the study. Therefore, the researcher first contacted YouTube via email, then sent a letter (See appendix 10) via courier to the company offices in the United States to enquire about this issue. The company's response via email (See appendix 11) suggested that the website administrators could not grant rights to this researcher to edit the video content and therefore suggested contacting each one of the video owners via private message. The result was not as expected; some videos were more than a year old, and only two of the 25 video creators selected responded to the queries. Therefore, the original plan of editing the videos was discarded, as this process could have affected the quality of the argument of each video.

5.4.2.3.4. Questionnaire Pre-testing

The questionnaire was pre-tested to help the researcher ascertain that the data collected would answer the research objectives and to test the levels of difficulty for respondents; therefore, its main role was to detect errors in the design and to identify areas of improvement in the administration and tabulation of the results before the final administration (Bradburn, Sudman et al. 2004). The pretesting in this study was concerned with the reliability of the scales and ascertaining potential flaws in the design of the instrument as well

as whether the order of the exposure to the stimuli had potential effects on participants' responses.

The pre-test procedure was done under the same conditions as the projected final data collection. This allowed the researcher to observe possible flaws in the design, administration and tabulation of the results and to identify troublesome areas that need refining, polishing and editing. Academics and practitioners have diverging concepts of the manner a pre-test should be conducted; for instance, Aaker and Day (1990) suggest that even when a final survey is to be conducted by mail, the pre-test should be conducted with a personal or telephone interview. Nevertheless, it is arguable that pre-testing should be conducted in the same manner as the final study, as it allows the researcher to assess the real conditions of the questionnaire administration and aspects related to timing, sample and response rate, as well as to assess how the pre-test performs under actual conditions of data collection.

The pre-test was conducted in an informal manner (Remeyi, Williams et al. 1998), and although the sample of a pre-test is generally a 'captive audience' such as office staff, co-workers or fellow students, pre-testing was conducted with people who resemble those to whom the questionnaire would finally be given and important characteristics of the pre-test and final sample were matched, including age, gender, education and ethnic characteristics.

For this reason, the sample selected to pre-test the questionnaire included UoB students including undergraduates, post-graduates and doctoral researchers, and the questionnaire was administered following the same procedure of the final data collection; possible participants were approached through an invitation flyer (see appendix 12), word-of-mouth and social media. Interested individuals contacted the researcher, and the questionnaire link was sent via email along with the instructions and time frame expected for the return of

the responses (see appendix 13). There was a field at the end of the questionnaire where participants could add their comments and impressions of the instrument

Forty emails were sent to members of UoB student associations as well as to colleagues of the researcher; these invitations were divided into two groups with different sequences of videos: group A (2 firm-generated advertisements, UGA positive, neutral and negative) and group B (2 firm-generated advertisements, UGA negative, neutral and positive).

After one week, a reminder email was sent to those participants who were interested (see appendix 14). From these 40 invitations, 36 responses were received in total (17 for group A and 19 for group B); however, only 10 responses for each group were completed and suitable to be included in the pre-test. Similar to the study's sample size, the size of the sample for pre-testing is also subject to controversy among academics and practitioners, as a small number of respondents may increase issues of non-response and variation. A pre-test sample size between 75 and 100 respondents is considered ideal for large studies (deVaus 2002); however, for short questionnaires, small samples of approximately 15 participants will usually be sufficient (Bradburn, Sudman et al. 2004).

5.4.2.3.4.1. Pre-test results

Overall, the respondents expressed no difficulties in answering the research questions; however, observing the reports provided by Qualtrics about the time required to complete the questionnaire, it was clear that it exceeded the original time frame contemplated. Thus, it was considered pertinent to reduce the number of exposures and eliminate one of the firm-generated videos. Regarding the order in which the videos were presented to participants, the results demonstrated that video sequencing had a slight effect on attitudinal and behavioural responses; therefore, it was decided to use a randomised approach to sequencing the UGA

videos in the final data collection using the ‘randomise’ feature of the survey software Qualtrics.

The changes to the final questionnaire consisted of four videos after the elimination of one firm-generated advertisement followed by three UGA videos (negative, neutral and positive) presented in a randomised sequence to different participants.

5.4.2.3.5. Participants’ sampling procedure.

The next stage focused on the selection of a sample representative of the population from which the information required was collected and inferences made (Keppel 1973; Aaker and Day 1990; Churchill 1999; Hair, Bush et al. 2003). In designing the sample for this research, five main issues were addressed: defining the population, identifying the sample frame, selecting a sample method, determining the sample size and selecting the sample elements (Churchill 1991).

Firstly, the *population* from which the study made inferences was defined. This research was based on the effects of UGA attitudes and behaviours; consequently, the Internet was the medium through which the stimulus was transmitted (i.e. YouTube). The study’s population was adult Internet users with access to social networks; the data presented in section 3.2.1 demonstrate that audiences aged approximately 15 to 35 are the major users of the Internet and social media as well as the main consumers of online videos. Furthermore, nearly 100 per cent of students are Internet and social media users (National Statistics 2012; 2013).

Secondly, *the sampling frame* was identified by establishing the elements from which the actual sample was drawn (Churchill 1999). For this study, the sampling frame was University of Birmingham (UoB) students. The use of student samples in communication

research and social media research has been widely accepted (Cheong and Morrison 2008; Gangadharbatla 2008), especially in studies regarding consumer perceptions, opinion leadership and advertising effectiveness in computer mediated communications and the Internet (Brackett and Carr Jr 2001; Ko, Cho et al. 2005; Lyons and Henderson 2005; Demangeot and Broderick 2010), thus the access to UoB students simplified this process.

Nonetheless, the representation of results drawn from student samples in social science research has been scrutinised (Cunningham, Anderson Jr et al. 1974; Vinson and Lundstrom 1978; Peterson 2001; Bello, Kwok et al. 2009), since sometimes student samples are not representative of the psychographics and demographics of the entire population, as was found in the Copeland et al. (1973) study on behavioural business and attitudes toward financial practices as well as the Bello et al. (2009) study on international business. However, the external validity of these results may be representative if the study is concerned with computer-mediated and Internet social interactions or consumer perceptions of online environments, as found in Demangeot and Broderick (2010). For this reason, the sampling frame will be drawn from UoB students. According to available data, the total population of registered students was 27,276 (University_of_Birmingham 2010).

Thirdly, the *sampling method* was selected. This process was intrinsically related to the sampling frame, and for this study a convenience sample of UoB students was chosen; it aimed to obtain participants including undergraduates and post-graduates, as these were representative of the ages of Internet users and online video audiences (National Statistics 2012; 2013). This sampling method represented an economic and faster alternative to obtain legitimate and effective results based on a non-probability sample of the population (Aaker and Day 1990; Churchill 1999).

Fourthly, *the sample size* was determined; for non-probability samples this is achieved by ad hoc methods, and for experimental research the sample size depends on the number of conditions that will be analysed (Aaker and Day 1990). This study aimed to obtain a minimum of 200 participants. Although 10 subjects per condition are considered acceptable in experimental research (Keppel and Saufley 1980), in order to avoid a type II error, which can compromise the validity of the results if the sample is too small to be representative of the population, the rule of thumb is to have at minimum a sample of 200 at 80 per cent power and .01 significance level (Hair, Anderson et al. 1998).

Finally, the *selection of sample elements* involved the selection of participants who would be included in the study. It was decided to use UoB Business School students for this research. This decision was grounded on the type of sample being used (university students), the type of sampling method of the study (non-probabilistic) and the type of sample approach (convenience sample).

5.4.2.3.6. Data Collection

To collect the final data, an email invitation to the research project was sent to all undergraduate and postgraduate students registered in the Business School with the assistance of the programme administrators (see appendix 15) which included the link to the study. This decision was taken aiming to improve the chances of recruiting participants as the researcher considered that a personal email from the university administrator could increase the chances of response a difference to posting the research randomly in social media. To guarantee a good quality response rate, participants were notified that their participation would enter them in a raffle with the opportunity to win a Kindle Fire as an incentive (Deutskens, Ruyter et al.

2004). Data collection was conducted during the month of December 2013, and an email reminder was sent in January 2014.

5.4.2.3.7. Data Analysis Strategy

Developing the data analysis strategy is an important step in the research process, as it helps to identify and evaluate the options for the analysis of the results of the study and the various strengths, weaknesses and limitations of each option. This section covers an overview of the issues considered in the data analysis and the main techniques used. In chapter five the details of the application of these techniques will be discussed.

In developing the data analysis strategy, particularly selecting the test techniques, three main issues are generally considered (Blalock 1982; Aaker and Day 1990; Hair, Anderson et al. 1998; Field and Hole 2003). The first issue is related to the nature of the questions to be answered and the goals to be achieved from the analysis; for instance, a question may concern the differences between two groups with regard to one variable (e.g. interdependent and dependent self-construal groups in their orientation to cultural influences) or the association between two variables (e.g. UGA valence and brand perception).

Secondly, the measurement of the scales should be considered; these measurements could be nominal, which are the lowest of all levels of measures, as no assumptions are made about the relationships between values (e.g. sex, race, education among others). The next type of scale is ordinal, which is used when observations can be ranked or ordered according to some criterion but nothing is known about the distance between the levels. Finally, the interval or ratio scales are related when meaningful distances apply and are important between observations; however, interval scales have no agreed zero point, while ration scales have a meaningful zero point (Field 2009).

Thirdly, the importance of testing the assumptions is to be considered; many statistical tests require the data to meet specific assumptions. For instance, Field (2009) argues that most parametric tests (e.g. ANOVA) require three main assumptions: first, the normality assumption implies that variables should follow the normal distribution, whereas non-normally distributed variables can distort relationships and the significance of the results. Second, the homogeneity of the variance assumptions means that variance should not change systematically throughout the data; finally, the assumption of independence means that the behaviour of one respondent does not influence the behaviour of another. Furthermore, Field (2009) argues that the last two assumptions are tested only by common sense, whereas the first two assumptions are the objective ways to detect violations.

In this study, the process of data analysis is divided into two stages: first, descriptive statistics were run to summarise the data and observe patterns with the scores collected; in the second step, inferential statistics techniques were used to test the different research hypotheses. A mixed between-within groups ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of the two independent variables, self-construal and advertising exposure (i.e. firm-generated advertising and UGA in its three types) on attitudes towards the brand, attitudes towards the ad and behavioural intentions; furthermore, a regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the effects of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand after UGA exposure. The main techniques used are summarised in table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Summary of the main statistical techniques used in the study to test the research hypotheses

Statistical technique	Objective
Reliability analysis	To demonstrate the reliability of the scales used
Independent T-test	To evaluate non-response bias between early and late respondents
ANOVA	To evaluate significant differences in scores for self-construal groups after exposure to firm-generated-advertising and different types of UGA
Regression analysis	To investigate the effects of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand

5.4.2.3.8. Limitations of the third stage of this study

This stage also had potential limitations that need to be considered. First, the research was conducted in an artificial environment, not the natural environment where UGA is transmitted; therefore, the effects of the stimuli on brand attitudes and behavioural intentions may be dismissed. Second, the *experimenter's effect* or the researcher's subconscious control over the elements of the study may give participants cues to satisfy the research objectives. Third, the *size and representativeness of the sample* need to be addressed. For convenience, this study was conducted using participants drawn from the University of Birmingham student body, and although the sample was selected following strict parameters to represent the population of young Internet users, it is difficult to guarantee that participants are typical of the population being studied. Finally, the study *lacked control* to exclude unwanted or unintended influences outside the independent variables (Bailey 1978; Denscombe 1998; Hair, Bush et al. 2003).

5.5. Conclusion

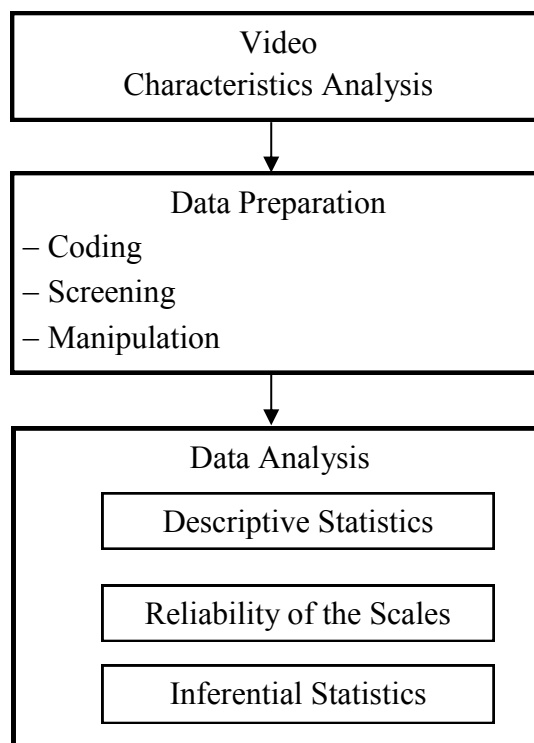
This chapter detailed the philosophical and methodological rationale employed in this study for the collection and analysis of data. With regards to the quantitative nature of this study, the research followed a positivist/objectivist philosophical position which guided the nature of the subsequent stages of the research concerning the design and methods for the data collection. The data were collected in three consecutive stages, starting from a broad understanding of the video population on YouTube and the main characteristics of the videos. Subsequently, a purposive quota sample of videos was submitted to a panel of judges in order to guarantee the objectivity of the stimuli that were selected for the final and most important stage regarding the data collection through an online questionnaire with the aim to measure and evaluate the effects of self-construal and the valence of UGA on participants' attitudes towards the brand and possible behavioural intentions after exposure to the different types of videos. In the next chapter, the results of the analysis of the data will be presented, and the statistical techniques used for this analysis and the testing of the research hypotheses will be addressed in detail.

6. RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the study as well as the data analysis procedures and techniques used for hypothesis testing. The structure of the chapter illustrated in figure 6-1 begins with the descriptive statistics of the videos observed in stage one; subsequently, data collected in the final stage will be analysed beginning with an explanation of the procedures of data preparation, followed by the data analysis section that highlights the sample descriptive statistics and the tests conducted to evaluate the reliability of the scales used in the study. Next, inferential statistics used to evaluate differences in attitudes towards the ad and towards the brand, as well as participants' behavioural intentions after the exposure to the different types of stimuli, are explained.

Figure 6-1 Chapter outline



6.2. Video content analysis

An analysis of the content of the existing videos on YouTube was conducted in the first stage of this research with the aim of determining video metrics and advertising characteristics and on a sample of 230 user-generated advertising videos.

6.2.1. Video metrics

Data from YouTube video statistics (YouTube 2012) suggest that of the 230 videos studied, 85 per cent (64 brands) had an official YouTube channel, whereas 15 per cent (11 brands) did not appear to have a sponsored channel.

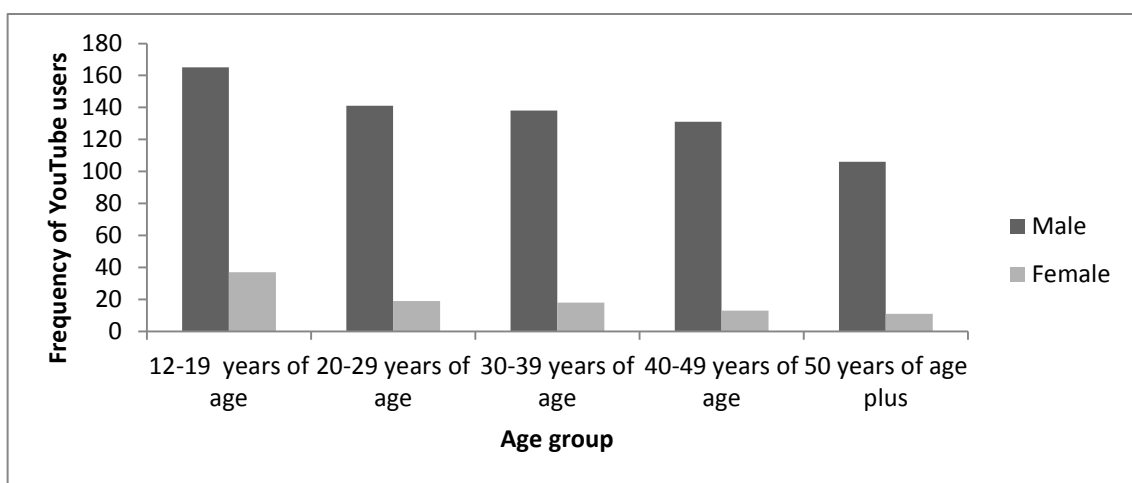
Regarding the popularity of the videos among different audiences, data obtained from YouTube video statistics (YouTube 2012) divide video audiences in four main age groups and suggest that younger male audiences are more likely to 'like' videos, as summarised in table 6.1; interestingly, according to YouTube figures, this characteristic declines with age.

Table 6-1 Video popularity among male and female YouTube audiences

Age group	Frequency of videos liked by male audiences	Percentage	Frequency of videos liked by female audiences	Percentage
12-19 years of age	165	72	37	16
20-29 years of age	141	61	19	19
30-39 years of age	138	60	18	18
40-49 years of age	131	57	13	6
50 years of age plus	106	46	11	5

Similarly, younger female audiences (12-19 years of age) have the highest frequency of liking videos, and the frequency declines with age, as illustrated in figure 6-2. It is important to mention that these figures will not add up to 100 per cent, as the videos were liked by more than one age group.

Figure 6-2 Comparison of frequency of YouTube users who ‘like the video’ observed for a sample of 230 UGA videos



Regarding the position of UGA videos in relation to other videos of the same brand, the results demonstrated that when searching for brand videos, out of the sample of 230 UGA video, only 63 UGA videos were found within the first ten videos on each screen search. Interestingly, the search also revealed that UGA videos were positioned after firm-generated advertising videos and/or other types of UGC.

6.2.1. Advertising techniques used in UGA

Advertising techniques used in the UGA were analysed in the first stage of this research. These techniques are related to advertising appeals, type of advertising technique, sound effects, length, brand depiction and the use of characters or actors.

With regards to advertising appeals, the data suggest that out of the 230 videos analysed, most 124 UGA videos (54%) used appeals oriented to generate emotional responses, while 106 (46%) used rational appeals.

From these results, the emotional appeal most used was related to happiness, followed by love and comfort, as summarised in table 6.2.; whereas the least used were fear, arousal and ambition. Once more it is important to clarify that some videos were created using more than one appeal.

Table 6-2 Emotional advertising appeals used in UGA

Appeal	Frequency of use	Percentage
Safety	37	16
Fear	31	14
Love	65	28
Happiness	90	39
Excitement	57	25
Arousal	28	12
Ambition	22	9
Comfort	62	27
Recognition	51	22
Status	34	15
Respect	52	23

With regards to rational appeals, the most frequently used in UGA videos was product attribute specifications, as summarised in table 6.3, followed closely by product quality. The least used was general information about the brand or product not relevant to product attributes.

Table 6-3 Rational advertising appeals used in UGA

Appeal	Frequency of use
Product attributes	165
Price	87
Quality	156
Customer care	73
General information	42

Regarding advertising techniques, data show that out of the 230 videos studied, the majority of UGA videos (108) conveyed a brand message whilst entertaining audiences, as summarised in table 6.4; this was followed by the advertising techniques of problem solution and testimonials, and the least frequent techniques used were brand news and slice of life.

Table 6-4 Advertising techniques used in UGA

Advertising technique	Frequency of use	Percentage
Entertainment	108	47
Problem solution	57	25
Testimonial	49	21
News	12	5
Slice-of-life	4	2

6.2.2. UGA valence

The UGA valence was assessed with four main measures; the video's general tone, the creator's satisfaction with the brand, the creator's recommendation of the brand or product, and whether the brand was parodied or ridiculed. The results suggest that 130 videos (59%) were positive towards the brand (n=230), compared to 70 videos (30%) considered negative. A minority of 24 videos (10%) were considered neutral, as summarised in table 6.5.

Table 6-5 Overall valence of UGA analysed (n=230)

Overall tone of the video	Number of videos	Percentage
Positive	136	59
Negative	70	30
Neutral	24	10

Similarly, data regarding the creator’s satisfaction with the brand demonstrate that out of 230 UGA videos analysed, 148 (64%) videos revealed contentment with the brand portrayed, whereas 82 (36%) indicated dissatisfaction with the brand.

Furthermore, regarding brand recommendations, the results also suggested that in the UGA videos, creators recommended the brand to others in 135 (59%), compared to 95 (41%) in which creators did not recommended the brand in their videos. Finally, the results also demonstrated that the majority of UGA videos, 165 (72%) videos, did not parody the brand, whereas only 65 (28%) videos analysed did (n=230) .

6.3. Data preparation: coding, screening and manipulation

Data obtained from the questionnaires were exported from Qualtrics to the statistics analytical software SPSS; this process was simplified as the data collected using the online survey software Qualtrics were entered automatically to SPSS and most of the variables were pre-coded and measured by semantic differential and Likert scales. Nevertheless, the data set was prepared to reflect only the variables needed for analysis; therefore, information provided

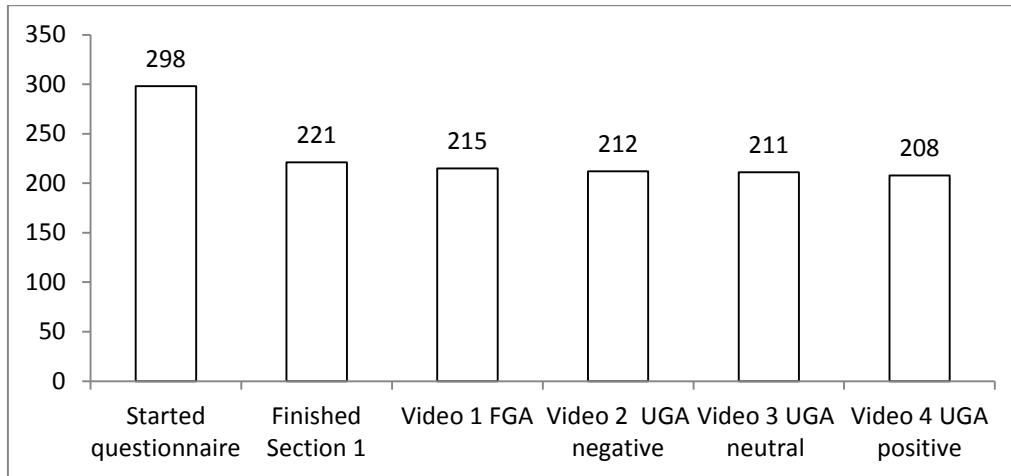
by Qualtrics about date of completion, duration, names and information consent were removed. Subsequently, codes were assigned to each respondent for each question.

6.3.1. Response rate, completion rate and non-response bias

High non-response rates are not unusual in traditional mail or email surveys and as a rule of thumb a response rate between 10% to 20% is considered acceptable (Deutskens, Ruyter et al. 2004). The response rate for this study was 12.89% as 2,683 email invitations were sent to taught postgraduate and undergraduate students in the Birmingham Business School; from these invitations, 298 participants accessed the questionnaire link. Only 208 questionnaires were fully completed, and 90 had to be discarded because the participants did not answer all the questions for the four videos and so their responses were not suitable for inclusion in the analysis.

The questionnaire statistics provided by Qualtrics suggest that the completion rate started to decline after the self-construal section, dropping steadily through the demographics questions and remaining constant after each video, as illustrated in figure 6-3. These data suggest that out of the 298 responses, 70 per cent of participants completed the questionnaire, which is considered an acceptable completion rate for mail or email questionnaires (Hague 1993).

Figure 6-3 Questionnaire section completion rate



With regards to the non-response bias or the difference between the answers of the participants who responded to the questionnaire and the potential answers of those who do not is also common for this type of questionnaire; this occurrence was assessed following a traditional *Early vs. Late* method (Armstrong and Overton 1977). To decide which participants were early vs. late, the researcher used January 15, 2014 as a cut-off date when the reminder email was sent, from the date the survey started until the date of the reminder 282 participants started the survey, and 192 completed on the first stage; whereas only 16 started the survey after the reminder. A t-test was conducted to compare whether early and late respondents differ in their attitudes towards the brand.

The results suggest that there was a significant difference between early ($M= 20.63$, $SD=6.54$) and late ($M=26.19$, $SD= 2.48$) respondents for attitudes towards the brand before exposures; $t(36.42) = -7.13$, $p= .00$; as well as for attitudes towards the brand after firm generated advertising $t(26.52) = -5.34$, $p= .00$ between early ($M=20.68$, $SD= 4.97$) and late ($M=24.50$, $SD=2.48$) respondents. Conversely, the results of the t test suggest that there was no significant difference between groups for the exposures to different types of UGA; for

negative UGA $t(206) = -1.27, p = .20$, between early ($M = 15.23, SD = 6.76$) and late ($M = 17.44, SD = 5.02$) respondents. Similarly for neutral UGA $t(206) = -.68, p = .50$, between early ($M = 18.04, SD = 5.54$) and late ($M = 19, SD = 4.5$) respondents; and for UGA positive $t(206) = -1.54, p = .13$, between early ($M = 18.20, SD = 5.67$) and late ($M = 20.44, SD = 5.02$) respondents. Overall these results suggest that participants responding after the follow up email are not different from those of the ones responding in early stages; furthermore, these late respondents are also expected to be similar to non-respondents (Armstrong and Overton 1977)

6.3.2. Data manipulation

In the next step, raw data were prepared for statistical analyses and testing the hypotheses of this study; this process included adding up the scores from the items that formed the scales of A_B and A_{Ad} after the scale reversal for favourable/unfavourable and positive/negative attitude measures.

As was previously mentioned¹⁵, for the SC scale, two scores were given per participant with the 12 items per scale. Each one received one score for interdependent SC (INTSC) and another for independent SC (INDSC). By conducting a median split, the scores were re-coded to classify participants into one of three SC groups: 1=INTSC, 2=EQUISC or 3=INDSC.

¹⁵ See section 5.5.2.3.1.

6.4. Data analysis

6.4.1. Sample Demographics

To get the perspective of the sample in this study, data relating to demographic characteristics were analysed using descriptive statistics. Similarly, data were inspected for outliers. No outliers were detected, as all the questions were coded using semantic differential and Likert scales. Finally, the data were assessed for violations of the assumptions required for the statistical techniques used; also the data were checked using descriptive statistics.

Concerning participant demographics (n=208), 110 (52.9%) were female and 97 (46.6%) were male; one respondent (.5%) did not answer this question. Regarding ethnic groups, the three main groups represented in the sample were White/Caucasian (46%), Asian/Oriental (26%) and Black (13%). With regards to participants' ages, the majority of participants represented ages between 20 and 24 (43%) and between 25 and 29 (30%); the data are summarised in table 6.6.

Table 6-6 Summary of participants' demographic profile

Variable	Number of Respondents	Per Cent
Participant's Gender (n=208)		
Female	110	52.9
Male	97	46.6
Missing	1	.5
Participant's ethnic group		
White/Caucasian	96	46.2
Asian/Oriental	53	25.5

Black	27	13.0
Hispanic	16	7.7
Mixed	10	4.8
Other	6	2.9
<hr/>		
Participant's nationality		
<hr/>		
UK/British	98	47.1
Rest of the world	81	38.9
EU country	27	13.0
Missing	2	1.0
<hr/>		
Participant's age group		
<hr/>		
16-19	27	13.0
20-24	90	43.3
25-29	63	30.3
30-34	27	13.0
35-39	1	.50
<hr/>		

6.4.2. Descriptive statistics: sample's self-construal characteristics

Regarding self-construal characteristics (n=208), 31 participants (15%) presented an INTSC, 137 (66%) presented EQUISC and 20 (10%) presented INDSC. Respondents who left at least one item of each scale unanswered were not included in the analysis. With 66% as EQUISC, this shows that for the majority of respondents, both types of self-construal were equally prevalent, and the pure dominant types were less frequent. The results are summarised in table 6.7.

Table 6-7 Summary of participants' SC characteristics

SC Characteristic	Number of participants	Percentage
INTSC	31	14.9
EQUISC	137	65.9
INDSC	20	9.6
Total	188	90.4
Missing	20	9.6
Total	208	100

6.4.3. Test of Normality

The assumption of normality of dependent variables was examined conducting a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test on SPSS; a significant result ($p < 0.000$) indicated that a violation of the assumption of normality was obtained for each of the variables, as can be observed in table 6.8. Although the distribution it is expected to be 'normal' (Sig.05 or more) with a greater frequency of scores in the middle of a bell-shaped curve, it is common for larger samples in social research that the distribution of scores is skewed and will not substantively affect the analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). The data are not normally distributed for pre-exposure and firm-generated-advertising; and interestingly, for UGA videos, the data seem to be concentrated in the centre with very few exceptions; however, this is not considered significant enough to remove these cases from the sample.

Table 6-8 Test of Normality for total brand and total ad attitudes pre and post exposure to brand-related advertising

Item	Pre Exposure			Firm Generated			UGA Negative			UGA Neutral			UGA Positive		
	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df	<i>p</i>
Total Brand Att	0.15	208	0.00	0.13	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00	0.19	208	0.00
Total Ad Att	—	—	—	0.17	208	.000	0.13	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.13	208	0.00

The same procedure was conducted for each one of the behavioural intention measures after each exposure and for the total scores for brand and ad attitudes. The behavioural intention results for the K-S were significant (**p <0.000**), indicating a violation of the assumption of normality, as can be observed in table 6.9.

Table 6-9 Test of normality for behavioural intentions after exposure to brand-related advertising

	Item	Firm Generated			UGA Negative			UGA Neutral			UGA Positive		
		Intention to	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df	<i>p</i>	K-S	df
Purchase Intent	Buy Coke	0.18	208	0.00	0.12	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00
	Maintain Intake	0.24	208	0.00	0.13	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00
	Drink low-sugar Coke	0.14	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.19	208	0.00
Brand/product Switching	Buy low-sugar Coke	0.14	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00
	Drink substitute	0.15	208	0.00	0.13	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00
	Buy Substitute	0.16	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00
Brand/product-related Word-of-mouth	Tell friend to maintain intake	0.17	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00
	Tell friend to buy Coke	0.17	208	0.00	0.12	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.12	208	0.00
	Tell friend to drink low-sugar Coke	0.16	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00	0.19	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00
	Tell friend to buy low-sugar Coke	0.16	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00
	Tell friend to drink substitute	0.15	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00

	Tell friend to buy substitute	0.16	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00
	Post negative comment about video	0.22	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00	0.19	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00
	Post positive comment about video	0.15	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.14	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00
	Share video	0.16	208	0.00	140.00	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.19	208	0.00
	Post negative comment about brand	0.22	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00
	Post positive comment about brand	0.15	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.15	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00
UGA Creation and Diffusion	Produce positive brand video	0.17	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.16	208	0.00	0.17	208	0.00
	Produce negative brand video	0.22	208	0.00	0.18	208	0.00	0.21	208	0.00	0.19	208	0.00

The fact that the scores are not normally distributed is quite frequent in data measured with 7-point scales, and results are often skewed (Stewart, Barnes et al. 2001), suggesting that most of the data are negatively skewed. However, this was not considered to be problematic; on the contrary, it was an interesting characteristic.

6.4.4. Reliability of the measures

Cronbach's alpha (α) was calculated on SPSS to assess the reliability of the measures and their consistency measuring the constructs; as suggested by Nunnally (1978), $\alpha \geq .70$ or above is an acceptable indicator of the reliability of the measure. The results show that overall, all the scales satisfy the reliability test, and the results summarised in table 6.10 were $\alpha \geq .70$.

Table 6-10 Reliability test for the research constructs (Cronbach's alpha)

Construct's Alpha	Item
	(INTERRESPECT) RESPECT FOR AUTHORITY FIGURES
	(INTERHARMON) IMPORTANT FOR ME TO MAINTAIN HARMONY WITHIN MY GROUP
	(INTERHAPPY) HAPPINESS DEPENDS ON THE HAPPINESS OF THOSE AROUND ME
	(INTERSEAT) I WOULD OFFER MY SEAT ON A BUS TO MY PROFESSOR
	(INTERSACSELF) I SACRIFICE MY SELF-INTEREST FOR THE BENEFIT OF THE GROUP
	(INTERRELATOTHER) MY RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHERS ARE MORE IMPORTANT THAN MY OWN ACCOMPLISHMENTS
INTSC	
.909	(INTERPARENT) I TAKE INTO CONSIDERATION MY PARENTS' ADVICE
	(INTERRESPEDEC) IT IS IMPORTANT TO ME TO RESPECT DECISIONS MADE BY THE GROUP
	(INTERSTAYSGROU) I WILL STAY IN A GROUP IF THEY NEED ME
	(INTERFEELRESP) IF MY BROTHER OR SISTER FAILS, I FEEL RESPONSIBLE
	(INTERAVOIDAR) EVEN WHEN I STRONGLY DISAGREE, I AVOID ARGUMENTS
	(INTERRESPMODE) I RESPECT PEOPLE WHO ARE MODEST ABOUT THEMSELVES

	(INDSAYSNO)	I'D RATHER SAY "NO" DIRECTLY
	(INDSPEAK)	SPEAKING DURING CLASS IS NOT A PROBLEM FOR ME
INDSC	(INDLIVEIMAG)	HAVING A LIVELY IMAGINATION IS IMPORTANT TO ME
.907	(INDCOMFORT)	I AM COMFORTABLE WITH BEING SINGLED OUT FOR PRAISE OR REWARDS
	(INDSAMEPER)	I AM THE SAME PERSON AT HOME THAT I AM AT SCHOOL
	(INDTAKECARE)	TO TAKE CARE OF MYSELF IS A PRIMARY CONCERN FOR ME
	(INDACTSAME)	I ACT THE SAME WAY NO MATTER WHO I AM WITH
	(INDUSENAME)	I FEEL COMFORTABLE USING SOMEONE'S FIRST NAME SOON AFTER I MEET THEM
	(INDPREFDIRECT)	I PREFER TO BE DIRECT AND FORTHRIGHT
	(INDENJOYUNIQ)	I ENJOY BEING UNIQUE AND DIFFERENT FROM OTHERS
	(INDPERSIDENT)	MY PERSONAL IDENTITY INDEPENDENCE IS VERY IMPORTANT TO ME
	(INDVALUEHEALTH)	I VALUE BEING IN GOOD HEALTH ABOVE EVERYTHING

	(LIKEBRAND)	I LIKE COCA-COLA
Total Brand Attitude	(FEELMOREPOSBRAND)	I FEEL POSITIVE TOWARDS COCA-COLA
.849	(FEELMOREGOODBRAND)	I FEEL GOOD TOWARDS COCA-COLA
	(FEELFAVOURBRAND)	I FEEL FAVOURABLE TOWARDS COCA-COLA

	(LIKEVID)	I LIKE THE VIDEO
Total Ad Attitude	(REACTFAV)	I REACTED FAVOURABLY TO THE VIDEO
.844	(POSITIVETOVID)	I FEEL POSITIVE TOWARDS THE VIDEO
	(VIDISGOOD)	THE VIDEO IS GOOD

Behavioural Intent		
.924	(INTBUY)	I INTEND TO-BUY COCA-COLA
.849	(MAINTINTAKE)	I INTEND TO-MAINTAIN MY COCA-COLA INTAKE

.925	(DRINKCOKELOSUG)	I INTEND TO-DRINK A LOW-SUGAR/NO-SUGAR COCA-COLA PRODUCT
.924	(BUYCOKELOSUG)	I INTEND TO-BUY A LOW-SUGAR/NO-SUGAR COCA-COLA PRODUCT
.894	(DRINKSUBST)	I INTEND TO-DRINK A SUBSTITUTE NON-CARBONATED DRINK
.911	(BUYSUBT)	I INTEND TO-BUY A SUBSTITUTE NON-CARBONATED DRINK
.923	(TELLFRIENDMAINTINTAKE)	I INTEND TO-TELL FRIENDS/FAMILY MEMBERS TO MAINTAIN THEIR COCA-COLA INTAKE
.933	(TELLFRIENDBUYCOKE)	I INTEND TO-TELL FRIENDS/FAMILY MEMBERS TO BUY COCA-COLA
.939	(TELLFRIENDRINKCOKELOW)	I INTEND TO TELL FRIENDS/FAMILY MEMBERS TO DRINK A LOW-SUGAR/NO-SUGAR COCA-COLA PRODUCT
.938	(TELLFRIENDBUYCOKELOW)	I INTEND TO TELL FRIENDS/FAMILY MEMBERS TO BUY A LOW-SUGAR/NO-SUGAR COCA-COLA PRODUCT
.910	(TELLFRIENDRINKSUBST)	I INTEND TO TELL FRIENDS/FAMILY MEMBERS TO DRINK A SUBSTITUTE NON-CARBONATED DRINK
.900	(TELLFRIENDBUYSUBST)	I INTEND TO TELL FRIENDS/FAMILY MEMBERS TO BUY A SUBSTITUTE NON-CARBONATED DRINK
.896	(POSTNEGCOMVID)	I INTEND TO POST A NEGATIVE COMMENT ABOUT THE VIDEO
.924	(POSTPOSCOMVID)	I INTEND TO POST A POSITIVE COMMENT ABOUT THE VIDEO
.912	(SHAREVID)	I INTEND TO SHARE THE VIDEO ON THE INTERNET WITH FAMILY/FRIENDS
.907	(POSTCOKENEGCOM)	I INTEND TO POST A NEGATIVE COMMENT ON THE INTERNET ABOUT COCA-COLA
.952	(POSTCOKEPOSCOM)	I INTEND TO POST A POSITIVE COMMENT ON THE INTERNET ABOUT COCA-COLA IN A BRAND FORUM
.958	(PRODPOSVID)	I INTEND TO PRODUCE A POSITIVE VIDEO ABOUT COCA-COLA AND POST IT ON THE INTERNET
.928	(PRODNEGVID)	I INTEND TO PRODUCE A NEGATIVE VIDEO ABOUT COCA-COLA AND POST IT ON THE INTERNET

6.4.5. Inferential statistics: comparison of changes on ‘brand attitude’ as a result of exposure to firm-generated and different types of user-generated advertising for different types of self-construal groups

A mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare scores on brand attitudes between the three self-construal groups (NTSC)—interdependent, equidistant and independent—across five types of brand attitudes: pre and post exposure to firm-generated advertising and negative, neutral and positive user-generated advertising. The statistical test aimed to ascertain whether there are main effects of each of the independent variables as well as whether the interaction between the two variables is significant.

First, the main effects results for different exposures (firm generated and types of UGA) show that brand attitude scores were significantly lower after exposure to UGA in general compared to attitudes at the beginning of the experiment. Mauchley’s test indicated that the assumption of sphericity was violated, $X^2(9) = 73.12, p = .001$; therefore, the results are reported with Greenhouse-Geisser tests showing a statistically significant effect for brand attitude $F(3.29, 607.79) = 51.55, p = .001$. Partial eta squared $\eta^2 = .218$ indicated a moderate effect size, which confirms the differences between brand attitudes pre exposure and after different exposures.

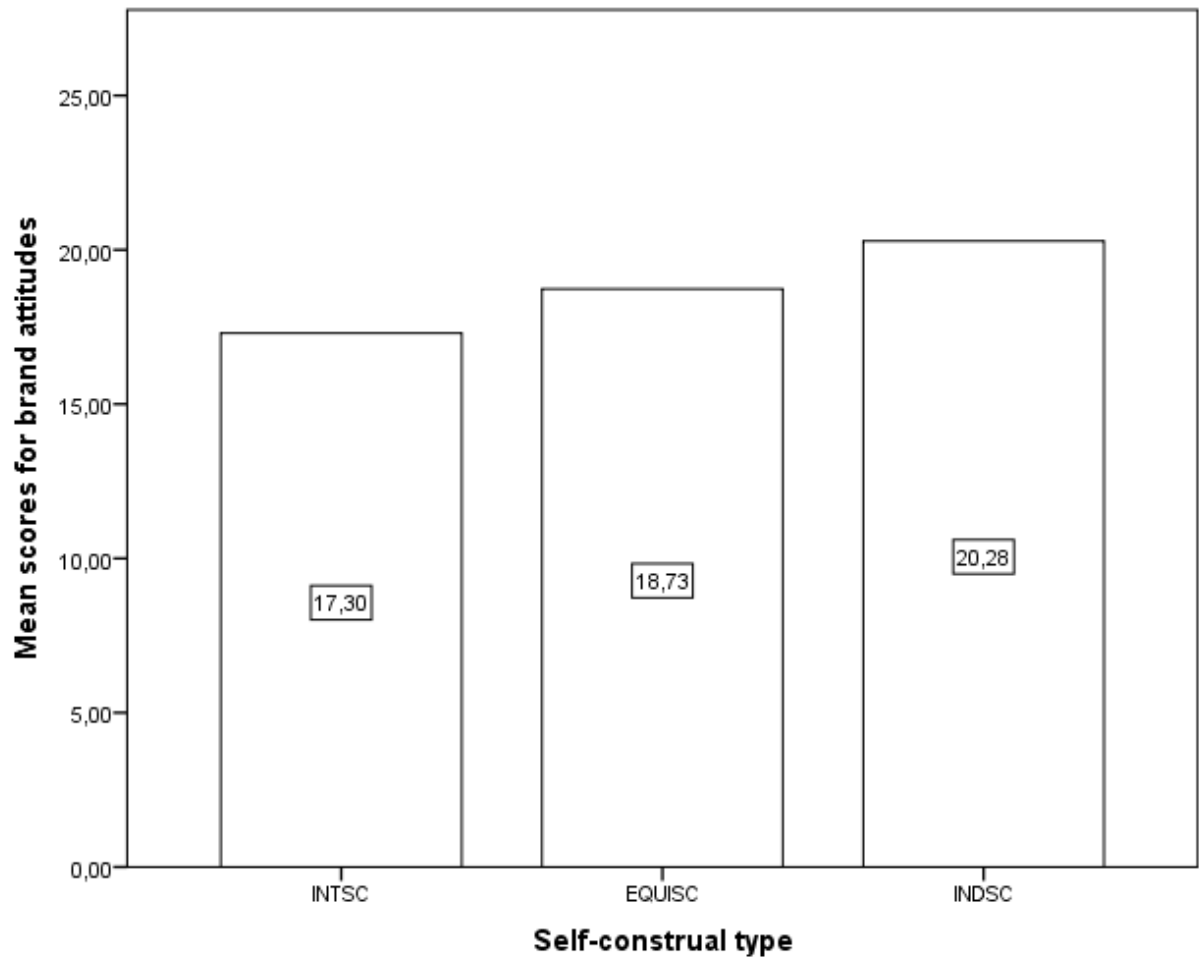
Bonferroni post hoc tests were conducted because they are considered to guarantee control over the Type I error and are also one of the most commonly used post hoc procedures (Field 2009). The results showed that there were no differences between brand attitudes before exposures and firm-generated advertising as well as between UGA neutral and positive videos. A significant ($p < .001$) difference between UGA negative and all other exposures was also observed, as summarised in table 6.11.

Table 6-11 Comparison of mean attitudes towards the brand for different exposures pre and post exposure to brand-related advertising for all participants

Dependent Variable	N	M	Min.	Max.	Range	SD
Total brand attitude before exposures	188	20.94	4	28	24	6.44
Total brand attitude firm-generated advertising	188	20.88	4	28	24	4.92
Total brand attitude UGA negative	188	15.23	4	28	24	6.67
Total brand attitude UGA neutral	188	17.99	4	28	24	5.52
Total brand attitude UGA positive	188	18.26	4	28	24	5.66

Second, with regards to the main effect for the groups of self-construal comparisons, there was no indication of any statistically significant difference between the different groups $F(2,185) = 2.63$ $p = .075$ $\eta^2 = .028$. This means that the assumption of equal variances is broken (Box test was statistically significant). In view of this fact and the very low value of eta-squared that was obtained, it can also be observed that the effect of self-construal is quite similar for the three groups as seen in figure 6.4.

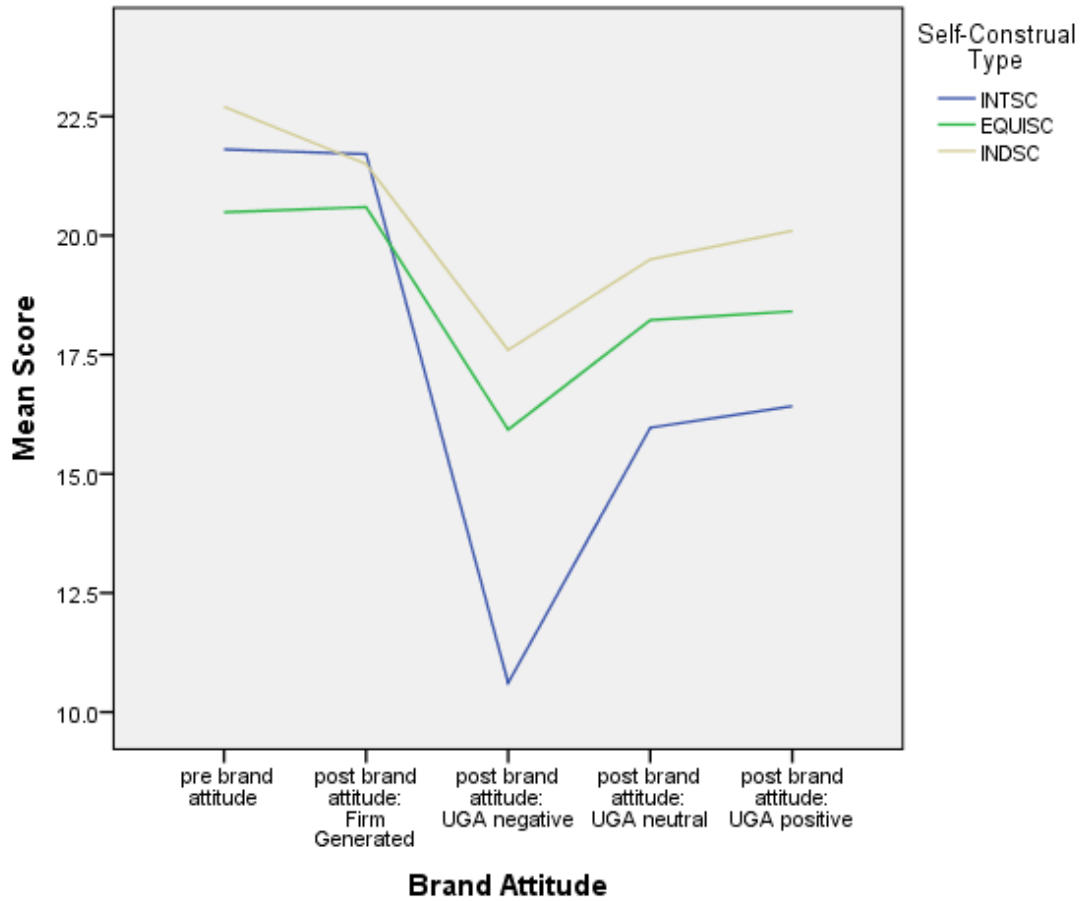
Figure 6-4 Brand attitudes mean differences across five types of advertising between groups by self-construal type



Finally, the results also show a significant interaction effect for self-construal group * type of exposure: $F(6.57, 607.79) = 6.38; p < .001; \eta^2 = .065$. As can be seen in figure 6-5, the interaction plot of the means of the five exposures suggests that no differences were observed between brand attitude before exposures and firm-generated advertising. Conversely, results after viewing UGA (i.e. negative, neutral and positive) are much lower, with the lowest attitudes obtained after UGA negative. Additionally, it is clear that individuals with a dominant INTSC report lower results, and individuals with a dominant INDSC report much

higher results, whereas individuals with EQUISC reported results similar to those of dominant INDSC.

Figure 6-5 Interaction plot for the means of the five measured brand attitudes grouped with self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for the interaction effects of self-construal group * type of exposure are summarised in table 6.12.

Table 6-12 Differences in attitude towards the brand between different groups pre and post exposure to brand-related advertising

Dependent Variable	Grouping variable: Self-construal type								
	INTSC			EQUISC			INDSC		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Brand attitude before exposure	31	21,81	5,79	137	20,49	6,57	20	22,70	6,33
Post exposure brand attitude (Firm generated)	31	21,71	4,80	137	20,60	5,10	20	21,50	3,72
Post exposure brand attitude (UGA negative)	31	10,61	5,21	137	15,93	6,76	20	17,60	4,90
Post exposure brand attitude (UGA neutral)	31	15,97	6,32	137	18,23	5,44	20	19,50	3,99
Post exposure brand attitude (UGA positive)	31	16,42	6,99	137	18,41	5,43	20	20,10	4,17

6.4.6. Inferential statistics: comparison of changes on ‘ad attitudes’ as a result of exposure to firm-generated advertising and different types’ user-generated advertising for different types of self-construal groups

A similar mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare scores on ad attitudes between the three self-construal groups—NTSC type interdependent, equidistant and independent—across four types of advertising after exposure to firm-generated advertising and negative, neutral and positive user-generated advertising to ascertain whether there were main effects of each of the independent variables as well as whether the interaction between the two variables was significant.

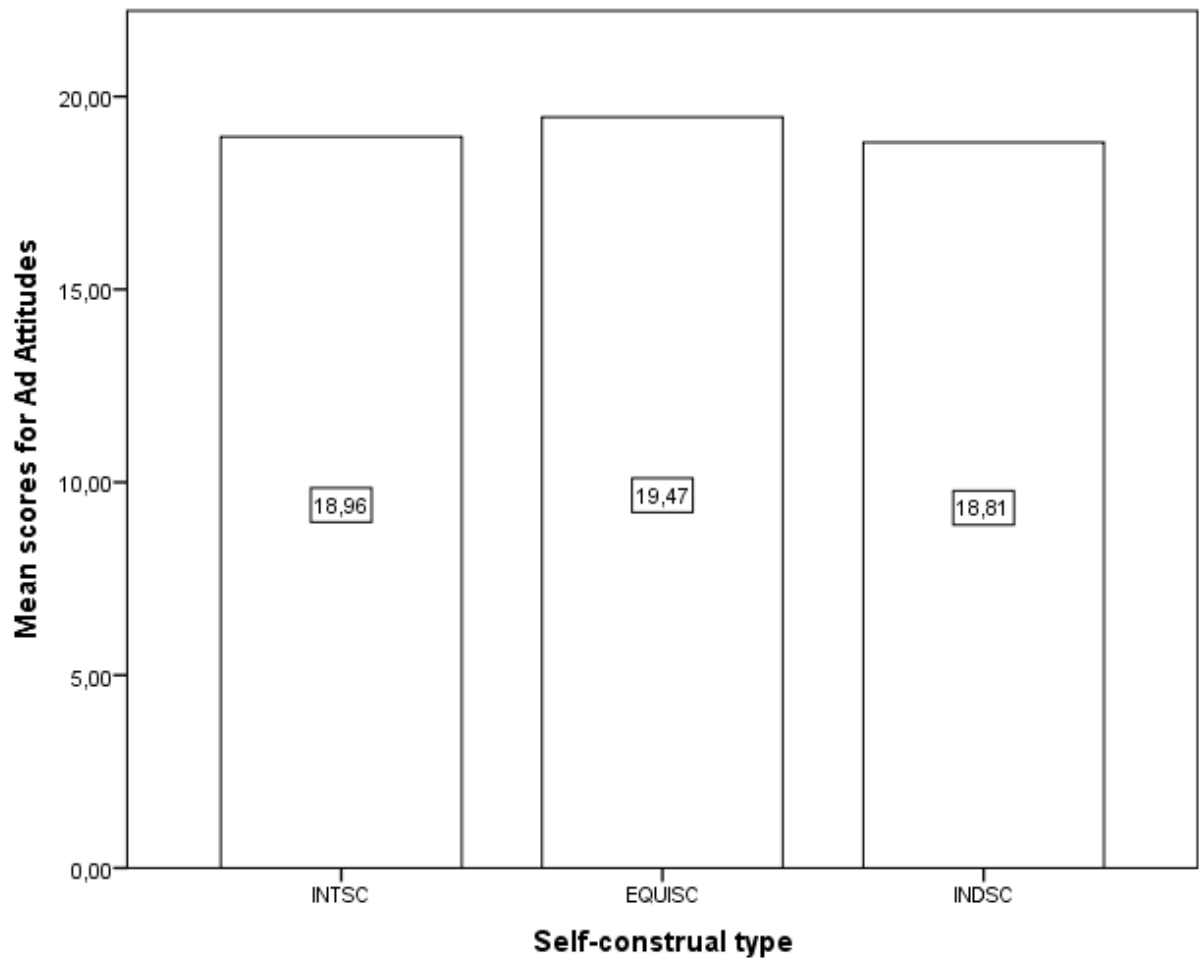
First, the main effects results for different exposures (firm-generated advertising and types of UGA) showed significant differences between ad attitudes measured by Wilks’ Lambda: $F(2, 184) = 19.48; p < .001; \eta^2 = .175$. Post hoc tests (Bonferroni) showed that only general firm-generated ad attitude was significantly higher than the other attitudes (each $p < .001$), whereas the remaining three attitudes measured after exposures to UGA were not different from each other ($p = 1.000$), as summarised in table 6.13. In other words, firm-generated advertising generated higher ad attitudes than all three types of UGA.

Table 6-13 Comparison of mean attitudes towards the ad for different exposure to brand-related advertising for all participants

	N	M	Min.	Max.	Range	SD
Total ad attitude firm generated	188	21.91	4	28	24	5.416
Total ad attitude UGA negative	188	18.10	4	28	24	6.158
Total ad attitude UGA neutral	188	19.14	4	28	24	5.467
Total ad attitude UGA positive	188	18.10	4	28	24	6.158

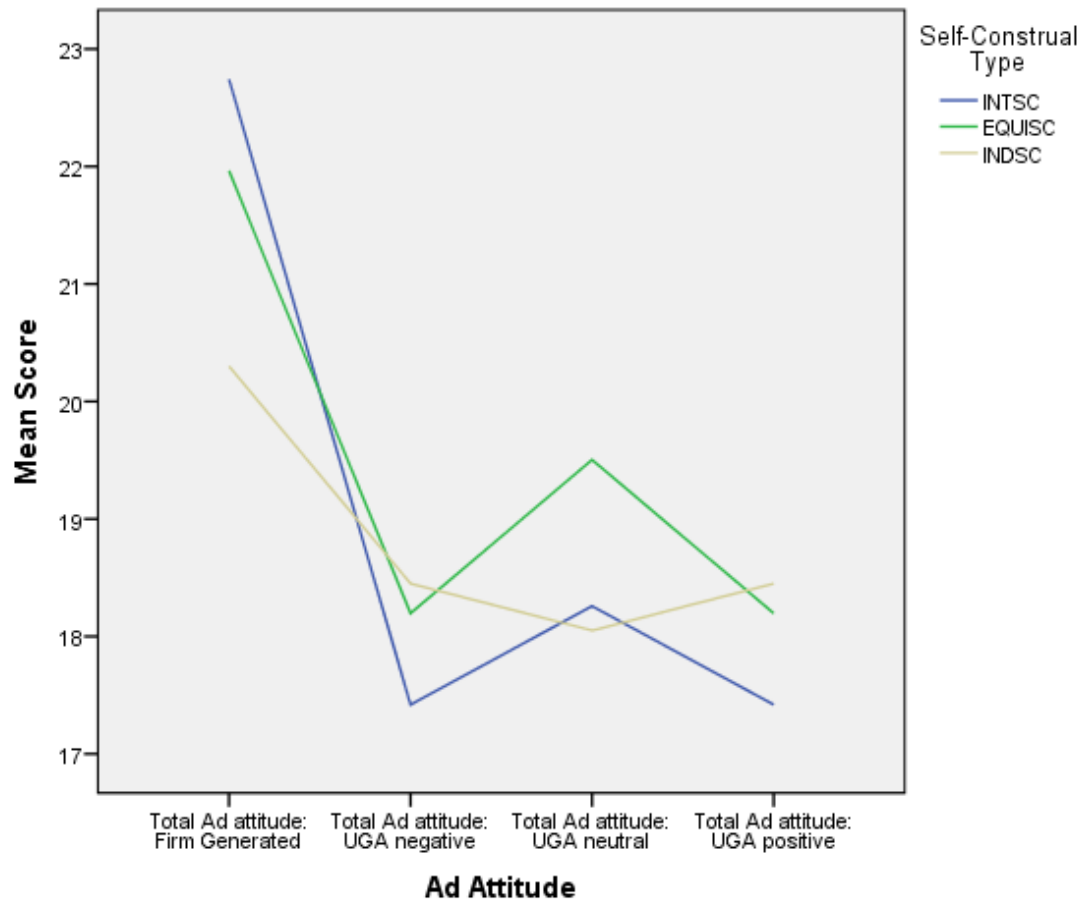
Second, the main effect for groups of self-construal comparisons did not indicate any statistically significant differences between the groups: $F(2, 185) = .26; p = .772; \eta^2 = .003$. This suggests that the factor of self-construal type alone had no effect on the measurement of attitudes, as illustrated in figure 6-6.

Figure 6-6 Mean differences between ad attitudes grouped by self-construal type



Finally, there was no interaction effect for NTSC * types of exposure on the measurements of ad attitudes: $F(6, 555) = 1.50$; $p = .177$; $\eta^2 = .016$, as illustrated in the interaction plot of the means of four conditions shown in figure 6-7.

Figure 6-7 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured ad attitudes grouped by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for the interaction effects of self-construal group * type of exposure are summarised in table 6.14.

Table 6-14 Differences in ad attitudes between different groups after exposure to different types of brand-related advertising

Grouping variable: Self-construal type									
Dependent Variable	INTSC			EQUISC			INDSC		
	N	M*	SD	N	M*	SD	N	M*	SD
Total ad attitude: firm generated	31	22,74	5,81	137	21,96	5,17	20	20,30	6,33
Total ad attitude: negative	31	17,42	6,95	137	18,20	5,94	20	18,45	6,58
Total ad attitude: neutral	31	18,26	5,45	137	19,50	5,45	20	18,05	5,56
Total ad attitude: positive	31	17,42	6,95	137	18,20	5,94	20	18,45	6,58

* Minimum: 4, Maximum: 28, Range 24

6.4.7. Inferential statistics: examination of associations between attitudes towards the ad and attitudes towards the brand

A regression analysis for each of the different exposures to UGA (positive, negative and neutral) was conducted to determine whether the independent variable attitude towards the ad (A_{ad}) influenced the dependent variable attitudes towards the brand (A_b). Prior to conducting the analysis, the four main regression assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity on the distribution of the scores were assessed from the residuals. Regarding normality, as mentioned in section 6.3.3, this assumption was violated, which is not unusual for large samples (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). Furthermore, outliers were assessed following critical values for Mahalanobis distances ($\alpha = 6.64$), and only four cases slightly exceeded this critical value after exposure to neutral UGA; therefore it was not considered to remove them from the sample. All the other assumptions were met visually following the residual scatter plots on which the residuals appeared scattered without a pattern (Privitera 2012).

For the exposure to negative UGA, the results of analysis of regression confirmed a positive linear relationship between A_{ad} and A_b , $F(1, 206) = 32.51$, $p < .01$ meaning that the results are significant as illustrated in figure 6-18. The magnitude of this relationship was assessed through the correlation coefficient (r) and the coefficient of determination (R^2), and the results illustrated in table 6.15 demonstrate a positive medium correlation (Cohen 1988).

Table 6-15 Regression analysis summary results of the relationship between A_{Ad} and A_b

	t-value	Constant	Standardised coef. Beta	Model Summary	F
UGA negative	5.702	8.13	.369	R = .369 R ² = .136 Adjusted R ² = .132	32.514*
UGA neutral	10.245	6.90	.581	R = .581 R ² = .338 Adjusted R ² = .334	104.96*
UGA positive	12.389	7.53	.653	R = .653 R ² = .427 Adjusted R ² = .424	153.49*

* Sig. At .01 level

Criterion Variable: attitude towards the brand

Similarly, for the exposure to neutral UGA, the results of the regression also confirmed a positive linear relationship between A_{Ad} and A_b , $F(1, 206) = 104.96$, $p < .01$, meaning that the results are significant, as illustrated in figure 6-19. The magnitude of this relationship was assessed through the correlation coefficient (R) and the coefficient of determination (R^2), the results previously summarised in table 6.17, demonstrating a large positive correlation (Cohen 1988).

Finally, for the exposure to positive UGA, the results of the analysis of regression once more confirmed a positive linear relationship between A_{ad} and A_b , $F(1, 206) = 153.49$, $p < .01$, meaning that the results are significant. The magnitude of this relationship was assessed through the correlation coefficient (r) and the coefficient of determination (R^2), the results previously summarised in table 6.17, demonstrating a large positive correlation (Cohen 1988).

6.4.8. Inferential statistics: comparison of changes on behavioural intentions as a result of exposure to firm-generated advertising and different types of user-generated advertising for different types of self-construal groups

Behavioural intentions (BI) were grouped in four main dimensions¹⁶ measured using 19 four-level scales. Following the previous statistical tests, a mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare scores on BI between the three self-construal groups—NTSC type interdependent, equidistant and independent—across four types of advertising, firm-generated advertising, and negative, neutral and positive user-generated advertising, to ascertain whether there are main effects of each of the independent variables as well as whether the interaction between the two variables is significant for each one of the 19

¹⁶ Details are fully explained in section 2.8.2.2.1

behavioural intentions. Since this resulted in 19 analyses, it was decided to report only statistically significant results.

Assumptions of homogeneity of covariance were analysed using Box’s test of equality of covariance matrices. If the assumption of Box’s homogeneity of variance was broken (statistically significant test results), Pillai’s Trace was used; otherwise the results were reported with Wilks’ Lambda. Additionally, assumptions of sphericity were analysed using Mauchly’s test (Field 2009). If the test of sphericity was statistically insignificant, the test result for sphericity assumed was given; otherwise the test result used was Greenhouse-Geisser.

For convenience and to reduce the volume of analysis, Box’s and Mauchly’s tests were summarised with the list of factors below in table 6.16. This allowed a clear recognition of the results. Furthermore, only statistically significant results for the main and interaction effects for each measure are described with graphs and tables.

Table 6-16 Summary of sphericity and uniformity variances assumptions

	Measurement	Mauchly’s test *			Box’s test **		
		<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1, df2</i>	<i>p</i>
1	Intend to buy	24.45	5	.000	4.07	20, 11642.87	.000
2	Intend to maintain intake	15.10	5	.010	2.03	20, 11642.87	.004
3	Intend to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	26.56	5	.000	1.16	20, 11642.87	.279
4	Intend to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	50.07	5	.000	1.43	20, 11642.87	.096
5	Intend to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice,	35.36	5	.000	1.39	20,	.116

	iced-tea, etc.)					11642.87	
6	Intend to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	27.51	5	.000	1.38	20, 11642.87	.117
7	Intend to tell friends/family members to maintain their Coca-Cola intake	29.10	5	.000	1.82	20, 11642.87	.014
8	Intend to tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola	23.98	5	.000	2.50	20, 11642.87	.000
9	Intend to tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	22.11	5	.000	1.75	20, 11642.87	.020
10	Intend to tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	29.25	5	.000	1.90	20, 11642.87	.009
11	Intend to tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	23.70	5	.000	1.76	20, 11642.87	.019
12	Intend to tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	16.04	5	.007	1.85	20, 11642.87	.012
13	Intend to post a negative comment about the video	31.10	5	.000	2.79	20, 11642.87	.000
14	Intend to post a positive comment about the video	30.13	5	.000	1.62	20, 11642.87	.083
15	Intend to share the video on the Internet with family/friends	19.65	5	.001	.62	20, 11642.87	.900
16	Intend to post a negative comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola	21.43	5	.001	2.81	20, 11642.87	.000
17	Intend to post a positive comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola in	47.65	5	.000	2.43	20, 11642.87	.000

	a brand forum							
18	Intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post is on the Internet	24.52	5	.000	2.88	20, 11642.87	.000	
19	Intend to produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet	23.65	5	.000	4.18	20, 11642.87	.000	

* Sig > .05

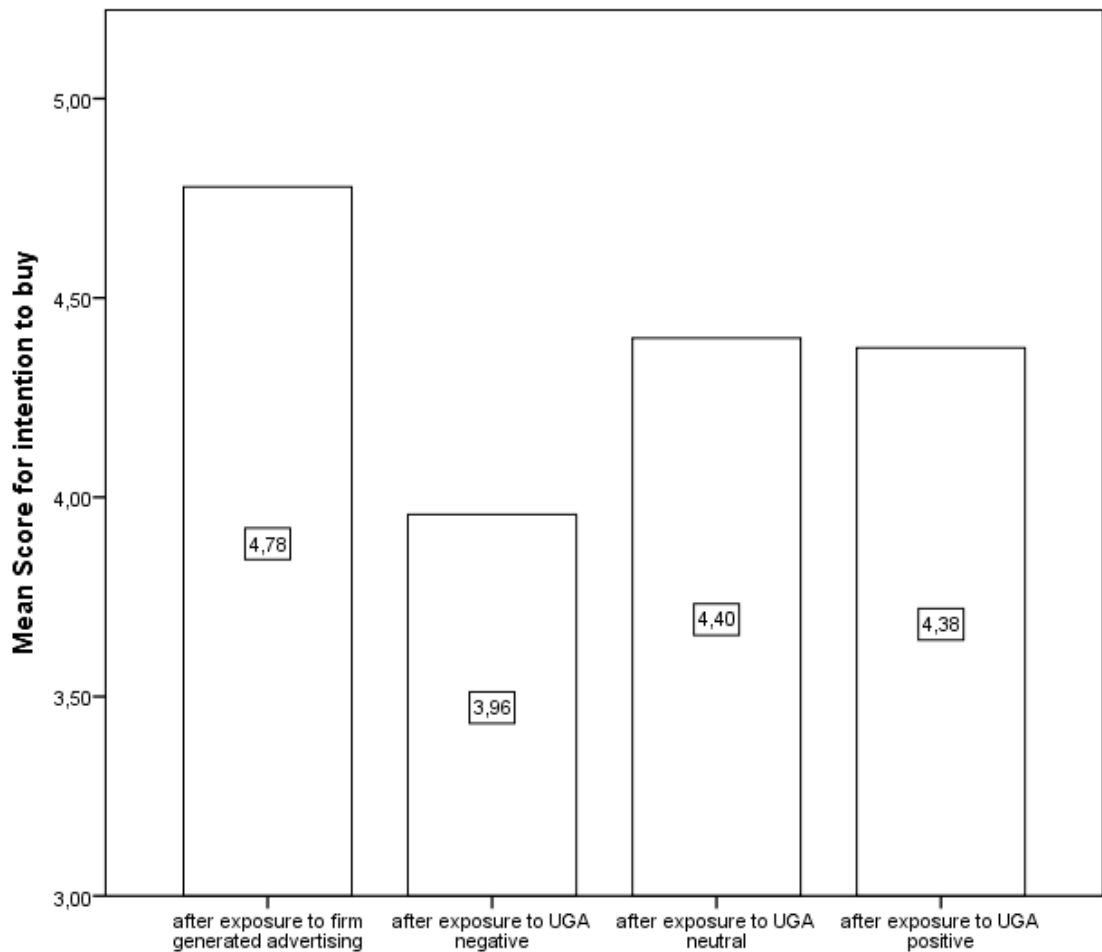
** Sig > .001

If needed, Post hoc tests were conducted with Bonferroni correction, considered a recommended procedure to guarantee control over Type I error. The analyses were divided into four categories of BI: intention to buy, intention to switch product/brand, intention to engage in word-of-mouth activities and intention to create UGA.

6.4.8.1. Purchase intention of Coca-Cola

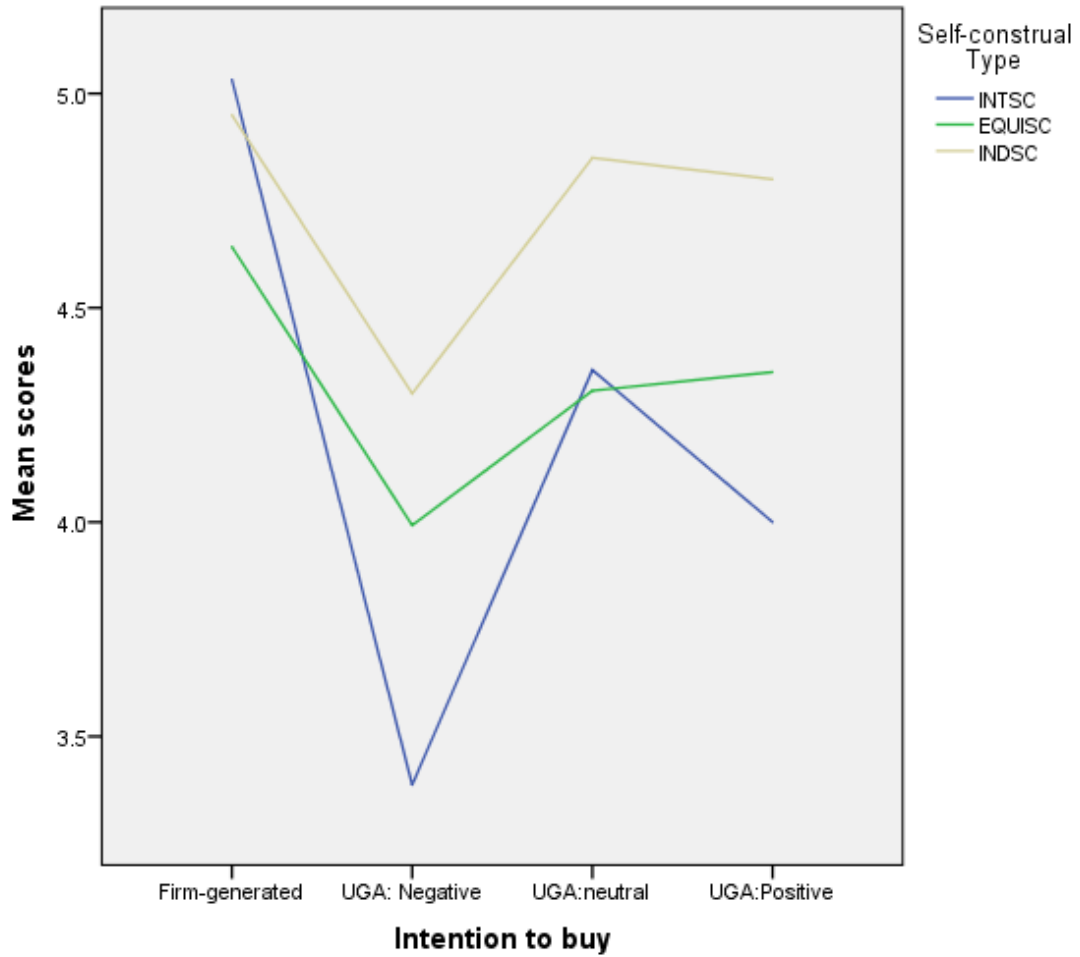
First, the analysis showed that the scores of *intend to buy Coca-Cola* differ after each exposure $F(2.74, 506.76) = 20.48; p < .001; \eta^2 = .100$. Post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) revealed that almost all general results differ significantly ($p < .001$), except for UGA neutral and UGA positive, which did not differ from each other ($p = 1.000$). The lowest scores of *intend to buy* were obtained after exposure to negative UGA, the results after exposure to neutral and positive UGA were average, and the highest result was after exposure to firm-generated advertising as illustrated in figure 6.8 .

Figure 6-8 Mean differences between measured *intentions to buy Coca-Cola* after different UGA exposures



Second; overall self-construal type does not affect the average results of measurements $F(2, 185) = 1.83; p = .510; \eta^2 = .007$. Finally, the interaction effect (NTSC * Exposure) was significant: $F(6, 368) = 2.63; p = .016; \eta^2 = .041$, post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) demonstrated that attitudes for individuals with dominant INTSC decrease dramatically after negative UGA, as illustrated in figure 6-9, whereas individuals with dominant INDSC are less affected by the negative video. This suggests that the interaction between NTSC type and UGA type, especially after negative videos, is significant.

Figure 6-9 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured behavioural intentions to buy Coca-Cola grouped by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for the interaction effects of self-construal group * type of exposure are summarised in table 6.17.

Table 6-17 Descriptive statistics for *intend to buy Coca-Cola* for self-construal groups and different exposures

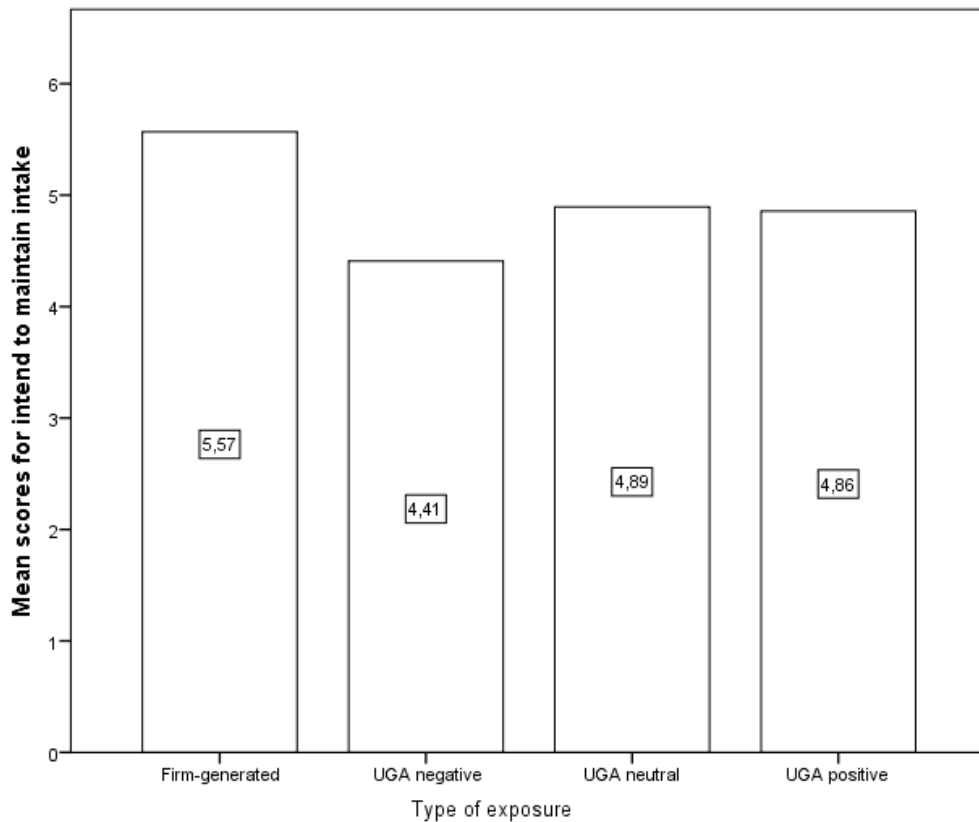
<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	5.03	1.05
	EQUISC	137	4.64	1.91
	INDSC	20	4.95	1.76
	Total	188	4.74	1.78
UGA negative	INTSC	31	3.39	1.65
	EQUISC	137	3.99	1.99
	INDSC	20	4.30	1.63
	Total	188	3.93	1.91
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	4.35	1.43
	EQUISC	137	4.31	1.87
	INDSC	20	4.85	1.57
	Total	188	4.37	1.77
UGA positive	INTSC	31	4.00	1.63
	EQUISC	137	4.35	1.88
	INDSC	20	4.80	1.58
	Total	188	4.34	1.81

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

A similar pattern of results was observed for *intend to maintain intake of Coca-Cola*. First, exposure type showed that the scores differ after each exposure $F(2.84, 525.62) = 32.87; p = .001; \eta^2 = .151$. Post hoc analysis indicated differences between FGA and UGA scores, where the highest measurement of *intend to buy Coca-Cola* was observed for firm-

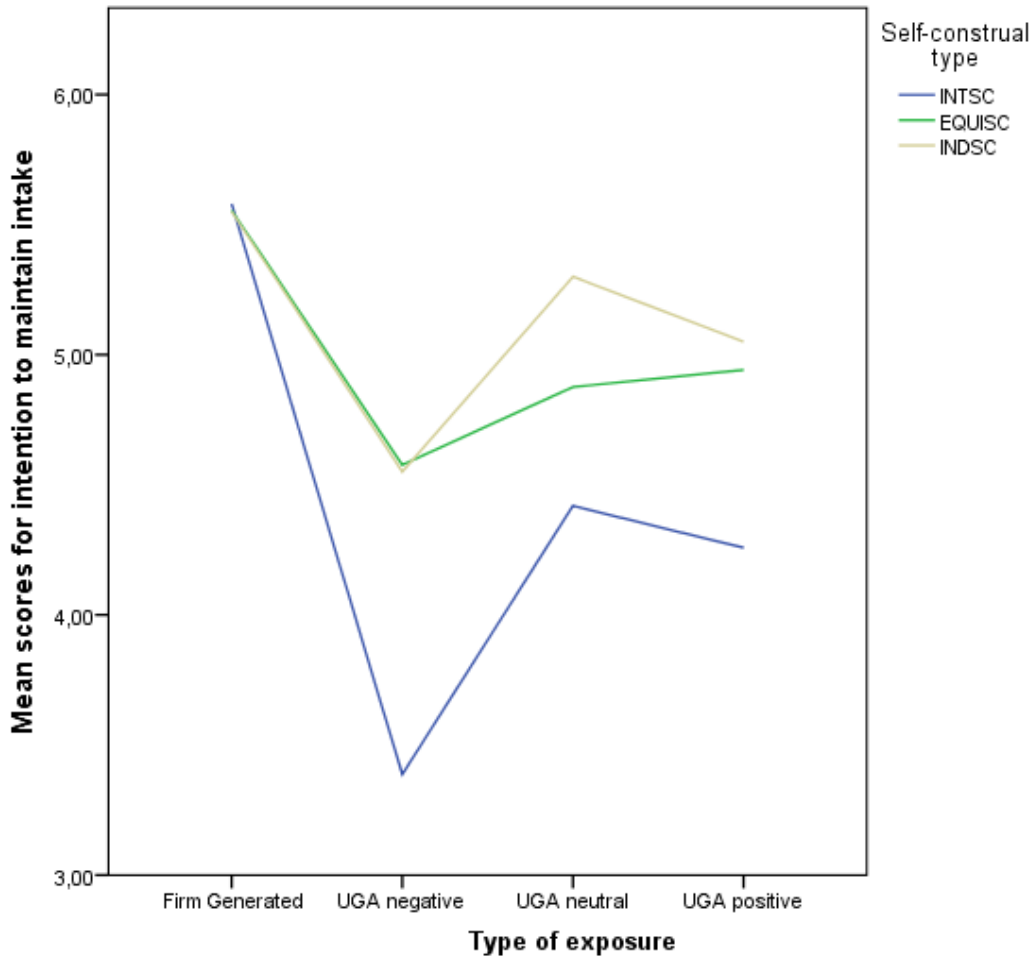
generated advertising and the lowest in for negative UGA; conversely, exposures to neutral and positive UGA resulted in average scores, as depicted in figure 6-10.

Figure 6-10 Mean differences between measured *intentions to maintain intake of Coca-Cola* after different exposures



Second, the statistical test suggests that self-construal type does not affect the measures $F(2, 185) = 2.61; p = .076; \eta^2 = .027$. Finally, the results demonstrate an interaction between exposure type and NTSC illustrated in figure 6-11. Once more, individuals with dominant INTSC $F(6, 368) = 3.14; p = .005; \eta^2 = .049$ report the lowest scores after exposure to negative UGA. For other types of NTSC, the effect is not observable.

Figure 6-11 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured *behavioural intentions to maintain intake of Coca-Cola* grouped by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for the interaction effects of self-construal group * type of exposure are summarised in table 6.18.

Table 6-18 . Descriptive statistics for measurement of *Intend to maintain intake of Coca-Cola*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm generated	INTSC	31	5.58	0.92
	EQUIS	137	5.55	1.43
	INDSC	20	5.55	1.00
	Total	188	5.56	1.32
UGA negative	INTSC	31	3.39	1.71
	EQUIS	137	4.58	1.84
	INDSC	20	4.55	1.40
	Total	188	4.38	1.82
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	4.42	1.52
	EQUIS	137	4.88	1.66
	INDSC	20	5.30	0.98
	Total	188	4.85	1.59
UGA positive	INTSC	31	4.26	1.71
	EQUIS	137	4.94	1.69
	INDSC	20	5.05	1.23
	Total	188	4.84	1.67

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

6.4.8.2. Intention to switch product within Coca-Cola brand or switch brands

The statistical test for *intend to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* demonstrated no significant statistically differences at any level. For instance, the scores for measurements after different exposures did not differ from each other $F(3, 555) = 1.50$; $p = .213$; $\eta^2 = .008$. Similarly, results for the test regarding different types of self-construal did not demonstrate differentiated results $F(2, 185) = 2.19$; $p = .115$; $\eta^2 = .023$. Finally, there was no interaction effect between both variables, meaning that results were not affected $F(6, 368) = .84$; $p = .537$; $\eta^2 = .014$. This means that there were no statistically significant results for different self-construal groups, which did not differ from each other for *intend to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product*.

Similar results were observed for the variable *intend to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product*, for which the results after different exposures were not statistically significant $F(2.52, 466.48) = 2.30$; $p = .087$; $\eta^2 = .012$. In a similar pattern, there was no statistical significance of the results for different self-construal groups $F(2, 185) = 1.46$; $p = .234$; $\eta^2 = .016$. Furthermore, the interaction effect for both factors (NTSC * Exposure) was also not statistically significant $F(6, 366) = 1.28$; $p = .267$; $\eta^2 = .021$. Therefore, the results did not differ from each other in terms of intentions to switch to another Coca-Cola product (i.e. *intend to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola*). Descriptive statistics for both *intention to buy* and *intention to drink a low-sugar/no sugar product* are summarized in table 6.19.

Table 6-19 Summary of the descriptive statistics for measurement of *intend to buy* and *intend to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product*

<i>Measurement</i>	NTSC Type	N	<i>Intend to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i>		<i>Intend to buy a low-sugar / no-sugar Coca-Cola product</i>	
			Mean*	Std. Deviation	Mean*	Std. Deviation
Firm generated	INTSC	31	4.39	1.45	4.48	1.46
	EQUISC	137	4.07	1.96	4.13	1.96
	INDSC	20	3.00	1.45	3.10	1.52
	Total	188	4.01	1.87	4.08	1.87
UGA negative	INTSC	31	4.35	2.27	4.58	2.26
	EQUISC	137	4.06	2.06	4.18	2.07
	INDSC	20	3.85	1.63	3.55	1.67
	Total	188	4.09	2.05	4.18	2.07
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	4.35	1.60	4.48	1.57
	EQUISC	137	4.04	1.95	4.12	1.99
	INDSC	20	3.70	1.42	3.75	1.45
	Total	188	4.05	1.85	4.14	1.88
UGA positive	INTSC	31	4.19	1.76	4.39	1.67
	EQUISC	137	3.98	1.90	4.04	1.85
	INDSC	20	3.35	1.46	3.40	1.50
	Total	188	3.95	1.84	4.03	1.80

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

A similar pattern was observed for the variables *intend to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink* (water, juice, iced-tea, etc..) and *intend to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink*. The results for different exposures were not statistically significant, demonstrating that there were no differences between firm-generated and user-generated advertising accordingly $F(6.67, 494.23) = .96; p = .404; \eta^2 = .005$; and $F(2.75, 508.21) = 1.27; p = .285; \eta^2 = .007$. Also, the results for different types of self-construal (between groups) were not significant accordingly: $F(2, 185) = 1.58; p = .209; \eta^2 = .017$; and $F(2, 185) = .84; p = .433; \eta^2 = .009$. Similarly, there were no interaction effects for both factors (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 366) = 0.70; p = .652; \eta^2 = .011$; $F(6, 366) = 0.80; p = .572; \eta^2 = .013$. This suggests that the respondents' self-construal type and exposures to firm-generated ads and different types of UGA (negative, neutral and positive) did not affect the variables. Descriptive statistics for both *intention to drink* and *intention to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink* are summarized in table 6.20.

Table 6-20 Summary of the descriptive statistics for measurement of *intend to drink* and *intend to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink*

		Intend to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink			Intend to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink	
	NTSC	N	Mean*	Std. Deviation	Mean*	Std. Deviation
Firm generated	INTSC	31	4.52	1.435	4.39	1.383
	EQUISC	137	4.56	1.748	4.28	1.684
	INDSC	20	4.05	1.572	4.10	1.518
	Total	188	4.50	1.682	4.28	1.616

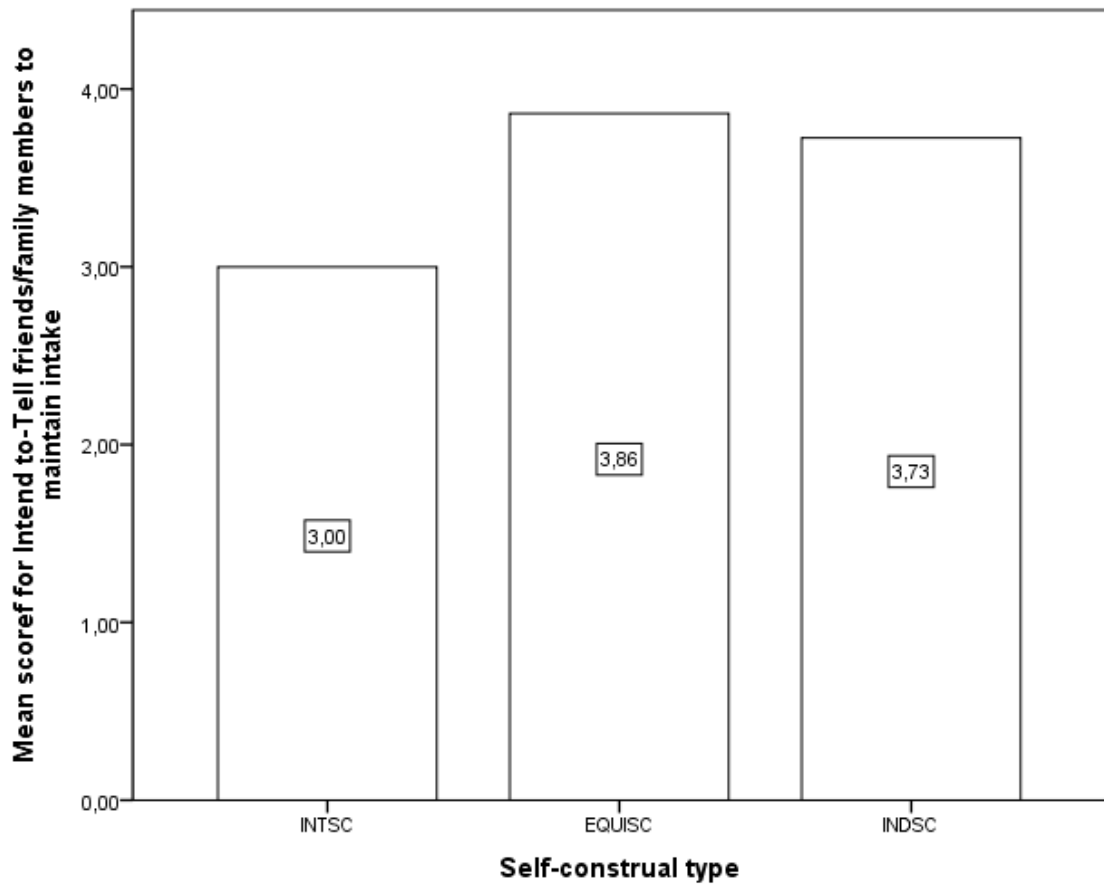
UGA negative	INTSC	31	4.97	1.991	4.84	2.018
	EQUISC	137	4.82	1.778	4.57	1.814
	INDSC	20	3.80	1.576	3.75	1.650
	Total	188	4.74	1.815	4.53	1.845
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	4.61	1.606	4.48	1.589
	EQUISC	137	4.51	1.803	4.33	1.828
	INDSC	20	4.00	1.414	4.00	1.414
	Total	188	4.47	1.735	4.32	1.747
UGA positive	INTSC	31	4.52	1.630	4.32	1.681
	EQUISC	137	4.44	1.736	4.20	1.822
	INDSC	20	4.00	1.338	3.90	1.334
	Total	188	4.40	1.679	4.19	1.750

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

6.4.8.3. Intention to engage in word-of-mouth activities

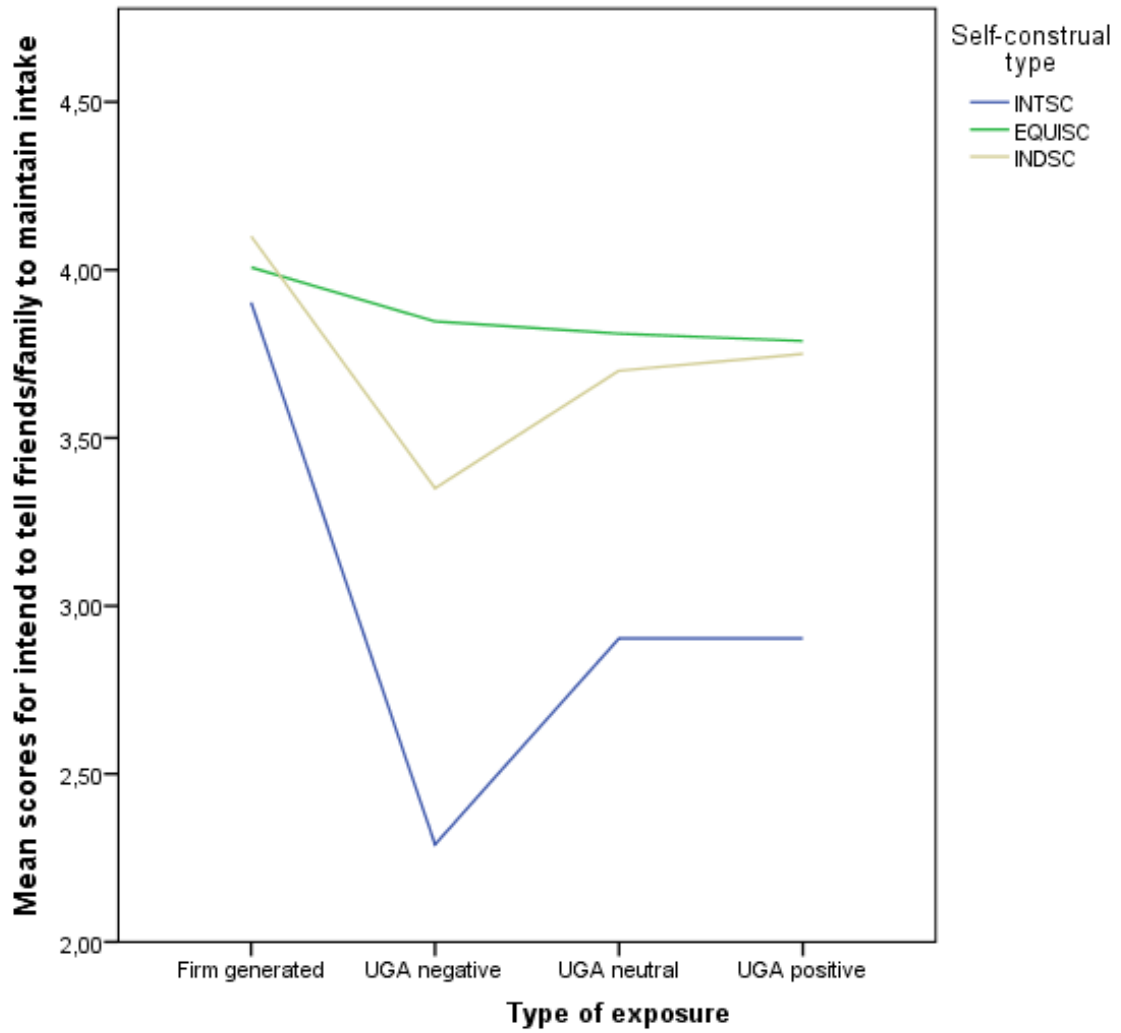
Considering variables related to *intend to tell friends/family to maintain their Coca-Cola intake*, the ANOVA test shows a number of interesting results. First, the results after exposure differ within subjects' results significantly $F(2.71, 501.41) = 16.46; p < .001; \eta^2 = .082$. Scores for exposure to firm-generated advertising are much higher and differ significantly from those for UGA (negative, neutral and positive); interestingly, the results do not differ significantly between UGA negative and positive, as illustrated in figure 6-12.

Figure 6-13 Mean differences between *intentions to tell family/friends to maintain intake* grouped via self-construal type



Finally, a clearly effect of interaction of both factors (NTSC * Exposure) was observed: $F(6, 368) = 4.21; p < .001; \eta^2 = .164$. Post hoc tests (Bonferroni) showed that the interaction effect is responsible for a decline in scores between negative and positive UGA, especially for INTSC; this decrease was considerably lower for INDSC and practically unnoticeable for EQUISC. The interaction plot is illustrated in figure 6-14.

Figure 6-14 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured *behavioural intentions to tell family/friends to maintain intake* grouped by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for intend to tell friends/family members to maintain intake are summarised in table 6.21.

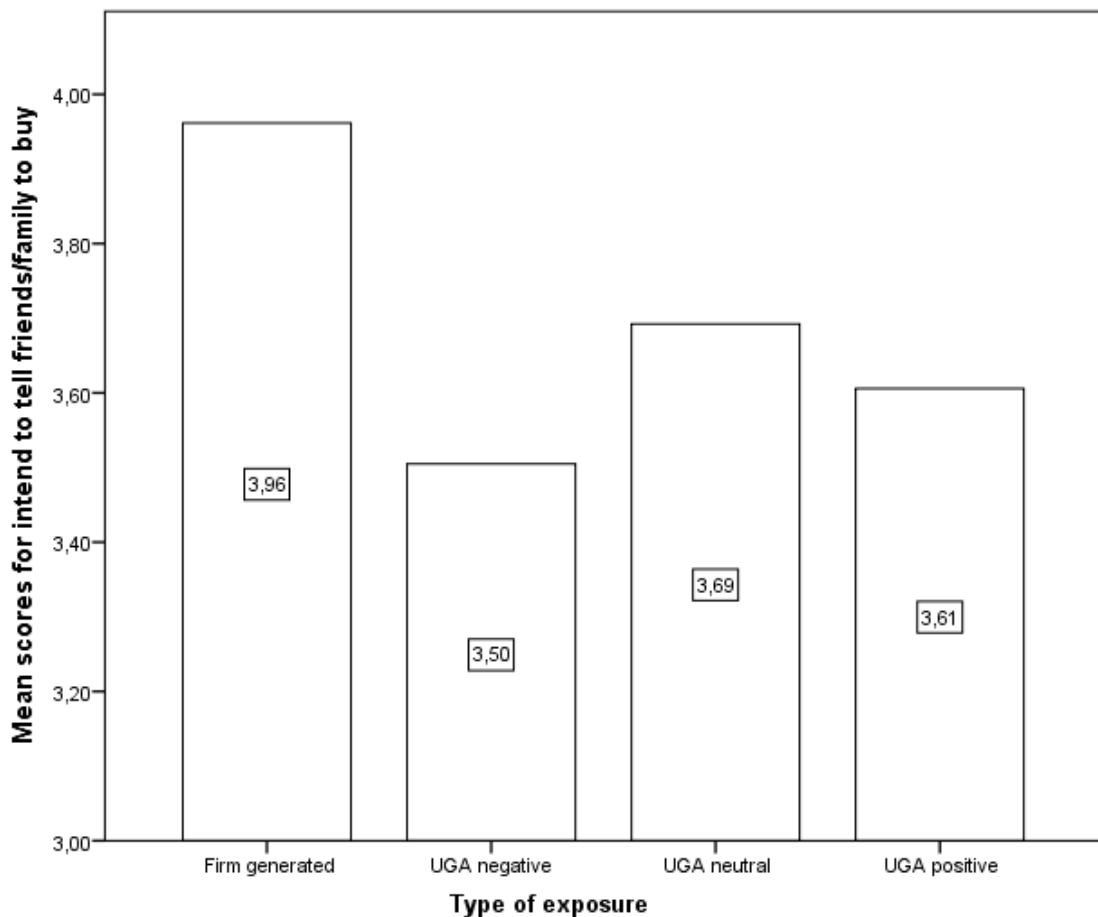
Table 6-21 Descriptive statistics for *intend to tell friends/family members to maintain intake*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm generated advertising	INTSC	31	3.90	1.66
	EQUISC	137	4.01	1.93
	INDSC	20	4.10	1.25
	Total	188	4.00	1.82
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.29	1.37
	EQUISC	137	3.85	1.97
	INDSC	20	3.35	1.42
	Total	188	3.54	1.91
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.90	1.51
	EQUISC	137	3.81	1.93
	INDSC	20	3.70	1.26
	Total	188	3.65	1.83
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.90	1.47
	EQUISC	137	3.79	1.96
	INDSC	20	3.75	1.33
	Total	188	3.64	1.85

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

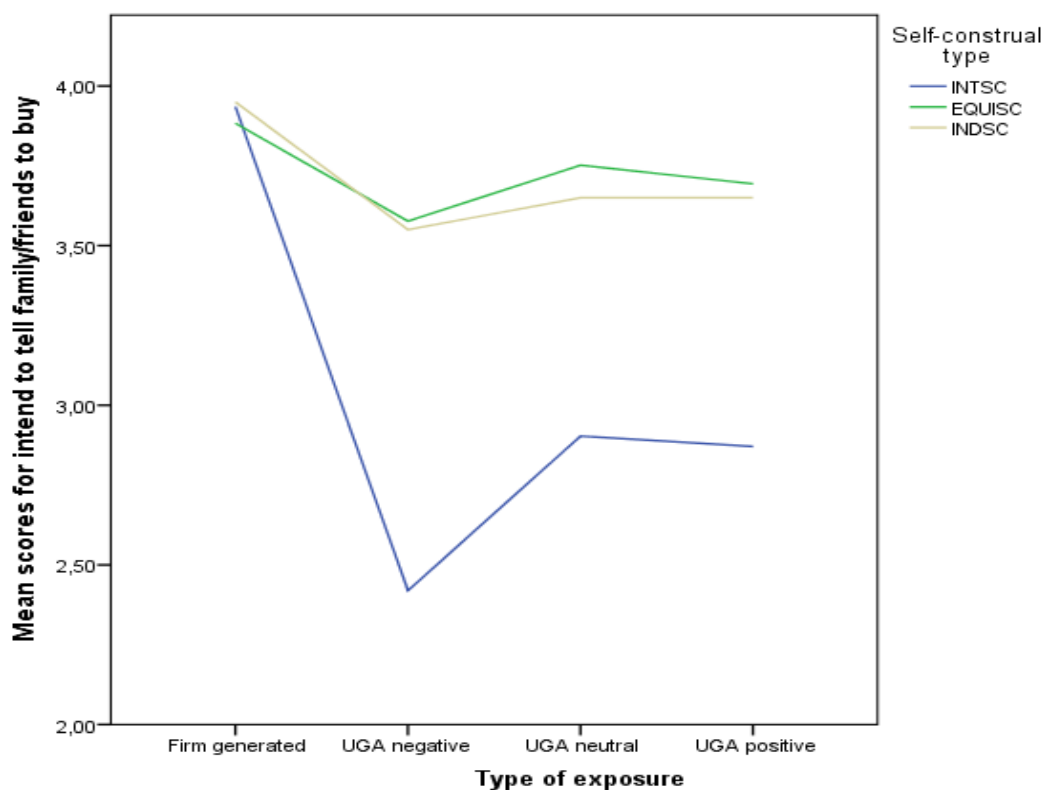
Similar results were obtained for measurements of *intend to tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola*. The main effect of exposure to different types of advertising was significant after the four exposures were observed $F(2.76, 510.96) = 14.02$; $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .070$, as exposure to firm-generated advertising was much higher than for UGA negative, neutral and positive, and post hoc analysis revealed that firm-generated advertising differs from all three UGA types, which in turn are not different from each other, as illustrated in figure 6-15.

Figure 6-15 Mean differences between measured *intentions to tell family/friends to buy* after exposures



However, the main effect for each group of self-construal was not significant $F(2, 185) = 2.11; p = .124; \eta^2 = .022$, meaning that this variable alone does not affect this behavioural intention. Finally, the interaction of both factors (NTSC * Exposure) was significant $F(6, 368) = 3.70; p = .001; \eta^2 = .057$. Post hoc tests (Bonferroni) showed that similar interaction effects exist for *intend to tell to maintain*: a decline of values for UGA negative, neutral and positive for INTSC, without a significant decrease in values after exposure to firm-generated advertising in interactions for INDSC and EQUISC. This means that INTSC participants are more susceptible to the information received via negative UGA than other participants, as illustrated in figure 6-16. Therefore, it is clear that participants treated dimensions *intend to tell to maintain* and *intend to tell friends/family members to buy* quite similarly; however, some differences can be seen in the distribution of the results.

Figure 6-16 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured *behavioural intentions to tell family/friends to buy* grouped by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for intend to tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola are summarised in table 6.22.

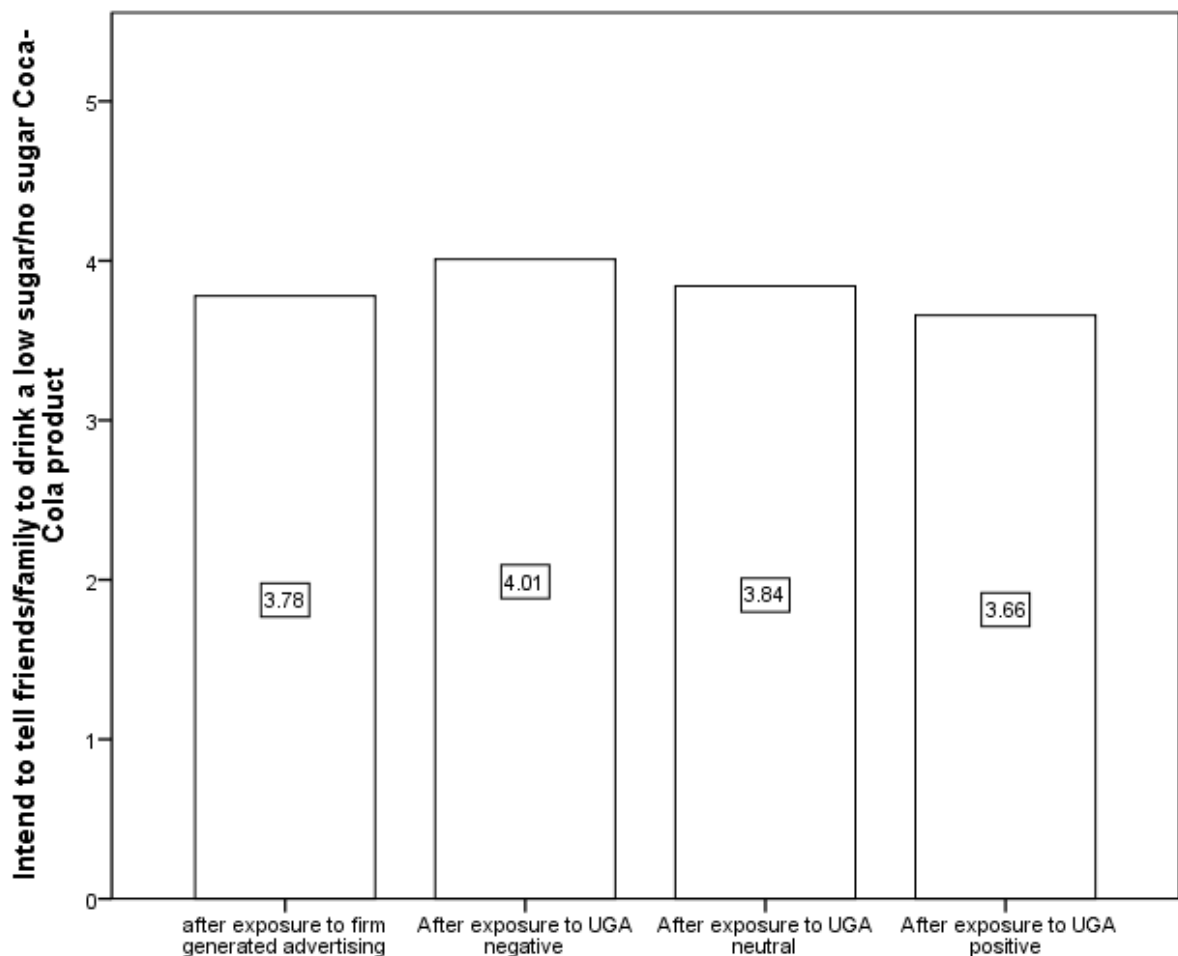
Table 6-22 Descriptive statistics for *intend to tell friends/family members to buy* Coca-Cola

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	3.94	1.73
	EQUISC	137	3.88	1.98
	INDSC	20	3.95	1.43
	Total	188	3.90	1.88
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.42	1.46
	EQUISC	137	3.58	1.97
	INDSC	20	3.55	1.32
	Total	188	3.38	1.88
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.90	1.51
	EQUISC	137	3.75	1.98
	INDSC	20	3.65	1.27
	Total	188	3.60	1.87
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.87	1.46
	EQUISC	137	3.69	1.98
	INDSC	20	3.65	1.39
	Total	188	3.55	1.87

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

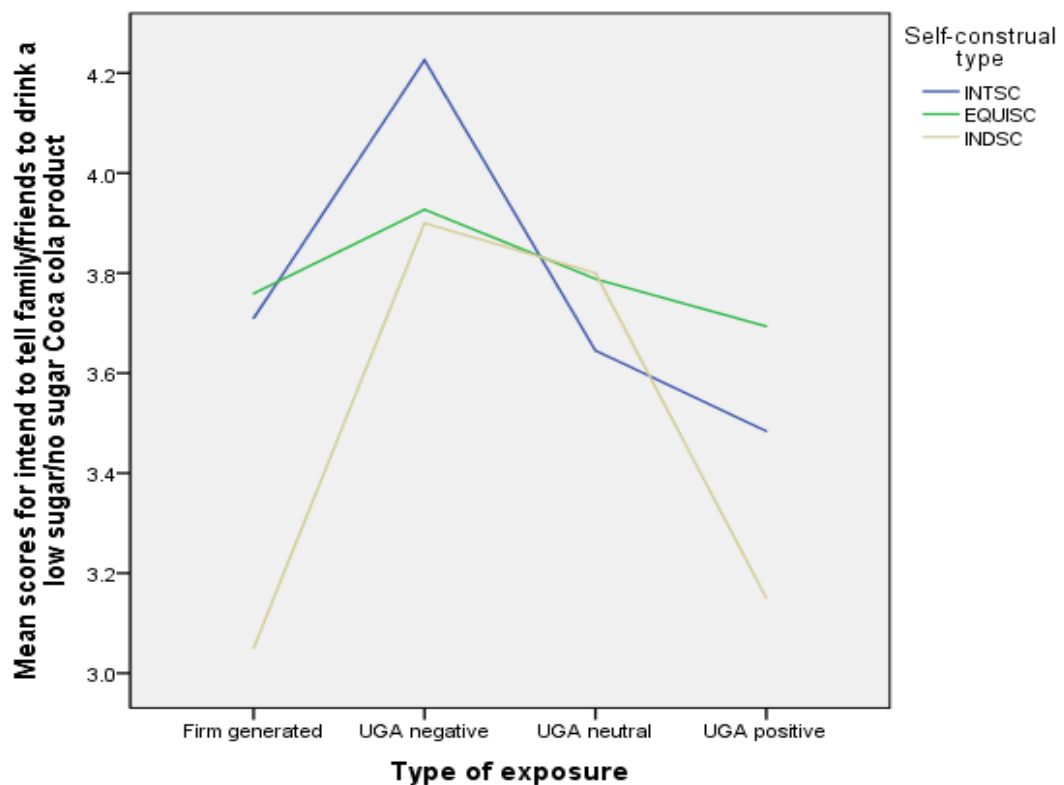
Moving now to word-of-mouth regarding product switching, the results for *intend to tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola* demonstrate that first, the main effect for type of exposure is significant. The results for this behavioural intention are different after the type of exposure $F(2.77, 513.09) = 10.07; p < .001; \eta^2 = .052$. Post hoc analysis (Bonferroni) showed that only the exposure to negative UGA increases the intentions to tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola, while the other three types of exposure do not differ significantly from each other and are generally lower, as illustrated in figure 6-17.

Figure 6-17 Mean differences between measured *intentions to tell family/friends to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* after exposures



Second, the main effects for type of self-construal are not significant $F(2, 185) = .28$; $p = .753$; $\eta^2 = .003$, meaning that this variable alone does not affect individuals' behavioural intentions. Finally, the effect of interaction of both factors (NTSC * Exposure) was significant $F(6, 368) = 4.21$; $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .164$, demonstrating a relationship between NTSC and exposure type, as illustrated in figure 6-18. However, surprisingly, tests of statistical significance of differences indicated differences between firm-generated advertising and exposure to negative UGA only for the INDSC self-construal group.

Figure 6-18 Interaction plot for the means of the four measured *behavioural intentions to tell family/friends to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* grouped with self-construal type



Descriptive statistics *intend to tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* are summarized in table 6.23.

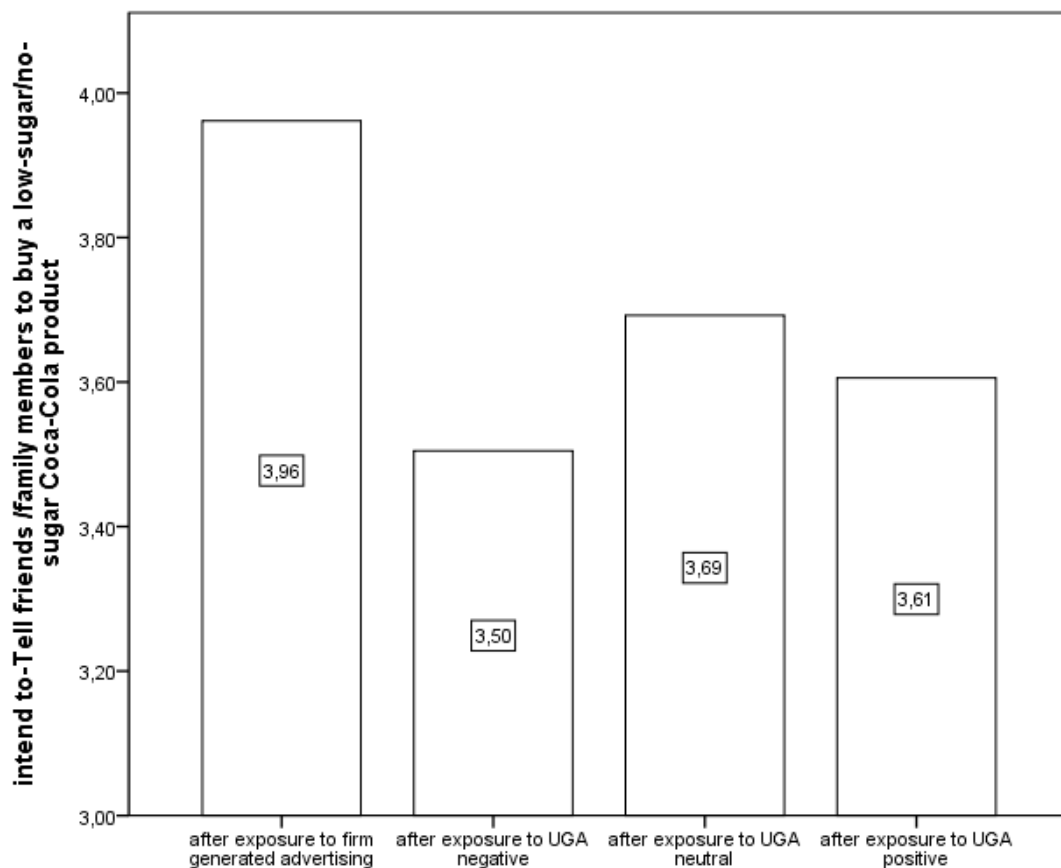
Table 6-23 Descriptive statistics for *intend to tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* in subgroups and total score

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	3.71	1.68
	EQUISC	137	3.76	1.97
	INDSC	20	3.05	1.43
	Total	188	3.68	1.88
UGA negative	INTSC	31	4.23	2.16
	EQUISC	137	3.93	1.97
	INDSC	20	3.90	1.59
	Total	188	3.97	1.96
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	3.65	1.87
	EQUISC	137	3.79	1.94
	INDSC	20	3.80	1.40
	Total	188	3.77	1.87
UGA positive	INTSC	31	3.48	1.82
	EQUISC	137	3.69	1.94
	INDSC	20	3.15	1.42
	Total	188	3.60	1.88

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

Considering the variable *intend to tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product*, the main effect of type of exposure was statistically significant $F(2.73, 505.07) = 8.04$; $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .042$, as depicted in figure 6-19. Significantly higher results on this behavioural intention were obtained by exposure to firm-generated advertising, while exposures to UGA (negative, neutral and positive) were lower and did not differ significantly among each other.

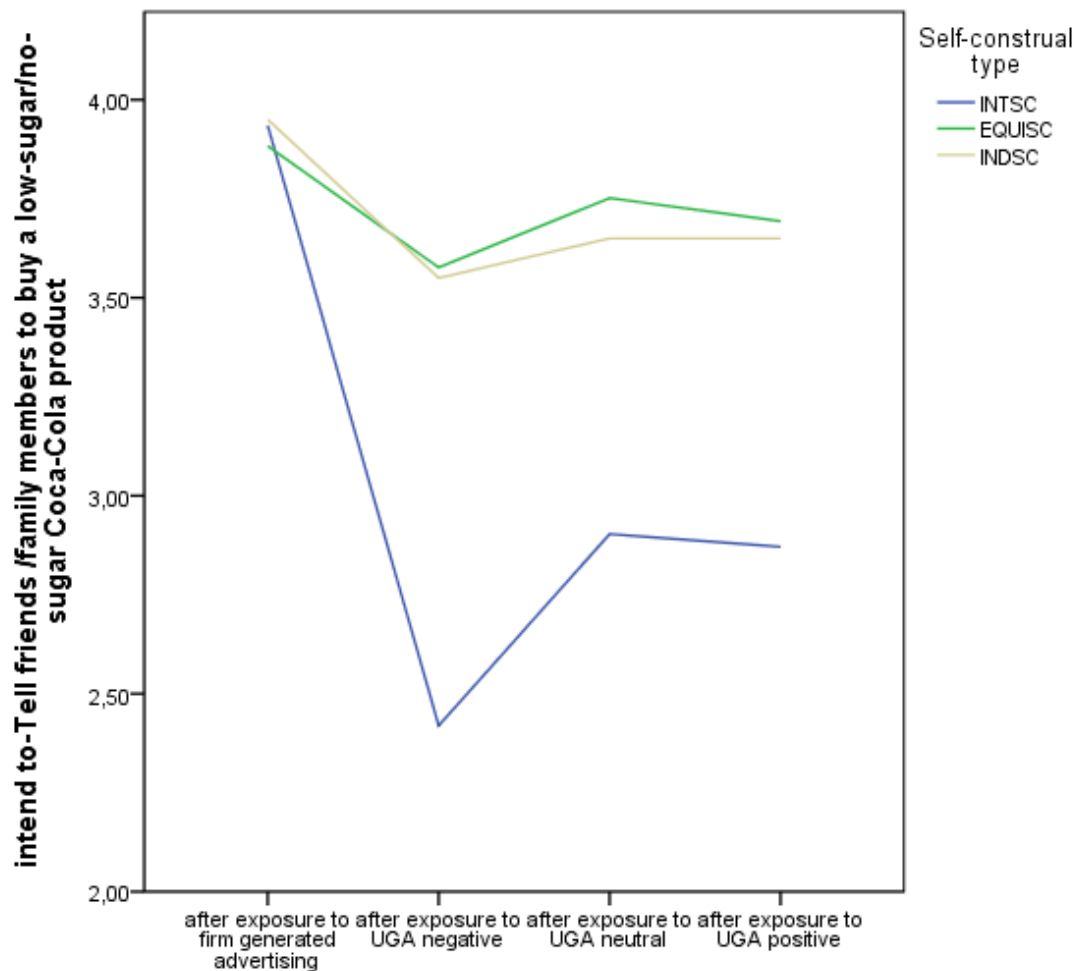
Figure 6-19 Mean differences between measured *tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* after exposures



Second, the main effect for type of self-construal was not significant $F(2, 185) = .32$; $p = .718$; $\eta^2 = .004$, meaning that this variable alone does not affect behavioural intentions of

this type. Finally, there was a statistically significant interaction effect for (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 4.21; p < .001; \eta^2 = .164$. Post hoc tests (Bonferroni) showed the same pattern as seen for other measurements: a decline of values for negative, neutral and positive UGA for INTSC only, and with higher results in measurement after exposure to firm-generated advertising, as illustrated in figure 6-20.

Figure 6-20 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of *tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* grouped with self-construal type



Descriptive statistics *intend to tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product* are summarized in table 6.24.

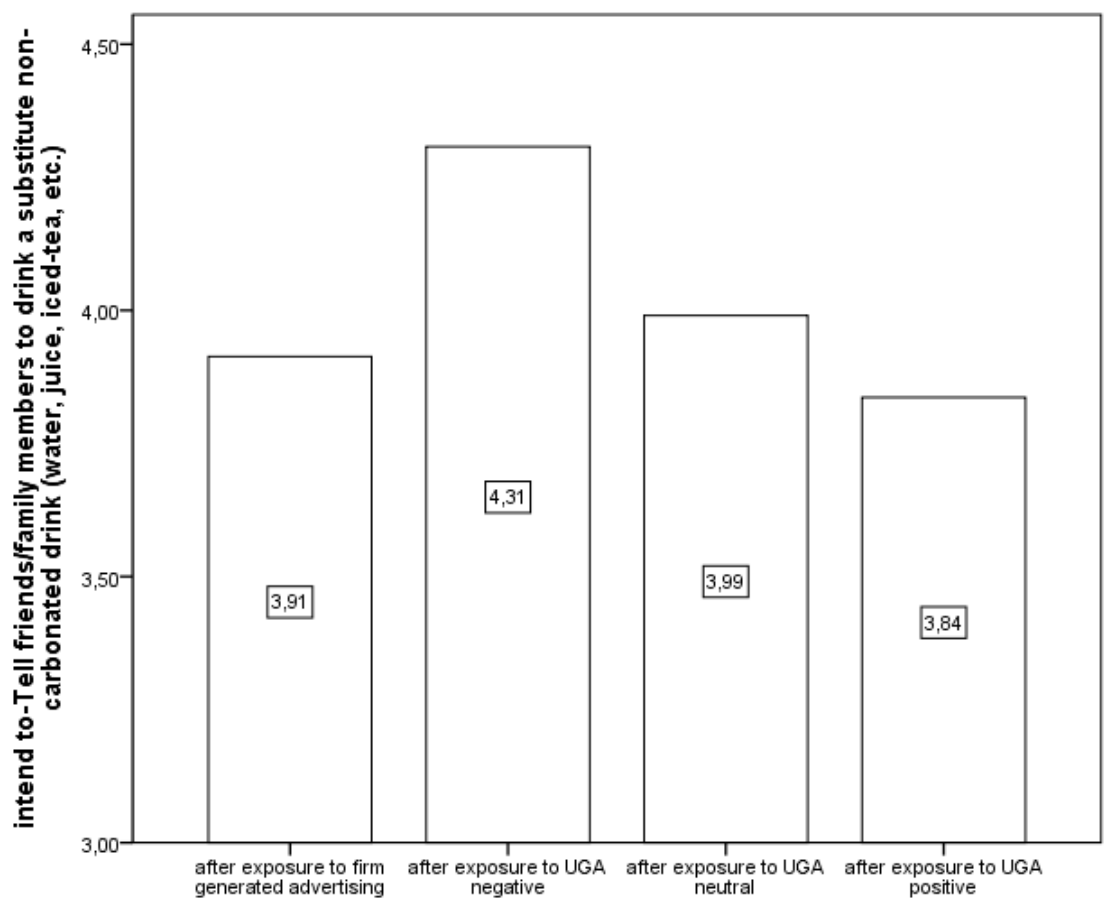
Table 6-24 Descriptive statistics for *intend to tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	3.71	1.68
	EQUISC	137	3.76	1.99
	INDSC	20	3.05	1.43
	Total	188	3.68	1.90
UGA negative	INTSC	31	4.23	2.25
	EQUISC	137	3.91	2.02
	INDSC	20	3.80	1.64
	Total	188	3.95	2.02
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	3.61	1.89
	EQUISC	137	3.79	1.97
	INDSC	20	3.75	1.37
	Total	188	3.76	1.90
UGA positive	INTSC	31	3.45	1.82
	EQUISC	137	3.74	1.97
	INDSC	20	3.20	1.47
	Total	188	3.63	1.90

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

With regards to the variable *intention to tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink*, first, the main effect for type of exposure was significant $F(2.75, 509.94) = 7.78; p < .001; \eta^2 = .040$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) demonstrated that exposure to negative UGA results in higher test scores than the other three types of exposure, which in turn do not significantly differ from each other, as illustrated in figure 6-21.

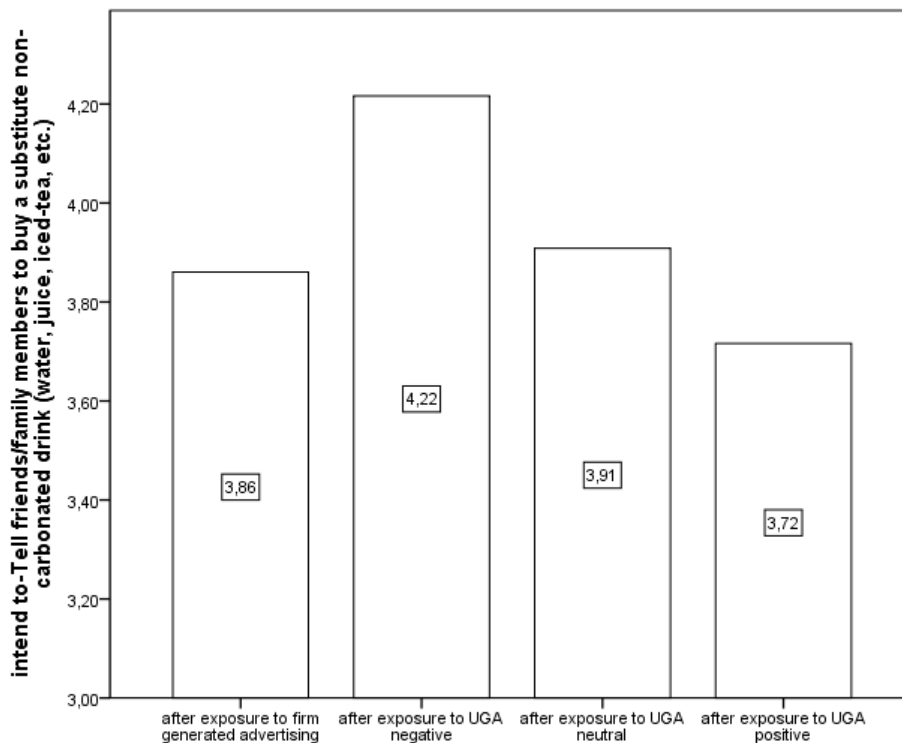
Figure 6-21 Mean differences in *intend to tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink* (water, juice, iced tea, etc.) by exposure type



Second, similarly to other behavioural intentions, the main effect of self-construal was not significant $F(2, 185) = 1.55; p = .216; \eta^2 = .016$. Finally, interestingly for this type of behavioural intention, there was no effect of interaction of factors (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 1.58; p = .153; \eta^2 = .025$, as observed in previous intentions.

A similar pattern was observed for the variable of *intend to tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink*. Main effects were only observed after types of exposure $F(2.82, 522.03) = 8.30; p < .001; \eta^2 = .042$, as illustrated in figure 6-22, where behavioural intentions after exposure to negative UGA gave much higher results on the test than the other three types of exposure. Similar to previous intentions, there was no significant main effect of self-construal type differences $F(2, 185) = .89; p = .412; \eta^2 = .010$ or significant interaction effects for (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 1.71; p = .116; \eta^2 = .027$.

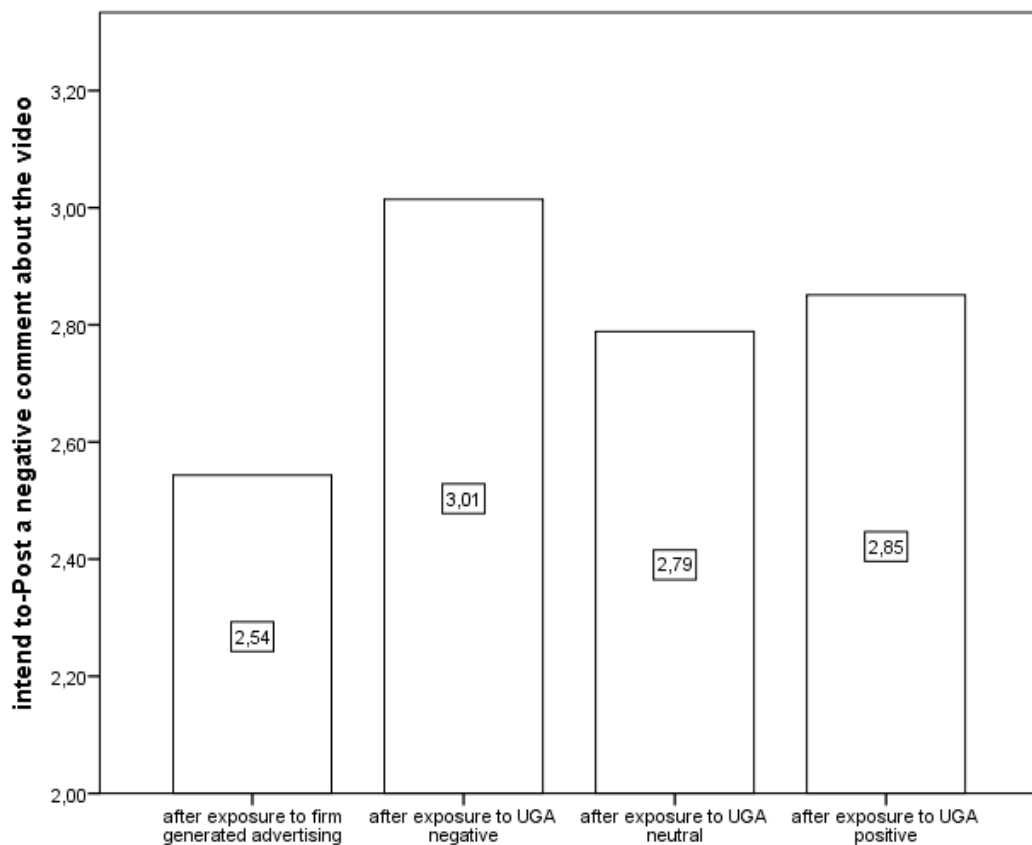
Figure 6-22 Differences in *intend to tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink* by exposure type



6.4.8.4. Intention to engage in e-word-of-mouth activities

Having analysed behavioural intentions to engage in word-of-mouth, attention now is directed to the electronic variant of this intention; in other words, to communicate with others via electronic media. For instance, for *intention to post a negative comment about the video*, the main effect for type of exposure was significant $F(2.69, 479.42) = 10.36; p < .001; \eta^2 = .052$. Post hoc (Bonferroni) analysis suggests that participants are significantly more willing to post a negative comment about a video when exposed to UGA. Negative UGA triggers this intention more than other types of exposures (neutral or positive), while firm-generated advertising exposure least inclined respondents to such behaviour, as illustrated in figure 6-23.

Figure 6-23 Differences in *intend to post a negative comment about the video* by exposure type



Second, as previously observed there were no significant main effect for self-construal type or between-subjects differences $F(2, 185) = .28; p = .756; \eta^2 = .003$. Furthermore, there was no effect of the interaction of variables (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 1.66; p = .128; \eta^2 = .026$. Descriptive statistics are summarised in table 6.25.

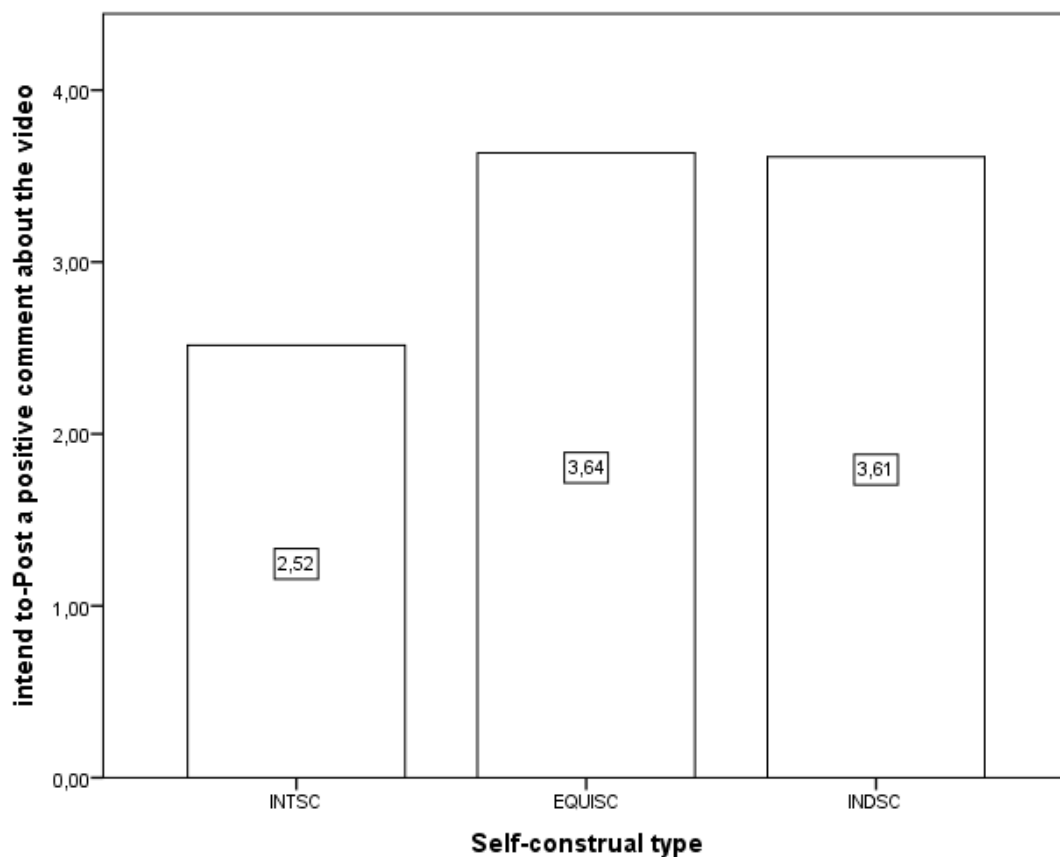
Table 6-25 Descriptive statistics (subgroups and total score) for *intend to post a negative comment about the video*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	2.06	1.06
	EQUISC	137	2.63	1.86
	INDSC	20	2.30	1.08
	Total	188	2.50	1.70
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.94	1.59
	EQUISC	137	2.87	1.79
	INDSC	20	3.30	1.38
	Total	188	2.93	1.71
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.39	1.09
	EQUISC	137	2.69	1.80
	INDSC	20	2.85	0.99
	Total	188	2.66	1.63
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.77	1.56
	EQUISC	137	2.80	1.78
	INDSC	20	2.75	1.25
	Total	188	2.79	1.69

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

Interestingly, for the variable *intend to post a positive comment about the video*, the results show very peculiar relationships; differently from other behavioural intentions previously analysed, only the main effects of self-construal type demonstrate a significant influence on the scores $F(2, 185) = 5.42; p = .005; \eta^2 = .055$. For instance, respondents from the INTSC group report significantly less inclination to such behaviour than participants with INDSC or EQUISC, which do not differ significantly from each other, as illustrated in figure 6-24.

Figure 6-24 Differences between subjects mean for *intend to post a positive comment about the video* grouped by self-construal type



Conversely, neither the main effect for type of exposure $F(2.28, 504.46) = .65; p = .586; \eta^2 = .003$ nor the interaction of factors (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 1.91; p = .079; \eta^2 = .030$ was significant. Descriptive statistics are summarised in table 6.26.

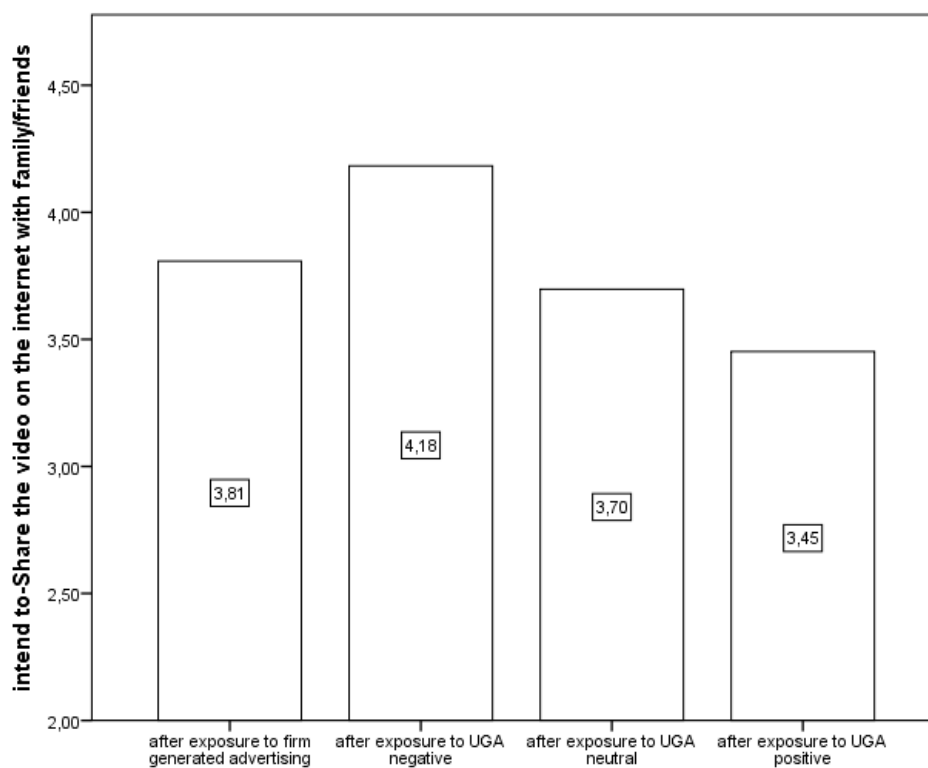
Table 6-26 Descriptive statistics for *intend to post a positive comment about the video*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
firm generated advertising	INTSC	31	2.42	1.48
	EQUISC	137	3.85	2.10
	INDSC	20	3.35	1.60
	Total	188	3.56	2.02
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.81	1.40
	EQUISC	137	3.53	2.01
	INDSC	20	3.60	1.57
	Total	188	3.42	1.89
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.58	1.29
	EQUISC	137	3.64	2.06
	INDSC	20	3.75	1.52
	Total	188	3.48	1.94
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.26	1.09
	EQUISC	137	3.52	2.04
	INDSC	20	3.75	1.62
	Total	188	3.34	1.93

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

For the variable *intend to share the video*, the main effect of type of exposure demonstrated significant differences in scores $F(2.80, 517.78) = 23.37; p < .001; \eta^2 = .101$; A post hoc test (Bonferroni) demonstrated that the result varies only between two exposures: high scores for negative UGA and low scores for positive UGA, as illustrated in figure 6-25.

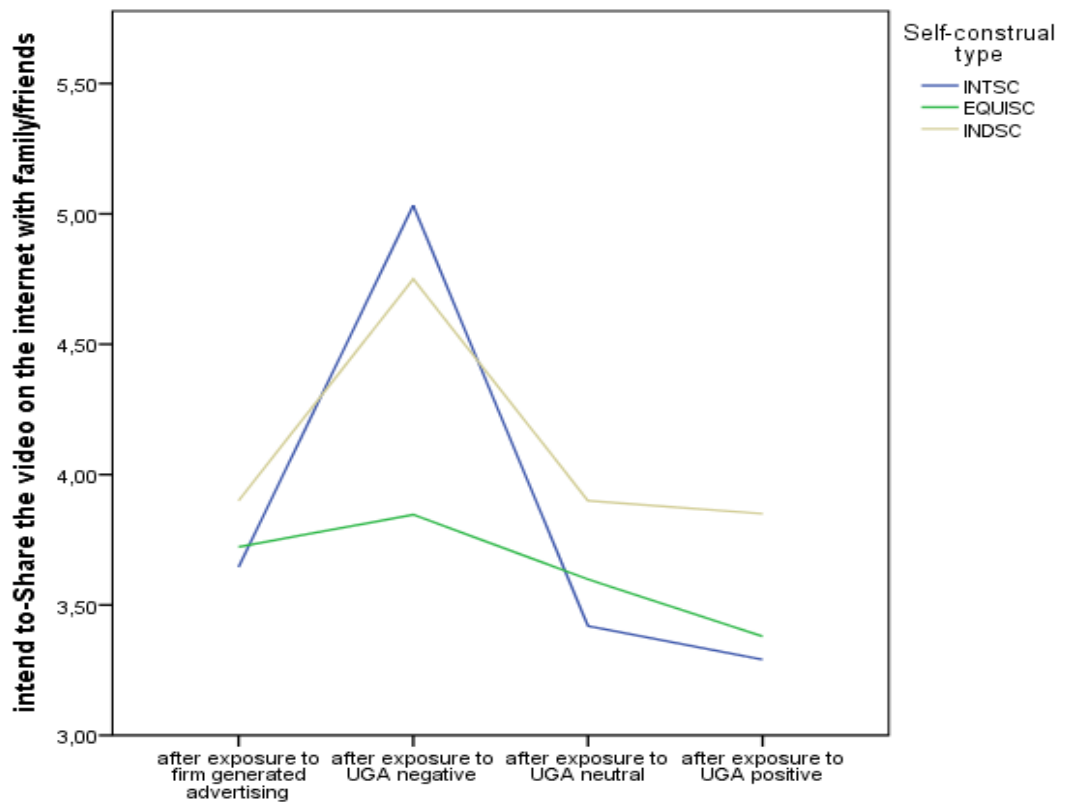
Figure 6-25 Mean differences between-subjects mean for *intend to share the video* grouped by self-construal type



Second, the main effect for the type of self-construal was not significant $F(2, 185) = 2.16; p = .529; \eta^2 = .007$, meaning that this variable alone does not affect the results. Finally, there was a significant interaction between factors (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 366) = 4.06; p < .001; \eta^2 = .062$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) demonstrated that for this interaction, the group EQUISC presents the lowest scores after exposure to UGA; interestingly, participants

with INTSC are more inclined to ‘share the video with family and friends’ after exposure to negative UGA, as illustrated in figure 6-26.

Figure 6-26 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of *intend to share the video group* by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for *intend to share the video* variable are summarised in table 6.27.

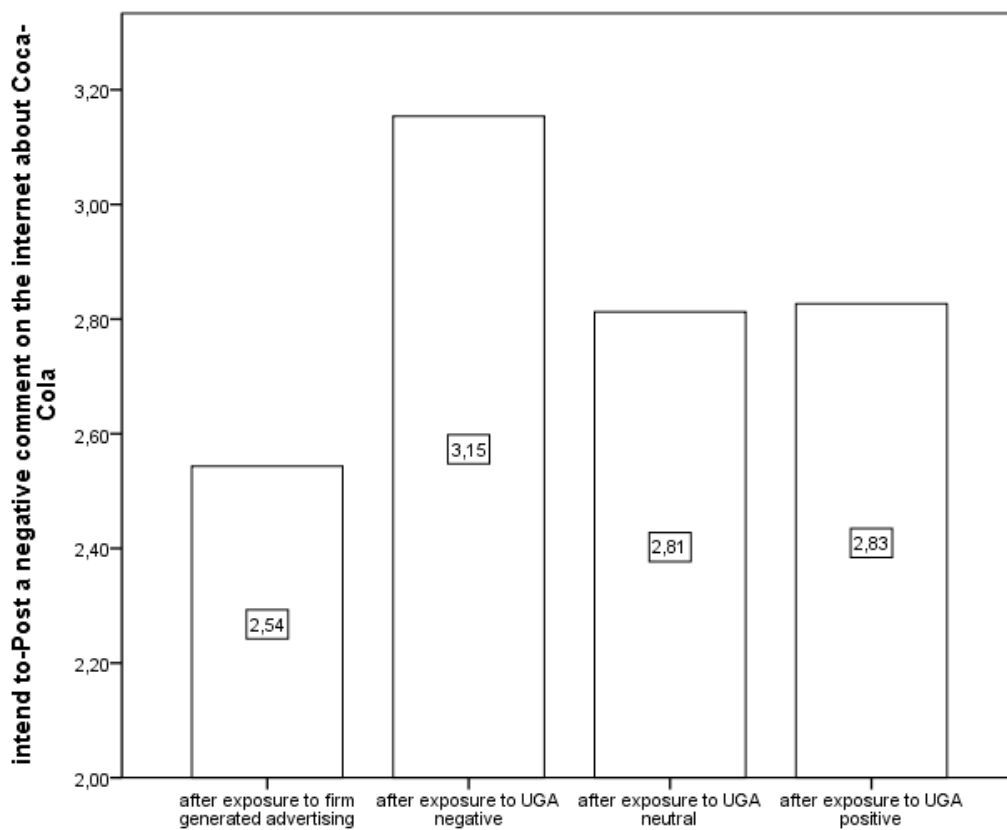
Table 6-27 Descriptive statistics for *intend to share the video* on the Internet with family/friends

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	3.65	2.09
	EQUISC	137	3.72	2.12
	INDSC	20	3.90	1.59
	Total	188	3.73	2.06
UGA negative	INTSC	31	5.03	2.32
	EQUISC	137	3.85	2.10
	INDSC	20	4.75	2.15
	Total	188	4.14	2.18
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	3.42	1.77
	EQUISC	137	3.60	2.05
	INDSC	20	3.90	1.45
	Total	188	3.60	1.95
UGA positive	INTSC	31	3.29	1.95
	EQUISC	137	3.38	2.07
	INDSC	20	3.85	1.63
	Total	188	3.41	2.01

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

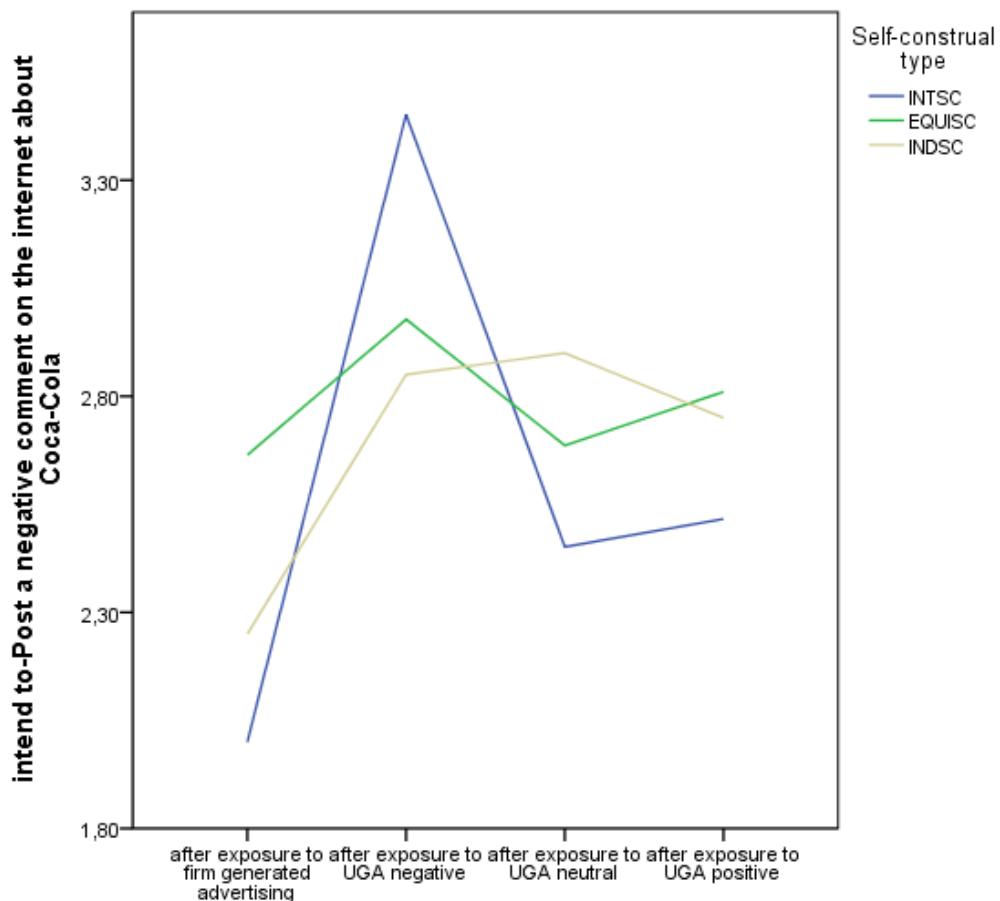
Regarding intentions to make comments about the brand itself on the Internet, for the variable *intend to post a negative comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola*, the main effect for type of exposure was significant $F(2.81, 520.63) = 14.23; p < .001; \eta^2 = .071$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) suggests that exposure to negative UGA triggers this intention in participants significantly more than other exposures, as illustrated in figure 6-27, and exposure to firm-generated advertising is least responsible for triggering this behavioural intention.

Figure 6-27 Different between-subjects means for *intend to post a negative comment about Coca-Cola* grouped by self-construal type



Second, the main effect for self-construal type was once more not significant $F(2, 185) = .19; p = .826; \eta^2 = .002$, as previously observed in other intentions. Finally, the interaction effect for (NTSC * Exposure) was significant $F(6, 368) = 3.93; p = .001; \eta^2 = .060$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) demonstrated that only the INTSC group reported a highly statistically significant difference after exposure to negative UGA, whereas participants demonstrated very low scores after exposure to firm-generated advertising measurement (see figure 6-28).

Figure 6-28 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of *intend to post a negative comment about Coca-Cola* by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for *intend to post a negative comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola variable* are summarised in table 6.28.

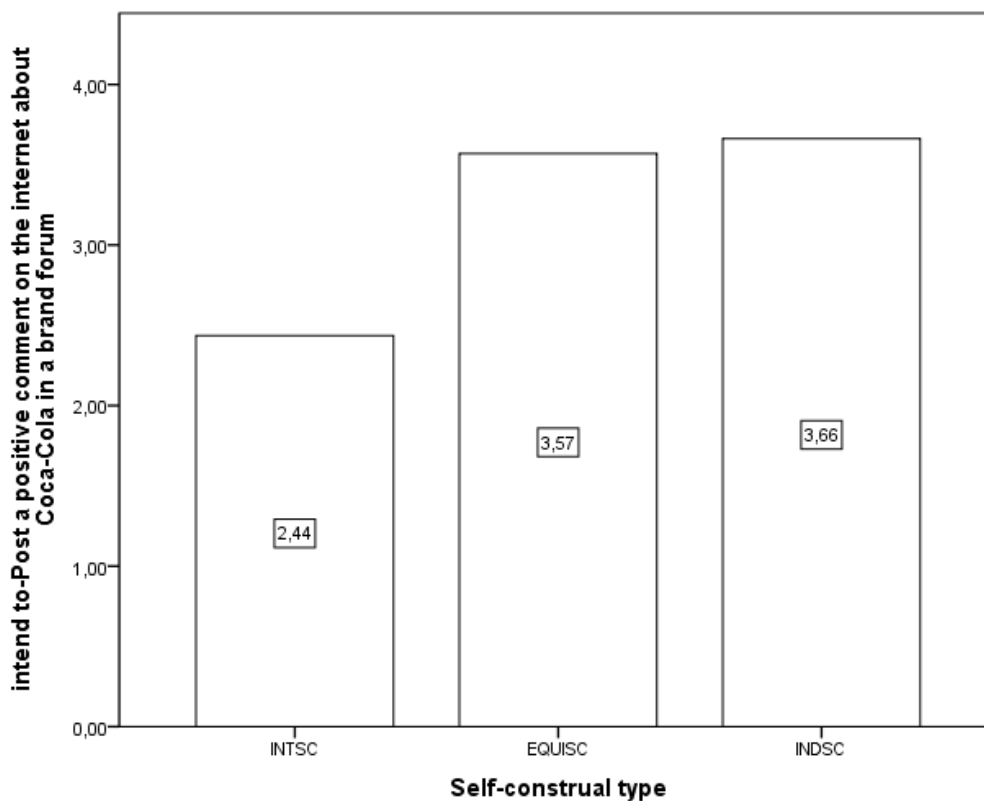
Table 6-28 Descriptive statistics for *intend to post a negative comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	2.00	1.00
	EQUISC	137	2.66	1.92
	INDSC	20	2.25	1.16
	Total	188	2.51	1.74
UGA negative	INTSC	31	3.45	1.63
	EQUISC	137	2.98	1.87
	INDSC	20	2.85	1.09
	Total	188	3.04	1.77
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.45	1.18
	EQUISC	137	2.69	1.73
	INDSC	20	2.90	1.07
	Total	188	2.67	1.59
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.52	1.12
	EQUISC	137	2.81	1.83
	INDSC	20	2.75	1.29
	Total	188	2.76	1.68

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

Conversely, for the variable *intend to post a positive comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola*, the main effect for type of exposure was not significant $F(2.62, 484.74) = .32; p = .786; \eta^2 = .002$. Second, interestingly, there was a significant main effect for self-construal type $F(2, 185) = 5.26; p = .006; \eta^2 = .054$; the post hoc test (Bonferroni) suggests that respondents from the INTSC group have significantly lower results than those in the other two groups, which do not differ significantly from each other, as depicted in figure 6-29.

Figure 6-29 Different between-subjects means for *intend to post a positive comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola* in a brand forum grouped by self-construal type



Finally, there was no interaction for (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 1.57; p = .155; \eta^2 = .025$. Descriptive statistics are summarised in table 6.29.

Table 6-29 Descriptive statistics for *intend to post a positive comment on the Internet about Coca-Cola*

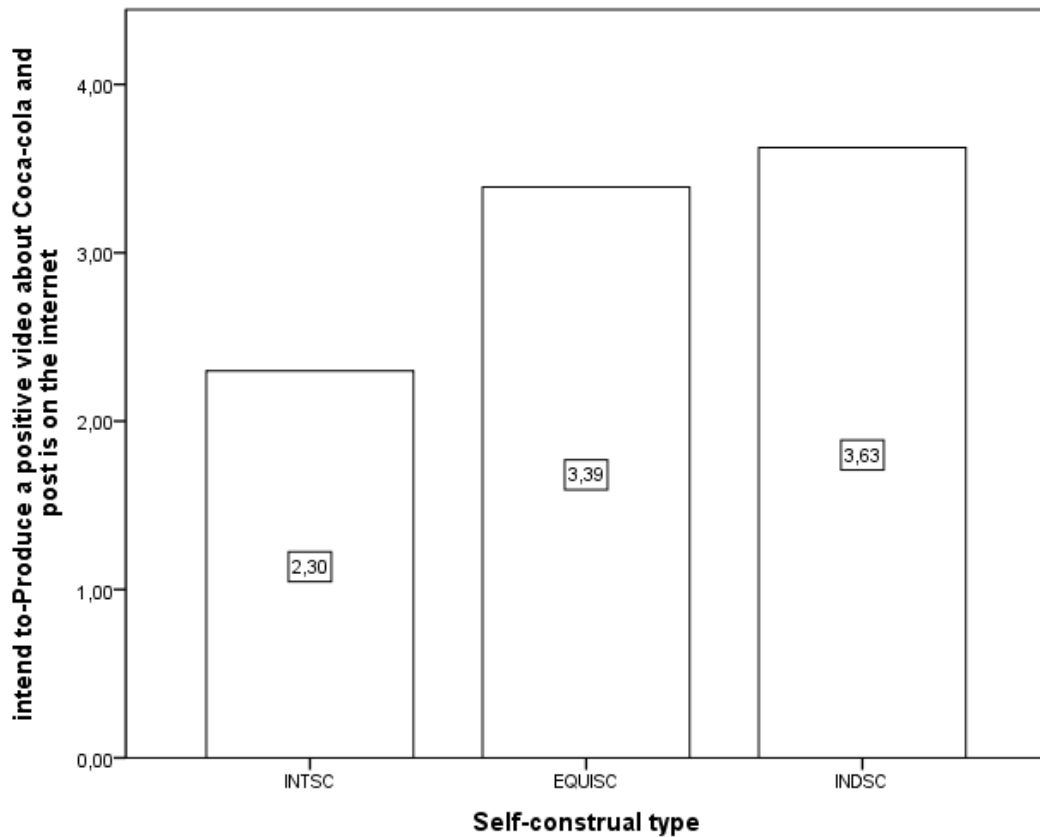
<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	2.26	1.237
	EQUISC	137	3.77	2.167
	INDSC	20	3.50	1.638
	Total	188	3.49	2.059
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.42	1.148
	EQUISC	137	3.50	2.051
	INDSC	20	3.70	1.559
	Total	188	3.35	1.922
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.55	1.287
	EQUISC	137	3.50	2.051
	INDSC	20	3.65	1.424
	Total	188	3.36	1.914
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.52	1.235
	EQUISC	137	3.50	2.033
	INDSC	20	3.80	1.508
	Total	188	3.37	1.907

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

6.4.8.5. Intention to engage in user-generated activities

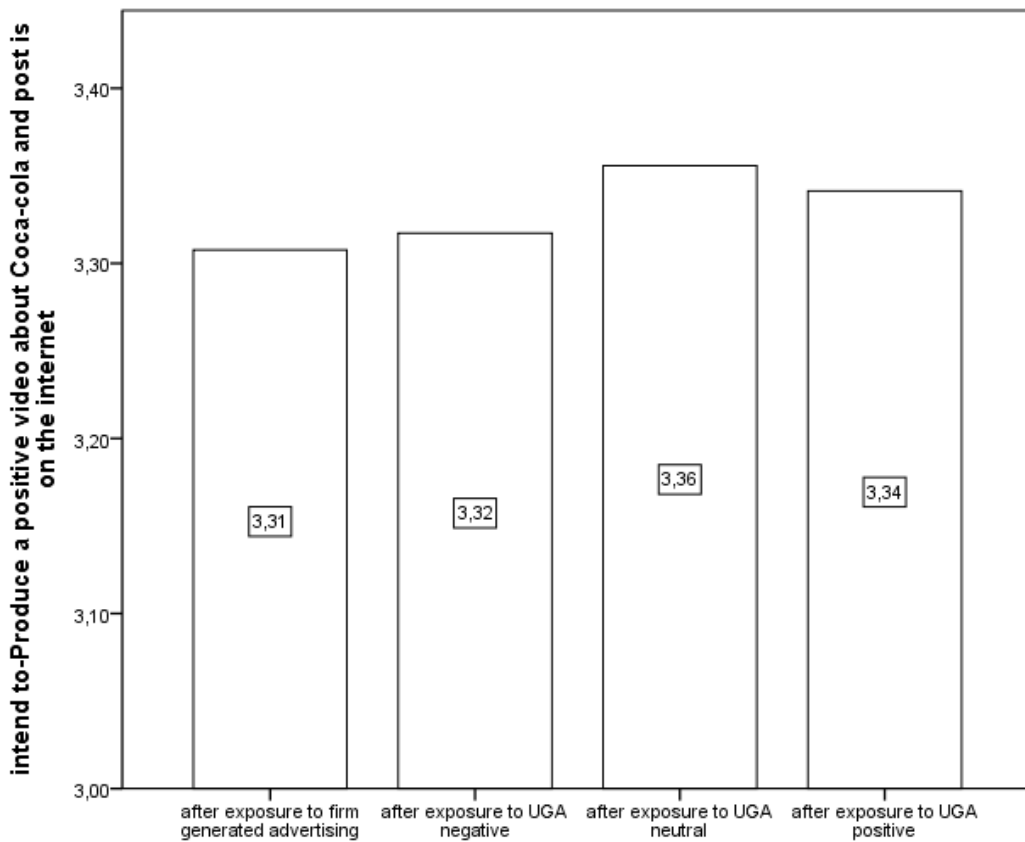
Finally, regarding the participants' intention to engage in UGA creation: first, there was a significant main effect for self-construal type $F(2, 185) = 5.10; p = .007; \eta^2 = .052$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) shows that respondents from the INTSC group have significantly lower results than those in the other two groups, which do not differ significantly from each other, meaning that these groups of participants are less inclined to engage in UGA creation than their counterparts, as illustrated in figure 6-30.

Figure 6-30 Different between-subjects means for *intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola* grouped by self-construal type



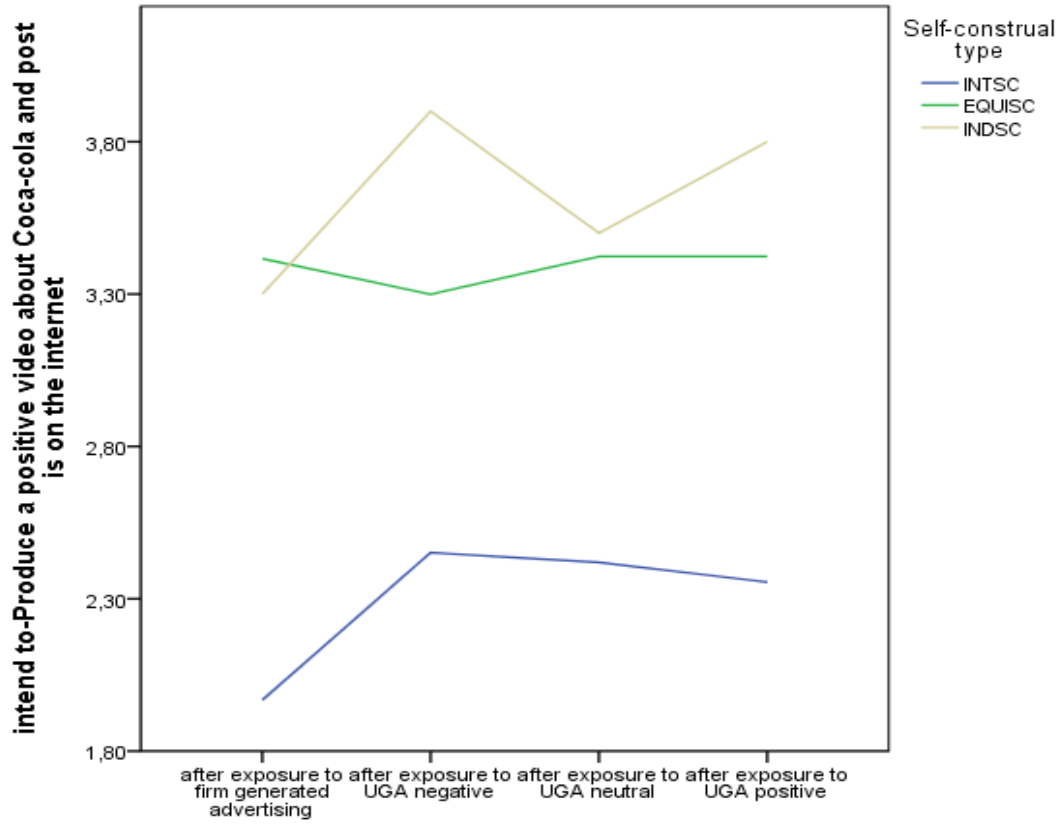
Second, interestingly, there was a significant main effect for type of $F(2.79, 516.23) = 4.51$; $p = .005$; $\eta^2 = .024$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) suggests, however, that this difference is only observable between firm-generated advertising and neutral UGA, as depicted in figure 6-31.

Figure 6-31 Different between-subjects means for *intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola* after exposure



Finally, the (NTSC * Exposure) multivariate interaction effect was significant $F(6, 368) = 2.73$; $p = .013$; $\eta^2 = .043$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) demonstrated that this difference is practically only from the fact that the INTSC subgroup had lower scores than the other groups, as illustrated in figure 6-32.

Figure 6-32 Interaction plot for the means of the four measures of *intend to produce a positive video* by self-construal type



Descriptive statistics for *intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet* variable are summarised in table 6.30.

Table 6-30 Descriptive statistics for *intend to produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet*

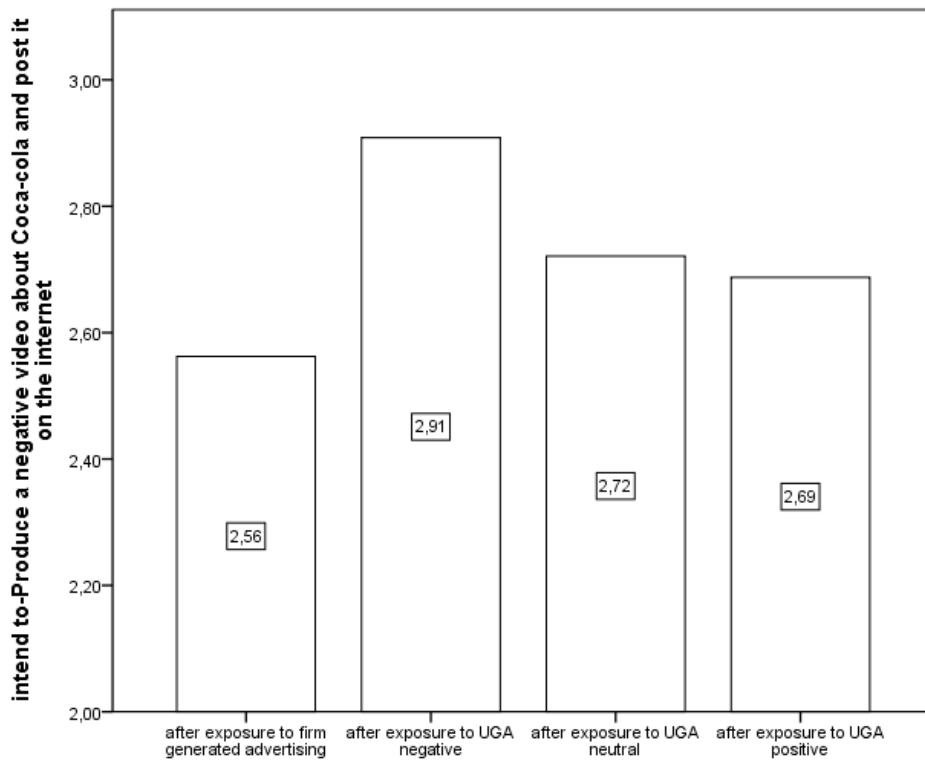
<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	1.97	0.98
	EQUISC	137	3.42	2.15
	INDSC	20	3.30	1.53
	Total	188	3.16	2.01
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.45	1.12
	EQUISC	137	3.30	1.98
	INDSC	20	3.90	1.68
	Total	188	3.22	1.87
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.42	1.15
	EQUISC	137	3.42	2.13
	INDSC	20	3.50	1.40
	Total	188	3.27	1.97
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.35	1.08
	EQUISC	137	3.42	2.09
	INDSC	20	3.80	1.51
	Total	188	3.29	1.95

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

There is no particular surprise with the results for the final behavioural intention, *intend to produce a **negative video** about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet*; only the main effect of exposure was significant $F(2.68, 508.94) = 4.30$; $p = .007$; $\eta^2 = .023$. The post hoc test (Bonferroni) suggested that as previously observed, negative UGA is the exposure that

triggers more participants to react by producing videos as well as with other behavioural intentions, as illustrated in figure 6-33. This means that the respondents least wanted to produce negative videos after exposure to firm-generated advertising, slightly more for neutral and positive UGA (between which there are no statistically significant differences), and most wanted to do it when they were in a group of negative UGA.

Figure 6-33 Differences for *intend to produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet*



The same pattern occurred on the previous variables as observed, as there was no significant main effect for type of self-construal $F(2, 185) = .69; p = .502; \eta^2 = .007$; and finally, there was no significant interaction for (NTSC * Exposure) $F(6, 368) = 1.64; p = .134; \eta^2 = .026$. Descriptive statistics are summarised in table 6.31.

Table 6-31 Descriptive statistics (subgroups and total score) for *intend to produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the Internet*

<i>Measurement</i>	<i>NTSC type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M*</i>	<i>SD</i>
Firm-generated advertising	INTSC	31	2.00	1.03
	EQUISC	137	2.61	1.92
	INDSC	20	2.30	1.13
	Total	188	2.48	1.74
UGA negative	INTSC	31	2.48	1.12
	EQUISC	137	2.88	1.78
	INDSC	20	2.60	0.82
	Total	188	2.78	1.62
UGA neutral	INTSC	31	2.45	1.18
	EQUISC	137	2.59	1.73
	INDSC	20	2.80	0.89
	Total	188	2.59	1.58
UGA positive	INTSC	31	2.39	1.15
	EQUISC	137	2.64	1.74
	INDSC	20	2.60	0.96
	Total	188	2.59	1.58

* Minimum: 1, Maximum: 7, Range: 6

6.5. Conclusion

This chapter described the different stages and techniques taken to analyse the data collected for this study. This process began with preparing the data, reporting the data and reporting descriptive statistics for a general understanding of the sample characteristics. Then we described the diverse procedures of inferential statistics, mainly mixed between-group ANOVAs to analyse the effects of the two main independent variables, self-construal group and type of exposure on attitudes towards the ad, and attitudes towards the brand and behavioural intentions. In brief, the results suggest that the exposure to UGA and more specifically to negative UGA have an effect on participants' ad and brand attitudes; however, interestingly, the effects of self-construal type vary, especially on behavioural intentions. In the next chapter, these results will be comprehensively discussed, and the research hypotheses will be evaluated.

7. DISCUSSION

7.1. Introduction

This chapter examines the research findings and compares them to the results of previous studies; it begins by discussing the user-generated advertising (UGA) communication model followed by an examination of findings related to the self-construal (SC) construct. Then the chapter embarks on a discussion of the effects of UGA and SC on consumer attitudes towards the brand, followed by the effects on attitudes towards the ad, considered an important mediator of advertising effectiveness.

In the introduction chapter, the issue of scarcity of empirical studies assessing the effects of self-construal and user-generated advertising on consumer brand attitudes was addressed. This main issue guided this research, which sought to expand academic and managerial knowledge about user-generated advertising and self-construal to fill the existing gap in this field and the main research objectives were delineated:

- To determine the effects of exposure to firm-generated advertising and different types of user-generated advertising on consumers' attitudes towards the brand, attitudes towards the ad and behavioural intentions.
- To determine the effects of different types of consumer self-construal on the impact of UGA on attitudes towards the brand, attitudes towards the Ad and behavioural intentions.
- To evaluate whether attitudes towards user-generated advertising have an effect on attitudes towards the brand.

The chapter will then address behavioural intentions resulting from these exposures before presenting the reader with the study's theoretical contributions; finally, the chapter will underline the practical and managerial implications, specifically in the area of marketing, and proceed to address the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

7.2. The user-generated advertising (UGA) communication effects model

To understand the phenomenon of UGA and its effects, this thesis proposed a model of UGA communications effects framework¹⁷ based on traditional advertising communications models (Rossiter and Percy 1985; Vakratsas and Ambler 1999). These models suggest that advertising communications consist of the following key elements: a firm- or user-generated advertising stimulus is processed by the target audience; this communication aims to affect consumers' attitudes and is considered to be an intermediate reaction previous to the receiver's actions or overt behavioural responses (Rossiter and Percy 1985; Vakratsas and Ambler 1999).

Grounded on an extensive review of advertising communication literature, this study considered the theoretical propositions of the **attribution theory** (Heider 1958) in order to understand the effectiveness of UGA, discussed in section 3.7.1. The findings suggest that the same elements existing in traditional advertising exist in UGA; therefore, people generate explanations of the information received on the basis of the content or stimulus (UGA), the source or communicator (peers) and/or the context or circumstances in which the communication occurs (unofficially related to the brand).

¹⁷ Ample details provided in chapter 4

The findings suggest that in the context of social media, peers' opinions about brands in the form of UGA have more impact than firm-generated brand communications; this notion is closely related to people's susceptibility to **interpersonal influence** and the **credibility of the source** of the message (Sparkman Jr and Locander 1980).

Other factors affect the effectiveness of the message; in this regard, this thesis proposed the introduction of the construct of **self-construal** or the receiver's psycho-social characteristics, which are believed to affect the manner in which people process a message (Singelis 1994). From an information processing perspective, this model also considers that the receiver's information processing follows the peripheral route of the **Elaboration Likelihood Model** (ELM) of information processing; this suggests that under low-attention messages, people tend to process information via a *peripheral* route, and the credibility and expertise of the source have an impact on attitude change (Petty and Cacioppo 1986). Similarly, the **Heuristic Systematic Model** (HSM) proposes a model of social influence, as suggested by Chaiken, Liberman et al. (1989); for instance, in *heuristic* processing information, receivers recall information from memory, and expertise of the source can be trusted.

Following the advertising communication model, advertising generates **attitudinal** effects in relation to the message itself and proposes that the receiver's evaluations of the message have an impact in the intended attitudinal effects of the message in relation to the brand (Gardner 1985). These attitudes will in turn produce an intention to behave in a particular manner in relation to the advertised brand, and these intentions guide people's actions according to the **theory of planned behaviour** (TPB).

7.3. Self-construal typology

This study investigated the effects of self-construal (SC), or the ‘psycho-social characteristics, thoughts, feelings and actions of the individual in relation to others’ (Singelis 1994), on people’s responses to advertising communications (Polyorat and Alden 2005; Lin, Moore et al. 2011). Two main types of SC have been identified in the literature: independent (INDSC) is characterised by the individual’s separateness and individuation from others, whereas interdependent (INTSC) is characterised by the person’s connectedness to others (Cross, Hardin et al. 2011).

However, the findings of the participant’s SC measures indicate that the majority of individuals (66%) scored equally on both types of SC: INTSC and INDSC. This co-existence of the ‘two selves’ (INDSC and INTSC) has been theoretically recognised (Trafimow, Triandis et al. 1991; Singelis 1994; Cross, Hardin et al. 2011). However, existing research on the effects of SC exclude participants who score equally in both scales, concentrating only on INTSC or INDSC (Lee, Aaker et al. 2000; Escalas and Bettman 2005). As the results of this study demonstrated the substantial number of participants with clearly defined equal groups (EQUISC), it was considered essential to include this typology in the study, and it was seen that a limited classification of INTSC and INDSC is far from adequate to categorise individuals.

Based on the results, it can be argued that individuals with both well-developed SC characteristics may exhibit traits of both individualism and collectivism in relation to others. This study proposed that these individuals exhibit characteristics of both traits (i.e. INDSC and INTSC) of cooperativeness, support and social behaviour, as well as independence and confidence in their opinions. Interestingly, the results demonstrate that even when EQUISC individuals behave in an ‘intermediate’ manner in relation to INDSC and INTSC, one

particularity was that these individuals had a tendency to behave more closely to INDSC in many cases. This suggests that although characteristics of connectedness to the group were present, the tendency of the sample was to move more towards individualistic behaviour.

7.4. Self-construal impact on advertising effectiveness

With regards to the impact of SC on advertising effectiveness, the results indicate that individuals with a dominant interdependent self-construal (INTSC) are more affected by exposure to the three types of UGA (i.e. negative, positive and neutral), following the characteristics of this group to be inclined towards harmonious community relationships and adhere to group norms (Singelis 1994). This suggests that INTSC individuals are more sensitive to interpersonal persuasion. Conversely, individuals with independent self-construal (INDSC) were less affected by UGA, implying that individuals in this group, who are disengaged from the rest of the community, have lower group sensitivity, present individualistic values (Singelis 1994) and are less sensitive to interpersonal persuasion.

These results are also consistent with studies on the effects of SC on brand evaluations resulting from brand communications (Polyorat and Alden 2005; Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007; Lin, Moore et al. 2011), suggesting that individuals with dominant INTSC are more likely to be affected by advertising communications than individuals with dominant INDSC.

In relation to individuals with an equidistant self-construal (EQUISC), not surprisingly, this group behaved in an intermediate manner between INDSC and INTSC; however, what is surprising is that they had a tendency to behave more closely related to INDSC than to INTSC, as previously mentioned. It is difficult to explain this result, as theoretically, there is no definition of the characteristics of this group, and this study assumed that this important group would behave with mixed characteristics of individualism and

collectivism. Nevertheless, it is possible that the group behaves in different manners depending on the situation to which they are exposed, and this is therefore an interesting topic for future investigation.

Overall, it is arguable that the study findings support the theoretical grounds that individuals' self-construal characteristics affect the effectiveness of advertising communications in terms of attitude formation and modification; for instance, advertising generates more favourable ad and brand attitudes in individuals with dominant INTSC than on individuals with INDSC (Lin, Moore et al. 2011), suggesting that individuals with INTSC are more susceptible to brand information received through advertising (Swaminathan, Page et al. 2007).

Similarly, SC also affects purchasing behaviour; individuals with dominant INTSC value the opinions of their reference groups (friends, family, peers) and use these opinions as a source of information for brand evaluation; therefore, they are more inclined to prefer brands that are endorsed by the group. For individuals with dominant INDSC, on the other hand, group opinions and evaluations have less importance (Escalas and Bettman 2005). Additionally, INTSC buying behaviour is prescribed by the consensus and norms of the group, whereas INDSC follow not the collective trends but their own motives (Yinlong Zhang and L. J. Shrum 2009).

7.5. Comparison of the effectiveness of firm-generated vs user-generated advertising

The results also empirically demonstrated that exposure to UGA has more impact on individuals' attitudes and behaviours than exposure to firm-generated advertising (FGA), suggesting that peer-to-peer brand communications change consumers' brand evaluations

considerably more than firm-generated communications. The results reveal that participants' attitudes and behaviours declined after watching consumer-generated brand videos. This led us to believe that UGA not only changed people's brand attitudes and their behavioural intentions towards the brand, including their own consumption and brand recommendations to others, but also increased individuals' intention and desire to comment about the brand and participate in user-generated content creation.

The findings support the idea that user-generated brand communications are considered to be more influential than firm-generated communications, as people trust more in peer recommendations than information generated by companies (Cheong and Morrison 2008). This suggests that *social earned media* (word-of-mouth, electronic word-of-mouth, blogs, online reviews, user-generated advertising)¹⁸ and activities related to a company or brand which are not generated by the company or its agents but by customers and journalists have a greater impact on consumers' attitudes and behaviour compared to *paid media* (traditional advertising, email advertisements, social network advertising) generated by the company and/or its agents (Doohwang, Hyuk Soo et al. 2011; Stephen and Galak 2012).

In tune with the attribution theory (Heider 1958), the results of this study suggest that interpersonal influence (Calder and Burnkrant 1977; Laczniak, DeCarlo et al. 2001) and source credibility (Settle and Golden 1974) affect attitudinal changes to a greater degree on UGA than firm-generated advertising. These results are consistent with those of Steyn, Ewing et al. (2011) and Hye-Jin, Hove et al. (2011), who found that peer-generated advertisements on YouTube have more impact on audiences than firm-generated or paid messages; one

¹⁸ Discussed in detail in section 3.6.2.

explanation for these results is related to the context of social media, where people participate by sharing or creating messages and individuals therefore adhere to norms of interpersonal relations that may affect attitudes and behaviours within the online social context. The effectiveness of UGA messages is based on trust and is believed to originate from closer social ties via friends', peers' and expert consumers' opinions. They are also likely to be passed on to others within viewers' networks (East, Hammond et al. 2008; eMarketer 2010).

7.6. The effects of different types of user-generated advertising

The results also demonstrate that negative information is capable of significantly affecting consumers' attitudes and behaviours. A difference from firm-generated advertising, UGA may not always be beneficial to the brand. The results suggest that when comparing different types of UGA, negatively valenced messages have a greater effect on audience attitudes and behaviours than positive or neutral messages; in other words, participants' attitudes and behaviours are significantly more affected by negative messages. This implies that negative information weights more in people's brand evaluations than other types of UGA and FGA.

These results can be explained by people's sensitivity to negative information or *negativity bias*, which proposes that negative information weights more than positive and neutral. This suggests that negative stimuli have greater effects on people than positive ones (Cacioppo, Gardner et al. 1997).

These findings further support the idea that negative brand messages have a greater impression on audiences than positive ones, influencing attitudes and behaviours considerably more. Individuals form unfavourable beliefs more quickly than favourable ones, and furthermore, these negative beliefs are more resistant to being disproved than positive ones (Ito, Larsen et al. 1998; Weinberger and Lepkowska-White 2000; Baumeister, Bratslavsky et

al. 2001). Additionally, the results corroborate Laczniak, DeCarlo et al.'s (2001) findings suggesting that when receivers attribute the negativity of consumer-generated brand communications (product reviews, complaints, brand mockery) to product quality, bad customer service and value for money, their brand attitudes decrease.

7.7. Attitudes towards the ad

Another important element of the communication model is the attitude towards the message itself generated by exposure to the advertising stimulus. These attitudes towards the ad (A_{Ad}) are the recipient's overall evaluations of the message and are considered to have an impact on the effectiveness of the advertisement on attitudes and behaviours.

The results demonstrated that firm-generated advertising generates overall more positive attitudes towards the message than UGA (i.e. negative, positive and neutral). This study's brand stimulus is a convenience product in the category of soft drinks and a mature, globally recognised brand; therefore, consumers are already familiar with the brand. For this type of brand/product, the goal of firm-generated advertising strategies is to obtain emotional responses to achieve the communication objectives of brand awareness and low-involvement persuasion (Rossiter, Percy et al. 1991; Kover and Abruzzo 1993).

These results may be explained by the fact that firm-generated advertising is created with the aim of engaging with target audiences and making them like the ad, therefore generating more positive attitudes. This is in contrast to UGA, which in essence is created primarily to satisfy the creator's own enjoyment and self-promotion in social media networks and not necessarily with the aim to be liked by audiences. These results are consistent with Rossiter, Percy et al.'s (1991) and Kover and Abruzzo's (1993) arguments suggesting that for mass media advertising, it is essential that audiences like ads aiming to produce positive

emotional engagement responses. Considering that the firm-generated advertising stimulus used in this study is a television advertisement uploaded on the firm's YouTube channel, the message follows an emotional engagement traditional advertising model, as suggested by previous studies (Heath, Brandt et al. 2006; 2009).

Furthermore, the results may be a consequence of the audience's perceptions of the quality of the videos, which compared to FGA are amateur produced and generated following the creators' own motivations to express themselves within the content communities and not to gratify viewers' needs, as suggested by Daugherty, Eastin et al. (2008). Thus the quality may be considerably different from that of a professional and audience-oriented FGA created following expert sourcing, planning and production. In this regard, the content of UGA and the appeals used by creators may not be adequate to generate the same emotional effects as FGA.

7.8. The effects of attitudes towards the ad on attitudes towards the brand

This study also demonstrated that the attitudes towards the ad generated after exposure to the different types of UGA (i.e. negative, neutral and positive) influenced the audience's attitudes towards the advertised brand. Additionally, the results indicate that as UGAs generate lower attitudes towards the message than firm-generated advertising; the attitudes towards the brand after UGA exposure are also lower than for official brand messages.

This influence is believed to be related based on classical conditioning, where A_{Ad} directly affects A_b . In other words, the more positively consumers react to an ad, the more positive their attitudes will be towards the brand (Shimp 1981; Gresham and Shimp 1985). Furthermore, this relationship has been found to be more significant under low-involvement

conditions and for emotionally based advertising (Mehta 2000), which is the case for the product used as the stimulus in this study (i.e. Coca-Cola), as well as the type of message based on emotional appeals.

These findings follow the line of knowledge on this topic and support studies based on traditional advertising (Gardner 1985; Gresham and Shimp 1985); however, this study expands existing knowledge on the $A_{AD}-A_b$ relationship by empirically testing this relationship for consumer-generated brand communications. Furthermore, the results therefore support the affect transfer hypothesis¹⁹, which posits that affective states generated towards the message are transferred to the advertised brand.

7.9. Attitudes towards the brand

With regards to attitudes towards the brand, the results suggest that firm-generated advertising did not have any effects on changes in participants' existing attitudes towards the brand²⁰; conversely, the findings indicate that exposure to UGA in its three types (positive, negative and neutral) has an effect on attitudes towards the brand, significantly reducing existing brand attitudes, and as previously discussed, negative messages significantly reduce brand attitudes in audiences.

A possible explanation of these findings is that exposure to television advertisements that are also broadcasted online do not guarantee a change in attitudes towards the brand; conversely, it is more effective in supporting brand awareness and recognition, especially for mature, low-involvement brands (e.g. soft drinks). Therefore, these advertisements are created by firms to maintain brand identity and image (Chang and Thorson 2004; Laroche, Kiani et al. 2013).

¹⁹ See section 2.6.4.

²⁰ See Table 6.6 and figure 6-2 for details

Consequently, this study's findings with regard to the effects of FGA on attitudes towards the brand sustain the argument that television firm-generated advertising that is also diffused online serves only to attract attention to the brand and not to change attitudes (Putrevu and Lord 2003; Enoch and Johnson 2010; Laroche, Kiani et al. 2013).

Once more, these results are concordant with previous studies on the acceptance of consumer-generated brand communications diffused on the Internet (Cheong and Morrison 2008; Cheung, Luo et al. 2009); specifically on the effects of these peer-to-peer brand communications on attitudes towards the brand (Herr, Kardes et al. 1991; Delgadillo and Escalas 2004; Senecal and Nantel 2004; Christodoulides and Jevons 2011; Stephen and Galak 2012), as consumers infer attributions of credibility and personal influence from the creator of the UGA which are not inferred from firm-generated messages.

7.10. Behavioural Intentions

The final element of the proposed UGA model relates to the behavioural intentions (BI) or the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour, considered a predictor of overt behaviour. Following the objectives of this research, BI have been classified into four main dimensions²¹: Purchase intentions, brand switching, word-of-mouth and user-generated content creation. The first two dimensions are related to the participants' own consumption behaviours, whereas the last two are related to intentions to comment about the brand and product to others.

The nature of the valence of the videos and the participants' self-construal characteristics has been previously discussed; the following sections observe the same characteristics and implications.

²¹ For details see section 2.8.2.2.1

7.10.1. Purchase intention

Purchase intentions (PI) are widely used by academics and practitioners to forecast consumers' adoption of new products or repeat purchases of existing ones. As expected, the results indicate that there was a significant difference in participants' intentions to buy and maintain their intake of Coca-Cola between FGA and UGA.

One possible explanation of higher PI after FGA is that advertisements are created following strategies to emotionally motivate consumers to purchase, as suggested by Percy and Rossiter (1992). In the case of this study, the FGA emphasizes the emotional connections of using the product. Conversely, after exposure to UGA in general, PI scores were significantly lower again. One possible explanation is that UGA's ultimate goal is not to increase sales but instead to satisfy creators' intrinsic enjoyment and self-promotion. With regards to the valence of UGA, once more the results suggest that negative UGA had greater effects on intentions to buy/maintain intake than other types of UGA, supporting Arndt's (1967) arguments that negatively valenced messages have a significant influence on brand evaluations, especially when communications are originated by other consumers.

With regards to self-construal characteristics, participants with dominant INTSC were more influenced by UGA, consistent with the results of studies from Christodoulides, Michaelidou et al. (2012), Wang, Yu et al.(2012) and Hautz, Füller et al. (2014). This suggests that exposure to UGA has a greater effect on PI than FGA and that consumer-generated negative information has a greater impact than neutral or positively valenced information; it also implies that individuals with dominant INTSC are more responsive to UGA than participants with EQUISC or INDSC.

7.10.2. Switching intentions

Switch intentions may result from brand communications aiming to change attitudes about brands or products. One unanticipated finding was that exposure to neither FGA nor UGA had any effects on participants' intentions to drink or buy low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola; furthermore, unexpectedly, the SC type had no effect on participants' intentions to switch to another product of the same brand either. Similarly, intention to switch to a non-carbonated drink was not affected by either type of UGA exposure or SC type.

Consequently, this study has been unable to demonstrate that UGA, specifically regarding videos of negative valence or self-construal, has any effect on participants' intentions to switch to another product/brand. This rather contradictory result may be due to a series of factors; for instance, the brand used as the stimulus, Coca-Cola, is not only one of the top global brands but is also one of the most liked brands in the UK amongst 16- to 34-year-olds, according to a survey by Woot Media (2013). This may imply participants' loyalty towards the brand.

7.10.3. Word-of-mouth intentions

Having discussed participants' own consumption BI, attention will now be directed to intentions related to *commenting about the video and the brand with others*, which are organised in four main subsections: intention to recommend others to purchase/drink the brand, intention to recommend others to switch to product/brand, intention to comment about the video/brand online, and intention to share the video.

Regarding *intentions to recommend maintaining intake of Coca-Cola*, as expected, intentions decreased significantly after exposure to negative UGA²² compared to FGA. With regard to the self-construal type, participants with dominant INTSC are more affected by UGA than those with INTSC and EQUISC.

The same pattern was also observed for *intentions to recommend switching product/brand*; intentions to recommend switching increased notably after negative UGA compared to FGA. With regards to types of SC, once more when interacting with type of UGA, as previously observed, participants with dominant INTSC were significantly more influenced by UGA, whereas EQUISC and INDSC participants were less affected.

Considering *intentions to comment online about the video or the brand*, once more the results demonstrate that negative UGA increases intentions to make comments about the video and the brand on the Internet, whereas the results were not significant for neutral UGA or positive UGA. However, in this case EQUISC individuals and those with dominant INDSC were more inclined to engage in electronic word-of-mouth. Interestingly, contrary to the current pattern, participants with dominant INTSC are more inclined to *share* negative UGA videos, followed closely by those with INDSC and to a lesser extent by those with EQUISC.

The results indicate a previously observed pattern that peer-to-peer negative brand communications indeed have an effect on BI and that individuals with dominant INTSC are more influenced by these communications than those with EQUISC and INTDSC; likewise, the results are compatible with Angelis, Bonezzi et al.'s (2012) and Yang, Hu et al.'s (2012) findings and that of Ryu and Han (2009) related to the valence effects of peer-to-peer communications.

²² See figures 6.12 and 6.13

Therefore, the results previously discussed suggest that effectively, exposure to UGA has a greater impact on this type of BI and furthermore that negative UGA has a greater impact than neutrally or positively valenced UGA; moreover, individuals with dominant INTSC are more responsive to UGA than participants with EQUISC or INDSC.

7.10.4. User-generated content creation intentions

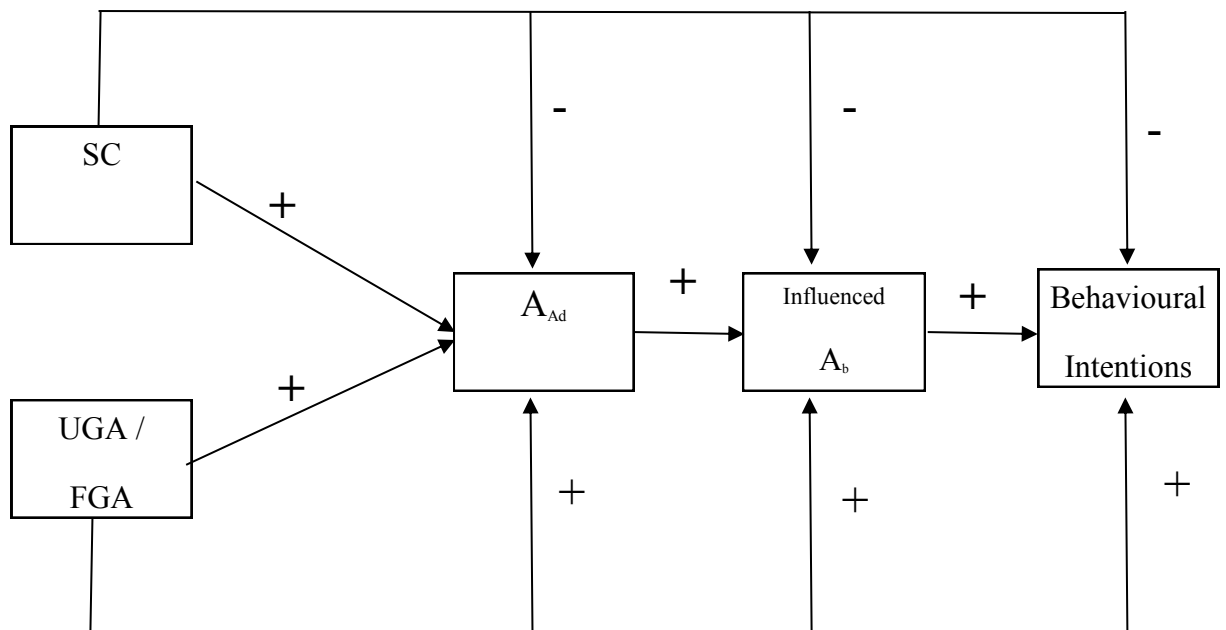
This final section discusses intentions to engage in the creation and transmission of UGA; once more, the results confirm that compared to FGA, exposure to UGA influences more participants intentions to generate videos. Interestingly, when comparing types of UGA, only exposure to negative UGA stimulates the production of negative videos about the brand. Finally, when comparing groups of SC, participants with dominant INDSC and EQUISC are more inclined to generate UGA and participants with dominant INTSC are significantly less inclined to do so. This finding in particular implies that more individualistic characteristics of self-enhancement and self-promotion found for INDSC and surprisingly for EQUISC follow Berthon and Pitt et al.'s (2008) argument that people engage in UGA creation seeking to satisfy intrinsic enjoyment and to express themselves. Conversely, individuals with dominant INTSC tend to restrain their attitudes and emotional reactions in order to comply with the norms of their groups compared with individuals with other characteristics.

Once more, the overall findings suggest first that exposure to UGA has more of an effect on intentions to engage in UGA creation than FGA; second, that negative videos are more effective to activate this BI than positive and neutral videos; and third, that individuals with dominant INTSC are less inclined to engage in this creation of UGA, following the characteristics of this group type.

7.11. The user-generated advertising (UGA) communication effects model

Drawing from the research results previously discussed, as shown in the proposed conceptual framework illustrated in figure 7.1, the findings suggest that UGA communications indeed follow a hierarchy-of-effects sequence. The interaction between the type of self-construal and the type of exposure produces effects (+) on consumer attitudes and behaviour; however, the factor of self-construal type alone had no effect (-) on attitudes and behaviour, whereas the type of exposure itself indeed has an effect (+) on attitudes and behaviours, as illustrated in figure 7.1.

Figure 7-1 User-generated advertising communication effects model



The results of the research hypotheses are summarised in table 7.1, and it can be seen that the study findings support the majority of the hypotheses, with the exception of *H1b*, *H4c* and *H4d* showing that there are no effects of type of UGA and type SC on attitudes towards the ad, as well as on behavioural intentions related to product/brand switching.

Table 7.1 Summary of the tested hypotheses

	Hypotheses	Supported
H1	<i>Exposure to user-generated advertising will have a greater impact on attitudes towards the ad than exposure to firm-generated advertising for individuals with dominant INTSC than for individuals with dominant INDSC and EQUISC.</i>	
H1a	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact in attitudes towards the ad than exposure to firm-generated advertising.</i>	yes
H1b	<i>When exposed to negative UGA rather than positive or neutral UGA, individuals with dominant INTSC will present more negative attitudes towards UGA than individuals with dominant INDSC and EQUISC.</i>	no
H2	<i>Attitudes towards the ad generated after the exposure to affectively valenced user-generated advertising (negative, positive and neutral) will have a significant influence on participants' attitudes towards the brand.</i>	yes
H3	<i>Exposure to user-generated advertising has a greater impact on attitudes towards the brand than exposure to firm-generated advertising on individuals with dominant INTSC than on individuals with dominant INDSC and EQUISC.</i>	
H3a	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact in attitudes towards the brand than exposure to firm-generated advertising.</i>	yes
H3b	<i>When exposed to negative UGA rather than positive or neutral UGA, individuals with dominant INTSC will present more negative attitudes towards the brand than individuals with dominant INDSC and EQUISC.</i>	yes

H4	<i>Exposure to user-generated advertising will have a greater impact on behavioural intentions than exposure to firm-generated advertising for individuals with dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	
H4a	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to purchase/drink the brand than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	yes
H4b	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to purchase/drink the brand for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	yes
H4c	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer product/brand switching intentions than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	no
H4d	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer product/brand switching intentions for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	no
H4e	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to purchase/drink the brand than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	yes
H4f	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to purchase/drink the brand for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	yes
H4g	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to switch product/brand than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	yes
H4h	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to recommend family and friends to switch product/brand for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	yes
H4i	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to share the ad with family and friends than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	yes
H4j	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to share the ad with family and friends for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	yes

H4k	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to comment on brand-related videos/engage in online branded conversations than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	yes
H4l	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to comment on brand-related videos/engage in online branded conversations for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	yes
H4m	<i>Exposure to negative and positive UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to produce a video about the brand than exposure to neutral UGA.</i>	yes
H4n	<i>Exposure to UGA will have a greater impact on consumer intentions to produce a video about the brand for individuals with a dominant INTSC and EQUISC than for individuals with dominant INDSC.</i>	yes

7.12. Theoretical and empirical contributions

This study provides an important contribution to the understanding of brand communications in the context of social media. More precisely, the study focuses on user-generated advertising (UGA) which is considered a challenging phenomenon for advertising and marketing academic and practitioners as it empowers users to utilise the web and social media to provide traditional firm originated marketing functions with a faster and wider coverage than traditional media. This, in turn, impacts the consumer-generated brand communications that users have with other consumers.

Brand content created by consumers and especially, user-generated advertising videos broadcast on YouTube is proven to have a greater influence in consumers' brand decisions than firm-generated advertisements as people trust peer brand recommendations, particularly in social media environments (Cheong and Morrison 2008; Hautz, Füller et al. 2014). Although the impact of consumer-generated brand-communications has been acknowledged in the literature, no published studies have attempted to understand the phenomenon of UGA from a theoretical standpoint.

By developing a user-generated-advertising communication model based in traditional advertising communication (Rossiter and Percy 1985; Vakratsas and Ambler 1999) this study provides researchers with a theoretically and empirically proven model of how UGA communications work. In this model, conventional elements of brand communications are incorporated and the relationship between these elements provide solid grounds for the future study of UGA and its effects in consumer attitudes and behaviours.

In this regard, this study contributes to the theoretical understanding of the effectiveness of UGA communications by framing the phenomenon from an attribution theory approach (Heider, 1958) where it has not previously been applied. By comparing the

attitudinal, behavioural effects of firm and user-generated advertising, the results of this study demonstrate that consumer-generated brand-communications have more impact on audiences than firm-generated brand communications. Although attribution theory has been widely used in behavioural and social psychology, especially in the areas of interpersonal influence and advertisement effectiveness (Calder and Burnkrant 1977; Sparkman Jr and Locander 1980) it has not previously been applied to the understanding of UGA effectiveness. Thus, the study's findings contribute to the understanding of the effectiveness of UGA by framing this phenomenon in key attribution theory elements where people generate explanations of the information received on the basis of the content or stimulus (UGA), the source or communicator (peers) and/or the context or circumstances where the communication occurs (unofficially related to the brand).

This study demonstrates that attitudes towards UGA have an effect on brand attitudes. Empirical research (Gardner 1985; Gresham and Shimp 1985) has indicated that the attitudes generated by traditional advertising affect attitudes towards the advertised brand. However; there is very limited research available to evaluate the effects of attitudes generated towards UGA in its relation to the brand portrayed on the video. This thesis' empirical results fills this gap by demonstrating that UGA generates lower attitudes towards the message than its counterpart FGA and that these attitudes do affect the consumers' evaluation of brands reflected in their attitudes.

Another important contribution emerges from the confirmation that negative information has more impact on consumers' attitudinal-behavioural responses than positive and neutral messages. Although some studies report that consumers are inclined to generate positive brand messages rather than neutral or negative ones, and that positive brand messages have more impact on consumers than negative ones (eMarketer 2010; 2014), this study provides solid grounds on the interpretation of negative consumer-generated brand-

communications and its impact on consumer attitudes and behaviours. The study further reveals findings of how consumer behaviour may in turn, impact brand equity.

From an empirical standpoint, this study clarifies the existing debate over the effectiveness of YouTube and more specifically, of UGA in attitudinal changes. The results provide empirical evidence that exposure to UGA in its different reactionary types (i.e. negative, positive and neutral) influence the audience's brand evaluations and behavioural intentions. These results challenge empirical work suggesting that YouTube is not an effective channel for product advertising or peer-to-peer brand communications in the form of UGA (Cheong and Morrison 2008), or that it is more effective as a channel for public service or social marketing (Hye-Jin, Hove et al. 2011; Lim and Golan 2011). The study's empirical findings support the theory that UGA is an important phenomenon that affect brand evaluations and purchase intentions.

In terms of research methods, this study expands existing knowledge by providing a scientific approach to the study of UGA. First, the study provided a thorough analysis of the video characteristics of the messages on YouTube by following an analogy with traditional advertising messages. This provides researchers with a complete understanding of the structure and elements of UGA bearing in mind that while consumer motivations differ from those of the firm, the content analysis demonstrated that most UGA follow the same strategies and elements used in traditional advertisements. Second, by assessing the valence of the UGA, this study provides researchers with sound grounds for the classification of videos according to their positive, negative or neutral content.

In terms of the sampling procedure, this study was conducted using a convenience sample, however researchers may want to conduct the research using a sample obtained from

social networks ; this may guarantee an accurate representativeness of the population of social media users.

Another important contribution of this study is that the results show that the previous conceptualisations and measures of self-construal that follow a ‘two dimensional’ approach (Singelis 1994) may be lacking in the comprehensiveness of this important construct. For instance, although the co-existence of the interdependent and independent self-construal has been acknowledged (Markus and Kitayama 1991; Singelis 1994), most empirical research focus only on individuals with clearly defined characteristics of each type.

This study includes individuals with an equidistant (EQUISC) type of self-construal, and also concludes that most participants behave in a hybrid co-existence of both types. The inclusion of individuals with EQUISC has not previously been empirically studied, which is all the more relevant as this study demonstrates that this dual characteristic is typical of a larger number of individuals.

With the aid of this study’s self-construal conceptualisation, researchers can also demonstrate that most individuals exhibit both characteristics of self-construal. Thus, the implication is that people embodying extreme independent or interdependent self-construal characteristics are fewer.

7.13. Managerial implications

By analysing the effects of UGA in consumer attitudes and behaviour, the results may guide marketing managers to envision possible effects of consumer-generated brand-communications in audiences’ attitudes and behaviours. The results confirmed the importance of UGA and the power of internet peer-to-peer brand communications and also

demonstrated that negative information has a greater impact in audiences than positive UGA, and that advertisement generated by the firm may have considerable implications for brands.

In this regard, marketing managers can follow the results of this study to sustain the undertaking of monitoring and response strategies to UGA. With the increase of social media use, brand information is generated and diffused without the control of firms and thus, negative information moves faster than in traditional media. One issue that emerges from the findings of this study is that although organisations cannot control what is being said about their brands on social media, adequate procedures may be adopted to manage these situations. Thus, by monitoring what is being said about their brands on social media, managers may develop efficient measurement to gauge the impact of these comments on brand equity. Tracking online brand comments may also give brands the advantage to respond to negative media and to recognise consumers with a stronger 'voice' and an inclination to create and broadcast brand videos in YouTube and other prominent content communities.

Marketing managers may further engage with UGA creators to define the reasons why the brand is exposed to negative UGA. For example, YouTube provides channels to communicate directly with the creator of the message via private messages or by post in their profiles and thus, managers may actively participate in brand discussion giving the creator acknowledgement of their creative efforts and brand managers information about the motives the creator had to engage in negative UGA. In this regards, managers may harness the creativity of users and generate mutual value.

Consumer co-creation is not a new phenomenon and many firms embrace this strategy. In its usage, consumers feel empowered and brands become part of their identity thus developing brand loyalty and ownership. From the firm's perspective, the firm may

exercise more control of their social media brand communications and how consumers interact with their brands online and a two-way communication with audiences. The consumer will also create a feeling of ownership of the brand with respect to the audiences.

From a receiver's point of view, negative UGA may represent a favourable circumstance and a challenge for the brand to recognise consumer opinions and an opportunity to correct brand attitudes and generate positive behaviours.

This research also provides important implications for brand and advertising managers with regards to the self-construal construct. The study's results corroborate the findings of Polyorat and Alden (2005) and Lin, Moore et al. (2011) regarding the effects of individual self-construal on advertising effectiveness, and incorporates these findings in the understanding of UGA. This latter step regarding the incorporation of findings within the understanding of UGA has not been previously researched. The results provide support to the hypothesis that individuals with dominant interdependent self-construal are more affected by UGA than individuals with dominant independent self-construal. This characteristic of self-construal type bears practical implications for marketing and advertising professionals by suggesting that individuals with interdependent self-construal are more inclined to follow peer recommendations. As it pertains to consumer-generated negative brand messages, these will have a considerable impact on consumer attitudes and behaviours, thus generating a negative impact in the equity of the brand. As previously mentioned, the results imply that brand professionals should carefully monitor and address what is being said about their brands in social media with strategies to counteract the effects of negative UGA.

Lastly, one issue that emerges from the findings is that most individuals present an equal dominance of both independent and interdependent and that these individuals behave in an intermediate manner that is not presenting extreme characteristics of the either type. Thus,

brand managers should consider that most people behave in an equidistant manner with traits of independent and interdependent self-construal which may be important when considering the appeals which will frame their advertisements.

7.14. Research limitations

This study presented some limitations that should be addressed in future research. The first limitation related to the selection of the videos used as stimuli; analysing videos from YouTube had various constraints, as this content community includes videos from different types, meaning that although some videos were brand related, they were not generated by users (i.e. firm-generated advertising). This presented challenges in establishing the sample of videos to be studied, as not all the brands from the sample of the pool of brands had UGA or videos in the categories of negative, positive and neutral. This means that the sample of videos used in this study may not be generalisable to the population of brands.

Another limitation was related to the participant sample; this study was based on a student sample and although this sample frame is popular in behavioural research, it is arguable that the result of this convenience sample is not generalisable across the Internet population. Collecting the data from students who were available and willing to participate in the research resulted in unequal self-construal groups; to address this issue, future research may measure the self-construal construct first and ensure equal groups before conducting the final data collection.

Third, another issue was from the methodological point of view. For this study, data were collected through an Internet-based questionnaire, as this allowed participants to watch the videos and answer the questions in their own time; however, it is known that this type of method produces a lower response rate, and only 55% of the participants who started the questionnaire actually completed it. Perhaps this issue could have been resolved by

conducting the data collection with all participants in the same room and exposing all participants to the experimental stimuli simultaneously; in other words, by conducting the experiment at one point in time.

In this regard, the timing of the experiment represented another constraint of the results of this study. As the experiment was designed to administer the survey via Qualtrics, all the videos used as stimuli were uploaded in one questionnaire. Presenting the videos in a sequential manner may cause the attitudes generated from one video to be carried to the following stimulus; this implies that the sequence of the videos may not have given participants the opportunity to adjust their attitudes from video to video. One possible solution to this conditioning is to expose participants to different types of video; for instance, one group could be exposed to firm-generated advertising and negative and neutral UGA, and another group to firm-generated advertising and positive and neutral UGA, and then their reactions could be compared.

Conversely, the experiment could have been conducted by adopting a longitudinal approach and exposing participants to different videos over a period of time and then evaluating the changes in attitudes and behaviours. Attitude formation is known to be generally a long-term activity, and this is a basic issue with research on attitudes, as tracking participants' attitudes over long periods of time is not a common practice in attitudinal-behavioural research. Therefore, researchers make inferences about the effects of advertising communications from data collected through cross-sectional research.

The fourth main limitation of this study is related to ecological validity; the conditions in which the videos were presented were artificial, and participants were exposed to videos that were not embedded in YouTube or accessed through a real social media platform. They received a link to access the questionnaire, and therefore the social network element related to

friends or family sharing videos on YouTube or via other social media platforms was not present. This implies that although participants perceived the videos as consumer generated, the peer-to-peer communication effect was not possible. Furthermore, the viewing environment was nearly free of the general clutter from emails and posts in social media that consumers are exposed to in real life.

With regards to the brand selected as stimulus, another limitation was that this study used a well-known convenience brand; this implies that participants may have established attitudes towards Coca-Cola. For instance, a non-Coca-Cola drinker will be challenging to influence by either firm-generated or user-generated advertising. Advertising will not change his/her opinions about the brand even when he/she is exposed to peer-generated advertising; therefore, advertising communication may have little or no impact on these consumers. Conversely, a loyal Coca-Cola drinker will then react in a favourable manner to firm and positive advertising, counteracting the negative information received through UGA. This implies that one important aspect that needs to be considered is the brand loyalty of the consumer, and the effect of this variable should be evaluated in the effectiveness of firm and UGA.

7.15. Recommendations for future research

This study has contributed to the literature on consumer behaviour and decision-making by providing an analysis of the phenomenon of consumer-generated ads and their effects on consumers' brand attitudes and behavioural intentions, especially by comparing the importance of social media and firm-generated communications, including the characteristics of the receiver's form of self-construal as an important determinant of the effectiveness of UGA.

However, further research on this phenomenon should be undertaken before the association between UGA, brand attitudes and behavioural intentions is more clearly understood. For instance, new studies should aim to utilise other types of UGA as stimuli; this study was mainly oriented to the affective part of advertising responses; however, as noticed in the first stage of the data collection, YouTube has an abundance of videos of the type of 'how-tos', product reviews and other videos based on a more informative perspective, in which the expertise and experiences of the creator may impact audiences on cognitive levels, especially when people are in search of information before purchasing products that require information search before purchasing (i.e. computers and mobile phones). A further study with more focus on informative UGA and product reviews is suggested to ascertain how these videos affect purchase decisions.

There is also room for further progress regarding the sample of the study; as mentioned in the previous section, current research on self-construal tends to eliminate individuals with defined 'two selves', concentrating only on dominant INTSD and INTSC. In this study, although the EQUISC type was considered, the sample groups were unequal, and a further study aiming to obtain a more proportionate number of participants in each group may enhance the validity of the results. This could be achieved by firstly measuring the self-construal construct to ensure that all groups are similar before proceeding to conduct the survey.

In this regard, further studies that take the self-construal variable into account could investigate how the socio-cultural characteristics of the sample affect their perceptions and reactions to UGA. A study that evaluates the impact of UGA and self-construal in different cultural contexts is therefore suggested.

Finally, in this study, the brand used as a stimulus belongs to the 'convenience' type; in further investigations it might be possible to use a brand, product or service of the type 'search' as stimulus to enhance the understanding of UGA, specifically for products such as televisions, computers or mobile phones which require more than positive affective states to be purchased.

8. CONCLUSION

Technological communication innovations, such as the internet, are constantly evolving, thus providing consumers tools to perform marketing functions traditionally carried out by firms. Whilst consumer-created, brand-communication in the form of word-of-mouth has existed before these latest innovations, technology has assisted in allowing them reach consumers more quickly, in larger quantities and at times, more effectively.

The impact of the internet and the power of social media are now engrained in the daily life of most people. Today, consumers are no longer passive recipients of information but are instead, creators and broadcasters of news, opinions and brand communications. This creativity has far-reaching economic and social implications and given their messages can no longer be ignored.

The overall results of this study suggest that peer-to-peer brand communications has a greater effect on brand attitudes and behavioural intentions than firm-generated advertising. Of particular importance is this paper's finding that peer-to-peer brand communication with negative valence may generate unfavourable outcomes for firms and brands. The research also proves that when compared to firm-generated advertising, consumers place more trust in peer-generated brand messages, especially those in the form of UGA. This follows the notion that peer-generated UGA is more independent and is not bound by a firm message, whilst firm-generated advertising may be biased and created with the purpose of increasing sales and revenue for the brand. The research has also shown that that online, firm-generated advertising is effective in brand awareness, but not in attitude changing strategies.

With regards to UGA, this thesis demonstrates that consumer-created videos can be a broadly affect firm-generated advertising strategies thus proving that UGA, especially UGA

with negative valence, can undermine the effect of traditional advertising thus leading to harmful consequences for the brand and adverse effects on audiences. This would suggest that firms must and should track brand conversations and incorporate strategies to harness the voice of consumers.

The thesis also evaluated the effects of different types of self-construal and how each self-construal group reacts to brand information received through UGA. Using the theoretical principles of self-construal, it is evident that individuals with interdependent self-construal are more affected by UGA than individuals with independent self-construal. Additionally, the results demonstrated that the majority of participants exhibited a co-existence of both types of self-construal, and contrary to previous studies, and contrary to previous which purposely disqualified individuals presenting both types of self-construal, this research incorporated them into the research mix, thus highlighting their importance and relevance.

This thesis has contributed to the explanation and understanding of brand-related, user-generated advertising from the perspective of the audience. The research has analysed how brand communications affect consumer attitudes and behaviours and has further analysed how individual psycho-social characteristics, in the form of self-construal, can impact the effectiveness of user-generated-advertising. The research has provided a fresh, new approach to the theoretical understanding of this ongoing and ever-evolving phenomenon and has contributed to practical marketing by providing important managerial implications which all firms now need to consider.

Given the rapid evolution of the internet and social media, the findings in this research are subject to what further advancements are in store for users as technology continues to advance. Notwithstanding, this thesis provides one additional and important step to the understanding of the phenomenon of UGA and its interpretation may lead to firm's

developing new brand strategies and models for an emerging consumer culture that relies more on UGA than on traditional advertising. While still relevant, firm generated advertising no longer controls purchase and brand decisions and it is exciting to provide fresh and distinctive research on the understanding of a new generation of computer savvy and technologically advanced consumers who are the future of ever evolving markets as well as a new generation of brand builders.

9. REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. and J. Myers (1987). Advertising Management. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Aaker, D. A. (1991). Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name. New York, The Free Press.
- Aaker, D. A. (1996). Building Strong Brands. London, Simon & Schuster.
- Aaker, D. A. and G. S. Day (1974). "A Dynamic Model of Relationships Among Advertising, Consumer Awareness, Attitudes and Behavior." Journal of Applied Psychology **59**(3): 281-286.
- Aaker, D. A. and G. S. Day (1990). Marketing Research. New York, Wiley.
- Aaker, D. A. and D. Norris (1982). "Characteristics of TV Commercials Perceived as Informative." Journal of Advertising Research **22**(2): 61.
- Aaker, J. L. (1997). "Dimensions of Brand Personality." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **34**(3): 347-356.
- Aaker, J. L. and A. Y. Lee (2001). "'I' Seek Pleasures and 'We' Avoid Pains: The Role of Self-Regulatory Goals in Information Processing and Persuasion." Journal of Consumer Research **28**(1): 33-49.
- Aaker, J. L. and P. Williams (1998). "Empathy versus Pride: The Influence of Emotional Appeals across Cultures." Journal of Consumer Research **25**(3): 241-261.
- Abdul, Y. R., H. Oppewal, et al. (2009). Do You See What I See? The Acceptance of Brand Personality by Individualist and Collectivist Cultures. ANZMAC 2009. Melbourne, Australia, Australian and New Zealand Marketing Accademy: 9.

- Ache, K. A. and L. S. Wallace (2008). "Human Papillomavirus Vaccination Coverage on YouTube." American Journal of Preventive Medicine **35**(4): 389-392.
- Ackermann, C.-L. and A. Palmer (2014). "The contribution of implicit cognition to the Theory of Reasoned Action Model: a study of food preferences." Journal of Marketing Management **30**(5/6): 529-550.
- Agarwal, M. K. and V. R. Rao (1996). "An Empirical Comparison of Consumer-Based Measures of Brand Equity." Marketing Letters **7**(3): 237-247.
- Aggarwal, P. (2004). "The Effects of Brand Relationship Norms on Consumer Attitudes and Behavior." Journal of Consumer Research **31**(1): 87-101.
- Aghaei, S., M. A. Nematbakhsh, et al. (2012). "Evolution of The World Wide Web: From Web 1.0 to Web 4.0." International Journal of Web and Semantic Technology **3**(1): 8.
- Agrawal, N. and D. Maheswaran (2005). "The Effects of Self-Construal and Commitment on Persuasion." Journal of Consumer Research **31**(4): 841-849.
- Ahluwalia, R., R. E. Burnkrant, et al. (2000). "Consumer Response to Negative Publicity: The Moderating Role of Commitment." Journal of Marketing Research **37**(2): 203-214.
- Ailawadi, K. L., S. A. Neslin, et al. (2003). "Revenue Premium as an Outcome Measure of Brand Equity." Journal of Marketing **67**(4): 1-17.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From Intentions to Actions: A Theory of Planned Behavior. Action Control. J. Kuhl and J. Beckmann. Berlin, Springer Berlin Heidelberg: 11-39.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). "The Theory of Planned Behavior." Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process **50**: 179-211.
- Ajzen, I. and M. Fishbein (1972). "Attitudes and normative beliefs as factors influencing behavioral intentions." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology **21**(1): 1-9.
- Ajzen, I. and M. Fishbein (1977). "Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research." Psychological Bulletin **84**(5): 888-918.

- ALEXA. (2010, 10 October 2010). "YouTube site Audit." from <http://www.alexa.com/siteinfo/youtube.com>.
- Ambler, T. (1992). Need-to-Know-Marketing: An Accessible A to Z Guide.
- American Marketing Association, A. (1995). Dictionary of Marketing Terms. Chicago, IL, McGraw-Hill Contemporary.
- American Marketing Association, A. (2012). "Perception Definition." Retrieved 17 May, 2012, from http://www.marketingpower.com/_layouts/Dictionary.aspx?dLetter=P.
- Anderson, E. W. (1998). "Customer Satisfaction and Word of Mouth." Journal of Service Research **1**(1): 5-17.
- Angelis, M. D., A. Bonezzi, et al. (2012). "On Braggarts and Gossips: A Self-Enhancement Account of Word-of-Mouth Generation and Transmission." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **49**(4): 551-563.
- Armitage, C. J. and M. Conner (2001). "Efficacy of the Theory of Planned Behaviour: A meta-analytic review." British Journal of Social Psychology **40**: 471.
- Armstrong, J. S. and T. S. Overton (1977). "Estimating Nonresponse Bias in Mail Surveys." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **14**(3): 396-402.
- Arndt, J. (1967). "Role of Product-Related Conversations in the Diffusion of a New Product." Journal of Marketing Research **4**(3): 291-295.
- Arndt, J. (1968). "Selective Processes in Word of Mouth." Journal of Advertising Research **8**(3): 19-22.
- Arnold, D. (1992). The Handbook of Brand Management, Addison-Wesley.
- Arora, R. (1979). "How Promotion Elasticities Change." Journal of Advertising Research **19**(3): 57-62.

- Asmussen, B., S. Harridge-March, et al. (2012 in Press). "The multi-layered nature of the internet-based democratization of brand management." Journal of Business Research(0).
- Assmus, G., J. U. Farley, et al. (1984). "How Advertising Affects Sales: Meta-Analysis of Econometric Results." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **21**(1): 65-74.
- Avery, R. J. and R. Ferraro (2000). "Verisimilitude or Advertising? Brand Appearances on Prime-Time Television." Journal of Consumer Affairs **34**(2): 217.
- Babbie, E. (1995). The Practice of Social Research. Belmont, CA, Wadsworth.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1982). "A Field Investigation of Causal Relations Among Cognitions, Affect, Intentions, and Behavior." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **19**(4): 562-583.
- Bagozzi, R. P. and Y. Yi (1989). "The Degree of Intention formation as a moderator of the attitude-behavior relationship." Social Psychology Quarterly **52**(4): 266-279.
- Bailey, A. A. (2005). "Consumer Awareness and Use of Product Review Websites." Journal of Interactive Advertising **6**(1): 90-108.
- Bailey, K. (1978). Methods of Social Research. New York, The Free Press.
- Bambauer-Sachse, S. and S. Mangold (2011). "Brand equity dilution through negative online word-of-mouth communication." Journal of Retailing & Consumer Services **18**(1): 38-45.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New Yor, NY, W.H. Freeman & Co.
- Baumeister, R. F., E. Bratslavsky, et al. (2001). "Bad is stronger than good." Review of General Psychology **5**(4): 323-370.
- Bearden, W. O., R. G. Netemeyer, et al. (1989). "Measurement of Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence." Journal of Consumer Research **15**(4): 473-481.

- Bello, D., L. Kwok, et al. (2009). "From the Editors: Student samples in international business research." Journal of International Business Studies **40**(3): 361-364.
- Berkman, D. (1987). "The Not Quite So Inevitable Origins of Commercial Broadcasting in America." European Journal of Marketing **21**(4): 34-43.
- Berthon, P. and L. Pitt (2012). "Brands and Burlesque: toward a theory of spoof advertising." Academy of Marketing Science Review **2**(2-4).
- Berthon, P., L. Pitt, et al. (2008). "Ad Lib: When Customers Create the Ad." California Management Review.
- Berthon, P., L. Pitt, et al. (2011). "Unveiling videos: Consumer-generated ads as qualitative inquiry." Psychology & Marketing **28**(10): 1044-1060.
- Berthon, P., L. Pitt, et al. (2007). "When customers get clever: Managerial approaches to dealing with creative consumers." Business Horizons **50**(1): 39-47.
- Berthon, P. R., L. F. Pitt, et al. (2012). "Marketing meets Web 2.0, social media, and creative consumers: Implications for international marketing strategy." Business Horizons **55**(3): 261-271.
- Bettman, J. R. (1982). "A Functional Analysis of the Role of Overall Evaluation of Alternatives in Choice Processes." Advances in Consumer Research **9**(1): 87-93.
- Bettman, J. R. and C. W. Park (1980). "Effects of Prior Knowledge and Experience and Phase of the Choice Process on Consumer Decision Processes: A Protocol Analysis." Journal of Consumer Research **7**(3): 234-248.
- Bhawuk, D. P. S. and R. Brislin (1992). "The measurement of intercultural sensitivity using the concepts of individualism and collectivism." International Journal of Intercultural Relations **16**(4): 413-436.
- Bickart, B. and R. M. Schindler (2001). "Internet Forums as Influential Sources of Consumer Information." Journal of Interactive Marketing (John Wiley & Sons) **15**(3): 31-40.

- Biel, J. and D. Gatica-Perez (2013). "The YouTube Lens: Crowdsourced Personality Impressions and Audiovisual Analysis of Vlogs." Multimedia, IEEE Transactions on **15**(1): 41-55.
- Blackett, T. (1998). Trademarks. London, Macmillan Business.
- Blaikie, N. (2000). Designing Social Research: The Logic of Anticipation. Cambridge, Polity Press.
- Blalock, H. M. (1982). Conceptualization and measurement in the social sciences. Beverly Hills, California, Sage Publications, Inc.
- Blanding, M. (2010). The Coke Machine: The dirty truth behind the world's favorite soft drink. New York, Penguin Group.
- Bloemer, J., K. d. Ruyter, et al. (1999). "Linking perceived service quality and service loyalty: a multi-dimensional perspective." European Journal of Marketing **33**(11/12): 1082-1106.
- Blood, R. (2002). The Weblog Handbook: Practical Advice on Creating and Maintaining your blog., Perseus Publishing.
- Boyd, D. and N. Ellison (2007). "Social Network Sites: Definition, History and Scholarship." Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication **13**(1): 20.
- Brace, I. (2008). Questionnaire Design: How to Plan, Structure and Write Survey Material for Effective Market Research. London, Kogan Page.
- Brackett, L. K. and B. N. Carr Jr (2001). "Cyberspace Advertising vs. Other Media: Consumer vs. Mature Student Attitudes." Journal of Advertising Research **41**(5): 23-32.
- Bradburn, N., S. Sudman, et al. (2004). Asking Questions: The Definitive Guide to Questionnaire Design for Market Research, Political Polls and Social and Health Questionnaires. San Francisco, John Wiley and Sons.

- Brakus, J. J., B. H. Schmitt, et al. (2009). "Brand Experience: What Is It? How Is It Measured? Does It Affect Loyalty?" Journal of Marketing **73**(3): 52-68.
- Breckler, S. J. (1984). "Empirical validation of affect, behavior, and cognition as distinct components of attitude." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **47**(6): 1191-1205.
- Breuer, R. and M. Brettel (2012). "Short- and Long-term Effects of Online Advertising: Differences between New and Existing Customers." Journal of Interactive Marketing (Mergent, Inc.) **26**(3): 155-166.
- Briñol, P. and R. E. Petty (2011). The History of attitudes and persuasion research. Handbook of the history and social psychology. A. Kruglanski and W. Stroebe. New York, Psychology Press.
- Britt, S. H. (1978). Psychological Principles of Marketing and Consumer Behavior. Lexington, Mass, Lexington Books.
- Bronner, F. and R. de Hoog (2010). "Consumer-generated versus marketer-generated websites in consumer decision making." International Journal of Market Research **52**(2): 231.
- Bruce, N. I., K. Peters, et al. (2012). "Discovering How Advertising Grows Sales and Builds Brands." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **49**(6): 793-806.
- Bryman, A. (2008). The End of the Paradigm Wars? The Sage Handbook of Social Research Methods. P. Alasuutari, L. Bickman and J. Brannen. London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Bryman, A. (2008). Social Research Methods. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Buda, R. and Y. Zhang (2000). "Consumer product evaluation: the interactive effect of message framing, presentation order, and source credibility." Journal of Product & Brand Management **9**(4): 229 - 242.
- Bülbül, C. and G. Menon (2010). "The Power of Emotional Appeals in Advertising." Journal of Advertising Research **50**(2): 169-180.

- Burgess, J. and J. Green (2009). YouTube. Cambridge, Polity Press.
- Burmann, C. (2010). "A call for 'User-Generated Branding'." Journal of Brand Management **18**(1): 1-4.
- Burmann, C. and U. Arnhold (2008). User Generated Branding: State of the Art of Research. Berling, Lit Verlag.
- Burton, K. A., J. S. Gore, et al. (2012). "The Role of Relational Self-construal in Reactions to Charity Advertisements." Self and Identity **11**(3).
- Cacioppo, J. and G. Bernston (1994). "Relationship between attitudes and evaluative space: A critical review, with emphasis on the separability of positive and negative substrates." Psychological Bulletin **115**(3): 401-423.
- Cacioppo, J. T., W. L. Gardner, et al. (1997). "Beyond Bipolar Conceptualizations and Measures: The Case of Attitudes and Evaluative Space." Personality & Social Psychology Review (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates) **1**(1): 3.
- Calder, B. J. and R. E. Burnkrant (1977). "Interpersonal Influence on Consumer Behavior: An Attribution Theory Approach." Journal of Consumer Research **4**(1): 29-38.
- Caldwell, M., P. Henry, et al. (2010). "Constructing audio-visual representations of consumer archetypes." Qualitative Market Research **13**(1): 84-96.
- Campbell, C., L. F. Pitt, et al. (2011). "Understanding Consumer Conversations Around Ads in a Web 2.0 World." Journal of Advertising **40**(1): 87-102.
- Cha, M., H. Kwak, et al. (2009). "Analyzing the video popularity characteristics of large-scale user generated content systems." IEEE/ACM Trans. Netw. **17**(5): 1357-1370.
- Chaiken, S., A. Liberman, et al. (1989). Unintended Thought. Heuristic and systematic processing within and beyond the persuasion context. J. S. Uleman and J. A. Bargh. New York, Guilford Press.

- Chang, C. (2008). "Ad framing effects for consumption products: An affect priming process." Psychology & Marketing **25**(1): 24-46.
- Chang, Y. and E. Thorson (2004). "Television and Web Advertising Synergies." Journal of Advertising **33**(2): 75-84.
- Chen, B. and J. Marcus (2012). "Students' self-presentation on Facebook: An examination of personality and self-construal factors." Computers in Human Behavior **28**(6): 2091-2099.
- Cheong, H. J. and M. A. Morrison (2008). "Consumers' Reliance on Product Information and Recommendations Found in UGC." Journal of Interactive Advertising **8**(2): 1-29.
- Cheung, M. Y., C. Luo, et al. (2009). "Credibility of Electronic Word-of-Mouth: Informational and Normative Determinants of On-line Consumer Recommendations." International Journal of Electronic Commerce **13**(4): 9-38.
- Choi, B. and R. Ahluwalia (2013). "Determinants of brand switching: the role of consumer inferences, brand commitment, and perceived risk." Journal of Applied Social Psychology **43**(5): 981-991.
- Choi, Y. K. and G. E. Miracle (2004). "The Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising in Korea and the United States " Journal of Advertising **33**(4): 75-87.
- Christodoulides, G. and L. de Chernatony (2010). "Consumer-based brand equity conceptualisation and measurement." International Journal of Market Research **52**(1): 43-66.
- Christodoulides, G. and C. Jevons (2011). "The Voice of the Consumer Speaks Forcefully in Brand Identity." Journal of Advertising Research **51**: 101-108.
- Christodoulides, G., C. Jevons, et al. (2011). How User-Generated Content Affects Brands, Journal of Advertising Research.

- Christodoulides, G., C. Jevons, et al. (2012). "Memo to Marketers: Quantitative Evidence for Change. How User-Generated Content Really Affects Brands." Journal of Advertising Research **52**(1): 53-64.
- Christodoulides, G., N. Michaelidou, et al. (2012). "Cross-National Differences in e-Wom Influence." European Journal of Marketing **46**(11/12): 1689-1707.
- Chun-Yao, H., S. Yong-Zheng, et al. (2007). "Bloggers' Motivations and Behaviors: A Model." Journal of Advertising Research **47**(4): 472-484.
- Churchill, G. (1991). Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations. Orlando, The Dryden Press.
- Churchill, G. (1999). Marketing Research: Methodological Foundation. Forth Worth, The Dryden Press.
- Clancy, K. J. and S. Rabino (2007). "The Effects of Visual Enhancement on Attribute/Benefit Desirability and Brand Perception Measures: Implications for Reliability and Validity." Journal of Advertising Research **47**(1): 95-102.
- Clark, N. (2009). The Marmite effect. Marketing: 26-29.
- Clifton, A. and C. Mann (2011). "Can YouTube enhance student nurse learning?" Nurse Education Today **31**(4): 311-313.
- Cobb-Walgren, C. J., C. A. Ruble, et al. (1995). "Brand Equity, Brand Preference, and Purchase Intent." Journal of Advertising **24**(3): 25-40.
- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colliander, J. and M. Dahlen (2011). "Following the Fashionable Friend: The Power of Social Media." Journal of Advertising Research **51**(1): 313-320.
- Commission, E. (2006). Interactive content and convergence: Implications for the information society.

- Constantinides, E. and S. J. Fountain (2008). "Web 2.0: Conceptual foundations and marketing issues." Journal of Direct, Data and Digital Marketing Practice **9**(3): 231-244.
- Copeland, R. M., A. J. Francia, et al. (1973). "Students as Subjects in Behavioral Business Research." Accounting Review **48**(2): 365-372.
- Cormode, G. and B. Krishnamurthy (2008). "Key Differences between Web 1.0 and Web 2.0." First Monday **13**(6).
- Craimer, S. (1995). The Real Power of Brands: Making Brands Work for competitive Advantage. London, Pitman Publishing.
- Cramphorn, S. (2006). "How to use advertising to build brands." International Journal of Market Research **48**(3): 255-276.
- Cross, S. (1995). "Self-Construals, Coping, and Stress in Cross-Cultural Adaptation." Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology **26**(6): 673-697.
- Cross, S. E., E. E. Hardin, et al. (2011). "The What, How, Why, and Where of Self-Construal." Personality & Social Psychology Review (Sage Publications Inc.) **15**(2): 142-179.
- Crotty, M. (1998). The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process. St Leonards, Australia, Sage.
- Cunningham, W. H., W. T. Anderson Jr, et al. (1974). "Are Students Real People?" Journal of Business **47**(3): 399-409.
- Curtis, J. (2008). "Brands we love, brands we hate." Marketing 26-29.
- Cushing, P. and M. D.-. Tate (1985). The Effect of People/Product Relationships on Advertising Processing. Psychological Processes and Advertising Effects. L. F. Alwitt and A. A. Mitchell. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Danes, J. E., J. S. Hess, et al. (2012). "On the validity of measuring brand images by rating concepts and free associations." Journal of Brand Management **19**(4): 289-303.
- Darley, W. K. and R. E. Smith (1993). "Advertising claim objectivity: Antecedents and effects." Journal of Marketing **57**(4): 100.
- Daugherty, T., M. S. Eastin, et al. (2008). "Exploring Consumer Motivations for Creating User-Generated Content." Journal of Interactive Advertising **8**(2): 1-24.
- Davidson, J. H. (2004). Offensive Marketing : An Action Guide to Gaining Competitive Advantage. Burlington, MA, Elsevier Butterworth–Heinemann.
- Davis, E., J. Kay, et al. (1991). "Is advertising rational?" Business Strategy Review **2**(3): 1.
- Dawar, N. and M. M. Pillutla (2000). "Impact of Product-Harm Crises on Brand Equity: The Moderating Role of Consumer Expectations." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **37**(2): 215-226.
- Day, G. S. (1971). "Attitude Change, Media and Word of Mouth." Journal of Advertising Research **11**(6): 31-40.
- de Chernatony, L. (2001). From Brand Vision to Brand Evaluation: The Strategic process of Growing and Strengthening Brands. Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- de Chernatony, L. and M. McDonald (1994). Creating Powerful Brands. Oxford, Botterworth-Heinemann.
- de Chernatony, L. and F. D. O. Riley (1997). "The chasm between managers' and consumers' views of brands: the experts' perspectives." Journal of Strategic Marketing **5**(2): 89-104.
- de Chernatony, L. and F. D. O. Riley (1998). "Defining A "Brand": Beyond The Literature With Experts' Interpretations." Journal of Marketing Management **14**(4/5): 417-443.
- Deacon, D., M. Pickering, et al. (2007). Researching Communications: A Practical Guide to Methods in Media and Cultural Analysis. London, Hodder Arnold.

- Dean, D. H. (2004). "Consumer Reaction to Negative Publicity." Journal of Business Communication **41**(2): 192-211.
- Deighton, J., C. M. Henderson, et al. (1994). "The Effects of Advertising on Brand Switching and Repeat Purchasing." Journal of Marketing Research **31**(1): 28-43.
- Delgadillo, Y. and J. E. Escalas (2004). "Narrative Word-of-Mouth Communication: Exploring Memory and Attitude Effects of Consumer Storytelling." Advances in Consumer Research **31**(1): 186-192.
- Demangeot, C. and A. J. Broderick (2010). "Consumer perceptions of online shopping environments: A gestalt approach." Psychology & Marketing **27**(2): 117-140.
- Denscombe, M. (1998). The Good Research Guide for small-scale social research projects. Buckingham, Open University Press.
- Denzin, N. and Y. Lincoln (1994). Major Paradigms and Perspectives. Handbook of Qualitative Research
- N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln. Thousand Oaks, California, Sage Publications, Inc.
- Deshpande, R. (1983). "Paradigms Lost: On Theory and Method in Research in Marketing." Journal of Marketing **47**(4): 9.
- Deutskens, E., K. d. Ruyter, et al. (2004). "Response Rate and Response Quality of Internet-Based Surveys: An Experimental Study." Marketing Letters **15**(1): 21.
- deVaus, D. (2001). Research Design in Social Research. London, Sage.
- deVaus, D. (2002). Surveys in Social Research. London, Routledge.
- Dholakia, U. M., R. P. Bagozzi, et al. (2004). "A social influence model of consumer participation in network- and small-group-based virtual communities." International Journal of Research in Marketing **21**(3): 241-263.
- Dichter, E. (1966). "How Word-of-Mouth Advertising Works." Harvard Business Review **44**(6): 147.

- Doohwang, L., K. Hyuk Soo, et al. (2011). "The Impact of Online Brand Community Type on Consumer's Community Engagement Behaviors: Consumer-Created vs. Marketer-Created Online Brand Community in Online Social-Networking Web Sites." CyberPsychology, Behavior & Social Networking **14**(1/2): 59-63.
- Dunne, D. (2010). *United Breaks Guitars*. Toronto: Canada, Joseph Rotman School of Management, University of Toronto.
- Dutton, W. and G. Blank (2011). *Next Generation Users: The Internet in Britain*. Oxford Internet Surveys. Oxford, University of Oxford.
- Dutton, W. H., G. Blank, et al. (2013). *Cultures on the Internet: The Internet in Britain*. Oxford Internet Surveys. Oxford, Oxford University.
- Eagly, A. H. (1992). "Uneven Progress: Social Psychology and the Study of Attitudes." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology **63**(5): 693-710.
- Eagly, A. H. and S. Chaiken (1993). The Psychology of Attitudes. Forth Worth, TX., Hacourt, Brace, Jovanovich.
- Eagly, A. H. and S. Chaiken (2007). "The Advantages of an Inclusive Definition of Attitude." Social Cognition **25**(5): 582-602.
- East, R., K. Hammond, et al. (2008). "Measuring the impact of positive and negative word of mouth on brand purchase probability." International Journal of Research in Marketing **25**(3): 215-224.
- Edell, J. A. and M. C. Burke (1987). "The Power of Feelings in Understanding Advertising Effects." Journal of Consumer Research **14**(3): 421-433.
- eMarketer (2010) "Consumers Believe in Positive Word-of-Mouth." eMarketer Daily.
- eMarketer (2011) "What Changing Social Media Usage Means for Marketers." eMarketer Daily.

- eMarketer (2012) "Millennials Look to Digital Word-of-Mouth to Drive Purchase Process." eMarketer Daily.
- eMarketer (2012) "Social Media Key Influencer in Multi-Exposure Purchase Path." eMarketer Daily.
- eMarketer (2014) "Millennials' Social Media Post Influence Peers to Buy New Products." eMarketer Daily.
- eMarketer (2014) "Millennials' Social Media Post Influence Peers to Buy New Products " eMarketer Daily.
- eMarketer (2014) "Video Drives Publishers' Digital Ad Revenue Growth in the UK." eMarketer Daily.
- English, K., K. Sweetser, et al. (2011). "YouTube-ification of Political Talk: An Examination of Persuasion Appeals in Viral Video." American Behavioral Scientist **55**(6).
- Enoch, G. and K. Johnson (2010). "Cracking the Cross-Media Code." Journal of Advertising Research **50**(2): 125-136.
- Erdem, T. and J. Swait (1998). "Brand Equity as a Signaling Phenomenon." Journal of Consumer Psychology (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates) **7**(2): 131.
- Erdem, T., J. Swait, et al. (2002). "The impact of brand credibility on consumer price sensitivity." International Journal of Research in Marketing **19**(1): 1-19.
- Erdem, T., J. Swait, et al. (2006). "Brands as Signals: A Cross-Country Validation Study." Journal of Marketing **70**(1): 34-49.
- Eroglu, S. A. and K. A. Machleit (1990). "An Empirical Study of Retail Crowding: Antecedents and Consequences." Journal of Retailing **66**(2): 201.
- Ertimur, B. (2010). "Consumer-Generated Advertising: Creators and Spectators." Advances in Consumer Research **37**: 284-287.

- Ertimur, B. and M. C. Gilly (2012). "So Whaddya Think? Consumers Create Ads and Other Consumers Critique Them." Journal of Interactive Marketing (Mergent, Inc.) **26**(3): 115-130.
- Escalas, J. E. and J. R. Bettman (2005). "Self-Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning." Journal of Consumer Research **32**(3): 378-389.
- ESRC (2005). Framework for Research Ethics. E. a. S. R. Council. UK.
- Essex, C. and W. Smythe (1991). "Between Numbers and Notions: A Critique of Psychological Measurement." Theory and Psychology **9**(6): 739-767.
- European Brands Association, A. (2012). "The Brand." Retrieved 16 February, 2013, from <http://www.aim.be/>.
- Faircloth, J. B., L. M. Capella, et al. (2001). "The Effect of Brand Attitude and Brand Image on Brand Equity." Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice **9**(3): 61.
- Fan, D., D. Geddes, et al. (2013). "The Toyota Recall Crisis: Media Impact on Toyota 's Corporate Brand Reputation." Corporate Reputation Review **16**(2): 99–117
- Farquhar, P. H. (1989). "Managing Brand Equity." Marketing Research **1**(3): 24-33.
- Fazio, R. H. and M. P. Zanna (1981). "Direct Experience And Attitude-Behavior Consistency." Advances in Experimental Social Psychology **Volume 14**: 161-202.
- Fazio, R. P. (1990). "Multiple processes by which attitudes guide behavior: the MODE model as an integrative framework." Advances in Experimental Social Psychology **23**: 75-109.
- Field, A. (2009). Discovering Statistics Using SPSS. London, Sage.
- Field, A. and G. Hole (2003). How to Design and Report Experiments. London, Sage.
- Filstead, W. (1979). Qualitative Methods: A Needed Perspective in Evaluation Research. Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research
- T. D. Cook and C. S. Reichardt. Beverly Hills, CA

Sage Publications.

Fishbein, M. and I. Ajzen (1974). "Attitudes towards objects as predictors of single and multiple behavioral criteria." Psychological Review **81**(1): 59-74.

Fishbein, M. and I. Ajzen (1975). Beliefs, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research. Reading, Mass., Addison Wesley.

Florack, A. and M. Scarabis (1996). "How Advertising Claims Affect Brand Preferences and Category-Brand Associations: The Role of Regulatory Fit." Psychology and Marketing **23**(9): 741-755.

Folkes, V. (1991). Recent Attribution Research in Consumer Behavior: A Review and New Directions. Perspectives in Consumer Behavior. H. Kassarian and T. Robertson. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice Hall.

Fournier, S. (1998). "Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research." Journal of Consumer Research **24**(4): 343-373.

Foxall, G. R., R. E. Goldsmith, et al. (1998). Consumer Psychology for Marketing. London, International Thomson Business Press.

Friedrich, J., N. Kierniesky, et al. (1989). "Drawing Moral Inferences from Descriptive Science: The Impact of Attitudes on Naturalistic Fallacy Errors." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **15**(3): 414-425.

Friestad, M. and P. Wright (1994). "The Persuasion Knowledge Model: How People Cope with Persuasion Attempts." Journal of Consumer Research **21**(1): 1-31.

Füller, J., H. Mühlbacher, et al. (2009). "Consumer Empowerment Through Internet-Based Co-creation." Journal of Management Information Systems **26**(3): 71-102.

Gangadharbatla, H. (2008). "Facebook Me: Collective Self-Esteem, Need to Belong, and Internet Self-Efficacy as Predictors of the iGeneration's Attitudes toward Social Networking Sites." Journal of Interactive Advertising **8**(2): 1-28.

- Gao, W., Y. Tian, et al. (2010). "Vlogging: A survey of videoblogging technology on the web." ACM Comput. Surv. **42**(4): 1-57.
- Gardner, B. B. and S. J. Levy (1955). "The Product and the Brand." Harvard Business Review **33**(2): 33-39.
- Gardner, M. P. (1985). "Does Attitude Toward the Ad Affect Brand Attitude Under a Brand Evaluation Set?" Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **22**(2): 192-198.
- Gardner, M. P., A. A. Mitchell, et al. (1985). "Low Involvement Strategies for Processing Advertisements." Journal of Advertising **14**(2): 4-56.
- Garg, R. and A. Kataria (2013). "Why Do Consumers Articulate Electronic Negative Word of Mouth? A Study on Online Auto Portals Using Theory of Reasoned Action." Asia Pacific Journal of Research in Business Management **4**(3): 1-2.
- Garton, L., C. Haythornthwaite, et al. (1997). "Studying Online Social Networks." Journal of Computer Mediate Communications **3**(1).
- Ghose, A. and P. Ipeirotis (2009). "The EconoMining project at NYU: Studying the economic value of user-generated content on the internet." Journal of Revenue and Pricing Management **8**(2-3): 241.
- Ghose, S. and D. Wenyu (1998). "Interactive Functions and Their Impacts on the Appeal of Internet Presence Sites." Journal of Advertising Research **38**(2): 29-43.
- Givon, M. and D. Horsky (1990). "Untangling the Effects of Purchase Reinforcement and Advertising Carryover." Marketing Science **9**(2): 171.
- Goldsmith, R. E. and D. Horowitz (2006). "Measuring Motivations for Online Opinion Seeking." Journal of Interactive Advertising **6**(2): 1-16.
- Goldsmith, R. E., B. A. Lafferty, et al. (2000). "The Impact of Corporate Credibility and Celebrity Credibility on Consumer Reaction to Advertisements and Brands." Journal of Advertising **29**(3): 43-54.

- Goodyear, M. (1996). "Divided by a common language: diversity and deception in the world of global marketing." Journal of the Market Research Society **38**(2): 105-122.
- Google (2012). Policies and Principles.
- Grace, S. L. (2001). The Nature of Independent and Interdependent Self-Construals: A Focus on Psychological Relatedness. Department of Psychology. Windsor, Ontario, University of Windsor. **Doctor of Philosophy**: 158.
- Grass, R. C. and W. H. Wallace (1974). "Advertising Communication: Print Vs. TV." Journal of Advertising Research **14**(5): 19.
- Grayling, A. C. (2003). Epistemology. The Blackwell Companion to Philosophy. N. Bunnin and E. P. Tsui-James. Malden, MA, Blackwell Publishing.
- Grayson, K. and R. Rust (2001). "Interrater Reliability." Journal of Consumer Psychology (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates) **10**(1/2): 71-73.
- Grbich, C. (2007). Qualitative Data Analysis: An Introduction. London, Sage.
- Greene, J. D. and J. S. Stock (1966). "Brand Attitudes as Measures of Advertising Effects." Journal of Advertising Research **6**(2): 14-22.
- Gresham, L. G. and T. A. Shimp (1985). "Attitude Toward the Advertisement and Brand Attitudes: A Classical Conditioning Perspective." Journal of Advertising **14**(1): 10-49.
- Grewal, D., J. Gotlieb, et al. (1994). "The Moderating Effects of Message Framing and Source Credibility on the Price-perceived Risk Relationship." Journal of Consumer Research **21**(1): 145-153.
- Grix, J. (2010). The Foundations of Research. London, Palgrave.
- Grubb, E. L. and G. Hupp (1968). "Perception of Self, Generalized Stereotypes, and Brand Selection." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **5**(1): 58-63.

- Guba, E. and Y. Lincoln (1994). Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research. Handbook of Qualitative Research. N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln. Thousand Oaks, California, Sage Publications.
- Gudykunst, W. and C. Lee (2003). "Assessing the Validity of Self Construal Scales. A response to Levine et al." Human Communication Research **29**(2): 253-274.
- Gudykunst, W. B., Y. Matsumoto, et al. (1996). "The Influence of Cultural Individualism-Collectivism, Self Construals, and Individual Values on Communication Styles Across Cultures." Human Communication Research **22**(4): 510.
- Hackley, C. (2005). Advertising and Promotion: Communicating Brands. London, Sage.
- Hague, P. (1993). Questionnaire Design. London, Kogan Pace.
- Hair, J., R. Bush, et al. (2003). Marketing Research within a Changing Information Environment. New York, McGraw-Hill.
- Hair, J. F., R. E. Anderson, et al. (1998). Multivariate Data Analysis. Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice Hall.
- Hamilton, R. W. and G. J. Biehal (2005). "Achieving Your Goals or Protecting Their Future? The Effects of Self-View on Goals and Choices." Journal of Consumer Research **32**(2): 277-283.
- Hansen, A., S. Cottle, et al. (1998). Mass Communication Research Methods. Basingtoke, Hampshire, Palgrave.
- Hansen, R. A. and C. A. Scott (1976). "Comments on "Attribution Theory and Advertiser Credibility."." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **13**(2): 193-197.
- Hara, K. and M.-S. Kim (2004). "The effect of self-construals on conversational indirectness." International Journal of Intercultural Relations **28**(1): 18.

- Haridakis, P. and G. Hanson (2009). "Social Interaction and Co-Viewing With YouTube: Blending Mass Communication Reception and Social Connection." Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media **53**(2).
- Harwood, T. and T. Gary (2010). "'It's Mine!' - Participation and ownership within virtual co-creation environments." Journal of Marketing Management **26**(3/4): 290-301.
- Haugtvedt, C. P. and D. T. Wegener (1994). "Message Order Effects in Persuasion: An Attitude Strength Perspective." Journal of Consumer Research **21**(1): 205-218.
- Hautz, J., J. Fuller, et al. (2014). "Let Users Generate Your Video Ads? The Impact of Video Source and Quality on Consumers' Perceptions and Intended Behaviors." Journal of Interactive Marketing (Mergent, Inc.) **28**(1): 1-15.
- Headstream (2011). Social Brands 100 Report.
- Heath, R. (2009). "Emotional Engagement: How Television Builds Big Brands At Low Attention." Journal of Advertising Research **49**(1): 62-73.
- Heath, R., D. Brandt, et al. (2006). "Brand Relationships: Strengthened by Emotion, Weakened by Attention." Journal of Advertising Research **46**(4): 410-419.
- Heath, R. G. (2011). "The Secret of Television's Success: Emotional Content or Rational Information?" Journal of Advertising Research **51**: 112-121.
- Heider, F. (1958). The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations. New York, John Wiley & Sons.
- Henderson, P. W. and J. A. Cote (1998). "Guidelines for Selecting or Modifying Logos." Journal of Marketing **62**(2): 14-30.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., K. P. Gwinner, et al. (2004). "Electronic Word-of-Mouth Via Consumer-Opinion Platforms: What Motivates consumers to Articulate Themselves on the Internet?" Journal of Interactive Marketing **18**(1): 38-52.

- Herr, P. M., F. R. Kardes, et al. (1991). "Effects of Word-of-Mouth and Product-Attribute Information of Persuasion: An Accessibility-Diagnosticity Perspective." Journal of Consumer Research **17**(4): 454-462.
- Hewson, C., P. Yule, et al. (2003). Internet Research Methods: A Practical Guide for the Social and Behavioural Sciences London, Sage Publications Ltd.
- Higgins, S. (2013). Digital Influence Report, Technorati Media: 34.
- Hirschman, E. C. (1980). "Innovativeness, Novelty Seeking, and Consumer Creativity." Journal of Consumer Research **7**(3): 283-295.
- Hirschman, E. C. and M. B. Holbrook (1982). "Hedonic Consumption: Emerging Concepts, Methods and Propositions." Journal of Marketing **46**(3): 92-101.
- Hoch, S. J. and Y.-W. Ha (1986). "Consumer Learning: Advertising and the Ambiguity of Product Experience." Journal of Consumer Research **13**(2): 221-233.
- Hoffman, D. L. and M. Fodor (2010). "Can You Measure the ROI of Your Social Media Marketing?" MIT Sloan Management Review **52**(1): 41-49.
- Hoffman, D. L. and T. P. Novak (1996). "Marketing in hypermedia computer-mediated environments: Conceptual foundations." Journal of Marketing **60**(3): 50.
- Hoffman, D. L. and T. P. Novak (1997). "A New Marketing Paradigm for Electronic Commerce." Information Society **13**(1): 43-54.
- Hofstede, G. (1990). Culture and Organization: Software of the Mind. London, McGraw-Hill.
- Hogan, B. (2010). "The Presentation of Self in the Age of Social Media: Distinguishing Performances and Exhibitions Online"
Bulletin of Science, Technology & Society **30**(6).
- Holbrook, M. B. and R. Batra (1987). "Assessing the Role of Emotions as Mediators of Consumer Responses to Advertising." Journal of Consumer Research **14**(3): 404-420.

- Holt, D. B. (2002). "Why Do Brands Cause Trouble? A Dialectical Theory of Consumer Culture and Branding." Journal of Consumer Research **29**(1): 70-90.
- Homer, P. M. (1990). "The Mediating Role of Attitude Toward the Ad: Some Additional Evidence." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **27**(1): 78-86.
- Hovland, C. and W. Weiss (1951). "The Influence of Source Credibility on Communication Effectiveness." Public opinion quarterly **15**(4): 635-650.
- Hussin, M., S. Frazier, et al. (2011). "Fat stigmatization on YouTube: A content analysis." Body Image **8**(1): 90-92.
- Hye-Jin, P., T. Hove, et al. (2011). "Peer or expert?" International Journal of Advertising **30**(1): 161-188.
- IAB (2008). User Generated Content, Social Media, and Advertising — An Overview, Interactive Advertising Bureau.
- IAB (2010). Social: A closer look at behaviour on YouTube & Facebook, Interactive Advertising Bureau.
- Interbrand (2007). The brand glossary New York, N.Y., Palgrave Macmillan.
- Interbrand (2010) "Top 100 Best Global Brands."
- Ito, T. A., J. T. Larsen, et al. (1998). "Negative Information Weighs More Heavily on the Brain: The Negativity Bias in Evaluative Categorizations." Journal of Personality & Social Psychology **75**(4): 887-900.
- Jacoby, J. (1978). "Consumer Research: A State of the Art Review." Journal of Marketing **42**(2): 87-96.
- Jansen, B. J., M. Zhang, et al. (2009). Micro-blogging as online word of mouth branding. CHI '09 Extended Abstracts on Human Factors in Computing Systems. Boston, MA, USA, ACM: 3859-3864.

- Jevons, C. and G. Christodoulides (2010). Everything old is new again: Fifty Years of Consumers and UGC.
- Jevons, C. and M. Gabbott (2009). A Historical Review of the Development of Definitions of Brand. 5th Thought Leaders International Conference on Brand Management, Athens, Greece.
- Jinsong, H., S. Song, et al. (2013). "Attitude Toward the Viral Ad: Expanding Traditional Advertising Models to Interactive Advertising." Journal of Interactive Marketing (Mergent, Inc.) **27**(1): 36-46.
- Joachimsthaler, E. and D. A. Aaker (1997). "Building Brands Without Mass Media." Harvard Business Review **75**(1): 39-50.
- Johnson, E. J. and J. E. Russo (1984). "Product Familiarity and Learning New Information." Journal of Consumer Research **11**(1): 542-550.
- Johnston, K. L. and K. M. White (2003). "Binge-Drinking: A Test of the Role of Group Norms in the Theory of Planned Behaviour." Psychology & Health **18**(1): 63-77.
- Jones, J. P. and J. Slater (2003). What's in a Name? : Advertising and the Concept of Brands. Armonk, Armonk M.E. Sharpe, Inc.
- Juhary, J. (2012). "Online comments for language learning: a pilot study." Procedia Technology **1**(0): 297-302.
- Kamel Boulos, M. N. and S. Wheeler (2007). "The emerging Web 2.0 social software: an enabling suite of sociable technologies in health and health care education1." Health Information & Libraries Journal **24**(1): 2-23.
- Kanouse, D. E. (1984). "Explaining Negativity Biases in Evaluation and Choice Behavior: Theory and Research." Advances in Consumer Research **11**(1): 703-708.
- Kapferer, J.-N. (2008). The New Strategic Brand Management: Creating and Sustaining Brand Equity Long Term. London, Kogan Page.

- Kaplan, A. M. and M. Haenlein (2010). "Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media." Business Horizons **53**(1): 59-68.
- Kaplan, B. M. (1985). "ZAPPING-THE REAL ISSUE IS COMMUNICATION." Journal of Advertising Research **25**(2): 9.
- Kasper, H. (1988). "On problem perception, dissatisfaction and brand loyalty." Journal of Economic Psychology **9**(3): 387-397.
- Kassarjian, H. H. and T. S. Robertson (1981). Perspectives in Consumer Behavior. Glenview, Ill, Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Katz, E. and P. F. Lazarsfeld (1955). Personal Influence: The Part Played by People in the Flow of Mass Communications. New York, The Free Press of Glencoe.
- Kaye, B. (2007). Blog Use Motivations: An Exploratory Study. Blogging, Citizenship and the Future of Media. M. Tremayne. New York, NY, Routledge: 127-148.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). "Conceptualizing, Measuring, Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity." Journal of Marketing **57**(1): 1-22.
- Keller, K. L. (2003). "Brand Synthesis: The Multidimensionality of Brand Knowledge." Journal of Consumer Research **29**(4): 595-600.
- Keller, K. L. (2003). Strategic Brand Management: Building, Measuring, and Managing Brand Equity. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey, Pearson Education.
- Keller, K. L. (2009). "Building strong brands in a modern marketing communications environment." Journal of Marketing Communications **15**(2/3): 139-155.
- Keller, K. L. and D. R. Lehmann (2006). "Brands and Branding: Research Findings and Future Priorities." Marketing Science **25**(6): 740-759.
- Keppel, G. (1973). Design and Analysis: A Researcher's Handbook. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.

- Keppel, G. and W. Saufley (1980). Introduction to Design and Analysis. San Francisco, CA, W.H. Freeman and Company.
- Kerin, R. A. and R. Sethuraman (1998). "Exploring the Brand Value-Shareholder Value Nexus for Consumer Goods Companies." Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science **26**(4): 260-273.
- Kiecker, P. and D. Cowles (2001). "Interpersonal Communication and Personal Influence on the Internet: A Framework for Examining Online Word-of-Mouth." Journal of Euromarketing **11**(2): 71.
- Kietzmann, J. H., K. Hermkens, et al. (2011). "Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media." Business Horizons **54**(3): 241-251.
- Kim, J. (2012). "The institutionalization of YouTube: From user-generated content to professionally generated content." Media, Culture & Society **34**(1): 53-67.
- Klein, L. R. (1998). "Evaluating the Potential of Interactive Media through a New Lens: Search versus Experience Goods." Journal of Business Research **41**(3): 195-203.
- Ko, H., C.-H. Cho, et al. (2005). "Internet Uses and Gratifications " Journal of Advertising **34**(2): 57-70.
- Kosmitzki, C. (1996). "The Reaffirmation of Cultural Identity in Cross-Cultural Encounters." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **22**(3): 238-248.
- Kotler, P. (1991). Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning and Control. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P., V. Wong, et al. (2005). Principles of Marketing: European Edition. Harlow, Pearson Education Limited.
- Kover, A. J. and J. Abruzzo (1993). "The Rossiter-Percy Grid and Emotional Response to Advertising: An Initial Evaluation." Journal of Advertising Research **33**(6): 21-27.

- Kozinets, R. V. (2002). "The field behind the screen: Using netnography for marketing research in online communities." JMR, Journal of Marketing Research **39**(1): 61.
- Kozinets, R. V., K. de Valck, et al. (2010). "Networked Narratives: Understanding Word-of-Mouth Marketing in Online Communities." Journal of Marketing **74**(2): 71-89.
- Kozinets, R. V., A. Hemetsberger, et al. (2008). "The Wisdom of Consumer Crowds: Collective Innovation in the Age of Networked Marketing." Journal of Macromarketing **28**(4): 339-354.
- Krauskopf, K., C. Zahn, et al. (2012). "Leveraging the affordances of Youtube: The role of pedagogical knowledge and mental models of technology functions for lesson planning with technology." Computers & Education **58**(4): 1194-1206.
- Krishnamurthy, S. and W. Dou (2008). "Advertising with User-Generated Content: A Framework and Research Agenda." Journal of Interactive Advertising **8**(2): 1-7.
- Krishnamurthy, S. and S. U. Kucuk (2009). "Anti-branding on the internet." Journal of Business Research **62**(11): 1119-1126.
- Kucuk, S. U. (2008). "Negative Double Jeopardy: The role of anti-brand sites on the internet." Journal of Brand Management **15**(3): 209-222.
- Kuhn, M. H. and T. S. McPartland (1954). "An Empirical Investigation of Self-Attitudes " American Sociological Review **19**(1): 68-76.
- Kuhn, T. S. (1962). The structure of scientific revolutions. Chicago University of Chicago Press.
- La Ferle, C. and S. M. Edwards (2006). "Product Placement." Journal of Advertising **35**(4): 65-86.
- Laband, D. (1991). "An Objective Measure of Search Versus Experience Good." Economic Enquiry **29**(3).

- Laczniak, R. N., T. E. DeCarlo, et al. (2001). "Consumers' Responses to Negative Word-of-Mouth Communication: An Attribution Theory Perspective." Journal of Consumer Psychology (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates) **11**(1): 57-73.
- Lake, C. (2011) "The 12 video sharing triggers you really need to know about." eConsultancy.
- Lange, P. G. (2007). "Publicly Private and Privately Public: Social Networking on YouTube." Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication **13**(1).
- Laroche, M., M. R. Habibi, et al. (2012). "The effects of social media based brand communities on brand community markers, value creation practices, brand trust and brand loyalty." Computers in Human Behavior **28**(5): 1755-1767.
- Laroche, M., I. Kiani, et al. (2013). "Effects of Multi-Channel Marketing on Consumers' Online Search Behavior: The Power of Multiple Points of Connection." Journal of Advertising Research **53**(4): 431-443.
- Laskey, H. A., E. Day, et al. (1989). "Typology of Main Message Strategies for Television Commercials." Journal of Advertising **18**(1): 36-41.
- Laskey, H. A., R. J. Fox, et al. (1995). "The Relationship Between Advertising Message Strategy and Television Commercial Effectiveness." Journal of Advertising Research **35**(2): 31-39.
- Lasswell, H. (1948). The structure and Function of Communication in Society. New York, Harper.
- Lavidge, R. J. and G. A. Steiner (1961). "A Model for Predictive Measurements of Advertising Effectiveness." Journal of Marketing **25**(6): 59-62.
- Lawrence, B., S. Fournier, et al. (2013). "When Companies Don't Make the Ad: A Multimethod Inquiry Into the Differential Effectiveness of Consumer-Generated Advertising." Journal of Advertising **42**(4): 292-307.

- Leach, J. (2000). Rhetorical Analysis. Qualitative Researching With Text, Image and Sound. M. Bauer and G. Gaskell. London, Sage.
- Lee, A., J. Aaker, et al. (2000). "The Pleasure and pains of distinct self-construals: The role of interdependence in regulatory focus." Journal of Personality & Social Psychology **78**(6).
- Lee, D., H. S. Kim, et al. (2012). "The role of self-construal in consumers' electronic word of mouth (eWOM) in social networking sites: A social cognitive approach." Computers in Human Behavior **28**(3): 1054-1062.
- Lee, R. P. W. and A. Ching Bui Tse (2001). "Zapping Behavior during Commercial Breaks." Journal of Advertising Research **41**(3): 25-29.
- Leone, R. P. and R. L. Schultz (1980). "A Study of Marketing Generalizations." Journal of Marketing **44**(1): 10-18.
- Levine, T. R., M. J. Bresnahan, et al. (2003). "Self-Construal Scales Lack Validity." Human Communication Research **29**(2): 210-252.
- Liberman, A. and S. Chaiken (1992). "Defensive Processing of Personally Relevant Health Messages." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **18**(6): 669-679.
- Lim, J. S. and G. J. Golan (2011). "Social Media Activism in Response to the Influence of Political Parody Videos on YouTube." Communication Research **38**(5): 710-727.
- Lin, Y.-C., C.-c. A. Chang, et al. (2012). "Self-construal and regulatory focus influences on persuasion: The moderating role of perceived risk." Journal of Business Research **65**(8): 1152-1159.
- Lin, Z., M. Moore, et al. (2011). "The Effect of Self-Construal on the Effectiveness of Comparative Advertising." Marketing Management Journal **21**(1): 195-206.

- Liu-Thompkins, Y. and M. Rogerson (2012). "Rising to Stardom: An Empirical Investigation of the Diffusion of User-generated Content." Journal of Interactive Marketing (Mergent, Inc.) **26**(2): 71-82.
- Liu, B. S.-C., O. Furrer, et al. (2001). "The Relationships Between Culture and Behavioral Intentions Toward Services " Journal of Service Research **4**(2): 118-129.
- Liu, S. S. and P. A. Stout (1987). "Effects of Message Modality and Appeal on Advertising Acceptance." Psychology & Marketing (1986-1998) **4**(3): 167-167.
- Lodish, L. M., M. Abraham, et al. (1995). "How T.V. Advertising Works: A Meta-Analysis of 389 Real World Split Cable T.V. Advertising Experiments." Journal of Marketing Research **32**(2): 125-139.
- Lovett, M. J., R. Peres, et al. (2013). "On Brands and Word of Mouth." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **50**(4): 427-444.
- Luo, M. M., S. Chea, et al. (2011). "Web-based information service adoption: A comparison of the motivational model and the uses and gratifications theory." Decision Support Systems **51**(1): 21-30.
- Lutz, R. (1981). The Role of Attitude Theory in Marketing. Perspectives in Consumer Behavior. H. H. Kassarian and T. S. Robertson. Glenview, Ill., Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Lutz, R. J. (1985). Affective and Cognitive Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad: A Conceptual Framework. Psychological Processes and Advertising Effects: Theory, Research and Application. L. F. Alwitt and A. A. Mitchell. New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lutz, R. J., S. B. McKenzie, et al. (1983). "Attitude Toward the Ad as a Mediator of Advertising Effectiveness: Determinants and Consequences." Advances in Consumer Research **10**(1): 532-539.

- Lyons, B. and K. Henderson (2005). "Opinion leadership in a computer-mediated environment." Journal of Consumer Behaviour 4(5): 319-329.
- MacKenzie, S. B. and R. J. Lutz (1989). "An Empirical Examination of the Structural Antecedents of Attitude Toward the Ad in an Advertising Pretesting Context." Journal of Marketing 53(2): 48-65.
- MacKenzie, S. B., R. J. Lutz, et al. (1986). "The Role of Attitude toward the Ad as a Mediator of Advertising Effectiveness: A Test of Competing Explanations." Journal of Marketing Research 23(2): 130-143.
- Maclaran, P. and M. Catteral (2002). "Researching the Social Web: Marketing Information from Virtual Communities." Marketing Intelligence and Planning 20(6).
- Madden, T. J., C. T. Allen, et al. (1988). "Attitude Toward the Ad: An Assessment of Diverse Measurement Indices Under Different Processing "Sets"." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) 25(3): 242-252.
- MarketingCharts (2014) "SMBs and Traditional Media Ads: Newspapers Most Popular; TV Most Effective."
- MarketingCharts (2013) "Data Dive: US TV Ad Spend and Influence (Updated – Q3 2013 Data)."
- Markus, H. R. and S. Kitayama (1991). "Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation." Psychological Review 98(2): 224-253.
- Matsumoto, D. (1999). "Culture and self: An empirical assessment of Markus and Kitayama's theory of independent and interdependent self-construal." Asian Journal of Social Psychology 2(3): 289-310.
- McCracken, G. (1993). The Value of Brand: An Anthropological Perspective. Brand Equity and Advertising: Advertising Role in Building Strong Brands. D. Aaker and A. Biel. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- McDonald, C. and J. Scott (2007). A Brief History of Advertising. The Sage Handbook of Advertising. G. J. Tellis and T. Ambler. London, Sage.
- McGuire, W. J. (1978). An Information processing model of advertising effectiveness. Behavioural and Management Science in Marketing. H. L. Davis and A. J. Silk. New York, Ronald and Wiley.
- Mehta, A. (2000). "Advertising Attitudes and Advertising Effectiveness." Journal of Advertising Research **40**(3): 67-72.
- Michaelidou, N. and L. Hassan (2014). "New advances in attitude and behavioural decision-making models." Journal of Marketing Management **30**(5/6): 519-528.
- Micu, A. C. and J. T. Plummer (2010). "Measurable Emotions: How Television Ads Really Work." Journal of Advertising Research **50**(2): 137-153.
- Miller, D. W. and L. J. Marks (1992). "Mental Imagery and Sound Effects in Radio Commercials." Journal of Advertising **21**(4): 83-93.
- Mitchell, A. A. and J. C. Olson (1981). "Are Product Attribute Beliefs the Only Mediator of Advertising Effects on Brand Attitude?" Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **18**(3): 318-332.
- Mittal, B. (1990). "The Relative Roles of Brand Beliefs and Attitude Toward the Ad as Mediators of Brand Attitude: A Second Look." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **27**(2): 209-219.
- Moore, D. L. and J. W. Hutchinson (1983). "The Effects of Ad Affect on Advertising Effectiveness." Advances in Consumer Research **10**(1): 526-531.
- Mortimer, K. and S. Grierson (2010). "The Relationship between culture and advertising appeals for services." Journal of Marketing Communications **16**(3).

- Muehling, D. D. and R. N. Laczniak (1992). "An Examination of Factors Mediating and Moderating Advertising's Effect on Brand Attitude Formation." Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising **14**(1): 23-34.
- Muñiz, A. M. and H. J. Schau (2007). "Vigilante Marketing and consumer-Created Communications " Journal of Advertising **36**(3): 35-50.
- Muñiz Jr, A. M. and H. J. Schau (2011). "How to inspire value-laden collaborative consumer-generated content." Business Horizons **54**(3): 209-217.
- Murugiah, K., A. Vallakati, et al. (2011). "YouTube as a source of information on cardiopulmonary resuscitation." Resuscitation **82**(3): 332-334.
- Mutinga, D., M. Moorman, et al. (2011). "Introducing COBRAs, Exploring motivations for brand-related social media use." International Journal of Advertising **30**(1).
- National Statistics, O. f. (2012). Internet Access - Households and Individuals, 2012 part 2. Statistical Bulletin, Office for National Statistics.
- National Statistics, O. f. (2013). Internet Access Quarterly Update, Q1 2013. Statistical Bulletin, Office for National Statistics.
- Nelson, P. (1974). "Advertising as Information." Journal of Political Economy **82**(4): 729.
- Neuendorf, K. A. (2002). The Content Analysis Guidebook. Thousand Oaks, California, Sage.
- Nezlek, J. B., K. Kafetsios, et al. (2008). "Emotions in Everyday Social Encounters: Correspondence Between Culture and Self-Construal." Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology **39**(4): 366-372.
- Ng, S. and M. J. Houston (2006). "Exemplars or Beliefs? The Impact of Self-View on the Nature and Relative Influence of Brand Associations." Journal of Consumer Research **32**(4): 519-529.
- Nielsen (2010). How People Watch: A Global Nielsen Consumer Report, Nielsen 15.

- Nunnally, J. (1978). Psychometric Theory. New York, McGraw Hill.
- Nyilasy, G. and L. N. Reid (2009). "Agency Practitioner Theories of How Advertising Works." Journal of Advertising **38**(3): 81-96.
- O'Reilly, T. (2007). "What is Web 2.0: Design Patterns and Business Models for the Next Generation of Software." Communication and Strategies **65**.
- OECD (2007) "Participative Web: User Created Content."
- Ogilvy, D. (1983). Ogilvy on Advertising. London, Orbis Publishing.
- Ogilvy, D. and J. Raphaelson (1982). "Research on advertising techniques that work--and don't work." Harvard Business Review **60**(4): 14.
- Ohanian, R. (1991). "The Impact of Celebrity Spokespersons' Perceived Image on Consumers' Intention to Purchase." Journal of Advertising Research **31**(1): 46-54.
- Okazaki, S., B. Mueller, et al. (2010). "Global Consumer Culture Positioning: Testing Perceptions of Soft-Sell and Hard-Sell Advertising Appeals Between U.S. and Japanese Consumers." Journal of International Marketing **18**(2): 20-34.
- Oliver, R. L. (1993). "Cognitive, Affective, and Attribute Bases of the Satisfaction Response." Journal of Consumer Research **20**(3): 418-430.
- Oliver, R. L., T. S. Robertson, et al. (1993). "Imaging and Analyzing in Response to New Product Advertising." Journal of Advertising **22**(4): 35-50.
- Olney, T. J., M. B. Holbrook, et al. (1991). "Consumer Responses to Advertising: The Effect of Ad Content, Emotions, and Attitude toward the Ad on Viewing Time." Journal of Consumer Research **17**(4): 440-453.
- Olson, J. M. and M. P. Zanna (1993). "Attitudes and Attitude Change." Annual Review of Psychology **Vol. 44**: 117-154
- Ostrom, T. M. (1969). "The relationship between the affective, behavioral, and cognitive components of attitude." Journal of Experimental Social Psychology **5**(1): 12-30.

- Oyserman, D. (1993). "The lens of personhood: Viewing the self and others in a multicultural society." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology **65**(5): 993-1009.
- Oyserman, D., H. M. Coon, et al. (2002). "Rethinking Individualism and Collectivism: Evaluation of Theoretical Assumptions and Meta-Analyses." Psychological Bulletin **128**(1): 3-72.
- Pace, S. (2008). "YouTube: an opportunity for consumer narrative analysis?" Qualitative Market Research **11**(2): 213-226.
- Paek, H.-J., K. Kim, et al. (2010). "Content analysis of antismoking videos on YouTube: message sensation value, message appeals, and their relationships with viewer responses." Health Education Research **25**(6): 1085-1099.
- Pandey, A., N. Patni, et al. (2010). "YouTube As a Source of Information on the H1N1 Influenza Pandemic." American Journal of Preventive Medicine **38**(3): e1-e3.
- Paolillo, J. C. (2008). Structure and Network in the YouTube Core. Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Proceedings of the 41st Annual.
- Pendergrast, M. (1993). For God, Country and Coca-Cola: The unauthorised history of the great American soft drink and the company that makes it. London, George Weidenfeld and Nicolson Ltd.
- Penn, G. (2000). Semiotic Analysis of Still Images. Qualitative Researching With Text, Image and Sound. M. Bauer and G. Gaskell. London, Sage.
- Peracchio, L. A. and J. Meyers-Levy (1994). "How Ambiguous Cropped Objects in Ad Photos Can Affect Product Evaluations." Journal of Consumer Research **21**(1): 190-204.
- Percy, L. and J. R. Rossiter (1983). Mediating Effects of Visual and Verbal Elements in Print Advertising upon Belief, Attitude and Intention Responses. Advertising and Consumer Psychology. L. Percy and A. G. Woodside. Lexington, Lexington Books.

- Percy, L. and J. R. Rossiter (1992). "A Model of Brand Awareness and Brand Attitude Advertising Strategies." Psychology and Marketing **9**(4): 263.
- Perreault Jr, W. D. and L. E. Leigh (1989). "Reliability of Nominal Data Based on Qualitative Judgments." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **26**(2): 135-148.
- Peterson, R. A. (2001). "On the Use of College Students in Social Science Research: Insights from a Second-Order Meta-analysis." Journal of Consumer Research **28**(3): 450-461.
- Petty, R. and J. Cacioppo (1983). Central and Peripheral Routes to Persuasion: Application to Advertising. Advertising and Consumer Psychology. L. Percy and A. Woodside. Lexington, Massachusetts, Lexington Books.
- Petty, R. and J. Cacioppo (1986). Communication and Persuasion: Central and Peripheral Routes to Attitude Change New York, Springer-Verlag.
- Petty, R. E. and J. T. Cacioppo (1981). Attitudes and persuasion: Classic and contemporary approaches. Dubuque, IA, Wm. C. Brown.
- Petty, R. E., J. T. Cacioppo, et al. (1983). "Central and Peripheral Routes to Advertising Effectiveness: The Moderating Role of Involvement." Journal of Consumer Research **10**(2): 135-146.
- Petty, R. E., R. H. Unnava, et al. (1991). theories of Attitude Change. Handbook of Consumer Behavior. T. Robertson and H. Kassarian. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Petty, R. E., D. T. Wegener, et al. (1997). "Attitudes and attitude change." Annual Review of Psychology **48**: 609.
- Pinkleton, B. (1997). "The Effects of Negative Comparative Political Advertising on Candidate Evaluations and Advertising Evaluations: An Exploration." Journal of Advertising **26**(1): 19-29.
- Pires, G. D., J. Stanton, et al. (2006). "The internet, consumer empowerment and marketing strategies." European Journal of Marketing **40**(9/10): 936-949.

- Pitt, L. F., P. R. Berthon, et al. (2002). "The Internet and the birth of real consumer power." Business Horizons **45**(4): 7.
- Pollay, R. W. (1983). "Measuring the Cultural Values Manifest in Advertising." Current Issues & Research in Advertising **6**(1): 71.
- Polyorat, K. and D. L. Alden (2005). "Self-Construal and Need-For-Cognition Effects on Brand Attitudes and Purchase Intentions in Response to Comparative Advertising in Thailand and the United States " Journal of Advertising **34**(1): 37-48.
- Porter, M. (1976). Interbrand Choice, Strategy, and Bilateral Market Power Cambridge MA, Harvard University Press.
- Prahalad, C. K. and V. Ramaswamy (2004). "Co-Creation Experiences: The Next Practice in Value Creation." Journal of Interactive Marketing **18**(3): 5-14.
- Pratkanis, A. (1995). Advertising. The Blackwell encyclopedia of social psychology. A. S. R. Manstead and M. Hewstone. Oxford Blackwell.
- Pratkanis, A. R. and A. G. Greenwald (1989). "A Socio-Cognitive Model of Attitude and Function." Advances in Experimental Social Psychology **22**: 245-285.
- Privitera, G. (2012). Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage
- Putrevu, S. and K. R. Lord (1994). "Comparative and Noncomparative Advertising: Attitudinal Effects under Cognitive and Affective Involvement Conditions." Journal of Advertising **23**(2): 77-91.
- Putrevu, S. and K. R. Lord (2003). "Processing Internet Communications: A Motivation, Opportunity and Ability Framework." Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising (CTC Press) **25**(1): 45.
- Raacke, J. and J. Bonds-Raacke (2008). "MySpace and Facebook: Applying the Uses and Gratifications Theory to Exploring Friend-Networking Sites." CyberPsychology & Behavior **11**(2): 169-174.

- Raggio, R. D. and R. P. Leone (2007). "The theoretical separation of brand equity and brand value: Managerial implications for strategic planning." Journal of Brand Management **14**(5): 380-395.
- Raggio, R. D. and R. P. Leone (2009). "Chasing brand value: Fully leveraging brand equity to maximise brand value." Journal of Brand Management **16**(4): 248-263.
- Rappaport, S. D. (2007). "Lessons from Online Practice: New Advertising Models." Journal of Advertising Research **47**(2): 135-141.
- Reichheld, F. F. (2004). *The One Number you need to Grow*, Harvard Business School Publication Corp. **82**: 133-133.
- Remeyi, D., B. Williams, et al. (1998). Doing Research in Business and Management: An Introduction to Process and Method London, Sage.
- Republic, B. (2006) "Love and Hated Brands."
- Republic, B. (2009) "The 100 Most Mentioned Brands in Twitter."
- Resnik, A. and B. L. Stern (1977). "An Analysis of Information Content in Television Advertising." Journal of Marketing **41**(1): 50-53.
- Rheingold, H. (1993). The Virtual Community: Homesteading on the Electronic Frontier. Cambridge, The MIT Press.
- Rice, B. and R. Bennett (1998). "The Relationship Between Brand Usage and Advertising Tracking Measurements: International Findings." Journal of Advertising Research **38**(3): 58-66.
- Richey, M. H., R. J. Koenigs, et al. (1975). "Negative Salience in Impressions of Character: Effects of Unequal Proportions of Positive and Negative Information." Journal of Social Psychology **97**(2): 233.
- Richins, M. L. (1983). "Negative Word-of-Mouth by Dissatisfied Consumers: A Pilot Study." Journal of Marketing **47**(1): 68-78.

- Ridings, C. M. and D. Gefen (2004). "Virtual Community Attraction: Why People Hang Out Online." Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication **10**(1): 00-00.
- Riffe, D., S. Lacy, et al. (2005). Analyzing Media Messages: Using Quantitative Content Analysis in Research. New York, NY, Routledge.
- Rodgers, S. and E. Thorson (2000). "The Interactive Advertising Model: How Users Perceive and Process Online Ads." Journal of Interactive Advertising **1**(1): 19.
- Romaniuk, J. and E. Nicholls (2006). "Evaluating advertising effects on brand perceptions: incorporating prior knowledge." International Journal of Market Research **48**(2): 179-192.
- Romaniuk, J. and S. Wight (2009). "The influence of brand usage on responses to advertising awareness measures." International Journal of Market Research **51**(2): 203-218.
- Rossiter, J. R. (1982). "Visual Imagery: Applications to Advertising." Advances in Consumer Research **9**(1): 101-106.
- Rossiter, J. R. and L. Percy (1978). "Visual Imaging Ability as a Mediator of Advertising Response." Advances in Consumer Research **5**(1): 621-629.
- Rossiter, J. R. and L. Percy (1980). "Attitude Change Through Visual Imagery in Advertising" Journal of Advertising **9**(2): 10-16.
- Rossiter, J. R. and L. Percy (1985). "Advertising Communication Models" Advances in Consumer Research **12**(1): 510-524.
- Rossiter, J. R., L. Percy, et al. (1991). "A Better Advertising Planning Grid." Journal of Advertising Research **31**(5): 11-21.
- Ruiz, S. and M. Sicilia (2004). "The impact of cognitive and/or affective processing styles on consumer response to advertising appeals." Journal of Business Research **57**: 657-664.
- Rust, R. T. and B. Cooil (1994). "Reliability Measures for Qualitative Data: Theory and Implications." Journal of Advertising Research **31**(14).

- Ryder, A. G., L. E. Alden, et al. (2000). "Is Acculturation Unidimensional or Bidimensional? A Head-to-Head Comparison in the Prediction of Personality, Self-Identity, and Adjustment." Journal of Personality & Social Psychology **79**(1): 49-65.
- Ryu, G. and J. K. Han (2009). "Word-of-mouth transmission in settings with multiple opinions: The impact of other opinions on WOM likelihood and valence." Journal of Consumer Psychology **19**(3): 403-415.
- Sabri, O. and G. Michel (2014). "When Do Advertising Parodies Hurt? The Power of Humor and Credibility In Viral Spoof Advertisements." Journal of Advertising Research **54**(2): 233-247.
- Sagiv, L. and S. Schwartz (2000). "Value priorities and subjectivewell-being: Direct relations and congruity effects." European Journal of Social Psychology **30**(2): 177-198.
- Salwen, M. and D. Sacks (2008). An Integrated Approach to Communication Theory and Research. Mahwah, NJ, Routledge.
- Sarantakos, S. (2013). Social Research. Basingstoke, Hampshire, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Sawyer, A. (1981). Repetition, Cognitive Responses and Persuasion. Cognitive Responses in Persuasion. R. E. Petty, T. M. Ostrom and T. C. Brock. Hillsdale, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates 263-282.
- Schau, H. J. and M. C. Gilly (2003). "We Are What We Post? Self-Presentation in Personal Web Space." Journal of Consumer Research **30**(3): 385-404.
- Schmitt, B. H., Y. Pan, et al. (1994). "Language and Consumer Memory: The impact of Linguistic Differences between Chinese and English." Journal of Consumer Research **21**(3): 419-431.
- Scholten, M. (1996). "Lost and Found: The Information-Processing Model of Advertising Effectiveness." Journal of Business Research **37**(2): 97-104.

- Schramm, W. (1955). How communication works, in The Process and Effects of Mass Communications. Urbana, University of Illinois.
- Scott, C. A. and A. M. Tybout (1981). "Theoretical Perspectives on the Impact of Negative Information: Does Valence Matter?" Advances in Consumer Research **8**(1): 408-409.
- Sekuler, R. and R. Blake (1994). Perception. New York, McGraw Hill.
- Senecal, S. and J. Nantel (2004). "The influence of online product recommendation on consumers' online choices." Journal of Retailing **80**(2): 159-169.
- Settle, R. B. and L. L. Golden (1974). "Attribution Theory and Advertiser Credibility." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **11**(2): 181-185.
- Shamma, D. A., M. Bastea-Forte, et al. (2008). Enhancing online personal connections through the synchronized sharing of online video. CHI '08 Extended Abstracts on Human Factors in Computing Systems. Florence, Italy, ACM: 2931-2936.
- Shannon, C. and W. Weaver (1962). The Mathematical Theory of Communication. Urbana, University of Illinois.
- Shao, G. (2009). "Understanding the appeal of user-generated media: a uses and gratification perspective." Internet Research **19**(1): 7-25.
- Shavelson, R. J. and R. Bolus (1982). "Self-Concept: The Interplay of Theory and Methods." Journal of Educational Psychology **74** (1).
- Shavitt, S. and R. H. Fazio (1991). "Effects of Attribute Salience on the Consistency between Attitudes and Behavior Predictions." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **17**(5): 507-516.
- Shavitt, S., P. Lowrey, et al. (1998). "Public Attitudes Toward Advertising: More Favorable Than You Might Think." Journal of Advertising Research **38**(4): 7-22.

- Shaw Ching Liu, B., D. Sudharshan, et al. (2000). "After service response in service quality assessment: a real time updating model approach." Journal of Services Marketing **14**(2): 160-177.
- Shimp, T. A. (1981). "Attitude Toward the Ad as a Mediator of Consumer Brand Choice." Journal of Advertising **10**(2): 9-48.
- Shu-Chuan, C. and S. Kamal (2008). "The Effect of Perceived Blogger Credibility and Argument Quality on Message Elaboration and Brand Attitudes: An Exploratory Study " Journal of Interactive Advertising **8**(2): 1-31.
- Singelis, T. M. (1994). "The Measurement of Independent and Interdependent Self-Constructs." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **20**(5): 580-591.
- Singh, S. N. and C. A. Cole (1993). "The Effects of Length, Content, and Repetition on Television Commercial Effectiveness." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **30**(1): 91-104.
- Smith, A. and B. Peck (2010). "The teacher as the 'digital perpetrator': Implementing web 2.0 technology activity as assessment practice for higher education Innovation or Imposition?" Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences **2**(2): 4800-4804.
- Smith, A. N., E. Fischer, et al. (2012). "How Does Brand-related User-generated Content Differ across YouTube, Facebook, and Twitter?" Journal of Interactive Marketing **26**(2): 102-113.
- Smith, R. E. and W. R. Swinyard (1982). "Information Response Models: An Integrated Approach." Journal of Marketing **46**(1): 81-93.
- Smith, R. E. and W. R. Swinyard (1983). "Attitude-Behavior Consistency: The Impact of Product Trial versus Advertising." Journal of Marketing Research **20**(3): 257-267.
- Smith, S. and R. Petty (1996). "Message Framing and Persuasion: A Message Processing Analysis." Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin **22**(3): 257-268.

- Smith, T. (2009). "The social media revolution." International Journal of Market Research **51**(4): 559-561.
- Sood, A., S. Sarangi, et al. (2011). "YouTube as a Source of Information on Kidney Stone Disease." Urology **77**(3): 558-562.
- Sparkman Jr, R. M. and W. B. Locander (1980). "Attribution Theory and Advertising Effectiveness." Journal of Consumer Research **7**(3): 219-224.
- Spears, N. and S. N. Singh (2004). "Measuring Attitude Toward the Brand and Purchase Intentions." Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising **26**(2): 53-66.
- Spreng, R. A., S. B. MacKenzie, et al. (1996). "A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction." Journal of Marketing **60**(3): 15.
- Stapel, D. A. and W. Koomen (2001). "I, we, and the effects of others on me: How self-construal level moderates social comparison effects." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology **80**(5): 766-781.
- Stead, M., S. Tagg, et al. (2005). "Development and evaluation of a mass media Theory of Planned Behaviour intervention to reduce speeding." Health Education Research **20**(1): 36-50.
- Stephen, A. T. and J. Galak (2012). "The Effects of Traditional and Social Earned Media on Sales: A Study of a Microlending Marketplace." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **49**(5): 624-639.
- Stern, B. B. (2006). "What Does Brand Mean? Historical-Analysis Method and Construct Definition." Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science **34**(2): 216-223.
- Stern, D. L., D. M. Krugman, et al. (1981). "Magazine Advertising: An Analysis of Its Information Content." Journal of Advertising Research **21**(2): 39-44.
- Stewart, D., J. Barnes, et al. (2001). "Factor Analysis." Journal of Consumer Psychology (Lawrence Erlbaum Associates) **10**(1/2): 75-82.

- Steyn, P., M. T. Ewing, et al. (2011). "From whence it came." International Journal of Advertising **30**(1): 133-160.
- Stoeckl, R., P. Rohrmeier, et al. (2007). Motivations to produce User Generated Content: Differences between bloggers and videobloggers. Bled eConference. Bled, Slovenia, Merging and Emerging Technologies, Processes and Institutions.
- Strong, E. K. (1925). The Psychology of Selling. New York, McGraw Hill.
- Su, J., R. Lee, et al. (2013). "The Role of Culture and Self-Construal in the Link Between Expressive Suppression and Depressive Symptoms." Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology **44**(2).
- Sung, Y. and S. M. Choi (2012). "The Influence of Self-construal on Self-brand Congruity in the United States and Korea." Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology **43**(1).
- Swaminathan, V., K. L. Page, et al. (2007). "'My' Brand or 'Our' Brand: The Effects of Brand Relationship Dimensions and Self-Construal on Brand Evaluations." Journal of Consumer Research **34**(2): 248-259.
- Sweeney, J. C., G. N. Soutar, et al. (2008). "Factors influencing word of mouth effectiveness: receiver perspectives." European Journal of Marketing **42**(3/4): 344-364.
- Tabachnick, B. and L. Fidell (2007). Using Multivariate Statistics. Boston, Allyn and Bacon.
- Taylor, D., J. Lewin, et al. (2011). "Friends, Fans, and Followers: Do Ads Work on Social Networks?" Journal of Advertising Research **51**(1): 258-275.
- Tellis, G. J. and C. Fornell (1988). "The Relationship Between Advertising and Product Quality Over the Product Life Cycle: A Contingency Theory." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **25**(1): 64-71.
- The Economist (2009) "Did Dave Carroll lose United Airlines \$ 180m?" The Economist.
- Thomas Jr, G. M. (2004). "Building the buzz in the hive mind." Journal of Consumer Behaviour **4**(1): 64-72.

- Tiwari, M. K. (2010). "Separation of Brand Equity and Brand Value." Global Business Review **11**(3): 421-434.
- Trafimow, D., H. C. Triandis, et al. (1991). "Some Tests of the Distinction Between the Private Self and the Collective Self." Journal of Personality & Social Psychology **60**(5): 649-655.
- Triandis, H. C., D. K. S. Chan, et al. (1995). "Multimethod Probes of Allocentrism and Idiocentrism." International Journal of Psychology **30**(4): 461.
- Triandis, H. C., K. Leung, et al. (1985). "Allocentric versus idiocentric tendencies: Convergent and discriminant validation." Journal of Research in Personality **19**(4): 395-415.
- Trusov, M., R. E. Bucklin, et al. (2009). "Effects of Word-of-Mouth Versus Traditional Marketing: Findings from an Internet Social Networking Site." Journal of Marketing **73**(5): 90-102.
- Tsai, S.-P. (2007). "Message Framing Strategy for Brand Communication." Journal of Advertising Research **47**(3): 364-377.
- Tsao, H.-Y., P. Berthon, et al. (2011). "Brand signal quality of products in an asymmetric online information environment: An experimental study." Journal of Consumer Behaviour **10**(4): 169-178.
- Tybout, A. M., B. J. Calder, et al. (1981). "Using Information Processing Theory to Design Marketing Strategies." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **18**(1): 73-79.
- University of, B. (2013). Code of Practice for Research. B. University of. Birmingham: 16.
- University_of_Birmingham (2010). University Statistics: Students Registered by School and College, University of Birmingham.
- Vakratsas, D. and T. Ambler (1999). "How Advertising Works: What Do We Really Know?" Journal of Marketing **63**(1): 26-43.

- van Baaren, R. B., W. W. Maddux, et al. (2003). "It Takes Two to Mimic: Behavioral Consequences of Self-Construals." Journal of Personality & Social Psychology. 84(5):1093-1102
- 84(5): 1093-1102.**
- Vanden Bergh, B. G., M. Lee, et al. (2011). "The multidimensional nature and brand impact of user-generated ad parodies in social media." International Journal of Advertising **30(1): 103-131.**
- Vaughn, R. (1980). "How Advertising Works: A Planning Model." Journal of Advertising Research **20(5): 27.**
- Vaughn, R. (1986). "How Advertising Works: A Planning Model Revisited " Journal of Advertising Research **26(1): 57.**
- Verma, V. K. (1980). "A Price Theoretic Approach to the Specification and Estimation of the Sales-Advertising Function." Journal of Business **53(3): 115-137.**
- Vinson, D. E. and W. J. Lundstrom (1978). "The Use of Students as Experimental Subjects in Marketing Research." Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science **6(2): 114.**
- Vrontis, D. and I. Sharp (2003). "The Strategic Positioning of Coca-Cola in their Global Marketing Operation." Marketing Review **3(3): 289-309.**
- w00t_Media (2013). Generation Y and Brand Loyalty, w00t Media!
- Wang, X., C. Yu, et al. (2012). "Social Media Peer Communication and Impacts on Purchase Intentions: A Consumer Socialization Framework." Journal of Interactive Marketing **26(4): 198-208.**
- Wangenheim, F. V. and T. Bayón (2004). "The effect of word of mouth on services switching." El efecto del boca a boca en el cambio de servicios: medición y variables moderadoras. **38(9/10): 1173-1185.**

- Warshaw, P. R. and F. D. Davis (1985). "Disentangling behavioral intention and behavioral expectation." Journal of Experimental Social Psychology **21**(3): 213-228.
- Weilbacher, W. M. (2003). "How Advertising Affects Consumers." Journal of Advertising Research **43**(2): 230-234.
- Weinberger, M. G., C. T. Allen, et al. (1981). "Negative Information: Perspectives and Research Directions " Advances in Consumer Research **8**(1): 398-404.
- Weinberger, M. G. and E. Lepkowska-White (2000). "The Influence of Negative Information on Purchase Behaviour." Journal of Marketing Management **16**(5): 465-481.
- Westbrook, R. A. (1987). "Product/ Consumption-Based Affective Responses and Postpurchase Processes." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **24**(3): 258-270.
- Whan Park, C., D. J. MacInnis, et al. (2010). "Brand Attachment and Brand Attitude Strength: Conceptual and Empirical Differentiation of Two Critical Brand Equity Drivers." Journal of Marketing **74**(6): 1-17.
- Wheatley, J. J. (1968). "Influence of Commercial's Length and Position." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **5**(2): 199-202.
- Wheeler, L. (1970). *Interpersonal Influence*. Boston, MA, Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- White, P. (2009). Developing Research Questions: A guide for social scientists. Houndmills, Basingtoke, Pgrave Macmillan.
- Wicker, A. (1969). "Attitudes versus Actions: The Relationship of Verbal and Overt Behavioral Responses to Attitude Objects." Journal of Social Issues **25**(4): 41-78.
- Wiener, J. L. and J. C. Mowen (1986). "Source Credibility: On the Independent Effects of Trust and Expertise." Advances in Consumer Research **13**(1): 306-310.
- Wikstrom, S. (1995). "The customer as co-producer." European Journal of Marketing **30**(4): 14.

- Wilson, E. J. and D. L. Sherrell (1993). "Source Effects in Communication and Persuasion Research: A Meta-Analysis of Effect Size." Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science **21**(2): 101.
- Winchester, M. and J. Romaniuk (2008). "Negative brand beliefs and brand usage." International Journal of Market Research **50**(3): 355-375.
- Wood, L. M. (1996). "Added Value: Marketing Basics?" Journal of Marketing Management **12**(8): 735-755.
- WPP (2011). Brandz Top100 Most Valuable Brands.
- Wright, L. T. and M. Crimp (2000). The Marketing Research Process. Harlow, Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Wright, P. L. (1973). "The Cognitive Processes Mediating Acceptance of Advertising." Journal of Marketing Research (JMR) **10**(1): 53-62.
- Xu, C., C. Dale, et al. (2008). Statistics and Social Network of YouTube Videos. Quality of Service, 2008. IWQoS 2008. 16th International Workshop on.
- Yang, S., M. Hu, et al. (2012). "An Empirical Study of Word of Mouth Generation and Consumption." Marketing Science **31**(6).
- Ybarra, O. and DavidTrafimow (1998). "How Priming the private self or collective self affects the relative weights of attitudes and subjective norms." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **24**(4).
- Yinlong Zhang and L. J. Shrum (2009). "The Influence of Self-Construal on Impulsive Consumption." Journal of Consumer Research **35**(5): 838-850.
- Yousafzai, S. Y., G. R. Foxall, et al. (2010). "Explaining Internet Banking Behavior: Theory of Reasoned Action, Theory of Planned Behavior, or Technology Acceptance Model?" Journal of Applied Social Psychology **40**(5): 1172-1202.

- YouTube. (2010). "Terms of Service." Retrieved 4 May 2012, from <http://www.youtube.com/static?template=terms>.
- Youtube. (2010). "YouTube Insights." Retrieved 10 June 2010, from http://www.gstatic.com/youtube/engagement/platform/autoplay/advertise/downloads/YouTube_Insight.pdf.
- YouTube. (2011). "YouTube Trends." Retrieved 9 July, 2011, from <http://youtube-trends.blogspot.com/>.
- YouTube (2012). Community Guidelines.
- YouTube. (2012). "What is Copyright?" Retrieved 15 Jun 2012, 2012, from <http://www.youtube.com/yt/copyright/what-is-copyright.html>.
- YouTube. (2012). "YouTube Statistics." Retrieved 23 December 2012, 2012, from http://www.youtube.com/t/press_statistics.
- YouTube. (2013). "Brand Channels." Retrieved 11 March, 2013, from http://www.youtube.com/t/advertising_brand_channels.
- YouTube. (2014). "YouTube Statistics." Retrieved 2 September 2014, 2014, from http://www.youtube.com/t/press_statistics.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). "FAMILIARITY: PRODUCT USE, INVOLVEMENT OR EXPERTISE." Advances in Consumer Research **12**(1): 296-299.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). "Measuring the Involvement Construct." Journal of Consumer Research **12**: 341-352.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1986). "CONCEPTUALIZING INVOLVEMENT." Journal of Advertising **15**: 4-34.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1984). "On the primacy of affect." American Psychologist **39**(2): 117-123.
- Zajonc, R. B. and H. Markus (1982). "Affective and Cognitive Factors in Preferences." Journal of Consumer Research **9**(2): 123-131.

Zeithaml, V. A., L. L. Berry, et al. (1996). "The Behavioral Consequences of Service Quality." Journal of Marketing **60**(2): 31-46.

Zhang, J. (2009). "THE EFFECT OF ADVERTISING APPEALS IN ACTIVATING SELF-CONSTRUALS." Journal of Advertising **38**(1): 63-81.

Zhang, Y., L. Feick, et al. (2008). "The Impact of Self-Construal on Aesthetic Preference for Angular Versus Rounded Shapes." Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin **32**(6): 794-805.

10. APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Different types of user generated content

Type of content	Description
Text	Users create text, poems, novels, quizzes, jokes shared with a like-minded community and allowing the diffusion of works of amateur authors and feedback from the community.
Photo and Images	Users create photos generally taken with digital cameras. Photos may or may not be manipulated with photo editing software. Content on certain sites is largely published under a Creative Commons licence, building and attractive resource for web designers, publishers and journalists.
Music and Audio	User-created audio content on the internet varies widely, ranging from the combination of two or more songs into a single track to the posting of self-created music by amateur musicians, to creating a radio-like broadcast show to which users can subscribe, e.g., podcasts.
Video and Film	User-produced or edited video content has taken three primary forms on the web: homemade content, such as home videos or short documentaries, remixes of pre-existing works such as film trailer remixes and hybrid forms that combine some form of self-produced video with pre-existing content.

Appendix 2

Different types of user generated content platforms

Type of platform	Description
Blog	Web pages containing user-created entries updated at regular intervals and/ or user submitted content that was investigated outside of traditional media.
Wikis and other Text-Based Collaboration Formats	Website that allows users to add, remove, or otherwise edit and change content collectively. Other sites allow users to log in and cooperate on editing of particular documents.
Sites allowing feedback or written works	Sites which allow writers and readers with a place to post and read stories, review stories and to communicate with other authors and readers through forums and chat rooms. Some examples are, Amazon, Dell-Hell, Ciao and Fan Fiction.net
Pod and video cast site	Internet platforms providing audio and/or video recording for real-time listening or downloading and allowing for the distribution of multimedia files using syndication feeds (podcast software FeeBurner, WinAmp, IpodderX@Podders) and also allowing playback on PCs or mobile devices. For instance, Itunes, which is not UGC specific
Social Networking Sites	Allows users to create personal profiles to connect to people where contact and relationships serve various purposes such as connecting to friends or business contacts and colleagues and also sharing content and services. Examples are Facebook, studiVZ, Bebo and MySpace or on a more professional level, Xing, LinkedIn
Video and Photo sharing sites	Platforms allowing users to present their own videos or photos and content may be mostly used without member registration. Youtube, Clipfish, Sevenload and Flickr are some examples.
Internet Forums	Text post made by users on online boards and includes discussions and forum on message boards and large email portals; this may serve as a membership group. Examples may be alumni boards from colleges and universities and Google groups such as Blogger Help Groups

Appendix 3

Ethical Review Approval Letter



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

Finance Office

Director of Finance
Mrs G Ball FCCA

9th December 2011

Dr George Christodoulides & Professor Douglas West
School of Business
University of Birmingham

Dear Dr Christodoulides & Professor West

Re: "User generated content: the effects of brand related videos on consumer brand perception"
Application for Ethical Review ERN_11-0794

Thank you for your application for ethical review for the above project, which was reviewed by the Humanities & Social Sciences Ethical Review Committee. The study was granted conditional ethical approval on 10th November 2011.

On behalf of the Committee, I can confirm the conditions of approval for the study have now been met and this study now has full ethical approval.

I would like to remind you that any substantive changes to the nature of the study as described in the Application for Ethical Review, and/or any adverse events occurring during the study should be promptly brought to the Committee's attention by the Principal Investigator and may necessitate further ethical review.

Please also ensure that the relevant requirements within the University's Code of Practice for Research and the information and guidance provided on the University's ethics webpages (available at <http://www.rcs.bham.ac.uk/ethics/links/index.shtml>) are adhered to and referred to in any future applications for ethical review. It is now a requirement on the revised application form (<http://www.rcs.bham.ac.uk/ethics/forms/index.shtml>) to confirm that this guidance has been consulted and is understood, and that it has been taken into account when completing your application for ethical review.

A hard copy of this approval letter will be sent to you via internal mail.

Yours sincerely


Professor Tom Sorell
Chair
Humanities & Social Sciences Ethical Review Committee

Cc Paulo Mora Avila

University of Birmingham Edgbaston Birmingham B15 2TT United Kingdom



INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

Appendix 4

Stage 1: UGA Content Analysis Coding Sheet

Date: October 2011

1. Video Identification number _____
2. Video Name _____
3. Brand Name _____
4. Creator _____
5. Number of videos posted by creator _____
6. Brand has an official YouTube channel _____
1. Yes 0. No
7. UGA is included within the first 10 videos of the list _____
1. Yes 0. No
8. Video Length _____
 1. Less than 59"
 2. 1' -1' 59"
 3. 2' – 2'59"
 4. 3' – 3'59"
 5. More than 4'
 - 6.
9. Overall video tone _____
1. Positive/like 2. Negative/dislike 3. Neutral / not shown
10. Creator's satisfaction with the brand/product: _____
 1. Satisfied
 2. Dissatisfied
 3. Neutral/ not shown
11. The creator of UGA recommends the brand to others _____
1. Yes 0. No
12. The creator of UGA portrays the brand with parody and spoof _____
1. Yes 0.No

52. Viewers' attitudes towards UGA according to number
of likes and dislikes

1. Positive

2. Negative

53. Viewers who marked UGA as their favourite

Appendix 5

Stage 1: Content analysis codebook

Variable	SPSS Variable	Coding Instruction
Video Identification	ID	Enter the number of video
Video Name	Vname	Enter the name of the video
Brand	Brand	Enter the name of the brand subject of the VUGC
Creator	Creator	Enter creator's name
Number of video posted by creator (This information is available in Youtube)	numvid	Enter the number of videos posted by the creator on YouTube
Brand official Channel: Indicates if the brand has an official channel on YouTube sponsored by the firm	Boffchannel	1. Yes 0. No
Video Position: VUGC is included within the first 10 videos of the list	VidPos	1. Yes 0. No
Video Length: Indicates the duration of the video broadcasted on YouTube, (Paek, Kim et al. 2010).	vlength	1. Less than 59" 2. 1' -1' 59" 3. 2' - 2'59" 4. 3' - 3'59" 5. More than 4'
Overall video tone	c_brand_att	1. Positive/like 2. Negative/dislike 3. Neutral / not shown

<p>Creator's degree of satisfaction with the brand/product:</p> <p>(Eroglu and Machleit 1990; Spreng, MacKenzie et al. 1996)</p>	C_satisf	<p>1. Satisfied 2. Dissatisfied</p> <p>3. Neutral not shown</p>
<p>Overall Video valence regarding the creator-brand relationship: Relates to the satisfaction of the creator with the brand</p> <p>(Anderson 1998; Dean 2004; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk 2009)</p>	vidvalsatisfy	<p>1. Yes</p> <p>0. No</p>
<p>Video valence regarding the creator-brand relationship: Relates to the creator recommendations of the brand to others</p> <p>(Anderson 1998; Dean 2004; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk 2009)</p>	vidvalrecomend	<p>1. Yes</p> <p>0. No</p>
<p>Overall credibility of the video: Measures if the video is overall credible or not</p>	vtoneaccurat	<p>1. Yes</p> <p>0. No</p>
<p>Does the video parody the brand</p>	vtoneparod	<p>1. Yes</p> <p>0. No</p>
<p>Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of safety influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)</p>	appealsafe	<p>1. yes</p> <p>0. No</p>

Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of fear influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealfear	1. Yes 0. No
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of love/affection influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealove	1. Yes 0. No
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of happiness/joy influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealjoy	1. yes 0. no
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of excitement influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealexcite	1. yes 0. no
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of arousal/stimulation influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealarousal	1. yes 0. no
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of ambition influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell	appealambition	1. yes 0. no

and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)		
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of comfort influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealcomfort	1. yes 0. no
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of recognition/acceptance influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealrecogn	1. yes 0. no
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of status influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealstatus	1. yes 0. no
Emotional message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of respect influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealrespect	1. yes 0. no
Cognitive message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of feature/specification influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010;	appealfeature	1. yes 0. no

Paek, Kim et al. 2010)		
Cognitive message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of price/cost influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealprice	1. yes 0. no
Cognitive message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of quality/performance influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealquality	1. yes 0. no
Cognitive message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of firm customer care influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealcustcare	1. yes 0. no
Cognitive message appeal: Indicates the distinctive claim of available information influence the creator of the video wants to convey in the receiver (Edell and Burke 1987; Mortimer and Grierson 2010; Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	appealinfo	1. yes 0. no
Video technique: Relates to the strategy used by creators in order to change viewers' brand perceptions (Ogilvy and Raphaelson 1982)	vtechnique	1. Problem solution 2. Entertain 3. Slice-of-Life (the character using the product in a non acted scene) 4. News (ideas, uses, information) 5. Testimonials

Audio / Music: Relates to the sound effects of the video (Paek, Kim et al. 2010)	audio	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sound Saturation 2. Background music 3. Sound effects 4. No audio 5. Just Dialogue
Characteristics of Brand Appearances: Relates to how the brand is portrayed in VUGC (Avery and Ferraro 2000; La Ferle and Edwards 2006)	bappearance	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Visual only 2. Verbal only 3. Visual and verbal 4. No appearance
Type of brand display when appears on camera: Relates to how the brand is portrayed in VUGC (La Ferle and Edwards 2006)	bdisplay	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brand / actual product 2. Logo appearance 3. Direct text/ mention of brand or product with no actual appearance 4. Indirect text/ mention of brand or product.
Visual incidents of brand position on VUGC: Relates to how the brand or product is appears on the video (Avery and Ferraro 2000)	bposition	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In foreground 2. Close-up 3. No-appearance
Verbal incidents of brand on VUGC: Relates to the number of mentions of the brand or product on the video (Avery and Ferraro 2000)	bverbal	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. One mention only 2. Two mention (at beginning and end) 3. Three or more (through the video) 4. No mention
Character involvement on VUGC: Relates to the appearance of people on VUGC (Avery and Ferraro 2000)	character	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes 0. No
Type of Incident involving character	Chainteract	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Visual only 2. Verbal only

interaction: Relates to how the character appears on VUGC (Avery and Ferraro 2000)		3. Visual and verbal 4. Not applicable
Type of character involvement: Relates to the character-brand (product) relation on camera.	Chabrand	1. Use brand only 2. Mention brand only 3. Use and mention brand 4. Not applicable
Categories of brands portrayed on VUGC: Relates to the different types of products and services subject of VUGC, (Resnik and Stern 1977; La Ferle and Edwards 2006; IAB 2010; Interbrand 2010)	bcategory	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Automotive (cars, motorbikes) 2. Food /groceries/non-alcoholic beverages 3. Retail –household products 4. Clothing/shoes/accessories (by brand) 5. Toys/games (non-technological) 6. Public Transportation (Airlines, trains, bus, Cruise) 7. Media and Entertainment 8. Technology products (radio, TV, cameras, computers, video games, home appliances, mobile phones) 9. Telecom services (internet/mobile and landline providers) 10. Banks/Financial services/insurance 11. Internet (retail, services) 12. Sports/Leisure/Sport Clubs 13. Charities

		14. Alcoholic Beverages 15. Consumer Products-Health/Beauty/Personal Care 16. Retail-Fashion
Video Popularity: Relates to the number of total viewers of VUGC, (Burgess and Green 2009; Youtube 2010)	vpopviews	Number of total views
Video Popularity: Relates to the number of total comments to the VUGC, (Burgess and Green 2009; Youtube 2010)	vpopcomments	Number of total comments
Video Ratings: Relates to the number of total viewers who like the VUGC, (Burgess and Green 2009; Youtube 2010)	vratinglike	Number of total video likes
Video Ratings: Relates to the number of total viewers who dislike the VUGC, (Burgess and Green 2009; Youtube 2010)	vratingdislike	Number of total video dislikes
Video Audience: Relates to the popularity of the video among different audiences by gender and age (YouTube 2011)	vaudiencemale	1. 12-19 2. 20-29 3. 30-39 4. 40-49 6. 50+
Video Audience: Relates to the popularity of the video among different audiences by gender and age (YouTube 2011)	vaudiencefemale	1. 12-19 2. 20-29 3. 30-39 4. 40-49 5. 50+
Attitude towards VUGC: Relates to the viewers' positive attitudes	vattitude	1. Positive 2. Negative

towards VUGC (Shavitt, Lowrey et al. 1998; Okazaki, Mueller et al. 2010)		
Viewers who marked VUGC as favourite	vfavour	Number of total video added as favourite

Appendix 6

Stage 1: Overall Brand appearances on the six rankings used in this study

	Best Global brands/Interbrand	Top 100 Most Valuable/Brands	Top 50 Hated Brands/Brand Republic reporting on Joshua Agency	Top 10 most hated brands/Marketing Magazine	Most Mentioned Brands on Twitter/Brand Republic	100 Social Brands/Headstream
3M	x					
Accenture	x				x	
Adidas	x					x
Adobe	x					
Agricultural Bank of China		x				
AIG					x	
Aldi		x				
All Saints						x
Allianz	x					
Amazon	x	x			x	x
American Express	x					
Andrex					x	
Aol			x			
Apple	x	x			x	
Armani	x					
Arsenal FC			x			
Asda				x		
Asos						x
At&t		x				
Audi	x				x	
AVG						x

Avon	x				x	x
AXA	x					
B&Q						x
Bai Du		x				
Bank of America		x				
Bank of China		x				
Barclays	x	x	x		x	
BBC					x	x
BBC Radio 1						x
Bebo			x			
Berkshire Hathaway					x	
Best Buy						x
Birds Eye					x	
Blackberry	x	x				
Blendtec						x
BMW	x				x	
Bosch					x	
BP		x			x	
Bradesco		x				
Brays Cottage Pork Pies						x
British Airways			x			
British Gas				x		x
BT				x	x	
BT Care			x			x
BT Openworld						
Budweiser	x				x	
Burberry	x					x
Burger King			x		x	x

Cadbury					x	
Cadbury Creme Egg			x			
Campbell's	x					
Canon	x				x	
Carlsberg						x
Carrefour		x				
Cartier	x				x	
Caterpillar	x					
Cbepbahk		x				
Chambers and Beau						x
Chanel					x	
Channel 4					x	x
Charmin						x
Chase		x				
Chelsea FC			x			
Childs i Foundation						x
Chiltern Trains						x
China construction Bank		x				
China Life		x				
China M Bank		x				
China Mobile		x				
China Telecom		x				
Christian Aid			x			
Cisco	x					
Citi	x	x				
Citibank					x	
Citroen					x	
Coca -Cola	x	x		x	x	x

Colgate	x				x	
Colgate-Palmolive					x	
colour DNA						x
Comcast					x	
Converse						x
Corona	x					
Credit Suisse	x					
Daily Star			x			
Danone	x					
Dell	x				x	x
Deutsche Telecom		x				
Direct Line					x	
Disney	x				x	x
Docomo		x				
Domino's Pizza						x
Dulux						x
Duracell					x	
e.l.f. Cosmetics						x
easyJet			x		x	
Ebay	x	x			x	
Eurosport			x			
Eurostar						x
Exxon Mobil		x				
Facebook			x			
Fat Face						x
Fedex		x			x	
Ferrari	x					
Ferrero Rocher			x			
Financial Times			x			

First Direct						X
Ford	X		X		X	X
Ford Scott Monty					X	
Fresh			X			
Friends Reunited			X			
GAP	X		X			X
GE	X	X				
Giffgaff						X
Gillette	X				X	
Goldman Sachs	X	X				
Google	X	X			X	
Gower Cottage Brownies						X
Groupon UK						X
Gucci	X				X	X
Guinness					X	
H&M	X	X			X	X
Habitat					X	
Heineken	X					X
Heinz	X				X	
Harley-Davison	X					
Hermes	X	X				
Honda	X	X			X	
HP	X	X			X	
HSBC	X				X	
Hyundai	X					
ICBC		X				
IBM	X	X			X	X
ICICI Bank		X				

Ikea	x				x	x
Innocent						x
Intel	x	x			x	
Ipod			x			
ITAU		x				
ITV2						x
J.P. Morgan	x					
Jack Daniel's	x					
Jimmy Choo						x
Joe Brown's						x
John Lewis						x
Johnie Walker	x					
Johnson & Johnson	x					
Kellog's	x					
KFC	x		x			
Kleenex	x					
KLM						x
Knorr					x	
Kwik Save			x			
Lancome	x					
Lego					x	
Levis					x	
Lexus					x	
Lidl			x			
Liz Earle					x	
London Midland						x
L'oreal	x				x	
Louis Vuitton	x				x	
Love Film					x	

M&S					x	
Manchester City FC						x
Manchester United			x			
Marlboro	x	x				
Marmite				x	x	x
Master Card		x				
MBNA			x			
McDonald's	x	x	x	x	x	x
Mercedes-Benz	x				x	
Microsoft	x	x			x	x
Microsoft Advertising						x
Mingles			x			
Moet & Chandon	x					
Moo						x
Morgan Stanley	x					
Mothercare			x			
Motorola			x		x	x
Movistar		x				
MTS		x				
MTV	x					
Muddy Boots Foods						x
MySpace			x			
Nescafe	x					
Nestle	x			x		
New Look						x
Next						x
N-Gage			x			
Nike	x	x			x	x
N.Plus						x

Nintendo	x	x				
Nissan		x			x	x
Nivea	x					
Nokia	x	x			x	x
O2		x	x		x	x
Old Spice						x
Oracle	x	x				
Orange			x			
OXO					x	
P&G						x
Paddy Power						x
Pampers						x
Panasonic	x	x				x
Pepsi	x				x	x
Petrobras		x				
Petrolchina		x				
PG Tips					x	
Philips	x					
Pingan		x				
Pizza Hut	x					
Play Station					x	
Porsche	x	x			x	
Primark				x		
Quantas						x
QVC			x			
RBC		x				
RBS					x	x
Red Bull		x				
Rolex					x	

Ryanair			x		x	
Sainsbury's			x		x	
Samsung	x	x				x
SAP	x	x				
Santander	x	x				
Sberbank		x				
Schweppes					x	
Scotiabank		x				
Sesame Street						x
Shell	x	x			x	
Siemens	x	x			x	
Skittles					x	
Skoda			x			
Sky						x
Sky News					x	
Sky Sports			x	x		x
Smart			x			
Smirnoff	x				x	x
Sony	x	x	x		x	x
Southampton FC						x
Spar			x			
Specsavers					x	
Sprite	x					
Standard Chartered		x				
Starbucks	x	x			x	x
Subway		x			x	
Sweaty Betty						x
T Mobile		x			x	x
Target		x				

Tate						x
TD		x				
Telcel		x				
Telecom		x				
Tenceni		x				
Tesco			x	x	x	
Thames Water						x
The Guardian					x	
The Home Depot		x				
The Huffington Post						x
The Sun			x			
The X Factor						x
Thomson Reuters	x					
Tiffany & Co.	x					
Tim		x				
Tk Maxx			x			
T-Mobile			x			
Top Shop			x			x
Toyota	x				x	x
Twisted Twee						x
Twitter						x
UBS	x				x	
Uniqlo						x
UPS	x	x			x	
US Bank		x				
Ushahidi						x
Vauxhall					x	x
Verison		x				
Victoria's Secret						x

Virgin Atlantic						x
Virtuous Bread						x
Visa	x	x				
Vodafone		x	x		x	x
Volkswagen	x				x	
Walker Crisps						x
Walkman						
Walmart		x				
War on Want			x			
Wells Fargo		x				
WKD						x
Xerox	x					
Yahoo	x				x	
Yoox						x
Zappos						x
Zara	x	x			x	
Zurich	x					

Appendix 7

Stage 1: List of videos and links

ID	Video name	Link
	Amazon Kindle fire	
1	Tablet	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UO1cN-AbJIA
	Blackberry Outgag	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=thkcLJfsnso&feature=related
2	10-10-2011	
	Hitler Loses his	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D9W6xjDWZI8&feature=related
3	Blackberry	
		http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5oSdhI9_TIs&feature=related
4	Blackberry Song	
	crackberry	
5	Blackberry	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JqKEe_JEObg
	Blackberry Gooder	
6	Than Iphone	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kEuVAf1enMw
		http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RLUexMKVZ50&feature=watch_response
7	Angry BT Customer	
	BT Complaints	
8	Warren Buckley	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WJ1i7Y8evJU
	BT (British	
	Telecommunication	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=08-8OVKbnNI&feature=related
9	s) Bad Service	
	Chase Bank in a	
10	Nutshell	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J_CDzkUeVI0
	Chase Bank	
11	Thieves and gangs	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=drV_TX2g_-U
	Chase Bank	
12	Robbed Me	http://www.youtube.com/watch?NR=1&v=VKm4frwPVhE
13	Chase Bank's Bitch	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HQflw70Gc0I
	Close your chase	
14	bank account	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Be7N4CEgNMw
	Chase Bank	
15	Swastika Logo	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NKCB2BFQyhU
	Screw you Chase	
16	Bank	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ETSnaj5nRHw
	Chase Bank Credit	
17	Card Etching	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C7SxXwx8BBY
	Milf too hot to work	
18	at Citibank	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SCniFrfJ4vg
	Still Drinking Coca	
19	Cola? Watch This	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SWKB_6lwcx4&feature=fvst
20	Owl City-Fire Flies	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nsGc6-INAHQ
	Ikea- Jonathan	
21	Coulton	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tGkalRgGMhs
	Stop Motion Ikea	
22	Furniture Assembly	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Kyan0ZdN3Ow
	I Fear Ikea by the	
23	Lancashire Hotspots	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aNcaaehKaC8
24	My. Ikea	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OjavjTvzIMw
	Kellogg's Corn Pop	
25	Commercial Spoof	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p3yrhm9JC2E
	Bugs in your	
	Kellogg's Cereal???	
26	MMMMmmmm	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=blxXf5Tepkh&feature=fvst
	The Kellogg's	
	Network (The social	
27	Network Parody)	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tnxU1FdcMHQ
28	Parody- A song to	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FDL7NuaD3Ro&feature=

	Dave Days- "Raspberry Remix" Frosted mini wheat commercial spoof:	
29	mini wheat mass Bohemian	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DKm8leEfdeU
30	Rhapsody Lego Rymdreglagle-8-bit- trip	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0_15G_tII38
31	Lego Black OPS	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4qsWFFuYZYI
32	Lego SpecAd-Life of a Lego Man	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=smETLCCPTVo
33	Master Card Commercial Parody (Doctor Who Style)	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vlswx3T-Er8&feature=related
34	American Tail	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7DKtSQe-kMw
35	Master card Cholera	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UOLum7PDISM
36	I Love MySpace	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DDZ5ks6oDxg
37	The MySpace Song	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PYQtP-YVgCU
38	MySpace Patrol Nintendo World	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2Q9q_NVKFEA
39	Store NYC	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ONLmacQcmul
40	I am Nintendo fanboi	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RbQaJmnWAMs&feature=watch_response
41	Brock Hunt (Nintendo 1984) Trailer-Nintendo world championship-angry video	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=l2aQu6qBnKs
42	Ryanair cheap flights funny	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0mEp45mM_BE
43	Ryanair Comedy Song	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g3so6AJe4UQ
44	The Ryanair Song- Only Fools and Horses	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c_nqwAKCq-Q
45	Ryanair Song Lets Fly Ryanair	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BdnQLDcDVSc&feature=related
46	Ryanair Landing Announcement	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gKrwstbC8Ho&feature=endscreen&NR=1
47	Starbucks Rap	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LmRrQw4Us9o
48	The Starbucks Rant Song	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1qK5GZp4NAk
49	The Starbucks Rant Song2	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MUTrJW-0xtc
50	171 Starbucks The Gentlemen's Rant: Starbucks	http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=iv&src_vid=MUTrJW-0xtc&annotation_id=annotation_25433
51	Starbucks Ad	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CwYxuV2dVzw
52	Mac Bookair Parody Call Centre Salesman goes insane	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DJRXYIM0lqo
53	Revenge of the Disney Employee	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VnbT7qt6RF4
54	Re: Old Spice Stuffed Crust Pizza	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fAyBaNwDX8c
55	Hut Commercial	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ryas9OANw-E
56		http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iGb1UHsVUDo
57		http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Xc90UhV6hJA
58		http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ycbTlr2vOD0

	Parody	
59	Pizza Hut Sushi	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CHcFW6fRLz0
60	Sainsbury's Boycott Tesco, Tesco!	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i7C8bVkXBCM&feature=related
61	Music Video The Tesco Value	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7ASGsvnl6QU
62	song	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=McULZcar0YM&feature=related
63	Anti-Tesco	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FlvsJJyRrQc&feature=related
64	Tesco!!! Amazon Kindle 3	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Q4S-rR_cZDA&feature=fvwrel
65	video Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gotyZNVtc44
66	Primark Haul Amazon Kindle 3	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iMwxRg9XZOI
67	3G Review Amazon Kindle 3	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VYtuk98vuMg
68	Unboxing How to get free shipping from	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Yq51BBelxWM
69	Amazon AVG Antivirus Free	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2fNOIKsmasY
70	Versino 8.5 Review AVG Internet	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3KUQ3usc090
71	Security V9 test Berkshire Hathaway	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UO1cN-AbJIA
72	(BRK-A12010)	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sJ7zUSLchm8
73	BRKB Today Blackberry Bold	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ghINTcqdRIM
74	9900 Review Blackberry Torch	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IYZ_XN5ooAU
75	9850 unboxing Review: Amazon	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SNZIfEPHcSc
76	Kindle Fire	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ugy3pQWSUGo
77	Amazon Kindle Amazon Kindle Fire	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GAf4vxGEOAo
78	IGN Unboxing Do not buy the	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LFN9KLAQKg0
79	Amazon Kindle Fire How Hard is to	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NxsSjWKKsbg&feature=related
80	Cancel AOL?	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1_knvtpENoQ
81	Why I hate AOL? Why does AOL?	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eU4ekHPf0pY&feature=related
82	Dialup still Exist? AVG Internet	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=F7Zy-cgqOAY
83	Security V9 How to download	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UO1cN-AbJIA
84	and Install AVG free Remove a virus free	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-iwC0TrRp4w
85	with AVG8 Warren Buffett-rich of Berkshire	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a5pxDJMrg7k
86	Hathaway What happened to Berkshire Hathaway	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DhbMrJN4KCK
87	charity Warren Buffett	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IVaRqNdKRCM
88	Moodys shareholder	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xJzjtqbLUSk

89	Blackberry Bold Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y86HYzU97ns&feature=pyv
90	Blackberry curve 9360 unboxing video	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FDBDICCD04M
91	Blackberry Playbook full Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=W8mdcKa9gU0&feature=related
92	BMW M3 E46 CSL Sick Glow in the	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2VwWXdFP6ZA
93	Dark Rims	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2XyV6Dstnyo
94	VW golf Vs BMW Z4	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mjgaxdl-z-g
95	Chase Bank is the bank of who cares!	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QGa-Fd4X2MQ
96	Debtors Revolt Calls Chase Bank	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_9mqj7jD0QE
97	Call with Chase Bank	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uDoZljhpTSM
98	Chase Bank customer service is not existent	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tHg1aAiZaj4&feature=related
99	Close your bank account and get arrested	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=S6svA6Qvq1U
100	Citibank Sucks	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Gnh72T03TII
101	Citibank...more lies	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FAgOwoFF7bA
102	How much sugar in a can of Coca Cola	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yKZ2ZqBYIrl&feature=related
103	10 Interesting facts about coca cola	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kvKDzgawnII http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=reBPSO0ZUEk&feature=related
104	Coca Cola vs Pepsi Tabloid Newspaper Critique-Daily Star	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1khLey9Xe-w
105	UK	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1khLey9Xe-w
106	Daily Star paper is a load of XXX	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zAHGdBNB53k
107	What have you been reading?	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RvbaCSlj4OA
108	Harley Davidson More than Ever	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EnN_u1PDgK4
109	Wars Harley	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Cw3eD93NwPA
110	Davidson	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KDKDYr8SiAQ
111	Harley Davidson Ikea augmented reality demo	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=n4nnLti-72A
112	Ikea Bedroom Makeover	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JWDPOLDtuzU
113	Mark Moves To Ikea	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z3S5s3EITcQ
114	Kellogg's Special K More like special bullshit	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=16Mj0Tr7_k4&feature=related
115	Special K Commercial	http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&NR=1&v=aGKVvIHRUBc http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z73JcoOaMO8&feature=related
116	Special K Review of Kellogg's	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d6MHUJkITDs
117	Bite Size Levis Men Pant	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d6MHUJkITDs
118	styles Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-AC0vDRXFxA

119	Tips and Reviews Levis 501 Levis Go Forth	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=j_r8AHhmP1U&feature=related
120	Buckwsky ad Parody That's Why I love	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KOLNYlp-f5c
121	Manchester United Manchester United	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VosPdk0WZ1A http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SU5sDTn-LIs&feature=related
122	The history Maker Manchester united a	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VaBMY0bjV_Q&feature=related
123	matter of life MCR Master Card	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=80L1fO7lz4
124	Commercial	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GhpPj-tD_K0
125	Master Card Master Card	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VrPeemJpWSk
126	Priceless Spoof Master Card Parody	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oWxCZvhtpq8&feature=related
127	"social life"	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PspCAKdqzW4
128	MySpacejunkie	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GXMI9wWsU2U
129	MySpace Tutorial Crazy MySpace Kid	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g7wWC0tfJZY
130	Loses it Nokia N-Gage QD	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ezrxszX_CBw
131	Review My N-Gage	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kg3vzg1EO-k
132	Collection N-Gage old gen	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xL4rWzDIJDQ
133	games Nike Air Yeezy's	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TV3U56wS4PY
134	Unboxing Nintendo Wii u	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2KiZ6Cd1j8U
135	Controller Demo Orange Phone	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zf1ZNI-T1F0 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g-ZQ9TesWPI&feature=related
136	Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9VvluGQPqkw
137	Bad Ryanair Flight Rodrick Hall sings	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pQ9dGKbyfcU&feature=fvsr
138	Starbucks T-Mobile My Touch	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KvjXcGL_eaA
139	4G Review Rough Trader	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bu4jzF_JKiM
140	Leaves UBS Flight Review: On	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y1Z0XCEy1VM
141	Board Virgin Atlantic	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-MbM4WKX_qo
142	Will Yahoo! Die? American Express	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s384BMfEAel
143	Company (AXP)	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RoH5mMRa7aU
144	Bad B&Q Demo of the Bosh	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VEXiBBcjOws
145	GTL3 British Airways	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2cFS83r3c3U&feature=fvst
146	Safety Video (Mock) Canon EOS 7D-	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tyvU7NhyPS4
147	Review Unboxing Dell	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2rT28Z0xM88
148	Inspiron Mini What Disney Movies	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2rT28Z0xM88
149	taught me Liverpool Manchester Match	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oS_uSbFTwjY
150	Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oS_uSbFTwjY

	Moet & Chandon	
151	Champagne	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=w-eWdWWyFls
152	Review Nivea Kiss You Asked Old	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tSJy1nulRrg
153	Spice!!! Pizza Hut	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YmRSYthv9f8 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2G2BZB99oZo&feature=related
154	commercial Parody	ated
155	House Porsche Primark Shopping	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yLxReBOIJbA
156	Haul My Qantas Airways	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QKaTaWLWoTs
157	Experience My First Rolex	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=09fdjS9kl6g
158	Watch Special Offers at	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mNhbvJnayD0
159	Sainsbury's	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J1brFXAcJ6A
160	Samsung Galaxy SII Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g1aKCvG7SCo&feature=pyv&ad=7028836811&kw=samsung
161	Siemens A52 Tesco goes spooky	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tq_Rmch7A38
162	on Halloween Prepaid Visa Card	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1Pr03DeU7Zk
163	Review Things I've done with my amazon	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eJ7RYTyWM5A http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DYvcZ5zycok&feature=related
164	Kindle Fire American Express Black Card	
165	Centurion	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=x0JK0H5o1Sg
166	Blackberry unlock code	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vgfnfyndT9w&feature=pyv&ad=6568275739&kw=blackberry
167	2011 BMW S1000 RR Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MxneAvv2D4A
168	British Airways The Best Airline Ever	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OYw4rYvIZaQ&feature=related
169	British Airways First Class	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LkCA5p0--Ys&feature=related
170	Lobster and champagne Service aboard BA	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=upTf3mLIA84&feature=related
171	British Airways First Class Experience	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UMyzQ0hZ2Uc&feature=related
172	Canon Power shot S100 Digital Camera Review	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qhs56-Aimvl
173	How Chase stole my house	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Pa-881XrWnQ
174	Chase Bank losing customers	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QtZjAb4Mc7l&feature=related
175	Chase Bank Sucks	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t-vVQKwqQ6Q&feature=related
176	Chase Credit card rip-off scam	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e6DzvfQd6vk&feature=related
177	Insane chase Bank Interest Call	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4tlfSlgW61c&feature=related
178	Chase Bank Bitch Citibank overdraft fee scam caught red	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HQflw70Gc0l
179	handed	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qjLoP0QfFMo
180	Citibank Parody Ad	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NTqmKFjv_SI

	Hilarious Citibank	
181	Spoof	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C30DTRDpwtE
182	Coca Cola Spoof Ad	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C30DTRDpwtE
183	Coke Zero Spoof Coca Cola	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vU57HqMm4pk
184	commercial Spoof Coca Cola	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fgrlwhZakOk
185	commercial Parody Lollipop Dell	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5LTL9cJNCYQ
186	Commercial Dell XPS One	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KIBywtZ9bRM http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I2Mg4NAi0Mw&feature=related
187	Parody	ated
188	Dell Spoof Dell XPS 630	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vm5jFauBIV4 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h7GJdVZ1mtQ&feature=related
189	commercial Cool Stuff on Dell	ated
190	Inspiron ISR One Man Disney	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZhMYmNAjL8k&feature=g-vrec&context=G29b1bc2RVAAAAAACAAG
191	Movie Bloom (Disney	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Zp1BYzIVi0U
192	Remix) Disney Subliminal	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t_htoSaQFf4 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3XvvkJcZM-w&feature=related
193	Messages Disney's Princess Belle make up	
194	tutorial A day at Disney	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HjW1qR7y0hU
195	World Motorcycle Advice	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yanxLYu8dto
196	Harley Davidson Amazing Harley	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1A3b_MRimbk
197	Davidson Sound Harley Davidson	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=owWKLN02qWY
198	Logo Mohawk College:	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=owWKLN02qWY
199	Ikea Parody	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8CI3HS7N7Zg http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dcxdf2hAUfl&feature=related
200	Ikea Parody	ated http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3gzFg-t8Fck&feature=related
201	Ikea Viral Ad	
202	Ikea Adventure	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4YLBxIglwCE
203	Ikea Video Review of Ikea Swedish	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Pqah80Vrubw
204	Meatballs Lisa Quinn Ikea Preteen bedroom	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=laTadQDJYcw
205	makeover MF Global Customer Closes	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fP35Z9NGoFI
206	His Account JP Morgan Donates	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6-QNE3Irlt4
207	\$4.6 M to NYPD Eggo Wafflers Video	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bDncPqXJMtE http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9m0cynUP5r8&list=WLAA2592579D107900&index=3&feature=plpp_vi
208	Review KLM 835 Singapore	
209	to Bali Tribute to KLM	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8nP6A7GCg7Y http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PXOMQBFWqoc&feature=related
210	Royal Dutch Airlines	elated

	Sock Review of KLM Business	
211	Class	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wU8isppLFyQ
212	KLM Information	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P54iUupGfO4&feature=related
213	The New Cabin loon of the KLM 747-400	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=R6AIQJVi0fc&feature=related
214	Levis commercial Spoof	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BW1xMifAP2k
215	Naked Boy Sexy Levis Commercial	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uaJtVb93JzE
216	MySpace People Spoof	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MRrQGSSKU9s
217	Bens MySpace Spoof	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_RPofLGBfil&feature=related
218	MySpace The Movie	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AAh6WwKILfk&feature=related
219	Is Facebook cooler than MySpace	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lr7r8Zmf3Yk&feature=related
220	Next Haul Tiger's wood Nike	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CvqllINWo7O4
221	commercial Nike Plus	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CmOOAgNfE5U
222	Commercial Nintendo Advert	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TDSSJk3b77Q
223	Spoof Nintendo Wii Mac	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aSaLzxeW4uE
224	Spoof Nivea Commercial	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Fe3O4YHlsgw
225	Parody Old Spice	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qylefoKo6ME
226	Commercial Re:@Old Spice	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qylefoKo6ME
227	Parody How To love Pizza	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YMx4cunamcl&feature=fvwr
228	Hut Ryanair Plans to cut	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OR2fUC3Cowo
229	costs Tall Grande or Venty What	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7P_XAmYUtWQ
230	Starbucks never told ya	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GU09s9ZzssY

Appendix 8

Stage 2: Panel of expert judges questionnaire



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

Thank you for participating in this survey, which represents an important stage in classifying reliable and valid types of user-generated brand-related videos (VUGC). The findings will be used in the experimental stage of this research.

For the purposes of the survey, user-generated brand-related video is defined as “a piece of brand-related communication generated voluntarily by people outside professional marketing and advertising practices, which includes a certain degree of creative effort, and broadcasted in an electronically accessible platform”.

Depending on their relationship with the official brand message (i.e. marketing, advertising and public relations campaign), these videos can be: a) *positive*, if their content includes language and attributes that praise and approve of the brand, b) *negative*, if their content includes language and attributes that criticise, insult or malign the brand, or c) *neutral* if the video content neither praises nor maligns the brand.

For each statement, please indicate the extent to which you believe the following videos represent one of the above-stated categories. At the end of the questionnaire, please feel free to add any further comments or raise any points you would like to make as additional feedback may prove helpful in the final findings. Your responses will be treated confidentially. Thank you for assisting with this research. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at 07887 537 657 or by email: PXM981@bham.ac.uk. Thank you again for your time and effort in completing this survey.

Paulo Mora Avila

0% 100%

Next

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

INFORMATION SHEET

Study name:

User Generated Content: The effects of brand-related videos on consumer brand perception.

Researcher:

Mr. Paulo Mora Avila
PhD candidate
Birmingham Business School
University of Birmingham

Supervisors:

Dr. Sheena Leek
Marketing Department,
Birmingham Business School
University of Birmingham
Email: s.leek@bham.ac.uk

Prof. Douglas West

Department of Management
School of Business, Economics & Informatics
Birkbeck University of London
Email: d.west@bbk.ac.uk

Hello,

The aim of this research is to analyse brand related videos on YouTube and determine the impact of positive and negative UCG on consumers' perceptions of brands. This stage involves the use of expert judges to determine what constitutes a positive, negative and neutral video. The videos which are consistently deemed positive, negative and neutral by the judges will be used in the next stage of the research with consumers. The results of this research will be beneficial to academics and practitioners as they will explain how the phenomenon of user generated videos affects brand perceptions and furthermore, will explain how the participatory culture of the media may impact consumer brand perceptions.

What you will be asked to do in the research:

As an expert judge you will be required watch 25 UCG videos and answer a short set of questions on each one and it will take approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Your participation in the research is completely voluntary and you may choose to stop participating at any time before, during or after taking part in the study. Your decision not to continue will not affect your relationship or the nature of your relationship with the researchers or with the staff of the University of Birmingham either now or in the future. If you wish to withdraw at any time please use the contact details provided below.

The information on the participants' identity will be confidential. Personal details that could make participants identifiable such as name, address, date of birth course will not be collected. The information provided by you will be kept secure on a password protected computer following section 3.0 of the University of Birmingham's Code of Practice for Research (available at: <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/university/legal/research.pdf>), primary research data collected and research evidence will be stored for a period of ten years after research completion in order to be accessible in confidence to other authorised researchers for verification purposes. After this period, all research data will then be destroyed and will no longer be available for either the researcher or any other authorised researcher. The information provided will be used for the completion of the researcher's PhD thesis and associated academic conference and journal articles.

Disclaimer:

The videos presented on this study are not property of the researcher and are publicly available in YouTube. Some videos may contain materials that may be regarded as offensive by some viewers.

If you have any further questions about the research please contact the researcher Paulo Mora Avila via email at: PXMS1@bham.c.uk.

— [] —

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By **Qualtrics**

Appendix 8 cont'd



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

Please watch the following videos and select the statements that you agree with

It will take approximately 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

A user-generated brand-related video is defined as "a piece of brand-related communication generated voluntarily by people outside professional marketing and advertising practices, which includes a certain degree of creative effort, and broadcasted in an electronically accessible platform".

0%  100%

Previous

Next

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 1.



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50 %
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video2.



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

Next

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 3.



Click to write the question text

	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%



If you have a comment about this video, please use this section


0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 4.

		UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM
---	---	-----------------------------



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

Yes

No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

0-25%

26-50%

51-75%

76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 5



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 6.



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM



Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?

Positive

Neutral

Negative



Did you watch the total running time of the video?

Yes

No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

0-25%

26-50%

51-75%

76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

Previous

Next

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 7.



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM



Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?

Positive

Neutral

Negative



Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#)


[Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 8.





	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

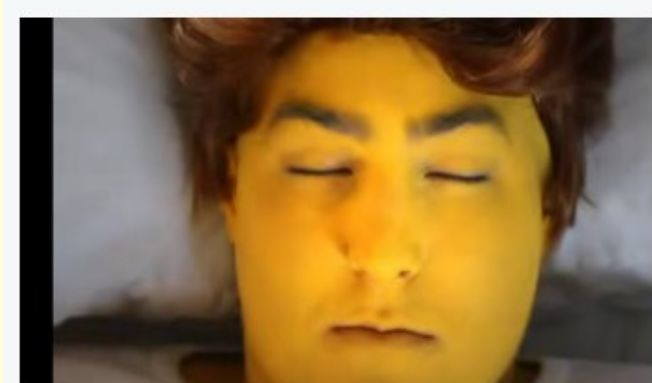


[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 9.





	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

Yes

No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

0-25%

26-50%

51-75%

76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 10.

		UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM
---	---	-----------------------------



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

Yes

No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

0-25%

26-50%

51-75%

76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0%  100%


[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 11.



			
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	Positive	Neutral	Negative
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 12.



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 13.



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section


0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 14.



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 15.



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM



Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?

Positive

Neutral

Negative



Did you watch the total running time of the video?

Yes

No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

0-25%

26-50%

51-75%

76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0%  100%

[Previous](#)

[Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 16.



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section


0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 17.



			
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	Positive	Neutral	Negative
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section


0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 18.



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 19



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

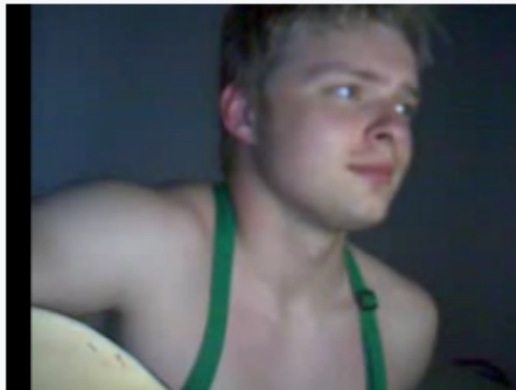
If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 20



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 21.



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM



Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?

Positive

Neutral

Negative



Did you watch the total running time of the video?

Yes

No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

0-25%

26-50%

51-75%

76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

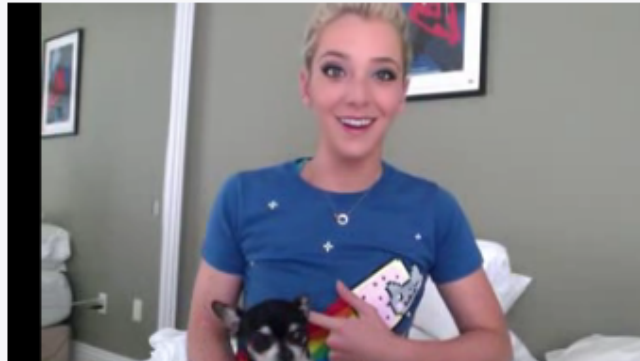
[Previous](#)

[Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 22.



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 23.



			
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	Positive	Neutral	Negative
	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 24



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

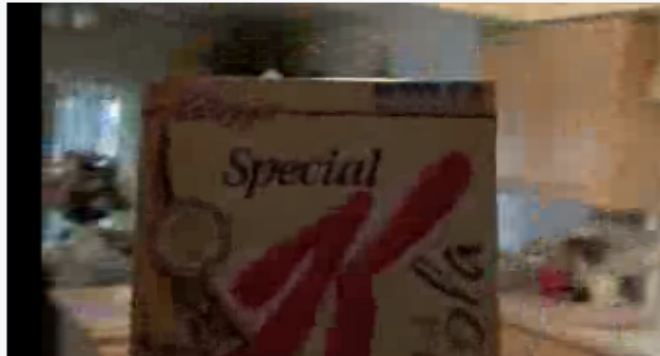
0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd

Video 25



	Positive	Neutral	Negative
Given your overall evaluation of this video, how would you describe it in relation to the brand?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Did you watch the total running time of the video?

- Yes
- No

If your last answer is no, please indicate on average how much did you watch

- 0-25%
- 26-50%
- 51-75%
- 76-100%

If you have a comment about this video, please use this section

0% 100%

[Previous](#) [Next](#)

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

If you have a comment or issue you feel is particularly important, please use this section

Would you like a summary of the results to be sent to your email address? Your email address will be only used for the purpose of sending you a summary of the results and it will not be used for commercial purposes or disclosed to any third party.

- Yes
 No

0%  100%

[Previous](#)

[Next](#)


Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 8 cont'd



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM


We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.


0%  100%

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

Appendix 9

Stage 3: Final Questionnaire

 qualtrics.com

 UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Introduction

Thank you for participating in this survey, your time is very much appreciated. As part of my PhD thesis I am conducting an experiment on brand related videos posted on YouTube. This study is self-conducted and self-funded; therefore, there are no commercial implications or any other external associations other than my personal desire to understand this phenomenon.

[Next >>](#)

0% 100%

Appendix 9 cont'd



INFORMATION SHEET

Study name:

User Generated Content: The effects of brand-related videos on consumer brand perception.

Researcher:

Mr. Paulo Mora Avila
PhD candidate
Birmingham Business School
University of Birmingham
Email: PXM981@bham.ac.uk

Supervisors:

Dr. Sheena Leek
Marketing Department,
Birmingham Business School
University of Birmingham
Email: s.h.leek@bham.ac.uk

Prof. Douglas West
Department of Management
Kings College London
Email: douglas.west@kcl.ac.uk

Hello,

The aim of this research is to analyse brand related videos posted on YouTube and determine their impact on consumers' perceptions of brands.

What you will be asked to do in the research:

- You will be required to watch five brand related videos and answer a set of questions on each one.
- Your participation in the research is completely voluntary and you may choose to stop participating at any time before, during or after taking part in the study.
- Your decision not to continue will not affect your relationship or the nature of your relationship with the researchers or with the staff of the University of Birmingham either now or in the future.
- If you wish to withdraw at any time please use the contact details provided below.
- The information on the participants' identity will be confidential. Personal details that could make participants identifiable such as name, address, date of birth will not be collected.
- The information provided by you will be kept secure on a password protected computer. Following section 3.0 of the University of Birmingham's Code of Practice for Research (available at: <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/university/legal/research.pdf>), primary research data collected and research evidence will be stored for a period of ten years after research completion in order to be accessible in confidence to other authorised researchers for verification purposes.
- After this period, all research data will then be destroyed and will no longer be available for either the researcher or any other authorised researcher.
- The information provided will be used for the completion of the researcher's PhD thesis and associated academic conference and journal articles.

Disclaimer:

The videos presented on this study are not the property of the researcher and are publicly available on YouTube, and some videos may contain material that may be regarded as offensive by some viewers.

If you have any further questions about the research please contact the researcher Paulo Mora Avila via email at: PXM981@bham.c.uk.

[<< Back](#) [Next >>](#)

Appendix 9 cont'd



Informed Consent Form

I consent to participate in the study: User Generated Content: The effects of brand-related videos on consumer brand perception conducted by Paulo Mora-Avila

I have read the information sheet and, (please tick the appropriate answer)

I understand what my participation involves

- Yes
- No

I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any point

- Yes
- No

I understand that my information will be kept confidential

- Yes
- No

I understand that my data will be used for the purpose of completing a PhD and associated academic conference and journal articles

- Yes
- No

I have been given the opportunity to ask questions

- Yes
- No

My name below indicates my consent

Date (MM/DD/YYYY)

0% 100%

Appendix 9 cont'd

 qualtrics.com

Section 1. This section seeks to describe the socio-cultural characteristics of the participants. Please review the statements below and select the appropriate response.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking during class is not a problem for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would offer my seat on a bus to my professor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having a lively imagination is important to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am the same person at home that I am at school	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I act the same way no matter who I am with	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after I meet them, even when they are much older than I am	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid arguments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My personal identity independent of others is very important to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I value being in good health above everything	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I respect people who are modest about themselves	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

What is your age range?

18-19
 20-24
 25-29
 30-34
 35-39
 40-44
 45+

What is your gender?

Male
 Female

What is your ethnic group?

White/Caucasian
 Black/Caribbean
 Asian/Oriental
 Hispanic
 Mixed
 Other

What is your current nationality?

UK/Britain
 EU country
 Rest of the world

<< Back Next >>

0%  100%

Appendix 9 cont'd



Before watching the videos please answer the following questions

	More than once a day	Once a day	More than once a week	Once a week	More than once a month	once a month	never
How often do you buy Coca-Cola?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How often do you drink Coca-Cola?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following pages contain a number opposing statements. For each statement, rate your feelings toward the brand Coca-Cola. Please note there are no right or wrong answers as they reflect how you feel or think. It is important that you answer strictly based on your personal opinions.

I dislike Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like Coca-Cola
I feel positive towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel negative towards Coca-Cola
I feel bad towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel good towards Coca-Cola
I feel favourable towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel unfavourable towards Coca-Cola

<< Back Next >>

0%  100%

Appendix 9 cont'd.: Video 1



Please watch the following videos and select the answer that best describes you.

Video 1



After watching the video

I dislike Coca-Cola more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like Coca-Cola more
I feel more positive towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more negative towards Coca-Cola
I feel more bad towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more good towards Coca-Cola
I feel more favourable towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more unfavourable towards Coca-Cola
I dislike the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like the video
I reacted favourably to the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I reacted unfavourably to the video
I am positive towards the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I am negative towards the video
The video is bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	The video is good

After watching the video I intend to

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Likely	Neither Unlikely nor Likely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Very Likely
Buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintain my Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to maintain their Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Share the video on the internet with family/friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment on the internet about Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment on the internet about Coca-Cola in a brand forum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<< Back Next >>

Appendix 9 cont'd: Video 2

Video 4



After watching the video


I dislike Coca-Cola more	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I like Coca-Cola more
I feel more positive towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I feel more negative towards Coca-Cola
I feel more bad towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I feel more good towards Coca-Cola
I feel more favourable towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I feel more unfavourable towards Coca-Cola
I dislike the video	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I like the video
I reacted favourably to the video	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I reacted unfavourably to the video
I am positive towards the video	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	I am negative towards the video
The video is bad	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>	The video is good

After watching the video I intend to


	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither Unlikely nor Likely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Very Likely
Buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintain my Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to maintain their Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Share the video on the internet with family/friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment on the internet about Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment on the internet about Coca-Cola in a brand forum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Next >>

Appendix 9 cont'd. Video 3



Video 2



After watching the video

I dislike Coca-Cola more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like Coca-Cola more
I feel more positive towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more negative towards Coca-Cola
I feel more bad towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more good towards Coca-Cola
I feel more favourable towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more unfavourable towards Coca-Cola
I dislike the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like the video
I reacted favourably to the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I reacted unfavourably to the video
I am positive towards the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I am negative towards the video
The video is bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	The video is good

After watching the video I intend to

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither Unlikely nor Likely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Very Likely
Buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintain my Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to maintain their Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink to a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Share the video on the internet with family/friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment on the internet about Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment on the internet about Coca-Cola in a brand forum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>


<< Back Next >>

0% 100%

Appendix 9 cont'd: Video 4

qualtrics.com

Video 2



After watching the video

I dislike Coca-Cola more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like Coca-Cola more	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more positive towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more negative towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more bad towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more good towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more favourable towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I feel more unfavourable towards Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I dislike the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I like the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I reacted favourably to the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I reacted unfavourably to the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am positive towards the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	I am negative towards the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The video is bad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	The video is good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

After watching the video I intend to

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither Unlikely nor Likely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Very Likely
Buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Maintain my Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to maintain their Coca-Cola intake	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a low-sugar/no-sugar Coca-Cola product	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to drink a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tell friends/family members to buy a substitute non-carbonated drink (water, juice, iced-tea, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment about the video	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Share the video on the internet with family/friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a negative comment on the internet about Coca-Cola	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Post a positive comment on the internet about Coca-Cola in a brand forum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a positive video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Produce a negative video about Coca-Cola and post it on the internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

<< Back Next >>

Appendix 9 cont'd



My experience answering this questionnaire:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I tried to answer this questionnaire to the best of my ability	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I had great difficulty understanding most of the questions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this study. Would you like a summary of the results sent to you your email address? Your email will only be used for the purpose of sending you this summary and will not be used for commercial purposes or disclosed to any third party.

- Yes
- No

0%  100%

Appendix 10
**Letter to YouTube requesting advice about the use of videos
for the thesis and the possibility of editing the content**

Dear YouTube,

I am a 3rd year doctoral researcher at the University of Birmingham Business School in Birmingham, United Kingdom. My area of study is marketing.

My research topic is how user-generated content, such as videos posted on YouTube, may affect the perception of a certain brand. The research does not focus on the effectiveness of YouTube as a means by which to distribute a message but rather, on the perception individuals may have about a specific brand when they view a YouTube video.

I am writing YouTube, as part of my data collection will require that a group of people view certain YouTube videos (pre-selected by me) and gauge their perception as to the videos' messages. Again, the quality of the video will not be rated nor will YouTube, as a platform, be rated. The only conclusions to be derived will be as to individual interpretations of the message the video is attempting to convey. To that end, I have read your privacy policy and would like to know if I require pre-approval from YouTube or the video poster prior to using the video. As these videos will not be used for a commercial purpose, and assuming that the original poster has activated the Embedded Player function, it appears to me that I am able to use the videos without prior approval. However, I would like a clarification from YouTube and if necessary, your consent for use. I should point out that it may be necessary to edit some of the videos for the purpose of shortening length, but this editing will not modify the integrity nor the message of the video. Also the results of the research will be disseminated at academic conferences where the videos may be shown and also in academic journals. Please advise at your earliest convenience.

Thanking you for your prompt attention to this matter, I remain, Very sincerely,

PMA

Appendix 11
**Email response from YouTube regarding the use of videos
for the thesis and the possibility of editing material**

Re: [#1054542358] YouTube Support

YouTube Support [ukcopyright@youtube.com]

Sent: 19 June 2012 02:17

To: PXM981@bham.ac.uk

Attachments: 20120618172831676.pdf (52 KB)

Hi there,

Thank you for your message.

We cannot grant rights to any screenshots or footage of third-party content on our site. Please follow up with the individual content owners regarding the rights to this footage.

You may be able to contact the user through YouTube's private messaging feature. Instructions on how to use this feature can be found at the following link:

<http://www.google.com/support/youtube/bin/answer.py?hlrm=en&answer=57955>

Regards,

Fitzgerald
The YouTube Team

Appendix 12

Pre-test Invitation Flyer

Dear Colleague,

As part of my PhD research, I am developing a questionnaire designed to study brand related videos posted on YouTube. I would appreciate your willingness to help me test the survey and as a token of my gratitude for your participation a £ 5 Starbucks e-gift voucher will be sent to you via email.

The time required to complete this questionnaire is approximately 20 minutes and you will be required to watch five brand related videos, then answer a set of questions after each video.

Your individual responses in the test will not be recorded or reported to anyone except to myself as the creator of the study.

Should you agree to participate, please provide me with your preferred email address to: PXM981@bham.ac.uk and I will reply with the link to the questionnaire.

Thank you in advance for your help!

Appendix 13

Pre-test invitation email

Dear _____,

Thank you for your interest in participating in this pilot test of the survey that I will be using in the final part of my PhD research. This survey is designed to assess the effects of User Generated Advertising videos on consumer brand perception.

The time required to complete this online survey is approximately 20 minutes and you will be required to watch five brand related videos taken from YouTube; you will then be required to answer a set of questions for each video.

Please follow the link bellow to access the survey:

http://eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_bQwV1vmIYMyWgqV

Your individual responses in the pilot test phase will not be recorded or reported to anyone except to myself as the creator of the survey.

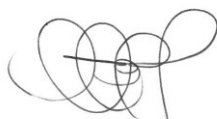
As a token of my gratitude for your participation, a £ 5.00 Starbucks e-gift voucher will be sent to you via email.

This research is self-conducted and self-funded and the data collected will be used solely by myself and my research supervisors in order to complete my research. Therefore, there are no commercial implications or any other external associations than my personal desire to understand this phenomenon and it will not be released to any third party.

Your participation is important for completing this research and if you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at 07887 537 657 or by email at PXM981@bham.ac.uk.

Thank you again for your interest on this study.

Kind Regards,



Paulo Mora Avila
Doctoral Researcher
Birmingham Business School
Muirhead Tower, office 1018
Edgbaston, Birmingham
B15 2T

Appendix 14

Pre-test reminder email

Hello!

You may remember receiving an online survey about brand related user generated videos recently. If you have not yet found the time to do so or if you faced any problems in the invitation email, I would be very grateful if you would complete the questionnaire as your cooperation and assistance will guarantee the success of the research results.

It will only take a few minutes of your time and will help me to understand the phenomenon of user generated videos and brand perception.

Your help is greatly needed to achieve the required response rate and consequently have precise scientific results.

Please follow the link at the end of this email to complete the questionnaire.

Sorry for any inconvenience cause by my emails and as a small token of my appreciation of your help, I will be pleased to send you a £ 5 Starbucks e-gift card.

Yours Sincerely,

Paulo Mora Avila

Appendix 15

Final Questionnaire Email Invitation

Dear Student,

Thank you for your interest in this survey, my name is Paulo Mora Avila and I am a PhD student at the Business School, University of Birmingham.

For my thesis I am conducting a survey on brand related videos posted on YouTube.

This interesting online survey (you can find the link to the questionnaire below) will require you to watch 4 videos and complete a set of questions after each one. It should take about ten minutes to complete. As a small token for your help you will also be entered if you wish into a raffle where you may win a **brand new Kindle Fire HD tablet**.

The data collected will be stored on a password protected computer and will be used for completion of my PhD, for academic conference papers and journal articles. Participation is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any point within the survey or not respond to specific questions.

Kindly click on the link below to take part in the survey:

http://eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_57HOrhhy6kbAgT3

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me on 07887 537 657 or by email at PXM981@bham.ac.uk.

Thank you again for your interest in this study.

Yours Faithfully,

Paulo Mora Avila