IPL

escola superior de tecnologia e gestão
instituto politécnico de leiria

International SMA Behavioural Implications: An Analysis of the Mediating and Moderating Effects

Master degree in International Business

Beatriz Isabel Ferreira da Silva

Leiria, September of 2021

International SMA Behavioural Implications: An Analysis of the Mediating and Moderating Effects

Master degree in International Business

Beatriz Isabel Ferreira da Silva

Dissertation Report under the supervision of Professor Ana Catarina Cardima Lisboa.

Leiria, September of 2021

Originality and Copyright

This dissertation report is original, made only for this purpose, and all authors whose studies and publications were used to complete it are duly acknowledged.

Partial reproduction of this document is authorized, provided that the Author is explicitly mentioned, as well as the study cycle, i.e., Master degree in International Business, 2019/2020 academic year, of the School of Technology and Management of the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria, and the date of the public presentation of this work.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my niece, Olívia.

I will forever be grateful for you and for the way you kept me positive during this time. You encourage me to always be the best version of myself and I hope to be able to do the same for you in the future.

Therefore, I hope this work reminds you that you can do anything as long as you keep trying.

Acknowledgments

I must to start by thanking Professor Ana Lisboa for all the dedication and work she put on this dissertation. I thank you for always being available to help and guide me throughout this whole process. Your patience and kindness were crucial, and I am so grateful for the time we worked together and for what I have learned with you.

I want to thank all the professors who were a part of the Master's degree, for their dedication and for sharing their vast knowledge and experience. A special thanks to the professors who are also a part of the Master's coordination, for their hard work on making this master exceptional. I also thank my Master's colleagues for sharing their experiences and cultures. I truly believe that having so many people from different countries was crucial and we all left more enriched with the contact we had with one another.

Lastly, I want to thank all my family and friends for the support they gave me. Particularly, I want to thank my friend, Mariana, for always showing me incomparable encouragement and for always believing in me a little more than everyone else. My mom, Maria do Céu, for always supporting my dreams and ambitions. My sister, Marta, for being such an inspiration and for always being there for me, no matter what. Finally, my niece, Olívia, for making everyday a little brighter.

Abstract

The exponential growth of social media and the success of SMA around the globe has captured the attention of marketers, that now use SMA as an integrating part of their communication strategies. Even though, SMA has proven its worth as an important advertising tool, it is still making its way into academic research. Moreover, there is scant knowledge on consumers' behaviour towards SMA, and even more so in cross-cultural settings. In this work I test a theory-grounded, four-stage model that considers the antecedent/outcome – belief, value, attitude and behaviour - process that consumers go through when they come across SMA. Additionally, this model enables the assessment of the interactive behavioural responses and contributes to the understanding of the mediating effects of SMA attitude and value, also considering the differences of consumers' behaviours through cultures and social media types. The results confirm the mediating role of value and the partial mediating role of attitude, with the exception of the relationships of SMA credibility and the behavioural constructs, social interaction behaviour and message interaction behaviour. Additionally, empirical evidence is presented on positive attitudes towards SMA increasing consumers' behavioural responses towards SMA. The moderating effects of culture and social media types were not confirmed, what might contribute to the discussion of the globality of international SMA. This reach provides a better understanding on the consumers' international SMA behavioural responses.

Keywords: social media advertising, social media types, individualism

Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AVE   Average Variance Extracted

CCS   Community Content Site

HTMT   Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio

IDV   Individualism

SMA   Social Media Advertisement

SNS   Social Networking Site

1. Introduction

Social media is a powerful tool (Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy & Silvestre, 2011) that has been increasingly used by people all over the world (Ko, Cho & Roberts, 2015), thus quickly becoming a trivial part of the internet users' daily life (Knoll, 2016; Ko, et al., 2015). Has of January 2021, there were 4.20 billion active social media users, that is, 490 million more, when compared to January 2020 (Kemp, 2021). With a steadily increasing on the number of users, the ease of access (Ko, et al., 2015), the interaction and engagement it provides (Hudson, Huang, Roth & Madden, 2015; Ko et al., 2015), and the lack of time-location restrictions, social media overcomes some of the most common limitations of the more traditional ways of communication (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013). Considering social media characteristics and its potential, as well as, the more dynamic and interconnected environment provided, managers feel compelled to use it; however, this instigates the question of how to truly benefit from social media (Berthon, Pitt, Plangger & Shapiro, 2012).

Managers are increasingly investing on social media and adapting their communication strategies in order to interact with customers and capture their attention (Hudson et al., 2015; Sreejesh, Paul, Strong & Pius, 2020). As companies progressively adapt their strategies, it becomes impossible for customers to assimilate all the content, thus they select specific firms, brands or products to give attention to (Lin & Kalwani, 2018), overlooking others. It then becomes vital for managers to be able to understand which elements are crucial when developing effective social media strategies (Kietzmann et al., 2011).

As a part of social media, social media advertising (SMA) has also been increasingly used by companies (Johnston, Khalil, Le & Cheng, 2018). When used correctly, SMA can play a very important role for a company's advertising strategy (Dao, Cheng & Le, 2014) and this importance is likely to increase in the future (Okasaki & Taylor, 2013). However, due to the lack of academic research, managers often struggle to find the best way to approach SMA (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013). Namely, the behavioural implications of international SMA (Berthon et al., 2012; Hudson et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2018), and the dynamics/impact of international SMA on consumers (Moro, Rita & Vala, 2016) are still lacking attention from researchers. Despite SMA being on its infancy stage - regarding academic research,

and moreover, theoretical perspectives - it is of growing interest for academics (Knoll, 2016; Okasaki & Taylor, 2013) and for managers (Moro et al., 2016).

Social media has largely contributed to a market with less national boundaries (Tang, 2017), making SMA even more important for companies that operate in several countries and that need to communicate with their customers across the globe (Okasaki & Taylor, 2013). Even though, culture emerges as a central issue on international marketing research (Tang, 2017), international SMA is still in an early stage of academic research (Johnston et al., 2018; Okazaki & Taylor, 2013), which results in the need of more attention from an academic perspective. There is a lack of studies that focus specifically on SMA rather than merely focusing on consumers' behaviours and attitudes towards social media (Johnston et al., 2018). Questions regarding international SMA effectiveness (Hudson, et al.; Johnston et al., 2018; Tang, 2017), the role of culture on international SMA and its impact on consumers (Johnston et al., 2018), and the behavioural implications of international SMA (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013), are crucial for understanding how culture impacts SMA strategies and its effectiveness.

Since social media allows for global companies to interact - in either a standardized and/or personalized way (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013) - with several costumers around the world at the same time (Hudson et al., 2015), it is important that cultural differences are taken into account when planning a social media strategy (Berthon et al., 2012). Most companies find it hard to draw the line on where to adapt or standardize their social media communications (Hatzithomas, Fotiadis & Coudounaris, 2016). Even though, the standardization/adaptation of social media communications, and the role of culture on that decision is crucial for managers to develop efficient communication strategies, few studies have focused on the subject (e.g.: Hatzithomas et al., 2016; Hudson et al., 2015; Okazaki & Taylor, 2013).

Therefore, it is clear that the academic knowledge about SMA – and even more regarding international SMA – is still scarce. For its relevance on today's managerial scenario, my aim is to use Johnston et al. (2018)'s four-stage model to build on the existing knowledge on SMA in an international context. The hierarchy of effects theory (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961) and the expectancy value theory of gratifications sought and obtained (Rayburn & Palmgreen, 1984), are merged in this model, to obtain a better insight on the mediating effects of value and attitude, and the moderating effects of global social media types and culture on consumers' behavioural responses.

Their work undoubtedly contributes to academic research with theoretical and empirical data on cross-border SMA effectiveness and its influence on consumers' behaviour in the social media environment. Although, the authors do access the role of culture as a moderator of SMA infotainment/credibility and value/attitude relationships, they only consider one of Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010)'s 6 cultural dimensions – uncertainty avoidance. Therefore, I believe that in order to have a better grasp on this matter, it is crucial to understand how other cultural dimensions moderate these relationships.

Moreover, my main objective is to test the model created by Jonhston et al. (2018), in hope that I will contribute to the validation of the robustness of the model, the validity of the model's constructs, and the establishment of the mediating roles of value and attitude. The model takes into consideration two widely used theories – expectancy value theory and hierarchy of effects theory – therefore, by testing the model I am also assessing the efficacy of both theories in explaining consumers responses to SMA. Both theories used are considered flexible (Shoham et al., 1998) and the sequence of constructs is widely discussed (Barry & Howard, 1990), I consider that testing the model will contribute to the academic knowledge of the underlying factors that contribute to consumers' responses to SMA. I seek to find empirical evidence of the model's validity by conducting an online survey, distributed through social media, to help measure the consumers' SMA opinions regarding the four-stages – belief, value, attitude, and behaviour. Additionally, and considering that the constructs used in the model account for the interactivity of the social media scenario, I believe that testing this model contributes to the existing knowledge about the importance of SMA interactivity.

My next aim, is to assess the impact of culture and social media types on the model. These are considered by Johnston et al. (2018) as moderating effects. However, they only consider one of the six Hofstede et al. (2010)'s cultural dimensions. Therefore, I think that it is very important – due to the lack of studies focusing on the international aspect of SMA (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013) -, that other cultural aspects are taken into consideration. Hence, I selected individualism vs collectivism due to its established importance as a cultural dimension (Möller & Eisend, 2010). To assess this element, the survey was distributed so that individuals from several different countries could answer it, what enabled the comparison between individualistic and collectivistic cultures. This might provide important insights about the importance of culture on consumers' behavioural responses to SMA and the differences amongst cross-cultural settings. Additionally, it can also contribute to the on-

going debate on standardization vs adaptation (Hatzithomas et al., 2016) and the efficacy of international online communication strategies (Hudson et al., 2015).

Finally, I aim to test the impact of the different types of global social media on consumers' responses to SMA, in line with Johnston et al. (2018)'s work. The moderating effect of the social media types is assessed on the surveys by inquiring each respondent about the two most common types of social media – SNSs, represented by Facebook and CCSs, represented by YouTube - individually. Addressing this aspect is very important due to the lack of social media platforms comparison in the existing literature (Johnston et al., 2018), which, in its turn, should contribute to the creation of more effective SMA strategies.

This work is organized in the following way: After the introduction, the literature review encompasses the theoretical background of the existing literature on the topic of SMA, as well as, any other relevant matters. Next, the conceptual model and hypothesis development, where the conceptual model is introduced and the hypothesis are developed. Following, there is the methodology chapter, where the methodological aspects of the study are presented. Succeeding, we have the data analysis and findings where the results are presented. Lastly, the discussion and conclusions include the theoretical and managerial implications, the study's limitations, future research directions, and concluding remarks.

2. **Literature Review**

2.1. Communication and Advertising's Evolution

Nowadays, marketing communication is considered essential to a competitive strategy, contributing to a good organization performance (Martin, Javalgi & Ciravegna, 2020). To understand communication and advertising in the context of today's society, it is very important to understand its origins and evolution.

In the early 1990's, the technological progress and emergence of the internet, completely changed the market dynamic and the way firms perceived their consumers' behaviours and attitudes (Kumar & Gupta, 2016). Digitalization transformed the media space leading to an increase on online advertising investments (Kumar & Gupta, 2016), which represent the most relevant form of online communication (Gruner, Vomberg, Homburg & Lukas, 2019). Even though, more modern marketing communication concepts - that are widely used today - were created and/or developed in the 1990's (Schultz & Schultz, 1998), marketing communications have been around for a while.

In the last century, advertising evolved from simply informing about the existence of a product or service, to a sophisticated and personalized device of persuasion through several different media (Kumar & Gupta, 2016). According to Schultz & Schultz (1998), the concept of marketing communication emerged in the late 1950's, in the United States of America. At the time, companies relied on mass production to quickly meet costumers' high demand, and would merely inform consumers about the availability of a product and where to find it. There was little competition and almost no price resistance. In the early 1960's, the concept of globalization appeared due to the production development of countries like Germany or Japan, which started to export their products around the world. In the late 1970's as consumer's demand and production started to match, companies reduced their prices and margins in order to be more appealing, leading to price wars becoming the norm. In the mid-1980's and early 1990's, companies tried downsizing and other management approaches, such as allocating funds in business units and shifting from mass advertising to more specialized media and targeted promotional tools. At the same time, the rapid technological progress transformed the organizational scenario completely, allowing drastic reductions of time and costs, and optimizing the information process.

With the internet emerging, e-mail communication and text-oriented websites started to be widely used, followed by short message service (SMS), and later by social networks (Yao & Ling, 2020). The transition from the 20th to the 21st century, brough the birth and rising of social media (Boyd & Ellison, 2008; Gruner et al., 2019), at the same time, the individual use of electronic equipment (e.g.: tablets, smartphones, and mobile applications) normalization (Kumar & Gupta, 2016), led to a drastic shift. Communication became more personalized and interactive (Schultz & Schultz, 1998), meanwhile traditional media lost its appeal, and online advertising became a tempting opportunity for marketers (Evans, 2009; Khang, Ki & Ye, 2012).

2.2. Social Media Advertising

In the context of this work, and in accordance to Johnston et al. (2018), we define SMA as firm-generated advertising posted on social media by firms with instant and collaborating features that allow consumers to interact. The firm-generated advertising can comprise different types of content – for example: text, pictures, videos, and links to other platforms - (Berthon et al., 2012).

SMA can be very useful in order to establish interactions between costumers and firms, which creates and/or strengthens their relationships (Berthon et al., 2012). In fact, the interactive nature of SMA is often emphasised on the existing literature (e.g.: Berthon et al., 2012; Johnston et al., 2018; Knoll, 2016). Even though, the level of interactivity varies across social media formats (Johnston et al., 2018), the instant and interactive nature of SMA contrasts with traditional media advertising since it allows the participation of consumers in the creative process (Knoll, 2016). Additionally, SMA provides easily accessed data (e.g.: number of likes, comments, and shares) which is useful for managers to assess advertisings' effectiveness (Johnston et al., 2018). However, there are different types of social media, and the one selected for advertising will be determinant for the advertising effectiveness, as the different social media types are experienced uniquely by their users (Voorveld, Noort, Muntinga & Bronner, 2018).

According to Bergh, Lee, Quilliam & Hove (2011) there are 3 types of global social media. First, social media platforms (e.g.: Facebook), that allow developers to create and share applications. Second, social networking sites (SNSs) (e.g.: Facebook), where users are able to online network by creating a profile and sharing content with their contacts. Third,

specialised content-sharing sites (e.g.: YouTube), where users usually post more specific content, moreover, the focus is on the content instead of the user. I will address the latter as content community sites (CCSs) (Jonhston et al., 2018), in order to simplify. In this work, I focus only on SNSs and CCSs because these are the most used social media types (Dao et al., 2014), and because Facebook is both a social media platform and a SNS (Bergh et al., 2011). The thematic of social media types will be deepened further ahead, in the third chapter.

2.3. Hierarchy of Effects Theory

The hierarchy of effects theory is a systematic response process divided into three sequential stages (Smith, Chen & Yang, 2018) that explain the consumers' response to advertisement and other marketing messages (Barry & Howard, 1990). When dealing with advertising, consumers go through a process of forming or changing brand attitudes and purchase intentions (Smith et al., 2018) by the following three stages: cognition - taking the form of believe -, affection -taking the form of attitude-, and conation -taking the form of behaviour- (Johnston et al., 2018). Hierarchy of effects theory has been widely used in the field of advertising and marketing research (e.g.: Barry & Howard, 1990; Johnston et al., 2018, etc.).

This theory was brought up in the early 1900's and it is based on the idea that consumers respond to advertising messages in a long-term process following the steps - cognitive, affective, and conative - sequentially. Even though, there has been some debate regarding the order of the three stages (Barry & Howard, 1990), the sequence mentioned above has been widely used by researchers in the field of advertising (e.g.: Alexandris, Tsiotsou, & James, 2012; Johnston et al., 2018, etc.).

The hierarchy of effects allows for a general assessment between the direct and indirect effects of positive dispositions on behavioural responses (Bartsch, Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2015). Also, this model does not generalize, on the contrary, it is contingent (Eisend & Tarrahi, 2016) – it depends on the context – which is important when considering different cultures (Johnston et al., 2018).

2.4. Expectancy Value Theory

Expectancy value theory is considered to be a robust and flexible theoretical foundation (Shoham, Rose & Kahle, 1998). It has been used to predict the relationships between

consumers' SMA beliefs, SMA value and purchase behaviour (Dao et al., 2014). It has been applied over time in different domains and the variables used have suffered some changes, however, expectancy and value have remained central to the model (Durand, Turkina, & Robson, 2016).

The underlying assumption of expectancy value theory is that (1) a belief is the subjective cognition of an individual that an object and an attribute are connected and, (2) that a belief is formed when and individual defines a link between an object and a particular attribute (Dao et al., 2014). In other words, it points out the motivation behind the belief-value-attitude sequence of consumer responses, mentioned in the hierarchy of effects theory (Johnston et al., 2018).

The expectancy value theory differs from the hierarchy of effects theory by elucidating how a person's beliefs contribute to the assessment of value through gratifications sought and obtained, leading to the development of an affect state (Rayburn & Palmgreen, 1984). However, the central belief of the theory (belief-value-attitude) can also be complementary to the belief-attitude-behaviour model of hierarchy of effects theory (Johnston et al., 2018). Therefore, and considering the flexibility of both, expectancy value theory and the hierarchy of effects theory, Johnston et al. (2018), combined the two theories in a four-stage framework that focuses on how consumers perceive SMA in cross cultural settings and throughout different social media types by analysing the process that leads to behavioural responses.

3. Conceptual Model and Hypothesis Development

3.1. Conceptual Model

The model developed by Johnston et al. (2018), merges the hierarchy of effects theory and the expectancy value theory, creating a four-stage model (Figure 1) that represents the process consumers go through when dealing with SMA. The four stages are: belief, value, attitude and behaviour. The first stage - belief or cognition – is represented by SMA infotainment and SMA credibility. The second stage – value of SMA – is still a part of cognition and it acts as a mediator between belief and attitude. In its turn, the third stage – attitude towards SMA – represents the affect factor and it acts as a mediator between belief/value and behaviour. Lastly, the fourth stage – behaviour or conation - is represented by message interaction behaviour and social interaction behaviour and it is a consequence of attitude.
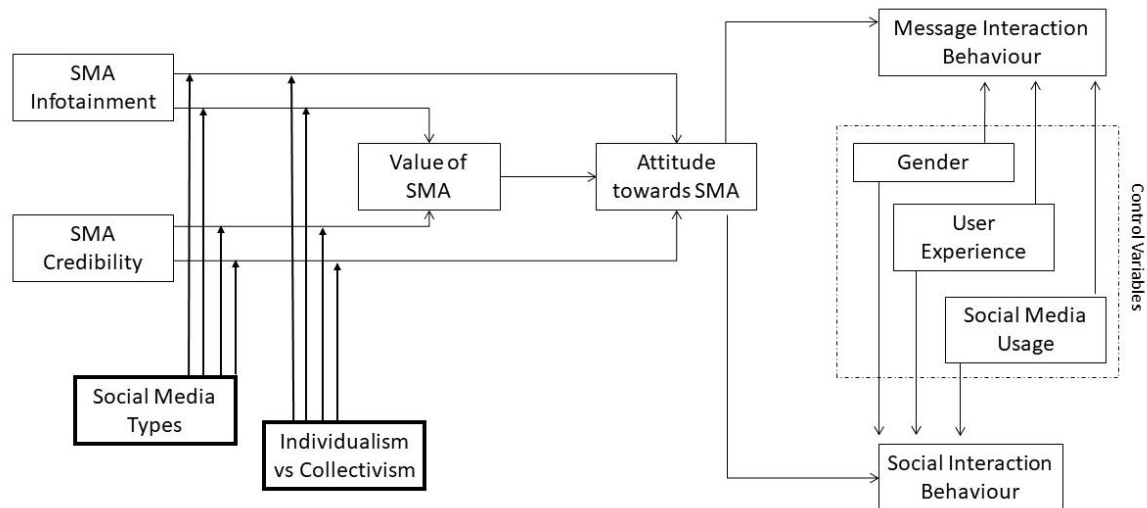
Figure 1 - Conceptual Model

The first stage – belief – is the process of creating a mental link between SMA and a particular set of attributes (Smith et al., 2018). In other words, consumers acknowledge – pay attention to or learn about - SMA and recognize its characteristics. To analyse belief, we look into SMA infotainment and SMA credibility, due to their status as defining components of SMA (Dao et al., 2014) and because these are widely used as belief factors (e.g.: Dao et al., 2014; Johnston et al., 2018; Wang & Sun, 2010). SMA infotainment, represents the information + entertainment consumers obtain through SMA (Johnston et al., 2018). In its

turn, SMA credibility, represents the degree to which consumers rely/trust/believe on what they are acknowledging (Gunter, Campbell, Touri & Gibson, 2009) – in this case, SMA.

The second stage – value – is acknowledge has a consequence of belief and an antecedent of attitude, in other words, value acts as a mediator between SMA infotainment/credibility and attitude towards SMA (Johnson et al., 2018). However, in advertising literature, value is also considered a part of cognition (Okazaki, 2004), alongside with belief. Value can be defined as the outcome/gratification a consumer expects to obtain from something – in this case, SMA (Rayburn & Palmgreen, 1984). Thus, consumers start by acknowledging SMA and its characteristics, leading to them anticipating a certain outcome. In its turn, this expectation will lead to the affect stage (Rayburn & Palmgreen, 1984).

The third stage – attitude – is regarded as a consequence of belief and value, and an antecedent of conation (Johnston et al., 2018), hence, it is a mediator for these relationships. Attitude towards SMA, is the result of consumers' SMA evaluation of the outcome they expect due to their beliefs towards SMA (Tehone, Zo & Ciganek, 2015). It can be defined as the ability to influence consumers' attention, exposure and willingness to look at or interact with SMA (Okazaki, 2004).

Lastly, the fourth stage - behaviour – is the ultimate consequence of the underlying process the consumers go through when confronted with SMA. Here, behavioural responses are represented by social media-specific behaviours of message and social interactions. Message and social interaction behaviours allow us to analyse the way consumers interact with the SMA content, the advertiser and other consumers (Johnston et al., 2018). Particularly, social interaction behaviour can be defined as consumers' contribution to social media by interactions with advertisers/consumers about the advertised brand/product (Ko et al., 2005). In other words, it is the consumers' engagement with the advertiser and other users regarding a specific SMA (Johnston et al., 2018). In its turn, message interaction behaviour can be defined as the degree to which consumers engage in processing SMA by interacting with the messages (Johnston et al., 2018).

It is expected that the more positive the consumers' SMA attitude is, the more likely it is that it leads to a behavioural response (Johnston et al., 2018). This behavioural response can be in the form of interaction with the message – message interaction behaviour – or interaction with the advertiser or other consumers – social interaction behaviour. Either way, the more consumers are willing to observe or interact with SMA, the more likely it is that they will

act upon it. Therefore, attitude towards SMA is expected to have a positive effect on the conation stage - on both message and social interaction behaviours.

In short, Johnston et al. (2018) were able to assemble a model based on both traditional advertising (e.g.: hierarchy of effects theory and expectancy value theory) and more modern Web 2.0 literature, which is crucial since the unique characteristics of the internet context should always be considered (Knoll, 2016). This model enables the assessment of the underlying process that guides consumers' responses to SMA. However, it has yet to be applied in different contexts to assess its versatility and robustness. Therefore, we will test the hypothesis proposed by Johnston et al. (2018) regarding the relationships between the model's constructs. Thus, it is expected that:

H_1: Attitude toward SMA has a positive effect on behaviour, namely, (**a**) on message interaction behaviour and (**b**) social interaction behaviour.

H_2: Attitude toward SMA mediates the relationships between (**a**) SMA infotainment, (**b**) SMA credibility, and (**c**) value of SMA with message interaction behaviour; and the relationships between (**d**) SMA infotainment, (**e**) SMA credibility, and (**f**) value of SMA with social interaction behaviour.

H_3: SMA value mediates the relationships between the two belief antecedents – (**a**) SMA infotainment and (**b**) SMA credibility – and attitude towards SMA.

3.2. Moderating Effects

Social Media Types

Past studies, suggest that there is a difference on SMA effectiveness when using different types of social media (e.g.: Dao et al., 2014). As stated previously, in this study we are focusing on SNSs and on CCSs since these are the most relevant social media types (Dao et al., 2014). I will consider Facebook and YouTube as representative of SNSs and CCSs, respectively. Not only these have been considered in literature before (e.g.: Johnston et al., 2018; Knoll, 2016), they are also the first and second most used social media in the world. In 2021, Facebook had 2,740 million users, who spent 19.5 hours per month on the social media platform (Kemp, 2021). In its turn, in the same year, YouTube had around 2,291 million users, who spent about 23.2 hours per month on this particular social media website (Kemp, 2021).

Facebook is one of the most famous social network websites (Dao et al., 2014) and, it has registered an increasingly growing number of users for the last few years ("Facebook: Active Users Worldwide", n.d.). Contributing for the growing number of companies that include Facebook into their communication strategies. Facebook can be a powerful tool since it can strengthen the relationship between customer and brand, which, in its turn, has a positive impact on the firms' results (Kumar et al., 2016).

Facebook is considered a social network – ultimately, it is a content carrier - where users can interact with friends/acquaintances by adding them to their "friends" list (Berthon et al., 2012). Users are then able to like/comment friends' publications, add their own content (e.g.: photos/videos), and share content created by someone else (Dao et al., 2014). Similarly, users are able to interact with pages, which usually belong to brands, companies, celebrities and causes, etc. Consumers become exposed to a brand's page content when they like that brand's page; when a friend shares, likes or comments on a post; or when a firm directly targets specific consumers through sponsored adds (Johnston et al., 2018).

As stated by Boyd & Ellison (2008), SNSs are web-based services that allow users to build a (semi-) public profile, and select/administer a list of other users – also known as "friends", "contacts" or "followers" - with whom they wish to stay connected to. Usually, SNSs allows users to leave comments on "friend's" profiles and publications and to send private messages. SNSs vary in their features and user base, however, they share the characteristics of having profiles, a list of contacts, comments, private massaging and the ability to share content.

YouTube started in 2005 and it quickly became a crucial tool for marketers (Gupta, Singh & Sinha, 2017) since it is considered one of the most entertaining social media, allowing users to be both, informed about topics of interest, and to enjoy their free time (Voorveld et al., 2018). In YouTube, both users and brands can create their own channels (Johnston et al., 2018), where they are then able to share content in the – almost - exclusively video format (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010).

In YouTube, SMA is mostly presented to users in the form of (1) in-stream ads or (2) in-search ads (Johnston et al., 2018). (1) In-stream videos pop up at the beginning or during a video and are sometimes skippable after a period of time. They show up randomly when users are watching videos on YouTube, and are selected to match users' interests by considering their search words. (2) In-search ads are displayed when users intentionally

search for ads or related content. Additionally, when consumers subscribe to a brand's YouTube channel, they become exposed to that brand's content (Johnston et al., 2018).

Moreover, on CCSs, focus is on the user-shared content (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010), therefore, SMA in this type of social media should closely relate to the users' interests and needs (Johnston et al., 2018). Additionally, CCSs do not focus on the users, therefore, the profiles do not require a lot of information about the user. Usually, the users' pages only display simple information, like the profile's creation date or the videos shared by the user (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010).

Ads on CCSs are often considered more relevant, useful and entertaining (Johnston et al, 2018; Knoll, 2016), additionally, CCSs adds tend to be more noticed and viewed – when compared to SNSs - (Chu & Kim, 2011). CCSs tend to be considered more effective than SNSs due to its higher scores in infotainment and credibility, which in turn enhances SMA value and customers' behavioural responses (Dao et al., 2014). Furthermore, enabling users to skip adds – on in-stream ads - contributes to users' satisfaction by allowing them to be in control of the ads they want to watch (Knoll, 2016).

On the other hand, SNSs are usually perceived as being more reliable due to the higher level of socialization on this type of social media platform (Chu & Kim, 2011). Some ads on SNSs allow users to share their experiences and opinions with their contacts and other users, thus being perceived as more trustworthy and believable (Chu & Kim, 2011). In addition, since this information is considered reliable, the SNSs users need less time and effort to verify SMA's truthfulness (Johnston et al., 2018). Therefore, and in line with Johnston et al. (2018)'s work, we propose the following moderating role of the social media types on this specific framework:

H4: The social media types moderate the effect of belief on attitude and value. Moreover, the effect of infotainment on (**a**) SMA attitude and (**b**) SMA value is stronger on CCSs than on SNSs, while the effect of credibility on (**c**) SMA attitude and (**d**) SMA value is stronger on SNSs than on CCSs.

Individualism vs Collectivism

Cultural differences play an important role in how individuals react and interact with social media in general (Baack & Singh, 2007; Dao et al., 2014), therefore culture should be considered when planning international SMA efforts (Möller & Eisend, 2010). In order to

understand the impact of culture in consumers' reaction to SMA and its effectiveness in different countries, we selected individualism vs collectivism from Hofstede's 6 cultural dimensions – power distance, individualism vs collectivism, masculinity vs femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long- vs short-term orientation, indulgence vs restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

Individualism vs collectivism explores individuals' relationships with society and the extent of societal–individual dependence (Baack & Singh, 2007). Thereby, Hofstede, et al. (2010) define (1) individualistic cultures as nations where ties between individuals are loose and where people tend to look after themselves and their nuclear family. Whereas, (2) collectivism refers to cultures where individuals see themselves as a part of a strong-tied and cohesive group, showing loyalty to their peers.

Individualism vs collectivism is one of the most used cultural Hofstede's dimensions (Tang, 2017), it has been widely used in the international marketing research, in the specific context of internet related research (Ashraf, Thongpapanl, Menguc & Northey, 2017), and it has been proven to influence the consumers' advertising perceptions (Möller & Eisend, 2010). Individualism vs collectivism is actually regarded as the most efficient Hofstede's cultural dimension when explaining cultural differences (Möller & Eisend, 2010).

Individualism vs collectivism can be described as the way a person sees themselves as being different or a part of the group (Lee & Tamborini, 2005). In other words, this cultural dimension captures the relationships and dynamics between individuals and groups (Waters & Lo, 2012). There are only a few countries that score individualistic, namely, Anglo-Saxon, Netherlands, Belgium, France, Germany, and Scandinavian countries. In fact, around 70% of the world scores collectivistic (Goodrich & Mooji, 2014). Farther, individualism vs collectivism has been considered one of the strongest cultural dimensions (Han & Shavitt, 1994; Möller & Eisend, 2010).

According to Hofstede et al. (2011), individualistic societies focus more on themselves and their own personal identity and their immediate family, while collectivistic societies tend to consider the group where they are inserted in. While individualists tend to see themselves as distinct or unique from others, collectivists are more interdependent (Lee & Tamborini, 2005). Additionally, individualists tend to look after themselves and their immediate family, and their own identities are in the person. In the other hand, collectivists tend to think of

themselves as "we", meaning that their identity is based on the social system they belong to (Goodrich & Mooji, 2014).

Furthermore, individualists and collectivists tend to value different things. For example, while individualists tend to focus on independence, achievement and pleasure, collectivists focus more on interdependence, security and cooperation (Han & Shavitt, 1994). Thus, it is natural that consumers from different cultures behave differently. For instance, the way individualists and collectivists use social media differs. While, social media tends to be more commonly used in cultures that score higher on individualism – for instance, individualists are more likely to engage via Facebook (Waters & Lo, 2012) - as a means of meeting new people, it is prominently used in collectivist cultures to maintain stronger and closer relationships with a more selective group of connections (Lin, Swarna & Bruning, 2017). Additionally, when seeking information, individualists seek more objective information, while collectivists tend to be more emotional consumers and rely more on other people's opinions. Therefore, while in individualistic societies, social media is used to reach out to information regarding objective characteristics, in collectivistic cultures, social media is used to reinforce the sharing of feelings and ideas (Goodrich & Mooij, 2014).

Attitudinal and behavioural responses towards advertising also seem to differ across cultures. It has been shown that individualism vs collectivism is reflected on the content of advertising, in other words, the advertising reflects the dominant orientation of the country (e.g.: Han & Shavitt, 1994; Lin et al., 2017; Zhang & Shavitt, 2003). Further, in individualistic cultures, people tend to perceive advertising – particularly when it is unsolicited - as a manipulative tool that is used to control the consumers' decisions and to influence their needs and motivations (Möller & Eisend, 2010).

Consumers' general attitudes towards online advertising also differ according to the dominant cultural orientation. In fact, even though they generally feel more comfortable on the internet than collectivists (Arpaci, Kesici & Baloglu, 2018), individualists tend to perceive online advertising as less informative and entertaining, and feel like online advertising messages are not personalized enough so that their desire to be unique is fulfilled (Lee & Choi, 2006). It has been shown that individualism vs collectivism is an important part of trust formation (Lim, Leung, Sia & Lee, 2004), which affects consumers from individualistic cultures, who are less likely to make purchases decisions through social media (Lin et al., 2017) since they have a hard time trusting that the other part is going to carry out

the terms and conditions mentioned. Moreover, collectivists are more predisposed to use social media to assist them in purchase decisions (Goodrich & Mooij, 2014).

Even though, the interaction with social media is more common in individualistic cultures, individualists seem more reluctant (than collectivists) when it comes to advertising in general and, also with online advertising. Individualists tend to perceive advertising as a way of manipulation and control over consumers, and generally, have a hard time trusting vendors and companies, more even so on the online scenario. Additionally, being able to learn about other consumers' experiences, especially with their own contacts, will lead to collectivistic cultures perceiving SMA as a reliable source. Therefore, I believe that collectivistic cultures will perceive SMA as more beneficial, that is the positive effect on value and attitude will be lesser on individualistic cultures (vs. collectivistic cultures). Thus, I suggest the following moderating effect of individualism vs. collectivism, in the proposed framework:

H$_5$: Individualism moderates the effect of belief on attitude and value. Moreover, the effect of infotainment on (**a**) SMA attitude and (**b**) SMA value, and the effect of credibility on (**c**) SMA attitude and (**d**) SMA value is stronger on collectivistic (vs. individualistic) cultures.

4. **Methodology**

4.1. **Environmental Setting and Sampling**

To assess the impact of culture and social media types on SMA, I conducted an online survey with individuals from 32 different countries (See Appendix A for the complete list of countries and their classification on individualism vs collectivism). In the present study, the most represented countries are Portugal (181 respondents), Sweden (27 respondents), United Kingdom (34 respondents), and the United States of America (14 respondents). In total, 104 respondents were from individualistic countries, while 206 respondents were from collectivist countries. Even though most studies choose to compare only two or three countries at a time, there are a few that choose to select a wider selection (e.g.: Cai & Fink, 2002). When considering only two countries – in this case, individualist vs. collectivist – there is a chance that other cultural factors that are predominant in each country, will also weigh in on the results. Therefore, it is expected that by having a more heterogeneous sample, the cultural dimension of individualism vs. collectivism will be more prominent in the results.

Our convenience sampling frame is composed of higher education students. Not only do college students provide a homogeneous sample that contribute to exclude alternative explanations, that are common on multicultural settings (Johnston et al., 2018), but they also represent the most important age group when it comes to the internet and being exposed to SMA (Aktan, Aydogan & Aysuna, 2016). Additionally, higher education students are widely used on academic research (e.g.: Alexandris, Tsiotsou & James, 2012; Arpaci & Baloglu, 2018; Cai & Fink, 2002; Lee & Tamborini, 2005).

4.2. **Measurements and Questionnaire Design**

To assess the model constructs, we resorted to the same multi-item scales used and adapted by Johnston et al. (2018) (Appendix B). Thus, we used Liu, Sinkovics, Pezderka & Haghirian's (2012) five-item scale to measure SMA infotainment; MacKenzie & Lutz's (1989) three-item scale to measure SMA credibility; Ducoffe's (1995) three-item scale to measure the value of SMA; Pollay & Mittal's (1993) adapted three-item scale to measure the attitude towards SMA; Zeng, Huang & Dou's (2009) three-item scale to measure

message interaction behaviour; and, Huang, Shen, Lin & Chang's (2007) three-item scale to measure social interaction behaviour.

Accordingly, we used age, user experience and social media usage as control variables to minimize possible systematic errors. The control variables were accessed using single-item scales. The age, being the age group the responded was part of; the user experience, being the years of experience the users had with each social media type; and the social media usage, being the amount of time – in minutes – the respondents spend on each social media type, per day.

Firstly, each respondent had to give their consent to participate in the study. Then, they answered to a set of questions - on a seven-point Likert scale - about Facebook, followed by the same set of questions, this time, regarding YouTube. Lastly, the respondents answered the more personal questions, corresponding to the control variables.

The questionnaire was conducted on both Portuguese and English languages. In the Portuguese version the items were translated using a back-translation technic to guarantee the equivalence of the questions. In the impossibility to translate the survey on such a wide range of languages and in order to reach more people, I opted for an English version of the survey.

4.3. Data Collection

The questionnaires were conducted online, being disclosed on social media, which allowed to reach a wider range of people from different countries. Additionally, this method was crucial due to the COVID-19 restrictions, that were in place during the questionnaires' distribution and that were very limiting in terms of in-person social interactions.

In total, 334 individuals answered the survey, however, after analysing the answers, only 310 respondents met the criteria. Some of the exclusion factors were (1) not agreeing to participate in the study or allowing personal-data collection/analysis, (2) answers that did not make sense or that did not apply, additionally, (3) I decided to not include India since it is considered both an individualist and collectivist country ("Hofstede Insights", n.d.), which could generate conflicting results.

5. Data Analysis and Findings

To examine scale accuracy, the research framework, and the hypothesis, SmartPLS 3.0 (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) was used. In this section the all elements mentioned above will be discussed.

5.1. Sample Characteristics

The most prevalent gender amongst respondents are females, followed by males and non-binary people. Females, represent 63% of the total sample, while males represent 36%, and non-binaries, only 1%. When considering the genders on individualistic vs collectivistic countries, while the number of females and males is similar on collectivistic countries (59% and 40%, respectively), on individualistic cultures the difference between gender is more emphasized (71% and 28%, respectively). When it comes to the respondents' ages, the most prevalent age group on the total sample is the 17-22 years old (47%), followed by the 23-30 years old (38%). Which is fairy similar to the results observed on the collectivistic (46% and 39%, respectively) and individualistic (51% and 37%, respectively) samples.

Regarding Facebook use per day, when it comes to the total sample, most users (78%) spend around 10 minutes to 1 hour on this specific platform, each day. The same can be said about the use per day on both individualistic (81%) and collectivistic (77%) countries. In its turn, most users spend around 31 minutes to 1 hour per day, on YouTube, on both the total sample (30%) and when considering individualistic (35%) and collectivistic (28%) countries, separately. Considering user experience, the large majority of respondents has more than 2 years of experience on both Facebook and YouTube (90% on the total sample). Similar results are registered, when observing the individualistic (89%) and collectivistic (91%) countries' results separately. For further information on the full sample characteristics, see Appendix C.

5.2. Scale Accuracy

In order to understand how well each item represents each construct, I analysed the factor loadings. All the items with factor loading values lesser than 0.708 should be removed (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2019). Thus, ISMAI2, ISMAC1, and IVSMA3 were removed due to low factor loadings. To access the reliability analysis, I analysed the Cronbach's alpha

and the composite reliability. All the constructs' Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were greater than 0.7, which leads to the conclusion that both the model and the measurements used in the study are reliable (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 1 - Scale Accuracy Analysis

Research Constructs		Mean*	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE	$R^{1/2}$	Factor Loading
SMA Infotainment	ISMAI-1	3.07	1.28	0.87	0.91	0.72	-	0.84
	ISMAI-2							0.37
	ISMAI-3							0.82
	ISMAI-4							0.85
	ISMAI-5							0.86
SMA Credibility	ISMAC-1	3.62	1.29	0.9	0.95	0.91	-	0.52
	ISMAC-2							0.95
	ISMAC-3							0.93
Value of SMA	IVSMA-1	3.32	1.39	0.88	0.94	0.89	0.58	0.92
	IVSMA-2							0.92
	IVSMA-3							0.56
Attitude Toward SMA	IASMA-1	2.68	1.51	0.92	0.95	0.86	0.66	0.93
	IASMA-2							0.92
	IASMA-3							0.92
Message Interaction Behaviour	IMEI-1	2.41	1.5	0.89	0.93	0.82	0.55	0.91
	IMEI-2							0.89
	IMEI-3							0.91
Social Interaction Behaviour	ISOI-1	1.99	1.26	0.8	0.88	0.71	0.25	0.83
	ISOI-2							0.84
	ISOI-3							0.86
*Based on a seven-point Likert scale (1=" strongly disagree," 4=" neutral," and 7=" strongly agree".								

To analyse the constructs' validity, I observed Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Fornell-Larcker Criterion, cross loadings, and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT). First, the AVE allows the understanding of convergent validity, which means, the degree to which the indicators converge or correlate in order to measure the constructs (Hair et al., 2019). Since all AVE's values are greater than 0.5, the convergent validity is confirmed. Then, to make sure the constructs are different from each other and are not measuring the same aspect, we assess discriminant validity. First, by analysing Fornell-Larker criterion we are able to

observe the correlation values of each construct with one another. All the values for each construct are greater than the correlation of that constructs with all other constructs, therefore, we can confirm that discriminant validity is established (Hair et al., 2019). Then, we observed the cross-loading values. Here, each indicator value should be greater for a particular construct than their correlation of that construct with another indicators (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). In this case, we can confirm that discriminant validity is established, once more. Lastly, by confirming that all HTMT values are less than or equal to 0.85, discriminant validity is attained (Henseler et al., 2015).

5.3. Structural Model Analysis

The structural model, allows the analysis of the relationships between the constructs on the proposed study model. Starting by observing the squared multiple correlations - or R^2 – that is used to evaluate the explanatory power of the four endogenous variables (in this case: value of SMA, attitude towards SMA, message interaction behaviour, and social interaction behaviour). In other words, it allows to understand how much of the variance in the dependent variables can be accounted to the independent variables. The results show that the variance of the endogenous variables ranged from 25.4% to 65.7%, which is higher than the minimum value of 10% (Falk & Miller, 1992). Therefore, the model is substantial. The results appear in Table 1.

Next, a bootstrapping (5000 samples) procedure was conducted and the path coefficients and p-values were analysed. The results of the bias-corrected 95% confidence interval can be observed on Table 2. For the constructs' relationships to be considered significant the p-values should be less than 0.05 (Hair et al., 2019). Starting by analysing the direct effect of attitude towards SMA on the behaviour outcomes – message interaction behaviour and social interaction behaviour, which correspond to H_{1a} and H_{2b}, respectively. Attitude towards SMA has a positive and significant relationship with the behaviour constructs, namely, with message interaction behaviour and social interaction behaviour, therefore H_{1a} and H_{1b} are confirmed.

All the other non-hypothesized direct effects – SMA infotainment/credibility on SMA value/attitude - are positive and significative, except for the impact of SMA credibility on attitude towards SMA.

Table 2 - Results

	Hypotheses	Base Model Path Coefficients (p-value)	Social Media Types Moderation Path Coefficients (p-value)		Individualism vs Collectivism Moderation Path Coefficients (p-value)	
			SNSs	CCSs	Individualism	Collectivism
Direct Effects						
ASMA -> MEI	**H₁ₐ**	0.737 (0.000)	0.710 (0.000)	0.746 (0.000)	0.707 (0.000)	0.757 (0.000)
ASMA -> SOI	**H₁ᵦ**	0.465 (0.000)	0.408 (0.000)	0.507 (0.000)	0.461 (0.000)	0.466 (0.000)
SMAI -> ASMA	**H₄ₐ/H₅ₐ**	0.471 (0.000)	0.487 (0.000)	0.466 (0.000)	0.515 (0.000)	0.458 (0.000)
SMAI ->VSMA	**H₄ᵦ/H₅ᵦ**	0.607 (0.000)	0.556 (0.000)	0.624 (0.000)	0.581 (0.000)	0.621 (0.000)
SMAC -> ASMA	**H₄ᶜ/H₅ᶜ**	0.045 (0.132)	0.099 (0.016)	0.055 (0.212)	0.036 (0.547)	0.047 (0.177)
SMAC -> VSMA	**H₄ᵈ/H₅ᵈ**	0.239 (0.000)	0.288 (0.000)	0.246 (0.000)	0.302 (0.000)	0.203 (0.000)
Mediating Effects						
Attitude towards SMA						
SMAI -> ASMA -> MEI	**H₂ₐ**	0.347 (0.000)	0.346 (0.000)	0.348 (0.000)	0.364 (0.000)	0.347 (0.000)
SMAC -> ASMA -> MEI	**H₂ᵦ**	0.033 (0.129)	0.070 (0.017)	0.041 (0.207)	0.026 (0.543)	0.035 (0.173)
VSMA -> ASMA -> MEI	**H₂ᶜ**	0.272 (0.000)	0.230 (0.000)	0.271 (0.000)	0.229 (0.000)	0.290 (0.000)
SMAI -> ASMA -> SOI	**H₂ᵈ**	0.219 (0.000)	0.199 (0.000)	0.236 (0.000)	0.238 (0.000)	0.213 (0.000)
SMAC -> ASMA -> SOI	**H₂ₑ**	0.021 (0.126)	0.028 (0.019)	0.040 (0.209)	0.017 (0.549)	0.022 (0.174)
VSMA -> ASMA -> SOI	**H₂f**	0.171 (0.000)	0.132 (0.000)	0.184 (0.000)	0.149 (0.000)	0.178 (0.000)
Value of SMA						
SMAI -> VSMA -> ASMA	**H₃ₐ**	0.224 (0.000)	0.180 (0.000)	0.227 (0.000)	0.188 (0.000)	0.238 (0.000)
SMAC -> VSMA -> ASMA	**H₃ᵦ**	0.088 (0.000)	0.093 (0.000)	0.090 (0.000)	0.098 (0.004)	0.078 (0.000)
ASMA=attitude towards SMA, MEI=message interaction behaviour, SMAC=SMA credibility, SMAI=SMA infotainment, SOI=social interaction behaviour, VSMA= value of SMA						

We observe that, while SMA infotainment registered a significant and positive with both belief outcomes – value of SMA and attitude towards SMA –, SMA credibility, only

registers a significant and positive relationship with value of SMA. Value of SMA impacts attitude towards SMA significantly and positively. Additionally, regarding the control variables, neither age nor user experience impacted significantly either message- nor social-interaction behaviour. However, social media usage, did not impact message interaction behaviour significantly, but had a significant and positive relationship with social interaction behaviour.

5.4. Meditating Effects

Since the bootstrapping procedure (5,000 samples) is used to formally test mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004), the same process was followed as before. The following results were analysed, taking into account that an indirect effect that is statistically significant ($p<0.05$) can be considered evidence for mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

Regarding H_2, where the mediation role of attitude towards SMA between the three cognition antecedents –SMA infotainment, SMA credibility and value of SMA - and the two conation outcomes – message interaction behaviour and social interaction behaviour - was hypothesized, H_{2a}, H_{2c}, H_{2d} and H_{2f} were supported. Only H_{2b} and H_{2e} were not supported. These correspond to the mediating effect of attitude on SMA credibility with both message and social interaction behaviours. In other words, attitude towards SMA as a significant and positive relationship with all the antecedent-outcome relationships except for SMA credibility relationship with the behaviour outcomes - social interaction behaviour and message interaction behaviour.

In its turn, H_3 considered the mediating effect of value of SMA on both belief constructs – (a) SMA infotainment and (b) credibility – and the attitudinal outcome – attitude towards SMA. Since both of these relationships are positive and significant, H_{3a} and H_{3b} are both confirmed. Which is in line with Johnston et al. (2018)'s work.

5.5. Moderating Effects

To access the moderating effects of individualism vs collectivism and the social media types, I used the multigroup analysis approach on SmartPLS. Observing the p-values on PLS-MGA, I concluded that there weren't any significant differences between the individualistic and collectivistic countries and between SNSs and CCSs. Thus, H_4 and H_5 are not confirmed.

In other words, the moderation role of both culture and social media types was not confirmed. Never the less, I address the differences found in each group, bellow.

Social Media Types

H_4 addressed the moderating effect of the social media types – SNSs and CCSs – specifically, it considered the effect of infotainment on (**a**) SMA attitude and (**b**) SMA value being stronger on CCSs than on SNSs, and the effect of credibility on (**c**) SMA attitude and (**d**) SMA value being stronger on SNSs than on CCSs. Since the p-values on PLS-MGA are higher than 0.05, there is no significant changes regarding the different types of social media. Thus, it is not possible to confirm H_{4a} to H_{4d}. However, it is possible to address the differences in social media types by observing the path coefficients of the relationships between SMA infotainment and SMA credibility with value of SMA and attitude towards SMA. While the effect of SMA infotainment on SMA value is stronger on CCSs, and the effect of SMA credibility on value is stronger on SNSs – which correspond to what was expected -, the effect of SMA infotainment on attitude towards SMA was stronger on SNSs. Additionally, when it comes to the effect of credibility on attitude, it is not significant on CCSs. Still, the effect of credibility on value is stronger on SNSs. Even though it is not possible to confirm H_{4b}, H_{4c} and H_{4d}, their differences in the individualistic and collectivistic contexts are according to what was expected.

Individualism vs Collectivism

In its turn, H_5 addressed the moderating effect of individualism vs collectivism, moreover, it was expected that the effect of infotainment on (**a**) SMA attitude and (**b**) value of SMA, and the effect of credibility on (**c**) SMA attitude and (**d**) value of SMA would be stronger on collectivistic cultures. As mentioned before, since the p-values on PLS-MGA were higher than 0.05, it was not possible to confirm H_{5a} to H_{5d}. However, it is still possible to address the differences in the path coefficients. Thus, we can observe the following effects. The effect of infotainment on SMA attitude is stronger on individualistic cultures. However, the effect of infotainment on value of SMA is greater on collectivistic cultures. When it comes to the effect of SMA credibility on attitude, it is not significant, on both individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Finally, the effect of credibility on SMA value, is stronger on collectivistic cultures. Even though I am not able to confirm H_{5b}, its differences in the individualistic and collectivistic contexts are according to what was expected.

6. Discussion and Conclusions

SMA importance on the online scenario in the today's world is been growing exponentially (Johnston et al., 2018). However, its importance is still overlooked in academic research (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013). Moreover, there is only a few investigations focusing on international SMA, and this absence is even more noticed when it comes to the behavioural implications of SMA (Hudson et al., 2015) and their differences across international scenarios (Berthon et al., 2012). To help fill this gap, I tested an existing model that assesses the four stages – belief, value, attitude and behaviour – consumers go through when they come across SMA. This theory-based model was first created by Johnston et al. (2018), and it considers the SMA process that leads to consumers' behavioural responses, and the effect of culture and social media types on that same process.

To assess the underlying process of consumers behavioural responses towards SMA, an online survey was distributed to respondents from 32 different countries. Next, we discuss each hypothesis and the results obtained. To assess the effect of attitude on behaviour – corresponding to H_1 – the influence of attitude towards SMA on (**a**) message interaction behaviour and on (**b**) social interaction behaviour was examined. The results show a positive and significant impact of attitude on both behaviour outcomes. This is in line to with the work of Johnston et al. (2018) that considers that the higher the attitude towards SMA, the greater the likelihood of consumers having a behavioural response in the form of interaction with the content, the advertiser or even other consumers.

Concerning the mediating effect of attitude – addressed on H_2 –, I examined the impact of attitude towards SMA on the relationships between (**a**) SMA infotainment, (**b**) SMA credibility, and (**c**) SMA value with message interaction behaviour, and the relationships of (**d**) SMA infotainment, (**e**) SMA credibility, and (**d**) SMA value with social interaction behaviour. The results show that attitude mediates the relationships of SMA infotainment and SMA credibility, with both social and message interaction behaviours. In other words, H_{2a}, H_{2c}, H_{2d} and H_{2f} were supported. When it comes to the mediating role of attitude on the relationships of SMA credibility with social interaction behaviour and message interaction behaviour, there is no significant results, therefore it is not possible to confirm H_{2b} and $H_{2e.}$ These results might highlight the importance of adding value to the hierarchy of effects theory constructs – cognition (belief), attitude and conation (behaviour). It is also important

to note that both theories used in the model – hierarchy of effects theory and expectancy value theory – are considered flexible (Shoham et al., 1998) and that the sequence of the constructs has been open to debate (Barry & Howard, 1990). Nevertheless, in line with previous work (e.g.: Johnston et al., 2018), the intervening role of attitude on the relationships between the two belief antecedents – SMA infotainment and value of SMA – and the two behavioural outcomes – message and interaction behaviour, is confirmed.

In its turn, the mediating role of value – corresponding to H_3 –, was analysed by considering the impact of value of SMA on the relationships of (**a**) SMA infotainment and (**b**) SMA credibility with attitude towards SMA. The results show that both these relationships are significant, meaning that H_{3a} and H_{3b} are confirmed. This is consistent with the existing literature (e.g.: Johnston et al., 2018), where value is regarded as having an intervening role on the relationships between the stages of belief and attitude.

The impact of global social media types on SMA behavioural responses – corresponding to H_4 -, the two more relevant types of social media – SNSs and CCSs were considered. In line with Johnston et al. (2018) work, it was expected that the impact of infotainment on attitude and value would be stronger on CCSs, and that the impact of credibility on attitude and value would be stronger on SNSs. However, the results indicated no significant differences between the social media types. A potential explanation might be that consumers easily can assess different sources of information through internet, which might mitigate the issues referred previously. For example, SNSs are considered more credible due to the possibility of sharing/reading users' "friends" opinions. However, when confronted with SMA on CCSs, any user can easily search for other users' opinions online, mitigating the credibility factor. Additionally, the SMA format is often the same, regardless of the social media type used. For example, it is frequent to spot SMA videos on Facebook, that are typically seen on YouTube. There is the possibility that the type of social media used in each platform is converging, becoming more similar. Furthermore, consumers are increasingly capable of reduce the restraints of each social media type. Consumers' behaviour towards SMA might not depend that much on the vehicle used to share it. The focus might be more on the SMA content (Dao et al., 2014), which is corroborated with the positive effects of infotainment and credibility on message and social interaction behaviours.

To address the impact of culture on the consumers behavioural responses to SMA -assessed on H_5 -, I focused on the differences between consumers perceptions in individualistic and

collectivistic cultures. It was expected that the effects of infotainment/credibility on attitude and value would be stronger on collectivistic cultures. Opposed to previous work (e.g.: Johnston er al., 2018), the results showed no significant differences between cultures. Therefore, it was not possible to provide empirical evidence of this moderation. A possible explanation might concern the globalization of the online scenario. The internet, and moreover, social media, allow users to easily connect and interact with people and brands all over the world (Ko et al., 2015; Okazaki & Taylor, 2013). There is the possibility that consumers are more comfortable with a more globalized type of advertising – regardless of their cultural background - when it happens online, and specifically on social media, than on more traditional types of media. With the continuous evolution of social media, and the users getting increasingly used to interact in a more global and international scenario, it is possible that, in the future, the cultural differences progressively lose importance, in this context. Additionally, the majority of respondents were young adults with ages ranging between 17 and 22 years old. Usually, younger people are more familiar with social media settings and have no issue finding the content they are looking for. Thus, their understanding of social media might make them more prone to a more standardized type of SMA.

6.1. Implications

This work contributes to the existing theoretical knowledge in several ways. First, it contributes to the behavioural implications of international SMA and the literature about the effect of SMA attitude on behaviour, since the specific effects of message and social interaction behaviour were addressed and tested accordingly. Most of the existing literature focuses on attitudes or perceptions (Hatzithomas, et al., 2016), however, here the focus is on the interactive responses to international SMA. Thus, by addressing SMA in a cross-cultural setting, this work also contributes to the existing literature on international SMA.

Testing the theory-based model developed by Johnston et al. (2018), allows to further the understanding of SMA implications. This model is based on two well-known and widely used theories – hierarchy of effects theory and expectancy value theory – which contributes to the lack of theoretical perspectives on SMA literature (Okazaki & Taylor, 2013). By using the theories' constructs to assess the process consumers go through when dealing with SMA, these theories' application and reliability are tested and the theoretical knowledge is furthered. Additionally, the results suggest that the mediating role of value – which is added from the expectancy value theory, to the existing sequence of hierarchy of effects theory -

might be essential in the constructs sequence. Testing Johnston et al. (2018) model, in a different cultural scenario, contributes to the validation of the constructs and the relationships between the SMA antecedents and outcomes. Other existing models are not considered efficient when measuring culture (Ashraf et al., 2017), however, the model used accounts for differences in consumers' culture. Therefore, testing this model contributes to the literature on the process that leads consumers to SMA behavioural responses in international marketplaces.

The role of individualism vs collectivism on SMA behavioural responses was analysed, which contributes to the international SMA literature. Additionally, it contributes to standardization vs adaptation debate by providing insights of the impact of culture on SMA. The results might suggest that the role of individualism vs collectivism on consumers' responses to SMA is not significant. Which means that a more standardized type of advertising can be presented to consumers. Furthermore, the role of different social media types on the four-stage SMA process, was also taken into consideration. This contributes to the theoretical knowledge on the SMA behavioural implications of the different platforms used to diffuse SMA. In this study, two different social media types are compared, meanwhile, the majority of articles only consider one type of social media (e.g.: Bergh at al., 2011). Since the moderating effect of the social media types was not confirmed in the results, this might suggest that the platform used is not as important as the content shared. The importance of content if proven by the impact of infotainment and credibility on consumers' behavioural responses, which, in its turn, is an important contribution for the existing knowledge on firm-generated content.

This work also provides insights that can be employed by managers when considering including SMA as a part of their communication strategy in cross-cultural settings and across social media types. The results show that consumers' engagement – in the form of behavioural responses – depends on value of SMA and attitude towards SMA. In other words, to increase SMA value, managers should focus on the infotainment and credibility aspects of content. In its turn, increasing SMA's value and focusing on the belief constructs will also contribute to a better attitude. Additionally, when comparing SMA infotainment and credibility, the first shows a stronger impact on its outcomes. Therefore, managers should focus on the content of SMA, but even more on the informational and entertaining aspects.

Since the moderating effect of individualism vs collectivism was not confirmed, it is possible that the role of culture in the online scenario, and more specifically, on social media, might not be that meaningful. In other words, there is the possibility that consumers are more open to a more standardized type of SMA, when comparing with traditional media. Consumers are used to a global space, that allows them to interact with content from all over the world. This normalization of other cultures might mitigate the effects of cultural differences. Something similar can happen when it comes to SMA in different types of SMA. In both examples used, Facebook and YouTube – representing SNSs and CCSs, respectively – some SMA content seems to be converging. Even though, SMA in the format of video is more common on YouTube, now-a-days it is also commonly used in Facebook advertising. Moreover, consumers seem to be more focused on the content of SMA then on the platform it is presented. For managers, this means that when planning SMA strategies, even though they should take into consideration the platform, it is possible that different social media types can be explored similarly. Instead of focusing their resources on different types of social media, managers might want to focus their efforts on the creation of entertaining, informational and credible SMA content.

Finally, it is worth to mention the significant and positive impact of social media usage on social interaction behaviour. The results suggest that consumers who use social media more, tend to engage more in interactions with advertisers and other consumers. Thus, if managers are interested in enhancing consumers' behavioural responses, they might want to invest on activities that influence consumers to spend more time on social media. For example, managers might create specific content -like games or applications - that engages consumers during longer periods of time.

6.2. Limitations and Future Research Directions

In this work, I used Hofstede at al. (2010)'s scores to measure individualism vs collectivism, instead of measuring this construct. Even though, Hofstede et al. (2010)'s scores are often used in academic research (e.g.: Arpaci et al., 2018), measuring this dimension can provide more reliable results. Additionally, only one cultural dimension was tested – individualism vs collectivism – and even though this dimension is considered one of the most efficient in testing cultural differences (Möller & Eisend, 2010), other aspects of culture might impact the results.

When it comes to the social media types analysed, SNSs and CCSs, - corresponding to Facebook and YouTube, respectively – it is important to consider that there are different types of SMA inside each platform. Analysing the different types of SMA specifically, might be useful to understand if these impact consumers' behavioural responses. Additionally, the social media platforms are always being updated and new features are included. Which means that emergence of new opportunities for SMA. Namely, SMA created by influencers is an extremely popular type of online advertisement that can be analysed in future research.

Even though, I consider the model proposed by Johnston et al. (2018) efficient when explaining the behavioural implications of SMA, modelling and testing different antecedent/outcome constructs might be interesting. Even more so considering that I wasn't able to confirm the role of attitude towards SMA as a mediator for the relationship of SMA credibility and the two behavioural outcomes.

Bibliography

Aktan, M., Aydogan, S. & Aysuna, C. (2016). Web advertising value and students' attitude towards web advertising. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 8(9), 86-97.

Alexandris, K., Tsiotsou, R. & James, J. (2012). Testing a hierarchy of effects model of sponsorship effectiveness. *Journal of Sport Management*, 26, 363-378.

Arpaci, I., Kesici, S. & Baloglu, M. (2018). Individualism and internet addiction: The mediating role of psychological needs. *Internet Research*, 28(2), 293-314.

Ashraf, A., Thongpapanl, N., Menguc, B & Northey, G. (2017). The role of M-commerce readiness in emerging and developed markets. *Journal of International Marketing*, 25(2), 25-51.

Baack, D. & Singh, N. (2006). Culture and web communications. *Journal of Business Research*, 60, 181-188.

Barry, T. & Howard, D. (1990). A review and critique of the hierarchy of effects in advertising. *International Journal of Advertising*, 9(2), 121-135.

Bartsch, F., Riefler, P. & Diamantopoulos, A. (2015). A taxonomy and review of positive consumer dispositions toward foreign countries and globalization. *Journal of International Marketing*, 24(1), 82-110.

Bergh, B., Lee, M., Quilliam, E. & Hove, T. (2011). The multidimensional nature and brand impact of user-generated ad parodies in social media. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30(1), 103-131.

Berthon, P., Pitt, L., Plangger, K. & Shapiro, D. (2012). Marketing meets Web 2.0, social media, and creative consumers: Implications for international marketing strategy. *Business Horizons*, 55, 261-271.

Boyd, D. & Ellison, N. (2008). Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 13, 210-230.

Cai, D. & Fink, E. (2002). Conflict style differences between individualists and collectivists. *Communication Monographs*, 69(1), 67-87.

Chu, S. & Kim, Y. (2011). Determinants of consumer engagement in electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) in social networking sites. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30(1), 47-75.

Dao, W., Cheng, J. & Le, A. (2014). Social media advertising value: The case of transitional economies in Southeast Asia. *International Journal of Advertising*, 33(2), 271-294.

Ducoffe, R. (1995). How consumers assess the value of advertising. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 17(1), 1-18.

Durand, A., Turkina, E. & Robson, M. (2016). Psychic distance and country image in exporter-importer relationships. *Journal of International Marketing*, 24(3), 31-57.

Eisend, M. & Tarrahi, F. (2016). The effectiveness of advertising: A meta-meta-analysis of advertising inputs and outcomes. *Journal of Advertising*, 45(4), 519-531.

Evans, D. (2009). The online advertising industry: Economics, evolution, and privacy. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 23(3), 37-60.

23 de agosto

Statista Research Department. (2021, September 10). Facebook: Active Users Worldwide. Retrieved August 23, 2021, from https://www.statista.com/statistics/264810/number-of-monthly-active-facebook-users-worldwide/

Falk, F. & Miller, N. (1992). A primer for soft modelling. Ohio, United States of America: University of Akron Prss.

Goodrich, K. & Mooij, M. (2013). How "social" are social media? A cross-cultural comparison of online purchase decision influences. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 20, 103-116.

Gruner, R., Vomberg, A., Homburg, C. & Lukas, B. (2019). Supporting new product launches with social media communication and online advertising: Sale volume and profit implications. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 36(2), 172-195.

Gunter, B., Campbell, V., Touri, M. & Gibson, R. (2009). Blogs, news and credibility. *Aslib Proceedings*, 61(2), 185-204.

Gupta, H., Singh, S. & Sinha, P. (2017). Multimedia tool as a predictor for social media advertising: A YouTube way. *Multimedia Tools and Applications*, 76, 18557-18568.

Han, S. & Shavitt, S. (1994). Persuasion and culture: Advertising appeals in individualistic and collectivistic societies. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 30(4), 326-350.

Hair, J., Risher, J., Sarstedt, M. & Ringle, C. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM.

Hatzithomas, L., Fotiadis, T. & Coudounaris, D. (2016). Standardization, adaptation, and personalization of international corporate social media communications. *Psychology & Marketing*, 33(12), 1098-1106.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modelling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43, 115-135.

Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J. & Minkov, M. (2010). Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind, 3rd ed. New York: McGraw Hill.

Hofstede Insights. (n.d.). Retrieved July, 2021, from Hofstede Insights: https://www.hofstede-insights.com/

Huang, C., Shen, Y., Lin, H. & Chang, S. (2007). Bloggers' motivations and behaviors: A model. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 47(4), 472-484.

Hudson, S., Huang, L., Roth, M. & Madden, T. (2015). The influence of social media interactions on consumer-brand relationships: A three-country study of brand perceptions and marketing behaviours. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 33(1), 27-41.

Johnston, W., Khalil, S., Le, A., Cheng, J. (2018). Behavioural implications of international social media advertising: An investigation of intervening and contingency factors. *Journal of International Marketing*, 26 (2), 43-61.

Kaplan, A. & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite!: The challenges and opportunities of social media. *Business Horizons*, 53, 59-68.

Kemp, S. (2021, March 8). Digital 2021 global overview report: The latest insights into how people around the world use the internet, social media, mobile devices, and ecommerce.

Retrieved August 23, 2021, from https://www.slideshare.net/DataReportal/digital-2021-global-overview-report-january-2021-v03

Khang, H., Ki, E. & Ye, L. (2012). Social media research in advertising, communication, marketing, and public relations, 1997-2010. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 89(2), 279-298.

Kietzmann, J., Hermkens, K., McCarthy, I. & Silvestre, B. (2011). Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media. *Business Horizons*, 54, 241-251.

Knoll, J. (2016). Advertising in social media: A review of empirical evidence. *International Journal of Advertising*, 35(2), 266-300.

Ko, H., Cho, C. & Roberts, M. (2005). Internet uses and gratifications: A structural equation model of interactive advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(2), 57-70.

Kumar, V. & Gupta, S. (2016). Conceptualizing the evolution and future of advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 45(3), 302-317.

Lavidge, R. & Steiner, G. (1961). A model for predictive measurements of advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing*, 25(6), 59-62.

Lee, B. & Tamborini, R. (2005). Third-person Effect and internet pornography: The influence of collectivism and internet self-efficacy. *Journal of Communication*, 55(2), 292-310.

Lee, W. & Choi, S. (2006). The role of horizontal and vertical individualism and collectivism in online consumers' responses toward persuasive communication on the web. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 11(1), 317-336.

Lim, K., Leung, K., Sia, C. & Lee, M. (2004). Is eCommerce boundary-less? Effects of individualism-collectivism and uncertainty avoidance on internet shopping. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 35(6), 545-559.

Lin, H. & Kalwani, M. (2018). Culturally contingent electronic word-of-mouth signalling and screening: A comparative study of product reviews in the United States and Japan. *Journal of International Marketing*, 26(2), 80-102.

Lin, H., Swarna, H. & Bruning, P. (2017). Taking a global view on brand post popularity: Six social media brands post practices for global markets. *Business Horizons*, 60(5), 621-633.

Liu, C., Sinkovics, R., Pezderka, N. & Haghirian, P. (2012). Determinants of consumer perceptions toward mobile advertising: A comparison between Japan and Austria. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 26, 21-32.

MacKenzie, S. & Lutz, R. (1989). An empirical examination of the structural antecedents of attitude toward the ad in an advertising pretesting context. *Journal of Marketing*, 53, 48-65.

Martin, S., Javalgi, R. & Ciravegna, L. (2020). Marketing capabilities and international new venture performance: The mediation role of marketing communication and the moderation effect of technological turbulence. *Journal of Business Research*, 107, 25-37.

Möller, J. & Eisend, M. (2010). A global investigation into the cultural and individual antecedents of banner advertising effectiveness. *Journal of International Marketing*, 18(2), 80-98.

Moro, S., Rita, P. & Vala, B. (2016). Predicting social media performance metrics and evaluation of the impact on brand building: A data mining approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(9), 3341-3351.

Okazaki, S. (2004). How do Japanese consumers perceive wireless ads?: A multivariate analysis. *International Journal of Advertising*, 23(4), 429-454.

Okazaki, S., & Taylor, C. (2013). Social media and international advertising: Theoretical challenges and future directions. *International Marketing Review*, 30(1), 56-71.

Pollay, R. & Mittal, B. (1993). Here's the beef: Factors, determinants, and segments in consumer criticism of advertising. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(3), 99-114.

Preacher, K. & Hayes, A. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation. *Behavior Research Methods, Intruments, & Computers*, 36(4), 717-731.

Rayburn, J. & Palmgreen, P. (1984). Mergingg uses and gratifications and expectancy value theory. *Communication Research*, 11(4), 537-562.

Ringle, C., Wende, S. & Becker, J. (2015). SmartPLS 3. Bönningstedt, Germany: SmartPLS.

Schultz, D. & Schultz, H. (1998). Transitioning marketing communication into the twenty-first century. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 4(1), 9-26.

Shoham, A., Rose, G. & Kahle, L. (1998). Marketing of risky sports: From intention to action. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(4), 307-321.

Smith, R., Chen, J. & Yang, X. (2008). The impact of advertising creativity on the hierarchy of effects. *Journal of Advertising*, 37(4), 47-61.

Sreejesh, S., Paul, J., Strong, C. & Pius, J. (2020). Consumer response towards social media advertising: Effect of media interactivity, its conditions and the underlying mechanism. *International Journal of Information Management*, 54, 102155.

Tang, L. (2017). Mine your customers or mind your business: The moderating role of culture in online word-of-mouth reviews. *Journal of International Marketing*, 25(2), 88-110.

Tehone, A., Zo, H. & Ciganek, A. (2015). Why do people use social computing?: An experiential perspective. *Internet Research*, 25(3), 338-357.

Voorveld, H., Noort, G., Muntinga, D. & Bronner, F. (2018). Engagement with social media and social media advertising: The differentiating role of platform type. *Journal of Advertising*, 47(1), 38-54.

Wang, Y. & Sun, S. (2010). Examining the role of beliefs and attitudes in online advertising: A comparison between the USA and Romania. *International Marketing Review*, 27(1), 87-107.

Waters, R. & Lo, K. (2012). Exploring the impact of culture in the social media sphere: A content analysis of nonprofit organizations' use of Facebook. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 41(3), 297-319.

Yao, M. & Ling, R. (2020). "What is computer-mediated communication?": An introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communications*, 25, 4-8.

Zeng, F., Huang, L. & Dou, W. (2009). Social factors in user perceptions and responses to advertising in online social networking communities. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 10(1), 1-13.

Zhang, J. & Shavitt, S. (2003). Cultural values in advertisements to the Chinese x-generation. *Journal of Advertising*, 32(1), 23-33.

Appendix A. Countries' Classification

Country	Freq. (%)	Individualism Score	Classification: Individualist or Collectivist
Albania	1 (0.3)	20	Collectivist
Australia	1 (0.3)	90	Individualist
Bangladesh	1 (0.3)	20	Collectivist
Brazil	2 (0.6)	38	Collectivist
Bulgaria	1 (0.3)	30	Collectivist
Canada	7 (2.3)	80	Individualist
Croatia	1 (0.3)	33	Collectivist
Denmark	2 (0.6)	74	Individualist
Finland	1 (0.3)	63	Individualist
France	1 (0.3)	71	Individualist
Germany	7 (2.3)	67	Individualist
Greece	3 (1.0)	35	Collectivist
Hungary	3 (1.0)	80	Individualist
Indonesia	2 (0.6)	14	Collectivist
Ireland	1 (0.3)	70	Individualist
Lebanon	1 (0.3)	40	Collectivist
Malaysia	3 (1.0)	26	Collectivist
Netherlands	1 (0.3)	80	Individualist
Norway	1 (0.3)	69	Individualist
Philippines	1 (0.3)	32	Collectivist
Poland	4 (1.3)	60	Individualist
Portugal	181 (58.3)	27	Collectivist
Romania	1 (0.3)	30	Collectivist
Russia	1 (0.3)	39	Collectivist
Singapore	1 (0.3)	20	Collectivist
Spain	1 (0.3)	51	Individualist*
Sweden	27 (8.7)	71	Individualist
Taiwan	3 (1.0)	17	Collectivist
Thailand	1 (0.3)	20	Collectivist
United Kingdom	34 (11.0)	89	Individualist
United States of America	14 (4.5)	91	Individualist
Vietnam	1 (0.3)	20	Collectivist

NOTE: Score and classifications retrieved July 2, 2021, from: https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/

* Spain is considered collectivist, when compared to European countries, but clearly individualist when compared with countries worldwide (https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/spain/).

Appendix B. Scale Measurements

	Constructs	Items	Question Statement
Facebook (SNS)	SMA Infotainment	ISMAI-F1	Facebook ads are amusing and entertaining.
		ISMAI-F2	Facebook ads are even more boring than other media contexts. R
		ISMAI-F3	I feel pleasure in thinking about what I saw, heard or read in Facebook ads.
		ISMAI-F4	Facebook ads are valuable sources of information about products.
		ISMAI-F5	Facebook ads help me keep up to date about products available in the market place.
	SMA Credibility	ISMAC-F1	Facebook ads are not credible. R
		ISMAC-F2	Facebook ads are trustworthy.
		ISMAC-F3	Facebook ads are believable.
	Value of SMA	IVSMA-F1	Facebook ads are useful.
		IVSMA-F2	Facebook ads are valuable.
		IVSMA-F3	Facebook ads are not important. R
	Attitude towards SMA	IASMA-F1	I describe my overall attitude towards ads on Facebook as favourable.
		IASMA-F2	Overall, I consider ads on Facebook a good thing.
		IASMA-F3	Overall, I like ads on Facebook very much.
	Message Interaction Behavior	IMEI-F1	I click on ads and its various contents on Facebook.
		IMEI-F2	I pay attention to/follow ads on Facebook.
		IMEI-F3	I search for more information within the ad post on Facebook.
	Social Interaction Behavior	ISOI-F1	I click on the "Like" button of ads on my Facebook to easily read and respond to other users' comments.
		ISOI-F2	I share what I think and feel about Facebook ads on my Facebook.
		ISOI-F3	I discuss things that interest me from ads on my Facebook with other users/advertisers.
YouTube (CCS)	SMA Infotainment	ISMAI-Y1	YouTube ads are amusing and entertaining.
		ISMAI-Y2	YouTube ads are even more boring than other media contexts. R
		ISMAI-Y3	I feel pleasure in thinking about what I saw, heard or read in YouTube ads.
		ISMAI-Y4	YouTube ads are valuable sources of information about products.
		ISMAI-Y5	YouTube ads help me keep up to date about products available in the market place.
	SMA Credibility	ISMAC-Y1	YouTube ads are not credible. R
		ISMAC-Y2	YouTube ads are trustworthy.
		ISMAC-Y3	YouTube ads are believable.
	Value of SMA	IVSMA-Y1	YouTube ads are useful.
		IVSMA-Y2	YouTube ads are valuable.
		IVSMA-Y3	YouTube ads are not important. R
	Attitude towards SMA	IASMA-Y1	I describe my overall attitude towards ads on YouTube as favourable.
		IASMA-Y2	Overall, I consider ads on YouTube a good thing.
		IASMA-Y3	Overall, I like ads on YouTube very much.
	Message Interaction Behavior	IMEI-Y1	I click on ads and its various contents on YouTube.
		IMEI-Y2	I pay attention to/follow ads on YouTube.
		IMEI-Y3	I search for more information within the ad post on YouTube.
	Social Interaction Behavior	ISOI-Y1	I click on the "Like" button of ads on my YouTube to easily read and respond to other users' comments.
		ISOI-Y2	I share what I think and feel about YouTube ads on my YouTube.
		ISOI-Y3	I discuss things that interest me from ads on my YouTube with other users/advertisers.
			R = Reverse coded items

Appendix C. Sample Characteristics

Characteristics	Individualist		Collectivist		Integrated	
Gender	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Male	29	27.9	83	40.3	112	36.1
Female	74	71.2	121	58.7	195	62.9
Non-binary	1	1.0	2	1.0	3	1.0
Total	104	100	206	100	310	100
Age	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
17-22	53	51.0	94	45.6	147	47.4
23-30	38	36.5	81	39.3	119	38.4
>30	13	12.5	31	15.0	44	14.2
Total	104	100	206	100	310	100
Use per day	Freq. (SNSs/CCSs)	%	Freq. (SNSs/CCSs)	%	Freq. (SNSs/CCSs)	%
≤10 minutes	25/9	24.0/8.7	52/26	25.2/12.6	77/35	24.8/11.3
11-30 minutes	30/16	28.8/15.4	53/36	25.7/17.5	83/52	26.8/16.8
31-60 minutes	30/36	28.8/34.6	53/58	25.7/28.2	83/94	26.8/30.3
61-120 minutes	10/23	9.6/22.1	28/36	13.6/17.5	38/59	12.3/19.0
121-180 minutes	6/12	5.8/11.5	6/29	2.9/14.1	12/41	3.9/13.2
>180	3/8	2.9/7.7	14/21	6.8/10.2	17/29	5.5/9.4
Total	104/104	100/100	206/206	100/100	310/310	100/100
User experience	Freq. (SNSs/CCSs)	%	Freq. (SNSs/CCSs)	%	Freq. (SNSs/CCSs)	%
≤6 months	3/3	2.9/2.9	2/1	1.0/0.5	5/4	1.6/1.3
6 months <-≤ 1 year	3/0	2.9/0.0	0/3	0.0/1.5	3/3	1.0/1.0
1 year <-≤ 1.5 years	2/1	1.9/1.0	3/2	1.5/1.0	5/3	1.6/1.0
1.5 years <-≤ 2 years	5/7	4.8/6.7	14/13	6.8/6.3	19/20	6.1/6.5
>2 years	91/93	87.5/89.4	187/187	90.8/90.8	278/280	89.7/90.3
Total	104/104	100/100	206/206	100/100	310/310	100/100