

**AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS ON HOW RELEVANCE AND
CREDIBILITY OF CONTENT AFFECT CONSUMER BRAND
ENGAGEMENT ON FACEBOOK AND INSTAGRAM IN A
MIXED BUSINESS MODEL**

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ABSTRACT

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Title An empirical analysis on how relevance and credibility of content affect consumer brand engagement in Facebook and Instagram in a mixed business model	
Subject Digital Marketing and Corporate Communication	Type of work Master's thesis
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Abstract <p>The expansion of social media as marketing channel is explained by its efficiency in reaching multitudes in a short time at low costs. The new marketing channels require new marketing approaches aiming to achieve new marketing goals. Content marketing as an efficient marketing approach has received great interest from both academics and practitioners especially for its ability to drive consumer brand engagement (CBE) as the new desirable outcome of brand's efforts in social media. Relevance, an intuitively understood concept, is considered a must for content to drive consumer brand engagement. On the other hand, credibility as a subjectively perceived concept is an important criterion that consumers apply when deciding on what content they want to engage with. Despite their importance, not much has been done to empirically assess the effect of content relevance and content credibility on CBE and the role of content credibility on CBE in a social media environment, more specifically on Facebook and Instagram. While consumer engagement in B2C and B2B business model contexts has received increased attention, the same thing cannot be said for the mixed business model context that this study applies.</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to empirically assess the impact on CBE that relevance and credibility of content created by a mixed business model company and distributed on its Facebook and Instagram global profiles. CBE as a multidimensional concept is measured through three dimensions of cognitive processing, affection and activation based on Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie (2014) conceptualization and scale. The direct effect of content relevance and content credibility on brand trust (BT) was assessed based on previous literature. This study also evaluates the effect of CBE on BT and word of mouth intentions (WoM) as the desired outcomes of CBE. Based on previous studies the effect of BT on WoM was assessed.</p> <p>Quantitative approach is found appropriate for this study. As result of an online survey, 426 valid responses were received (N= 426). SPSS and SmartPLS 3.0 were used to analyze the collected data. Based on results, content relevance and content credibility show significant positive effect on each of the three dimensions of CBE. Content credibility also shows significant direct effect on BT, whereas this is not the case for content relevance being the only hypothesis that is not supported in this study. As expected, CBE has significant positive effect on both BT and WoM. A strong effect of BT on WoM intentions is noticed. CBE is identified as mediator in the relationship between content relevance and BT as well as on the relationship between content credibility and BT. Brand trust is identified to be a mediator in the relationship between CBE and WoM.</p>	
Key words Digital content marketing, relevance, credibility, consumer brand engagement, brand trust, word of mouth	
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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

Social media usage has significantly expanded becoming one of the most prevalent online activities. In 2018 around 2.65 billion people used social media worldwide, a number that is expected to rise to about 3.1 billion in 2021 (Statista, 2019). The popularity of social media usage is addressed to the ability of social media to meet the needs of consumers for information, entertainment, as well as their need to socialize with friends and other people with whom they share same interests, at their favorite platform (Hur et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2015; Lin & Liu, 2012).

Social media's popularity has also increased among the businesses as an efficient marketing channel, due to its capacity to reach multitudes of consumers at much lower costs in a short time and engage them in conversations (Iankova et al., 2018). The ability of social media to encourage and enhance brand engagement makes it a powerful instrument that has received the attention of all types of businesses (McShane, Pancer & Poole, 2019). Different business models treat social media differently starting from the importance they tag to it, the channels they use to engage with costumers to the strategies and tactics they use to engage with their audiences. Business-to-consumer (B2C) organizations were quick to adopt social media, meanwhile business-to-business (B2B) organizations were slower and more reluctant in embracing social media and mixed business model organizations treat all social media platforms as highly important (Iankova et al., 2018, p. 175).

In a social media era, the traditional marketing is becoming less appropriate (CMI, 2020) as result new ways to communicate and interact with consumers are crucial. Digital content marketing (DCM) is presented as an effective alternative that has received the attention of researchers as well as of practitioners (Leek, Canning & Houghton, 2016). Differently from the traditional marketing, digital content marketing enables brands to communicate with their prospective and current consumers without commercial messages that relate to selling products or services directly nor indirectly (Hollebeek & Macky 2018). “The *creation and dissemination of relevant, valuable brand-related content to current or prospective customers on digital platforms*” is expected to produce several benefits for the brand such as consumer engagement, relationship with the brand, and brand trust (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018, p. 9; Taiminen & Ranaweera, 2019).

Consumer brand engagement (CBE) is one of the key outcomes desired by brands due to the benefits it evokes such as loyalty, brand trust and commitment (Brodie et al., 2011b; Hollebeek et al. 2014) making it an appealing topic in the academic arena and not only. While there are different views on the dimensions of engagement, the three-dimensional (cognitive processing, affection, and activation) seems to be the most used by researchers (Brodie et al., 2011a; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2014). Karjaluoto, Munnukka and Tiensuu (2016) state that engagement stems from different motivational drivers such as need for information, entertainment, social interaction, personal identity, and economic motivations. Brands try to meet all these needs through creation of digital content which is distributed through social media channels. This study focuses on the need of consumers for information and will analyze how relevance and credibility of content created by a mixed business model company delivered in social media affect consumer brand engagement.

Relevance is considered to be a complex and intuitively perceived concept (Saracevic, 1975). According to Pazeraite and Repoviene (2016, p. 99) “*the relevance of content is perceived as usefulness of information for a consumer*”. Whereas relevance of content is broadly accepted as a factor to trigger engagement (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018; Pulizzi, 2012; Wanget al., 2017), no empirical evidence is identified. Credibility as well is considered to be a complex, subjective and multidimensional concept (Rieh, Morris et al., 2014). Referring to persuasion theory - Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), credibility of information is viewed as a three-dimensional concept consisting of medium, message/content and source credibility (Li & Suh, 2015, p. 316). While credibility of source and credibility of medium have received considerable attention regarding their impact on consumer engagement little effort has been invested addressing the impact of message credibility on consumer engagement.

Brand trust (BT) and word of mouth (WoM) are two other concepts included in this study. Both brand trust and word of mouth are identified as desirable outcomes of brand’s efforts devoted to stimulate consumer’s engagement with the brand through digital content marketing. This study based on previous work also assesses the direct impact of content relevance and credibility on brand trust.

1.2 Theoretical gaps and research objectives

Digital brand-related content should be relevant and credible for it to attract and engage the audience with the brand (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Hollebeek & Macky, 2018; Holliman & Rowley, 2014; Reinikainen et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017). Relevance, an intuitively perceived concept (Saracevic, 1975), is broadly accepted as a must for content to obtain in order to motivate the audience engage with the brand through brand-related content. However, empirical evidence on the extent to which it affects consumer brand engagement is lacking (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018). Credibility, on the other hand being a subjectively perceived concept, is considered as the main criterion that the audience will use to select the type and the amount of content they want to engage with (Rieh, Jeon et al., 2014). Different studies have investigated the impact of credibility of source and medium on consumer brand engagement, but little has been done with respect to the impact of credibility of content on brand consumer engagement in social media environment (Appelman & Sundar, 2016 p. 59).

While a considerable amount of research has been exploring engagement on social media in a B2C followed by an increased interest in B2B context, there is a big vacuum with regards to engagement in mixed business model context, which according to Iankovaa et al. (2018, p. 2) refer to businesses that sell products to other businesses as well as to individual consumers.

In response to these gaps found in theory, the aim of this study is to provide empirical analysis on how credibility and relevance of brand-related-content delivered on social media platforms (Facebook and Instagram) of a mixed business model organization affect consumer brand engagement (CBE) composed of cognitive, emotional and behavioral dimensions. This study will address these theoretical gaps by answering to the following research questions.

Table 1: Research questions

Primary research questions	Secondary research questions
RQ1: How does relevance of brand-related content on Facebook and/or Instagram affect customer brand engagement?	RQ1.1: How does relevance of brand-related content affect consumers' cognitive engagement with the brand? RQ1.2: How does relevance of brand-related content affect consumers' emotional engagement with the brand? RQ1.3: How does relevance of brand-related content affect consumers' behavioral engagement with the brand?
RQ2: How does credibility of brand-related content on Facebook and/or Instagram affect consumer brand engagement?	RQ2.1: How does credibility of brand-related content affect consumers' cognitive engagement with the brand? RQ2.2: How does credibility of brand-related content affect consumers' emotional engagement with the brand? RQ2.3: How does credibility of brand-related content affect consumers' behavioral engagement with the brand?
RQ3: Does relevance of brand-related content on Facebook and/or Instagram have any direct effect on brand trust?	
RQ4: Does credibility of brand-related content on Facebook and/or Instagram have a direct effect on brand trust?	
RQ5: How does consumer brand engagement affect brand trust and WOM intentions?	
RQ6: What is the effect of Brand Trust on WoM intentions?	

1.3 Cooperative company

Valtra is an international company, part of AGCO Corporation, that manufactures tractors and agriculture machineries. Valtra's manufacturing plants are in Finland, making it the only tractor producer in the Nordic area, and in Brazil (Valtra, n.d.). Valtra counts more than 1 700 employees worldwide. Valtra's machines are sold in over 75 countries through (1) international importers who sell Valtra products to end users through independent dealers, as well as through (2) Valtra's own local representatives who sell directly to end users identifying Valtra as a mixed business model company. Even though Valtra is a mixed business model company, its digital marketing strategy is tailored keeping in mind its end users making Valtra a more complex and interesting case to consider. As expected by the mixed business model organizations (Iankova et al., 2018) Valtra is present as of April 2020 on the majority of the popular social media platforms such as Facebook (468 772 followers), Instagram (110 000 followers), LinkedIn (16 905 followers), Twitter (1 314 followers) and YouTube (26 100 subscribers). In addition to its global pages in social media, local Valtra profiles are managed either by Valtra's country representatives or the dealers in the local language fitting the culture of the audience in that country.

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework on which this study is built. It starts by elaborating on concepts such as that of digital content marketing by describing its main components being digital content and social media as the means of content distribution. Further on, this chapter explains the concepts of relevance and credibility as the two main elements that content should possess to enhance engagement. The concept of consumer brand engagement (CBE) is explained by analyzing the theoretical foundation of the relationship of its three dimensions with content relevance and content credibility as their predictors. Later in this chapter, concepts of brand trust and word of mouth as outcomes of consumer brand engagement and their relationship with each other as well as content relevance and content credibility are presented, completing the framework of this study's proposed hypotheses. The last part of this chapter presents this study's research model.

2.1 Digital content marketing

While the term content marketing (CM) is first used in 2001 (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018; Pulizzi, 2016) brands have been engaged in content marketing for years (Pulizzi, 2012; Vollero & Palazzo, 2015) tracking back as far as 1732 when the annual "Poor Richard's Almanack" is issued by Benjamin Franklin to advertise his printing business (Pulizzi, 2016). Later, it was "The Furrow" magazine of John Deere, that aimed to educate farmers on the recent developments in technology as well as to offer solutions to machine owners rather than directly selling John Deere equipment (Pulizzi, 2012, p. 117). As such, the creation of content does not aim to directly profit from it, but instead it aims to draw consumers closer to the brand and build long-term relationships between the brand and the consumers (Pulizzi, 2012, p. 117). Content marketing shifts the focus from selling into educating and helping consumers and prospects (Wang et al., 2017). Content marketing, differently from other types of marketing communications, *"is designed to build and maintain consumers' long-term engagement, trust, and relationships, rather than attempt to convince prospects to purchase the firm's offerings directly"* (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018, p. 30). Hollebeek and Macky (2018, p. 28) identify other differences between content marketing and other types of marketing communications such as advertising. According to them the fundamental difference between content marketing and advertising is in scope and in strategy. This means that while advertising aims at increasing sales in short run through content that is created only by the brand, content marketing, which can be created by consumers as well as the brand, aims at increasing consumers' appreciation towards the brand by enhancing consumer engagement, building relationships and brand trust which consequently leads to increased and repeated sales in long run. Hollebeek and Macky (2018, p. 28) state that by delivering consistent, ongoing valuable information to consumers and prospects, brands will have more engaged audiences at lower marketing costs, that as result may undermine the role of advertising or personal selling activities.

Baltes (2015), Hollebeek and Macky (2018), Holliman and Rowley (2014) Järvinen and Taiminen (2015); Leek et al. (2016), and Sabate et al. (2014), consulting previous research on content marketing, summarize a rich list of benefits of CM that in literature often are encountered also as CM's objectives:

- creation of a need for a specific product/service,
- creation of an audience,
- customer relationships,
- consumer engagement with the brand,
- brand trust,
- passionate subscribers, loyalty,
- brand awareness or reinforcement,
- corporate reputation and brand management,
- sales lead conversion or nurturing,
- product idea/business testing,
- product development,
- customer service.

While the above list presents the benefits that CM offers to businesses, the benefits to consumers and prospects do not lack. CM can offer to consumers and prospects better access to relevant content that meets their personal needs, as well as offers opportunities for entertaining and educating themselves on the brand, products, and services. CM in a digital context becomes more convenient and efficient tool (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018, p. 28). Baltes (2015) also identifies the role of CM in a digital environment as essential to the success of an online marketing campaign, marking CM as the most valuable tool of the digital marketing (p. 111). Despite of the vast benefits that CM offers and its extensive usage in practice, it remains to be a new concept in the scientific research area (Pazeraite & Repoviene, 2016). Only a few authors have contributed in providing thorough theoretical understanding of the concept of CM (Pazeraite & Repoviene, 2016, p.98). Baltes (2015) and Vollero and Palazzo (2015) agree with Pazeraite and Repoviene (2016) in that that content marketing does not have an unambiguous and widely spread definition (p.98). The most encountered definitions of content marketing are those of Content Marketing Institute (CMI) that state in their website:

“Content marketing is a strategic marketing approach focused on creating and distributing valuable, relevant, and consistent content to attract and retain a clearly defined audience and, ultimately, to drive profitable customer action.”

and of Holliman and Rowley (2014, p. 285):

“Creating, distributing and sharing relevant, compelling and timely content to engage customers at the appropriate point in their buying consideration processes, such that it encourages them to convert to a business building outcome.”

Content marketing can be delivered through traditional or offline channels such as magazines and brochures and in an era of digitalization digital channels are more increasingly and effectively used (Järvinen & Taiminen, 2015, p. 165). In fact, it is the digital environment one of the significant factors of the increased popularity of the term ‘content marketing’ (Järvinen & Taiminen, 2015, p. 165; Vollero & Palazzo, 2015, p. 26). Due to the digital environment in which content marketing is mostly employed, the concept of content marketing is found in literature as digital content marketing (DCM). The later will be the term used in this study and the definition by Hollebeek & Macky (2018 p. 29) is found most appropriate:

“the creation and dissemination of relevant, valuable brand-related content to current or prospective customers on digital platforms to develop their favorable brand engagement, trust, and relationships.”

The definition of Hollebeek & Macky (2018) contains three main elements that will be further developed in the following sections in this chapter: content as the instrument that stimulates interaction (Sabate et al., 2014), social media as the selected digital platform and engagement as the outcome of this process.

2.1.1 Digital content

Content marketing, according to Pulizzi and Barret (2008), is viewed as the mix of content and of the marketing of that content. Despite of the commonality of the term ‘content’, Vollero and Palazzo (2015) conclude that it is difficult to find accurate definitions and methods that go along with ‘content marketing’ concept due to the fact that ‘content’ rarely has been the primary subject of study in marketing, especially in digital contexts (p. 6).

Holliman and Rowley (2014, p. 271) state that the notion of ‘content’ originates from the publishing world referring to texts, pictures and motion graphics, which must be relevant and enough interesting to the target audience to search for in any of the publishing channels. In the digital environment content adapts to digital formats such as *“pictures, videos and animations, e-books or shorter consumers guides, white papers, podcasts, webinars, infographics, blog texts and social media posts”* (Järvinen & Taiminen, 2015, p. 165). The main space where the components of content marketing are created and disseminated is a digital one and the main instrument of content marketing is information that is of value to consumers (Pazeraite & Repoviene, 2016, p. 98). Holliman and Rowley (2014) recognize that content is information that when distributed digitally on internet, web or any kind of social media platforms is defined as digital content (p. 279). Holliman and Rowley (2014, p. 272) identify from literature different definitions of the term ‘content’ employed in the digital environment such as that of Handley and Chapman (2011, p. 21) according to whom content is *“anything created and uploaded to a website: the words, images or other things that reside here”*. Another definition identified is that of Halvorson and Rach (2012, p. 13) who refer to content as *“what the user came (to your website) to read, learn, see or experience”*, and that of Wuebben (2012, p. 5) according to whom content is *“the key component to telling a brand’s story”*.

Koiso-Kanttila (2004) view the terms 'digital content' and 'digital product' as alternative terms to those of ‘electronic information products’ and ‘information goods’ and are conceptualized as bit-based items delivered via digital means (p. 46). Rowley (2008, p. 522) views digital content as an identical term to digital information products, whereby information products it is meant any goods or services whose main outcome is information or knowledge.

Literature indicates several attributes or characteristics that good digital content should possess. These attributes or characteristics theoretically vary based on the definition of content and on who makes the definition (Reinikainen et al., 2018) and in the business environment on how well the content delivers the expected benefits or objectives set by the business. Syrdal and Briggs

(2018) through qualitative studies with marketing practitioners and consumers identify that content should be humorous & entertaining, newsworthy, positively-valenced, utilitarian, authentic and visually appealing that consumers find engaging (pp. 16-17). Pazeraite and Repoviene (2016) based on previous studies identify relevance, informative, reliability, value, uniqueness, emotions, and intelligence (p. 99) as the seven components of good content. Meanwhile Fink-Shamit and Bar-Ilan (2008) identify credibility of content, credibility of the site, predictive relevance, and veracity as main dimensions that users refer to when judging on information quality. Ashley and Tuten (2015) identify credibility of content and creativity as elements of content that trigger engagement. Reinikainen et al. (2018, p. 6) state that good content should be at minimum informative, believable, real, unbiased, interesting, meaningful, and entertaining. However, it does seem that two characteristics are more important than others as the other indicators of good content were grouped around these two attributes: usefulness and perceived truthfulness where truthfulness refers to how truthful and authentic the audience believes the content is (p.10). According to Saracevic (1996), usefulness, usability, or utility of information objects are close terms associated with content relevance. Whereas truthfulness and authenticity are often related to the concept of credibility (Appelman & Sundar, 2016; Fogg & Tseng, 1999). As such this study suggests that a good content should be credible and relevant in order for it to contribute to the achievement of the main objectives of digital content marketing that of developing consumer brand engagement, and brand trust (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018). This sets the theoretical bases to this study's objectives, analyzing the effect of content credibility and relevance on consumer brand engagement and on trust that will be further elaborated in the following sections of this chapter.

Chen, Shang and Li (2013, p. 789) defines that the measures of information quality (relevance, credibility, accuracy, currency, completeness, consistency, timeliness and richness) are always perceptual. In this study when referring to content relevance and to content credibility it is understood to be the perceived content relevance and the perceived content credibility.

2.1.1.1. Content relevance

Researchers in their definitions of content marketing identify relevance as an important feature or element that content should possess so that it contributed to the achievement of DCM goals. Taiminen and Ranaweera (2019) based on previous research summarize DCM's goals as "*providing relevant, consumer benefitting content on one hand (Holliman & Rowley, 2014) and fostering brand engagement, relational value and trust on the other (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018)*", reinforcing the importance of content relevance on brand engagement (p. 1763). Creating and delivering relevant content is considered essential from different researchers for different reasons. Constant provision of new and relevant information plays an important part in ensuring brand management in virtual space. Moreover, relevant information pursued through promotion assists in the process of building the communication between the company and the virtual audience (Pazeraite & Repoviene, 2016, p. 99). Taiminen and Karjaluoto (2017, p. 450) give credit to personal relevance in a certain theme or subject as a criterion for the user to search, consume, and get engaged with digital content.

While the concept of relevance has been tackled at some extent by different subject fields (Cosijn & Ingwersen, 2000), in the information science relevance has been treated as a key concept

in the forties and early fifties, time when information science came together as a distinct discipline (Schamber, Eisenberg & Nilan, 1990, p. 755). Despite of the increased interest on relevance especially in the nineties (Saracevic, 2007; Borlund, 2003) the concept of relevance has remained a difficult concept to define (Cosijn & Ingwersen, 2000, p. 535) even though it is intuitively understood (Saracevic, 1996, p. 215).

“Intuitively, we understand quite well what relevance means. It is a primitive ‘y’ know’ concept, as is information for which we hardly need a definition. When in communication with no particular outcome in mind (small talk, for instance), relevance plays little or no role. However, if and when any productive contact is desired, consciously or not, we involve and use this intuitive notion of relevance” (Saracevic, 1975, p.324).

Zucon (2016) describes relevance as a complex concept, whereas Schamber et al. (1990, p. 774) referring to the nature of relevance and the impact it has on information behavior conclude that (1) relevance is a perceptual multidimensional cognitive concept as such it is understood and judged differently by each user; (2) relevance is a dynamic concept that varies in accordance to the way that a user perceives the quality of connection between information and his or her need for information at a specific moment; (3) even though relevance is a complicated concept, when considered from the user’s viewpoint it can be a systematic and measurable concept.

Borlund (2003, p. 914), referring to the works of Harter (1992), Saracevic (1975) and Swanson (1986), identifies two main categories of relevance that researchers seem to agree upon. The first category is that of objective or system-based relevance that views relevance as an unchanging and objective concept. Algorithmic relevance is another related term to this first category of relevance that is also found in literature as ‘logical’ or as ‘topicality’ relevance. According to Harter (1992) *“a document is objectively relevant to a request if it deals with the topic of the request”* (p. 602). The second category of relevance is that of subjective or human/user-based relevance that views relevance as *“a subjective individualized mental experience that involves cognitive restructuring”* (Swanson, 1986, pp. 390–391). Differently from the objective relevance that judges the relevance of a document or information only based on topicality, subjective relevance takes into consideration the rapport between the user’s need for information and the information object. Borlund, (2003) explains this rapport as the matching of the *“aboutness, usefulness, usability, or utility of information object”* with the *“fulfilment of goals, interests, work tasks, or problematic situations intrinsic to the user”* pointing at subjective relevance as context dependent (p. 915).

Referring to the two main categories of relevance, five types or manifestations of relevance are identified by Saracevic (1996, p. 214). The first manifestation of relevance is system or algorithmic relevance, that explains the rapport between the request for the information and the retrieved information object/s through a certain algorithm or system (Borlund, 2003, p. 914). The second manifestation of relevance is topical-like relevance that refers to the aboutness or the topic of the retrieved information object/s (Borlund, 2003, p. 914). The third manifestation identified is that of pertinence or cognitive relevance, which explains the relation between the information object/s and the perceived information need by the user at a certain moment (Borlund, 2003, p. 914). The fourth manifestation is the situational relevance, which refers to the relation concerning the consumer’s need for information related to a specific task, problem or situation and the retrieved information object/s (Borlund, 2003, p. 914). The fifth and last type of relevance identified is the motivational relevance or the affective relevance, which describes user’s emotional response to the retrieved information object/s. According to Borlund (2003, p. 914) motivational relevance is

described as goal-oriented considering that user's goals, motivations, and interests induce him or her to search for and use the retrieved information object and judge on its relevance. The system relevance as stated by Saracevic (1996) falls into the category of objective relevance. meanwhile the other four manifestations of relevance as identified by Saracevic (1996) fit to the category of subjective relevance.

Cosijn and Ingwersen (2000, p.540) agree on the five manifestations of relevance and elaborate on them in more detail. Cosijn and Ingwersen (2000, p.540) contribute by clarifying the apparent similarity of pertinence relevance and situational relevance when viewed by an outsider, considering that the outsider is not aware of the context or conditions that shape the goals, work tasks of the user which consequently influence user's perceived need for information. However, Cosijn and Ingwersen (2000, p.540) state that the users themselves are capable to make the difference between the attractiveness of the required information that makes them assess the relevance of information and the usefulness of that information that assists them complete an immediate work task or to solve a problem situation. Furthermore, Cosijn and Ingwersen (2000) suggest substituting motivational and affective relevance with the concept of socio-cognitive relevance, reflecting this way the social and cultural qualities (p.541).

Hjørland (2010) argues against the system–user dualism perspective of relevance in information science, stating that relevance is significant only when related to goals and tasks, and as devices have no goals the dichotomy between these views is wrong attributing relevance only to humans (p.231). Hjørland (2010) emphasizes the importance of the subject knowledge view as a substitute to the dichotomy confirming Saracevic's (1975) assessment on 'the *subject knowledge view*' as the appropriate view of relevance. The subject knowledge perspective can be associated with the domain-based view according to which the same principles apply for the systems as well as users.

According to Xu and Chen (2006) relevance is generally viewed as a subjective, multidimensional, dynamic but, yet a measurable concept. According to the authors the concepts of subjective topicality (topical-like relevance) and situational relevance fall under the term of subjective relevance. Subjective topicality as explained by Xu and Chen (2006) is similar to that of topical-like relevance by Borlund (2003) referring to the relationship between the user's perceived 'aboutness' or theme of information object or content and user's need for information. Xu and Chen (2006) explain situational relevance as the relation of "*usefulness, value, utility, pragmatic application or pertinence*" of an information object or content with that moment's work task or problem (p. 962).

Borlund (2003) in her study identifies from the relevance literature other types of subjective relevance such as '*psychological relevance*' by Harter (1992), '*ostensive relevance*' by Campbell and Van Rijsbergen (1996), and 'task relevance' by Mizzaro (1997) supporting this way Mizzaro's (1998) conclusion that the lack of consensus on the concept of relevance (p. 305) is due to the existence of many types of relevance. Despite of the lack of an all-accepted definition this study will consider the one used by Pazeraite and Repoviene (2016) "*the relevance of content is perceived as usefulness of information for a consumer*" (p. 99).

Different researchers have tried to measure relevance by identifying the dimensions that relate to relevance. The many types of relevance lead to a variety of dimensions of relevance as well. In their literature review Schamber et al. (1990) mention the work of Rees and Schultz (1967) who identified 40 variables, followed by Cuadra and Katter (1967) who identified 38 variables that were divided in five groups such as (1) nature of document whose relevance is being judged, (2) information requirement statement, (3) the experience of the judge, including background and

attitude, (4) the condition into which relevance judgement is taking place (5) judgement representation (p. 762). Cooper (1973) focusing on the topical aspect of logical relevance identified, but did not manage to test, different factors that seem to influence utility such as “*usefulness; accuracy; informativeness; credibility (publication source, authorship, recency); ease with which relevance can be detected by user or system (clarity); importance or weighting of components in request; qualities of system (location, friendliness of personnel); involvement with system (time spent, effort expended); possible negative factors (boredom, unpleasantness occasioned by the content of the document); and possible positive factors (wittiness, beauty)*” (Schamber et al., 1990, p. 764). Park (1997) identifies 33 dimensions of relevance, grouped into primary and secondary dimensions, where the existence of secondary relevance dimensions is defined by the primary dimensions (p. 350). O’Reilly et al. (2016, p. 80) referring to message relevance in a digital ecosystem used two dimensions: persona similarity that refers to the similarity of user and the source of information; and usage similarity that refers to similarity in information usage by the source and the user). This study will measure content relevance by assessing the informativeness, value, importance, helpfulness, and usefulness of brand-related content to consumer’s tasks (Lee, Chen & Ilie, 2012).

Cosijn and Ingwersen (2000, p.537) state that relevance always involves a relationship. Saracevic (1996, p. 214) views this relationship as being between the user and the information object that is mainly assumed to be *texts*. According to Cosijn and Ingwersen (2000) information objects should not be limited to texts only, but instead incorporate anything transmitting information including images. Lee et al. (2012) referring to previous studies suggest that the more personally relevant the information is perceived by users to be, the more cognitive effort and attentional capacity will be invested by the user to process that information at a deeper level. Lee et al. (2012, p. 375) also mention that the more visually attractive the information object is presented, the higher and deeper user’s engagement in processing the relevant information. Lee et al. (2012, p. 375) referring to previous studies mention that both relevance of information object and the visual attractiveness of that information object play an important role in engaging users cognitively, emotionally, and behaviorally. As such this study will be based on the subjective view of relevance as presented by Xu & Chen (2006) that includes subjective topicality as well as situational relevance, and where relevance judgement will be based on the aboutness and pertinence of the brand-related content (text, image, multimedia) posted by the brand in social media (Facebook and Instagram).

2.1.1.2. Content credibility

In a digital era when consumers are exposed to large amounts of information and when often the real source of the information is hard to identify (Ginsca, Popescu & Lupu, 2015; Metzger et al., 2003) credibility becomes essential in assisting consumers decide on the kind and amount of information they want to interact with (Hilligoss & Rieh, 2007; Rieh, Jeon. et al., 2014, p.437). Credibility is one of the important factors to define the quality of content (Reinikainen et al. 2018) as well as one of the characteristics that content should possess for it to motivate consumers and prospects to engage with the brand through digital content marketing (Hollebeek & Macky (2018). Credibility of information also determines whether consumers will

return to brand's content and become loyal to the brand in the selected channel of communication (McKnight & Kacmar, 2007). As such, the concept of credibility is found important to examine within the context of this study's scope.

Credibility is considered to be a complex and multidimensional concept (Rieh, Morris, et al., 2014). Fogg and Tseng (1999, p.80), supported later by Rieh, Jeon, et al. (2014), explain the complexity of the concept of credibility due to three reasons. The first reason refers to the existence of multiple dimensions of credibility construct (p. 80). The second reason concerns the fundamental different approaches taken to study credibility by different disciplines. Credibility perceptions are result of assessing multiple dimensions of the credibility construct simultaneously (p.80). The third reason refers to the subjective nature of credibility judgement. The judgement on the credibility of the consumed information reflects the personal perception of the information's consumer based on his or her knowledge, expertise, and experience (p.80).The complexity of the concept results with the lack of a clear definition of the concept (Ginsca et al., 2015), but instead several related concepts have been used to define it such as "*believability, currency, fairness, accuracy, trustworthiness, completeness, reliability, and objectivity*" (Rieh, Morris, et al., 2014, p. 1). Fogg and Tseng (1999) in their conceptual framework of computing credibility suggest four types of computer credibility (presumed credibility, reputed credibility, surface credibility and experienced credibility) which also define the four factors that influence user's judgement on credibility adding more to the complexity of credibility. Presumed credibility is built on user's assumptions and stereotypes; (2) reputed credibility relies on others' reviews and feedback on content, products or brands; (3) surface credibility is grounded upon user's first impression created by a quick and simple examination, a judgement that can be influenced by the visual elements of the content (for example structure, design and so on); (4) experienced credibility that relies on user's previous experience and knowledge.

Different researches identify different dimensions of credibility, that often in literature are referred to as factors that affect credibility judgement or credibility perceptions. Some researchers such as Sundar (2008) introduce the 'Modality, Agency, Interactivity and Navigability' (MAIN) model consisting of as many as 26 factors that affect credibility (Kakol, Nielek & Wierzbicki,2017). The 26 factors of Sundar (2008) consist of "*utility, importance, relevance, believability, popularity, pedigree, completeness, level of detail, variety, clarity, understandability, appearance, affect, accessibility, conciseness, locatability, representative quality, consistency, compatibility, reliability, trustworthiness, uniqueness, timeliness, objectivity, expertise and benevolence*" (p. 91).

Other researches introduce fewer dimensions for credibility. Fogg and Tseng (1999) for example, view credibility as two-dimensional (trustworthiness and expertise), where by trustworthiness it is meant "*the perceived goodness and morality of the source*" (p. 80) and expertise refers to "*the source's knowledge, skills, and experience as perceived by the user*" (p. 80). Yamamoto and Tanaka (2011) suggest six factors that define information credibility: "*social reputation, referential importance, content typicality, topic coverage, content freshness and update frequency*" (p.1243). Rieh, Jeon, et al. (2014) based on previous literature identify three other dimensions of credibility in addition to the ones identified by previous studies. The first dimension is believability that refers to user's trust on the veracity of the information without the need for clear evidence (p. 438). The second one is information quality that is explained by completeness, objectivity, and usefulness of information (p. 438). And the third one is affective value that describes users' opinions and overall emotions about information (p. 438).

Ginsca et al. (2015, p. 17) introduce four dimensions of credibility (expertise, trustworthiness, quality, and reliability). Expertise refers to the knowledge or professional authority of the information source, and trustworthiness refers to the intents of the information source, both evidently relate to credibility of the source. Meanwhile quality is related to goodness of fit to a particular purpose of the content, and reliability is associated with the consistency or predictability of quality of the content, associate with message credibility. The first to identify the difference between source, message and medium credibility is Carl Hovland through his pivotal study published in the 1950s (Kakol et al., 2017, p. 1046). According to the persuasion theory - Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) by Petty and Cacioppo (1986), information credibility is explained by three dimensions: medium credibility, message/content credibility and source (Li & Suh, 2015, p. 316). Medium credibility describes the perceived credibility that users tag to the medium they used, meanwhile message credibility refers to how credible users perceive the received message itself to be (Li & Suh, 2015, p. 316). Li & Suh (2015) associate message credibility to “informational quality, accuracy or currency” (p. 316). Source credibility points at the capacity and reliability of the source to deliver credible information, where source credibility is explained by two dimensions: level of expertise and trustworthiness (Li & Suh, 2015, p. 316) to which Sallam (2011) adds a third dimension that of attractiveness. Li and Suh (2015) adopt the ELM model in a social media context by including message credibility and medium credibility as the dimensions of information credibility leaving source credibility out of their model considering that in social media platforms users do not always worry about the source credibility when interacting with the content (p. 316). According to Metzger et al. (2003, p. 302) message credibility and source credibility are correlated concepts, that at times, when credibility is judged, message factors can be more important than source factors. One case when consumers in social media turn to message cues rather than source credibility to make credibility assessment is when there is little information available about the source of the message (Metzger et al., 2003, p. 302). Marshall and Woonbong (2003) prove that if the source is a well-established brand, message credibility is the same despite of the medium of communication, traditional or online. While extensive research and measurement tools are present for medium and source credibility, message credibility is under explicated in literature (Appelman & Sundar, 2016 p. 59). In the context of a well-established brand, delivering content on popular social networking sites that are highly recommended for all business models (B2C; B2B, B2B2C and mixed models) highlights the importance of message credibility on information credibility.

Considering that the aim of this study is to analyze the impact of the content credibility on CBE and as result on brand trust it is logical to consider message credibility as a distinct concept from source credibility and medium credibility (Appelman & Sundar, 2016, p. 74; Metzger et al., 2003), despite of the interconnection between them. Appelman and Sundar (2016) referring to previous studies view message credibility not very differently from the general credibility, such as individual and contextual, suggesting this way a subjective nature for message credibility. Metzger et al. (2003) identify message structure, message content, language intensity, and message delivery as the four dimensions or factors that influence user’s judgement on message credibility, meanwhile Appelman and Sundar (2016) emphasize the role of social cues on the way that message credibility is perceived. This study, based on the measurement scale developed by Appelman and Sundar (2016) identifies accuracy, authenticity, and believability of message as the three components of message credibility. All these three measures reasonably fit in the context of the proposed definition of message credibility as

defined by Appelman & Sundar (2016) that view message credibility as “*an individual’s judgment of the veracity of the content of communication*”(p. 72).

Appelman and Sundar (2016) also suggest that message credibility can be studied as an effect even when it may affect user’s consequent judgements or actions. This study will focus on message credibility as a cause, more specifically as the cause of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement and of brand trust.

2.1.2 Social media

The selection of the most appropriate channel/s of communication is of high importance for content to achieve the goals set for it. According to Järvinen and Taiminen (2015 p. 165), Pulizzi (2012), and Vollero and Palazzo (2015) content marketing is a technique or approach that recently is mostly used in social media environments, identifying social media as the most appropriate platform to share content.

Despite of the many ways to define social media, all of them view social media as a space that enables the connection and interaction with other people taking advantage of the various communication techniques that online media offers (Karjaluoto, Mäkinen & Järvinen, 2015, p.2). Social media involves several channels and platforms that permit people to communicate, network and share content. Kaplan and Haenlein (2009) identify six categories of social media: “*blogs, social networking sites (SNS), virtual social worlds, collaborative projects, content communities, and virtual game worlds*” (p. 62).

Social media has developed into an effective brand engagement instrument offering a range of benefits for all business models despite of the pace of their social media technology adoption (Mcshane et al., 2019, p.1). Social networking sites (SNS) as one of the social media categories is considered to be an efficient marketing channel that offers increased consumer engagement with the brand, more targeted outcomes from the brand’s marketing efforts and more consumer control than the typical internet usage context (Gironda & Korgaonkar, 2014, p. 573). SNSs enable brands to move the focus on consumers and foster consumer engagement with the brand through digital brand-related content or online activities (Solem & Pedersen, 2016, p. 446). SNSs helps the brand to mentally and emotionally involve the audience on their products and services before their use (Solem & Pedersen, 2016, p. 446). SNSs are of benefit not only to the businesses, but to consumers too as they enable the customization of “*a unique personal profile, provide a unique platform for users to share and discuss ideas and the ability for users to ‘like’, ‘tag’ and ‘share’ other users’ comments and postings*” (Gironda & Korgaonkar, 2014, p. 573).

This study is focused on social networking sites (SNS) more specifically on Facebook as the leading social networking service, and on Instagram that is experiencing a rapid growth of popularity (Kim & Kim, 2018). Both Facebook and Instagram are the two main platforms used from Valtra to share content. Both platforms enjoy technological similarities as well as differences in form and in purpose (Kim & Kim, 2018), however assessment of their similarities and differences are not part of this study.

2.2 Consumer brand engagement

Consumer brand engagement is identified as the main desirable outcome of digital content marketing efforts due to the long-term benefits it provides for the brand (Glavee-Geo et al., 2019). The benefits deriving from engaged consumers with the brand are many. The more consumers are engaged with the brand the stronger their relationship with the brand will be (Taiminen & Ranaweera, 2019), the more consumers will trust the brand (Liu et al., 2018), the more loyal the consumers will be (Ajina, 2019), and the more willing the consumers will be to positively talk about the brand to others (De Vries & Carlson, 2014). As such it is of importance to elaborate on the concept in this section in the context of this study's goals.

While different disciplines have extensively studied the term 'engagement' (Brodie et al., 2011a, p. 252.) this concept in marketing literature is relatively new. The concept of engagement varies not only when studied in other disciplines, but also within the marketing literature (Hollebeek, 2011). Gambetti and Graffigna (2010) and Hollebeek (2011) in their reviews of the concept, applied in a variety of marketing contexts, find several sub-forms of engagement such as: 'customer engagement', 'consumer brand engagement', 'advertising engagement', 'consumer engagement', 'online engagement', 'brand community engagement', 'brand engagement', and 'media engagement'. Ajina (2019) referring to Palmatier, Kumar and Harmeling (2017) views consumer engagement as "*the actions and activities that organizations undertake in order to begin an open line of communication with the external stakeholders*" (p. 87). This study will focus on consumer brand engagement (CBE) as conceptualized by Hollebeek et al., (2014) as the most developed concept in a brand context (Hepola, Karjaluoto & Hintikka, 2017, p. 283):

"a consumer's positively valenced brand-related cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity during or related to focal consumer-brand interactions" (p. 154).

Hollebeek et al., (2014) build their concept of CBE on that of consumer engagement by Brodie et al. (2011a):

"a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/object (e.g., a brand) in focal service relationships" (p.260).

Consumer brand engagement as stated by Hepola et al. (2017, p. 283) consists of "*interactions and the consequent interactive experiences between the engagement subject and the engagement object*". Hollebeek et al. (2014) identify consumers as 'engagement subjects' and brand, offerings, and any event occurring beyond the buying itself as 'engagement object' (p. 150). Hollebeek et al. (2014) employ an intra-individual consumer-centric view which is different from that of Van Doorn et al. (2010) who adopt a more brand-centric perspective according to which the influences of particular consumer behaviors are examined from the organizational perspective (Hollebeek, 2011, p. 559). The main principles that represent CBE, as conceptualized by Hollebeek et al. (2014), consist of the individual, motivational, contextual, and multidimensional (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral) nature of marketing-related engagement concept. While engagement is mainly treated as an individual-level phenomenon by the main contributors in

consumer-focused marketing, others treat engagement dynamics in multi-player contexts as perceived through the multi-player lenses (Kleinaltenkamp et al., 2019, p. 11). Considering the contextual nature of engagement, in an environment like that of social networking sites, this study will refer to engagement as an individual-level phenomenon.

Literature provides a diversified academic stand with regards to the dimensions of consumer engagement (Vivek et al., 2014). Shaikh et al. (2019) mention the unidimensional perspective, according to which consumer engagement refers to either the emotional, cognitive, or behavioral facet of engagement. Gambetti, Graffigna and Biraghi (2012) on the other hand, view consumer engagement as two-dimensional, more specifically (1) the experiential dimension, that concentrates on the hedonic elements of engagement with the brand, and (2) the social dimension that concentrates on the engagement with brand-related values and content as well as the social interactions with peers. The activities related to engagement with brand-related content according to Gambetti et al. (2012) consist of the interaction, cocreation, and distribution of content. Others view consumer engagement as multidimensional identifying from three (Mollen & Wilson, 2009; Brodie et al., 2011a; Hollebeek et al., 2014) to eight dimensions (Calder, Malthouse & Schaedel, 2009). The three dimensions of CBE according to Brodie et al. (2011), Hollebeek and Chen (2014) and Hollebeek et al. (2014) are the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions. Hollebeek et al. (2014) refer to these dimensions as cognitive processing, affection, and activation, the total of which according to the authors constitute the CBE concept (Hepola et al., 2017). According to Hollebeek (2011) the relevance of consumer engagement dimensions appears to be contextual. Hollebeek et al. (2014) refer to cognitive processing as “*a consumer’s level of brand-related thought processing and elaboration in a particular consumer-brand interaction*” (p. 154). The authors explain affection as “*a consumer’s degree of positive brand-related affect in a particular consumer-brand interaction*” and activation as “*a consumer’s level of energy, effort and time spent on a brand in a particular consumer-brand interaction*” (p. 154).

Another principle that represents CBE is its motivational nature (Hollebeek et al., 2014). According to Karjaluoto, Munnukka and Tiensuu (2016), engagement stems from several motivational drivers that in a social media perspective are often related to a specific need. Karjaluoto, Munnukka and Tiensuu (2016) identify (1) social interaction, (2) information, (3) entertainment, (4) identity-related, and (5) economic-related motivations as the most relevant ones in the social media context. Karjaluoto, Munnukka and Tiensuu (2016) consider the need for information as a key motive that triggers participation in online brand communities and engagement with the brand (p. 439). As such this study proposes that meeting the need of consumers and prospects with relevant and credible brand-related information will boost their engagement with the brand through DCM. Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983) suggest that the more relevant the message, the more motivated the consumers will be to engage with the brand, also Park and Young (1986) state that if users find information to be personally relevant then they will invest more attentional effort to interact with that information at a deeper extent (Haimmerl & Fries, 2009, Hepola et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2012, p. 375). According to Hilligoss and Rieh (2007), and Rieh, Jeon, et al. (2014) content credibility defines whether the consumer will engage or not with the content, the extent of this engagement, as well as whether the consumer will return to that source again.

Hollebeek and Macky (2018) in their three-tier conceptual framework suggest that consumer’s decision to interact with the brand through DCM is driven by consumer’s uses and gratification informed (1) functional, (2) authenticity-based and (3) hedonic motives (p. 30). Hollebeek and Macky (2018) refer to the functional motive as “*consumer’s underlying utilitarian desire for relevant brand-related information or knowledge through DCM*” (p. 32). Whereas authenticity-

based motive according to them is explained as “*consumer's underlying desire for brand-related continuity, integrity, credibility, and symbolism as sought through DCM*” (p. 32). Authenticity according to Morhart et al. (2014) seems to be explained by some similar factors that explained the concept of credibility by Sundar (2008). Hollebeek and Macky (2018), focusing on the brand, consider authenticity a multidimensional concept in which credibility is one of the dimensions. Meanwhile Appelman and Sundar (2016), focusing on the content, consider authenticity as one of the components of content credibility, fitting this way to the context of this study. According to Hollebeek and Macky (2018) hedonic motive refers to “*consumer's underlying emotional desire for brand-related entertainment, diversion, fun, transportation, or relaxation as sought through DCM*” (p. 32).

According to the framework suggested by Hollebeek and Macky (2018) each of the three above mentioned motives, impacts the enhancement of each dimension of CBE (cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement) through DCM at different levels. For example, Hollebeek and Macky (2018) suggest in their model that when consumer's need for useful/relevant brand-related information, is combined with their wish for authentic information it will instill cognitive engagement (p. 33). Meanwhile the emotional engagement is suggested to be provoked by hedonic and authentic motives, whereas behavioral engagement stems from the functional and hedonic motives (p.34). In the light of Hollebeek and Macky (2018) theoretical presumptions, not including the hedonic motive as irrelevant to this study, it is expected that content relevance will have a positive effect on cognitive engagement (cognitive processing) and behavioral engagement (activation). The authors do not include emotional engagement as one of the consequences of functional motives, but they do not explicitly exclude the role of functional motive on affection. It might not have as strong effect as cognitive and behavior engagement, but the weight of its impact like the other two dimensions of CBE varies according to the context (Hepola et al., 2017, p. 283). Chen et al. (2013, p. 790), while investigating the way that perceived relevance of the content on travel blogs' influences users' behavioral intentions to visit a tourist destination, state that despite of the cognitive nature of information search as viewed from the utilitarian orientation, emotional and social values can stem from it (e.g., enjoyment from reading relevant content). This logic is supported by the appraisal theories that explain emotion “*as a mental state that results from processing, or appraising, personally relevant information*” (Johnson & Stewart, 2005, p. 4). According to the appraisal theories, the emotional response (appraisal) to the information-processing tasks depends on the level of achievement of user's interests and goals set in specific situation (Johnson & Stewart, 2005, p. 4). At the same time Watson and Spence (2007) elaborate on cognitive appraisal theories suggesting that outcome desirability defines the intensity of emotional reaction. Watson and Spence (2007) propose this way that by meeting consumers' need for relevant information that contribute in achieving their goals will evoke emotional engagement with the brand. In the dynamic context of social media, the functional motives can impact the emotional engagement as well suggesting that by providing relevant information the brands will stimulate not only cognitive and behavioral engagement, but will also generate some level of affection towards the brand.

According to Hollebeek and Macky (2018), authenticity motive triggers emotional and cognitive engagement. The authors also state that in order for brands to stimulate behavioral engagement they should first build consumer's cognitive and/or emotional engagement suggesting behavioral engagement to be an outcome of cognitive and emotional engagement. As such authenticity motive is expected to trigger some level of behavioral engagement as well. Hilligoss and Rieh (2007) and Rieh, Jeon, et al. (2014) identify content credibility as a criterion of selection

of the kind and amount of content the consumer decides to engage with. Should the consumer find the content to be non-credible then they will not return to that brand again (Rieh, Jeon, et al., 2014) as such credible content in addition to the emotional and cognitive engagement will trigger some level of behavior engagement that might not be of the same level as that of the emotional or cognitive one.

While most of the researchers discuss the positive effects of CBE and its outcomes such as greater loyalty, trust, commitment and the willingness to positively talk about the brand, others draw attention that engagement should not be presumed to always be positive as consumers can also be negatively engaged with a brand (Johnston & Taylor, 2018, p. 426). This study will focus only on the positively valenced consumer engagement with brand trust and word of mouth as outcomes of this positive CBE. As such this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1a: Content relevance positively affects cognitive processing.

H1b: Content relevance positively affects affection.

H1c: Content relevance positively affects activation.

H2a: Content credibility positively affects cognitive processing.

H2b: Content credibility positively affects affection.

H2c: Content credibility positively affects activation.

Hepola et al., (2017, p. 283) suggest that apart from brand usage intent and brand loyalty academics and practitioners should put more effort in exploring the consequences of CBE. Brand trust as one of the main preferable outcomes of DCM efforts (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018) and word of mouth that companies aim to achieve (Zhang et al., 2017, p. 839) are investigated as consequences of CBE in the following sections of this chapter.

2.3 Brand trust

Academics and practitioners have paid special attention to brand trust (Li et al., 2008). This is due to the important role that brand trust plays on the relationship between consumers and the brand, as well as its positive effect on evoking consumer engagement, increasing consumers' commitment and loyalty towards the brand that as result encourage purchase intention (Chahal & Rani, 2017; Koschate-Fischer & Gartner, 2015). Xingyuan, Li and Wei (2010) consider consumers' trust on the brand as a strong competitive advantage that the brand has in a very competitive global market (p. 243). Despite of the benefits of the brand trust there is no coherent conceptualization of brand trust. Authors provide different definitions and dimensions for brand trust (Koschate-Fischer & Gartner, 2015).

Mcknight, Choudhury and Kacmar (2002) conceptualize brand trust as multidimensional, meanwhile Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) as well as Koschate-Fischer and Gartner (2015) see brand trust as one-dimensional. Other researchers conceptualize brand trust as two-dimensional, for instance Delgado-Ballester, Munuera-Alemán and Yagüe-Guillén (2003) identify brand reliability and brand intentions as the two dimensions of brand trust. Li et al., (2008) define brand trust as two-dimensional consisting of competence and benevolence,

meanwhile Hollebeek and Macky (2018) identify credibility and benevolence as the two dimensions of brand trust. Hollebeek and Macky (2018, p. 34) explain credibility as “*a consumer's expectancy that the word or promise made by a brand/firm can be relied upon, that primarily arises from consumers' cognitive brand-related sense-making*”, whereas benevolence as “*confidence in another party's motives, or the consumer's belief of the firm acting in their best interest that derives from their more emotive brand identification*” (p. 34).

The conceptual framework supported by the two-dimensional conceptualization of brand trust by Hollebeek and Macky (2018) leaves out the role of behavioral engagement on brand trust. However, Hollebeek and Macky (2018) state that their conceptual framework is of purely theoretical nature as such it is in this study's scope to prove the effect of CBE as whole on brand trust. According to Habibi, Laroche and Richard (2014) the more engaged the consumers are, the quicker they create positive and trust attitudes towards the brand compared to consumers who are less engaged. The close relationships between the CBE and brand trust is also emphasized by Liu et al., (2018) in their study on the impact of consumer engagement on brand trust in social media brand communities. While Chahal and Rani (2017) identify brand trust as a strong factor to evoke consumer engagement. Islam and Rahman (2016) empirically prove that consumer engagement positively influences brand trust providing the theoretical foundation for the following proposed hypothesis:

H3: CBE positively affects brand trust.

Brand trust is also viewed as one of the main aims or outcomes of DCM (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018; Holliman & Rowley, 2014). Chinomona (2016) and Habibi et al. (2014) referring to Chiu, Huang and Yen (2009), state that the role of trust becomes more important in situations of hesitation, unclarity of information and fear of speculation as such increased trust will reduce vagueness and make consumers feel secure with their brand. Habibi et al. (2014) suggest that one of the ways that brands can make their consumers trust them is to provide them with relevant brand-related information. As such this study suggests a direct positive effect of content relevance on brand trust as expressed in the following hypothesis:

H.4: Content relevance positively affects brand trust.

According to McKnight and Kacmar (2007, p. 424) even though information credibility differs from trust, they are clearly related. Appelman and Sundar (2016) referring to previous studies mention two views of the relationship between message credibility and trust, one as horizontal or equal and the other one places trust as subordinate concept of message credibility (p. 63). In this study for example believing brand's content is credible indicates one reason to trust the brand, suggesting this way that:

H5: Content credibility positively affects brand trust.

In a mixed business model, where not all consumers consider their brands as active relationship partners (Bengtsson, 2003), Koschate-Fischer and Gartner's (2015) scale of brand trust that is based on the scale developed by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) will be used in this study and their definition of the concept will be taken into consideration when

measuring it. Chaudhuri & Holbrook, (2001) define brand trust as “*the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function*” (p. 82).

2.4 Word of mouth intentions

Word of Mouth (WOM), is considered as the oldest (Ghosh, Varshney & Venugopal, 2014) and yet most efficient and persuasive form of marketing communication (Kasmi & Mehmood, 2016). WoM is also considered the most credible and persuasive mode of promotion (Cantril & Allport, 1935; Forrest & Cao, 2010; Gilly et al., 1998; Knower, 1935) making it one of the utmost influential marketing tools regarding consumer behavior (Alboqami et al., 2015, p. 342).

WOM literature dates back several decades (Harrison-Walker, 2001, p. 60) providing several definitions of Word of Mouth (WoM) that reflect different contexts and study scopes. Some of these definitions are presented in table 2.

Table 2: Definitions of WoM

Author/s	Definition of WoM
Harrison-Walker (2001, p. 63)	<i>“Informal, person-to person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization, or a service.”</i>
Chu and Kim (2011, p. 48)	<i>“The act of exchanging marketing information among consumers and plays an essential role in changing consumer attitudes and behavior towards products and services.”</i>
Ghosh et al. (2014, p. 294)	<i>“Face-to-face communication between consumers regarding any product, brand or service.”</i>
Abălăesei (2014, p. 136)	<i>“Oral, person-to person communication between receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial, regarding a brand, product or service.”</i>
Mishra and Satish (2016, p. 223)	<i>“Passing of information between a non-commercial communicator (i.e., someone who is not rewarded) and a receiver concerning a brand, a product, or a service.”</i>
Lo and Lin (2017, p. 277)	<i>“A consumer-dominated channel for the dissemination of product or service information by senders who are independent of the market.”</i>

Despite of the choice of words, the core of each of the above definitions remains similar. Each of the definitions sees traditional or offline WoM as voluntary initiated, non-commercial, informal, verbal, face-to-face generally one-to-one communication regarding a brand, a product, or a service.

The rise of internet has added the digital dimension to WoM through the provision of electronic channel/s for the creation and distribution of WoM. While Mishra and Satish (2016) consider electronic word of mouth (e-WoM, eWOM) as replacement of traditional WoM, Abălăesei (2014) sees it more as an extension of WoM. Despite of the difference on the perspective Mishra and Satish (2016) and Abălăesei (2014) seem to agree on the definition of EWoM introduced by Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) as “*any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via internet*” (p.39).

Even though EWoM inherits some characteristics from the traditional/offline WoM, such as its voluntary need/or desire to share information (Toder-Alon, Brunel & Fournier, 2014), the involvement of internet gives EWoM new dimensions that differ from the traditional WoM. Kazmi and Mehmood (2016) view EWoM as more public or universal compared to traditional WoM that is more private, at the same time they consider EWoM to be more efficient and influential as it can reach multitudes at short time. Loureiro, Gorgus and Kaufmann (2017, p.991) view EWoM as very dynamic and more influential compared to traditional WoM that is more static. Karjaluoto, Munnukka and Kiuru (2016, p. 530) identify other differences between EWoM and traditional WoM. They refer to offline WOM as mostly spoken, whereas EWoM mostly comprises written communication making it accessible at any time; while traditional WoM mainly appears in one-to-one form, EWoM may occur in one-to-one, one-to-many or many-to-many forms. Finally, the authors consider EWOM as easier to access and control by brands compared to traditional WOM.

Based on valence WOM, being traditional or electronic, is classified into two categories whose nature and impact are considered significantly different: positive WoM and negative WoM (Ghosh et al., 2014). This study will consider the positive WoM that companies aim to achieve (Zhang et al., 2017, p. 839).

Different scholars point at the strong connection between consumer engagement and WoM intentions. Leckie, Nyadzayo and Johnson (2016, p. 560) and Zhang et al. (2017, p. 846) analyze that the relational nature of CBE in a service dominant ecosystem will encourage the word of mouth intentions as a typical social behavior including one-to-one communication (Groeger, Moroko & Hollebeek, 2016). Loureiro et al., (2017, p.991) state that engaged consumers tend to be more enthusiastic to act as brand’s advocates in social media platforms supporting this way the findings of Islam and Zaheer (2016, p. 1544) and those of De Vries and Carlson (2014) that highly and actively engaged consumers in brand’s social network sites are more willing to positively speak about the brand and share the WoM with others. Chan et al., (2014, p. 95) as well as Islam and Rahman (2016) empirically prove word of mouth to be a positive product of consumer engagement. This study does not select between traditional and online word of mouth and proposes the following hypothesis:

H6: CBE positively effects word of mouth intentions.

Islam and Rahman (2016) recognize the direct positive effect of consumer engagement on word of mouth as well as suggest that the positive effect of consumer engagement on word of mouth intentions is instilled by the consumers' trust in brand identifying the role of brand trust as a mediator in the relationship between CBE and word of mouth intentions. According to Liao, Chung and Chang (2013, p. 282) brand trust generated through established relationship of mutual trust between the brand and the consumers will encourage consumer loyalty and as consequence loyal consumers will be willing to spread positive WoM. Liao, Chung and Chang (2013) and Liao, Chung, Hung, et al. (2010) indicate that brand trust has a positive and significant effect on WoM leading this way to the last hypothesis of this study:

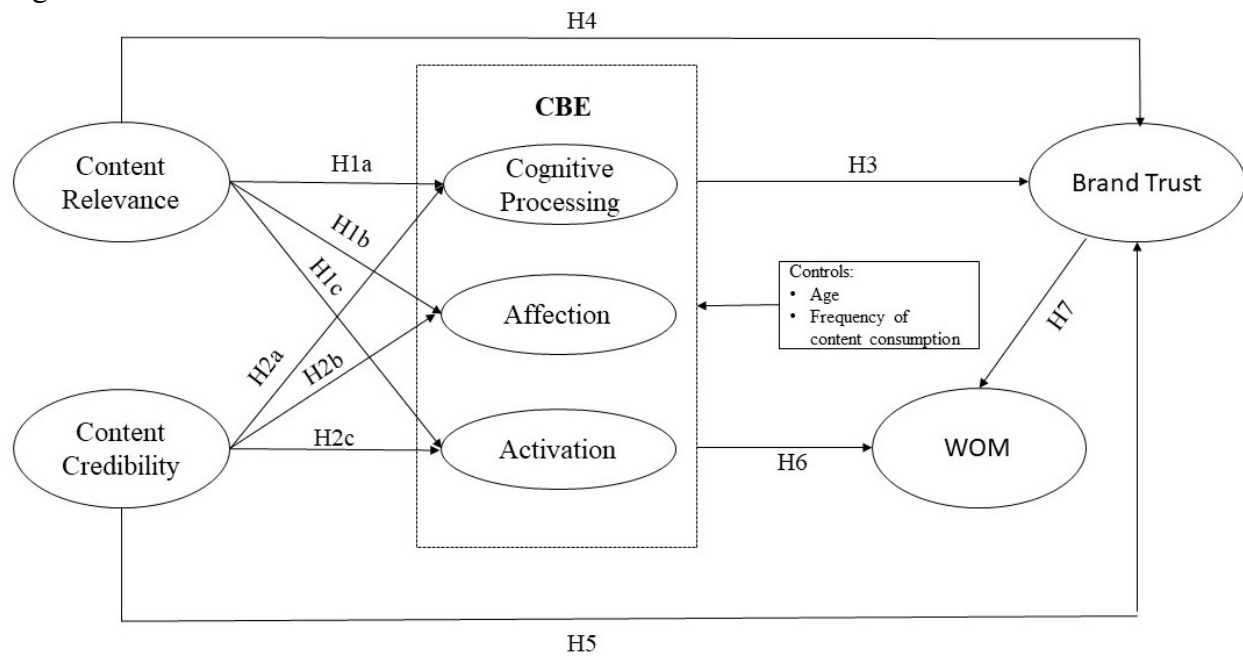
H7: Brand trust positively effects word of mouth intentions.

2.5 Research model

The research model of this study is displayed in Figure 1. Age of the company's audience in the two social media platforms and frequency of content consumption are the two control variables that the proposed research model includes. According to McAndrew and Jeong (2012) younger people spend more time and are more likely to interact with online social networks than older people (Braun, 2013), this is for the fact that they appreciate the views of others, but also because by sharing their views about the brands they use makes them feel important (Chahal & Rani, 2017). According to Christofides, Muise and Desmarais (2012) younger people also tend to release more of their personal data than older people. Ioană and Stoica (2014) identify age to affect consumer behavior in social media. Taylor, Lewin and Strutton (2011) found that age plays an important role on people's attitude towards social networking sites (SNS) informativeness (p. 268) while Hughes et al., 2011, p. 567) prove that age significantly impacts the tendency to engage with information and cognitive activities in SNS.

Consumption is one of the three types of consumers' online brand-related activities (COBRA) in social network sites (SNS) as pointed by Muntinga, Moorman and Smit (2011) whereas contributing and creating are the other two. According to Muntinga et al., (2011) some of the activities that fall under the consumption of brand-related content are: reading/watching/listening/viewing of brand-related content that is displayed in the form of text, pictures, audio materials and videos, viewing comments of others on the profile/s of the brand on SNS, view brand/product/service reviews, following conversations on online brand community forums and so on (p. 16). According to Taiminen and Karjaluoto (2017) reading frequency helps readers get closer with a brand. Referring to Ledbetter and Mazer (2014) findings, Taiminen and Karjaluoto (2017) state that frequency of social media interactions can affect person's cognitions, affections, and behaviors (p. 451) all the three dimensions of consumer brand engagement. As such frequency of content consumption and age are applied as this study's control variables.

Figure 1: Research model



3 DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Methodology, according to Kuada (2012, p. 59) is the “*overall approach to the research problem that describes the reasons underlying the choice and use of specific methods in the research process*”. This chapter focuses on explaining the methodological choices, followed by further elaboration on the methods selected to achieve this research’s objectives. This chapter contains four sections where the first one justifies the selection of quantitative method followed by discussing the process of data collection, elements of survey development concluding with reporting on the tools and the elements of data analysis process.

3.1 Quantitative research

Scholars of research methodology identify different levels in a research design process. For example, Kuada (2012) identifies four levels: (1) philosophical/theoretical viewpoints – this level discusses ontology that refers to the nature of what the academics search to know; (2) epistemological choice – this level discusses the nature of knowledge as well as the means of knowing; (3) methodological decisions – this level discusses the methods chosen for the research as well as the reasons behind these choices; (4) choice of methods and techniques – this level discusses the process of data collection, the tools used as well as why these tools are used over others (p. 58).

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) view the levels of the research design process as the layers of an onion starting from the outer layer (1) philosophy, (2) approach/theory, (3) methodological choice, (4) strategy, (5) time horizon, (6) techniques and procedures (p.128). According to the authors the choice of philosophy and of research approach impacts the decisions about the selections in the other three layers of their research onion. As such it is of importance to first identify the research philosophy and research approach that support the methodological choice used for this research. Among the four philosophical perspectives (positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism) mentioned by Saunders et al. (2012), this study reflects the philosophy of positivism considering that it searches for causal relationships between the collected data, to create generalizations (p. 134). Saunders et al. (2012) associate quantitative research with positivism, particularly when related to standardized and very structured data collection techniques (p. 162). The purpose of theory in positivism is the creation of hypotheses that can be tested and as consequence assess whether the results from the testing of hypotheses can be generalized (Bryman & Bell 2007, p. 16). Deductive theory that is commonly associated with quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2012, p.162) is identified as the right approach for this study. According to Saunders et al. (2012, p.162) the purpose of deductive approach is usage of data in theory testing.

The research objectives define the nature of this study’s design. Saunders et al. (2012, p. 170) identify exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory research as three main types of research designs. The purpose of this study is explanatory or causal as it aims to test whether one event

causes another (Hair et al., 2016, p. 155) or as worded by Saunders et al. (2012) “*it studies a situation or a problem in order to explain the causal relationships between variables*” (p. 172).

3.2 Data collection

Data collection in this study is conducted using survey research. Survey as a research strategy is related to deductive research approach as well as to quantitative methodology both applied in this study (Saunders et al., 2012). Self-completion or as differently known as self-administered or statistical survey is one of the most common methods of collecting quantitative data (Phillips, Aaron, & Phillips, 2013; Saunders et al., 2012). Self-completion surveys are completed by the respondents and in this study, the survey is created, delivered, and administrated electronically.

Survey research using online self-completion surveys offers different advantages such as the collection of large amounts of standardized data at a given time from a large population making it a cost-effective tool (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 177). Online surveys are considered to be very pragmatic as they allow responders to reply and send the answers faster than other techniques at their favorable time and device, and they are also easier to administrate (Phillips et al., 2013, p. 15). Online surveys also provide technical advantages as they allow creation of attractive survey formats, they are not restricted geographically, and they can result with less unanswered questions (Bryman & Bell 2007, p. 680). The standardized format of the data collected simplifies the data analyzing process.

The setbacks of the online self-completion surveys do not lack, and they mainly impact the quality of received answers and the response rates. For example, confidentiality issues can make the targeted audience withdraw from completing the survey, the risk that the same responders complete the survey more than once will not provide a realistic view of the response rate and of the truthfulness of answers (Bryman & Bell 2007, p. 681), lack of knowledge and misinterpretation of the questions (Adams, 2007) combined with the inability to provide consultation/support to responders in case of unclarity will impact the quality of answers or will result in missing data through unanswered questions, lack of relevance of question/s will impact the response rate or will result with missing data (Bryman & Bell 2007, p. 242).

Despite of the setbacks mentioned above, survey research remains the appropriate strategy for data collection in this study’s context as it contributes to the achievement of its objectives in two ways as indicated by Saunders et al. (2012, pp. 177-178). Firstly, the quantitative data collected through this strategy can be applied not only to explain the reasons behind certain relationships between variables, but also to generate models of these relationships. Secondly, in this study’s context where convenience sampling type is applied, the results from analyzing of data collected through the survey can be generalized, representing the entire targeted population at a lower cost than collecting the data for the total population.

The survey was created using Webropol 3.0 following the general survey design principles presented by Adams (2007, p. 130). Only questions related to the scope of this study were asked, avoiding unnecessary questions. The average time to complete the survey was estimated and tested to be nearly ten minutes. In order to ensure that the questions were not only short but also clear and unambiguous, the survey was revised by reflecting the comments of three different personas,

one of them being company's communication specialist guaranteeing that the language and the tone used is in coherence with that of the company, one Finnish owner of Valtra products and one international Valtra fan to avoid any unclear academic jargons. Instructions on the purpose of the survey and how to complete it, were imbedded at the beginning of the survey supported by instructions provided to each question. Responders were also provided at the beginning of the survey with the Privacy Notice document that explained how their data will be used and were asked for their consent on them before they were taken to the survey questions. All the questions related to the constructs were built on a 7-point Likert scale that ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" avoiding this way confusion and ensure easiness in completion of the survey. This also simplified the data analysis process that followed the data collection. All the questions were mandatory avoiding this way having unanswered questions that lead in missing data. The survey was distributed through Valtra's Facebook and Instagram global profiles. The language used was English considering the international nature of the study's sample. A raffle, to motivate participation in the survey, was organized offering a bundle of Valtra merchandise to five randomly selected participants. Data collection was conducted between October 10th to 31st, 2019. This exceeded the two-week practice commonly used in these cases, due to the large amount of its own content the company had already scheduled in its social media calendar. The survey was opened 2119 times and the number of submitted responses was 452 leading to an effective response rate of 21.3%. The actual response rate might be higher, considering that Webropol's calculation system does not exclude the responders that have opened the survey more than once. Out of 452 only 427 agreed on the Privacy Policy and continued completed the survey and one was removed for being younger than 18 years old as per company's policy.

3.2.1 Survey development and measurement scales

The survey is built using structured claims and multi-item scales in order to enhance reliability (Hair et al., 2016, p.252). All questions in multi-item scales are derived from prior studies and are measured through validated and tested scales. Content credibility is measured using a three-item scale developed by Appelman and Sundar (2016). Five questions measuring perceived relevance of content, that being image or text, are adopted from Lee et al., (2012). Consumer brand engagement containing three dimensions (cognitive processing, affection, and activation) is measured using a ten-item scale developed by Hollebeek et al., (2014). The ten questions are divided between the three dimensions, three questions to measure cognitive processing, four to measure affection and three to measure activation. Brand trust is measured using a five-item scale developed by Koschate-Fischer and Gärtner (2015) which is similar to the scale developed by Chaudhuri and Holbrook's (2001) for this construct. Word of mouth intentions is measured using a three-item scale used by Glavee-Geo et al. (2019) based on the scale provided by Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996).

Table 3: Measurement scales

Content relevance	Lee et al. (2012)
Content credibility	Appelman and Sundar (2016)
Consumer brand engagement	Hollebeek et al. (2014)
Brand trust	Koschate-Fischer and Gärtner (2015)
Word of mouth intentions	Glavee-Geo et al. (2019)

To sum up, the survey contained 32 questions out of which 26 to measure the above-mentioned constructs. The survey items with coding and references are presented in Appendix 1.

3.3 Data analysis

Data analysis consisted of two main stages: the exploratory factor analysis and the confirmatory factor analysis. The exploratory factor analysis was conducted using SPSS Statistics to prepare the raw data collected through Webropol 3.0, and to pre-analyze the data for confirmatory factor analysis. Preparation of the data consisted on (1) transferring of data from Webropol 3.0 to SPSS Statistics, (2) identification of missing and invalid data, and (3) coding, and re-coding. Re-coding was done for data responding to the question on frequency of content consumption following the instructions provided by Karjaluoto (2007). The reverse coding replaced 1 for the daily basis content consumption with 5 and not at all was changed from 5 to 1; weekly content consumption was coded with 4 and very rarely with 2. All questions were obligatory therefore, no missing data was identified. According to Zhang et al. (2014) the exploratory factor analysis is performed to determine what sets of items fall together in a scale, as well as discover the common factor influencing a group of measured variables (p. 4). In this study, the exploratory factor analysis focuses especially on identifying and eliminating the items that might harm further analysis. In addition to the precondition tests run to investigate the suitability of the variables

The confirmatory factor analysis was conducted through partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using SmartPLS3. PLS-SEM was used to test this study's research model which contains several interaction terms (Chin, Marcolin & Newsted, 2003). According to Duarte and Amaro (2018, p. 296) PLS-SEM, is "*a prediction-oriented approach, aimed at maximizing the explained variance of the dependent constructs*", identifying it as the favorable approach when the object of the research is the prediction of key constructs or the identification of the main drivers of constructs (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, p. 144). PLS is also considered as confirmatory (Duarte & Amaro, 2018, p.296). Some of the advantages of PLS-SEM associate with its capability to incorporate with reflective as well as formative measures, it is more appropriate to large and complex models with latent variables, it makes no assumptions about the data distribution and it does not require large sample sizes (Hair et al., 2011, p. 144). According to Hair et al. (2011, p. 12) PLS-SEM, also called PLS path modelling, consists of two elements: (1) the structural model that is also referred in literature as the inner model and (2) the measurement model that is referred to as the outer model. The structural model presents the relationships between the constructs that can be assessed by testing of the

hypotheses (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The measurement model on the other hand presents the relationships between the constructs and the indicator variables that are investigated by assessing reliability and validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

4 RESULTS

Results of this study are introduced in this chapter. It begins by presenting the demographic statistics and responders' background information, followed by reporting on the research model consisting on results of the exploratory factor analysis, measurement and structural model finalized with results from the testing of this study's hypotheses.

4.1 Demographic and background statistics

Out of 426 responders, 91,3% of them were males and 8,7% females. The majority of responders were 18 – 29 years old (67,6%), followed by 30 – 39 years old (17,4%), 40 – 49 years old (10,1%), 50 – 59 years old (3,8 %) and over 60 years old (1,2%). The largest number of responders were from Europe (93%) followed by Australia (3,8%), North America and South America (0,9% each) and Africa and Asia (0,7% each). When participants were asked about Valtra's social media platform/s they follow, the majority of them responded Facebook and Instagram (42,3%), followed by only Instagram (38%) and only Facebook (16,9%), Facebook and Instagram and other (2,1%), Facebook and other (0,5%) and Instagram and other (0,2%). 54,2% of responders consume content delivered by Valtra in social media in daily basis, followed by weekly (39%), monthly (5,4%) and very rarely (1,4%). Regarding the relationship of the responder with Valtra, 47,9% were owners of Valtra product/s, 22,8% were Valtra fans, 10,1% know people who owned/own Valtra product/s, 5,9% consider buying a Valtra product, 5,2% were dealers or distributor employees, 4,7% others, 3,1% Valtra/AGCO Employee and 0,5% journalists. The following table presents these data in more details.

Table 4: Demographic and responders' background information

	N	%
Gender		
Female	37	8.7
Male	389	91.3
Age		
18 – 29	288	67.6
30 – 39	74	17.4
40 – 49	43	10.1
50 – 59	16	3.8
60 and over	5	1.2
Location by continent		
Africa	3	0.7
Asia	3	0.7

(continues)

Table 4 (continues)

Australia	16	3.8
Europe	396	93
North America	4	0.9
South America	4	0.9
Platform followed		
Facebook	72	16.9
Instagram	162	38
Facebook & Instagram	180	42.3
Facebook & Others	2	0.5
Instagram & Others	1	0.2
Facebook & Instagram & Others	9	2.1
Frequency of content consumption		
Daily	231	54.2
Weekly	166	39
Monthly	23	5.4
Very rarely	6	1.4
Relationship with Valtra		
Dealer or distributor employee	22	5.2
Owner of Valtra product/s	204	47.9
Fan of Valtra	97	22.8
People I know owned/own Valtra product/s	43	10.1
Valtra/AGCO Employee	13	3.1
Considering buying a Valtra product	25	5.9
Journalist	2	0.5
Other	20	4.7

4.2 Factor analysis

The exploratory factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique (Hair et al., 2016, p. 411) and its purpose in this study is the preliminary evaluation of variables (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003, p. 149). In other words, this means that exploratory factor analysis is used to pre-examine the data prior to the confirmatory factor analysis by identifying and removing any potentially problematic item/s. The analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics.

In order to proceed with the factor analysis some preconditions are to be met. One of the preconditions is sample size. Different scholars identify different sample scales as a requirement to conduct factor analysis. Karjaluoto (2007, p.39) sets a minimum of 100,

meanwhile Tabachnik and Fidell (2014) argue between 100 to 300 depending on communality levels, recommending 300 as the required sample size (p. 705). The sample size for this study is 426 ($N = 426$) meeting this way the requirement as set in both resources. The sample adequacy of the items used in this study was assessed by running the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's test (KMO). According to Karjaluoto (2007, p. 44) KMO values lower than 0.7 indicate poor conditions, not favorable to proceed with the exploratory factor analysis considering that distinct and reliable factors cannot be produced. Meanwhile, KMO values higher than 0,9 indicate excellent conditions. In this study KMO value resulted 0,95 providing excellent conditions for exploratory factor analysis. Bartlett's test of Sphericity value indicates whether there is any significant level of correlation between variables. For the correlation between variables to be considered significant, Bartlett's test value must be smaller than 0,01 or 0,05 (Karjaluoto, 2007, p. 44; Yong & Pearce, 2013, p.88). For this study, the Bartlett's test value of significance was $p = 0.000$ meeting the precondition of significance level ($p < 0,01$) indicating very good conditions to take the analysis further. The other precondition to be analyzed are the communality levels of the chosen variables. According to Maccallum et al. (1999, p. 85) the communality of a variable is that fraction of the variance that the variable shares with the rest of other variables. The lowest communality value (0,421) resulted to the first item of content credibility (CCRE1) and the highest (0,765) belongs to the second item of word of mouth intentions (WoM2) indicating that the communalities per each of the items is higher than 0,3 suggesting that all the items are suitable for factor analysis.

Principal axis factoring and varimax rotation were used to conduct exploratory factor analysis as recommended by Karjaluoto (2007). Principal axis extraction can approximate the communality values through rotation and as result maximize variance extracted (Zhang et al., 2014, p.4). Varimax rotation is the most common choice, which falls into the orthogonal methods of rotation (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p.3). It increases the large loadings and decreases the small ones in each factor (Zhang et al., 2014, p. 7). The number of factors was not predetermined, using Eigenvalue 1.0 benchmark. After rotation only four factors were extracted. The resulting factors corresponded well with the constructs derived from theory apart from word of mouth intentions (WoM) and brand trust (BT) that loaded under the same factor 1. Cognitive processing (CP), affection (AFF) and activation (ACT) loaded under factor 2 that based on the theory correspond to consumer brand engagement (CBE). The items of content relevance (CREL) loaded under factor 3 and the items of content credibility (CCRE) loaded in factor 4. As shown in table 5, the primary loadings vary from 0.446 the weakest to 0.798 the strongest. Several cross-loadings that exceeded 0.32 were noticed (Costello & Osborne, 2005, p.4).

Table 5: Rotated factor matrix

Items	Factors				Communalities
	1	2	3	4	
WoM2	.798				.765
WoM3	.757				.714
WoM1	.686				.670
BT3	.661				.559
BT1	.620			.421	.650
BT2	.599			.376	.631
BT4	.585			.463	.635
BT5	.526			.437	.546
AFF3		.720			.703
AFF2		.688			.641
AFF1		.667			.651
ACT1	.340	.596	.358		.602
ACT2		.585	.396		.596
ACT3	.323	.553	.348		.532
CP1		.546		.447	.582
CP3		.542		.385	.538
AFF4	.367	.491		.450	.612
CP2		.446	.344	.401	.519
CREL4			.762		.718
CREL5			.702		.705
CREL2			.670		.626
CREL3			.534	.338	.457
CREL1			.524		.447
CCRE3				.625	.604
CCRE2				.601	.515
CCRE1				.499	.421

The first factor containing items from word of mouth intentions (WoM) and brand trust (BT) explained 17.8% of the total variance. The second factor containing items from the three dimensions of consumer brand engagement (CBE) explained 16.9%. The third factor contained items from content relevance (CREL) explained 13.1% of the overall variance and the fourth factor containing the items from content credibility (CCRE) explained 12.3% of the total variance. In total these factors explained 60.1% of the cumulative variance.

4.3 Measurement model

Based on the results of the exploratory factor analysis all the variables are proved to be suitable to be used for the confirmatory analysis. The factor structure was based on theory, as such brand trust

(BT) and word of mouth intentions (WoM) that loaded into the same factor are used as separate factors.

In order to avoid any bias on the structural assessment, Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003) emphasize the importance of selecting the appropriate measurement model being reflective or formative (p. 216). As such, it is crucial to define the measurement model of the indicators used in this study as the first step of the analysis (Becker, Klein & Wetzels, 2012, p. 377). The indicators used in this study are tested and validated items taken from previous literature. Based on the descriptions of the two types of measurement models (reflective and formative) by Hair et al. (2011, p. 141) they prove to be reflective as they are perceived as functions of the latent variables and any change in the latent construct is reflected in the variations in the indicator variables. This was also proved by the results of running the confirmatory tetrad analysis (PLS-CTA) where per each variable all the values in the low adjusted confidence interval (CI) were negative, whereas in the up adjusted confidence intervals (CI) were all positive, having zero laying in between (Gudergan et al., 2008): CCRE ([-0.087; 0.103]; [-0.141; 0.119]), CREL ([-0.341; 0.214]; [-0.361; 0.042]; [-0.301; 0.246]; [-0.352; 0.25]; [-0.274; 0.429]), CP ([-0.163; 0.155]; [-0.094; 0.164]); AFF ([-0.277; 0.183]; [-0.134; 0.149]), AC ([-0.358; 0.188]; [-0.388; 0.145]), BT ([-0.146; 0.092]; [-0.142; 0.117]; [-0.15; 0.181]; [-0.156; 0.15]; [-0.137; 0.141]), WoM ([-0.107; 0.104]; [-0.054; 0.153])

Based on Hollebeek et al. (2014) and Brodie et al. (2011a) who strongly view consumer engagement as a dimensional concept, Hepola et al. (2017) empirically support the second-order (also referred as higher-order) formative measurement model for consumer brand engagement (CBE) forgoing this way the common trend of applying a reflective measurement model of CBE (p. 287). Referring to the statement by Finn & Wang (2012) that “*higher-order reflective constructs are, at worst, misleading, and at best meaningless*” Lee and Cadogan (2012, p. 244) recommend that researchers should avoid using second-order reflective constructs, making the second-order formative measurement model the one used for CBE in this study.

4.3.1 Assessment of reflective measurement models

According to Hair et al. (2016) the internal consistency reliability is measured in two ways through (1) Cronbach’s alpha (α) and (2) composite reliability (CR). In essence, both Cronbach’s alpha and CR estimate reliability considering the intercorrelations of the examined indicator variables (Hair et al., 2014, p. 101). Considering that indicators are not evenly reliable, according to Hair, Howard and Nitzl (2019) composite reliability is thought to be more accurate than Cronbach alpha due to the fact that the first one is weighted and the latter is unweighted (p. 104). The values for both reliability indicators should not be smaller than 0.7 and not higher than 0.95 (Hair et al., 2019, p. 104). In this study Cronbach’s alpha varies from 0.813 to 0.912, whereas composite reliability (CR) varies from 0.889 to 0.945 indicating good internal consistency reliability. The reliability of each indicator is assessed based on their loading to the corresponding factor, meanwhile the significance of this loading is measured through t-value that in PLS-SEM are produced by performing bootstrapping procedure. According to Hair et al. (2019) the values of standardized loadings should be at least 0.708 and the respective t-value should be higher than

1.96 to be significant (p. 104). Convergent validity of the measurement model is measured by the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The AVE measures the average variance divided between the construct and each of its indicators (Hair et al., 2019, p. 104). All AVE values as displayed in table 7 are above 0.5 suggesting that the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators (Hair et al., 2016, p. 448).

Table 6: Cronbach's alphas, composite reliabilities, factor loadings and *t*-values

Factor	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	Item	Standardized loadings	<i>T</i> -value
Content Relevance	0.873	0.908	CREL1	0.737	19.465
			CREL2	0.848	44.512
			CREL3	0.754	20.577
			CREL4	0.866	54.845
			CREL5	0.864	51.771
Content Credibility	0.813	0.889	CCRE1	0.819	21.399
			CCRE2	0.860	37.137
			CCRE3	0.880	53.721
Cognitive Processing	0.835	0.901	CP1	0.878	47.368
			CP2	0.853	38.970
			CP3	0.871	48.790
Affection	0.890	0.924	AFF1	0.869	43.504
			AFF2	0.881	56.374
			AFF3	0.890	55.503
			AFF4	0.830	39.845
Activation	0.859	0.914	AC1	0.873	66.597
			AC2	0.883	59.275
			AC3	0.892	64.286
Brand Trust	0.885	0.916	BT1	0.872	44.549
			BT2	0.854	37.390
			BT3	0.760	23.437
			BT4	0.843	29.690
			BT5	0.808	20.615
Word of Mouth Intentions	0.912	0.945	WoM1	0.919	71.701
			WoM2	0.928	85.991
			WoM3	0.919	70.949

The discriminant validity assesses the uniqueness of a construct and it is evaluated by estimating the cross loadings and Fornell-Lacker criterion (Hair et al., 2014, p. 105). In all cases indicator's loadings were higher than the respective cross loadings. At the same time, the square root of each construct's AVE is greater than the highest correlation it has with each of the other constructs meeting this way the criteria that ensure discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 7: AVE values, construct correlations, square root of AVE

	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. CREL	0.665	0.816						
2. CCRE	0.728	0.581	0.853					
3. CP	0.752	0.634	0.568	0.867				
4. AFF	0.753	0.612	0.580	0.726	0.868			
5. AC	0.780	0.590	0.449	0.588	0.650	0.883		
6. BT	0.686	0.591	0.644	0.597	0.652	0.561	0.828	
7. WoM	0.850	0.510	0.535	0.532	0.615	0.540	0.766	0.922

Fornell-Lacker criterion is criticized for the lack of reliability in detecting the absence of discriminant validity in a common research situation (Ali, Kim & Ryu, 2016, p. 220). In response to these critiques Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt (2015) suggest the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) as a new way to assess discriminant validity. Cutoff scores for HTMT accepted values vary. While Ali et al. (2016, p. 220) uses 0.85 as the maximum accepted Hair et al. (2019) sets 0.90 as the maximum accepted. Running complete bootstrapping showed that HTMT ration was different from one. At the same time, all figures in table 8 are all under 0.9, confirming this way the results of Fornell-Lacker method shown above.

Table 8: Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. CREL							
2. CCRE	0.687						
3. CP	0.741	0.686					
4. AFF	0.692	0.678	0.841				
5. AC	0.679	0.535	0.694	0.743			
6. BT	0.671	0.751	0.692	0.732	0.644		
7. WoM	0.572	0.620	0.610	0.681	0.611	0.853	

4.3.2 Assessment of formative measurement models

Differently from the reflective measurement model, the formative measurement model applied for consumer brand engagement is assessed through collinearity, significance, and relevance of the formative construct. Assessment of collinearity is of importance considering that high values of it between the formative indicators influence the assessment of weights and their statistical significance (Hair et al., 2014, p. 123). Collinearity is measured through the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF values for the three dimension of consumer brand engagement ranged from 1.823 to 2.221. VIF values were all significantly lower than the critical level of ten as specified by Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) and five as defined by Hair et al. (2014) suggesting that collinearity is not an issue. The outer weights per each of the three dimensions of consumer brand engagement were significant ($p < 0,01$): cognitive processing ($w1 = 0.381$),

affection ($w_2 = 0.392$) and activation ($w_3 = 0.366$). As all the criteria are met the proposed formative measurement model will be taken forward.

4.4 Structural model

The next step, once the measurement model quality is proven satisfactory, is the assessment of the structural model. Considering that this study's model includes dependent reflective-formative higher-order latent variables, the (extended) repeated indicators approach with Mode B is applied. Becker et al. (2012) justify this usage of this approach for being a less biased approach, which produces more accurate parameter estimations and a more realistic higher-order construct score (p. 376). On the other hand, the path weighting scheme is used to evaluate the PLS path model considering that in formatively higher-order constructs it generates the overall best factor recovery (Sarstedt et al., 2019, p. 200).

The evaluation of structural model (also referred to as the inner model) involves the examination of the predictive ability of the model as well as the examination of the hypothesized relationships between the constructs (Hair et al., 2014, p. 168).

4.4.1 Direct effects

The structural model relationships are measured through the path coefficients that represent the strength of the relationships, which have standardized values between +1 and -1 (Hair et al., 2014). Low values close to zero (0) refer to weak nonsignificant relationships. The coefficient's standard error, that is acquired by means of bootstrapping, defines whether the coefficient is significant or not (Hair et al., 2014, p. 171). The bootstrapping procedures were executed with 5000 subsamples using a significance level of 0.05 (5%) as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). The significance level defines the critical levels for p -value and t -statistics. The p -values should be lower than 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) and the t -statistics higher than 1.96.

The effect size (f^2) indicates the effect of each independent construct on a dependent construct. According to Hair et al. (2014) f^2 -values of 0.35, 0.15 or 0.02 are interpreted as large, medium or small effect of the independent construct on the dependent construct (p. 177). The f^2 - values are incorporated in table 9.

Table 9: Direct effects

Hypothesis	<i>B</i>	<i>f</i> ²	<i>t-values</i>
H1a Content relevance → Cognitive processing	0.459***	0.259	10.493
H1b Content relevance → Affection	0.415***	0.207	7.625
H1c Content relevance → Activation	0.496***	0.257	10.285
H2a Content credibility → Cognitive processing	0.301***	0.112	5.370
H2b Content credibility → Affection	0.339***	0.138	6.342
H2c Content credibility → Activation	0.160**	0.027	3.147
H3 Consumer brand engagement → Brand trust	0.461***	0.230	7.644
H4 Content relevance → brand trust	0.094 ns	0.010	1.634
H5 Content credibility → Brand trust	0.307***	0.130	5.920
H6 Consumer brand engagement → WoM intentions	0.244***	0.077	4.706
H7 Brand Trust → WoM intentions	0.593***	0.451	10.833
Age → Consumer brand engagement	0.023**	0.022	2.788
Frequency of consumption → Consumer brand engagement	0.022**	0.026	2.125

Note: ***: $p < 0.01$, **: $p \leq 0.05$, ns: not significant ($p > 0.05$)

Based on the data provided in table 9 all the hypotheses are supported apart from H4 due to low path coefficient $\beta = 0.094$, t -statistics being under the critical level of 1.96, p -value higher than the critical level of 0.05 and small size effect of 0.010. Differently from content relevance, content credibility showed direct positive effect on brand trust ($\beta = 0.307$, $t = 5.920$, $p < 0.01$) supporting this way hypothesis H5.

Content relevance was found to be a strong direct predictor on all three dimensions of the consumer brand engagement especially on activation ($\beta = 0.496$, $t = 10.285$, $p < 0.01$) and cognitive processing ($\beta = 0.459$, $t = 10.493$, $p < 0.01$) and slightly less on affection ($\beta = 0.415$, $t = 7.625$, $p < 0.01$), supporting this way all the three hypotheses H1a-H1c. Content relevance also showed to have significant positive effect on the overall CBE ($\beta = 0.489$, $t = 10.841$, $p < 0.01$, $f^2=0.357$, $R^2= 0.569$). Content credibility showed to be a stronger predictor on affection ($\beta = 0.339$, $t = 6.342$, $p < 0.01$) and cognitive processing ($\beta = 0.301$, $t = 5.370$, $p < 0.01$) and weaker on activation ($\beta = 0.160$, $t = 3.147$, $p = 0.02$) supporting this way the three hypotheses H2a-H2c. Content credibility also showed to positively affect the overall CBE ($\beta = 0.308$, $t = 5.627$, $p < 0.01$, $f^2=0.146$, $R^2= 0.569$).

Consumer brand engagement showed to have a strong direct positive effect on brand trust ($\beta = 0.461$, $t = 7.644$, $p < 0.01$) and weaker, but still strong on word of mouth intentions ($\beta = 0.244$, $t = 4.868$, $p < 0.01$) supporting both H3 and H6 hypotheses. In order to examine the impact of each of the CBE dimensions on brand trust (BT) and word of mouth intentions (WoM), based on Hepola et al. (2017) each CBE dimension was directly connected to brand trust and word of mouth intentions, instead of connecting through the formatively measured CBE construct. Affection ($\beta = 0.246$, $t = 4.008$, $p < 0.01$) and activation ($\beta = 0.137$, $t = 2.439$, $p < 0.05$) had positive effect on brand trust, meanwhile cognitive processing ($\beta = 0.074$, $t = 1.165$, $p > 0.05$) had no effect on brand trust. Affection ($\beta = 0.388$, $t = 5.034$, $p < 0.01$) again had positive and stronger effect on word of mouth intentions than activation ($\beta = 0.216$, $t = 3.653$, $p < 0.01$) and cognitive processing ($\beta = 0.123$, $t = 1.520$, $p > 0.05$) had insignificant effect on word of mouth intentions. Brand trust ($\beta = 0.593$, $t = 10.833$, $p < 0.01$) was a strong direct predictor on word of mouth intentions supporting this way H7 hypothesis.

The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates the portion of variance in the dependent constructs that is explained by all the independent constructs associated to it. According to Hair et al. (2014) the R^2 values vary from 0 to 1, where values of 0.75 are described as substantial, those of 0.50 as moderate and values of 0.25 as weak (p. 175). The interpretation of the R^2 value varies depending on research model and research discipline for instance Chin (1998) describes R^2 values of 0.67 as substantial, 0.33 as moderate or 0.19 as weak. Table 10 shows that 46.2% of variance in cognitive processing, 45% of variance in affection and only 36.5% of variance in activation, 58.1% of variance in brand trust and 61.8% in word of mouth intentions are explained by all the respective independent constructs.

Table 10: Coefficients of determination (R^2)

	R^2
Cognitive Processing	0.462
Affection	0.450
Activation	0.365
Brand Trust	0.581
Word of Mouth Intentions	0.618

4.4.2 Indirect effects

Bootstrapping method, as recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2008), was used to assess the indirect effects via the mediator variables. The first step consisted on assessing the significance of the direct effect removing the mediator variables from the path model. As the direct effect of content credibility and of content relevance on brand trust and on word of mouth intentions was significant the mediator variables were entered in the path model and the respective indirect effects were assessed.

The indirect effect of consumer brand engagement (CBE) on the path from content credibility (CCRE) to brand trust (BT) is $\beta = 0.147$ ($p < 0.01$). The total effect is calculated by summing up the direct effect and the indirect effect on the path (Hair et al., 2014) as result the total effect of CBE on this path is $\beta = 0.454$ ($p < 0.01$). The variance accounted for (VAF = 0.323) is higher than 0.2, but smaller than 0.8 identifying partial mediation. The indirect effect of consumer brand engagement (CBE) on the path from content relevance (CREL) to brand trust (BT) is $\beta = 0.234$ ($p < 0.01$) leading to a total effect of $\beta = 0.328$ ($p < 0.01$). Considering the VAF value of 0.713 partial mediation is indicated.

Brand trust acts as a mediator in the relationship between CBE and word of mouth intentions (WoM) by indirectly and significantly affecting the relationship ($\beta = 0.283$, $p < 0.01$). The total effect on this relationship is $\beta = 0.527$ ($p < 0.01$). Partial mediation is suggested considering the VAF value of 0.537.

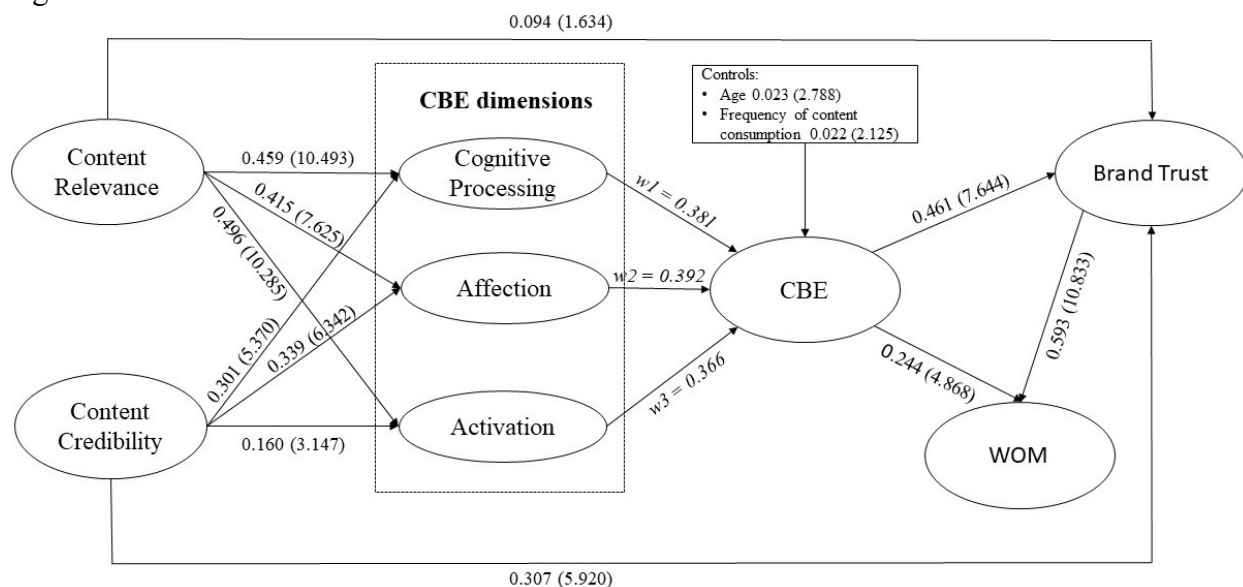
Table 11: Indirect effects

Mediator	Path	Indirect effect	Total effect	VAF
CBE	CREL → BT	0.234***	0.328***	0.713
	CCRE → BT	0.147***	0.454***	0.323
BT	CBE → WoM	0.283***	0.527**	0.537

CBE and BT show to also indirectly affect the relationship between CCRE and WoM and that between CREL and WoM. More specifically, the relationship between CCRE and WoM is absorbed by the indirect effects of CBE ($\beta = 0.075, p < 0.05$) and BT ($\beta = 0.181, p < 0.01$) as well as joint indirect effect (Vanderweele & Vansteelandt, 2013) by both mediators ($\beta = 0.087, p < 0.01$). The relationship between CREL and WoM is affected indirectly by CBE ($\beta = 0.118, p < 0.01$). Brand trust's indirect effect on this relationship is nonsignificant ($p = 0.178$) when considered on its own, but both CBE and BT have a joint indirect effect on this relationship ($\beta = 0.138, p < 0.01$).

Figure 2 shows the structural model with the direct path coefficients and t-statistics.

Figure 2: Structural model



5 DISCUSSION

This concluding chapter discusses the empirical findings presented in the previous chapter and describes how these findings relate to earlier studies answering this way to this study's research questions. Discussions on the theoretical implications that this study presents are followed by the suggested managerial implications. The evaluation of this study is presented, and limitations are explained. This chapter concludes by proposing suggestions for future research.

5.1 Theoretical implications

The expansion of social media platforms as marketing channels require new marketing approaches that aim to achieve new marketing goals. Academics and practitioners identify content marketing as the new marketing approach that meets the requirements in a digital ecosystem. Content marketing has received considerable attention especially for its ability to drive consumer engagement as the key desirable outcome of brand's efforts in social media. The short history of content marketing provides space for further academic contribution. This study tried to contribute in this area by focusing on the effect of content relevance and content credibility on consumer brand engagement in a mixed business model context in social media (Facebook and Instagram). These relationships were investigated by assessing their role on each of the dimensions of CBE as a second-order formative construct. The direct impact of content relevance and content credibility on brand trust was evaluated, followed by the assessment of the impact of CBE on brand trust and word of mouth intentions as well as the investigation of the effect of brand trust on word of mouth intentions.

Content relevance was identified to be a strong predictor of CBE as suggested by the DCM conceptual framework of Hollebeek and Macky (2018) as well as well as by Holliman and Rowley (2014), Pulizzi (2012), Pulizzi (2014), Vallero and Palazzo (2015), Wang et al., (2017), and other studies in the area that consider relevant content as key in driving consumer brand engagement. Content relevance had a strong positive effect on activation and on cognitive processing, as suggested by Hollebeek and Macky (2018) in their conceptual framework, but differently from their framework, content relevance resulted to have a strong positive effect also on affection. This outcome is explained by the cognitive appraisal theories according to which "*the emotional intensity is related to goal congruence with respect to the degree to which the situation meets expectations or approximates the desired state*" (Johnson & Stewart, 2005, p. 17) or as reframed by Watson and Spence (2007) the degree of emotion response depends on the level to which the desirable outcomes are achieved.

While credibility of source (Tsai & Men, 2013; Li, 2013) and credibility of medium (Kiousis, 2001; Lee & Ahn, 2013; Li & Suh, 2015; Liu, 2004; Mack, Blose, & Pan 2008) have been extensively studied, not much has been done with regards to content credibility. This study gives its contribution by considering message credibility distinctively from source and medium credibility. This study showed that content credibility proved to have positive effect on CBE. As predicted by Hollebeek and Macky (2018) content credibility showed to be a strong predictor on

affection and on cognitive processing. Activation on the other hand proved to derive from content credibility as well, even though the path coefficient shows to be lower than that with affection and cognitive processing. This lower value of path coefficient is expected considering that as explained by Hollebeek and Macky (2018) activation derives from cognitive engagement and/or emotional engagement.

Considering that credibility and trust are related concepts (McKnight & Kacmar, 2007) the positive direct effect of content credibility on brand trust was not a surprise. However, content relevance proved to have no direct effect on brand trust suggesting that provision of relevant content impacts brand trust in specific situations such as that of uncertainty, information asymmetry and fear of opportunism, which is not the case for a well-established brand like Valtra. Even though no effect resulted on the relationship between content relevance and brand trust, a positive indirect effect resulted with CBE being the mediator suggesting that brand trust is product of engaged consumers through the continuous provision of relevant brand-related content. Viewing this way, the provision of relevant content as a cycle considering that consumers will repeatedly turn to the brand to meet their continuous needs for information (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018, p. 32).

There was no surprise with regards to the positive effect of CBE on brand trust and word of mouth intentions supporting this way previous research such as the empirical evaluation of the effect of CBE on brand trust and word of mouth intentions by Islam and Rahman (2016) as well as other previous work as explained in the chapter on the hypotheses development. When each of the CBE dimensions was directly connected to BT and WoM intentions, affection showed stronger effect on both BT and on WoM intentions. Activation too resulted to have positive effect on both BT and WoM even though not as high as affection. Surprisingly, cognitive processing had no effect on BT neither on WoM intentions. Hepola et al. (2017) also identified cognitive processing to have no significant effect on brand equity just as Hollebeek et al. (2014) found cognitive processing to have insignificant impact on brand usage intention in social media settings (Hepola et al., 2017, p.288). Like Hepola et al. (2017) this study questions the scale's functionality. Hepola et al. (2017, p. 288) also explain that one reason to this result might be the high correlation between the cognitive processing and affection. As it was expected BT had a very strong positive direct effect on WoM intentions.

CBE was identified as a mediator in the relationship between content credibility and brand trust. Meanwhile brand trust itself was identified a strong mediator in relationship between CBE and WoM intentions, empirically supporting the findings by Islam and Rahman (2016) who state that positive effect of CBE on WoM intentions is instilled by consumer's trust in brand.

5.2 Managerial implications

Besides the theoretical implications, this study points at several implications to managers concerning relevance and credibility of digital content. This study once again reinforces the importance of digital content marketing as a strategic marketing approach used to trigger consumer brand engagement (CBE) that is one of the desirable outcomes of any brand's efforts in social media platforms. The nature of content marketing dictates a shift of focus on the way that brands

communicate with their audience, moving from one-way to two-way communication and from selling to helping and educating contents (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018). As such managers can no longer continue with traditional approaches while aiming engagement with the audiences through digital content marketing in social media platforms.

This study empirically proved the theoretically supported statements with regards to the role of content relevance in triggering consumer brand engagement (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018; Holliman & Rowley, 2014; Pulizzi, 2012; Vallero & Palazzo, 2015; Wang et al., 2017). Considering the positive effect of content relevance on all three dimensions of CBE and the fact that relevance is a subjective concept (Xu & Chen, 2006) stresses for managers the need and the importance of knowing their audience and the needs that their audience try to meet through brand-related content in social media. By identifying the reason/s why the audience wants to engage with brand-related content helps managers to define what their audience perceives as relevant content. Should the brand's audience purpose for engaging with brand-related content is the fulfillment of their need for information, then managers should provide information that is perceived as useful to their audience. While creation and distribution of relevant content drives consumer brand engagement, does not necessarily mean that it will have a direct effect on brand trust. The results of this study suggest that brand trust is built through engaged consumers suggesting that brands should regularly create and distribute useful content in order to build brand trust identifying this way CBE as a mediator and the trust building through relevant content as a process rather than one time activity.

Content credibility likewise is considered of importance considering that it evokes consumer brand engagement and brand trust as shown from the results of this study. Credibility, being a complex and subjective concept calls for special attention from managers to investigate how brand's audience perceives credibility. When the audience's need for information is considered, and when source credibility was proved by Tsai and Men (2013, p. 84) have no significant effect on consumer engagement, then more weight is placed on the role of content credibility on audience's judgment of credibility. In such a context, managers should consider creation and distribution of accurate, authentic, and believable content (Appelman & Sundar, 2016) to foster consumer brand engagement. Considering that the results of this study show that content credibility evokes strong emotional and cognitive engagement and as expected positive, but not very strong effect on behavioral engagement, managers should consider other activities to stimulate activation. Hollebeek and Macky (2018, p. 34) suggest that behavioral engagement can be considered as an output of high cognitive and emotional engagement as such managers should invest in elevating cognitive and emotional engagement first. Rieh, Jeon, et al. (2014, p. 438) mention the role of appealing visual aesthetics and other creative or attractive design factors affecting the affective value that audiences attach to the content they evaluate, suggesting that presenting the content in an attractive and structured way will increase their emotional engagement as well as their perception of credibility. The results of this study suggest that the content should be not only credible, but also relevant in order for it to stimulate behavioral engagement.

This study also re-confirms the importance of consumer brand engagement in evoking desirable outputs to the brand such as in the case of this study being brand trust (Taiminen & Ranaweera, 2019), and word of mouth intentions (De Vries & Carlson, 2014; Islam & Zaheer, 2016). Given the importance of engagement, brands are required to pay special attention to strategies and tactics on how to engage with their audiences online and offline. This study showed that affection and activation are the two main dimensions that affect

brand trust and word of mouth intentions as such the effort of the managers should be invested on how to elevate affection and activation.

5.3 Evaluation of the study

The quality of the study is assessed through the evaluation of reliability, replication, and validity (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 41). Reliability and replication are very close terms (Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 41) where replication is considered as the criterion for the reliability test (Yin 2009, p. 36). Reliability concerns the ability of the study to be repeatable, answering the question whether the operations/procedures of the study can be repeated with the same outcomes (Yin 2009, p. 33). The overall process and each procedure in this study is carefully explained and recorded ensuring transparency and replication of the process. All Cronbach's alphas (0.813 to 0.912), and composite reliability values (0.889 to 0.945) are above 0.7 and lower than 0.95 indicating very good internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2019, p. 104).

Validity refers to appropriateness of the measurement of concepts, more specifically it addresses the issue of whether an indicator (or set of indicators) that is created to measure a concept it really does measure that concept (Bryman & Bell 2011, p. 159). Yin (2009) identifies three types of validity: construct validity, internal validity, and external validity.

Construct validity concerns the establishment of the right functional measures for the concepts of the study (Yin, 2009, p. 33). In this study all measures used, were proven and validated measures taken from previous peer-reviewed research papers. Convergent validity is measured through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) that in this study were all above 0.5. Discriminant validity is judged by assessing the cross loadings and Fornell-Lacker criterion (Hair et al. 2014, p. 105). As reported above, in all cases indicator's loading was higher than the cross loadings and the square root of each construct's AVE is greater than its highest correlation with each of the other constructs meeting this way the criteria that ensure discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014). Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations test confirmed the findings as well. The passing of both tests supported by communality values well above 0.3 with no collinearity issues especially between the variables of the formative construct confirmed the constructs' validity.

According to Yin (2009) the assessment of internal validity is relevant only for explanatory or causal studies (p.33) that corresponds with the nature of this study. Internal validity concerns the causal relationship between constructs (Yin, 2009, p.33). The hypotheses in this study are outcome of the research questions. The direction of the causal relationship between the constructs as articulated in the hypotheses of this study is supported by previous literature that theoretically and empirically have tested these causal relationships. This confirms internal validity of the research.

External validity relates to the issue whether the results of the research can be generalized (Yin, 2009, p.33). The number of accepted responses to the online survey N=426 and an effective response rate of 21.3% might be considered as low compared to the number of company's followers in Facebook and Instagram. The response rates would have been higher if the survey would have been posted in a less busy time for the farmers, who also constitute the majority of the responders. At the same time the survey was eclipsed due to the high amount of content the

company delivered during the same period and due to the lack of special technical features that would have made it more visible to the audience. Another reason might have been that the survey might have been too long or of no interest to the audience. However, the profile of the responders reflects very well the general background of the followers of the company in Facebook and Instagram, bringing as such no surprises.

5.4 Limitations of the study

This study presents several limitations. The first limitation refers to the generalization of this study's results considering its sample size ($N = 426$). Even though this is a good size to conduct the confirmatory analyses, it is considered small when it is compared to the actual size of the company's audience at the time of survey distribution (99 400 followers in Instagram and 463 763). The generalization of the results can be hindered by the lack of homogeneity of the group of responders that is due to (1) the nature of the industry being male dominated, (2) adoption of the social media by younger people who represent also the majority of the actual audience of the company in the selected channels, the same reasoning goes for (3) their geographic distribution having the majority of responders and actual audience from Europe.

Even though the constructs for this study were validated and tested measures that fit to the context of this study, some limitations are observed with regards to the reliability of the measurement of the three dimensions of consumer brand engagement where cognitive processing proved to have no effect on brand trust. At the same time this study refers to credibility as exclusively viewed as an attribute to information not considering credibility of the source that often overlaps with information credibility (Metzger et al., 2003). Especially in this study the source being a well-established brand might impact the perceptions of the audience on information credibility before they even engage with the content, which might not be the case for an unknown brand. The medium also impacts the perception of credibility especially in a social media context where social media is considered as a credible medium (Kim & Kim, 2018).

Both credibility and relevance are complex and subjective concepts (Rieh et al., 2014; Xu & Chen, 2006; Zuccon, 2016) and on none of them there is a consensus neither on their definitions nor on the way they are conceptualized. The diversity of dimensions used to explain each of the concepts makes it difficult the selection of the most appropriate way to refer to these concepts presenting limitations to this study at some extent.

Lastly, the study was conducted in the context of the mixed business model company, as such the findings might change in the context of other models (Iankova et al., 2018).

5.5 Future research

Despite of the growing interest, digital content marketing remains a new concept as such there is always space for contribution (Hollebeek & Macky, 2018; Rowley, 2008). While Hollebeek and Macky (2018) contribute by developing a conceptual framework of digital content marketing, presenting the consumer-based DCM antecedents including functional, hedonic, and authenticity motives and three-tier consequences, this framework as mentioned by the authors, is purely theoretical as such validation of the framework is necessary. While this study focuses only on information relevance that explains at a certain degree the functional motives and information credibility explaining at a certain degree the authenticity motive, further study is required on measurement of each of these motives followed by empirical assessment of their effect on the three dimensions of consumer brand engagement.

Consumer brand engagement, regardless of the attention it has received by both academics and practitioners, continues to be an area that requires further research (Brodie, Ilic, et al. 2011; Hollebeek et al. 2014). Considering that three-dimensional engagement studies are primarily qualitative, this study reinforces the call from Hepola et al. (2017, p. 289) regarding the need for “*quantitative perspective to the CBE studies*” and reassessment of the measurement scale especially that of cognitive processing that resulted without any effect on brand trust and word of mouth intentions conflicting with the theory .

While the majority of academic efforts with regards to engagement on social media has been grounded on B2C context followed by B2B domain, very little has been done with regards to mixed business models in social media environment Iankova et al. (2018). While this study contributes by assessing the impact of content relevance and credibility on consumer brand engagement in Facebook and Instagram, further research is encouraged to be taken with regards to triggers of consumer brand engagement in B2B2C context as well in other social media channels.

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APPENDIX 1: Survey items with coding and references

Content relevance (*Lee et al., 2012*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- [CREL1] The content provided in Valtra's Facebook and Instagram was informative to me
- [CREL2] The content provided in Valtra's Facebook and Instagram was valuable to me
- [CREL3] The content provided in Valtra's Facebook and Instagram did matter to me
- [CREL4] The content provided in Valtra's Facebook and Instagram was helpful to me
- [CREL5] The content provided in Valtra's Facebook and Instagram was useful to me

Content credibility (*Appelman, & Sundar, 2016*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with each of the following descriptions about the content (e.g., texts, images and/or videos) posted on Valtra's Facebook or/and Instagram profiles:

- [CCRE1] Accurate
- [CCRE2] Authentic
- [CCRE3] Believable

Consumer brand engagement (*Hollebeek et al., 2014*)

Cognitive processing (*Hollebeek et al., 2014*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- [CP1] Reading Valtra's content in Facebook and Instagram gets me to think about Valtra
- [CP2] Reading Valtra's content in Facebook and Instagram stimulates my interest to learn more about Valtra
- [CP3] I think about Valtra a lot when I read its content in Facebook and Instagram

Affection (*Hollebeek et al., 2014*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- [AFF1] I am proud to follow Valtra in Facebook and Instagram
- [AFF2] Reading Valtra's content in Facebook and Instagram makes me happy
- [AFF3] I feel good when I read Valtra's content in Facebook and Instagram
- [AFF4] I feel very positive when I read Valtra's content in Facebook and Instagram

Activation (*Hollebeek et al., 2014*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- [AC1] Valtra's Facebook or Instagram is one of the platforms I usually use when I use social media in this industry category
- [AC2] I spend a lot of time using Valtra's Facebook and Instagram, compared with other similar brands
- [AC3] Whenever I am using social media in this industry category, I usually use Valtra's Facebook or Instagram profile

Brand trust (*Koschate-Fischer & Gärtner, 2015*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

- [BT1] Valtra is safe
 - [BT2] I trust Valtra
 - [BT3] I expect Valtra to deliver on its promise
 - [BT4] I am confident in Valtra's ability to perform well
-

[BT5] I rely on Valtra

Word of mouth intentions (*Glavee-Geo et al., 2019*)

Please tell us to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

[WoM1] I encourage friends and relatives to use Valtra

[WoM2] I encourage friends and relatives to use Valtra

[WoM3] I encourage friends and relatives to use Valtra

Age

18 – 29

30 – 39

40 – 49

50 – 59

60 and over

Frequency of consumption***

How often do you consume content posted on Valtra's Facebook and/or Instagram profiles?

Daily

Weekly

Monthly

Very rarely

Note: All items except the controls (age and frequency of consumption) were measured using 7-point Likert scale (strongly disagree – strongly agree). ***: reverse coded