STRATEGIG INFLUENCER COMMUNICATION AND FORMATION OF PURCHASE INTENTION IN SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES

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ABSTRACT

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Abstract The aim for this research was to study how the purchase intention forms in social networking sites such as YouTube, Facebook or Instagram by utilizing strategic influencer communication as a marketing tactic. Three main concepts were source credibility theory, persuasion knowledge theory and parasocial relationship theory. Source credibility theory has been previously used in social networking site context and based on the past research source credibility forms from trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, social attractiveness and attitude homophily. The study was implemented as a quantitative survey study. Respondents viewed product review video in YouTube and after that they filled out the survey. Respondents were shared in two groups for whom the persuasion knowledge was manipulated by different scenarios. The research material was collected from students of University of Jyväskylä and by sharing the link to survey in social networking sites. The results of the study were that the credibility of social media influencer is formed from trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, social attractiveness and attitude homophily. High source credibility leads to higher purchase intention and argument quality. There was no evidence found out that high argument quality leads to high purchase intention. It was also found out that parasocial relationship leads to higher credibility of social media influencer and persuasion knowledge moderates this connection. When persuasion knowledge is high the connection between parasocial relationship and source credibility is weaker compared to situation where persuasion knowledge is low. It was also hypothesized that audience participation correlates with parasocial relationship, however there were no evidence for this connection.	
Key words Marketing, strategic influencer communication, social networking sites, source credibility, parasocial relationship, persuasion knowledge	
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Tiivistelmä	
Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena oli tutkia, kuinka ostoaikomus muodostuu sosiaalisen median kanavissa kuten YouTubessa, Facebookissa tai Instagramissa hyödyntäen vaikuttajamarkkinointia markkinointikeinona. Tutkimuksen kolme pääteoriaa ovat lähteen uskottavuus -teoria, suostuttelun tunnistamisen -teoria ja parasosiaalisen vuorovaikutuksen -teoria. Lähteen uskottavuus -teoriaa on myös käytetty aikaisemmassa tutkimuksessa sosiaalisesta mediasta. Aiemman tutkimuksen pohjalta tälle teorialle on löydettävissä viisi eri muuttujaa, josta uskottavuus muodostuu. Nämä ovat luotettavuus, asiantuntijuus, fyysinen viehättävyys, sosiaalinen viehättävyys ja samankaltaisuus. Tutkimus toteutettiin kvantitatiivisena survey-kyselytutkimuksena. Vastaajat katsoivat alkuun tuotearvosteluvideon, jonka jälkeen he vastasivat kyselylomakkeen kysymyksiin. Vastaajat jaettiin kahteen ryhmään, josta toiselle ryhmälle manipuloitiin suostuttelemisen tunnistamista alussa esitetyllä tekstillä. Kysely levitettiin Jyväskylän Yliopiston opiskelijoiden sähköpostilistojen, sekä tutkimuksen tekijän sosiaalisen median kautta. Tutkimuksen tuloksissa lähteen uskottavuuden muodostaa luotettavuus, asiantuntijuus, fyysinen ja sosiaalinen viehättävyys sekä samankaltaisuus. Lähteen uskottavuus vaikuttaa positiivisesti ostoaikomukseen ja argumenttien koettuun laatuun. Argumenttien laadun ja ostoaikomuksen välille ei löytynyt todisteita. Parasosiaalinen vuorovaikutus vaikuttaa positiivisesti lähteen uskottavuuteen ja suostuttelun tunnistaminen moderoi tätä suhdetta heikentäen suhdetta, kun suostuttelun tunnistaminen on korkealla tasolla. Kohderyhmän osallistumisen asteen ennustettiin vaikuttavan positiivisesti parasosiaaliseen vuorovaikutukseen, tähän ei kuitenkaan löytynyt tilastollisesti merkitsevää suhdetta.	
Asiasanat	
Markkinointi, vaikuttajamarkkinointi, sosiaalinen media, lähteen uskottavuus, parasosiaalinen vuorovaikutus, suostuttelun tunnistaminen	
Säilytyspaikka	
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1   INTRODUCTION

Social networking sites (SNS) have become integral part of our everyday lives. According to Statista report there were 2.95 billion social media users in 2019 and this number is expected to rise to 3.43 billion by 2023 (Clement 2020b). YouTube is one social networking site where people can upload videos. In May 2019 500 minutes of video content was uploaded to YouTube every minute (Statista n.d.) and the platform had about 2 billion users in January 2020 (Clement 2020a). These numbers make YouTube the second largest social networking site in the world after Facebook (Clement 2020a).

The original idea of YouTube was that the content is generated by users. This content is called user-generated content (Welbourne & Grant 2016). However, in 2006 Google purchased YouTube and started to push the direction to professionally generated content (Kim 2012). Kim (2012) predicted that these big budgeted actors, such as Discovery Channel, would overshadow smaller individual content creators. In reality some researchers have found opposite results. For example, Welbourne and Grant (2016) and Lo, Esser and Gordon (2010) found out that at least on some video genres user generated content is more popular and engaging than professionally generated content.

YouTube also sparked new form of content creators that became famous through the videos they created in YouTube. These people are called social media influencers which produce wide variety of content ranging from instructional videos to daily vlog videos. One very significant genre is product review videos, where social media influencers share their opinions and experiences about certain products, such as mobile phones, cars or make-ups.

Many companies have understood value of these reviews and have started sponsoring social media influencer to gain positive product reviews and therefore to gain for example more sales or enhance the brand image. This marketing communication method is called strategic influencer communication and has been proven to be effective especially since consumers seem to be more difficult to reach by traditional mass media advertising (Sundermann & Raabe 2019). This is particularly true with younger generations, for whom the YouTube has become the most important media channel in Finland (Troot 2019). Troot (2019) study also reveal that YouTube has better reach of 15 to 35-year-old people than television in Finland. Another very important finding is that 85% of 15-35-year-old people view commercial co-operations in YouTube positively. These statistics indicates why YouTube seems to be very attractive marketing platform for companies.

The goal of using marketing communication such as ads is to persuade consumers to buy products or services (Obermiller & Spangenberg 1998). Persuasion knowledge model by Friestad and Wright (1994) describes how person understands and copes with the persuasive actions towards him. Strategic influencer communication is a tactic that tries to avoid the activation of persuasion

knowledge by hiding the advertising message in form of product review. This method can be seen as native advertising as Campbell and Marks (2015) define native advertising as creating ads that look similar to content that is surrounding it.

Because it is very easy to mix strategic influencer communication with unbiased product reviews there has also been negative backlash (Evan, Phua, Lim & Jun 2017). Federal Trade Commission has regulated strategic influencer communication by aligning that sponsored content must be fully disclosed in the content of endorsed product review (Federal Trade Commission 2009). There have been studies that claim that openly disclosing the sponsorship and saying that all the opinions are honest does not affect negatively to credibility of the message (Hwang & Jeong 2016). However, it is still unclear how triggering of persuasion knowledge affects the credibility of social media influencer. This research aims to bridge this cap in the marketing literature on how persuasion knowledge affects strategic influencer communication.

The concept of parasocial interaction by Horton and Wohl (1956) is used in this thesis to explain how viewers of SMI forms one sided relationships with SMI which positively influences the credibility on SMI. The credibility of source is a relevant factor to take in regard since it can have straight effect on individual's purchase intention and actual purchase behavior (Sokolova & Kefi 2019). Research model of this thesis is completed with physical and social attractiveness of SMI and homophily of attitudes between SMI and follower. These variables are recognised to have positive impact on parasocial interaction (e.g. Turner 1993; Lee & Watkins 2016).

As Sokolova and Kefi (2019) highlighted it is important to find the underlying factors that make SMIs so influential towards their followers on social networking sites. Sundermann and Raabe (2019) also highlight that strategic influencer communication is still very new phenomena and the need for more research is inevitable. This thesis doesn't aim to understand how to maximize effectiveness of marketing communication with right SMI like for example More's and Lingam's (2017) study, but rather what features of SMI have effect on purchase intention and actual purchase behavior of the follower.

1.1   Research questions, context and aim of the research

As mentioned in the introduction this research will focus on social networking site called YouTube. The chosen social media influencer is an American YouTuber who focuses on reviewing technology products. He had over 11 million subscribers in YouTube and over 1200 videos in July 2020. In chosen product review video, he reviews Apple's AirpodsPro wireless headphones. The aim of this research is to study how credibility of sponsored content produced by social media influencer is formed. Research questions are formed based on the aim of the

study. The aim gives overall direction what is studied, but research questions define precisely what the research wants to find out (Bryman & Bell 2011, 10).

Main research question:
>   -How does the brand-related content published on social networking sites by social media influencers affect consumers purchase intention?

Supporting research questions:
>   -What is the role of persuasion knowledge on the formation of purchase intention?
>   -How does parasocial interaction affect credibility of SMI?
>   -How the credibility of SMI is formed?

Based on the research questions different hypotheses were formed to find the answers to research questions. These hypotheses are based on the past research and provide expectations towards the findings of research. (Bryman & Bell 2011). Hypotheses are presented later in the chapter two.

1.2   Research structure

This research has been divided into five main chapters. The first chapter is an introduction chapter where the starting point of this research is introduced. Research questions and the aim of this research is also introduced in this chapter.

Theoretical background is introduced in the second chapter. Also, the term social media influencer is defined, and the influencer phenomena is discussed deeply in the second chapter. Research model and hypotheses are also presented in this chapter

In the third chapter the methodology of the research will be discussed. This chapter includes description of chosen research methodology alongside with information how the data was collected and analyzed. Lastly on this chapter the validity and reliability of this research is discussed.

The fourth chapter deals with results and analysis of the collected data. This chapter introduces all the analysis methods that are implemented.

The fifth and last chapter is dedicated to discussion of found results. Both theoretical contributions and managerial implications are presented in this chapter alongside with future research suggestions and limitations of this research.

2   THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The theoretical background is presented in this chapter. First strategic influencer communication in discussed and after that social media influencer term is defined. Then all the factors of research model are discussed alongside with hypotheses. Finally, research model is presented in the end of this chapter.

2.1   Strategic influencer communication

As mentioned, companies use advertising as marketing communication tactic, which aims to impact on behavior of consumers - usually buying behavior (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998). Mutum and Wang (2011) argued that companies might pay significant amount of money to marketing agencies that run advertising campaigns for them. The idea of using strategic influencer communication is to replace at least partially the work that marketing agency is doing, by co-operating with SMI. This can reduce marketing cost very significantly. (Mutum & Wang 2011.)
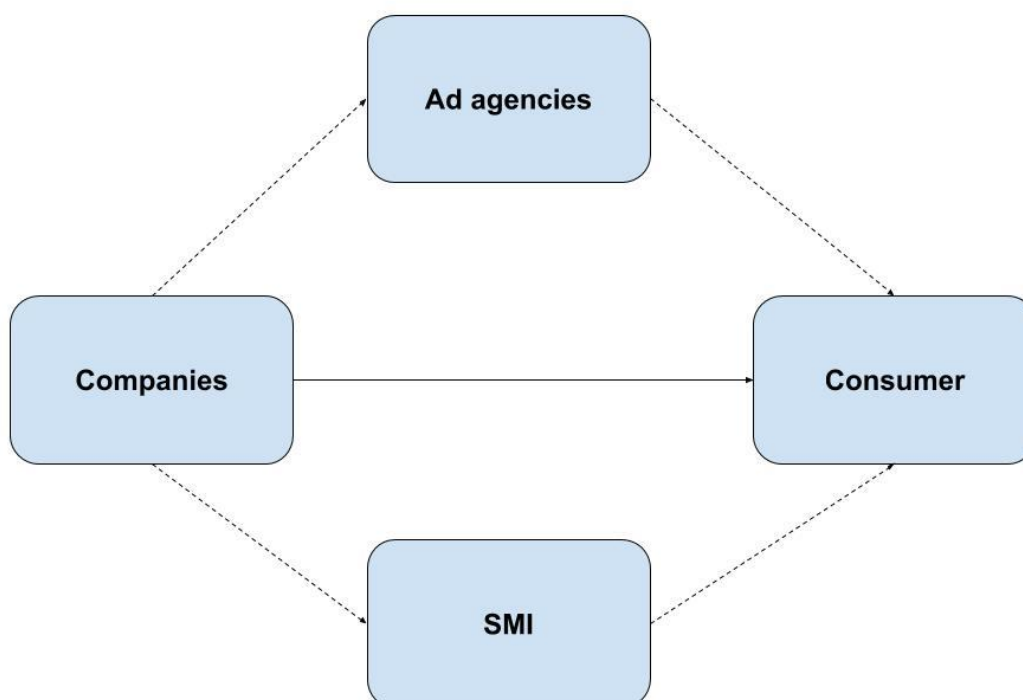

Figure 1 Advertising route (Adapted from Mutum and Wang 2011)

Companies and SMIs can work together in multiple different ways. At simplest company gives a product or service permanently or for limited time to SMI and SMI posts review of that product to certain SNSs. SMI can also get direct payments to review product (Dhanesh & Duthler 2019). When SMI gets direct payment, the brand's and SMI's relationship remind a bit of freelancer contract, where SMI spends time to create the review content and brand compensates for the working hours and visibility of the post. The reviews include deeply personal story and opinion how the SMI feels about the product or service (Dhanesh & Duthler 2019). This makes the reviews to feel like authentic product reviews. Next the term SMI is defined.

2.2   Social media influencers

In order to understand how strategic influencer communication works it is crucial to define what social media influencers (SMI) are. SMIs are third party content creators that affects viewers' attitudes through different social networking sites (SNS) like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram or YouTube (Freberg, Graham, McGaughey & Freber 2011). SMIs have variety of different definitions over the literature and different terms like blogger and vlogger are used alongside the term SMI. Next the different name variations are discussed and after that the arguments are made why the term SMI is used in this research.

Uzunoğlu and Kip (2014) defined term blogger as a content creator in digital platform. However, term blogger indicates strongly with a term blog. Blog is a webpage that reminds a diary (O'reilly 2007). Nardi, Schiano, Gumbrecht and Swartz (2004) added that the personality and opinions of the blogs writer (blogger) comes through the blog text. On the other hand, Mutum and Wang (2011) define blog as a digital platform where consumers create and share digital word of mouth. This indicates that terms blog and blogger are used in wider context than just traditional blogs. Mutum and Wang (2011) also highlighted that blogs have two-way communication between blogger and the followers. Sponsored content in blog is online advertising where blogger create content like blog text or video to review product (Mutum & Wang 2011). Thus, it can be seen that Uzunoğlu's and Kips (2014) definition of blogger as content creators in digital platform is fitting, but a little bit misguiding since the word blogger refers straight to word blog and blogs are traditionally on websites and do not include SNS like YouTube and Instagram.

Another very similar term to blogger is vlogger. Oxford Dictionary (2019) defines vlog as "a personal website or social media account where a person regularly posts short videos". Based on this definition vlogger is a person who posts content in video format to SNS or webpage. However, this definition of vlogger does not take in account that vlogger might try to influence behavior of his fol-

lowers. Also, similarly to term blogger, vlogger is limited to term vlog. As mentioned, vlog are videos, so this definition does not take in account that SMIs might also produce different content than just videos.

Microcelebrity is also term that is used to describe SMIs. Senft (2008, 25) described microcelebrity as a person who utilizes the online platforms to gain publicity. Marwick (2013, 114) ads that microcelebrities are, as name suggests, famous for a small amount of people. Strategic influencer communication does have similarities with celebrity endorsement, but these two are not same phenomena. Similarities and differences between these two are discussed more in the next chapter. However, since the strategic influencer communication and celebrity endorsement are different concepts it would be too confusing to use term microcelebrity. This term also does not take into account the influencing side. Other problem with the term microcelebrity is that many SMIs have nowadays enormous amount of follower which are called subscribers in YouTube. Subscribers are way to measure how popular the channels are in YouTube (Fägersten 2017). For example, in 2015 YouTuber called PewDiePie (own name Felix Kjellberg) broke the Guinness World Record for most subscribers in YouTube channel with 36 million subscribers (Brouwer 2015). In May 2019 T-series YouTube channel overtook PewDiePies channel and reached over 100 million subscribers as first channel to achieve over 100 million subscribers (Guinness World Records 2019). PewDiePie has over 98 million subscribers in August 2019 (YouTube 2019). These are of course extreme examples, but the term microcelebrity would be misleading, since SMIs might have even greater amount of follower that traditional celebrities in SNSs.

Influencer term can be seen as the latest version of the term blogger (Abidin 2016a). Influencers are regular internet users who have significant number of followers and they share their personal lives and lifestyle via online platforms. Influencers monetize their SNS posts with endorsed product reviews that look a lot like unpaid reviews. These reviews are called advertorials. (Abidin 2016b.) Term influencer do not take into account the online context they are working on, so this definition seems to be too wide.

Freberg et al. (2011) used term SMI as a third-party endorser who influence the behaviour of their followers utilizing different SNSs like blogs and tweets. SMIs can form strong online identity through SNSs (Khamis, Ang & Welling 2017). More and Lingam (2017) defined SMIs: "social media influencers are the entities in the social network, who help potential customers to make a buying decision by influencing his opinion, through social networking." More and Lingam (2017) also added that SMI can be any person who reviews new product in SNS posts, for example an industry expert or anyone who can potentially influence consumers. SMI term is well suited for marketing research since the goal of strategic influencer communications is to have effect on consumer behavior. Also, term SMI takes into account the context of social media, which is the main working platform for SMIs. In the future, it might be possible that there will be more

suiting term than SMI since the phenomena is developing quickly with technological development. However, at the moment SMI seems to be the most fitting term and is used in this thesis.

In this thesis SMIs are defined as people who have gained publicity and recognizable virtual identity through SNSs, where they produce engaging content for their followers including product reviews. They monetize their content by endorsement deals with companies and influence on buying behavior of their followers through their content. This definition takes into account the definitions of, blogger, vlogger, microcelebrity, influencer and SMI, which are presented in the table 1.

Table 1 Used terms and definitions of SMI in the past research

Study	Term	Definition
Uzunoğlu and Kip (2014)	Blogger	Content creator in digital platform.
Senft (2008)	Microcelebrity	A person who utilizes the online platforms to gain publicity.
Marwick (2013)	Microcelebrity	Microcelebrities are, famous for a small number of people.
Abidin (2016b)	Influencer	Influencers are regular internet users who have significant number of followers and they share their personal lives and lifestyle via online platforms.
Freberg et al. (2011)	SMI	Third-party endorser who influence the behaviour of their followers utilizing different SNSs like blogs and tweets.
More and Lingam (2017)	SMI	"Social media influencers are the entities in the social network, who help potential customers to make a buying decision by influencing his opinion, through social networking."

Based on the literature it seems that there are three different components that share similarities with strategic influencer communication and might have effect on why strategic influencer communication is an effective marketing communication strategy. These components are celebrity endorsement, electronic word-of-mouth and opinion leadership. These are presented next.

2.2.1 SMIs and celebrity endorsement

Using strategic influencer communication as a marketing communication tool has very similar characteristics as using celebrity endorsements. McCracken (1989) defined celebrity endorser as a famous person who uses this fame to promote products. McCracken (1989) added that celebrities can be known from their

career for example in TV, movies, sports, politics, business or even military. Using celebrities as marketing strategy can improve sales and stock returns (Elberse & Verleun 2012). Erdogan (1999) highlighted that celebrity endorsement strategy can be very effective way to differentiate products in saturated market when the product and the celebrity match well with each other. For example, soccer player is a good endorser for soccer shoes.

However, strategic influencer communication is not same phenomena as traditional celebrity endorsement. Even though SMIs might have significant number of followers, just like celebrities, they have gained their fame in SNSs producing content (Abidin 2016b). This might be the defining distinction between the two. People decide to follow specific SMI because of the content they produce. Because people have chosen to follow certain SMI on their own will, they have accepted that sponsored content is part of the content they subscribed for or they do not realize that there is sponsored content. On the other hand, when Hollywood actor who have gained her fame by acting in movies, produces endorsed material like TV commercial it is easy to view that material as regular advertisement.

Djafarova and Rushworth (2017) argued that SMIs are considered more credible sources than traditional celebrities since they are perceived less superficial than for example Hollywood stars. People also feel that SMIs are more similar like themselves and regarded more trustworthy than traditional celebrities (Schouten, Janssen & Verspaget (2020). SMIs are seen as experts of products they endorse and that builds trust towards the product reviews (Djafarova & Rusworth 2017). Schouten et al. (2020) also found out that SMIs are more influential on purchase intention of followers than traditional celebrities.

As Erdogan (1999) mentioned the proper fit between endorser and product is important. This fit comes very naturally to SMIs which are often seen as experts in the product category they review Djafarova and Rusworth (2017). Authenticity of the content and person is the key to produce appealing content to follower (Marwick 2013, 114). Authenticity might be the key factor that makes SMIs more credible than traditional celebrities. In other words, the authenticity means that SMIs are perceived more like regular people, just like their followers.

2.2.2 SMIs as opinion leaders

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1995) introduced the idea of two-step flow of communication. This idea introduced the term of opinion leader who can influence the decisions of the other people. Opinion leaders were people who followed mass media very actively. They formed opinions and passed these opinions to other people who considered that opinion leader as a credible source. (Katz & Lazarsfeld 1955, 32-33.)

In two-step flow of communication opinion leaders or influencers are gatekeeper who acquire information, process it and pass it on to people who follow them and regard it as valid information. Even though, Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) introduced the idea that opinion leaders have crucial part of passing the

information from mass media to other people in two-step flow of communication, this idea can be used in SNS contexts as well. SMIs are modern opinion leaders that can pass information to their viewers through SNS. Uzunoglu's and Kip's (2014) research support this claim that SMIs can be seen as modern-day opinion leaders who mediate the brand messages to consumers.

2.2.3 SMIs and eWOM

People sharing opinions and experiences online about products have become important source of information in decision-making process (Teng, Wei Khong, Wei Goh & Yee Loong Chong 2014). Chu and Kim (2011) defined word-of-mouth (WOM) as consumers trading information about marketed products. There can be several reasons why consumers tend to discuss about marketing information. For example, consumer wants to share post purchase pleasure with his friends, he wants to enhance his status by sharing what he bought or consumer might try to reduce post purchase discomfort by reasoning his purchase, or by spreading negative WOM (Engel, Blackwell & Kegerreis 1969). Engel et al. (1969) also found out that WOM can be the most significant source on adopting new innovations on the market. WOM differs from traditional marketing messages, because it is interactive, and therefore there are relational characteristics involved such as how source expertise is perceived or how influential the source is (Gilly, Graham, Wolfinbarger & Yale 1998). WOM seems to be effective marketing tool since it can be used to lower consumer resistance with significantly lower costs (Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels 2008) and interpersonal sources tend to be most important sources of information (Price and Feick 1984).

Traditional WOM has evolved into electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) in the internet context (Chu & Kim 2011). Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh and Gremler (2004) defined eWOM as positive or negative statement about company or its product made by potential, actual or former customer distributed publicly via internet. Chu and Kim (2011) define eWOM simply as WOM that happens in online context. Hennig-Thurau's et al. (2004) research support this definition with their findings of eWOM and WOM participants share similar motivations to share eWOM or WOM. Trusov et al. (2008) argued that internet has provided excellent marketing platform for companies in form of eWOM. eWOM can be seen in various online channels and in many different forms, for example product reviews and discussion forums can be used to spread eWOM (Chu & Kim, 2011). There are different ways of utilizing eWOM in online context, for example viral marketing where entertaining or informative message spreads from SNS user to another in massive trend or community marketing where niche brand communities discuss about products and brands by sharing information and content (Trusov et al. 2008). Consumer can form online communities around products or brands, which can have significant effect on perception of brands or products and service quality (Nambisan & Watt 2011). In these communities consumers share information which creates information network and at the same time people create the social network (Dwyer 2007). SMI and their follower also form online

communities where product and brands can be discussed. Companies cannot obviously control the conversation here. Trusov et al. (2008) found out that eWOM has stronger impact on new customer acquisition than traditional marketing efforts.

In conclusion, based on the literature it seems that there are three different components explaining why strategic influencer communication is an effective marketing communication strategy. The first one is that SMIs are opinion leaders that are seen as trustworthy experts in their field. The second one is that SMIs are "modern" celebrities who have even stronger influence on their followers than traditional celebrities in terms of purchase intention. The last one is that third party reviews and eWOM are crucial factors that affects consumers purchase intention online and SMIs can spread this eWOM very effectively to their followers.

2.3   Source credibility

Source credibility theory was first introduced by Hovland and Weiss (1951). The main argument is that when person views material that has identical amount of facts but showed on different sources where other is seemed as high trustworthy and other as low trustworthy subjects' opinion changes about the content. In other words, highly credible source made person change his opinion more effectively compared to sources that were experienced as low credible. (Hovland & Weiss 1951.)

Ohanian (1990) defined source credibility as positive traits of individual that helps increasing the acceptance of sent message. Source credibility seem to have direct positive effect to purchase intention in SMI context (Ohanian 1990; Sokolova & Kefi 2019). Morimoto and Le Ferle (2008) defined source credibility as how believable the source is perceived.

Jin and Phua (2014) argued that the greater number the SMI has follower on Twitter the more credible they are perceived. De Veirman, Cauberghe and Hudders (2017) found out similar results in Instagram contexts. Source credibility also affects positively to attitude towards blog (Colton 2018). Different medias where the persuasive action is presented also affects, alongside the trustworthiness of the source, the overall influence (Andreoli & Worchel 1978). In Andreoli's and Worchel's (1978) research highly trustworthy source was the most persuasive in television, compared to print and radio, but also the lowly trusted source was perceived less influential. This means that the platform has effect on persuasive power of influencer. Pornpitakpan (2004) suggested that visual aspect of the television may have caused this effect. Based on this assumption YouTube videos should have the same impact. Sokolova and Kefi (2019) found out significant connection between source credibility of SMI and purchase intention of follower.

Since there are national mandatory for disclosure of sponsorship in SNS (Federal Trade Commission 2009) it is important to discuss how disclosing the

sponsorship effects on perceived source credibility. Hwang and Jeong (2016) argued that different kind of disclosures have different impact on source credibility. When SMI addresses that the blog content is sponsored, but the opinions are still honest, the disclosure mitigates the negative impact on source credibility (Hwang and Jeong, 2016). Lu, Chang and Chang (2014) found out that disclosing the sponsorship did not have any negative effect on attitude towards the posts. They also found out that when the product was search product, meaning that it is a product category that is easy to compare, like mobile phones, they had more positive effect on sponsored post than experience products that are hard to compare and experience more with sense, like videogames or package tours (Lu et al. 2014).

As sponsored review videos in YouTube look like non-sponsored videos, these videos can be called as a native advertising. Native advertising is ads that looks like non-paid content surrounding it in digital platform (Cambpell & Marks (2015). Native advertising is on a grey area, where the line between advertising and non-advertising content can sometimes be very hard to notice. This is the reason why Federal Trade Commission requires full disclosure of sponsorship in the sponsored videos.

Source credibility might also have effect on what content consumers watch. Because there is so much different content in online nowadays it is possible to consume only small fraction of it, and consumers tend to search information that supports their views. This is called selective exposure. (Johnson & Kaye 2013.) Johnson and Kaye (2013) found out at least partial support for connection between high credible sources and selective exposure. In context of Johnson's and Kaye's (2013) study on political blog it is of course concerning since it means that consumers mainly choose to read blogs that support their own views, which might lead to higher political polarization. In the marketing context, this means that consumers tend to select those product reviews that support their own views on that product. For example, consumer that is looking to buy new running shoes and has a prefer for Adidas shoes might look for product reviews on new Adidas running shoes and consume those reviews that are positive.

According to Ohanian (1990) source credibility has three different components which are trustworthiness, expertise and attractiveness. Attitude homophily is also included as a component of source credibility. The components of source credibility are presented next.

2.3.1 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was introduced as a component of source credibility by Hovland and Weiss (1951) in original source credibility theory model. Trustworthiness means how much listener trusts in endorser and his message (Ohanian 1990). If the viewer cannot trust the SMI, credibility is weak. Aggarwal-Gupta's and Dang's (2009) definition of trustworthiness supports this view by saying that trustworthy individual is experienced more credible than less trustworthy individual.

Trustworthiness has been tested in many situations to affect positively to source credibility and thus can be seen as part of source credibility (Hovland & Weiss 1951; Ohanian 1990; Chu & Kamal 2008).

H1: Credibility of SMI is formed from trustworthiness

2.3.2 Expertise

Erdogan (1999) defined expertise as how legit communicator is perceived to be as a source of claims he makes. Expertise refers to degree how much knowledge endorser has about specific product or service (Teng et al. 2014).

The expertise dimension has been called with different names in past literature, for example authoritativeness, competence, expertness and qualification are used before (Ohanian 1990).

H2: Credibility of SMI is formed from expertise

2.3.3 Source attractiveness

Source attractiveness refers to overall attractiveness of person. Attractiveness of a person generates positive feelings (Joseph, 1982). Thus, attractiveness can have effect on many levels in different situations. Source attractiveness can have significant effect on persuasion when consumer do not have time or ability to process the given persuasive message (Sokolova & Kefi 2019; Petty & Cacioppo 1986; Petty & Cacioppo 1984). Kelman (1958) explained this with process called identification where the source's attractiveness influences the persuasion, because the persuasion target wants to identify with the persuasion agent. Source attractiveness also seems to have positive relationship to source credibility (Moore, Hausknecht and Thamodaran 1986). Source attractiveness has been split in three variables in this thesis, which are physical and social attractiveness and attitude homophily.

Joseph's (1982) review study on the physical attractiveness emphasized that defining attractiveness is not easy task since it can be highly subjective opinions. Previous research has mostly focused on facial cues, which seem to be very important factor on rating physical attractiveness. However, it is not important to focus on isolated features, but rather on overall perception of physical attractiveness, which can be subjective as mentioned before. Thus, a person can be claimed to be attractive if significantly great amount of people perceives that person attractive. The individuals' reasonings behind the decision are not important. This means that certain type attributes like specific color of the hair, shape of the face, height or weight cannot be defined as universally attractive. These individual attributes naturally have effect on individual rating of other person attractiveness. However, in this research attractiveness means that significant amount of people perceives SMI as attractive. This means that attractiveness of different

people can be compared with each other based on numerical means rated by "judges". (Joseph 1982.)

Social attractiveness can be seen as overall likeability of SMI (Sokolova & Kefi 2019). When humans want to get certain outcome of social situation the behavior is not the only factor that affects the outcome (Gilbert, Price & Allan 1995). Gilbert et al. (1995) argued that in many daily situation people want to get chosen by another people, for example in situations like getting new job or making new friends and in these situations people try to demonstrate their attractive attributes, like physical attractiveness, intelligence, or some certain skills to get selected. Based on these studies social attractiveness seems to be these attributes that people try to demonstrate to get approval by another people. Where physical attractiveness refers to physical look of person, social attractiveness refers to more overall evaluation how people perceive another person, including the physical appearance. For example, football enthusiast might find talented football player socially attractive, because the player possesses skills that football enthusiast highly appreciates.

Gilbert (1997) argued in his review study on social attractiveness and shame, that people can use portraying of the fighting abilities, called resource holding potential, to gain status. However, showing the dominance is not very good way of achieving desired status in modern times and social attractiveness seems to be much more effective way to gain status and form relationships. The difference is obviously that person do not try to intimidate the other person but rather attract the other person by displaying good things about herself. If person wants to get approval of certain group, she represents her qualities to get approval. In other words, we try to portray good image of ourselves and try to avoid negative attention. Socially attractive people create positive feelings about themselves, in other people and can be seen for example as ideal partners, friends or co-workers. Celebrities are typically seen as socially super attractive people who people try to imitate. (Gilbert 1997.)

H3: Credibility of SMI is formed from physical attractiveness
H4: Credibility of SMI is formed from social attractiveness

2.3.4 Attitude homophily

Over two thousand years ago Greek philosophers Aristotle already observed that people tend to like other people who are like themselves (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook 2001). Homophily is a concept that represents this similarity of different persons. Rogers and Bhowmik (1970) defined homophily as degree of certain attributes, like education, social status and values that are similar within two communicators. The basic idea is that the more similar the consumer sees another person the more he wants to interact with that person (Lee and Watkins 2016). Lee and Watkins (2016) continued that on parasocial relationship contexts the more similar the consumer is with SMI the more likely he will continue the relationship with SMI. Even though, internet and SNS users are wide variety of

people, consumers can decide what content to consume online and this usually brings similar people together in online context (Best & Krueger 2006). McPherson et al. (2001) supported this view by defining homophily as a phenomenon on which similar people interact with each other more often than people with different qualities. Gilly et al. (1998) defined homophily simply as a "similarity of two individuals". Homophily is an important factor affecting on consumer decision making since consumers tend to search information from homophilic sources and sometimes homophily might be even more important factor on decision making than for example source expertise (Gilly et al. 1998). Morimoto and La Ferle (2008) found out that people perceive ads to be more credible when the model on the ad represent same race.

Homophily can be split into two categories, which are status homophily and value homophily. Status homophily includes demographic characteristics such as age, gender and sex and acquired characteristics such as religion and education. Value homophily on the other hand involves things like attitudes, beliefs, aspirations and abilities. (McPherson et al. 2001.) As Petty and Cacioppo (1986) defined attitudes as an overall perception of himself and other people, attitude homophily will be defined as person's overall perception of similarity with another person and degree of desire to interact with another person.

H5: Credibility of SMI is formed from attitude homophily

2.4 Parasocial relationship

Parasocial interaction (PSI) was introduced in 1950s by Horton and Wohl (1956) and it was related to, at the time relatively new mass media television, but also radio and movies. Horton and Wohl (1956) defined PSI as an image of real face-to-face relationship even though relationship is one-sided and controlled by the 'actor'. Horton and Wohl (1956) added that the actor in the television is engaging with audience and this feeling is enhanced with small gestures such as talking straight to audience. Speaking straight to the audience is called breaking the fourth wall, which is imaginary wall between the audience and the actors, where actors acts like they see the audience (Auter 1992). Auter's (1992) research supports that breaking the fourth wall will enhance the PSI. The actor, whether she is acting as a character or as herself, on the TV transforms into a personality of own that viewers get to know (Horton and Wohl 1956).

In addition to PSI parasocial relationship (PSR) is another very similar term used in the literature. Dibble, Hartmann and Rosaen (2016) addressed that both terms have had different definitions over the years and the definitions and usage of the terms have been overlapping. Dibble et al. (2016) defined PSI as a brief interaction moment that happens during viewing the show. PSR on the other hand is longer period relationship that can be active even after exposure ends (Dibble et al. 2016). PSI happens on every interaction, but the deeper PSR is

formed only after great number of exposures (Perse & Rubin 1989). Considering these studies, it seems that PSI happens when viewer watches television program or YouTube vlog video, just like 'real-life' interaction happens when two or more people meet, and it ends when they leave. PSR is longer time phenomenon just like 'real-life' relationship for example friendship or marriage. These relationships do not end when the parties stop interacting with each other, but they carry on longer period of time, sometimes even for a lifetime. Parasocial relationship can be important relationship for individual, just like "real life" relationships (Greenwood, Pietromonaco & Long (2008). Ballantine and Martin (2005) emphasized that even if the PSR resembles like real life relationship the bond is usually weaker on PSR than real life relationship. The background for the parasocial relationship forming is that consumers believe that the target of PSR is like person in his social circle (Ballantine & Martin 2005). This research focuses on parasocial relationships, since the aim is to study how the formed parasocial relationship affects to persons behavior.

When we search for reasons behind why PSR emerges, we might need to dive back into a history. Reeves and Nass (1996, 12) argued that since Homo sapiens is about 200,000-year-old specie and our brains were not evolved to deal with modern day technological virtual reality. We cannot switch off our "old brains", so we deal with simulated social persons as they would be like real life persons. Kanazawa (2002) argued that human brains fails to make difference between real friends and imaginary friends like TV actors. Human brains response to environment of evolutionary adaptedness, which means the state that brains were evolved originally. Because there were no TVs or internet when human brains evolved, modern day human views TV characters or SMIs just like real life friends. (Kanazawa, 2002.)

Ballantine and Martin (2005) raised an important note that the research has focused a lot on the consumers that actively communicate with each other in online contexts. They argue that past research has had an assumption that every consumer will eventually communicate with each other, however PSR is good concept to understand those consumers that prefer to consume the online media, rather than produce it themselves. (Ballantine & Martin 2005.)

In the past PSR research, there have been three theoretical backgrounds that tries to explain how PSR develops on individual level (Cole & Leets, 1999). The first is uncertainty reduction theory (Berger 2011; Berger 1986; Berger & Calabrese 1974) which means that over time uncertainty decreases, because consumer learns to predict behavior of SMI, which then increases perceived intimacy and liking. Perse's and Rubin's (1989) study supports the connection between PSR and uncertainty reduction theory. The second theory is personal construct theory (Delia, & O'Keefe 1982), which theorizes that consumers apply their own interpersonal social construct and place SMI there, like they would be similar to consumers other friends. The third and the last is social exchange theory (Homans 1974), which can be seen as a cost versus rewards set-up. Simply it means that consumers try to avoid emotional pain, like embarrassment, anxiety

or high mental effort and maximize pleasure, which can be anything that consumers find to be enjoyable. PSR would be high reward situation with low cost ratio because person's actions will not affect the actor at all. Therefore, the actor cannot for example disappointed or feel betrayed by the actions of follower.

Perse's and Rubin's (1989) summarizing research on PSR claims that interpersonal friendship and PSR are somewhat similar. Past research seems to be focused on similarities of friendship and PSR (e.g. Perse & Rubin 1989) and overall PSR has been connected to mostly positive experiences on past research, but PSR can be perceived as a negative experience with disliked characters as well (Dibble & Rosaen 2011). Dibble's and Rosaen's (2011) findings further strengthen that PSR reflects real life interactions and relationships, since it can be applied to positive and negative experiences. Tukachinsky (2010) found out that PSR can vary not only by its intensity but also on quality, meaning that PRS can be, as mentioned earlier, like friendship but also romantic type love relationship.

Even though SNS have differences compared to traditional media platforms such as TV and radio, Labrecque (2014) suggested that PRS can be applied to understand consumer-brand relationship. Labrecque (2014) also highlighted that even though bilateral communication is possible through SNS many times the communications remain as a one-way communication. This is because social media representatives for brands usually have some guidelines in communicating through SNS. Often these replies to messages come without name of the employee and they are unidentifiable and seen as a message from the brand itself. Hwang and Zhang (2018) had similar findings of PSR between social media influencer and viewer. On the surface the relationship might seem bilateral, but these bilateral relationships might not form as easily as predicted (Hwang & Zhang 2018). One reason might be that social media influencer shares a lot of personal information about herself, but the viewers might consume the content without giving any information about themselves. Another reason might be that SMIs could have thousands or even millions of followers and it would be impossible for them to get to know each follower personally. Therefore, PSR seem to be fitting model to explain and understand the connection between SMI and their followers. Sokolova and Kefi (2019) also argued that people could form PRS via SNS by subscribing and following the content of SMIs.

Greenwood et al. (2008) argued that young women who have parasocial relationship with female character want to look and be like them. Especially women who wants to be in intimate relationship, but at the same time fear that they will get abandoned showed most significant connection between parasocial relationship and wanting to look and be like their same gender PSR targets (Greenwood et al. 2008).

It seems that different genders perceive PSR differently. Hoffner (1996) found out that when comparing 7 to 12-year-old children, the attractiveness was the only factor that affected on PSR on females. Comparing to same age males, intelligence was the most important character affecting on PSR, but attractiveness and strength had also significant connection. It seems that 7 to 12-year-old girls tend to think that attractiveness is the most important factor and it is the only

thing that matters when forming a PSR. (Hoffner 1996.) Greenwood et al. (2008) argued that females at young age tend to have difficulties differentiating how their general likeably is perceived from physical attractiveness.

Welbourne and Grant (2016) found out that YouTube channels that had only one person were much more popular than channels with multiple presenters. Welbourne and Grant (2016) explain the popularity by that channels with one person creates feelings that are more authentic. This "authenticity" might be same or partial concept as PSR since follower seems to form some sort of relationship in SNS to SMIs.

Parasocial relationship and source credibility affects purchase intention of SMIs followers (Sokolova & Kefi 2019). Especially for generations Z and Y parasocial interaction seems to be very strong factor affecting purchase intention. For the older generations source credibility seems to be more important factor. (Sokolova & Kefi 2019.) PSR to SMI effected positively to luxury brand perception (Lee and Watkins 2016). Gong and Li (2017) found out that PSR is indicator of SMIs credibility.

H6: Parasocial relationship has positive effect on source credibility

2.5   Argument quality

Bhattacherjee and Sanford (2006) defined argument quality as how persuasively strong the presented informational message is. Cheung, Luo, Sia and Chen (2009) add that receiver of the message estimates how convincing the argument is in terms of supporting its claims. Moore et al. (1986) proposed that strong arguments are perceived as more persuasive, important and strong than weak arguments. Petty and Cacioppo (1986) defined argument quality as pieces of information inside a message that help consumer to decide what are true merits of advocated position from subjective point of view. This definition takes into account that perceived quality of an argument is a subjective view of an individual.

Argument quality works on the way that when the receiver of the message perceives that the argument of the information is valid, the receiver forms positive attitude towards the information (Cheung et al. 2009). Cheung et al. (2009) added that it also works inverted: when the argument of information is perceived invalid the receiver forms negative attitude towards the information and information is perceived uncreditable. Teng et al. (2014) defined argument quality as how persuasive and convincing the review is in online. Petty and Cacioppo (1986) also defined strong and weak messages separately which both resemble closely to Cheung et al. (2009) definition of argument quality. Strong messages contain arguments that makes consumers to think predominantly positively about the message and weak messages contain arguments that make consumers to think predominantly negatively about the message (Petty & Cacioppo 1986). Petty and

Cacioppo (1986) also emphasized that positive or negative change need to happen after the message is presented so that the message itself affects the change in opinion.

Stoltenberg and Davis (1988) and Moore et al. (1986) found out connection between argument quality and source credibility. They argued that messages argument quality was perceived stronger when high credible source presented them (Stoltenberg & Davis 1988; Moore et al. 1986). Chu's and Kamal's (2008) study support this by saying that the greater the SMIs trustworthiness (part of source credibility) is, the higher the impact of the argument quality had on brand attitude compared to when trustworthiness was low.

Herron (1997) found out that argument quality had impact on persuasion only when the sources expertise was high. Argument quality had no impact on persuasion when the expertise was low (Herron, 1997). Teng et al. (2014) argued that argument quality is also important factor how credible messages are perceived in online context.

H7: Source credibility has positive effect on argument quality
H8: Argument quality has positive effect on purchase intention

2.6 Persuasion knowledge

Persuasion knowledge is a sociocognitive resource and a skill that makes people able to understand when outside agent is trying to influence their emotions, attitudes or decisions (Friestad & Wright 1999). To put it simply, persuasion knowledge is a realization that somebody is trying to persuade us to his own will. Friestad and Wright (1999) pointed out that it is crucial for individual to develop persuasion knowledge in order to retain self-control. Person without persuasion knowledge would be completely prone to be abused to please everyone else's desires and goals.
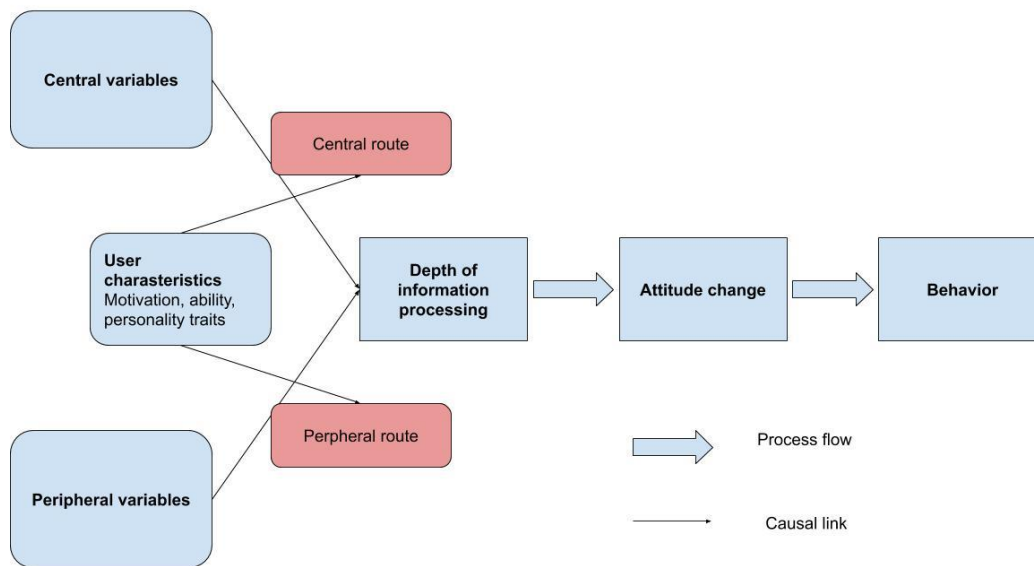
Figure 2 Elaboration likelihood model (Tam & Ho 2015)

Past research has often used Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) by Petty and Cacioppo (1981, 1986) and Cacioppo and Petty (1984) as a base to understand persuasion. (Sokolova & Kefi 2019). Attitude change is the basis of the whole concept, which then leads to actual behavior (Petty & Cacioppo 1986). Petty and Cacioppo (1986) defined attitude as individuals' general perception about themselves, other people, objects and issues that can be based on behavioral, affective and cognitive processes.

Different situational and individual factors determine how much cognitive effort consumer puts to process a persuasive message (Cacioppo & Petty 1984). There are two different ways how persuasion can happen according to ELM, which are central route and peripheral route. On central route, where elaboration is high, persuasion can happen when consumer goes through process of thoughtful consideration and information. When elaboration is low consumer takes peripheral route, which means that some simple cue in persuasion context, like attractiveness of source causes the persuasion. (Petty & Cacioppo 1986; Cacioppo & Petty 1984.) Sokolova and Kefi (2019) suggested that social attractiveness can be strong peripheral cue. When consumers go to peripheral route, he processes only parts of the information and therefore central route requires much more cognitive effort (Tam & Ho 2005).

It seems that when consumers do not have much ability or motivation to process persuasive message, or in other words when elaboration is low, positive source factors like being expert or celebrity is more persuasive. As said, in this situation source credibility is an important factor and argument quality is not that important. Inversely, when elaboration is high, and consumer has ability and motivation to process message source factors are not that important which means then source credibility is not that important and argument quality is very im-

portant. To put it simply, when persuasive message have high personal consequence or involvement the consumers wants to evaluate the presented arguments and when the message do not have personal consequences or involvement consumers don't want to use much cognitive work and use simple cues like source factors to evaluate the message. When the elaboration is unclear or moderate or the personal involvement is unclear or moderate consumers tend to use source factors as helping tool to decide whether not to evaluate the message. For example, when source was attractive or expert, consumers put more cognitive work to evaluate what they said compared to less attractive or less expert sources. However, the arguments needed to be convincing in this situation. (Cacioppo & Petty 1984.)
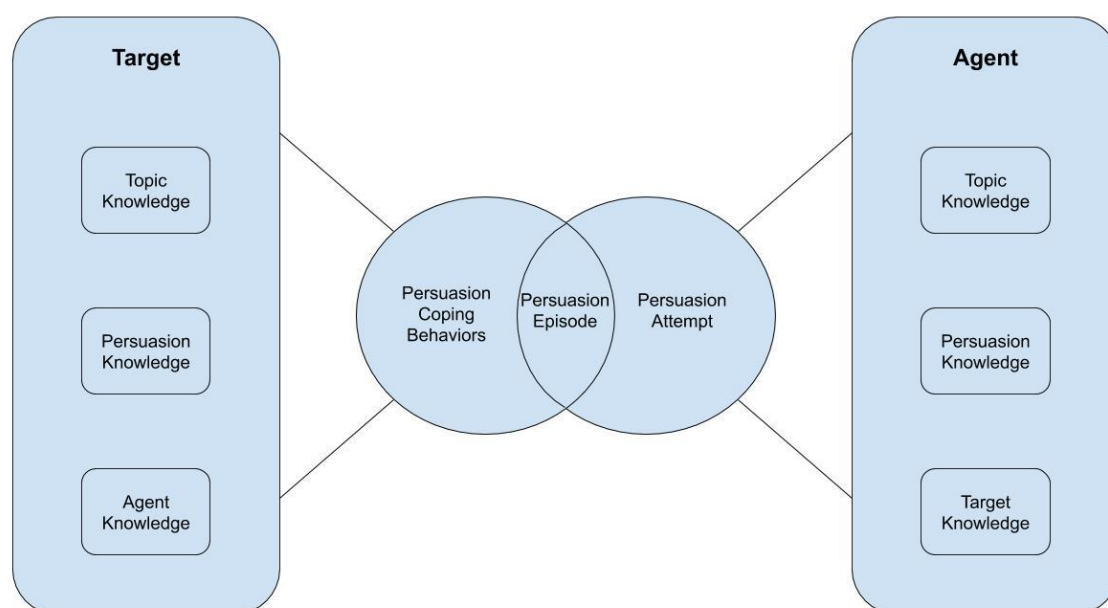
Figure 3 Persuasion knowledge model (Friestad & Wright 1994)

Friestad and Wright (1994) introduced the persuasion knowledge model (PKM) in the mid-90s. The persuasion knowledge is consumers ability to detect that the marketer is trying to influence on her. PKM has two actors that are target and agent. The target refers to person who is under persuasion attempt such as consumer or voter. The agent on the other hand refers to one that is trying to influence on the target. For example, the company or salesperson can be agent. The persuasion attempt can be for example ad, marketing message or sales presentation. The model is not limited to single marketing communication channel. (Friestad & Wright 1994.)

The target has three contextual knowledge structures which are topic knowledge, persuasion knowledge and agent knowledge. Topic knowledge means how much the target knows about the content of the persuasive message such as product or service. Agent knowledge on the other hand is about what does the target believe to know about the agent such as what is his goal and traits.

The persuasion coping knowledge makes it possible to target to cope under persuasion attempts. He can recognize, analyze and evaluate those attempts. People can be target and agent and these roles can change quickly in normal life. By acting in both traits person learns about tactics on persuasion and persuasion coping.

Similarly like the target has three knowledge structures, the agent has those very similar knowledge structures. The agent has topic knowledge and persuasion knowledge like the target and the agent knowledge is replaced with target knowledge. However, these structures are from opposite perspective. Like the target has persuasion knowledge about how the agent can try to persuade her the agent has knowledge how to persuade the agent. The target knowledge is similarly agent's beliefs about the target and her goals. These knowledge structures vary in different situation, for example in one situation the target may have very deep knowledge about the products (topic knowledge) but may not have any experience on the sales speak situation (persuasion knowledge) and likewise. (Friestad & Wright 1994.)

In the PKM it is suggested that spokesperson or actor in the mass media advertisements are not perceived as persuasive agents (Friestad & Wright 1994). Based on this assumption the same concept should apply to SMIs. In these situations, people tend to think that that managers or people who are responsible of making these advertisements are the ones that are trying to persuade (Friestad & Wright 1994). Boerman, Reijmersdal, Rozendaal and Dima (2018) argued that sponsored content fades out the limit that triggers the persuasion knowledge. Tutaj's and Van Reijmersdal's (2012) study supports this view. They found out that people perceived sponsored content more informative, amusing and less irritating than banner advertising. The key was that people did not recognize sponsored content to be advertisement as easily as banner advertising. (Tutaj & Van Reijmersdal 2012.)

In other words, sponsored content can be seen as a camouflage that hides the true intention of the conveyed message. The intention might not be to present honest opinion about certain product but rather to promote sales of the product to gain individual profit. Obviously, things are not always black and white, and the truth might lie in between. For example, SMI might want to increase sales of the product but at the same time honestly think that this product really is better than competing products.

The persuasion knowledge is not permanent feature on individual level. Targets keep acquiring new information about persuasion and they develop constantly based on that information. They can be described as moving targets. On the other hand, persuasion knowledge is not stable on theoretical level. Because the targets learn about persuasion attempts and the agents constantly try to counteract that by innovating new ways of persuading customers. How young women develop persuasion coping tactics in 2020 might be different for their children. This is at least partially explained on how consumers are exposed on certain types of marketing communications in different time periods. Culture is

another thing that effects persuasion knowledge and the results from single cultural area might not be generalized globally. (Friestad & Wright 1994.)

Kelman (1958) identified three different processes that can influence persuasion. The first one is compliance, which means that consumer chooses to accept influence to achieve positive reaction from certain person or group. There is certain gain or possibility to avoid certain cost by accepting the persuasion. Identification is a bit similar concept, but on this situation, consumer wants to satisfy or maintain relationship when accepting influence. The last one is called internalization, where the result is satisfying itself, so consumer accepts the influencing. The problem with the first two processes is that consumers tend to perform the desired behavior only under certain circumstances. Under compliance consumer tend to perform desired action only under supervision by the influencer. Under identification consumer tends to perform desired action only if the relationship is salient enough. When desired action is adopted under internalization consumers tends to perform action if it is relevant enough to him regardless if there is any surveillance or salience of the relationship. (Kelman 1958.) Internalization seems to be obviously needed situation when trying to persuade consumer to buying decision, since on there they have honest need or desire for something, and they will not perform something just satisfy someone.

When persuasion knowledge is triggered person becomes highly skeptical about the source (Tsfati 2010). This skepticism and credibility can be seen to be opposite terms or two extreme ends of trust (Isaac & Grayson 2017). When persuasion knowledge is triggered subject should lose trust and credibility of SMI. When worked another way around if the persuasion knowledge is triggered the subject will not think that SMI as credible source.

H9: Persuasion knowledge has moderating effect on PSIs relationship to source credibility. When persuasion knowledge is high PSIs effect on source credibility is lower than when persuasion knowledge is low.

2.7 Audience participation

According to Shao (2009) there are three ways people deal with content in SNSs, which are consuming, participating and producing. Consuming means only reading or viewing the content. Those who participate are actively interacting with media such as commenting or sharing the content. Producing means that individual produces original content such as videos, photos or texts. (Shao 2009.)

Khan (2017) divided the engagement roles in YouTube to active and passive roles, uniting Shao's (2009) participation and producing under one variable. The roles can be divided to consumption (passive) and participation (active). When person views YouTube videos or reads the comments this is seen as consuming and passive engagement. On the other hand, the active engagement

where person is participating includes liking, disliking, commenting, sharing or uploading videos. (Khan 2017.)

Munnukka, Maity, Reinikainen and Luoma-Aho (2019) found out significant positive correlation between audience participation and parasocial relationship. This means that the more person participates with the video the higher she felt the parasocial interaction to SMI.

H10: Audience participation has positive effect to parasocial relationship

2.8   Purchase intention

The purchase intention and its connection to actual purchase decision can be explained with theory of planned behavior. The core for theory of planned behavior is individual's willingness or intention to perform action (Ajzen 1991). The stronger the intention, the harder the individual is willing to surpass barriers to complete the behavior (Ajzen 1991). In other words, the stronger the intention of the individual is, the more likely he is going to behave the way he intended. Ajzen (1991) ads that the intended behavior needs to be possible to performed on persons free will as behavior need to have realistic opportunity for behavior and some resources like time and money.

Ajzen (1991) has used theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) as starting point to theory of planned behavior. However, the theory of planned behavior includes perceived behavioral control, which is not part of the theory of reasoned action. Perceived behavior control refers to perception of how difficult or easy it is to perform desired behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioral control can vary in different situations and Ajzen (1991) gives example about person who can think that her behavior determines the outcomes of behavior but at the same time she might think that it is very unlikely that she will become airplane pilot. Ajzen's (1991) perceived behavioral control is based on Bandura's (1982) concept of self-efficacy. Bandura (1982) highlighted that people do not perform actions optimally because their thoughts about themselves influence their behavior in addition to knowledge. Self-efficacy or perceived behavioral control means how person judges his changes to execute desired action (Bandura 1982). As mentioned, Ajzen's (1991) main argument is that behavioral intention and perceived behavioral control can be used to predict actual occurred behavior. For example, if there are two eager person learning how to ski and they both have same intention to learn but the other one has much higher believe that he will succeed in his training he is more likely to achieve his goal than the person who doubts himself (Ajzen 1991.)

In addition to perceived behavioral control theory of planned behavior also has two other underlying factors that affects intention, which are subjective norm and attitude towards the behavior. Subjective norm means how much individual receives social pressure to perform intended action. Attitude towards

behavior on the other hand refers to how individual evaluates the intended action. The evaluation can be positive or negative. The more benign attitude towards the behavior and subjective norm and the greater the perceived behavior is, the stronger the intention to perform behavior should be. (Ajzen 1991.)
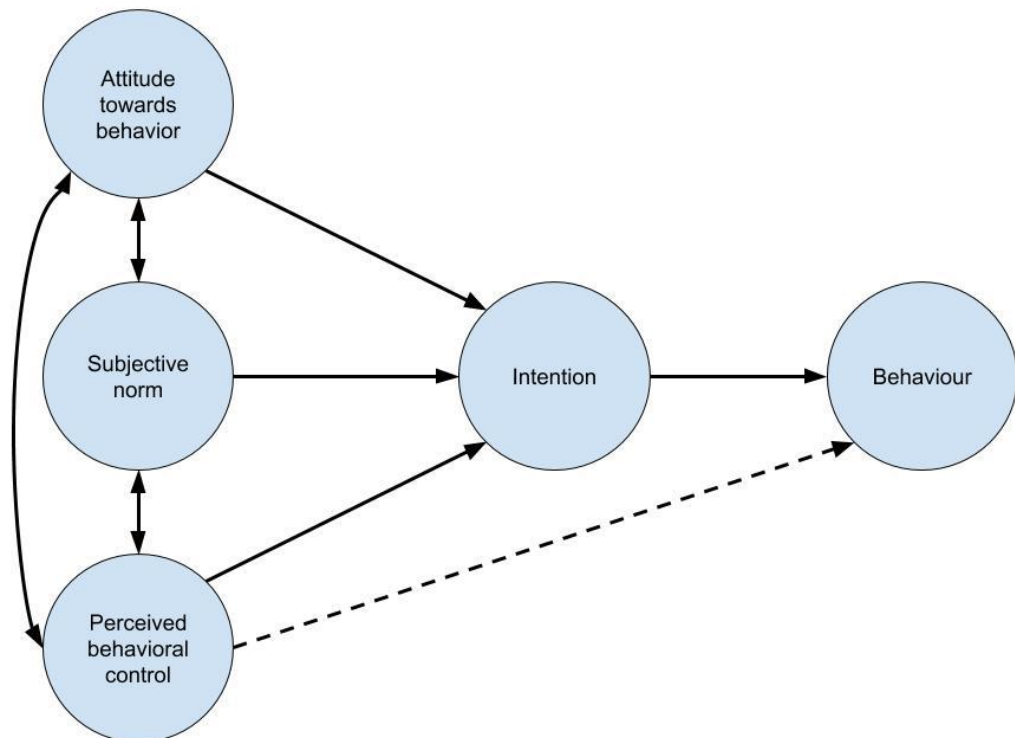
Figure 4 Theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991)

Based on the theory of planned behavior when a person has a high intention to purchase certain product and she has resources to make the purchase, the intention correlates with actual purchases. There is research which supports this significant influence of purchase intention and actual purchase behaviour (e.g. De Cannière, De Pelsmacker & Geuens 2009; Wee, Ariff, Zakuan, Tajudin, Ismail & Ishak 2014; Yadav & Pathak 2017).

Lee and Watkins (2016) found out that watching product vlogs in YouTube effects positively on purchase intention. They also found out that when consumer had high PSI with SMI the purchase intention was even higher. Sokovola and Kefi (2019) found out that both PSI and source credibility affects positively to purchase intention.

H11: Source credibility has positive effect to purchase intention.

2.9   Research model and hypotheses

The research model is based on the previously presented hypotheses. This model measures how the credibility of SMI is formed and how the credibility affects argument quality (Stoltenberg & Davis 1988; Moore et al. 1986) and eventually purchase intention (Sokolova & Kefi 2019). The model also includes that audience participation has effect on PRS (Munnukka et al. 2019). PSR should affect positively to credibility of SMI (Gong & Li 2017).

All the previously described relationships should be relevant in situations where the product reviews are unbiased. However, when the persuasion knowledge is activated, and subjects realize that the product review is biased, PRS effect on source credibility should be mitigated.
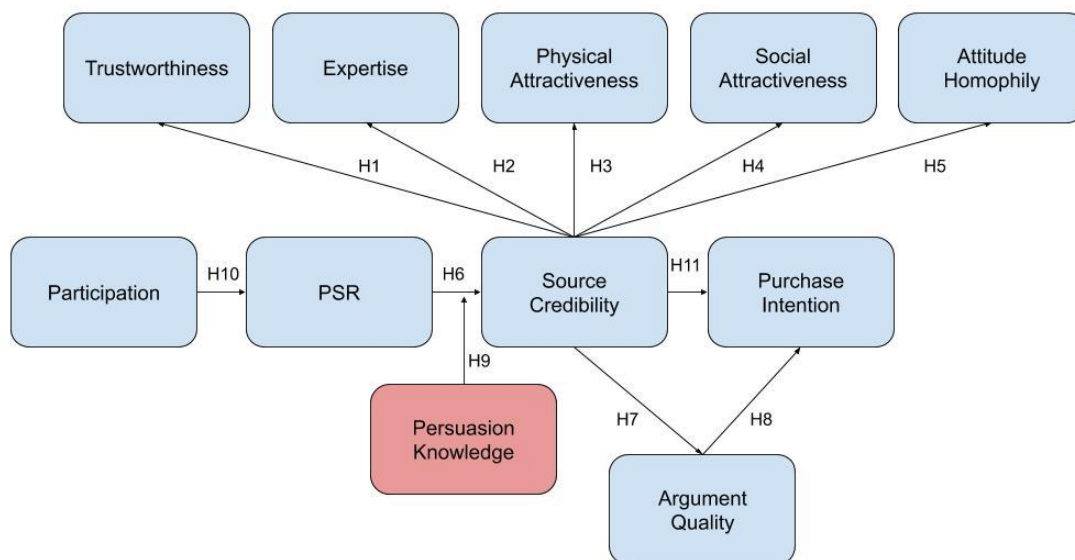
Figure 5 Research model & hypotheses

3 DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the quantitative research method is described and why it was chosen method for this thesis. After that survey study method and how the empirical data for this research has been collected are presented. Finally, the validation and reliability of this study will be discussed.

3.1 Research design

This research utilizes deductive research approach. In deductive approach hypotheses are formed based on past theory and then these hypotheses are then tested in real life. Data analyzation gives findings that can be used to support or reject the set hypotheses. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 23, 38.)

The chosen research method was experimental study method. In experimental study it is possible to test how one or several factors have effect on other factors (Hirsjärvi, Remes, Sajavaara ja Sinivuori 2009, 134). These effects are measured numerically so this study then falls under quantitative research method, which is often true with deductive research approach as well (Bryman & Bell 2011, 23). Hirsjärvi et al. (2009, 134) also mentioned that usually in experimental study different kind of experimental scenarios are created where the circumstances are systematically modified to manipulate one or several factors. This method was seen as fitting method to resolve how persuasion knowledge affects the research model.

The subcategory of experimental study method chosen to this research was experimental factorial design. In experimental factorial designs the differences in means of different scenario groups are under interest and researcher divides respondents to different groups which all have unique experimental scenario (Metsämuuronen 2005, 7, 20).

The first independent factor was persuasion knowledge. Two created scenarios were low and high persuasion knowledge. Both persuasion knowledge levels were manipulated with text that respondents read before watching the product review video. Both texts are presented in the table 2 more deeply, which is in chapter 3.3 independent variables. The second independent factor was audience participation.

3.2 Data collection

The data for this research was gathered with survey study method. In this method the survey is sent by online channels to respondents who will fill the survey by themselves. The main advantage is that the survey can be distributed

to large quantities in short time (Bryman & Bell 2011). This type of data collection also enables efficient data analysis by computers (Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2009, 195). This method is very fitting choice to quantitative research since the data analysis requires great amount of responses. The surveys were sent to students of University of Jyväskylä through email lists by university advisors and the link was also shared on personal SNS accounts.

It is extremely crucial that the survey is very clearly structured and pretested to make sure that there are no measurement errors. Three people answered survey before sending it to find out errors or unclear questions. Based on the comments of these people the survey was slightly modified and for example spelling mistakes were corrected.

3.3   Independent variables

High and low level of persuasion knowledge were manipulated in this study. Respondents first answered if they were born in uneven (1st, 3rd, 5th etc.) or even (2nd, 4th, 6th etc.) date. Based on their responses the respondents were split in two groups – high and low persuasion knowledge. Subjects viewed the same video, however there were two different introduction text that portrayed different stages of persuasion knowledge. For the first group it was made believe that the product review in video is unbiased and the SMI is not trying to influence the respondents. The second group is opposite where it is presented that the review is not honest and the SMI is trying to influence the respondents. These texts are presented in the table 2. First the original Finnish text is presented and after that translated text. Because the survey was done in Finnish the translated texts were never used. They are presented here only to clarify how the manipulation was done.

Persuasion knowledge was also measured as a manipulation check variable. This was measured using 6 items on 7-point Likert scale adapted from (Tutaj & Van Reijimersdal 2012). Persuasion knowledge was split up to selling intent (2 items), persuasive intent (2 items) and informational intent (2 items) as in Tutaj's and Van Reijimersdal's (2012) study.

Audience participation was second independent factor, since it measured how actively respondents participated watching the video. Audience participation was measured with 6 items on 7-point Likert scale adapted from (Munnukka et al. 2019).

Table 2 Experimental scenarios

Condition 1 – low persuasion knowledge (original Finnish)
Alla on tuotearvosteluvideo Apple Airpods Pro -kuulokkeista. Video on **autenttinen tuotearvostelu** eikä ole kaupallinen yhteistyö, kuvastaen videolla esiintyvän vaikuttajan omia käsityksiä ja kokemuksia tuotteesta.

Katso video tarkasti, ennen kuin etenet seuraavalle sivulle.

Condition 1 – low persuasion knowledge (translated in English)
Below is a product review video for Apple Airpods Pro headphones. The video has authentic product review and is not commercial co-operation. All the opinions that SMI presents are honest.

Watch the video closely before you move to next page.

Condition 2 – high persuasion knowledge (original Finnish)
Alla on tuotearvosteluvideo Apple Airpods Pro -kuulokkeista. Video on todellisuudessa toteutettu kaupallisena yhteistyönä ja on **maksettu mainosvideo**, eikä täten edusta videolla esiintyvän vaikuttajan todellisia kokemuksia ja mielipiteitä.

Katso video tarkasti, ennen kuin etenet seuraavalle sivulle.

Condition 2 – high persuasion knowledge (translated in English)
Below is a product review video for Apple Airpods Pro headphones. Video is commercial co-operation and is paid advertisement. All the opinions that SMI presents are not honest.

Watch the video closely before you move to next page.

3.4   Dependent variables

Dependent variables were source credibility, parasocial relationship, argument quality, purchase intention and persuasion knowledge. Three source credibility's factors trustworthiness, expertise and physical attractiveness were measured with 7-point Likert scale adapted from Ohanian (1990). Trustworthiness was measured with 3 items, while expertise and physical attractiveness were measured with 4 items. Last two remaining source credibility factors social attractiveness (6 items) and attitude homophily (7 items) were measured also with 7-point Likert scale adapted from (McCroskey, McCroskey & Richmond 2006). PRS was measured with 8 items, 7-point Likert scale adapted from (Lee & Watkins 2016). Argument quality was measured with 4 items, 7-point Likert scale adapted from (Cheung et al. 2009). Lastly purchase intention was measured with 2 item, 7-point Likert scale adapted from (Sokolova and Kefi 2019).

Table 3 Items

Items	Original study
Trustworthiness	Ohanian (1990)
Expertise	Ohanian (1990)
Physical attractiveness	Ohanian (1990)
Social attractiveness	McCroskey et al. (2006)
Attitude homophily	McCroskey et al. (2006)
PSR	Lee & Watkins (2017)
Argument quality	Cheung et al. (2009)
Purchase intention	Sokolova & Kefi (2019)
Audience participation	Munnukka et al. (2019)
Persuasion knowledge	Tutaj & Van Reijimersdal (2012)

3.5   Reliability & validity

Reliability refers on how consistent the data collection was. Reliability can be split up to stability and internal reliability. Stability means that if the same data collection is repeated to same group the results will be very close to each other every time. Internal reliability on the other hand refers to how well the set indicators measure same thing. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 168-169.) In other word it is important that all the indicators that are meant to measure for example source credibility really measure same thing.

Composite Reliability test was used to measure internal reliability. The scale of Composite Reliability is from 0 to 1, where 1 would be perfect internal reliability and 0 no internal reliability. Composite Reliability needs to be higher than 0.8 (Karjaluoto & Munnukka 2016). The results for Composite Reliability are presented in the chapter 4.2.

Validity refers on how well the set indicators measure the concept they are supposed to measure (Bryman & Bell 2011, 170). All the indicators that are used in this research are taken from past research that have validated the indicators.

The data was analyzed using IBM SPSS and IBP SPSS Amos programs. SPSS Amos program was used to build structural equation model and to test out the hypotheses, while SPSS was used to test different frequencies and to form and evaluate composite variables.

4 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The results of this research are presented in this chapter. The data was analyzed with IBM SPSS and IBM SPSS Amos programs. Background and demographic variables are presented first and after that the questions that are associated with research questions and hypotheses are presented.

4.1 Data description

First background and demographic variables are presented. After that, the rest of the variables are presented.

4.1.1 Demographic and background variables

The demographic variables are presented in table 4. The survey had 99 responses in total. There was no option to skip questions so there are no missing values. The first question, which asked are you born on even or uneven date, divided the respondents to two groups. Those who were born on uneven dates belonged to high PK group and for them experimental scenario 2 was presented. Those born on even dates belonged to the low PK group and they were shown the scenario 1. High persuasion group had 48 respondents and low persuasion knowledge groups had 51 respondents.

From all the respondents 62.6 % were female and 37.4 % were male. The largest age groups were 21-25-year-old and 26-30-year-old. From all the respondents 78.8 % respondents belonged to these two age groups. This is very natural since the survey link was shared to university's student email lists. Also, like Troot's (2019) study reveal that YouTube is the most important media channel for younger generations it is justified to study this phenomenon on younger generations.

The age distribution and the fact that the survey was shared mostly within university affects greatly on reported professions. 72.7 % informed that they are students while employees were the second largest groups with 23.2 %. The rest consists of entrepreneurs and senior management with 2 % portion each.

Most of the respondents do not watch vlogs often on YouTube as 80.7 percent answered that they watch vlogs or products review videos on YouTube never, extremely rarely or rarely. This is surprising result compared to Troot's (2019) study on which claims that YouTube is most important media channel for younger generations. This may be explained with that the question was do you watch vlogs or product review videos often on YouTube. People might not watch those video genres that often but rather something else like gaming videos.

Most of the respondents use headphones regularly as 84.8 % claim that they use headphones quite often, often or extremely often. The largest group uses

headphones extremely often with 34.3 % from all respondents. This means that headphones are quite important to most of the respondents which might translate to that these people are interested in headphones.

Table 4 Demographic variables

PK activation			N	%
PK not activated			51	51.5
PK activated			48	48.5
Total			99	100

Gender	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Female	31	31	62	62.6
Male	20	17	37	37.4
Total	51	48	99	100

Age	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Under 20	0	4	4	4
21-25	26	25	51	51.5
26-30	15	12	27	27.3
31-35	3	3	6	6.1
36-40	2	2	4	4.0
Over 40	5	2	7	7.1
Total	51	48	99	100

Profession	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Employee	15	18	23	23.2
Senior management	1	1	2	2.0
Entrepreneur	0	2	2	2.0
Student	35	37	72	72.7
Total	51	48	99	100

Do you watch vlogs often on YouTube?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Never	8	6	14	14.1
Extremely rarely	13	19	32	32.3
Rarely	20	14	34	34.3
Neither never nor often	0	1	1	1
Quite often	7	2	9	9.1
Often	3	2	5	5.1
Extremely often	0	4	4	4.0
Total	51	48	99	100

Do you use headphones often?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%

Never	1	2	3	3
Extremely rarely	2	1	3	3
Rarely	5	3	8	8,1
Neither never nor often	0	1	1	1
Quite often	10	12	22	22,2
Often	15	13	28	28,3
Extremely often	18	16	34	34,3
Total	51	48	99	100

Alongside demographic questions, the respondents were asked to reply on background questions about the SMI, the video and the product (table 5). Most of the respondents had not seen the video before (96 % of all respondents). Only four people had seen the video before. This is good so majority of the respondents do not have any presumptions that might have effect on their opinions.

Most of the respondents were not familiar with the SMI beforehand. For 85.9 % the SMI was completely unknown. The second largest group was actually people for whom the SMI was extremely well-known. However, this is only 4 % of the whole population, so overall the SMI was very unfamiliar. These answers reflect on how much respondents follow the SMI as 91.9 % do not follow the SMI at all.

Most of the respondents where at least somewhat familiar with the product presented in the video. A bit over half were somewhat familiar with the products. From all 71.8 % answered that they were somewhat familiar, familiar, or extremely familiar. Most of the respondents do not own the reviewed product, with 94.9 % responding they do not own the product.

Table 5 Background variables

Have you seen this video before?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
No	49	46	95	96.0
Yes	2	2	4	4.0
Total	51	48	99	100.0

How familiar you are with the SMI?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Completely unknown	44	41	85	85.9
Unknown	0	1	1	1.0
Somewhat unknown	1	2	3	3.0
Neither unknown nor well-known	1	1	2	2.0
Somewhat well-known	3	0	3	3.0
Well-known	0	1	1	1.0
Extremely well-known	2	2	4	4.0

Total	51	48	99	100.0

Do you follow SMI regularly?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Not at all	47	44	91	91.9
Extremely rarely	1	1	2	2.0
Casually	2	0	2	2.0
Quite actively	1	1	2	2.0
Actively	0	2	2	2.0
Total	51	48	99	100.0

How familiar you are with the product presented on the video?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
Completely unknown	2	4	6	6.1
Unknown	5	1	6	6.1
Somewhat unknown	6	6	12	12.1
Neither unknown nor well-known	2	2	4	4.0
Somewhat well-known	25	25	50	50.5
Well-known	9	7	16	16.2
Extremely well-known	2	3	5	5.1
Total	51	48	99	100.0

Do you own AirPods Pro?	PK not activated	PK activated	N	%
No	49	45	94	94.9
Yes	2	3	5	5.1
Total	51	48	99	100.0

Next the variables of the research model are presented. The means and standard deviations are presented also.

4.1.2 Source credibility

Source credibility was measured with five different variables. Those variables were trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, social attractiveness and attitude homophily. The scales, means and standard deviations for the variables of source credibility are presented next.

Trustworthiness was measured with Ohanian's (1990) scale. The scale was 7-point scale, with bipolar opposite concepts. This scale, alongside other scales were translated to Finnish because the respondents were Finnish. The translated

questions are presented in the appendix of this research. The means are between 2.44 and 2.94 so it can be said that respondents perceive the SMI overall quite trustworthy. All the means are quite close to each other.

Expertise was also measured with Ohanian's (1990) scale similarly with 7-point scale. The individual variables of expertise got more varying means compared to trustworthiness. The expert – not expert question got mean of 3.57 while the third question got mean of 2.08. The means for second, third and fourth question were much closer to each other varying from 2.66 to 2.08. Similarly to trustworthiness, expertise of the SMI was perceived quite high.

Physical attractiveness was similarly to trustworthiness and expertise measured with Ohanian's (1990) 7-point scale. The means of physical attractiveness varied between 2.59 and 3.38. The sexy – not sexy scale got mean of 3.38, while the rest of the scales were closer to other end of scale.

The rest of the scales were measured with 7-point Likert scale, with 1 being completely disagree and 7 completely agree. Social attractiveness was measured with McCroskey's et al. (2006) scale. Interestingly first three variables got very close mean varying between 4.12 and 4.19. The variables "he is sociable with me" and "he is easy to get along with" got more towards the completely agree with means of 5.01 and 4.87 while the fifth variable got lower mean than the rest with 3.10. From these questions it seems that respondents were more hesitant on saying they could become close friends with the SMI.

Attitude homophily was also measured with McCroskey's et al. (2006) scale. Attitude homophily variables got means varying between 3.06 and 4.17. Interestingly the variable "this person treats people like I do" got highest value being closest to agree side. Overall respondents perceived relatively low attitude homophily towards the SMI.

Table 6 Source credibility variable means and standard deviations

	Mean	S.d.
TRS1: Honest – Dishonest	2.44	1.214
TRS2: Sincere – Insincere	2.90	1.467
TRS3: Trustworthy – Untrustworthy	2.94	1.490
EXP1: Expert – Not an expert	3.57	1.598
EXP2: Experienced – Inexperienced	2.45	1.081
EXP3: Knowledgeable – Unknowledgeable	2.08	0.986
EXP4: Qualified – Unqualified	2.66	1.239
PAT1: Attractive – Unattractive	3.02	1.301
PAT2: Classy – Not classy	2.86	1.152
PAT3: Beautiful – Ugly	2.59	1.097
PAT4: Sexy – Not sexy	3.38	1.037
SAT1: I think he could be a friend of mine.	4.19	1.455
SAT2: I would like to have a friendly chat with him.	4.12	1.537
SAT3: He would be pleasant to be.	4.16	1.299
SAT4: He is sociable with me.	5.01	1.199

	Mean	S.d.
SAT5: I could become close friends with him.	3.10	1.411
SAT6: He is easy to get along with.	4.87	1.157
AHO1: This person thinks like me.	3.74	1.250
AHO2: This person shares my values.	3.64	1.073
AHO3: This person is like me.	3.14	1.212
AHO4: This person treats people like I do.	4.17	0.783
AHO5: This person is similar to me.	3.06	1.185
AHO6: This person behaves like me.	3.18	1.215
AHO7: This person has thoughts and ideas that are similar to mine.	3.96	1.186

4.1.3 Parasocial relationship

Parasocial relationship was measured with Lee's & Watkins' (2017) scale. Again, the scale was 7-point Likert's Scale. Parasocial relationship was measured with eight variables and the means varied quite much ranging from 1.87 to 4.30. The claim that SMI felt like an old friend got the lowest mean towards the completely disagree, while the claim about that when SMI tell how he feel about certain product it is easier for respondents to make up his own mind about the product.

Table 7 Parasocial relationship variable means and standard deviations

	Mean	S.d.
PRS1: I look forward to watching the YouTube blogger on her YouTube channel.	2.64	1.403
PRS2: If the YouTube blogger appeared on another YouTube channel, I would watch that video.	2.98	1.635
PRS3: When I'm watching the YouTube blogger, I feel as if I am part of her group.	2.62	1.476
PRS4: I think the YouTube blogger is like an old friend.	1.87	1.085
PRS5: I would like to meet the YouTube blogger in person.	3.04	1.377
PRS6: If there were a story about the YouTube blogger in a newspaper or magazine, I would read it.	3.37	1.706
PRS7: The YouTube blogger makes me feel comfortable, as if I am with friends.	2.70	1.446
PRS8: When the YouTube blogger shows me how he feels about the products, it helps me make up my own mind about the brand.	4.30	1.568

4.1.4 Argument quality

Argument quality was measured with Cheung et al. (2009) scale. The four variables of argument quality got relatively similar means varying from 4.56 to 5.07. Compared to previously presented variables these variables were more focused

on completely agree side of the scale suggesting that the arguments were perceived relatively strong.

Table 8 Argument quality variable means and standard deviations

	Mean	S.d.
ARQ1: Review arguments are convincing.	5.07	1.280
ARQ2: Review arguments are strong.	4.54	1.343
ARQ3: Review arguments are persuasive.	4.67	1.273
ARQ4: Review arguments are good.	5.00	1.278

4.1.5 Purchase intention

Purchase intention was measured with Sokolova's & Kefi's (2019) scale. Similarly to argument quality, the means of purchase intentions variables were very close to each other. There was only two one hundredths variance between the means of purchase intention variables. The means were very close to 4 meaning neither disagree nor agree, but slightly leaning towards the disagree.

Table 9 Purchase intention variable means and standard deviations

	Mean	S.d.
PINT1: I would purchase the products promoted by the blogger in the future.	3.72	1.980
PINT2: I would encourage people close to me to buy the products promoted by the blogger.	3.74	1.936

4.1.6 Persuasion knowledge

Persuasion knowledge was measured with Tutaj's & Van Reijimersdal's (2012) scale. This scale was used as manipulation check variable. Variables of persuasion knowledge got means varying from 4.85 to 6.07. It can be seen clearly that respondents felt quite strongly that the SMI tried to influence on their behavior. Interestingly the aim to sell products were perceived lower with means from 4.85 to 5.19, while the informative intent got higher means from 5.91 to 6.07. Based on these the respondents felt more strongly that the aim of the video was to inform them and not to sell that much. Because the SMI presented also negative views on the product the respondents might have felt that the product review was not aimed to sell but rather to inform the viewers. All the means, excluding the first variable, were over five indicating that respondents on average felt that they were under persuasion attempt.

Table 10 Persuasion knowledge variable means and standard deviations

	Mean	S.d.
PK1: The aim of this video is to sell products.	4.85	1.548

	Mean	S.d.
PK2: The aim of this video is to stimulate the sales of products.	5.19	1.516
PK3: The aim of this video is to influence your opinion.	5.85	1.207
PK4: The aim of this video is to make people like certain products.	5.43	1.356
PK5: The aim of this video is to give information about products.	5.91	1.144
PK6: The aim of this video is to let people know more about the products.	6.07	0.982

4.1.7 Audience participation

Audience participation was measured with Munnukka's et al. (2019) scale. All variables of audience participation, excluding the fourth one, got very similar means varying from 4.51 to 4.90. The fourth variable "I perceived high level of participation interacting with the video" got clearly lower mean of 3.13. This is closer to disagree side of the scale than the rest. This might be explained with the YouTube video was added inside the survey and there was no possibility to comment or like the video inside the survey, but you had to open the video on new tab.

Table 11 Audience participation variable means and standard deviations

	Mean	S.d.
AUP1: I spent a lot of time watching the video.	4.60	1.564
AUP2: I was heavily into the video.	4.56	1.540
AUP3: I tried to fit the video into my schedule.	4.51	1.656
AUP4: I perceived a high level of participation interacting with the video.	3.13	1.440
AUP5: I was very much involved with the video.	4.90	1.535
AUP6: Overall, I assess my video participation to be	4.59	1.187

4.2   Confirmatory factor analysis

The idea of factory analysis is to compress all the variables to factors, to make data analyzation easier. The requirements for factory analysis are that the scales are at the minimum ordinal scales and the sample size is over 90 (Karjaluoto 2007). Both these requirements came true.

In confirmatory factor analysis researcher has formed assumption on what and how many factors are formed from the variables. The factors are formed by several variables that are correlating strongly with each other. The factor loadings describe how much the factor can explain the variance of the variable. The factor loadings can vary between 1 and -1. The closer the loading is to

value of 1 the stronger the variable is loading to factor. If the value is negative the variables are correlating negatively. Communalities are also important values that reflects how much factors can explicate the variance of variables. The value should be over 0.3 while value of 1 would be maximum. (Karjaluoto 2007.)

Explorative factor analysis was done with IBM SPSS program as a pretest to filter out poorly performing variables. Two rounds of explorative factor analysis were done and in total nine variables were removed. These variables were PRS3, PSR4, PSR5 PSR7, PSR8, AHO1, AHO2, AUP3 and PK6.

After the explorative factory analysis in SPSS, confirmatory factory analysis was done using SPSS Amos program. All the variables that formed factors were inserted in program. In the first phase of confirmatory factory analysis attitude homophily got AVE-value lower than 0.5. After this it was identified that variable AHO4 had lower correlation than the rest of the variables and was removed. The results of second round of confirmatory factory analysis are presented in table 12. The individual factory loadings of variables are presented in table 13.

AVE-values needs be to higher than 0.5 and Composite Reliability higher than 0.8 (Karjaluoto & Munnukka 2016). Composite reliability got values between 0.800 and 0.913 and AVE-values were between 0.512 and 0.794. Also, the square roots of AVE-values need to be higher than correlations of the factors. All three conditions came true and reliability and validity of the model is approved.

Table 12 Composite Reliability, AVE-values and correlations of the factors

	CR	AVE	AUP	SAT	AHO	PAT	TRS	ARQ	PRS	EXP	PK	PINT
AUP	0.864	0.619	**0.787**									
SAT	0.877	0.545	0.303	**0.739**								
AHO	0.800	0.512	0.222	0.506	**0.715**							
PAT	0.871	0.628	-0.154	-0.705	-0.551	**0.793**						
TRS	0.887	0.725	-0.188	-0.569	-0.256	0.322	**0.852**					
ARQ	0.913	0.780	0.114	0.494	0.331	-0.318	-0.702	**0.883**				
PRS	0.870	0.693	0.177	0.497	0.302	-0.243	-0.496	0.456	**0.832**			
EXP	0.871	0.629	-0.123	-0.454	-0.294	0.308	0.649	-0.572	-0.433	**0.793**		
PK	0.907	0.713	0.021	-0.230	-0.104	-0.057	0.503	-0.384	-0.100	0.212	**0.844**	
PINT	0.883	0.794	-0.060	0.325	0.114	-0.172	-0.627	0.593	0.529	-0.371	-0.349	**0.891**

All the formed factors are presented in the table 13. As it was expected the variables formed ten factors and these factors are persuasion knowledge, social attractiveness, physical attractiveness, expertise, audience participation, parasocial relationship, attitude homophily, argument quality, trustworthiness and purchase intention.

Table 13 Factor loadings

Factor	Variable	Factor loading
Persuasion knowledge	PK2	0.899
	PK1	0.854

	PK4	0.842
	PK3	0.725
Social attractiveness	SAT3	0.772
	SAT6	0.657
	SAT2	0.620
	SAT1	0.598
	SAT5	0.570
	SAT4	0.527
Expertise	EXP4	0.800
	EXP2	0.749
	EXP3	0.720
	EXP1	0.678
Physical attractiveness	PAT4	0.799
	PAT3	0.739
	PAT1	0.664
	PAT2	0.634
Audience participation	AUP5	0.877
	AUP6	0.837
	AUP2	0.793
	AUP4	0.601
Parasocial relationship	PSR2	0.904
	PSR1	0.756
	PSR6	0.563
Argument quality	ARQ1	0.784
	ARQ4	0.766
	ARQ2	0.643
Attitude homophily	AHO5	0.817
	AHO3	0.767
	AHO6	0.649
	AHO7	0.378
Trustworthiness	TRS3	0.639
	TRS1	0.612
	TRS2	0.556
Purchase intention	PINT1	0.827
	PINT2	0.631

4.3   Composite variables

Based on the factor analysis ten composite variables were formed. All the variables that formed a factor were summed up together to make data easier to analyze. In the table 14 the variables are presented alongside means, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values. The scale for social attractiveness, attitude homophily, parasocial relationship, argument quality, purchase intention, persuasion knowledge and audience participation were 1 to 7, where 1 was completely disagree and 7 completely agree. Trustworthiness, expertise and physical attractiveness had similarly scale 1 to 7. The direction was shifted to match the rest variables, where 1 means lowest value and 7 highest value. For example, 1 = untrustworthy at all and 7 = trustworthy.

   Persuasion knowledge had the highest mean value of 5.331, which means that overall respondents felt high persuasion knowledge. Parasocial relationship had lowest mean with value of 2.997. Most respondents were not familiar with the SMI which probably leads to low mean value. Trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, social attractiveness, argument quality, persuasion knowledge and audience participation all had mean over 4 which was neutral situation. Attitude homophily, parasocial relationship and purchase intention had mean value lower than 4.

Table 14 Composite variables

Variable	Mean	Std. deviation	Minimum	Maximum
TRS	5.239	1.257	2.33	7.00
EXP	5.311	1.042	2.25	7.00
PAT	5.038	0.974	2.50	7.00
SAT	4.258	1.061	1.50	7.00
AHO	3.336	0.946	1.00	5.75
PSR	2.997	1.398	1.00	6.67
ARQ	4.869	1.193	1.00	7.00
PINT	3.727	1.838	1.00	7.00
PK	5.331	1.245	1.50	7.00
AUP	4.293	1.193	1.00	6.75

4.3.1 Manipulation check and mean tests

After forming composite variables, the manipulation check and mean tests were done. First persuasion knowledge manipulation was tested. This is important so ninth hypothesis that deals with persuasion knowledge can be tested. According

to Karjaluoto (2007) Independent Samples T-Test is most used test to compare means of two independent variables.

Firstly, it was tested how manipulation of persuasion knowledge affected on perceived persuasion knowledge. The Independent Samples T-Test was done with IBM SPSS program. Composite variable of persuasion knowledge was used as test variable while two manipulation groups were used as grouping variable. Low manipulation group had 51 people and high manipulation group 48 people. As can be seen from table 15 there was statistically significant difference between means of both groups and manipulation check can be verified.

Table 15 Persuasion knowledge manipulation check

	PK manipulation	N	Mean	Std. deviation	t-value	Sig.
PK	Low	51	4.843	1.159	-4.353	0.000
	High	48	5.849	1.139		

After manipulation check, mean tests for composite variables were made with all demographic and background variables. High and low persuasion knowledge groups were also tested with the rest composite variables. The variables that had two answering options like gender and had you seen the video before were tested with Independent Samples T-Test. The variables that had more than two answering alternatives were tested with One-way ANOVA variance analysis. Next the relevant results from Independent Samples T-Test and One-way ANOVA variance analysis are presented.

Interestingly persuasion manipulation also had effect on trustworthiness and purchase intention. When persuasion knowledge was manipulated respondents perceived trustworthiness of SMI significantly lower ($p<0.01$). The mean for low group was 5.621 (s.d. 1.046) while for high group the mean was 4.833 (s.d. 1.344). Similarly, those respondents who belonged to high persuasion knowledge group felt lower intention to purchase (t-value 3.265, $p<0.05$). Mean of purchase intention for low persuasion knowledge group was 4.098 (s.d. 1.857) and for high persuasion knowledge group the value was 3.333 (s.d. 1.751). It seems that activation of persuasion knowledge can significantly weaken the perceived trustworthiness of SMI and reduce the purchase intention of video viewers.

Table 16 T-test high and low persuasion groups

	PK manipulation	N	Mean	Std. deviation	t-value	Sig.
TRS	Low	51	5.621	1.046	3.265	**0.002**
	High	48	4.833	1.344		
EXP	Low	51	5.456	1.093	1.438	0.154
	High	48	5.156	0.973		

		N	Mean	Std. dev		
PAT	Low	51	5.020	0.986	-0.191	0.849
	High	48	5.057	0.971		
SAT	Low	51	4.369	1.010	1.081	0.282
	High	48	4.139	1.016		
AHO	Low	51	3.402	0.926	0.715	0.477
	High	48	3.266	0.972		
PSR	Low	51	2.922	1.324	-0.549	0.582
	High	48	3.076	1.482		
ARQ	Low	51	5.098	0.967	1.981	0.051
	High	48	4.625	1.362		
PINT	Low	51	4.098	1.857	2.105	**0.038**
	High	48	3.333	1.751		
AUP	Low	51	4.358	1.197	0.556	0.579
	High	48	4.224	1.196		

Respondents also revealed how actively they follow the SMI. The scale was 7-point scale ranging from "not at all" (1) to "very actively" (7). The One-way ANOVA analysis was done to compare these groups. According to Karjaluoto (2007) the null hypothesis of variance analysis is that the means of the comparing classes are of a size. If the F-value is larger than 1.96, the means of the dependent variable are varying between the classes of independent variable more than inside the classes and thus the null hypothesis, means are same size in independent variables classes, can be revoked.

How actively respondent follows the SMI had significant connection to parasocial relationship (F-value 6.587, p<0.001). As can be seen in the table 17, less the respondent follows the SMI, lower the mean for parasocial relationship was. This finding is in line with previous research on parasocial relationship, as more actively the respondent follows SMI the stronger the parasocial relationship grows. After this LSD Post Hoc test was done to analyze where the statistically differences are between groups. The means for the group that did not follow SMI at all were significantly different to groups rarely, quite actively and actively. There was no significant difference between not at all and extremely rarely groups.

Table 17 Following of SMI and parasocial relationship

Parasocial relationship	N	Mean	Std. deviation	F-value	Sig.
How actively follow SMI				6.587	0.000
Not at all	91	2.810	1.259		
Extremely rarely	2	4.167	1.650		
Rarely	2	5.333	0.000		
Not rarely nor actively	0				
Quite actively	2	5.500	1.650		

Actively	2	5.500	1.179
Very actively	0		
Total	99	2.997	1.398

Table 18 LSD Post Hoc test following of SMI and parasocial relationship

How actively fol-low SMI	Comparison	Mean difference	Sig.
Not at all	Extremely rarely	-1.357	0.136
	Rarely	-2.524	**0.006**
	Not rarely nor ac-tively	-	-
	Pretty actively	-2.690	**0.004**
	Actively	-2.690	**0.004**
	Very actively	-	-

One-Way ANOVA mean test also revealed that different age groups perceive trustworthiness differently. The F-value was 2.480 with significance of 0.037. Interestingly the age group under 20 had lowest mean for trustworthiness with value of 3.917. LSD Post Hoc revealed that the means of under 20-years-old are significantly different to over 26-years-old, excluding the age group of 36-40. It seems that young people tend not to trust what SMIs say in review videos.

Table 19 Age group and trustworthiness

Trustworthiness Age group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	F-value	Sig.
				2.480	0.037
Under 20	4	3.917	0.995		
21-25	51	5.098	1.250		
26-30	27	5.235	1.270		
31-35	4	6.167	0.459		
36-40	7	5.583	1.287		
Over 40	6	6.048	1.129		
Total	99	5.239	1.257		

Table 20 LSD Post Hoc test age group and trustworthiness

Age group	Comparison	Mean difference	Sig.
Under 20	21-25	-1.181	0.064
	26-30	-1.318	**0.045**
	31-35	-2.250	**0.005**
	36-40	-1.167	0.055
	Over 40	-2.131	**0.006**

4.4   Structural equation model and hypotheses

After mean test structural equation model was built. The model fit tests were done to review the quality of the model. RMSEA (Root mean square error of approximation) needs to be lower than 0.08. With value of 0.07 the model passes this requirement. Also, NFI (normal fit index), RFI (relative fit index), IFI (incremental fit index) and CFI (comperative fit index) all need to have value over 0.95. The values were between 0.699 and 0.891 and did not fulfill the requirements. However, it is argued that RMSEA is the most important model fit test and since it passed the results of this research can be validated with certain precautions. The last model fit value was Chi square statistic, which is 714.875 with 484 degrees of freedom (p-value<0.000). The p-value needs to be statistically significant and when Chi square is divided with degrees of freedom the value needs to be lower than 5. Both these conditions came true. The value of Chi square divided with the degrees of freedom can be seen in the table 21. (Karjaluoto & Munnukka, 2016.)

Table 21 Model fit

RMSEA	0.070
NFI	0.724
RFI	0.699
IFI	0.891
CFI	0.888
Chi square divided with degrees of freedom	1.477

The structural equation model is presented in figure 6. In the structural equation model, the path coefficients are presented which refers to how well the factors explain each other and how statistically significant those path coefficients are (Karjaluoto & Munnukka 2016).

First the factors of source credibility are presented. Trustworthiness (β 0.89, p<0.001) and expertise (β 0.71, p<0.001) had the strongest positive effect on source credibility. Based on these results trustworthiness and expertise are the most important factors that form the credibility of SMI. Social attractiveness had also strong positive and statistically significant connection on source credibility (β 0.65, p<0.001). Interestingly physical attractiveness did not have as strong relationship with source credibility as social attractiveness. However, the connection is still statistically significant (β 0.40, p<0.001). This means that social attractiveness is more important factor than physical attractiveness when considering SMI's credibility. Attitude homophily also had statistically significant connection to source credibility (β 0.38, p<0.01), even though it was the weakest connection between factors of source credibility. As all the connections were positive and statistically significant the hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4 and H5 are supported.

Parasocial relationship had strong positive effect on source credibility (β 0.61, p<0.001). So, when viewer has strong parasocial relationship with SMI he also perceives the SMI more credible. Thus, H6 is supported. Source credibility had also strong positive effect to argument quality (β 0.79, p<0.001). When SMI is perceived highly credible the arguments he presents are also perceived stronger. Because of this, H7 gets supported.

Unexpectedly argument quality did not have statistically significant effect on purchase intention (β 0.20, p>0.05). So, in situations where arguments were perceived strong, the intention to purchase did not grew stronger. The reason might be that respondents might not have a need to buy wireless headphones. So even if the arguments are good the intention to purchase might not to grow. Therefore, H8 was rejected. Similarly, audience participation did not have statistically significant connection to parasocial relationship (β 0.18, p>0.05). So, there is no evidence that parasocial relationship was perceived higher when respondent was watching the video more intensively. Thus, also H10 was rejected.

Source credibility was found to have a strong positive and statistically significant effect on purchase intention (β 0.53, p<0.01). So, increase in perceived credibility of SMI increases the follower's intention to purchase the presented product. Therefore, H11 was supported.

On the next chapter the effect of high and low persuasion knowledge is discussed alongside with the ninth hypothesis.
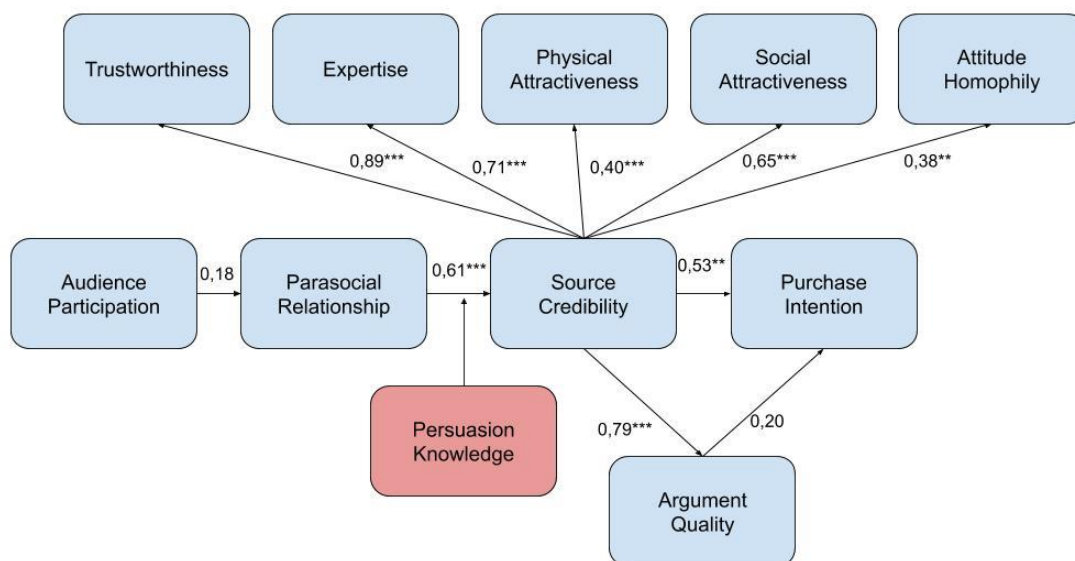

Figure 6 Structured equation model with path coefficients and statistical significances (*** = p<0.001, ** = p<0.01, * = (p<0.05))

4.5 Moderation analysis

The moderation analysis can be used to test moderating effect of chosen factor to structural equation model (Karjaluoto & Munnukka 2016). Moderation analysis was done with IBM SPSS Amos program to test how the activation of persuasion knowledge affected on the model. In the table 22 the path coefficients are compared with low and high persuasion knowledge groups alongside with the statistical significance of moderation analysis.

T-static needs to be higher than 1.96 and p-value needs to be lower than 0.05 to confirm the moderating effect (Karjaluoto & Munnukka 2016). As it can be seen in the table 22 that persuasion knowledge has statistically significant moderating effect to parasocial relationship's and source credibility's relationship with T-static of 2.207 and p-value<0.05. This means that when persuasion knowledge is high parasocial relationship's effect on source credibility is lower than when persuasion knowledge is low. In other words, activation of the persuasion knowledge mitigates the positive effect of parasocial relationship to source credibility. Thus, activation of persuasion knowledge might be fatal on credibility of SMI. Based on these results, H9 is supported.

Table 22 Moderation analysis of persuasion knowledge.

Factor	PK low	PK high	T-statics	p-value (2-tailed)
AUP → PSR	0.21	0.13	0.401	0.690
PSR → SCR	**0.55**	**0.79**	**2.207**	**0.030**
SCR → PINT	0.11	0.87	1.350	0.180
SCR → ARQ	0.78	0.75	0.022	0.982
ARQ → PINT	0.37	0.07	1.172	0.244

5 CONCLUSION

In the last chapter the whole research is concluded. The theoretical and managerial contributions are made, and the limitations of the research are discussed alongside with suggestions to future research.

The aim for this research was to study how the purchase intention forms in the social networking sites. To understand this past research was studied and the source credibility theory was enhanced as a central concept. The credibility of SMI in this study was mostly viewed from Ohanian's (1990) source credibility theory perspective which is based on Hovland's and Weiss' (1951) study on credibility. Five different factors that form source credibility were discovered from past research. Hovland and Weiss (1951) introduced trustworthiness as part of source credibility in the original source credibility study and by the 1990 when Ohanian introduced scale for source credibility expertise and attractiveness were attached to source attractiveness. In this study attractiveness was shared to social and physical attractiveness as in Sokolova's and Kefi's (2019) research and attitude homophily was introduces to be part of source credibility.

The theoretical background to parasocial relationship was introduced by Horton and Wohl (1956) in the television context but this theory has been adapted to SNS context for example by Labrecque (2014) and Hwang and Zhang (2018). Argument quality in this research is based on for example the definitions of Bhattacherjee and Sanford (2006), Cheung et al. (2009) and Petty and Cacioppo (1986). Persuasion knowledge in this research was based on elaboration likelihood model by Petty and Cacioppo (1981, 1986) and Cacioppo and Petty and persuasion knowledge model by Friestad and Wright (1994). The argument quality in this research is based on Shao's (2009) study which was resumed by Khan (2017). The last factor purchase intention in this study was based on the theory of planned behavior by Ajzen (1991) where the intention to do something usually leads to actual behavior.

5.1 Theoretical contributions

After studying the past research, the research model and hypotheses were formed based on the past research. The main research question was how the purchase intention forms in the social networking sites. The main finding is that source credibility has a significant connection to purchase intention – the more credible the SMI the higher the purchase intention will be. This finding is in line with Sokolova's and Kefi's (2019) research where they found out similar connection between source credibility and purchase intention. Source credibility has also significant connection to argument quality like in studies by Stoltenberg and

Davis (1988) and Moore et al. (1986). However, there was not found evidence that argument quality has effect on the purchase intention.

One of the supporting research questions was how the credibility on SMI is formed. Five different factors for the source credibility was found being trustworthiness (Hovland & Weiss 1951; Ohanian 1990; Chu & Kamal 2008), expertise (Ohanian 1990) and attractiveness (Ohanian 1990) which was split up to physical attractiveness, social attractiveness and attitude homophily. In line with the past research similar connections were found. Trustworthiness, expertise and social attractiveness seems to be strongest indicators about credibility of SMI. Physical attractiveness and attitude homophily did not have as strong relationship, but the connections were statistically significant in both cases.

The second supporting research question was how does parasocial relationship effect on the credibility of SMI. Similarly to Gong's and Li's (2017) research, it was found out that parasocial relationship has a significant connection to credibility of SMI. It was also hypothesized that audience participation will have connection to parasocial relationship, however there was no evidence on that connection which is opposite to past research (Munnukka et al. 2019).

The last supporting research question was "what is the role of persuasion knowledge in formation of purchase intention?". Past research has suggested that persuasion knowledge has moderating effect between parasocial relationship and source credibility (Isaac & Grayson 2017 and Tsfati 2010). In this research same connection was found. When persuasion knowledge was high parasocial relationship had lower impact on source credibility compared to low persuasion knowledge.

Different background questions were also asked in the survey. Parasocial relationship theory got strengthening results as the more familiar respondent were with the SMI and more they followed him the higher the parasocial relationship was. This finding is in line with Dibble's et al. (2016) definition that parasocial relationship is formed as a regular relationship and last even when the parasocial interaction is disconnected. Also, Perse and Rubin (1989) claimed that deep parasocial relationship can only be formed over long period of time. It does seem that the more respondents followed the SMI the higher the parasocial relationship was. Interesting finding was also that age effects on the trustworthiness of SMI. The younger the respondent were the less trustworthy the SMI was perceived. This might indicate to that in schools students are taught to be skeptical towards the information in internet.

5.2   Managerial implications

Managerial implications can be seen from two perspectives. From company perspective and SMI perspective. Firstly, the crucial finding is that source credibility is important factor affecting the purchase intention of video viewers. When companies are considering strategic influencer communication as a marketing tactic,

it is important to find a SMI that is perceived credible source by their audience. The credibility of the SMI is formed by trustworthiness, expertise, physical and social attractiveness and attitude homophily. These finding also support the Erdogan's (1999) idea that the product and the endorsee should match each other. The SMI needs to be seen as a trustworthy expert to be credible. For the SMIs it is important to build these assets to be seen as a credible source for followers. If the SMI is perceived highly credible, also his arguments are perceived stronger.

For SMIs it is important to notice that parasocial relationship is an important tool in building the credibility. This means that there needs to be lots of constant content that can build up the relationship with followers. As Horton and Wohl (1956) suggested in the original parasocial relationship study it is important to speak straight to the audience like the SMI would be communicating with the followers. As the followers get to know the SMI better and better also the parasocial relationship get deeper and deeper. For company perspective it is important to find the SMIs that have lots of content and thus have built up strong parasocial relationships.

As noticed that high persuasion knowledge weakens the parasocial relationships connection to source credibility SMIs and companies should not try to cheat viewers to believe that paid advertisement is an honest product review. If SMI gets caught cheating, the credibility of the SMI is endangered. It is much wiser to disclose the sponsorship for two reasons. The first one is that there is a national mandatory to do that by Federal Trade Commission regulation and the second one is that according to Lu, et al. (2014) disclosing the sponsorship does not have negative effect toward the attitude of SMI. This argument gets support by Troot's (2019) study which indicates that 85% of 15-35-year-old people in Finland view commercial co-operations in YouTube positively. To conclude, disclosing the sponsorship is ethically right thing to do and it should not affect the content negatively if it is highlighted that all the opinions are honest as Hwang and Jeong (2016) suggest. Of course, the persuasion knowledge might be triggered event though the content would not be sponsored. If the viewers get the feeling that the review seems to be untrustworthy at worst case the credibility will be perceived low. SMIs should try to build up credibility by talking honest positive and negative opinions about the product.

5.3   Limitations of research and future research suggestions

Survey studies have limitations. We cannot be sure that every respondent filled the survey carefully and honestly and if there were any misunderstandings (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009, 195). Also, the sample size was 99 which was large enough to make be analyzed but larger sample size would be beneficial to test different groups. The relatively small group may be the reason why some of the model fit tests were not passed.

One limitation of this study is that the questions for survey were translated from English to Finnish. There always may be misconceptions when text is translated to different context. Also, every culture has its own characteristics and it would be important to test these hypotheses in different culture environment. Most of the respondents were not that familiar with the chosen SMI and it would be important to test this research model with the SMI that respondents would be more familiar with.

The respondents were mostly relatively young people. This is justified since young people are most active on social media. However, it would be important to test how purchase intention forms in different age groups. Extremely important groups would be under-aged young people and older people that might not use SNS that much. Considering age, it would also be important to study how the age effects on the persuasion knowledge as Friestad and Wright (1994) proposed persuasion knowledge is constantly moving concept and it develops in over time.

As Armstrong, Kotler and Opresnik (2016, 178-179) argued that the purchase intention might not always translate to purchase decision, because of attitude of others and unexpected situational factories, it is important to keep it in mind that this research studied only purchase intention and not the actual purchase decisions. However, as (De Cannière et al. 2009; Wee et al. 2014; Yadav and Pathak, 2017) argued that there is a significant connection between purchase intention and purchase decision, results in this research can be seemed as valid. For future research it should be studied is there connection between purchase intention and purchase decision in strategic influencer communication.

This research focused on the product review videos in YouTube. It should be tested can these results be generalized to other SNS like Instagram or Facebook.

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APPENDIX 1   Survey variables in Finnish

Trustworthiness
TRS1: Rehellinen – Epärehellinen
TRS2: Vilpitön - Vilpillinen
TRS3: Luotettava – Epäluotettava

Expertise
EXP1: Asiantuntija – Ei asiantuntija
EXP2: Kokenut – Kokematon
EXP3: Asioista perilla oleva – Ei asioista perillä oleva
EXP4: Pätevä – Epäpätevä

Physical attractiveness
PAT1: Viehättävä - Epäviehättävä
PAT2: Tyylikäs - Tyylitön
PAT3: Komea - Ruma
PAT4: Seksikäs - Epäseksikäs

Social attractiveness
SAT1: Luulen, että hän voisi olla ystäväni
SAT2: Haluaisin keskustella hänen kanssaan
SAT3: Hänen kanssaan olisi mukava viettää aikaa
SAT4: Hän on helposti lähestyttävä
SAT5: Hänestä voisi tulla läheinen ystävä minulle
SAT6: Hänen kanssaan olisi helppo tulla toimeen

Attitude homophily
AHO1: Hän ajattelee samalla tavalla kuin minä
AHO2: Meillä on yhteiset arvot
AHO3: Hän on minunkaltainen
AHO4: Hän kohtelee ihmisiä samalla tavalla kuin minäkin
AHO5: Hän on samanlainen kuin minä
AHO6: Hän käyttäytyy kuten minä
AHO7: Hänellä on samanlaisia ajatuksia ja ideoita kuin minulla

Parasocial relationship
PSR1: Odotan innolla näkeväni hänet YouTube kanavallaan
PSR2: Jos hän esiintyisi toisella YouTube kanavalla, katsoisin kyseisen videon
PSR3: Kun katson hänen videoitaan, koen kuuluvani osaksi hänen ryhmää
PSR4: Koen hänen olevan kuin vanha ystävä
PSR5: Haluaisin tavata hänet henkilökohtaisesti
PSR6: Jos hänestä olisi juttu lehdessä lukisin sen mielelläni

PSR7: Koen oloni yhtä mukavaksi kuin olisin ystävän kanssa katsoessani hänen videoitaan

PSR8: Kun hän kertoo mielipiteensä tuotteesta, koen että minun on helpompi muodostaa oma kantani tuotteeseen

Argument quality

ARQ1: Tuotearvostelun argumentit ovat vakuuttavia

ARQ2: Tuotearvostelun argumentit ovat vahvoja

ARQ3: Tuotearvostelun argumentit ovat suostuttelevia

ARQ4: Tuotearvostelun argumentit ovat hyviä

Purchase intention

PINT1: Voisin tulevaisuudessa ostaa videolla arvostellun tuotteen

PINT2: Voisin suositella videossa arvostelua tuotetta perheelleni ja ystävilleni

Persuasion knowledge

PK1: Tämän videon tarkoitus on myydä tuotetta

PK2: Tämän video tarkoitus on tehostaa tuotteen myyntiä

PK3: Tämän videon tarkoituksena on vaikuttaa sinun mielipiteeseesi

PK4: Tämän videon tarkoituksena on saada ihmiset pitämään kyseisestä tuotteest

PK5: Tämän videon tarkoitus on tarjota informaatiota tuotteesta

PK6: Tämän videon tarkoitus on saada ihmiset enemmän tietoisiksi tuotteesta

Audience participation

AUP1: Vietin paljon aikaa videota katsoessani

AUP2: Katsoin erittäin tarkasti ja mielenkiinnolla videon

AUP3: Yritin mahduttaa videon aikatauluuni

AUP4: Mielestäni reagointini ja osallistumiseni videon kanssa oli laajaa (esim. keskittyminen videoon, tykkäykset, kommentointi)

AUP5: Keskityin tiiviisti videon katsomiseen

AUP6: Yleisesti arvioin osallistumiseni videon katseluun olevan