Consumer-generated Advertising on YouTube:

A quantitative study examining the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on brands

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ABSTRACT
Consumer-generated advertising on YouTube is a developing phenomenon that in the last years has grown exponentially. Recent research by Holt (2016) suggests that well-known content creators on YouTube have a large impact on brands, so great that regular firms are unable to compete with these well-known content creators. However, firms do have the opportunity to cooperate with well-known content creators on YouTube. Therefore, examining YouTube as a marketing tool is beneficial for marketing managers globally, while we see that it can theoretically contribute to previous research within the areas of consumer-generated advertising and its effects on branding outcomes.

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. The study focuses on the four branding outcomes, which are brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust, and brand loyalty. We assess the specific effects of the three components of endorser credibility including endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise and endorser trustworthiness. The components of endorser credibility, and coupon proneness will be measured towards brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. In turn, brand awareness, brand attitude, and brand trust will be measured towards brand loyalty. In this thesis, we consider well-known content creators on YouTube as endorsers, while focusing on YouTube videos where a coupon code is implemented.

To fulfill the purpose of this study we conducted a quantitative study by distributing a survey on a channel of a well-known content creator on YouTube. There were 500 participants who answered the survey and the data collected was analyzed using multiple regression analysis. The empirical findings from the first multiple regression model show that there are significant positive effects of endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness on brand awareness. The second multiple regression model show that there are significant positive effects of endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness on brand attitude. The third multiple regression model show that there are significant positive effects of endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness on brand trust. The fourth multiple regression model show that there are significant positive effects of brand attitude and brand trust on brand loyalty.

The empirical findings of this thesis has theoretically contributed to previous research within the areas of consumer-generated advertisements, endorser credibility, coupon proneness and its effects on brands. The study also provided practical implications for marketers and firms who aim to market their brands through consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, as well as well-known YouTube creators who aim to endorse brands through their YouTube channel.
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# Table of Contents

1. Introduction ............................................................................................................. 1  
   1.1 Choice of Subject ............................................................................................... 1  
   1.2 Problem Background ......................................................................................... 2  
   1.3 Theoretical Background .................................................................................... 3  
   1.4 Knowledge Gap .................................................................................................. 7  
   1.5 Research Question ............................................................................................. 8  
   1.6 Purpose ................................................................................................................ 8  

2. Scientific Methodology ............................................................................................ 9  
   2.1 Ontological Position .......................................................................................... 9  
   2.2 Epistemological Position .................................................................................. 10  
   2.3 Research Approach ......................................................................................... 11  
   2.4 Research Design ............................................................................................... 12  
   2.5 Research Strategy ............................................................................................. 13  
   2.6 Pre-understandings ........................................................................................... 14  
   2.7 Literature Search ............................................................................................... 14  

3. Theoretical Framework ............................................................................................ 17  
   3.1 Internet Advertising and the power of Web 2.0 ................................................. 17  
   3.2 Consumer-generated Advertising ..................................................................... 18  
   3.3 Endorser Credibility ......................................................................................... 20  
   3.4 Coupon Promotion ............................................................................................. 21  
   3.5 Branding Outcomes ......................................................................................... 23  
      3.5.1 Brand Awareness ....................................................................................... 24  
      3.5.2 Brand Attitude ............................................................................................ 26  
      3.5.3 Brand Trust ................................................................................................. 27  
      3.5.4 Brand Loyalty ............................................................................................. 29  
   3.6 Conceptual Model .............................................................................................. 31  

4. Practical Methodology ............................................................................................. 32  
   4.1 Sample Technique .............................................................................................. 32  
      4.1.1 Population and Sampling Frame ................................................................. 32  
      4.1.2 Sampling Procedure ................................................................................... 33  
   4.2 Survey Design .................................................................................................... 34  
      4.2.1 Introduction of the Survey and Demographical Questions ......................... 34  
      4.2.2 Formulating the Survey Questions ............................................................. 35  
      4.2.3 Pre-test and Feedback from Pre-test ........................................................... 36  
      4.2.4 Response Rate ............................................................................................ 37  
   4.3 Quantitative Data Analysis ............................................................................... 37
List of Figures
Figure 1: Conceptual Model .................................................................................................................. 31
Figure 2. Gender Distribution .............................................................................................................. 43
Figure 3. Time Spent Watching YouTube Videos (Weekly) ............................................................... 43
Figure 4. Age Distribution .................................................................................................................. 44
Figure 5. Plots for evaluating assumptions regarding Multiple Regression Model 1:
Brand Awareness and its Predictors ...................................................................................................... 47
Figure 6. Plots for evaluating assumptions regarding Multiple Regression Model 2:
Brand Attitude and its Predictors ......................................................................................................... 49
Figure 7. Plots for evaluating assumptions regarding Multiple Regression Model 3:
Brand Trust and its Predictors .............................................................................................................. 50
Figure 8. Plots for evaluating assumptions regarding Multiple Regression Model 4:
Brand Loyalty and its Predictors .......................................................................................................... 51
Figure 9. Revised Conceptual Model .................................................................................................. 52

List of Tables
Table 1. Cronbach’s Alpha – Unrevised Constructs .............................................................................. 44
Table 2. Cronbach’s Alpha – Revised Constructs .................................................................................. 45
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics ............................................................................................................ 45
Table 4. Correlation Table (Method: Pearson’s Correlation) .................................................................. 46
Table 5. Estimated Multiple Regression Model 1: Brand Awareness and its Predictors 47
Table 6. Estimated Multiple Regression Model 2: Brand Attitude and its Predictors 48
Table 7. Estimated Multiple Regression Model 3: Brand Trust and its Predictors 49
Table 8. Estimated Multiple Regression Model 4: Brand Loyalty and its Predictors 50
Table 9. Empirical Findings of Hypotheses Testing .......................................................................... 53
1. Introduction

In this chapter we will introduce why we chosen the subject of consumer-generated advertisements. We will also provide a background and formulation of the problem, theoretical background and knowledge gap. Finally, this chapter states the formulated research question and purpose of this thesis.

1.1 Choice of Subject

We are two business administration students, studying our final year at Umeå School of Business and Economics. Both of us have chosen a degree specialization in marketing and we have therefore decided to explore the subject of marketing when conducting this thesis.

The choice of focusing on consumer-generated advertising on YouTube as our field of research is based on two reasons. First of all, the concepts we aim to explore are included within the growing theoretical framework of Internet advertising, a modern marketing method that we have seen as been in focus in much of our academic learning of marketing during our studies. We have by this been able to study relevant concepts within our specialty, such as aspects of branding, promotion and media channel communication within a Web 2.0 context, which is intriguing for both of us since we are interested to learn more within this field of marketing. Secondly, the big reason to why this subject was selected for this thesis is due to our own personal interest of YouTube. As viewers of video content on YouTube we have noticed that well-known content creators on YouTube can endorse products through their videos, while they are growing in popularity. We have on a daily basis seen well-known content creators on YouTube cooperating with specific brands through sponsored videos and it has caught our attentions.

We have also seen that the videos that are made by well-known content creators on YouTube include a coupon code, such as coupons offerings of 10% discount on a brand or offerings of a subscriptions service during a specific amount of time. We have seen that this product placement cooperation between endorsers and brands has begun to widen in the YouTube community within the last few years and private content creators that have a subscription rate of over one million often make these videos. For further understanding we have gathered some examples that are presented in Appendix 1.

While we both do have an affection towards the subject, due to our interest as viewers of these endorsers in our private life, there is no question that this field of research has been relatively unexplored by previous studies. This is due to the rapid growth of YouTube in the modern digital era, and the influences of the content creators in this media channel are today higher than ever. In this thesis, we have therefore been given the opportunity to both be able to analyze a subject we have an interest in while also contribute theoretically towards research within the area of consumer-generated advertising, which can be connected to our degree specialization marketing.
1.2 Problem Background

Building brands on social media sites, such as YouTube, is today a great challenge for firms (Holt, 2016, p. 41). Digital marketing strategies in the age of social media have been pursued by firms and their brands, however very few firms have been successful in generating consumer interest in their brands (Holt, 2016, p. 42). Furthermore, in social media sites such as YouTube, corporate brands scarcely appear while entertainers who used to be unknown to the public have appeared (Holt, 2016, pp. 43-44). YouTube has a culture of self-promotion and broadcasting the self, while the content on YouTube has the ability to provide factual information (Smith et al., 2012, p. 111).

Today, brands are unable to compete with YouTube creators, such as PewDiePie with millions of subscribers and fans (Holt, 2016, pp. 43-44). This is due to consumers within social media have little interest to the advertising or similar content the brands itself release online, but the less bureaucratic marketing approach of YouTube stars is instead growing in popularity and has the opportunity to control trends of entire industries by only sharing their opinions on their videos (Holt, 2016, pp. 42-44). Smith et al. (2012, p. 111) inform that YouTube can be considered a media channel which have the strongest influence in regards to content related to brand, created by consumers. Furthermore, if an advertiser aims to boost consumers’ recognition of the brand in an online context, brand placement in video-sharing websites as YouTube is considered a valuable instrument of use (Verhellen et al., 2013, p. 300).

However, it is important to recognize the power of individuals who create content on YouTube since Holt (2016, p. 44) informs that these individuals, who are sitting on a chair at home talking to a camera, have more subscribers and viewers than billion dollar brands. Berthon et al. (2012, p. 269) states that “technology has transformed the traditionally passive consumer into a major source of creative talent”. This is especially important to consider since Muniz and Schau (2011, p. 216) suggest that it is clear that consumers can, with the help of owning cheaper tools, such as cheaper video and animation software, to create promotional content that has the ability to challenge promotional content that is produced professionally by firms. These creations can also, via the Internet, be quickly shared with many people in an inexpensive way (Muniz & Schau, 2011, p. 216).

Muniz and Schau (2011, p. 216) inform that firms have the ability to outsource activities such as persuasive marketing communications and brand content to a firm’s consumers, successfully. On YouTube, firms have an opportunity to outsource these activities since YouTube content creators can create promotional video content, which include paid product placements, endorsement, and sponsorships (Google, 2016). Paid product placement on YouTube are segments of content specifically created for a third party’s brand or product, and included in the video-content as a whole on the YouTube channel of the content creator (Google, 2016). The content creator is therefore sponsored and is paid to mention a brand in the content uploaded on the YouTube channel of well-known content creators (Google, 2016). Moreover, endorsements “can be described as pieces of content created for an advertiser or marketer that contain a message that consumers are likely to believe reflects the opinions, beliefs, or experiences of the content creator or endorser” (Google, 2016). One example of this type of content is when a marketer offers economic incentives to for example promote, use and review a product or service (Google, 2016). Furthermore, there are positive effects of cooperating with YouTube
content creators as Verhellen et al. (2013, pp. 298-299) inform that when amateurs and celebrity experts endorse a certain brand, purchase intentions among consumers’ increases towards that brand. This can occur since these endorsers can stimulate consumers’ engagement and commitment, which in turn can guide consumers’ decision-making process and purchase intentions (Panda, 2014, pp. 275-276). YouTube is however not just seen as a video channel that not only has the possibility to broadcast information online, but is also seen as a community where consumers can interact and communicate with one another (Rotman & Preece, 2010, p. 330). Furthermore, endorsers who are involved in this community are also seen to belong in the core of this community (Rotman & Preece, 2010, p. 330).

In summary, information by Google (2016) together with research by Holt (2016) show that brands are unable to compete with well-known YouTube content creators. However, we see evidence that marketers can use well-known YouTube content creators as endorsers, to bring attention to brands. Moreover, the development of the Internet has allowed firms to implement coupons in an easier manner (Chen & Lu, 2011, p. 521; Oliver & Shor, 2003, pp. 130-131) and there are sponsored videos on YouTube, which include a coupon code (Appendix 1). The implementation of coupons can allow firms’ to gain knowledge about consumers’ purchase behavior when encountering a promotion, and from there form a relationship with potential consumers that in turn can help firms’ gain sales in the future (Chen & Lu, 2011, p. 521). Since sponsored videos can include a coupon code this imply that marketing managers now have a possibility to include the promotional method of coupons in sponsored videos as well as using well-known YouTube content creators as an endorser.

YouTube statistics also show that YouTube is a media channel with over a billion users and YouTube exist in over 88 countries (YouTube, 2016). Therefore, outsourcing marketing activities to well-known YouTube content creators and hence use YouTube as a media channel to implement promotional strategies have the capability of reaching more than a billion consumers all over the world. We therefore see that examining YouTube as a marketing tool has important implications to marketing managers globally and examining YouTube can therefore give useful insights in how to use this media channel in the most efficient way possible.

1.3 Theoretical Background

Internet has shown to be a useful tool when it comes to create a strong brand and gain a competitive advantage (Tiago & Veríssimo, 2014, p. 708). However, for marketers to utilize the benefits provided by the Internet, organizations have to adopt social media and use it as a channel to provide information to consumers and thus generating sales (Tiago & Veríssimo, 2014, p. 708). The Internet has changed the way consumers engage with brands and consumers today have the ability to connect in new ways and often via media channels, which cannot be controlled by for example manufacturers (Edelman, 2010, pp. 62-63). Consumers within these communities on social media, such as Facebook, have been shown to have positive attitudes in general towards advertising if the advertising is channeled within the community (Celebi, 2015, p. 323).
Web 2.0 can be described as a technical infrastructure within the Internet that enable social media and facilitate online content made by consumers, which is consumer-generated content (Berthon et al., 2012, p. 262). Consumer-generated content is also known as user-generated content, consumer-generated media or user-created content, but they all refer to the very same concept (Garito, 2012, p. 1266). In this thesis, we will use the term consumer-generated content.

Web 2.0 can also be seen as a something that enables both creation and distribution of social media content (Berthon et al., 2012, p. 262). Web 2.0 can also be connected to the creative consumers, which are the consumers who, instead of firms, create value-added content on social media sites (Berthon et al., 2012, p. 263). The study by Pehlivan et al. (2011) inform that trends within technology and media have given consumers the ability to show their opinions about brands and promote a brand’s products and services for instance in blogs and podcasts (Pehlivan et al., 2011, p. 313).

While the tools within the Web 2.0 are mostly built around the creativity of the private individual, this is still important for firms to be informed of since it can develop a firm's brand (Christodoulides., 2012, p. 61). Firms' involvement with consumer-generated content has the ability to positively influence customer-based brand equity (Christodoulides, 2012, p. 61). Brand that enhance their brand equity are in turn more likely to succeed when involved in user-generated campaigns since this will in turn have a stronger “positive effect on co-creation, community, and empowerment” (Christodoulides, 2012, p. 61).

The creative technology provided by Web 2.0 has caused a shift of control in the market, where consumers have received power that used to belong to firms (Berthon et al., 2012, p. 262). Moreover, Pehlivan et al. (2011, p. 313) also pointed out that one ability consumers now have been empowered with is the possibility of consumer-generated advertisements that can be posted on media channels such as YouTube. Ertimur and Gilly (2012, p. 116) referred consumer-generated advertising as a new type of consumer-generated content. Kennedy et al. (2014, p. 243) states that “consumer-generated advertising refers to any consumer-generated brand-related content, and can include online product testimonials, product reviews and consumer-generated advertisements”. Consumer-generated advertisements can also be described as promotional content produced by consumers that is brand-related (Kennedy et al., 2014, p. 243). Moreover, Berthon et al. (2008, p. 8) define consumer-generated advertisement as an advertising message created by consumers whose subject is to collectively recognize a brand. Berthon et al. (2008, p. 8) also points out that this definition is based on that consumer-generated advertisements will not have any effect on a brand until it is collectively published in some type of media.

Connecting the definitions of consumer-generated advertisement by Berthon et al. (2008) and Kennedy et al. (2014, p. 243), with the context of product placement and endorsement included in YouTube videos (Google, 2016), this type of content can be considered a part of the concept of consumer-generated advertisements. This is argued since the promotional content within sponsored videos on YouTube is created by the content creators themselves, not the firms that are related to the endorsed product.
Lawrence et al. (2013), Ertimur and Gilly (2012), and Hansen et al. (2014) have focused on aspects such as the quality of consumer-generated advertisements, compared to firm-generated advertisements, and also how these are perceived in quality by consumers. Consumer-generated advertising can be perceived by consumers as of higher quality than advertisements made in a traditional manner, regardless of if the actual quality level is higher or not (Lawrence et al., 2013, p. 303). This effect can originate from that consumers have lower expectations of the quality of the advertisements that are created by consumers. Consumer-generated advertisements can also “engage viewers more on cognitive, personal, emotional, and behavioral grounds” (Lawrence et al., 2013, p. 303) while personal identification does not need to be a factor that drives effectiveness of consumer-generated advertisements (Lawrence et al., 2013, p. 303).

Furthermore, when a consumer is exposed to a video that include consumer-generated advertisements the consumer can perceive it as more credible (Hansen et al., 2014, p. 261). The perceived credibility of consumer-generated advertisements has also been confirmed by research by Berthon et al. (2008, p. 25) that indicate that advertisements made by consumers might be perceived with more credibility than advertisements broadcasted by firms. Additionally, a study by Ertimur and Gilly (2012, p. 128) suggests that consumer-generated advertisements can provide authenticity. While consumer-generated advertisements might not necessary have effects on word-of-mouth online it still has a potential for engaging consumers to search for and comment about brands on media channels (Hansen et al., 2014, p. 261). Consumer-generated advertisements can also help marketers to be able to reach consumers that can be considered active and selective in nature (Hansen et al., 2014, p. 261).

Studies by Kennedy et al. (2014) have also had a focus on consumer-generated advertisements and its effect on brands. Findings by Kennedy et al. (2014, p. 264) states that “marketers should be less concerned as to whether a consumer-generated advertising is positive or negative towards their brand, but more with the type of consumer-generated advertisements they are dealing with” (Kennedy et al., 2014, p. 264). The findings indicate that a consumer-generated advertisement that is positive towards a brand do not necessarily mean that it will result in a more positive perception of the brand (Kennedy et al., 2014, p. 264). Similarly, a consumer-generated advertisement that is negative towards a brand does not necessarily mean that it will result in a more positive perception of the brand (Kennedy et al., 2014, p. 264). Finally, the credibility of consumer-generated advertisements plays an important role in terms of influencing the brand. The findings of the study suggest that a consumer-generated advertisement that was believed to be credible influenced consumers’ purchase intentions positively (Kennedy et al., 2014, p. 264). The study by Kennedy et al., (2014) is similar to our approach to consumer-generated advertisements in that Kennedy et al. (2014) examine the effect on brands.

Steyn et al (2011) and Thompson and Malaviya (2013) have examined source effects concerning consumer-generated advertisements. Steyn et al. (2011, p. 152) pointed out that consumer-generated advertising will influence branding outcomes, such as brand meaning and brand communication. Furthermore, marketers need to know the effect of consumer-generated advertisements on their target audience (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 152). Moreover, negative comments from consumers have the ability to significantly influence the advertisement (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 154). The findings of the study by Steyn et al. (2011, p. 154) have a number of implications. Firstly, consumer-generated content in regards to online advertisements and posted by consumers themselves is something that
should concern marketers (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 154). Secondly, negative comments have a negative impact in terms of evaluation of an advertisement, hence it is important to monitor consumer-generated content related to the advertisement (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 154). Thirdly, it is recommended to get consumers encouraged to create advertisements as this have the ability to communicate an authenticity to consumers (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 154). Findings by Thompson and Malaviya (2013, p. 44) indicate that that consumers evaluate consumer-generated advertisements based on the competence of the person who create the advertisement. How consumer evaluate the advertisement can also be different if the consumer is considered loyal to the brand that is presented by consumer-generated advertising (Thompson & Malaviya, 2013, p. 44).

Holt (2016, pp. 43-44) argues that, content creators on YouTube such as PewDiePie can be considered stars, which thus indicate that content creators on YouTube can be considered celebrities. Celebrity has been described in previous celebrity endorsement literature as an individual “who is simply known for being known and may or may not serve others sacrificially” (Fraser & Brown, 2002, p. 184). Individuals that can be considered celebrities are for example artists such as actors and musicians, but also non-artists such as journalists and corporate figures (Morin et al., 2012, p. 414). Moreover, a celebrity endorser can be described as a person “who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement” (McCracken, 1989, p. 310). From the definitions of celebrity and a celebrity endorser by Fraser and Brown (2002), Morin et al. (2012) and McCracken (1989), it can be argued that content creators fit within the description of celebrity, and thus product placement and endorsement in video content created by these creators can in turn be considered as celebrity endorsement. As we have concluded, content creators on YouTube that endorse brands in their videos can be considered as consumers that create advertisements, they also fit in under the description of endorsers. Hence, we argue that content creators on YouTube can be seen as creating consumer-generated advertisements by acting as an endorser of brands at the same time.

Moreover, couponing, an instrument of sales promotion, is an efficient tool for market segmentation by being able to identify and target different consumers and their willingness to purchase a specific product or service (Oliver & Shor, 2003, p. 130). Usage of coupons has been a popular method to attract consumers by focusing on their price sensitivity when presenting them a discount promotion and it is today even easier to utilizing the method after the success of the Internet and its more communicative tools (Chen & Lu, 2011, p. 521; Oliver & Shor, 2003, pp. 130-131). Previous research has also shown that consumers can have low and high levels of proneness of using coupons and consumers that are more prone to using coupons are more prone of talking about products and services to other consumers (Wirtz & Chew, 2002, p. 155). Furthermore, research has also informed that some consumers are more prone to coupons than others are, hence have different levels of coupon proneness (Lichtenstein et al., 1990, p. 56), which in turn can have an effect on brands (Bhardwaj et al., 2015, p. 205; Yi & Yoo, 2011, p. 892).
1.4 Knowledge Gap

After reviewing literature within consumer-generated advertisements, endorser credibility, branding and coupon proneness we found that there is a lack of research that examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on brands in regard to consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.

While previous research by for example La Ferle and Choi (2005) have examined endorser credibility and its effects on brand attitude, no previous research has examined the concept of endorser credibility in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. Kennedy et al. (2014) examined effects of different consumer-generated advertisements on brand trust, brand attitude and purchase intentions. However, Kennedy et al. (2014) have not taken the effects of endorser credibility and consumers’ coupon proneness into account. Furthermore, Steyn et al. (2011) and Thompson and Malaviya (2013) have focused on source effects in the context of consumer-generated advertisements, however these studies have not taken endorser credibility into account. Moreover, even though Thompson and Malaviya (2013) have focused on consumer-generated advertisements and its effect on brand loyalty, this study has not taken into account more brand variables, such as; brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust, and in turn if they will affect brand loyalty. Furthermore, Boon (2013) has examined couponing in regard to consumer-generated advertisements. However, Boon (2013) did not take the variable of coupon proneness into account, and examined daily coupon deals such as Groupon. Finally, previous research by Lichtenstein et al. (1990) have examined coupon proneness and more recent research by for example Bhardwaj et al. (2015, p. 205) and Yi and Yoo (2011) have examined coupon proneness and its effects on brands. However, there is a lack of research which examines coupon proneness in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.

We also see that there is a lack of previous research regarding consumer-generated advertisements, endorser credibility and coupon proneness, which examine effects on the set of branding outcomes; brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust and brand loyalty. Kennedy et al. (2014) focused on the branding outcomes brand attitude and brand trust. La Ferle and Choi (2005) examined effects on brand attitude. Thompson and Malaviya (2013) focused on the branding outcome brand loyalty. Steyn et al. (2011) focused on source effects on brand reinforcement. Yi and Yoo (2011) examined effects on brand attitude while Bhardwaj et al. (2015) focused on the branding outcomes brand parity and brand trust.

Therefore, while we see that there is a clear gap examining endorser credibility, coupon proneness and its effects on branding outcomes, we also see that there is a clear gap regarding the set of specific branding outcomes chosen in this thesis. Hence, we see that using brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust and brand loyalty as a set of branding outcomes when measuring the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness is unique in regard to previous research within the areas of endorser credibility, coupon proneness and consumer-generated advertisements. This thesis will therefore contribute theoretically by examining effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on the branding outcomes brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust and brand loyalty, in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.
1.5 Research Question

*What effects do the components of endorser credibility, and coupon proneness have on brands, in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube?*

1.6 Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. The study focuses on the four branding outcomes, which are brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust, and brand loyalty. We assess the specific effects of the three components of endorser credibility including endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise and endorser trustworthiness. The components of endorser credibility, and coupon proneness will be measured towards brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. In turn, brand awareness, brand attitude, and brand trust will be measured towards brand loyalty. In this thesis, we consider well-known content creators on YouTube as endorsers, while focusing on YouTube videos where a coupon code is implemented.

To fulfill the purpose of this thesis we will conduct a quantitative study, which will entail a survey aimed towards consumers who watch video content on YouTube. The survey will examine consumers’ view on components of endorser credibility, and consumers’ proneness to coupon promotion. This study aims to contribute theoretically to previous research within the areas of consumer-generated advertisements, endorser credibility and coupon proneness, and its effects on branding outcomes. The findings of this study will also be able to contribute practically; to marketing managers and well-known content creators on YouTube as it will provide insights to effects on brands concerning sponsored videos on YouTube.
2. Scientific Methodology

In this chapter we will present and discuss our philosophical choices when conducting this thesis. We will discuss our choices regarding ontology, epistemology, research approach, research design and research strategy. The chapter ends with a brief discussion of our pre-understandings and literature search.

2.1 Ontological Position

Ontological questions consider if the reality of social entities, that is investigated is external or not, to social actors (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 1; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 131). Moreover, in regard to ontological considerations there are two main positions; objectivism and subjectivism (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 131; Burell & Morgan, 1979, pp. 1-3). Objectivism refers to holding an ontological position where the reality of the social entity is being independent of social actors (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 1; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 131). By holding an ontological approach of objectivism, it is argued that a structure exists within the social entity being measured (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 131). Finally, Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 21) informs that social entities, including individuals, can be applied to the ontological position of objectivism due to their norms and structure in society, making them tangible objectives.

On the other hand, subjectivism refers to holding an ontological position reality is not independent of social actors, rather, Burell and Morgan (1979, p. 1) describes it as the reality of social actors to be something that is within the mind of individuals. Social phenomena also exist in both culture and organizations and can be negotiated forward and the established norms of society could be created, reformed and erased, following a process of constant change by its social actors (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 22). Moreover, Saunders et al., (2012, p. 132) informs that a subjectivist viewpoint imply that social phenomenon are constantly revised and social entities are not definite.

We as researchers argue for and believe that the reality can be regarded as independent of social actors. In the context of this study; we as researcher see that YouTube as a social entity can be considered as external to social actors, that is consumers who watch video content on YouTube. We also see that YouTube as a social entity withholds a structure that is not under constant revision by social actors. Therefore, the ontological position that we have taken is objectivism. In coherence with objectivism as our ontological position, we aim to conduct a quantitative study, testing the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes.
2.2 Epistemological Position

Epistemology refers to the question of what can be considered acceptable knowledge (Bryman, 2012, p. 27; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 15). Furthermore, epistemological assumptions can be referred to how the world can be understood and in turn communicate this in the form of knowledge to other individuals (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 1). One of the ideas of epistemology is what kind of knowledge that retrieved and how one can distinguish between what can be considered as true or false (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 1).

The epistemological position of positivism is included in an “objectivist approach to social sciences” (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 3) and one of the principles of this position is that science is must be conducted in a value-free manner (Bryman, 2012, p. 28). A positivist standpoint refers to a standpoint where models and methods, derived from natural sciences, are applied to study the social world, that is the social world are treated as a natural world (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 4). This standpoint entails that an ontological assumption referred to realism, that is, “the social world exists independently of an individual’s appreciation of it” (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 4). On the other hand, interpretivism can be seen as a contrasting concept compared to positivism (Bryman, 2012, p. 28). Holding this epistemological position entails that one cannot generate knowledge that is objective and thus this position entails an approach to social science that is subjective (Burell & Morgan, 1979, pp. 3-5). Interpretivism also refers to not act as an observer, rather this epistemological position entails understanding a phenomenon based on “occupying the frame of reference of the participant in action” (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 5), thus gain understanding from being on the inside, rather observing on the outside (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 5).

Our beliefs regarding acceptable knowledge are to generate knowledge in an objective manner. Moreover, we as researchers believe that we can apply models and methods from natural sciences to the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. Therefore, the epistemological position that we as researcher hold is positivism since we argue that we see an importance of conducting the study in an objective way. Moreover, we argue that this is a position that practically can be applied to the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube through testing hypotheses based on previous theory and collecting data using a quantitative research design in the form of surveys. The epistemological consideration of positivism is also coherent with the ontological standpoint of objectivism (Burell & Morgan, 1979, p. 3). Since we hold the ontological standpoint of objectivism, the epistemological standpoint of positivism is therefore clearly coherent with our ontological standpoint and therefore this is the standpoint, which we will have when conducting this study.

Since the aim of this study is not to gain a deeper understanding of the effects that consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube have on brands, rather examine the effects in an objective manner, the ontological standpoint of interpretivism is not relevant. We as researcher also do not believe that we can gain acceptable knowledge through the inside, rather observing the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes on the outside, hence the epistemological position of interpretivism is consequently not chosen.
2.3 Research Approach

There are three types of research approaches to consider when conducting research; deduction, induction, and abduction (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). The process of a deductive approach involves verifying or falsifying theory (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 144-145; Blaikie, 2000, p. 101). To do this, data is collected and used to evaluate propositions or hypotheses that are accumulated from existing theory. (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 144-145; Blaikie, 2000, p. 101). The research process of a deductive approach becomes less influenced of the subjective thoughts of a researcher since the research is based on existing theory, thus promoting objectivity when conducting the research (Patel & Davidson, 2011, p. 23). Moreover, a deductive approach is coherent with the epistemological position of positivism (Blaikie, 2000, p. 105). Since a deductive approach is directly coherent with positivism as our epistemological position as researchers, we argue that this is a highly relevant choice for this study. Furthermore, we also see that a deductive approach can enable us to conduct the study in a value-free manner by evaluating hypotheses based on previous research. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes. To apply a deductive approach, we will review previous theory in regard to consumer-generated advertisements, endorser credibility and coupon proneness, and make hypotheses based on how these concepts relate to the chosen branding outcomes. The hypotheses will then be tested using a quantitative research design, collecting data through surveys and analyze data through statistical techniques.

Induction, on the other hand, is to rather generate and build theory than testing existing theory (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). The data that is collected is therefore used to explore a phenomenon and in the end create a conceptual framework. (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). The inductive strategy can entail two purposes; to describe a phenomenon or to give an explanation to observed regularities (Blaikie, 2000, p. 104). Moreover, one must regard that the generated knowledge from an inductive research approach is the subject of constant revision (Blaikie, 2000, p. 104). An inductive approach entails the researcher to work impartially, hence it is impossible for the researcher to not influence the theories produced (Patel & Davidson, 2011, p. 24). Since our epistemological and ontological assumptions require us to be as objective as possible, an inductive approach is not suitable for this study. Moreover, since we want to examine effects on brands in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube and hence form hypotheses from previous theory, we do not aim to build theory, rather test existing theory. Therefore, an inductive approach is not suitable when conducting this study.

Finally, abduction, include both generation and modification of theory and relevant theories are incorporated in an appropriate manner while new theories are being created or existing theory modified (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). Data that is collected is used to in similarity with induction, explore a phenomenon and identify themes (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). Furthermore, data is also collected subsequently to test a conceptual framework and theory (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144; Blaikie, 2000, p. 101), which is in similarity to a deductive approach. It can therefore be concluded that abduction can be considered a mix of an inductive and a deductive approach. Furthermore, an approach that combines both to use theory deductively and inductively, allows for flexibility and the researcher following this approach is not bound to a specific approach (Patel & Davidson, 2011, p. 24). Since we see it as essential to have a clear theoretical framework before collecting data, an abductive approach will not be chosen for this study.
2.4 Research Design

Research design can be described as the overall plan in how to answer the research question of a study (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 159). Moreover, the choice of research design should be coherent with previous assumptions within ontology, epistemology, and research approach (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 161).

There are two techniques to consider in regard to a study’s research design, quantitative or qualitative techniques (Blaikie, 2000, p. 231). Quantitative research designs usually refer to any data collection techniques, which generate numerical data (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 161; Blaikie, 2000, p. 232; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 410). Quantitative research designs are also generally connected to the epistemological standpoint of positivism and a deductive research approach (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 162). Since we hold the epistemological standpoint of positivism and chose to conduct the study using a deductive approach, we argue that using a quantitative research design is coherent regarding our philosophy and research approach. Therefore, a quantitative research design is suitable for this study. Moreover, a quantitative research design enables variables to be analyzed numerically using statistical techniques (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 162). Since we conduct this study using a deductive approach by testing hypotheses based on previous theory through the use of statistical techniques we argue that a quantitative research design is highly relevant, since this will allow us to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes numerically. Therefore, this study will be conducted using a quantitative research design.

On the other hand, qualitative research designs usually refer to any data collection techniques which generate non-numerical data (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 161; Blaikie, 2000, p. 232; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 410). Moreover, a qualitative research design is connected to the epistemological standpoint interpretivism and an inductive research approach (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 163). Since we do not aim to conduct the study using an inductive approach and since we do not hold the epistemological position of interpretivism, we argue that a qualitative research design is not relevant for when conducting this study. Furthermore, since we hold a deductive approach when conducting this study through hypotheses testing, using statistical techniques, we see that collecting qualitative data would not be suitable. Therefore, we argue that a qualitative research design is not relevant for this study, hence not chosen as the study’s research design.

Saunders et al. (2012, p. 170) also informs that it is important to recognize the nature of the chosen research design. Studies of an exploratory nature refer to studies which aim to ask open questions and gain insights through for example in-depth interviews (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 171). Studies of a descriptive nature refer to studies which aim to receiving a clear picture of the phenomenon being studied (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 171). Studies of an explanatory nature refer to studies that aim to explain relations between variables through statistical analysis (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 172). Since the purpose of this study is to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes we see that the use of statistical analysis is an important part of measuring these effects. Therefore, we argue that the research design of this study has an explanatory nature.

Finally, when conducting a quantitative study, we see that our study is cross-sectional, that is according to Bryman and Bell (2011) a study which collects data from more than
one individual, “at a single point in time” (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 54). We argue that this is the most feasible option since we aim to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes, while considering the time frame of this study.

2.5 Research Strategy

The research strategy of a study can be considered as the plan of action to answer the research question (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 173). The chosen research strategy should be based on the research question, methodological choices in regard to research philosophy and approach (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 173). Moreover, the chosen research strategy should also be based on other considerations such as access to potential participants (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 173).

Collecting data from surveys is a strategy which is coherent with a deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 176-177; Remenyi et al., 2005, p. 150) and allow data to be collected quantitatively (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 176-177). Moreover, a research strategy by using surveys can enable quantitative data to be analyzed statistically (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 176-177). Since a survey strategy is coherent with the research approach of this study using this type of strategy is appropriate for this study. Moreover, since we aim to examine effects of variables statistically we see that a survey strategy will enable us to do so, hence a survey strategy will be chosen for this study.

In regard to social survey research there are two different types to consider; structured interviews and self-completion surveys, that is survey which can be completed solely by the participant themselves (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 322, 231). Self-administered surveys are the most common method of gathering data and entail that respondents do not have the need to have assistance except in the form of written instructions (Blaikie, 2000, p. 233; Rossi et al., 1983, p. 198). Structured interviews on the other hand do require an interaction between the researcher and the respondents (Blaikie, 2000, p. 233). Self-administered surveys have the advantage over structured interviews in that they are quicker and cheaper to administer, thus saving time and costs (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 232). Furthermore, the since self-administered surveys do not involve an interaction between the respondents and the interviewer, there is an absence of bias compared to structured interviews and there is also an absence in interviewer variability and the risk that interviewers ask questions in different ways (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 232). However, disadvantages also exist with using self-administered surveys over structured interviews, such as; lower response rates (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 234; Rossi et al., 1983, p. 198).

However, even though there is a risk of lower response rates, we see that self-administered surveys are the most feasible option for this study. The potential participants, who would help answer our research question, are consumers who have an experience with watching sponsored videos on YouTube. Structured interviews would not be feasible as we do not have access to contact information of potential participants. The only way we see that we can reach potential participants is online, through the platform of YouTube itself. Therefore, the self-administered survey is the chosen manner in which we will collect data from potential participants. The absence of interaction between us as researchers and the potential participants, which self-administered surveys...
entail, is something we argue as beneficial over eventual higher response rates. We also see that the absence of interaction between us as researchers and potential participants is especially important since we have an experience of watching video content on YouTube in our private lives.

2.6 Pre-understandings

Within scientific philosophy, a basic assumption is that a researcher never has zero knowledge nor beliefs of a specific subject and cannot understand the world without any form of pre-understanding (Gilje & Grimen, 2007, p. 179). This form of understanding makes it possible to interpret the world differently and is a key necessity to make sense of our world (Gilje & Grimen, 2007, p. 179). Pre-understanding could also refer to one’s previous knowledge, experience and insight of an organization the researcher aim to study (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 414) which would in this study be YouTube. One important variable within pre-understanding is an individual’s personal experience, which is different from person to person and depends on what background one has and how the interprets certain interactions with other people in society (Gilje & Grimen, 2007, p. 183).

We both have a pre-understanding of internet marketing and branding since we both have a degree specialization in marketing. We therefore see that we are knowledgeable in beforehand of the majority of the content within the theoretical framework. In addition, due to our young age and own interest, we are aware the concept of consumer-generated advertising on YouTube, which we aim to explore. The personal interest of this study is therefore to gain further knowledge and contribute to scientific theory on a field we already have a pre-understanding of.

Since we already have a pre-understanding of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube we see that this could affect the objectivity that we as researcher have when conducting this study. However, we conduct a quantitative study and aim to analyze the data using statistical methods. Conducting a quantitative study entails that data is analyzed in the form of numbers, rather than the interpretation of words (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 161). Therefore, we argue that this prevents us from applying our pre-understandings when analyzing the data. We also see that since we are aware of our pre-understandings we will keep this in mind to consistently conduct this study in an objective manner.

2.7 Literature Search

The theoretical framework of this study is based upon previous research within different fields which we explore and include in our conceptual model. It is important to include more arguments than those which just support the theoretical framework so that a broader research field of literature can both fill in the previous requested gaps of knowledge and also contribute to additional findings within the area one aim to explore (Patel & Davidson, 2011, p. 69). Therefore, in this study we focused on gaining as much knowledge of marketing theory which could relate to the consumer-generated advertising. The first focus at the beginning of forming this study was to make sure that new knowledge could be found in our study. Without this in mind, it is possible that a research field has been explored before and the result found in the research will not contribute new
understandings to academic science but instead only reconfirm previous works (Bryman & Bell, 2011, pp. 91-92). After exploring the relevant scientific research of the past, we aimed to further widen the knowledge of the field we aimed to examine and began to explore the theories of internet marketing, endorser credibility, sections of branding, and couponing, all applicable to the media channel of YouTube.

To be able to gain a structured search method for scientific articles, an efficient way is the usage of keywords (Ejvegård, 2009, p. 90). This was a method we applied at the very beginning of our research for theories, by searching for words such as: Consumer-generated advertising, branding online, internet marketing, Web 2.0, credibility online, and also academic articles for YouTube in general. An aspect one should take into consideration is the potential encounters of synonyms during the literature search (Bryman & Bell, 2011, pp. 108-109). This was one challenge for us since we had to make sure that different terms in academic articles were referring to the same theory in our framework, for example digital marketing, internet marketing and online marketing being the same concept. It is also important to not put too much focus on each and every article one aim to gather research from, since it will take up too much time (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 111). To avoid this as well, we put more effort in reading the abstract, conclusion and searched for specific keywords in each and every article before we decided to analyze it deeper or not. Further through our search, we found more specific gaps we wanted to explore and our search in keywords became more focused, exploring content such as; brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust, brand loyalty, source- and endorser credibility, and coupon proneness.

In our search of the relevant scientific articles, by using these keywords in our field of study, we used the search engine of Umeå University Library, and gained access of academic networks such as Business Source Premier (EBSCO), Elsevier (Science Direct), SAGE Journals and Emerald Insight. We sometimes used Google Scholar as well to gain a wider search but we always were careful to make sure that almost every source we aimed to use would be an academic article. We did not only had criteria for when the article was published and which field its study approached but also if it was peer reviewed, making sure all the articles had the highest quality for our study. Moreover, when relevant articles are found, it could be valuable to study previous research found in the reference list in articles to be able to find relevant studies within the same field (Ejvegård, 2009, pp. 47-48). This method was mostly used by us when we aimed to avoid secondary data and go to the first source of a research but also when we needed to find early studies which explained origins of certain conceptual theories within marketing and online oriented research. It was also so that we could make sure that no plagiarism would be made. Plagiarism can more often than not be made solely by mistake when discussing common knowledge which still has an origin within the field of academic science (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 116). To avoid this, we focused only on using primary sources of previous theory and hence we avoided secondary resources when conducting the literature search. Secondary sources can be considered less valuable as there is a risk that primary sources can be interpreted incorrectly in the secondary source (Ejvegård, 2009, p. 71). With this in mind we have avoided using secondary sources when conducting this study.
However, there are moments where we used various kinds of books to contribute further understandings to our theories, which could not be found in academic articles. These books were mostly functioned to explain specific keywords such as branding definition by Keller (2008), as the author has been consistently concurrent in regards to our search for branding literature, to present our methodological approach. In few scenarios we also found useful information about the subject presented in edited books. The goal to preserve the sources to primary standards only was still held and we do not believe that any of the books could harm the reliability of our research study.
3. Theoretical Framework

In this chapter we will present previous literature reviewed. We will therefore present and discuss relevant theories in the areas of Internet advertising, source credibility, coupon promotion and branding outcomes. This chapter ends with a presentation of the conceptual model of this thesis.

3.1 Internet Advertising and the power of Web 2.0

Marketing communications can be described as the different ways firms aim to inform and persuade consumers’ about the brand, which the firms offer (Keller, 2008, p. 230). While there are many ways in which a brand can attract consumers, such as coupons, trade deals, product placements and so on, a direct form of advertising on media or online often plays an important and central role in the concept of marketing communications (Keller, 2008, p. 230). Moreover, Internet advertising can be seen as common option in regards to a firm's marketing communications about brands (Keller, 2008, p. 230). This form of marketing communication has shown to encourage consumer creativity due to the tools given to them in an online context (Wu et al., 2015, pp. 271-272). Internet advertising as a marketing communication instrument has also shown an increase of consumers having a positive attitude towards brands due to the creative abilities a consumer can have when interacting with a brand, but the potential of the field has been explored poorly and require more research in the future (Wu et al., 2015, p. 272).

Schlosser et al. (1999, p. 36) defined Internet advertising as “any form of commercial content available on the Internet that is designed by businesses to inform consumers about a product or service”. This definition entails that the concept of Internet advertising involve advertising in any channel, including video-channels (Schlosser et al., 1999, p. 36). The homogenous consumer has a more passive attitude towards Internet advertising than real life advertisements (Ellen Gordon & De Lima Turner, 1997, p. 373). This is due to the Internet being more efficient to attract potential consumers individually, which makes it a higher chance to develop brand attitude than actually sell something (Ellen Gordon & De Lima Turner, 1997, p. 372). Furthermore, this definition of Internet advertising can entail that this type of advertising can be generated in any form while the message of Internet advertising can provide information of different degrees of depth (Schlosser et al., 1999, p. 36). However, due to the massive amount of advertising on the Internet, consumers need to be entertained by the Internet advertisement delivered from the brand or they will not take notice of the advertisement message (Ellen Gordon & De Lima Turner, 1997, p. 372).

The development of the Internet and Web 2.0 has open up the possibility for interaction and collaboration (Campbell et al., 2011, p. 87; Thackeray et al., 2008, p. 339). Web 2.0 can be described as interactive online applications that facilitate ideas, knowledge and informational content (Constantinides & Fountain, pp. 232-233). Web 2.0-based media channels such as YouTube allows for consumption and production of consumer-generated content; media content that is not created by paid professionals, rather by the general public (Daugherty et al., 2008, p. 16). Constantinides and Fountain (2008, p. 233) propose five categories of Web 2.0 whose attribute also can be connected to the concept of consumer-generated content; blogs, social networks such as Facebook, forums, content aggregators such as RSS-feeds, and content communities such as YouTube. It can
therefore be argued that content on YouTube can be created by consumers, and thus this is a media channel which can foster consumer-generated content.

The evolvement of Web 2.0 has an effect on consumer empowerment and has resulted in how consumers’ buying behavior and how consumers search for information about products and services (Constantinides & Fountain, p. 239). Moreover, Web 2.0 services has transformed marketing communications (Campbell et al., 2011, p. 88) and consumers have put their attention from traditional media channels such as television towards interactive media including content created by consumers themselves (Daugherty et al., 2008, p. 16). Nowadays, advertisements are not only created only by advertisers and directed to consumers, advertisements are also made by consumers, which is the phenomenon of consumer-generated advertising (Campbell et al., 2011, p. 88).

Furthermore, a popular advertising strategy to attract consumers on the Internet is sales promotion (Cheng et al., 2013, p. 215), a method of advertising, which commonly increases a website’s popularity in the form of web traffic (Hu et al., 2003, p. 164). Different consumers can react and be different in sensitivity of promotional content (Arora & Henderson, 2007, pp. 527-528) and the function of the promotion should be adapted to different sectors for greatest effect depending on which industry the promotion is implemented (Cheng et al., 2013, p. 215). Furthermore, promotional content which for example discount price or offer free-trials are especially efficient to attract consumers in an online context, which is due to consumers expecting a lower price on internet than in a physical store (Cheng et al., 2013, p. 215). However, implementing price promotion could be considered dangerous if it lacks consistency and are not delivered to all segments (Oliver & Shor, 2003, pp. 129-131). Consumers who feel like they got “a great deal” during price promotion purchase by using a coupon discount often gains higher satisfaction but consumers who are aware of the price promotion but does not have the opportunity to use the coupon gets a much lower satisfaction if purchasing and can even avoid purchase for that reason only (Oliver & Shor, 2003, p. 130). Consumers who are coupon sensitive within an online context should not be considered only price sensitive but instead more knowledgeable of the Internet and be more aware what other deals exist online (Oliver & Shor, 2003, p. 131).

Since, consumers’ decisions are more and more based on peer reviews, blogs, social networks and referrals, which in turn are uncontrollable by marketers (Constantinides & Fountain, p. 239), promotional material created by consumers can be argued to be of more importance and should be explored further in terms of Internet advertising.

3.2 Consumer-generated Advertising

Kennedy et al. (2014, p. 243) explicate consumer-generated advertising as a concept which refers to brand-related content that are consumer-generated, and often includes product reviews, product testimonials online, and advertisements directly from a consumer itself. Moreover, there are four types of advertisements that are created by consumers (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 14; Kennedy et al., 2014). These types of advertisements can be termed concordant, incongruous, subversive and contrarian, and they are distinguished based on two factors (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 14). Firstly, these four types of advertisements can be distinguished by the nominal relationship that an advertisement has with the brand message which is official and communicated by the
firm, which range between dissonant and assonant (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 14). If an advertisement is considered dissonant in this context, the advertisement discord from the firm’s official brand message (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 14). Furthermore, if an advertisement is considered to be assonant it can be considered in agreement with the firm’s official brand message (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 14). In this study, the advertisement made by a consumer, which is sponsored by the brand itself, is considered to be assonant. Moreover, these four types of advertisements can be distinguished by the underlying message that is communicated about the brand, which ranges between a positive and a negative message (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 14).

First of all, concordant advertisements refer to consumer-generated advertisements that are in an agreement with a firm’s brand message while the underlying message is positive (Berthon et al., 2008, pp. 14-15). Findings by Kennedy et al. (2014, pp. 262-264) indicate that concordant advertisements do not have a significant impact on consumers’ attitudes and trust in a brand, however concordant advertisements can have a significant positive impact on consumers’ purchase intentions towards a brand. Secondly, incongruous advertisements are instead in disagreement with the firm’s brand message while the underlying message about the brand is positive (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 15). While the study by Kennedy et al. (2014, pp. 262-264) did not conclude that subversive advertisements have a significant impact on a consumer’s attitude towards a brand, subversive advertisements have a significant negative impact on brand trust and purchase intention.

The third form of advertisement, subversive advertisements, refers to advertisements that are in an agreement with a firm’s brand message, however, the underlying message is negative (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 15). Furthermore, subversive advertisements have significant negative impact on brand attitude, brand trust and consumers’ purchase intentions towards a brand (Kennedy et al., 2014, pp. 262-264). Finally, the fourth form, contrarian advertisements are advertisements created by consumers that are both in disagreement with a firm’s brand message while the underlying message in the advertisement is negative towards a firm’s brand. (Berthon et al., 2008, p. 15). However, the findings by Kennedy et al. (2014, pp. 262-264) indicate that contrarian advertisements have a significant positive impact on consumer’s attitude towards a brand, significant positive impact on a consumer’s trust towards a brand, and a significant positive impact on consumers’ purchase intentions. In this study we argue that the consumer-generated advertising that we focus to analyze on YouTube is considered concordant, due to the advertising of the consumer is built upon sponsorship, in which the consumer promotes a brand in exchange to lucrative support from the firm itself.

Furthermore, the positive impact of a consumer’s purchase intentions, that concordant and contrarian advertisements have on a brand, can be connected to the perceived credibility of those advertisements (Kennedy et al., 2014, p. 263). Both contrarian and concordant advertisements were perceived with a high credibility while when the credibility of source were perceived as uncertain, this impacted consumers’ purchase intentions of a brand negatively (Kennedy et al., 2014, pp. 263). The study by Kennedy et al. (2014, p. 264) further indicate that source credibility is a very important aspect when it comes to persuade the consumer and thus influencing a consumer’s purchase intentions positively. Moreover, previous research indicates that source effects have a significant impact in consumers’ evaluation of advertisements (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 154) while it also can have persuasive effects on consumers’ behavior (Hansen et al., 2014, p. 261).
Therefore, source credibility is an important concept to take in consideration when performing research on consumer-generated advertisements.

Coupon-deals have also been explored in regard to consumer-generated advertisements (Boon, 2013), hence coupon promotions in regard to consumer-generated advertisements is a theoretical aspect that also is interesting to take into account when forming the conceptual model for this thesis.

### 3.3 Endorser Credibility

Source credibility can be described as how a receiver accepts a message based on the positive characteristics of a communicator (Ohanian, 1990, p. 41). Opinions are more prone to change immediately in the direction of a communicator if it is presented by a source that is seen as trustworthy, compared to communication that is presented by a source that is not trustworthy (Hovland & Weiss, 1951, p. 650). Sources in the context of source credibility can be individuals, groups of individuals, and media (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 23). Since the description of sources in the context of source credibility include both individuals and media it can be argued that both YouTube as a media channel and the individuals which create the video-content on YouTube can be considered sources of information. Since the aim of this thesis is to examine the effects of consumer-generated advertisements, thus content made by consumers, the focus will lie on the well-known content creators on YouTube as sources of information in this thesis.

Hovland et al. (1953, p. 35) inform that trustworthiness and expertise are the two main components of the credibility of a communicator. Previous research, in the context of source credibility theories, has also focused on other components. Berlo et al. (1969) used the components; Dynamism, Safety and Qualifications. Whitehead (1968) used the components; Dynamism, Trustworthiness, Competence, and Objectivity. Moreover, in the context of endorsement credibility, Ohanian (1990, p. 49), described source credibility as a tri-component construct which includes the components; source attractiveness, source expertise and trustworthiness of source. This tri-component construct has also appeared in regard to endorser credibility in later research by for example La Ferle and Choi (2005), and thus there is a relevance to include this tri-component construct of endorser credibility and this in turn will be used when forming the conceptual model of this thesis.

Endorser attractiveness refers to the physical attractiveness of an endorser and takes into consideration how a consumer views the endorser as for instance beautiful or not (Ohanian, 1990, p. 49). Expertise refers to the degree in which the statements made by the communicator are perceived as valid (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 21; McCracken, 1989, p. 311). Characteristics of a communicator that can increase perceived expertise is age of the communicator that in turn gives an indication of experience (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 23). Moreover, the individual receiving the message can also perceive the communicator as an expert if the communicator shares similar lifestyle, values and interests as the communicator (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 23).

Trustworthiness refers to how much confidence there is in regard to the source intending to communicate statements that the communicator himself sees as valid (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 21; McCracken, 1989, p. 311). The communicator perceived motives are an
important aspect of perceived trustworthiness (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 23). If the communicator is perceived as having motives for the message and perceived of gaining in some way from communicating the message, the communicator will be perceived as less trustworthy (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 23). In a consumer-generated advertisement context, Steyn et al. (2011, p. 154) found the perceived motivation of creating a consumer-generated advertisement is related to how consumers evaluate the advertisement itself. If consumers know the motives behind creating the consumer-generated advertisement, consumers can evaluate the advertisement in a more critical manner (Steyn et al., 2011, p. 154). Hautz et al. (2014, p. 9) found that consumer-generated advertising in the form of videos gave higher degree of source credibility to consumers, and therefore stronger trustworthiness of the advertisement, than agency generated videos, that is advertising directly from the firm.

Previous research has found indirect and direct linkages between the perceived credibility of an endorser and attitude towards a brand. Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999, p. 113) found that there exists a significant main effect between endorser credibility and brand attitude. La Ferle and Choi (2005, p. 74) found both a direct and indirect positive relationship between endorser credibility and brand attitude. Goldsmith et al. (2000, p. 51) and Lafferty et al. (2002, p. 7), found an indirect positive relationship between endorser credibility and brand attitude. The indirect relationship between endorser credibility and brand attitude exist through the positive direct effect of endorser credibility and attitude towards the advertisement (Goldsmith et al., 2000, p. 51; La Ferle & Choi, 2005, p. 74; Lafferty et al., 2002, p. 7). Furthermore, the results from the study by Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999, p. 114) indicate that endorser credibility has a stronger effect on attitude towards the advertisement, while credibility of the firm has a stronger effect on brand attitude. Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999, p. 114) argued that these findings might stem from that the endorser have a stronger association with the advertisement itself, and the firm has a stronger association with the brand itself.

Furthermore, results from a study by Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) indicate endorser credibility have a positive significant effect on the credibility of a brand. There also exists an indirect positive relationship between endorser credibility and consumer-based brand equity (Spry et al., 2011, p. 898), which in turn include brand variables such as brand awareness and brand loyalty (Spry et al., 2011, p. 884) This in turn indicate that, even though, that celebrity endorsement does not improve consumer-based brand equity, it can do so indirectly through improving a brand’s credibility (Spry et al., 2011, p. 898).

The previous research by Lafferty & Goldsmith (1999), Goldsmith et al. (2000), La Ferle & Choi (2005), Lafferty et al. (2002), and Spry et al. (2011) indicate that linkages exists between endorser credibility and brand variables such as; brand awareness, brand attitude, brand credibility and brand loyalty.

3.4 Coupon Promotion

A business strategy for many firms to reach and attract new consumers has been an introduction of using coupons, as a discount oriented method in purchase, for their product or services (Kumar & Rajan, 2012, pp. 120-121) and due to the growth of Internet the strategy of implementing coupons online is today common as well (Cheng & Dogan, 2008, p. 607).
The concept of using price promotion is viewed as a business strategy in which gain a broader, more long run value towards its customer (Kumar & Rajan, 2012, p. 135). On Internet for example, using coupons to attract consumers is often related to deals in which consumers register a profile on websites or purchase in a specific way, which leads to the firm gaining information from the individual consumer (Cheng & Dogan, 2008, pp. 607, 618). A function that benefits firms’ performance by implementing a coupon strategy is that they could separate consumer segments, focusing on providing coupons in advertising for consumers who are lower fit costly and keep or even increase the price for consumers who would buy the brand anyway (Cheng & Dogan, 2008, p. 618). However, all coupons do not function in the exact same way and can therefore differ in performance on the market after implementation (Kumar & Rajan, 2012, pp. 125-127). Social couponing, a coupon code delivered on social networks which often demand some form of promotion towards the brand for the consumer to be able to use it, may be both easy and cheap to implement by a firm but could often lead to a shortfall in income in a short-term perspective due to the attracting discount many consumers achieve when entering the firm’s consumer segment (Kumar & Rajan, 2012, pp. 125-127).

Using coupons as a tool for more than only face value discounts but also to personalize the offer to the consumer is what firm should aim to benefit in performance (Kumar & Rajan, 2012, p. 135; Cheng & Dogan, 2008, p. 618; Wierich & Zielke, 2012, p. 710). While it could differ depending on which sector on the market the coupon is established in, consumer often receive certain emotions by coupon offerings leading up to a behavior of loyalty towards the brand (Wierich & Zielke, 2012, pp. 710, 712). To utilize the value of a couponing strategy the firm need to consider how considerable the discount should be for greatest effect, since it could affect the influence of attachment to loyal customers but it is also shown that if the coupon offering is well received by the customer, as being a personalized gift from the firm, a loyalty towards the brand could occur without the customer even using the coupon in the first place (Wierich & Zielke, 2012, p. 712).

In regards to Web 2.0, consumer-generated videos focusing on promoting and discussing these types of offerings has grown and a trend to spread the word on social media are nowadays more common than before (Boon, 2013, p. 843). The videos are often the same, following the structure of a person talking directly towards the camera about the offerings they found on social media or on the websites and therefore share the knowledge in the form of instruction on how to find these offerings, such as social coupons, to his or her viewers (Boon, 2013, p. 847). While there are several consumers who only see coupon discounts as a monetary efficient method (Boon, 2013, p. 848) the offerings due tend to influence consumers’ cognitive behaviors in purchase intentions (Wierich & Zielke, 2012, pp. 712-713) hence could have positive effects on consumers’ attitude in general for the advertising method, showing signs of motivation for buying deals (Boon, 2013, pp. 847-848). However, some discount deals could lead to negative attitudes in which the offering was beneficial in a monetary perspective but the product or service was overall received as in poor quality or the offering in general made the consumer feel cheap when using the discount (Boon, 2013, p. 847).

Considering coupon promotion, the concept of the coupon proneness has been taken in consideration in previous research by Lichtenstein et al. (1990), Yi and Yoo (2011), and Bhardwaj et al. (2015). Lichtenstein et al. (1990, p. 56) described coupon proneness as the increased tendency for a consumer’s purchase evaluations to be positively affected by the form of purchase or coupon offered in regard to the purchase. Empirical evidence
from previous research indicates linkages between the coupon prone consumer and brand attitude (Yi & Yoo, 2011, p. 892). Moreover, recent research has found empirical evidence that indicate linkages between the coupon prone consumer and brand trust (Bhardwaj et al., 2015, p. 205). Finally, empirical evidence from previous research by Cassia et al (2015, pp. 1609-1610) indicate that linkages exists between coupon promotion in general and brand awareness.

3.5 Branding Outcomes

A brand refers to a firm’s identification, word or symbol, or sometimes a combination of them all, which makes it possible to separate one organization’s product or services from other products or services on the market and the term is often referred to a name or a trademark (Imber & Toffler, 2000, p. 68). Within the context of consumer-generated advertising, as well as endorser credibility and coupon promotion, several branding outcomes have been explored.

When conducting our literature search, we saw a lack of branding outcomes in previous studies which regard consumer-generated advertising. Also, while linkage between endorser credibility and brand variables has been studied by Lafferty & Goldsmith (1999), Goldsmith et al. (2000), La Ferle & Choi (2005), Lafferty et al. (2002), and Spry et al. (2011), none of them has done so in a situation in which the endorser is a content creator and the context is YouTube. The same lack of theoretical knowledge exists with coupon proneness as well. Even though Wierich & Zielke, (2012, pp. 710, 712) found that a loyalty from the consumer could occur when implementing coupon offerings for a brand, and according to Bhardwaj et al. (2015, p. 205) a linkage between coupon prone consumers and brand trust has been found, a significant lack of research between coupon prone consumers and its effects on branding outcomes are clear, especially if we take the YouTube context into consideration.

We can therefore argue that almost all brand variables can be explored as outcomes in this context to gain further theoretical contribution to this field of research since a knowledge gap is clear. However, we chose these branding outcomes based upon two motives. First of all, we used the branding outcomes which have been discussed most within the previous research of consumer-generated advertising, which function as the context of this thesis, and also endorser credibility and coupon proneness, which are used as the antecedents of the conceptual model we have conducted. The most occurring variables are the ones which act as the outcomes in this particular thesis and when analyzing the previous literature of consumer-generated advertisement we can argue that some variables are more relevant than others.

Furthermore, the second motives for these branding outcomes are based upon the found relationships with the context and antecedents of our thesis and the variable brand equity. We discovered in our research that Christodoulides (2012, p. 61) argue that consumer based brand equity have a relationship with consumer-generated content and can increase for consumers when used by firms, and also Spry et al. (2011, pp. 884, 898) who found that there exists an indirect positive relationship between endorser credibility and consumer-based brand equity which in turn include brand variables such as brand awareness and brand loyalty. Keller (2008, p. 54) argue that brand awareness is an important component of brand equity but since Spry et al, (2011, p. 884) also saw a
relationship with brand equity and brand loyalty, we explored loyalty as a component as well and found a positive linkage with brand awareness (Yoo et al., 2000, p. 205), brand attitude (Thomson et al., 2005, p. 86), and brand trust (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001, p. 89). We therefore saw fit that by looking at all branding variables, loyalty would be the final outcome and would be measured with other relevant branding outcomes that are related with the antecedents.

The branding outcomes presented in this thesis are therefore; brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust, which all will be measured towards brand loyalty.

3.5.1 Brand Awareness

Brand awareness, the ability of a consumer to recall and have knowledge of a brand (Keller, 1993, p. 3; Keller, 2008, p. 54). Brand recognition refers to the ability that a consumer has to recognize a brand from prior exposure to the brand, and brand recall refers to the ability that a consumer has to recall a brand when given cues such as a product category (Keller, 1993, p. 3). Moreover, brand awareness is an important component to take into consideration within firms (Huang & Sarigollu, 2012, p. 93) and this is due to the consumer recognition of a brand have a positive correlation with consumer preference and overall market performance (Huang & Sarigollu, 2012, p. 93, 97).

Furthermore, the concept of brand awareness can be connected to the likelihood that a consumer is able to recognize that a brand exists and brand awareness can have a key role in the promotion aspect of a product or service (Barreda et al, 2015, p. 607). The main goal of establishing brand awareness by a firm is simply to create an understanding for the target market that a specific brand exists, and is therefore the first step for potential sales (Imber & Toffler, 2000, p. 69). Nevertheless, while being the first step, just creating brand awareness could alone be enough effort for selling a product or service (Imber & Toffler, 2000, p. 69; Huang & Sarigollu, 2012, p. 93, 97).

Prior findings of the subject have indicated an importance of brand awareness, and research has been made to come to an understanding what affects brand awareness within a consumer’s mind has on their process of purchase decision-making (Huang & Sarigollu, 2012, p. 98). Furthermore, it has been shown that brand awareness plays a key role in a consumer decision making, since it simplifies the process of choosing a preferable brand (Huang & Sarigollu, 2012, pp. 98-99). It has also been shown that recognizing a brand and the brand’s market performance has a positive correlation and can also be generalized in all sectors, verifying the value for a firm’s potential performance if their consumers are informed of their products and services (Homburg et al., 2010, p 208-209). While brand awareness only refers to the concept of recognition and top of mind recall of certain brand, but not exactly positive nor negative attitudes one might have of a brand, it has still been shown that being able to recognize a brand and be aware of its content is positively linked to brand equity (Huang & Sarigollu, 2012, p. 96).

Advertising for brands in a broad-spectrum has been done on social media, where content within social network sites as Facebook has especially been a key channel for firms to establish greater brand awareness (Langaro et al., 2015, pp. 1-2). Facebook has been a useful tool for creating an interaction between consumers and firms as well as updating
current customers with news and other knowledge of a brand (Langaro et al., 2015, p. 5). Moreover, Barreda et al., (2015), found that brand awareness created from online sites is a powerful instrument for firm if they have interest in creating a greater spread of knowledge of brand, in the form of word-of-mouth (Barreda et al., 2015, pp. 606-607), which in turn is an important information source for consumers’ when making purchasing decisions (Imber & Toffler, 2000, p. 585). Barreda et al. (2015, p. 607) determined that using social network sites can often have greater potential for consumer awareness of a brand but also sharing opinions by word-of-mouth, due to the capability of an interactive setting in the Web 2.0 can offer, further emphasizing that firms should aim to create a strong environment for encouraging interaction when position their advertisement online.

Previous research by Langaro et al. (2015, p. 15) has found a significant positive effect between brand page participation and brand awareness. Additionally, findings in previous research indicate that social networking sites such as Facebook and YouTube are effective in creating brand awareness (Barreda et al, 2015, pp. 606-607). Additionally, connecting the concept of brand awareness further and with endorser credibility, a study by Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) indicate that there is an indirect positive relationship between endorser credibility and consumer-based brand equity (Spry et al., 2011, p. 898), which in turn include brand variables such as brand awareness. Therefore, even though only an indirect relationship were found in the study of Spry et al. (2011), it can still be argued that a positive relationship exists between the credibility of an endorser in a consumer-generated advertisement and brand awareness. Though, with more empirical evidence that social networking site as YouTube, can increase brand awareness and evidence that endorser credibility can enhance brand awareness, this has led to the following hypotheses:

\( H_{1a} \): Endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

\( H_{1b} \): Endorser expertise has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

\( H_{1c} \): Endorser trustworthiness has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

Cassia et al. (2015, pp. 1609-1610) found that high discount couponing increase brand awareness for consumers. Therefore, based on the empirical evidence from Cassia et al. (2015) we hypothesize that a positive effect between coupon proneness and brand awareness can exist, hence, hypothesis \( H_{1d} \) will be stated as below:

\( H_{1d} \): Coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code
3.5.2 Brand Attitude

Brand attitude refers to what a consumer thinks and believes about a certain product or a service, exploring the consumer’s preferences of what they need and want from a specific product or service, making it important for firms to study when planning marketing campaigns (Imber & Toffler, 2000, p. 68). Exploring value driven factors in the advertising is efficient to build stronger brand attitude and to use concepts such as sponsorship, sales promotion and cause-related marketing is beneficial to increase a consumer’s purchase behavior (Westberg & Pope, 2014, pp. 421-422, 429-431). Moreover, in regard to Internet advertising, the overall general attitude toward Internet advertising have a significant effect on attitude towards a brand (Lee & Miller, 2006, p. 350) and brand attitudes forming through Internet advertising, such as pop-up ads, can be formed differently depending on effects of implicit memory (Courbet et al., 2014, pp. 286-287).

The concept of brand attitude can also be related to the level of involvement a consumer has with the message presented in an advertisement (Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1999; Rice et al., 2012; Lee & Miller, 2006). The forming of brand attitudes has been connected to the elaboration likelihood model (ELM model) in previous research (such as Kokkinaki & Lunt 1999 and Rice et al., 2012), which was introduced in 1981 by Petty and Cacioppo (Kitchen et al., 2014, p. 2039). The model indicates that if the information in the advertising message is persuasive, this can affect attitudes in a favorable manner (Petty et al., 1983, p. 138). However, if the information is not persuasive and rather deceptive, this can affect attitudes in an unfavorable manner (Petty et al., 1983, p. 138). Consumers response on being deceived and the affection towards their brand attitude could differ dependent on individual, product type and what harm it could give the consumer (Xie et al., 2015, pp. 289-290). Additionally, individuals that are receiving the message under high-involvement condition “may scrutinize the product-relevant information presented in an advertisement” (Petty et al., 1983, p. 138). On the other hand, if an individual receives a message under low-involvement conditions, the individual will not focus on the information and arguments related to the product (Petty et al., 1983, p. 138). Instead, the individual focus on the characteristics of the endorser of the product such as the endorser’s prestige, attractiveness and credibility (Petty et al., 1983, p. 138).

In the context of brand attitude, Kokkinaki and Lunt (1999, p. 49) found that advertising messages that are exposed to consumer’s during high involvement conditions can result in a faster recognition of consumers’ owns attitudes towards a band. In the context of different involvement conditions and celebrity endorsements, Rice et al., (2012, p. 256) found that under high involvement conditions, determinants such as message repetition had a significant effect on brand attitudes, while determinants such as message repetition did not have a significant effect on brand attitudes under low-involvement conditions. In the context of Internet advertising and different involvement conditions, Lee and Miller (2006, pp. 349-350) found that involvement conditions had a significant effect on the attitude towards a brand.

In the context of endorser credibility and brand attitude, Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999, p. 113) found that there exists a significant effect between endorser credibility and brand attitude. La Ferle and Choi (2005, p. 74) found both a direct and indirect relationship
between endorser credibility and brand attitude. Goldsmith et al. (2000, p. 51) and Lafferty et al. (2002, p. 7), found an indirect positive relationship between endorser credibility and brand attitude. The indirect relationship between endorser credibility and brand attitude exist through the positive direct effect of endorser credibility and attitude towards the advertisement (Goldsmith et al., 2000, p. 51; La Ferle & Choi, 2005, p. 74; Lafferty et al., 2002, p. 7). However, previous research in a consumer-generated advertisement context has also found contrary results. Hansen et al. (2014, p. 261) found that even though consumer-generated advertisements can increase a positive attitude towards the advertisement itself, this is not automatically transferred to a positive attitude towards a brand. However, with more evidence in previous research that imply that a positive relationship between endorser credibility and brand attitude exists, this has led to the following hypotheses.

\( H_{2a} : \) Endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

\( H_{2b} : \) Endorser expertise has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

\( H_{2c} : \) Endorser trustworthiness has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

In the context of coupon promotion in consumer-generated advertisements Boon (2013, p. 847) found connections between promotional offerings and attitude towards the brand, in which the attitude could differ from positive to negative dependent on which offering the brand provided. Moreover, empirical evidence from the study by Yi and Yoo (2011, p. 892) indicate that coupon promotion can have a favorable effect on brand attitudes in regard to coupon prone consumers. Therefore, \( H_{2d} \) will be stated as below:

\( H_{2d} : \) Coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

### 3.5.3 Brand Trust

Brand trust refers to the consumer’s conscious inclination in which the individual places a confidence towards a brand’s quality or attributes when the situation can be considered to entail risk for the consumer itself (Chung, 2012, p. 25). Brand trust can be divided into three dimensions; honesty, reliability and altruism (Albert & Merunka, 2013, p. 259). The dimension of honesty refers to the consumer’s acknowledgement that a brand has fair motivations (Albert & Merunka, 2013, p. 259). The dimension of reliability refers to a consumer’s acknowledgment that brand withhold expertise (Albert & Merunka, 2013, p. 259). Altruism refers to the consumer’s acknowledgment that a brand takes the interest of the consumer into consideration. (Albert & Merunka, 2013, p. 259). One component of brand trust is also brand credibility, that is, the level of beliefs a consumer has on a specific brand to be able to deliver what its marketing promise, which gives the consumer a hope of higher quality, less perceived risk and also less information cost (Erdem et al., 2006, p. 34).
Previous research has found that brand trust can have a direct significant positive effect on brand love, which refers to the high level of trust and loyalty towards a brand, while brand trust both can have a direct significant positive effect on brand commitment (Albert & Merunka, 2013, pp. 262-263). Moreover, an indirect significant positive effect also has been found between brand trust and brand commitment, since there is a direct positive effect between the love of a brand and brand commitment as well (Albert & Merunka, 2013, pp. 262-263). Previous research thus indicate that brand trust have a positive effect on the love and commitment a consumer feels toward a brand, which in turn can foster a long-term relationship between the consumer and the brand (Albert & Merunka, 2013, pp. 262-263). This is therefore an essential variable to measure if one wants to understand the significance of a brand in the eyes of a consumer. Additionally, brand trust can have a positive effect on purchase loyalty and market share (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001, p. 89). Previous research by Albert and Merunka (2013) and Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) thus indicate that there are several positive of effects for a brand to gain trust from consumers.

The trust from a consumer towards a brand is often gain by the shown quality of a product or the characteristics from a service provided by the firm which creates customer satisfaction, providing a relation between the two counterparts in which customer loyalty is established (Alhabeeb, 2007, p. 609). The value given towards the consumer are split in two levels, where the brand trust could be given to a single product if it lives up to the consumer’s requirement but also a trustworthiness for the firm as a whole if the consumer reach a satisfaction which has a long term value for committing a relationship with the brand, in the form of brand loyalty (Alhabeeb, 2007, pp. 610-611).

In regard to building brand trust online, community building on social media has been an important marketing strategy (Habibi et al., 2014, p. 158) and the concept of brand communities can have positive relationship with brand trust (Matzler et al., 2011, pp. 884-886). Brand communities within the aspect of social media have changed the game of on how firms integrate with consumers and today engaging consumers do not only have the ability to integrate with one another in an easy manner while being able to spread a brand message all over channels on social media thus fostering brand trust for new consumers (Habibi et al., 2014, pp. 158-159). However, consumers in this digital age tend to often do an information search to confirm the message of the product or service before they gain brand trust and this can still apply to brands the consumer are already very familiar with (Lee et al., 2011, pp. 369-370). Also, even though fostering brand trust on social media can be considered easier than before, less control exists, and there is also a possibility that consumers can spread negative attitudes towards the brand in general, harming the image of the brand without the firm’s ability to do anything to prevent it (Habibi et al., 2014, p. 159). YouTube can be considered an online community (Rotman & Preece, 2010, p. 320), and thus it can be argued that community building can be made at YouTube as a platform. With this conclusion in mind, video-content on YouTube might be able to foster brand communities, and in turn have an effect on brand trust.

Moreover, in a consumer-generated advertisement context, Kennedy et al. (2014) found significant effects between different types of consumer-generated advertisements and brand trust. Even though the aim of this thesis is not to investigate different type of
advertisements, it can still be argued that significant effects between consumer-generated advertisement and trust towards a brand exist. Moreover, in the context of endorser credibility, Dwivedi and Johnson (2013, p. 40) found a direct positive relationship with endorser credibility and brand trust. Finally, the results from the study by Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) indicate endorser credibility have a positive significant effect on the credibility of a brand. Therefore, the following hypotheses are stated as followed:

**H₃a**: Endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

**H₃b**: Endorser expertise has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

**H₃c**: Endorser trustworthiness has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

In the context of coupon promotion, Luk and Yip (2008, p. 461) found positive linkages between price promotion and brand trust. Moreover, empirical evidence from previous research by Bhardwaj et al. (2015, p. 205) indicate that there is a positive effect of coupon proneness on brand trust, hence H₃d is stated as below:

**H₃d**: Coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code

### 3.5.4 Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty can be considered a key tool, in a highly competitive environment, to foster long-term relationship with consumer (Zheng et al., 2015, p. 95). The description of the concept brand loyalty can be referred to a biased purchase behavior during the evaluating part of the decision making process, that is made over time by one individual or more, and regard one or several brands out of a set of brands (Jacoby & Kyner, 1973, p. 2). Moreover, a consumer who repeatedly purchase a product or service from a specific brand, due to strong brand attitude and brand trust and credibility, have reached the degree of brand loyalty which is almost always the optimal scenario a firm desire from their consumer (Imber & Toffler, 2000, p. 70).

Brand loyalty has been connected to customer satisfaction in previous research (for example Bloemer & Kasper, 1995). Bloemer and Kasper (1995, p. 323) found that brand loyalty can be affected differently by customer satisfaction, depending on the type of satisfaction; manifest satisfaction or latent satisfaction. Manifest satisfaction refers to when a consumer evaluates the brand in a positive and explicit manner, which in turn foster brand commitment (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995, p. 316). Latent satisfaction refers the evaluation of a brand choice itself and refers to more an acceptance of a brand, rather than commitment towards a brand (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995, p. 316). Both manifest satisfaction and latent satisfaction lead to brand loyalty, however manifest satisfaction has a greater effect on brand loyalty, than latent satisfaction (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995, p. 323).
Brand loyalty has also been connected to brand communities online in previous research (like Hsieh, 2015, Zheng et al., 2015). In regard to social media site, user engagement has been a cause for developing brand loyalty in social platforms online (Zheng et al., 2015, pp. 99-100). Moreover, firms’ have can enhance their marketing strategies, adapting their marketing to the social networking sites in a goal to build a stronger brand and enhance brand loyalty of their consumer segment (Zheng et al., 2015, p. 99). Findings in the study by Chang et al. (2013, pp. 498-500) also indicate that consumers in brand communities are prone to resist to negative word-of-mouth online.

Yoo et al. (2000, p. 205) found that brand awareness and brand loyalty are positively related. Moreover, the results in a study by Thomson et al. (2005, p. 86) indicate a positive relationship between attitude towards a brand and brand loyalty. Finally, results from the study by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001, p. 89) indicate that brand trust has a positive effect on brand loyalty. Hence, we will test the following hypotheses regarding brand loyalty.

\[ H_{4a} : \text{Brand awareness has a positive effect on brand loyalty in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code} \]

\[ H_{4b} : \text{Brand attitude has a positive effect on brand loyalty in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code} \]

\[ H_{4c} : \text{Brand trust has a positive effect on brand loyalty in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code} \]
3.6 Conceptual Model

Based on the theoretical framework of this thesis we have created the following conceptual model (Figure 1). The conceptual model includes the variables endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness, which will be measured towards the branding outcomes brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. These branding outcomes will also be measured towards the branding outcome brand loyalty.

![Figure 1: Conceptual Model](image-url)
4. Practical Methodology

In this chapter we will explain and present means of data collection for this study. This chapter therefore explains sample technique and how the survey was conducted. We also include a discussion regarding ethical considerations. This chapter ends with the chosen means of data analysis.

4.1 Sample Technique

4.1.1 Population and Sampling Frame

A sample can be considered a subset of a population and before deciding on a particular sample (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 150). It is also important to have an idea of the population itself and thus be able to define the population before drawing a sample (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 150; Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, pp. 322-323). When defining the population in a study, the first step is to define the units of the population, that is, if the units in the populations are individuals, households and so forth (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 151). Since this study aim to examine the effects of consumers’ view of endorser credibility and consumers’ coupon proneness on branding outcomes, the units in the population can be considered individuals.

After deciding the type units of in the populations, the next step is to decide which criterions the population should be based on (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 151). These criterions that can be considered are age, geographic location and other variables important in the context of the study (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 151). In this study we aim to explore the phenomenon of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. Therefore, one criterion that will serve as a foundation when defining the population, is that it should include individuals which have an experience with watching video content which include consumer-generated advertisements, on YouTube. Another criterion that we have taken into consideration when defining the population is the criteria of age. To follow ethical guidelines, as discussed in chapter 4.4, children and youth will not be included in the population for this study, thus individuals under 18-years of age will not be included in the population. Therefore, to summarize, the population in regard to this study is individuals, who are 18 years of age or older, and have an experience of watching video content on YouTube, including consumer-generated advertisements. The second step when selecting a sample is to identify the sampling frame, which is “the listing of the elements from which the actual sample is drawn” (Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, p. 324). One example of a sampling frame is telephone book for a population that includes all individuals in a particular area (Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, p. 324). The population chosen for this study is individuals, which are older than 18 and have an experience of watching video content on YouTube. Based on the description of what a sampling frame is by Gilbert and Dawn (2005, p. 324), we have concluded the viewers of YouTube channels on YouTube as a sampling frame.

For the sample to be as representative as possible to the population and to the chosen sampling frame for this study we concluded that the best way is to reach these individuals from YouTube as a platform itself. To do this we sent an e-mail to 10 content creators on YouTube who had between 20 000-120 000 subscribers. In the e-mail we gave a short presentation of ourselves together with the purpose of the study, asking if it was possible if they could post the link to the survey in the description box under one of their videos.
We also gave a suggestion if this was not possible, if we could link the survey in the comment section of one or more videos. One content creator on YouTube, with about 50,000 subscribers on his channel, emailed back and informed that he could link the video to in the description box one of his videos while talking about it in one video as well.

4.1.2 Sampling Procedure

The third step in selecting a sample procedure, which can entail either a probability sample or a nonprobability sample (Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, p. 324). Probability is a sample where the sample is selected based on random sampling techniques (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 176) and is connected to quantitative collection techniques that are analyzed through statistical methods (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 262). Probability sample also entails that each individual in the population “has a known, nonzero chance of being included in the sample” (Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, p. 324). However, these probabilities do not need to be equal for all individuals included in the population (Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, p. 324). On the other hand, nonprobability samples are based on judgment and this entails that ensuring that the sample is representative in regard to the population (Gilbert & Dawn, 2005, p. 324) and is more appropriate when statistical inference does not need to be conducted from the data collected (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 282).

Since we are conducting a quantitative research using a survey as a data collection method, probability sampling is the most suitable option. Moreover, we also see that it is important to make sure that sample is representative in regard to the population, hence nonprobability sampling is not suitable when collecting data for this study. Therefore, probability sampling will be used when collecting data through surveys.

One type of probability sampling is cluster sampling where the population is divided into groups, so called clusters (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 278-279). Clusters are then chosen using a random sampling technique and the sample will then be all individuals in the cluster, or clusters, which have been chosen (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 278-279). Furthermore, cluster sampling which is conducted using two or more stage, can be described as multi-stage sampling (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 279). We argue that by administer the survey through one YouTube channel can be seen as a form of multi-stage sampling, where the YouTube channels are seen as clusters in the first stage, and the videos where the survey is linked can be considered as the second stage. Moreover, the viewers of the YouTube channel, where the link is posted, can be considered as the sample selected.

However, multi-stage sampling requires that cluster which is selected, is selected on random at all stages (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 279). By emailing different YouTube channels and choosing the YouTube channels based on if the YouTube content creator agreed to link the survey cannot be considered a random sampling technique. Rather we see it as a form of convenience sample, that is, a sample which is according to Saunders et al. (2012, p. 291) where sampling is based on availability. The two videos, where the survey is linked, cannot be regarded as a probability sampling as well, rather also a convenience sample. Therefore, the sampling technique for this study cannot be regarded a coherent with multi-stage sampling.

Though, since we see that the viewers of the YouTube channel, where the link is posted, have a non-zero equal chance to participate in the survey, it fits the description of a probability sampling technique by Gilbert and Dawn (2005, p. 324). Therefore, what we
have concluded is that the form of sampling technique that is conducted is a form of multi-stage sampling where the two stages of sampling involves a non-probability sampling technique but where the actual distribution of the survey to population units can be regarded as a probability sampling technique since all participants have a non-zero equal chance to participate in the study. Hence, the sampling technique that we conduct when selecting a sample is a probability sampling technique.

Moreover, in accordance with a probability sampling technique, a response rate should be calculated (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 267-268). We see that this is possible with the chosen sampling technique as we can use the views of the two videos, where the link is posted, to calculate a response rate. Hence we argue that the sampling technique chosen can be considered as probability sampling.

4.2 Survey Design

4.2.1 Introduction of the Survey and Demographical Questions
Rossi et al. (1983, p. 219) informs that the introduction of a survey should include for whom it regards and what the survey is about. Therefore, the introduction of the survey includes information about who we are, the purpose of the study and that the survey regard sponsored videos on YouTube which include a coupon code. Moreover, the questions should be designed in a way so it captures to what is being measured in regard to research objectives while keeping it in an uncomplicated way (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 200). This is something we have taken into account when designing the questions, but also the introduction of the survey includes a description to what we mean in regard to sponsored videos which include coupon code, this to make the respondents understand the questions in an overall easier manner. The introduction also includes the information that the respondents are anonymous, that participating is voluntarily, and information about the lottery of two movie tickets, that the survey will take approximately five minutes, and the closing date. This to follow the ethical recommendations, as discussed in chapter 4.4. In regard to the introduction in general, Rossi et al. (1983, p. 219) inform that the information should be brief and not too long. Therefore, we have focused on keeping the information in the introduction as brief and simple as possible, without withholding important information.

The survey also is introduced by the question “Are you 18 or older”. If the participants are under 18 and ticked the box “no”, they will automatically be moved to a separate section which inform the participants that the survey only allows individuals of 18 years of age or older to participate and that they are not able to participate in the study. This to follow ethical recommendations regarding children as eventual participants, as discussed in chapter 4.4.

Demographical questions that are included in the survey are; gender, age, and time spent watching YouTube on a weekly basis. Rossi et al. (1983, p. 218) informs that it is recommended that demographical questions are coherent with the census. Therefore, we have formed the question with this in mind. In regard to age we divided the possible answers into six age groups; 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and >65. The age groups chosen for this question were based on the recommendation from Rossi et al. (1983, p. 218) that the age groups such as 25-34 and 35-44, are usually coherent with the census.
Moreover, these age groups have also been used in a previous report by Findahl and Davidsson (2015, pp. 64-65), which examine the usage of YouTube as an online community, hence we have concluded that age groups chosen for the survey is relevant.

4.2.2 Formulating the Survey Questions
A well-designed survey should be coherent with the research objectives (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 201). When designing the survey questions, we based the questions on constructs from previous research. Therefore, the questions are based on the conceptual model and thus related to the research objectives. Since the survey was distributed through a Swedish YouTube channel the questions were written in Swedish.

To measure the constructs of trustworthiness, expertise, and attractiveness, we based the questions on constructs by Ohanian (1990). To measure the variable coupon proneness, we based the questions on constructs by Lichtenstein et al. (1990). To measure the variable brand awareness, we based the questions on previous research by Spry et al. (2013). To measure the variable brand attitude, we based the questions on previous research by La Ferle and Choi (2005). To measure the variable brand trust and brand loyalty we based the questions on previous research by Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003). (Appendix 2).

Likert scale is an instrument for measuring attitudes (Summers, 1971, p. 149). One way of using Likert scale is the Sigma method, which ranges from strongly approve to strongly disapprove and this method is analyzed by converting the proportion of respondents which checked a specific answer to sigma values (Summers, 1971, p. 149). However, there is a simpler method which include giving statements values from 1-5 or to 1-7 and analyzing the respondents answer from calculating a mean score and gives similar results to the sigma method (Summers, 1971, pp. 154-155). Consequently, since it gives us a simpler way of analyzing the data from the respondents, this simpler technique will be used when constructing the questions. Moreover, a 7-point Likert scale is used when creating the survey.

When considering the formulation of questions, we have considered several issues. Firstly, it is important that questions are not too complicated as questions with too much complexity as complex questions can result in misunderstandings and vague answers, and hence it is important to ask questions which are easy and clear to understand (Flick, 2015, p. 134). With this in mind we have focused on translating the questions in an easy manner, without the risking losing the function of the question asked. Secondly, when conducting a survey, questions which are multidimensional in character, that is, including both “how” and “when”, is something should be avoided, since respondents might but different weights on the dimensions within the questions when answering the question (Flick, 2015, p. 134). This is an issue we have simply avoid when conducting the survey for this study since no questions in the survey are multidimensional in character. Thirdly, questions with bias is also something that is important to avoid when conducting a survey, that is, questions that can lead towards a specific answer (Flick, 2015, p. 134). To avoid an issue with questions of bias we have avoided creating questions which can lead to a specific answer.

The full survey guide can be found in Appendix 2.
4.2.3 Pre-test and Feedback from Pre-test

We pre-tested the survey the 17th of March. Rossi et al. (1983, pp. 225-227) inform that two or more interviews should be within a pre-test and between 10-12 interviews can be sufficient to see if any information need to be added or withdrawn from the survey. The survey was pre-tested were on 10 individuals. Rossi et al. (1983, p. 226) that the sample for the pre-test does not have to be a probability sampling, however it should not be a convenience sample either. When doing the pre-test, we used a purposive sampling technique and chose individuals which had an experience of watching video content on YouTube and therefore. By using this sampling technique for the pre-test we have concluded that we have avoided the issue of convenience sampling. The sample should also be somewhat representable in terms of variables like gender (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 226). Therefore, to make the sample as representative as possible we included respondents of both gender.

After the respondents completed the survey for the pre-test we asked them if any questions were difficult to understand, and if other issues arose while doing the survey. After receiving feedback after the pre-test we changed wording so the participants understood the context in which the questions regarded. Some wording was also changed so the respondents would be able to understand the questions more clearly. Furthermore, we also changed wording so the questions were more specific in nature, for example, instead of using the word “brands”, we used the wording “a brand in general”. One way to make the survey questions more specific would be to post a video on the survey and adapt the questions to a specific video that includes a specific content creator and brand. However, we cannot ensure that a potential participant in the survey is not the same individual, who the questions regard. Because of this risk we have decided not to specify the questions as it could harm participants in the study, as discussed in chapter 4.4.

Participants from the pre-test react on a couple of long questions. According to Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 256) long questions are important to avoid. After the pre-test we shortened these long questions by introducing the concept of similar questions in one page and then asking the questions in a simpler and shorter way. A few participants informed that one of the pages was too long to scroll down, and this was also automatically solved by shortening the some of the questions since this divided the survey into more pages automatically. Finally, some of the respondents of the pre-test informed that some of the questions were similar. However, the questions that were similar regard constructs that comes from theory. Moreover, having more than one question per construct would allow to use Cronbach's alpha, which according to Saunders et al. (2012, p. 430) is a reliability measure. Therefore, we decided not to remove these questions even though they may be considered repetitive.
4.2.4 Response Rate
The survey was linked in the description box of one video the 8th of April. The 9th of April, the survey was also linked in the description box in another video, while the content creator on YouTube also talked about the survey during that video. The survey closed at 21:00 the 12th of April and received 500 responses. The two videos had together a total of 17892 views.

The total response rate can be calculated as total number of respondents divided by total number in sample minus ineligible responses (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 268). We calculated the total response rate by total number of responses divided by total amount of views for the two videos where the survey was linked. This resulted in a total response rate of \((500/17892) \times 100 \approx 3\%\).

A response rate of 3\% is rather low. Low response rate can cause that data collected will be biased (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 267) and hence this is something that we will take into consideration. Though, a low response rate does not indicate that the sample is biased, rather there is an increased risk of bias when the response rate is low (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 267). Respondents who have agreed to participate in the survey are all individuals, over 18 years old and have an experience in watching video content on YouTube, as the survey is linked on YouTube. Therefore, we see that the 500 respondents, who have participated in the survey, are representative to the population and this in turn indicates that the collected data is unbiased. Moreover, we also see that individuals can view individual YouTube videos several times. Therefore, since the response rate is based on amount of views, this might be a factor to why the response rate is low. Finally, the low response rate can be a consequence of the age limit, that is that participants have to be 18 years of age or older. There might therefore be a possibility that some individuals who have watched the videos, where the survey is linked, were under 18 years of age and hence this led to a lower response rate.

4.3 Quantitative Data Analysis
To analyze the collected data, the data has been exported to an excel sheet and in turn imported into RStudio. RStudio is a statistical software package that uses open source statistical language, which in turn can be used as a tool to make sense of data (RStudio, 2016). Using RStudio as a tool to analyze the data collected will allow us to calculate and present Cronbach’s Alpha and descriptive statistics. RStudio will also allow us to verify and falsify the chosen hypotheses in this thesis through multiple regression analyses.

4.3.1 Cronbach’s Alpha
The observed value when collected data have a value that is true, and a value that is false (Patel & Davidson, 2011, p. 103). The value which is false is related to how the data has been collected, and in regard to Likert scales there are statistical means of calculating reliability (Patel & Davidson, 2011, pp. 103-14). Moreover, reliability of measures concerns how robust the survey is and if the questions in the survey can generate results that is consistent (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 430). One measure related to the reliability in quantitative survey is the measure of equivalence (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 85). The measure of equivalence can be considered as a test-retest where for example two items are the same in regard to the true score, that is should give the same result (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 85). The most popular technique to measure equivalence and hence reliability of measure
is Cronbach’s Alpha (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 86; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 430). Moreover, Cronbach’s Alpha is a way of testing the internal reliability of a study (Bryman & Bell, 2011, pp. 158-159). To measure reliability of constructs, the Cronbach’s Alpha will therefore be used in this thesis.

The alpha coefficient has a value between 0 and 1 and a coefficient (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 430). Moreover, a value over 0.7 indicates that the questions of a construct give coherent results, and thus indicate a reliability of measures (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 430-431). However, Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 159) also informs that 0.8 can be considered a relevant rule of thumb when interpreting the Cronbach’s Alpha. Though, Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 159) also informs that researchers can use a rule of thumb that is less than 0.8, hence we will use 0.7 as a relevant rule of thumb when using Cronbach’s Alpha.

4.3.2 Descriptive Statistics
Descriptive statistics can help describe the data collected and include numerical statistics such as mean, median and standard deviation (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 503-504). The mean and the median can help explain central tendency of the data (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 503). Mean is the statistic which represents the average of all data values (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 504). The mean is calculated by adding all values of a particular measurement and then dividing it with the total number of that particular measurement (Remenyi et al., 2005, p. 210). The median is a statistic which regards the middle value of data values (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 504). The median is the value which falls in the middle of all values in a data set in regard to a particular variable and the median have an advantage over the mean in case the data includes outliers (Remenyi et al., 2005, p. 211). Since we see advantages of both presenting mean and the median in descriptive statistics, both of these statistics will be used in regard to describing central tendencies in the data collected.

Moreover, dispersion measures as the standard deviation can help describe the dispersion in the data (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 506). The standard deviation gives an indication in how much scatter exist around the mean (Remenyi et al., 2005, pp. 211-212). The standard deviation is also a statistic in which describe the extent in which the data is spread (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 506). Since we see a value of including statistics which describe the spread of the data collected, standard deviation is a statistic which also will be presented in regard to descriptive statistics.

Finally, Pearson’s measure of correlation can be used to examine relationships between variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 347). The correlation coefficient has a value between -1 and 1 (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 521). Correlation coefficients close to 0 indicate a very weak relationship, while correlation coefficients close to 1 indicate a strong relationship (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 347; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 521). Moreover, correlation coefficients between 0 and -1 indicate a negative correlation, while correlation coefficients between 0 and 1 indicate a positive correlation (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 521). Pearson’s measure of correlation will be used to examine relationships between the variables included in the conceptual model, that is; attractiveness, expertise, trustworthiness, coupon proneness, brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust, and brand loyalty.
4.3.3 Multiple Regression

Multiple regression analysis can be used as a tool “to predict the values of a dependent variable given the values of one or more independent variables by calculating a regression equation” (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 524). The multiple regression model is a mean of analysis in which one can help interpret the average effect of a variable on another variable, given that other variables in the model are fixed (James et al., 2013, p. 72). Since our conceptual model includes more than one construct we see that a multiple regression model is appropriate when analyzing the collected data. Furthermore, since the model allows testing the average effect of one independent variable on a dependent variable this is coherent with our hypotheses, which are testing the effects of one construct on another construct, for example; the effect of brand attitude on brand loyalty.

Multiple regression analysis will be used as a mean of analysis when examining the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. Moreover, this mean of analysis will also be used to examine the effects of brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust on brand loyalty. A total of four multiple regression models will be created. The first three models include brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust as dependent variables, respectively, including the components of endorser credibility and coupon proneness as the independent variables. The fourth model includes brand loyalty as the dependent variable and brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust as the independent variables.

Faraway (2006, p. 6) defined the multiple linear model as;

\[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots + \beta_{p-1} X_{p-1} + \varepsilon \]

In the multiple linear model, \( \beta_i, i = 0,1,2,\ldots, p-1 \) are parameters which are unknown (Faraway, 2006, p. 6). Moreover, the response variable is \( Y \), the intercept of the model is, \( X_1, \ldots, X_{p-1} \) are the predictors of the model, and \( \varepsilon \) is the error term (Faraway, 2006, p. 6). Scott Long (1997, p. 11) referred \( Y \) as the dependent variable, \( x's \) as the independent variables, and \( B_0 \) as the expected value of \( Y \) when all \( x's \) are \( 0 \).

There are assumptions in regard to the linear model, including the multiple regression model which needs to be taken in consideration. Firstly, there is the assumption of linearity in the data collected, which is that a linear relationship exists between the dependent variable and the independent variables (Scott Long, 1997, p. 12). The assumption of linearity can be tested through a Residuals vs. Fitted values plot, where the straightness of the red line in the plot indicate linearity (Faraway, 2006, pp. 14-15). Secondly, there is the assumption of no collinearity in the data, which means that the \( x's \) in the data are linearly independent (Scott Long, 1997, p. 12). This can be tested through correlation coefficients (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 524; Hair et al., 2006, p. 227), however correlation coefficients will not be enough give indications if multicollinearity exists (Hair et al., 2006, p. 227). Variance inflation factor (VIF) can be used to measure multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2006, p. 227) and hence this measure will be included together with correlation coefficients when evaluating the assumption regarding collinearity. Hair et al. (2006, p. 227, 230) recommend using a threshold of 0.9 regarding correlation coefficients and a 10 regarding VIF values, hence these thresholds will be used when evaluating the assumption regarding collinearity. Thirdly, there is the assumption of homoscedacity, which is uncorrelated error terms which means that the variance of the error terms is assumed to be constant (Scott Long, 1997, p. 13).
assumption in regard to homoscedacity can, in similarity with the assumption of linearity, be tested through a Residuals vs. Fitted values plot, where residuals should show a constant pattern (Faraway, 2006, pp. 14-15). Fourthly, there is an assumption of normality of the data collected which can be tested through a Normal Q-Q plot, where observations should follow the straight line for data to be considered normal (Faraway, 2006, pp. 14-15).

Residuals vs. Fitted value plot, correlation coefficients, VIF, and Normal Q-Q plot will be used when checking if the assumptions of the multiple regression model are met in regard to the estimated model. These assumptions will be tested before presenting the estimated models themselves. However, in regard to diagnosing these assumptions it is important to note that it is almost impossible to create a model which are perfect in regard to these assumptions, therefore the diagnosing of these assumptions it rather a measurement that the models are not completely wrong (Faraway, 2006, p. 14). Therefore, when testing the assumptions of the four multiple regression models in this thesis we will not strive for perfection, rather discuss these assumptions in regard to the multiple regression models in this thesis.

Coefficient of determination ($R^2$) can help assess how well the data fit the model itself (James et al., 2013, pp. 69-70) and will be analyzed when presenting the estimated models. The $R^2$ can also be defined as “the proportion of the variation in y that can be explained by the x’s in the model” (Scott Long, 1997, p. 102). The value of $R^2$ is between 0 and 1 and the higher value of the, the better fit between data and the model (James et al., 2013, pp. 69-70). Since the gives an indication of the how well the data fit the model, the $R^2$ will also be used when discussing the quality of the four multiple regression models in this thesis.

The overall significance level when testing hypotheses included in the conceptual model will be 0.05.

4.4 Ethical Considerations

In regard to ethical considerations, we take the ethical codes and guidelines in regard to online research from the European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research (ESOMAR, 2015), and Vetenskapsrådet (2011). We have also reviewed methodology books that discuss ethical issues by Bryman and Bell (2011) and Saunders et al. (2012).

In regard to collecting data, ESOMAR (2015, p. 9) states “researchers must ensure that research purposes are clearly distinguished from other non-research online activities”. Moreover, “they must not allow any personal data they collect to be used for any other purpose than market research” (ESOMAR, 2015, p. 9). To make sure that the data collected online is not used for any other purpose than for this study, we made sure that only we as researchers had access to the collected data. ESOMAR (2015, p. 9) also informs that it is important that participants are aware of this distinction and which organization is related to the data collected. Therefore, we made sure to inform the participants that we are two master students from Umeå University and clearly informed about the purpose of the study while informing that their participation only regarded the activity of collected data concerning this study.
In regard to informed consent, Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 133) inform that participants should be fully informed about the study so that they can make the decision of participation based on sufficient information. ESOMAR (2015, p. 9) also states that “researchers must obtain informed consent from research participants before collecting and processing any form of personal data and be completely transparent about the information they plan to collect, the purpose for which it will be collected, how it will be protected, with whom it might be shared and in what form”. To follow this guideline, we informed the participants, as clear as possible, the purpose of the study, that participation in the study is voluntarily and that the participants could withdraw at any time during the completion of the survey. By completing the survey, the participants could be able to include their email address and in this way have the chance to win two movie tickets. However, we made sure that participating in the lottery of two movie tickets was also completely voluntarily, and that, even though, the participants could include their email, the email addresses would still be separated from the data collected, thus still ensuring anonymity.

Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 134) inform that the ethical issue of informed consent is especially important to consider participants might be a vulnerable group of individuals, such as children. According to a report that exhibit habits by Internet users in Sweden, indicate that individuals under the age of 18 watch video content on YouTube (Findahl & Davidsson, 2015, pp. 64-65). Since the survey will be linked under the description box under YouTube videos, there is a possibility that minors will be able to see the link to the survey. ESOMAR (2015, p. 19) inform that children can only participate in studies when parental permission exists. Therefore, the information about the survey clearly stated that the survey only can be completed by individuals of 18 years of age or older. However, it is also important for us to consider that by presenting the link to the survey on the platform of YouTube we might gain contact with individuals under 18. ESOMAR (2015, p. 19) informs that when there is a possibility that potential participants might be under 18 years of age, the participant must first inform about their age, and if under 18, the researcher will disinvite the participant to continue participating in the study. To be as coherent with ESOMAR’s guidelines as possible in regard to minors, the survey was designed in a way where the participant would answer the question in regards to their age. If under 18, the participant was then transferred to a section in the survey which informed the age limit and that the participant would not be able to continue being a participant in the study, hence could not complete the survey.

Anonymity of participants ensures that the individuals which have agreed to participate in the study cannot be identified by any means (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 223). In regard to anonymity, Vetenskapsrådet (2011, pp. 68-69) informs that anonymity in quantitative research can be established naturally by the nature of the questions in the survey being unable to enclose a participant's identity (Vetenskapsrådet, 2011, pp. 68-69). One aspect of the survey which could jeopardize anonymity is that participants need to provide their email in case of wanting to participate in the lottery of two movie tickets. However, anonymity in research can be gained through removing personal information from completed surveys (Vetenskapsrådet, 2011, pp. 68-69). By simply separating participants answers from their email addresses, we ensured their anonymity. Furthermore, when the lottery was completed the email addresses were erased to ensure nobody could gain access to the emails for other purposes.
In regard to harm to participants, ESOMAR (2015, p. 11) states “researchers must take all reasonable precautions to ensure that online research participants are not harmed or adversely affected by participating in a research project”. Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 128) inform that harm to participants can involve participants being exposed to stress or that the participants’ self-esteem is negatively affected by the research. To avoid that participants are harmed in the research process, ESOMAR (2015, p. 11) recommends that researchers to apply fair principles which include not misleading the participants in collecting unsolicited data or misleading about the way of data collection itself, that is, the survey (ESOMAR, 2015, p. 11). To make sure the conducted data collection would not harm the participants we made sure to be as transparent as possible in regard to the collected data. Moreover, to be as transparent as possible we made sure to clearly inform the purpose of the study, what the survey concerned and how long the survey would take to complete. Also, since the data collected was only based on voluntarily participation, unsolicited data was not collected. Furthermore, the survey was designed so it does not measure attitudes in regard to a specific content creator on YouTube. Since the survey was posted on YouTube as a platform, there was a possibility that content creators on YouTube also were able to participate as a consumer. Therefore, we saw a risk that including a specific content creator as an example in the survey might have been harmful to participants as it might have created stress to the persons who are included in the survey as an example. Therefore, by not specifying the questions to a specific video we avoided the issue of harming participants and the risk that participants in the survey were the same individuals who the questions regarded.

Participants that completed the survey had an opportunity to include their email to be able to participate in a lottery of two movie tickets, thus the survey included a type of incentive. According the guidelines of ESOMAR (2015, p. 14) it is important that participants have been informed about the incentives itself, who is in charge of administrating the incentives, and when incentives will be received by the participants. Therefore, we clearly stated in the survey that the participants could win two movie tickets, that we administered the lottery of the movie tickets, and that when the participant who won the lottery tickets would receive the prize. Additionally, ESOMAR (2015, p. 14) states that “that incentives are proportionate and do not constitute, or are perceived to constitute, a bribe”. We have concluded that the lottery of two movie tickets was proportionate for completing the survey and can therefore not be considered a bribe. Furthermore, since this is a lottery of movie tickets, not all participants could receive the tickets and thus this should not be seen as a type of bribe. Finally, ESOMAR (2015, p. 15) informs that participants cannot be disqualified from this type of lottery if for instance the participant have not completed the research activity, that is the survey. With this in mind we decided not to disqualify participants, even though they did not fully complete the survey. Furthermore, since we separated the email addresses from the data collected, we also promoted this mindset as we were unable to know which email address belonged to which participant entry.
5. Empirical Findings

In this chapter we will present the empirical findings of this thesis. The chapter begins with empirical findings regarding respondents’ demographics, Cronbach’s alpha and descriptive statistics. We then move on to a presentation of four multiple regression models, where we also discuss the fulfillment of the assumptions of the models. The chapter ends with a revised conceptual model and a summary of supported and unsupported hypotheses.

5.1 Demographics

To find out about the respondents background we included demographical questions in the questionnaire. The questions which would serve as a foundation for the demographics of respondents were; gender and age and time spent on YouTube (Appendix 2).

![Figure 2. Gender Distribution](image)

The pie chart (Figure 2) illustrates the question, which regard gender. According to SCB (2016), there is a female: male ratio in Sweden of almost 1:1. The pie chart illustrates that respondents are consisting of substantially more men than women, hence, it is not representative in regard to the Swedish population. However, previous research by Molyneaux et al. (2008, p. 9) indicates that substantially more men than women watch YouTube videos frequently. Therefore, we have concluded that the respondents are representative of the population.

![Figure 3. Time Spent Watching YouTube Videos (Weekly)](image)

The pie chart (Figure 3) illustrates the question, which regard weekly time spent watching YouTube videos. The pie chart shows that most of the respondents, that are 35% of the respondents, watch video content on YouTube between six to ten hours per week.
Moreover, least of the respondents, that is 10% watch YouTube videos over 20 hours per week. The pie chart indicates as a whole that 78% of the respondents watch YouTube content six hours, or more, per week.

![Age Distribution](image)

*Figure 4. Age Distribution*

The bar chart (Figure 4) illustrates the question which regard the age of the respondents. Most of the respondents are between the ages of 18-24 and the least of the respondents are 55 or older. The distribution of age gives an indication that YouTube is more popular with younger individuals, than older individuals.

### 5.2 Cronbach’s Alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Awareness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Attitude</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Trust</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Loyalty</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The constructs Attractiveness, Expertise and Brand Awareness had a Cronbach’s Alpha under 0.7 (Table 1). Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 159) inform that 0.7 is a relevant rule of thumb, hence we decided to revise these constructs. In regard to the construct Expertise the questions were removed one by one until the alpha coefficient reached the chosen rule of thumb of 0.7. No combination of questions of three generated an alpha coefficient of 0.7 or higher. Moreover, the only combination of two questions which generated an acceptable Cronbach’s Alpha were questions 9 and 10 (Appendix 2.) The questions that were therefore kept for analyzing the data further were questions 9 and 10 (Appendix 2.) with an alpha coefficient of 0.87. In regard to the construct Attractiveness we removed one of the questions, which is using only one question. In regard to the construct of attractiveness question 7 (Appendix. 2) was kept for analyzing the data further.
In regard to the construct Brand Awareness we removed one of the questions and thus only used one of the questions for analyzing the data further. The question which was kept for analyzing the data further were question 19 (Appendix. 2). When deciding which questions to keep in regard to the constructs Attractiveness and Brand Awareness, we chose the questions which we concluded were the closest in definition of these constructs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Awareness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Attitude</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Trust</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Loyalty</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.3 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Awareness</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Attitude</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Trust</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Loyalty</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 show mean, median and standard deviation values of constructs. The construct Brand Awareness had the highest mean and median values, indicating that respondents’ perception of constructs are the highest for Brand Awareness. Furthermore, the construct Brand Loyalty received the lowest mean and median value, indicating the respondents’ perception of constructs are the lowest for Brand Loyalty. The construct Brand Awareness have the highest standard deviation, while the construct Brand Attitude has the lowest standard deviation. This in turn indicate the construct Brand Awareness has the highest spread of data of all constructs, while the construct Brand Attitude has the lowest spread of data of all constructs. Finally, the mean and median are fairly close to each other in values, however since these values are different it still indicates a very small skewness of data in regard to all constructs.
The correlation table (Table 4) indicate that the strongest relationship among the constructs are the relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty, which have a correlation coefficient of 0.65. Moreover, the weakest relationship among the constructs are the relationship between Coupon Proneness and Expertise, which have a correlation coefficient of 0.14. The correlation as a whole show signs of that most of the relationships between constructs are under 0.5 and thus positive and rather weak. Finally, there is no relationships between constructs which have a correlation higher than 0.9. This in turn indicate that there is no collinearity in the data in accordance with the rule of thumb by Hair et al. (2006, p. 227).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness (1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise (2)</td>
<td>0.40**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness (3)</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness (4)</td>
<td>0.19**</td>
<td>0.14**</td>
<td>0.18**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Awareness (5)</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.2**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Attitude (5)</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.49**</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.42**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Trust (7)</td>
<td>0.38**</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
<td>0.41**</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Loyalty (8)</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.32**</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>0.65**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Signif. Codes: 0 (***) 0.001 (**) 0.01 (*)
5.4 Multiple Regression Model 1: Brand Awareness and its Predictors

5.4.1 Estimated Multiple Regression Model 1: Brand Awareness and its Predictors

Table 5. Estimated Multiple Regression Model 1: Brand Awareness and its Predictors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>2.382</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>7.776</td>
<td>4.37e-14</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>-.070</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>-1.099</td>
<td>0.272</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>.274</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>4.814</td>
<td>1.97e-06</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>4.072</td>
<td>5.43e-05</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>3.310</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Signif. Codes: 0 (***), 0.001 (**), 0.01 (*)

\( R^2 \): 0.18

F-statistic: 26.9 on 4 and 495 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

The regression model (Table 5) itself is significant with a p<0.05, indicating that the regression model is significant. The \( R^2 \) has a value of 0.18, which indicate that 18 percent of the variation in Brand Awareness can be explained by the models predictors. Moreover, the \( R^2 \) indicate that there is a fairly good fit between data and the model. The estimated model show that Expertise (\( \beta = .274, p<0.05 \)), Trustworthiness (\( \beta = .301, p<0.05 \)), and Coupon Proneness (\( \beta = .142, p<0.05 \)), have significant positive effects on Brand Awareness. Therefore, empirical evidence from the estimated model including Brand Awareness as a dependent variable support the hypotheses \( H_{1b}, H_{1c}, \) and \( H_{1d} \). The estimated model also shows that the predictor Attractiveness (\( \beta = -.070, p>0.05 \)), has no significant effect on Brand Awareness, hence the estimated model does not support hypothesis \( H_{1a} \). Note that these empirical findings exist on the basis that all the predictors; Attractiveness, Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Coupon Proneness are included in the model.

5.4.2 Testing Model Assumptions: Brand Awareness and its Predictors

![Residuals vs Fitted](image1.png)

![Normal Q-Q](image2.png)

Figure 5. Plots for evaluating assumptions regarding Multiple Regression Model 1: Brand Awareness and its Predictors
In regard to correlation table in chapter 5.3 (Table 4) indicate that there is no collinearity, given the rule of thumb by Hair et al. (2006, p. 227) of 0.9. Moreover, the VIF values shown in the estimated model (Table 5) indicate that there is no multicollinearity as all VIF values are under the rule of thumb recommended by Hair et al. (2006, p. 227), that is 10. Hence the model including Brand Awareness as a dependent variable fulfills the assumption of no collinearity.

The assumptions of linearity can be considered fulfilled if the red line in the plot Residuals vs. Fitted values is straight (Faraway, 2006, pp. 14-15). Moreover, the assumption of homoscedacity can be considered fulfilled if residuals have a constant pattern in the plot Residuals vs. Fitted values (Faraway, 2006, pp. 14-15). Finally, the assumptions of normality can be considered fulfilled when the observations follow the line in the Normal Q-Q plot (Faraway, 2006, pp. 14-15). The Residuals vs. Fitted values plot of the first model indicate that variance is fairly constant while the data is also fairly linear, however not perfect. The Normal Q-Q plot indicate that data is fairly normal but again not in a perfect manner. Though, since the aim of this is not create an optimized model and strive for perfection we regard the assumption of linearity, homoscedacity and normality as fulfilled for this model.

5.5 Multiple Regression Model 2: Brand Attitude and its Predictors

5.5.1 Estimated Multiple Regression Model 2: Brand Attitude and its Predictors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1.020</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>5.546</td>
<td>4.76e-08</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>3.726</td>
<td>0.000217</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>.202</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>5.934</td>
<td>5.55e-09</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>.274</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>6.167</td>
<td>1.45e-09</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>4.950</td>
<td>1.02e-06</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Signif. Codes: 0 (***) 0.001 (**) 0.01 (*)

\[ R^2: 0.41 \]

F-statistic: 86.7 on 4 and 495 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

The regression model (Table 6) itself is significant with a \( p < 0.05 \), indicating that the regression model is significant. The \( R^2 \) has a value of 0.41, which indicate that 41 percent of the variation in Brand Attitude can be explained by the models predictors. Moreover, the \( R^2 \) indicate that there is a fairly good fit between data and the model.

The estimated model show that all predictors, that is; Attractiveness (\( \beta = .143, p < 0.05 \)), Expertise (\( \beta = .202, p < 0.05 \)), Trustworthiness (\( \beta = .274, p < 0.05 \)), and Coupon Proneness (\( \beta = .127, p < 0.05 \)), have significant positive effects on Brand Attitude. Therefore, empirical evidence from the estimated model including Brand Attitude as a dependent variable support the hypotheses H2a, H2b, H2c, and H2d. Note that these empirical findings
exist on the basis that all the predictors; Attractiveness, Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Coupon Proneness are included in the model.

5.5.2 Testing Model Assumptions: Brand Attitude and its Predictors

![Residuals vs Fitted](image1.png)

![Normal Q-Q](image2.png)

**Figure 6. Plots for evaluating assumptions regarding Multiple Regression Model 2: Brand Attitude and its Predictors**

The correlation table (Table 4) and the VIF values shown in the estimated model (Table 6) indicate that there is no evidence of collinearity or multicollinearity, hence the assumptions of collinearity can be considered fulfilled. Moreover, the Residuals vs. Fitted plot indicate that variance is constant while the data is also linear. Finally, the Normal Q-Q plot indicate that data is fairly normal. Therefore, the assumptions of linearity, homoscedacity, and normality can be considered as fulfilled for this model.

5.6 Multiple Regression Model 3: Brand Trust and its Predictors

5.6.1 Estimated Multiple Regression Model 3: Brand Trust and its Predictors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td>2.877</td>
<td>0.00419</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>1.051</td>
<td>0.29363</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expertise</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>5.035</td>
<td>6.69e-07</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>6.763</td>
<td>3.83e-11</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coupon Proneness</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>4.503</td>
<td>8.35e-06</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Signif. Codes: 0 (***), 0.001 (**), 0.01 (*)

R²: 0.34

F-statistic: 63.61 on 4 and 495 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

The regression model (Table 7) itself is significant with a p<0.05, indicating that the regression model is significant. The R² has a value of 0.34, which indicate that 34 percent of the variation in Brand Trust can be explained by the models predictors. Moreover, the R² indicate that there is a fairly good fit between data and the model.
The estimated model shows that Expertise ($\beta=.194, p<0.05$), Trustworthiness ($\beta=.339, p<0.05$), and Coupon Proneness ($\beta=.131, p<0.05$), have significant positive effects on Brand Trust. Therefore, empirical evidence from the estimated model including Brand Trust as a dependent variable support the hypotheses H$_{3b}$, H$_{3c}$, and H$_{3d}$. The estimated model also shows that the predictor Attractiveness ($\beta=.046, p>0.05$), has no significant effect on Brand Trust, hence empirical findings from the estimated model does not support hypothesis H$_{3a}$. Note that these empirical findings exist on the basis that all the predictors; Attractiveness, Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Coupon Proneness are included in the model.

5.6.2 Testing Model Assumptions: Brand Trust and its Predictors

The assumption of collinearity can be concluded as fulfilled based on the correlation table (Table 4) and the VIF values shown in the estimated model (Table 7). Moreover, the Residuals vs. Fitted plot indicate that variance is constant while the data is also linear. Finally, the Normal Q-Q plot indicate that data is normal. Therefore, the assumptions of linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality can be considered as fulfilled for this model.

5.7 Multiple Regression Model 4: Brand Loyalty and its Predictors

5.7.1 Estimated Multiple Regression Model 4: Brand Loyalty and its Predictors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple Regression Model 4: Brand Loyalty</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-.144</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>-.705</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Awareness</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>-.358</td>
<td>0.721</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Attitude</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>5.145</td>
<td>3.85e-07</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Trust</td>
<td>.581</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>11.611</td>
<td>2e-16</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Signif. Codes: 0 (***) 0.001 (**) 0.01 (*)

$R^2$: 0.45

F-statistic: 134.8 on 4 and 495 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
The regression model (Table 8) itself is significant with a p<0.05, indicating that the regression model is significant. The $R^2$ has a value of 0.45, which indicate that 45 percent of the variation in Brand Attitude can be explained by the models predictors. Moreover, the $R^2$ indicate that there is a good fit between data and the model.

The estimated model show that Brand Attitude ($\beta=.276$, p<0.05) and Brand Trust ($\beta=.581$, <0.05) have a significant positive effect on Brand Loyalty. Therefore, empirical evidence from the estimated model including Brand Awareness as a dependent variable support the hypotheses $H_{4b}$ and $H_{4c}$. The estimated model also shows that the predictor Brand Awareness ($\beta=-.012$, p>0.05), has no significant effect on Brand Trust, hence empirical findings from the estimated model does not support hypothesis $H_{4a}$. Note that these empirical findings exist on the basis that all the predictors; Brand Awareness, Brand Attitude, and Brand Trust are included in the model.

5.7.2 Testing Model Assumptions: Brand Loyalty and its Predictors

The correlation table (Table 4) and the VIF values shown in the estimated model (Table 8) indicate that there is not collinearity and multicollinearity. Therefore, the assumption regarding collinearity can be concluded as fulfilled. Moreover, the Residuals vs. Fitted plot indicate that variance is fairly constant and linear. Finally, the Normal Q-Q plot indicate that data is normal. The assumption of normality can be considered as fulfilled. Also, even though the linearity and constant variance is not perfect, we still conclude the model to fulfill the assumptions of linearity and homoscedacity as we do not strive for perfection when diagnosing these assumptions.
5.8 Revised Conceptual Model

Empirical results from the four multiple regression models support 12 of 15 stated hypotheses. The three hypotheses which were not supported were H_{1a}, H_{3a} and H_{4a}. This in turn has led us to a revised conceptual model (Figure 9).

In regard to the first multiple regression model, we found positive significant effects of endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness on brand awareness, hence supporting hypotheses H_{1b}, H_{1c} and H_{1d}. Moreover, we found no significant effect of endorser attractiveness on brand awareness, hence H_{1a} cannot be supported. In the second multiple regression model, we found positive significant effects of endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness on brand attitude, hence supporting hypotheses H_{2a}, H_{2b}, H_{2c} and H_{2d}. In the third multiple regression model, we found positive significant effects of, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness on brand trust, hence supporting hypotheses, H_{3b}, H_{3c} and H_{3d}. Since we did not find that endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand trust, H_{3a} cannot be supported. Finally, in regard to the fourth multiple regression model we found significant positive effects of brand attitude and brand trust on brand loyalty, hence hypotheses H_{4b} and H_{4c} are supported. However, no found effect was found of brand awareness on brand loyalty, hence hypothesis H_{4a} cannot be supported. A summary of the supported and unsupported hypotheses can also be found in Table 9.

[Figure 9. Revised Conceptual Model]
### Table 9. Empirical Findings of Hypotheses Testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>Endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>Endorser expertise has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c</td>
<td>Endorser trustworthiness has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1d</td>
<td>Coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand awareness in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a</td>
<td>Endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b</td>
<td>Endorser expertise has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2c</td>
<td>Endorser trustworthiness has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2d</td>
<td>Coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand attitude in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3a</td>
<td>Endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3b</td>
<td>Endorser expertise has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3c</td>
<td>Endorser trustworthiness has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3d</td>
<td>Coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand trust in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4a</td>
<td>Brand awareness has a positive effect on brand loyalty in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4b</td>
<td>Brand attitude has a positive effect on brand loyalty in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4c</td>
<td>Brand trust has a positive effect on brand loyalty in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Discussion

This chapter discusses the empirical findings and analysis of our thesis. The chapter is divided into the four regression models and is based on our empirical findings in connection to previous research.

6.1 Multiple Regression Model 1 – Brand Awareness and its Predictors

In multiple regression model 1, we tested if endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness had positive effects on brand awareness. In the first multiple regression model, only H1a was not supported, that is, endorser attractiveness has no positive effect on brand awareness. This means that two of three components of endorser credibility, being expertise and trustworthiness, and a consumer’s proneness towards coupons, affect a consumer’s awareness of a brand. The empirical evidence from the first multiple regression model therefore show that the expertise of an endorser, the trustworthiness of an endorser, and a consumer’s proneness towards coupons can increase brand awareness in regard to consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code.

While the empirical evidence support hypotheses (H1b) and (H1c) the findings show that endorser expertise and endorser trustworthiness have positive effects on brand awareness. Moreover, since empirical evidence could not support hypothesis H1a, endorser attractiveness has no positive effect on brand awareness. This might be argued to be problematic since these three variables are components of endorser credibility and while they were measured as independent predictors they are not independent of one another in the theoretical framework which hypotheses are based on. However, Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) found an indirect relationship between the credibility of an endorser and brand awareness, and hence no direct relationship was found between endorser credibility and brand awareness. Therefore, the empirical findings, which does not support that all components of endorser credibility have a positive effect on brand awareness were a foreseeable outcome since previous theory indicate that an indirect relationship exists between endorser credibility and brand awareness. Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) informs that the reason to why there is no direct relationship between endorser credibility and brand equity, which include the component of brand awareness, could be that participants in the study were only exposed to one type of brand and endorser. Furthermore, Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) also imply that the results could have been different if the participants were exposed to several type of ads from one endorsers, since brand equity, which included brand awareness as a component, takes time to build. Therefore, we see that, the reason why all components of endorser credibility have not a positive effect on brand awareness could be due to the cross-sectional design of this study. Moreover, we also conclude that in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, the attractiveness of a well-known content creator on YouTube, who endorse brands on their channel, is not as relevant, as trustworthiness and expertise.

Furthermore, research by Huang and Sarigollu (2012, p. 97) found that advertising did not have a positive effect on brand awareness, which they concluded were contradictory and required a further explanation. Huang and Sarigollu (2012, p. 97) inform increased advertising, has a very small effect on promoting brand awareness. We therefore conclude that in regard to consumer-generated advertising, the insignificant effects of endorser attractiveness on brand awareness could be that consumer-generated advertisements itself
have a small effect on brand awareness. We also see that there is a possibility that brands, which are endorsed through well-known content creators on YouTube, use it as mean of increasing advertising, rather than introducing a brand for the first time.

Therefore, it is possible that some factors, included in consumer-generated advertising, such as an endorsers attractiveness, is not relevant to affect a consumer’s brand awareness. The empirical findings of the first model regarding the components also show that, regarding the components of endorser credibility, trustworthiness (β=.301) has the strongest effect on brand awareness. Hence, regarding endorser credibility, trustworthiness of an endorser in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube can be considered as especially important in creating awareness of a brand.

The independent predictor of coupon proneness did have a positive effect on brand awareness, seen by hypothesis H1d. The variable of Coupon Proneness (β=.127) had the weakest effect among all three variables which have a positive significant effect. Therefore, in regard to consumer-generated advertisements of YouTube, coupon proneness can increase awareness of a brand the least, compared to trustworthiness and expertise of an endorser. Previous research by Cassia et al. (2015, pp. 1609-1610) found that discount couponing can increase consumers’ awareness of a brand. We therefore conclude that empirical evidence from the first regression model is coherent with previous research by Cassia et al. (2015) while the empirical findings of this model also inform that a consumer’s proneness towards coupon can increase awareness of a brand, regarding consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, which include a coupon code.

There are examples of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube which include the coupon code and brand name in the title of the video (Lindgren, 2016). Therefore, the positive effect of coupon proneness on brand awareness could stem from that consumers’ who are prone to coupons might be more intrigued when noticing a title, including information about a coupon code, click on the video and absorb the information about the brand itself, hence increasing brand awareness.

### 6.2 Multiple Regression Model 2 – Brand Attitude and its Predictors

In multiple regression model 2, we tested if endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness had positive effects on brand attitude. In the second regression model, all four hypotheses supported. The empirical findings show that the components of endorser credibility, attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness, tested in hypotheses H2a, H2b and H2c respectively, have a positive effect on consumers’ attitude towards a brand. Empirical findings also show that coupon proneness has a positive effect on a consumer’s attitude towards a brand, shown by the results from hypothesis H2d. The strengths of effects differ however. Trustworthiness (β=.274) has the strongest effect on attitude towards a brand, in similarity with the first regression model with brand awareness as a dependent variable. Furthermore, Expertise (β=.202) has the second strongest effect on attitude towards a brand, followed by, Attractiveness (β=.143) and Coupon Proneness (β=.127).

The significant empirical findings regarding the components of endorser credibility, that is, attractiveness, expertise, and trustworthiness confirms results from previous research. La Ferle and Choi (2005, p. 75) found both a direct and indirect relationship between
endorser credibility and a consumer’s attitude of a brand. Previous research has also found an indirect linkage between endorser credibility and a consumer’s attitude towards a brand where this linkage exists through a positive direct effect which attitude of an advertisement has on brand attitude (Goldsmith et al., 2000, p. 51; La Ferle & Choi, 2005, p. 74; Lafferty et al., 2002, p. 7). The empirical results from the second multiple regression model also contradict the results by Hansen et al. (2014, p. 261) who found that even though consumer-generated advertisements can increase the attitude of the brand itself. Even though these results both contradict and confirm previous research, the results that components of endorser credibility were supported were foreseeable since past research have shown the existence of a positive direct and indirect effects which endorser credibility have on brand attitude. Moreover, since we found more evidence in previous research that endorser credibility has a positive linkage with the attitude towards a brand, we did not believe it would differentiate in our study even though we measure in another context, being consumer-generated advertising on YouTube.

The positive effect which coupon proneness have on a consumer’s attitude towards a brand, tested with hypothesis H2d, confirms previous research. The research conducted by Boon (2013, p. 847) found connections between promotional offerings and attitude towards the brand, but that connection also showed the potential of creating negative attitude as a risk if the promotional content were misused by the brand. While we did not test this factor, our study still provides further information that promotional content has positively affect a consumer’s attitude towards a brand, even if the advertising is generated by consumers themselves on YouTube. This were tested by studying coupon proneness of consumers in H2d, which then also provided confirmation of results of the study by Yi and Yoo (2011, p. 892) who had empirical evidence that indicated that coupon promotion can have a positive effect on brand attitudes in regard to coupon prone consumers. The reason to why the empirical findings support previous research by Yi and Yoo (2011) could be that coupon prone consumers are more likely to have a positive attitude towards a brand, in more than one context, that is both in a traditional purchase situation in a store as well as when watching consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.

6.3 Multiple Regression Model 3 – Brand Trust and its Predictors

In multiple regression model 3, we tested if endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness had positive effects on brand trust. The results found by the data showed us a similar result as the first regression model, with the dependent variable brand awareness. In similarity with the first multiple regression model, the hypothesis that measured the component of endorser attractiveness could not be supported by empirical findings. Empirical findings support the positive effects of endorser expertise (H3b), endorser trustworthiness (H3c) and coupon proneness (H3d) on brand trust. The results therefore confirm previous research regarding endorser credibility by Spry et al. (2011, p. 898) and Dwivedi and Johnson (2013).
However, empirical findings could not support the positive effect of endorser attractiveness on brand trust. Previous research has found that brand trust can be gained by the shown quality of a product (Alhabeeb, 2007, p. 609). The reason to why empirical findings does not support the positive effect of endorser attractiveness on brands could therefore be that consumers’ watching video content on YouTube does not base their evaluation of a product’s quality based on the attractiveness of an endorser. In other words, endorser attractiveness itself does not indicate the quality of brands’ product or service, for consumers’ watching video content on YouTube.

On the other hand, empirical findings do support that endorser expertise and endorser trustworthiness have positive effects on brand trust. Expertise can be based on the validity of an endorser’s statements, while trustworthiness can be based on the motives gained from the endorser communicating the statements (Hovland et al., 1953, pp. 21-21; McCracken, 1989, p. 311). We therefore argue that these results could be since expertise and trustworthiness are two traits which could be based on actions of an actual endorser, rather visual elements which according to (Ohanian, 1990, p. 49) attractiveness is based on. Therefore, when endorsers show that they have expertise and are trustworthy based on their actions, such as being honest with their motives and communicating valid statements, this in turn increase brand trust. Moreover, in this regression model as well, similar to the first and second multiple regression models, we can see that trustworthiness ($\beta=.339$) has the strongest effect being followed by expertise ($\beta=.194$) but the gap between the strongest predictors in this model is the strongest compared to the other multiple regression models. Therefore, in regard to consumer-generated advertisements, the trustworthiness of a well-known content creator on YouTube is of big importance when promoting brand trust. The reason behind the empirical evidence, which show endorser trustworthiness as the strongest predictor could be that trustworthiness of a communication source have been strongly linked as having an effect on brand trust in the context of consumer-generated advertisements in previous research by for example Steyn et al. (2011, p. 154) and Hautz et al. (2014, p. 9).

Moreover, empirical evidence support that coupon proneness ($\beta=.131$) has a positive effect on brand trust. Empirical evidence therefore confirms previous research by Luk and Yip (2008, p. 461) who found a positive relationship between price promotion and brand trust and Bhardwaj et al. (2015, p. 205) who found that coupon proneness has a positive effect on brand trust. Bhardwaj et al. (2015, p. 206) state “coupon prone consumers are likely to evaluate retailers favourably as the offers instil confidence about retailer’s brands”. Therefore, in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, coupon prone consumers’ might feel confident in using brands which offers a coupon code, and in turn increase the trust which coupon proneness consumers’ have in that brand.
6.4 Multiple Regression Model 4 – Brand Loyalty and its Predictors

The final regression model and fourth multiple regression model tested whether if brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust have positive effects on brand loyalty. This was tested by hypotheses H₄ₐ, H₄ₖ and H₄ₖ respectively. H₄ₐ were not supported by empirical findings, hence there is no found effect of brand awareness on brand loyalty. Moreover, H₄ₖ and H₄ₖ were supported by empirical findings, hence there are found effects of brand trust (β=.581) and brand attitude (β=.276) on brand loyalty. The empirical evidence contradicts research by Yoo et al. (2000, p. 205) that brand awareness and brand loyalty are positively related. On social media sites, fostering brand loyalty can be done through promoting user engagement (Zheng et al., 2015, pp. 99-100). Therefore, the contradictory results can be explained by that consumers’ awareness of brands through consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube are not enough to promote brand loyalty, rather promoting other activities which increase user engagement regarding brands on YouTube, could have a more prominent effect on brand loyalty.

The empirical evidence also confirms research by Thomson et al. (2005, p. 86), which indicate a positive relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty. Thomson et al. (2005, p. 78, 88) inform that brand attitude and consumers’ emotional attachment towards a brand is related, while emotional attachment also can promote brand loyalty. The reason behind the empirical findings of this study might therefore be that consumers’ watching consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube and have positive attitudes towards a brand, and in turn are loyal towards a brand, might be so because of that they also are emotionally attached to that brand. Moreover, empirical findings confirm previous research by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001, p. 89) which indicates that brand trust has a positive effect on brand loyalty. Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001, p. 90) also inform that brand loyalty is a distinct antecedent to brand trust. Therefore, the empirical evidence regarding the effect of brand trust on brand loyalty could stem from the distinct connection these two variables have to each other, even though this is measured in the context of consumer-generated advertisements. The strong connection which brand trust and brand loyalty has had in previous research might also be the reason why brand trust as a predictor (β=.581) has the strongest significant positive effect on brand loyalty.
7. Conclusion and Recommendation

In this chapter we will start by answering our research question and then discuss the theoretical contribution, practical and societal implications of this thesis. We will also discuss truth criteria and end the chapter with the thesis’ limitations and our recommendations for future research.

7.1 General Conclusions

The purpose of this thesis was to examine the effects of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on branding outcomes in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. The study focused on the four branding outcomes, which were brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust, and brand loyalty. We assessed the specific effects of the three components of endorser credibility including endorser attractiveness, endorser expertise and endorser trustworthiness. The components of endorser credibility, and coupon proneness were measured towards brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. In turn, brand awareness, brand attitude, and brand trust were measured towards brand loyalty. In this thesis, we considered well-known content creators on YouTube as endorsers, while we focused on YouTube videos where a coupon code was implemented.

The research question of this thesis stated:

What effects do the components of endorser credibility, and coupon proneness have on brands, in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube?

Through the empirical evidence found when conducting this thesis, we have concluded that we have been able to answer the research question and reached the purpose of this study. In this study, key findings indicate that endorser credibility in regard to consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube and consumers’ coupon proneness have positive effects on consumers’ view of brands.

The thesis was conducted using a quantitative research design where we developed a conceptual model which consisted of the constructs; attractiveness, expertise, trustworthiness and coupon proneness. Moreover, the branding outcomes of the conceptual model consisted of; brand awareness, brand attitude, brand trust and brand loyalty. The key empirical findings show that endorser expertise, endorser trustworthiness and coupon proneness have significant positive effects on brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. Moreover, endorser attractiveness has a significant positive effect on brand attitude. Key empirical findings also show that brand attitude and brand trust have significant positive effects on brand loyalty. However, empirical findings could not support the hypotheses $H_{1a}$, $H_{3a}$ and $H_{4a}$. This in turn conclude that endorser attractiveness has no significant effects on brand awareness and brand trust, while brand awareness has no significant effect on brand loyalty.

The reasons behind the key findings regarding insignificant results could be that endorser attractiveness itself is based on visual elements, and in turn endorser attractiveness itself is not enough to increase brand awareness and brand trust. Moreover, the significant results of endorser trustworthiness and endorser expertise could be that these characteristics are rather based on the actions and motives of a well-known content creator.
Empirical findings show that coupon proneness has significant positive effects on brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. The reasons behind these key findings could stem from how the information about coupons is shown in consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube but also that previous research confirms these findings. Even though previous research confirms this in other contexts we see that coupon proneness have similar effects in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.

The insignificant results regarding the effect of brand awareness on brand loyalty could be that awareness of a brand is not sufficient to create brand loyalty as the process to gain brand loyalty is not only based on the knowledge of the brand, rather other factors, such as user engagement. The significant results regarding the effect of brand attitude and brand trust could stem from that brand attitude can increase a consumer’s emotional attachment towards a brand, which in turn can increase brand loyalty. Moreover, previous research indicate that brand trust is a strong antecedent to brand loyalty, hence this could also be the reason to why brand trust has the strongest effect of brand loyalty, among all predictors in the fourth multiple regression model.

7.2 Theoretical Contribution

The empirical findings have contributed theoretically to previous research regarding endorser credibility and its effects on brands in the context of consumer-generated advertisements. Moreover, the empirical findings have contributed in regards to consumers’ coupon proneness and the effects it has on certain branding outcomes, which in this study were brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust. In regard to previous research exploring the phenomenon of consumer-generated advertisements, the empirical findings have theoretically contributed concerning its effects on brands on YouTube, when taking into account that the individual, who create video content on YouTube, acts as an endorser while also taking into account consumers’ coupon proneness.

The empirical findings of this study have contributed theoretically to previous studies by Ohanian (1990) regarding endorser credibility, coupon proneness by Lichtenstein et al. (1990), consumer-generated advertisements by for example, Kennedy et al. (2014) and its effects on brands.

In the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, we have found that expertise and trustworthiness of an endorser have positive effects on brand awareness brand attitude and brand trust, while endorser attractiveness has a positive effect on brand attitude. These significant findings therefore contributed to previous research (e.g. Spry et al., 2011; La Ferle & Choi, 2005), as we measured variables included in these studies, while measuring it in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. Moreover, the empirical findings also show that a consumer’s coupon proneness positively affect brand awareness, brand attitude and brand trust, hence confirming previous research as well (e.g. Luk & Yip, 2008; Bhardwaj et al., 2015; Yi & Yoo, 2011; Cassia et al., 2015). Therefore, we argue that the empirical findings in this study theoretically contribute by additionally confirming that consumers’ level of coupon
proneness affect brands, while being able to do so in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.

Significant empirical findings also show that, in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube, brand attitude and brand trust have significant effects on brand loyalty. This in turn confirm previous research (e.g. Thomson et al., 2005; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Therefore, we argue that the empirical findings further confirm that brand attitude and brand trust have significant positive effects on brand loyalty, thus theoretically contribute the positive effects of brand attitude and brand trust on brand loyalty, in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube. We also see that the empirical findings of this study have contributed theoretically to previous research regarding consumer-generated advertisements by for example Kennedy et al. (2014) and recent previous research by Holt (2016). Holt (2016, pp. 42-44) informed the impact well-known content creators have on brands. The significant positive effects of components of endorser credibility can therefore theoretically contribute by showing what effects exist depending on the attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness of well-known content creators on YouTube, while endorsing brands through their channel.

Moreover, we argue that our findings establish a great contribution of theory in general since the field of research of consumer-generated advertising is relatively new. We therefore argue that this thesis is the first which discuss well-known content creators on YouTube as endorsers that could affect certain branding outcomes, hence our findings could be seen as a starting point in examining effects on the phenomenon, which is consumer-generated advertising on YouTube.

7.3 Practical Implications

The growing popularity of Web 2.0, particularly YouTube, and the increase of Internet advertising show us that the new marketing channels are a field of study marketers should be well informed of to adapt to the modern society of consumers. While it is quite common today that firms sponsor famous YouTube content creators (Appendix 1), the strategy of using endorsers for sponsorship in this media channel is a new marketing method. Brand managers have the possibility to reach out to a community that are continuously growing, from a new approach. Many of the consumers who are subscribers of an endorser’s YouTube channel are then often loyal towards the content creator, and if this endorser informs the viewers about promotional offerings, a positive attitude and trust of the consumers will be imminent, as seen by the empirical findings.

If a firm are producing a plan for upcoming marketing strategies, one can wonder how YouTube and its content creators will look in the upcoming years and how profitable it will be for brands to invest in the media channel, since the concept of consumer-generated advertising online is relatively new. However, as of today, YouTube is one of the biggest online communities (YouTube, 2016) and its content creators are today considered as celebrities who can possibly possess greater influence than brands present online (Holt, 2016, pp. 42-44). While it is not present in our study, one can argue that sponsoring endorsers are a great tool of advertising even if consumers do not purchase the promotional content since these endorsers often talk positively about the brand they are sponsored by, which should affect the loyal viewers’ perception of a brand as a consumer in the long run.
Moreover, videos on YouTube are a simple and easy accessible marketing channel where endorsers’ interaction with consumers are common. Therefore, the concept of promotional offerings should be encouraged by firms if they are in need of new advertising. This is due to the positive affect couponing has on coupon prone viewers in the consideration of brands shown by our findings. Hence, a video of a YouTube endorser promoting a brand will have an even stronger effect if that promotion also grant the coupon prone viewers a coupon code which will be monetary beneficial for them as consumers. Therefrom a firm can by this utilize the opportunity of cooperating with an endorser if they aim to further strengthen their brands.

Since the empirical evidence indicate that the component which have the strongest effects on brands are endorser trustworthiness and endorser expertise. This in turn have practical implications on firms and marketing managers to choose well-known content creators on YouTube as endorser, who are regarded as trustworthy and knowledgeable in endorsing brands’ products on YouTube. Moreover, the empirical findings also have practical implications on well-known content creators on YouTube since the empirical findings indicate that being trustworthy and knowledgeable in endorsing brands on YouTube have positive effects on the brands endorsed, hence increase their effectiveness as an endorser. In consequence we do argue that not only firms should aim to seek cooperation with endorsers but also that well-known content creators on YouTube can profit both financially and in popularity if they collaborate with trustworthy brands and thus implement sponsored content in their videos.

7.4 Societal Implications

The empirical findings show that significant positive effects exist of endorser credibility and coupon proneness on consumers’ views of brands. A report by Findahl and Davidsson (2015, pp. 64-65) indicate that YouTube is a social media site which is highly used by individuals under 18 years old, hence children. Therefore, consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube is a form of advertising which can inevitable reach children. When conducting this study, we have made sure that no participants included in the survey were under 18 years old. Therefore, the empirical findings of this study is not based on individuals who can be regarded as children. However, the indication that a large amount of individuals watching video content on YouTube are under the age of 18 is still something that is important to consider. The empirical findings of this study have several practical implications which firms’ and well-known YouTube content creators can use to make consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube as effective as possible. However, it is important to consider that in the process of enhancing the effectiveness of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube that children can be exposed to consumer-generated advertisements as well. Therefore, we recommend that well-known content creators on YouTube that wish to promote brands on their channels, and firms’ that would like to market themselves through YouTube take practical implications and recommendation from this study cautiously as it might expose children to advertising in an unethical manner.
7.5 Truth Criteria

In regard to truth criteria we discuss the study’s reliability, validity, generalizability and replicability. Reliability is the degree in which the measures or observations in a study are perceived stable or consistent (Remenyi et al., 2005, p. 289). Reliability is concerned with the survey of our study and its level of robustness, meaning if a survey would have similar findings and consistent results if given to other respondents at a different time (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 430). There are several ways to test the level of reliability in a survey, such as re-testing, split the data in half and measure each part if they are similar, have different surveys which measure the same thing or to have different questions within a survey which measure the same variables (Ejvegård, 2009, pp. 78-79). In our survey, we did use questions based upon previous research which would all contribute to measure the same variable, which was intended for higher rate of reliability. We pre-tested the survey by conducting a pilot study to make sure questions could be clearly understood by respondents, hence increasing the reliability of this thesis findings. Moreover, Cronbach’s Alpha was used to measure the reliability of constructs. By using Cronbach’s Alpha as a reliability measure we noticed that some questions within some of the constructs had a low internal consistency. However, after removing items causing a low internal consistency the revised constructs had a Cronbach’s Alpha above 0.7, in accordance with the rule of thumb informed Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 159). This in turn have increased the reliability of measurements of the conceptual model.

Validity is the degree which aims to explore if the observation that are measured is basically viewed as the same as what the research was meant to measure in the observations (Remenyi et al., 2005, p. 291). Therefore, validity entail the level of integrity of the conclusion from a study (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 43). In this study it is relevant to analyze the internal validity of the data, which is to see if the research has found a causal relationship between two variables shown by data collected (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 193). Moreover, to ensure that a study is to be valid it must first be shown reliable (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 373). Since revised items have resulted in constructs having a Cronbach’s Alpha, this indicate high level of internal reliability, and in turn validity. Moreover, since we have built survey question based on constructs used in previous research we argue that measured items have a high degree of validity. Since data was analyzed statistically by using multiple regression, which resulted in that significant findings supported twelve of fifteen hypotheses, we argue that the thesis withhold high internal validity.

Generalizability refers to the possibility of having the data collected from a single research study to be generalized and be applicable to other studies as well (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 61). In regard to a deductive research approach, conducting a generalizable study refers to adapting and demonstrating generalized data to a specific research field (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). This can be done by conducting a sample which is coherent with the population considered for the survey (Patel & Davidson, 2011, p. 56). The population considered in this thesis are individuals over 18 years of age who have an experience of watching video content on YouTube. The method of linking the survey in two YouTube videos also increase generalizability as we were able to directly reach individuals who are included in the considered population. However, since the videos where the survey was linked were on Swedish we see that even though the findings are generalizable to Swedish consumers, it might not be so for consumers internationally. Though, since we have reached consumers who watch video content on YouTube the
generalizability is still considered high, and we see that the results still have a potential to be applicable to consumers internationally as well.

Replicability is very similar to reliability and refer to the level of possibility you or another researcher has to replicate the method of the study and gain the same results. (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 41) However, in difference with reliability, it also refers to having the study written in a specific step-to-step manner so that readers can understand and copy the research and apply it to their own work, which is especially beneficial in quantitative studies (Bryman & Bell, 2011, pp. 41-42). By this, if the found results demonstrate a similarity of previous studies, both the new and the old study will increase its credibility, including scenarios in which the surveys of the methodologies were different (Rossi et al., 1983, p. 156). Since we have designed our survey by using previously tested constructs and based our conceptual of previous theory we argue that this thesis is highly replicable. Since we also aimed to present our methodological choices are clearly and transparent as possible we also argue that this also ensures replicability.

7.6 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Studies

One limitation could be regarding the sample and if its representative to the population. The gender demographics of respondents of this study is not coherent with the female: male ratio in Sweden, which according to SCB (2016) is close to 1:1. This in turn could be considered as a limitation. However, previous research by Molyneaux et al. (2008, p. 9) indicates that males are substantially more frequent users of YouTube than female, hence the demographical results are not surprising, thus it can be seen as coherent with the population.

The survey, which was used to measure the constructs in our conceptual model, did not regard a specific well-known YouTube creator or a specific brand, which can be seen as a limitation. Empirical results which could not support hypotheses regarding the constructs attractiveness and brand awareness might have a different result if there questions in the survey regarded specific well-known YouTube creator or a specific brand. However, the reason to why we did not adapt the questions to a specific setting was to avoid harm of participants as discussed in chapter 4.4, concerning ethical considerations. Previous research, by for example La Ferle and Choi (2005), examined endorser credibility and its effect on brands by measuring the constructs in a specific setting using an experimental design. Therefore, we recommend that future research could further test the conceptual model of this study using an experimental design and measuring the constructs in a more specific setting. Another suggestion would also be to conduct research using the constructs measured in this study in a specific setting using a qualitative research design. Future research could therefore explore the possibility of gaining a deeper understanding regarding endorser credibility and brands in regard to consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.

Furthermore, while the motives of the chosen branding outcomes in our conceptual model are based on relevant previous research and the key findings will contribute to branding theories, we also argue that other branding outcomes could be explored and implemented in a similar study. We would recommend to use a similar conceptual model of the same context as presented in this study but instead switch the outcomes to for example brand identity, brand association, brand meaning, brand communication and brand equity.
This study has only examined YouTube as a video sharing site, and hence have not taken other video sharing sites into account. However, since over a billion people use YouTube we argue that YouTube as a media channel is large enough to solely be examined in regard to consumer-generated advertisements. We have not either examined other social media sites where well-known YouTube creators have the ability to endorse products. We therefore recommend that future research examine social media sites into account in regards to well-known YouTube creators endorsing brands on multiple social media sites.

Finally, we have not discussed the possibility of cultural differences that could occur when exploring consumer-generated advertising and its impact on consumers. Previous studies have studied different perceptions of advertising between countries around the world, implying that marketing strategies can have alterations depending on which location the consumers are positioned. Muralidharan et al. (2015, pp. 358-359) found that consumers’ attitude towards mobile marketing were different between United States and India in which Americans were more tolerant for smartphone-oriented advertising and saw it as valuable product information, in comparison with Indies which had a greater risk of irritation towards receiving advertising in their phone. Moreover, Cheong et al. (2010, pp. 11-12) found that cultural attributes need to be implemented when advertisement towards food are marketed to their respective consumer segment in China and USA, in which Chinese advertising of food need to adapt to a more collective scenario to match the cultural preferences while consumers of USA need advertising that approach their more individualized culture. Finally, Jiang and Wei (2012, pp. 614-615) explored how the advertising of multinational corporations in Europe, Asia and America reached internationalized standards and found that Europe had a much more international approach in their advertising while countries like India and China were the least likely to standardize their international advertising. From these studies, we can argue that there is a possibility that the function of consumer-generated advertising on YouTube will impact consumers’ attitude towards brands differently depending on consumers’ origin and by these cultural preferences. We therefore recommend future research to take cultural differences in consideration when examining effects on brands in the context of consumer-generated advertisements on YouTube.
8. Reference list


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Appendix 1: Examples of Sponsored YouTube Videos

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Channel</th>
<th>Subscribers</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Link to Video</th>
<th>Views</th>
<th>Brand</th>
<th>Coupon Code/ Type of Coupon Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jeremy Jahns</td>
<td>1,038,186</td>
<td>2nd of March 2016</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WOQSvlzUfts">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WOQSvlzUfts</a></td>
<td>449,933</td>
<td>Loot Crate</td>
<td>10% off purchase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthew Santoro</td>
<td>5,311,664</td>
<td>14th of March 2016</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=li-zCZH2CY&amp;index=2&amp;list=PLe7K6kDBf74HSu3Q6hiEMTkFlbL5iqJf">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=li-zCZH2CY&amp;index=2&amp;list=PLe7K6kDBf74HSu3Q6hiEMTkFlbL5iqJf</a></td>
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<td>Sigma Brushes</td>
<td>10% off purchase</td>
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<td>10,593,882</td>
<td>Lynda</td>
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2
Appendix 2: Survey Guide

***This information clarifies what each page of the survey regards and which construct and source of construct regards which survey questions. This information is not shown to the participants in the survey.

Introduction of the Survey:

Hej!

Vi är två civilekonomstudenter från Umeå universitet. Denna enkät avser en uppsats på masternivå i marknadsföring vars syfte är att undersöka vad konsumenter tycker om varumärken som syns i sponsrade videos på YouTube, vilka inkluderar en rabattkod. Sponsrade videos på YouTube avser videos som sponsrar välkända YouTube-användare att exempelvis prata om en viss produkt av ett visst varumärke i en video. Rabattkod avser när sponsrade videos inkluderar en kod som ger exempelvis 15% rabatt på en viss vara av ett visst varumärke och när exempelvis en rabattkod ger möjligheten prova en tjänst gratis i 30 dagar.


Observera att åldersgränsen för deltagande i enkäten är 18 år. Detta för att studien följer etiska rekommendationer från ESOMAR (Europeiska organisationen för opinion och marknadsundersökningar).

Enkäten stänger den 12:e april 21.00.

Vänligen,
Tina Romanov och Rahel Jonsson Brajim
Umeå universitet
This page includes the question if the individual which is interested in doing the survey is 18 years of age or older. If they tick the box “no” they will be transferred automatically to a page which inform them about the age limit of the survey.

Är du 18 år eller äldre? *

( ) Ja
( ) Nej

Page entry logic: This page will show when: Question "Är du 18 år eller äldre? " #1 is one of the following answers ("Ja")

This page includes questions regarding participant’s gender, age, and time spent on YouTube.

1. Kön *
   ( ) Kvinna
   ( ) Man
   ( ) Annat

2. Ålder *
   ( ) 18-24
   ( ) 25-34
   ( ) 35-44
   ( ) 45-54
   ( ) 55-64
   ( ) >65

3. Hur många timmar, i genomsnitt, spenderar du på att se på videos på YouTube i veckan? *
   ( ) 0-5 timmar
   ( ) 6-10 timmar
   ( ) 11-15 timmar
   ( ) 16-20 timmar
   ( ) >20 timmar
Dessa frågor avser hur du som konsument upplever välkända YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos på YouTube.

Fråga:

Jag upplever att en välkänd YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos generellt är;

4. *
Ej pålitlig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Pålitlig

5. *
Oärlig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Ärlig

6. *
Ej trovärdig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Trovärdig

7. *
Oattraktiv ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Attraktiv

8. *
Alldaglig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stilig

Fråga:

Jag upplever att en välkänd YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos generellt är;

9. *
Inte har erfarenhet av varumärkens produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal
( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7
Har erfarenhet av varumärkens produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

Page entry logic: This page will show when: Question "Är du 18 år eller äldre?" #1 is one of the following answers ("Ja")

***This page includes questions which regard the components trustworthiness and attractiveness of endorser credibility (Ohanian, 1990)***

Dessa frågor avser hur du som konsument upplever välkända YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos på YouTube.

Fråga:

Jag upplever att en välkänd YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos generellt är;

4. *
Ej pålitlig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Pålitlig

5. *
Oärlig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Ärlig

6. *
Ej trovärdig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Trovärdig

7. *
Oattraktiv ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Attraktiv

8. *
Alldaglig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stilig

Page entry logic: This page will show when: Question "Är du 18 år eller äldre?" #1 is one of the following answers ("Ja")

***This page includes questions which regard the component expertise of endorser credibility (Ohanian, 1990)***

Dessa frågor avser hur du som konsument upplever välkända YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos på YouTube.

Fråga:

Jag upplever att en välkänd YouTube-användare som gör sponsrade videos generellt är;

9. *
Inte har erfarenhet av varumärkens produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal
( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7
Har erfarenhet av varumärkens produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal
10. *
Inte har kunskap om varumärken och dess produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7

Har kunskap om varumärken och dess produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

11. *
Är kvalificerade att marknadsföra varumärken i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7

Inte är kvalificerade att marknadsföra varumärken i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

12. *
Är kunniga gällande varumärken och dess produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7

Är okunniga gällande varumärken och dess produkter som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på deras kanal

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**Page entry logic:** This page will show when: Question "Är du 18 år eller äldre?" #1 is one of the following answers ("Ja")

***This page includes questions which regard the variable coupon proneness (Lichtenstein et al., 1990)***

Nedan frågor avser vad du tycker om kuponger och erbjudande, inklusive rabattkoder som ges i sponsrade videos på YouTube.

13. Jag tycker om att använda kuponger, såsom rabattkoder, oavsett hur mycket jag sparar på kuponger*

Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

14. Kuponger, såsom rabattkoder, får mig att köpa produkter som jag normalt inte skulle köpa*

Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

15. När jag använder kuponger, såsom rabattkoder, får det mig att må bra*

Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer
This page includes questions which regard the variable brand attitude (La Ferle & Choi, 2005)

Nedan frågor avser dina generella attityder mot varumärken som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på YouTube, vilka inkluderar en rabattkod.

16. Min attityd mot ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos är generellt *
Negativ ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Positiv

17. Ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos är generellt*
Ofördelaktig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Fördelaktig

18. Ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos är generellt*
Dålig ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Bra

This page includes questions which regard the variables brand awareness (Spry et al., 2013) and brand trust (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003)

Nedan frågor avser varumärken generellt som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på YouTube, vilka inkluderar en rabattkod.

19. Sponsrade videos har gjort att jag är medveten om ett varumärke jag inte skulle vara medveten om annars*
Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

20. Jag kan snabbt känna igen ett varumärke som jag har sett i sponsrade videos*
Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

21. Ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos kan generellt erbjuda mig produkter/tjänster som har en konstant kvalitetsnivå*
Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

22. Ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos kommer generellt inte att göra mig besviken*
Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

23. Ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos kan jag generellt lita på*
Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer
This page includes questions which regard the variable brand loyalty (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003)

Nedan frågor avser varumärken generellt som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos på YouTube, vilka inkluderar en rabattkod.

24. Jag anser att jag generellt är lojal till ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos*

Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

25. Ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos är generellt ett varumärke som är mitt förstahandsval när jag ska köpa en viss produkt/tjänst*

Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

26. Jag kan generellt rekommendera ett varumärke som marknadsförs i sponsrade videos:*  

Stämmer inte ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7 Stämmer

Page entry logic: This page will show when: Question "Är du 18 år eller äldre?" #1 is one of the following answers ("Ja")

***This page regard participants who wish to participate anonymously in the lottery of two movie tickets and where they can include their e-mail address in the survey.

Om du önskar att vara med i utlottning av två biobiljetter, skriv in din e-postadress nedan. Utlottningen administreras av vi som utför studien och vinnaren meddelas via e-post i slutet av april. Observera att deltagande i utlottningen är frivillig och inte riskerar din anonymitet.

E-post:
Page entry logic: This page will show when: Question "År du 18 år eller äldre? " #1 is one of the following answers ("Nej")

***This page regard participants which have informed that they are under 18 and hence they are moved to this page where we inform that they are not able to participate according to ethical recommendation from ESOMAR (European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research).

Då du är under 18 år kan du tyvärr inte delta i enkäten då studien följer etiska rekommendationer från ESOMAR (europeiska organisationen för opinion och marknadsundersökningar).

Vi tackar för ditt intresse!

***Last page of the survey where we thank the respondents that they have participated in the survey and this is also where they submit the survey.

Tack!

Tack för visat intresse för studien och för ditt deltagande i enkäten!