“I don’t buy it!”
The awareness of fake news and its effects on consumer responses

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Abstract

**AIM:** Little research has been done on the topic of fake news. The studies that have been conducted, mostly focus on the context of politics. These studies show that fake news dispatches can heavily impact the attitude of people. Moreover, when being exposed to news items, most people find it hard to distinguish the fake from the ‘real’. This might not apply exclusively to politics. That is why, acknowledging its potential, it is interesting to explore if similar effects might occur when focusing on brands and consumer responses. Previously conducted studies show that negatively charged ‘real’ news impacts the attitude and behavior of consumers, changing their brand perception and related alternations such as buying behavior and product evaluation. By exposing consumers to negative news, whether fake or ‘real’ in nature, they could show a decline in their affinity towards the brand and their buying behavior. Therefore, this study aims to examine whether nature (i.e., fake versus ‘real’) and valence (i.e., positive versus negative) affects consumer responses constructs, such as attitudinal change, brand hate, brand love, product evaluation and word-of-mouth.

**METHOD:** An online survey was used in which respondents were exposed to one of four manipulated news articles (i.e., negatively charged ‘real’ news, negatively charged fake news, positively charged ‘real’ news and positively charged fake news). The two fake news conditions had five manipulations. The actual name of the writer and the actual URL were replaced by fictional names, which, especially in the case of the URL, were not credible at all. Another writing style was implemented by adding some completely capitalized sentences and an excessive amount of exclamation marks. Names of experts were randomly made up and this version lacked supporting arguments. Lastly, the versions were manipulated so they were either positively or negatively charged. Afterwards, questions were asked about several consumer responses. 139 Dutch respondents participated in the 2x2 experimental design.

**RESULTS:** Results show a significant difference for the construct brand hate between positively charged ‘real’ news and negatively charged fake news. Another significant difference can be found between positively charged ‘real’ news and negatively charged ‘real’ news, also for the construct of brand hate. The difference between positively and negatively charged ‘real’ news can be explained by the fact that the valence of a news item influences consumer responses. Furthermore, results confirm that respondents are not able to effectively distinguish fake news from the ‘real’ news article. Further no overall significant differences were found between the four conditions.

**CONCLUSION:** Even though results did not show significant effects between fake and ‘real’ news, this study is an important addition to the research field of fake news and consumer response, for example in terms of awareness. Regarding safety and trust issues, it is highly important that readers become able to distinguish the fake from the ‘real’. Not only are readers easily deceived, but consequences of fake news dispatches can also harm brand perception or reputation. That no significant differences were found between the fake and ‘real’ news indicates that respondents do not pay attention to the five manipulations (lack of supportive material, missing experts, domain name, strange name of the author and grammatical errors) which were manipulated in the fake news articles.

**Keywords:** Fake news; brand hate; brand love; consumer response
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1. Introduction

Often unsettling the public through making newspaper headlines, so-called fake news is a big issue nowadays. Supporting this is a major example that took place during the United States Presidential Election of 2016, where the current Pope of the Catholic Church became the subject of a fake news dispatch claiming his support for Donald Trump becoming the next president. This spread of disinformation caused uproars among Catholics worldwide (Allcott & Gentzkow, 2017). Fake news can be described as news which is intentionally false written with as purpose to mislead readers. A more common example of the fake news phenomenon is a fabricated declaration of a person’s death, while this person actually is still very much alive. In 2016, this happened to American technology entrepreneur Mark Zuckerberg (Woolf & Solon, 2016).

While examples like the above differ in scope, for one thing, they seem to attribute to an increasing collective consciousness. However, the public might not be well-equipped to rate the quality of information they encounter, as Dutch newspaper De Volkskrant points out. In their research, only 29% of questioned readers claims to be able to distinguish quality information from false information (Kranenberg, 2017). Furthermore, in terms of media credibility, most questioned readers value traditional media (i.e., print media and broadcast news) more than the formal and informal publication of news stories via the Internet (i.e., social media and news publishing websites) (Kranenberg, 2017). A study done by Reintjes and De Boer (2018) among Dutch citizens, shows that 25% of participants have less trust in the Dutch media compared with 2 years ago. In addition, the results show that social media platforms, such as Facebook, are the most popular source for information and news. Around 74% of the respondents use at least one a week these platforms to read news. The same study shows that 70% of the respondents think that social media lack control mechanisms to prevent fake news from spreading (Reintjes & de Boer, 2018). Therefore, fake news seems to not only fuel debates but it also appears to influence people’s perceptions of the trustworthiness of news.

Very little research has been done on the topic of fake news. Research on the fake news phenomenon include studies from Allcott and Gentzkow (2016), Lazer, Baum, Benkler, Berinsky, Greenhill, Menczer, . . . Zittrain (2018) and Condren, Davis, McCausland and Phiddian (2008). These researches, showing that false information can heavily impact public opinion, all focus on politics. However, they do not consider effects of fake news dispatches on consumer responses. Therefore, the effects of fake news on consumer responses are still unknown. Acknowledging its potential impact, it is relevant to see if similar effects might occur for fake news in relation to brands.

Previous research by Sago and Hinnenkamp (2014) and Storm (2013) shows that negative stories or other controversy involving a brand or a product can negatively influence consumer
behavior and customer loyalty. As mentioned before, even the public cannot distinguish quality information from false information. Therefore, this research examines if fake news about brands has similar effects on consumer responses as fake political news does on public opinion. The dominant prediction in this study is that fake news dispatches do influence respondents as much as ‘real’ news. Therefore, negatively charged fake news could lead to a negative attitude towards brands. For positively charged fake news goes the same. Because of a potential difference between the valence of the news, not only negatively but also positively charged news reports are included. Valence refers to the positive or negative writing style of the information.

The following research question helps to accurately examine the effects of fake news dispatches on consumer responses:

“Compared to ‘real’ news, to what extent does fake news influence consumer responses and the awareness of fake news?”

This research question studies nature (i.e., real news versus fake news) and valence (i.e., positive versus negative) as independent variables and their effect on dependent variables of consumer responses (brand hate, brand love and word-of-mouth) and the awareness of fake news. To examine these effects, this research consists of a 2x2 experimental design. Survey data collection was used as research method, in which all respondents got one out of four different newspaper articles (negative real news, negative fake news, positive real news and positive fake news).
2. Theoretical framework

In this chapter previous literature that is related to consumer responses (Attitude, Word-of-mouth, product evaluation, brand hate and brand love), fake news and the awareness of fake news are discussed.

2.1 Fake news

So far, not much research has been done on the fake news phenomenon. It is therefore not yet commonly defined. Until now, most researchers describe the concept of fake news with regard to the way it is used. Khaldarova and Pantti (2009) provide some examples, such as false news stories, misinformation (or disinformation), bizarre news, scandalous material or reportage, fabricated stories, misleading or sensational images, strategic narrative, journalistically dubious stories and propaganda-entertainment. Correspondingly, Balmas (2014) labels fake news as unrealistic, satirical, inconsistent, fictitious and negative. “News articles that are intentionally and verifiably false, and could mislead readers,” is how the concept of fake news is described by Allcott and Gentzkow (2017). Additionally, Lazer et al. (2018) define fake news as “fabricated information that mimics news media content in form but not in organizational process or intent.” As a result, this type of information lacks the accuracy and credibility of trustworthy information. With respect to Lazer et al. (2018), McGonagle (2017) wields a comparable definition, stating that the concept of fake news is about “information that has been deliberately fabricated and disseminated with the intention to deceive and mislead others into believing falsehoods or doubting verifiable facts.” An important aspect in all these definitions is the intention of authors of fake news. Misleading their readers can have purposes varying from amusing to more sinister ones such as earning money or influencing voting behavior. As Allcott and Gentzkow (2017) show, readers of news articles find it hard to distinguish fake news from real news. Although nothing is real news (everything is subjective), the term real news will be used for news articles which are substantiated with facts.

Types of fake news

Schow (2017) divides the concept of fake news into three categories: satire, misusing data and actual fake news. Not all three are easily recognized.

The most obvious category is satire (Condren et al., 2008). That is because of its intention to not spread news but to entertain readers. Predominantly humorous and not at all trying to report on ‘true’ events, an example of a satirical website is Dutch media platform De Speld. One of its exemplary articles is about robots taking over actual people’s moments of leisure. Therefore, these people are spending relatively more time working than they were before living in a world that is
partly inhabited by robots. Therefore, articles posted on this platform are easily appointed as fake news because of their highly fictitious character.

Misusing data, which Condren et al. (2008) distinguish as their second category within the concept of fake news, is slightly harder to recognize. This category is characterized by journalists who do not check their facts thoroughly. Therefore, they are likely to make up stories that rely on unverified information which can lead to divergent interpretations of news (Conroy et al. (2015). For example, after Donald Trump won the United States presidential election in November 2016, journalists connected his victory to a growing amount of transgender teenagers committing suicide (Payne, 2017). However, no evidence supported a connection between the two events. Nevertheless, British newspaper The Guardian speculated on the possible influence of the one on the other, even though these speculations were withdrawn shortly after.

Actual fake news are stories that are completely made up. In general, these stories function to generate views - and clicks - to make money (Conroy et al, 2015). One of the first examples of actual fake news dates back from the 1800’s. In 1835, the New York Sun reported that an Englishman had discovered life on the moon through an enormous telescope. The story included Unicorns and two-legged beavers (Omaha, 2017). Before it was noticed the article was a hoax, the news had already spread internationally. A few weeks after spreading the article, the New York Sun admitted the article was completely fake. Because actual fake news is news that is completely made-up, but might sound believable, it is harder to recognize as being fake. Even if it sounds unrealistic, one could still have doubts, as sometimes real stories sound too unbelievable to be true as well. As a result fake news is difficult to distinguish from real news.

2.2 The effects of news on consumer responses
The second goal of this research is to find out to what extent consumer responses are affected by fake news dispatches about brands, naturally after being indicated by the above credibility factors. How ‘real’ news affects consumer responses has been widely studied. Two factors that have repeatedly shown to influence respondents are so called word-of-mouth and brand hate/brand love. According to Ahluwalia, Burnkrant and Unnava (2000), negatively charged news could lead to a change in attitude or behavior. As mentioned before, the concept of fake news has already been studied in political setting, but this phenomenon has not been researched yet in a commercial setting. However, this study expects that fake news dispatches can influence products and brand evaluation as well.
Attitudinal change and behavior

Attitude, as a concept, has been broadly researched by multiple scholars. However, most of the researchers were social psychologists and they usually based their works on persuasive communication (Sherif and Sargent, 1947; Taylor, 1981). Even though Taylor uses a different term (i.e., brand commitment, referring to attitudinal loyalty), results from his research show that the higher the brand commitment, the higher the attitudinal loyalty. This indicates that respondents with a positive attitude towards a brand are more likely to purchase a product that belongs to this brand (Taylor, 1981).

According to Giner-Sorolla (1999), the concept of attitude is centered towards an object, in this case a brand. Furthermore, Mitchell and Olson (1981) define attitude towards the brand as “an individual’s internal evaluation of a product or a brand”. The actions of respondents are based on behavior and thus their emotions. This research brings these emotions down to two: brand love and brand hate. These two emotions are based on information received by a consumer. Negative information about a brand could change their perception about a brand and therefore create a more negative attitude towards the brand. Logically, this also goes the other way around, leading to the following hypotheses.

H1a: Negative fake news has a negative effect on attitude towards the brand.
H1b: Positive fake news has a positive effect on attitude towards the brand.

The valance of information

In addition to influencing attitude, the valance of news is important attitudinal changes. Framing is a well-known and highly used expression by politicians and journalists. Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) describe framing as “presenting a concept in such a way as to convey a value judgement (positive or negative) that might not be immediately apparent; to create an inherent bias”. Therefore, the framing theory focuses on how media draw the public eye to specific topics which they find relevant. By negatively framing a specific topic, a writer tries to steer his or her readers towards a negative opinion about this topic. Results from a study by Dillman Carpentier (2005) show that selective exposure could influence the perception and the attitude of respondents.

Being selectively exposed to negatively as well as positively charged information impacts likeability and immediacy (Dillman Carpentier, 2005). Furthermore, Sago and Hinnekamp (2014) show that negatively charged news impacts the attitude and behavior of respondents. Therefore, negatively charged news could change brand perception and related alternations such as buying behavior and product evaluation. By exposing respondents to negativity about a brand, these
respondents could show a decline in likeability and buying behavior. Klein (1996) argues that negatively charged information plays a bigger part in the overall evaluation of actions and decisions by respondents than positively charged information does. Negative frames thus do impact more than positive frames (Meyers-Levy, 1990). Chiou and Cheng (2003) found that negative brand or product reviews influence product evaluations and attitudes in a negative way, but only when the brand or product which was reviewed has a bad reputation. Product evaluations and attitudes of highly appreciated brands do not seem to be influenced as much (Chiou and Cheng, 2003). The trustworthiness of online information is one of great importance. Not every online news item seems to be logic and trustworthy. Therefore, trustworthiness can influence public perceptions or interpretations of news (Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels, 2009).

**Word-of-mouth**

Word-of-mouth (WOM) is one of the most used sources of information by respondents when making a decision regarding a purchase. Before the Internet existed, people shared their experiences (in the case of this study about products) through traditional WOM (e.g., discussing product quality with family or friends) (Sundaram et al., 1998). Nowadays, the Internet provides people with the possibility to share information about a product, brand or service online. Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004: 39) refers to this so called electronic WOM (eWOM) as “any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet.” eWOM changed the way in which respondents gather their information, because opinions or statements (i.e., information) on brands, products or services can be used by other respondents to form their own opinion. Correspondingly, Yayli and Buyram (2012) prove that online reviews indeed deeply impact product purchase intentions and product choosing by respondents. Because of the Internet, large corporations and news media are no longer in control of information (Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008). For companies it thus becomes difficult to control what is written about their brand. Consequently, WOM is one of the most influential resources of information according to Godes and Mayzlin (2004). How (e)WOM affects product and brand evaluation and consumer responses has been well researched (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Sundaram et al., 1998; Bone, 1995). For example, Bone (1995) points out that WOM influences product judgements and indicates that the accessibility of the information obtained by WOM is easily retrieved from a person’s memory, especially compared to other information.

Emotions play a major role in product choosing and purchase intention. The latter can be defined as a personal decision to buy a product or prefer a brand and does not per se correspond
with attitude (Rezvani, Javadian Dekhordi, Rahman, Fouladivanda, Habibi & Eghtebasi, 2012). Based on feelings and emotions towards brands, consumers decide what to buy (Sinha, Ahuja & Medury, 2011). They often choose brands which represent their feelings and beliefs (Gelbrich, 2009). As markets are highly competitive nowadays, it becomes hard for brand owners to distinguish themselves from the rest. The challenge lies in knowing what aspects influence respondents. With regard to news, the difference in nature between fake and ‘real’ is hard to tell. Therefore, negatively charged news, even if it is fake in nature, can negatively affect WOM. Naturally, this also goes the other way around, leading to the following hypotheses.

H1c: Negative fake news has a negative effect on the composition of word-of-mouth.
H1d: Positive fake news has a positive effect on the composition of word-of-mouth.
H1e: Negative fake news has a negative effect on product evaluation.
H1f: Positive fake news has a positive effect on product evaluation.

Brand hate
Emotions are crucial to marketeers. Brand related activities, such as advertisements, provoke emotional reactions within consumers (Bagozzi, Gopinath & Nyer, 1999). Combined with the increasing presence of brands, consumers develop emotions towards these brands. In addition, Ben-Ze’ev (2001) states that “emotions typically occur when we perceive positive or negative significant changes in our personal life”. Expectations that are not fulfilled therefore lead to negative emotions towards a brand. The intensity to which negative emotions occur differs. For example, disliking is a subtle negative emotion, but hate is a much stronger one.

As a result of strong negative emotions, brand hate can occur. In that case, negative feelings lead to boycotting or sabotaging consumer behavior. Bryson, Atwal and Hulten (2013) describe brand hate as strong negative components of attitude towards a brand. The effects of brand hate can be categorized into three categories: attitudinal changes towards the brand, behavioral changes and brand avoidance. Attitudinal changes towards the brand considers feelings of consumers towards a brand. After reading negatively charged information about a brand, for example, consumers could change their opinion on whether they like or dislike a brand. Behavioral changes are about those actions which are based on consumer attitude. Changes in attitude result in behaviors such as deciding not to buy products from particular brands. Brand avoidance, in turn, is about consumers deliberately rejecting a brand. According to Lee et al. (2009), brand avoidance only applies when consumers do have the financial resources to buy a product but, nevertheless, deliberately avoid the brand.
Brand hate is a process which has been occurred over a longer period of time. The respondents who has these negative feelings towards a company, has been exposed to negative information about that company. By being exposed to negatively charged news articles could influence respondents attitude towards companies, in extreme scenarios leading to brand hate (Klein, 1996). As mentioned before, fake news can hardly be distinguished from ‘real’ news. Therefore, readers could interpret fake news as ‘real’ (i.e., ‘true’) in nature. Therefore, negatively charged news positively affects brand hate, meaning it increases brand hate towards a brand. This also goes the other way around, as is written in the hypotheses below.

H1g: Negative fake news has a positive effect on brand hate.
H1h: Positive fake news has a negative effect on brand hate.

Brand love
Contradictory to brand hate, brand love occurs when consumers adore or worship brands. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) define brand love as “the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name”. Batra, Bagozzi and Ahuvia (2006) see brand love as “a consumers’ experience, which is best represented as a higher-order construct including multiple cognitions, emotions, and behaviors”. For example, consumers show brand love by buying or wearing brand products. Brand love consists of multiple actions and emotions. Moreover, it can be divided into three categories: self-brand integration, passion driven behaviors and positive emotional connection.

Self-brand integration considers the current self-identity and the desired self-identity of consumers. The current self-identity is about who a person is and how others view upon this person, while the desired self-identity is about who a person wants to be. How someone sees him- or herself is of importance to brands, because brands will want to reflect public or group norms and values. Passion-driven behavior is about consumer willingness to invest their resources, such as time, energy or money. Besides their willingness to invest, the passionate desire to use is an important aspect of passion-driven behavior. This describes the drive of consumers to use or own brand products. Lastly, positive emotional connection, is about the emotional connection a consumer has with a product. Brands should therefore enhance aspect of emotional connection with consumers (Batra, Bagozzi & Ahuvia, 2006).

As mentioned before, fake news can hardly be distinguished from ‘real’ news. Readers might, therefore, interpret fake information as ‘real’ (i.e., ‘true’). That is why negative news negatively affects brand love. This also goes the other way around as the hypotheses below show.
**H1:** Negative fake news have a negative effect on brand love.

**H2:** Positive fake news has a positive effect on brand love.

### 2.3 Awareness of fake news

Proof supporting the actual existence of the fake news phenomenon is increasingly presented (Boere, 2017; Felix & Zeeman, 2017). For example, it is proven that Macedonian teenagers were paid large sums of money to create and spread fake pro-Trump news during the United States Presidential Election of 2016 (Kirby, 2016). Also, multiple authorities, such as the Intelligence and Security agency of the Netherlands and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, found evidence that Russians tried to manipulate several European election campaigns by spreading fake news through social media (Boere, 2017; Felix & Zeeman, 2017). With its rapid sharing of information, social media facilitate an easy and fast spread of fake news. Social networking service Facebook quickly recognized the dangerous and problematic nature of the fake news phenomenon. Therefore, a month before the 2017 United Kingdom general election took place, ten indicators on how to recognize and prevent the spread of fake news were published by Facebook. These can be divided into three categories. For an overview, see Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1: Credibility</th>
<th>Argument supported articles</th>
<th>Authors credibility</th>
<th>URL</th>
<th>Experts</th>
<th>Writing style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Credibility</strong></td>
<td>Article presentation factors</td>
<td>Author intention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argument supported articles</td>
<td>Other sources reporting the same news</td>
<td>Parody written articles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors credibility</td>
<td>Writers background information</td>
<td>Joke articles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URL</td>
<td>Comments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1

Elements indicating fake news

In general, arguments increase the credibility of stories, which makes substantiated stories likely to be persuasive (Gupta et al., 2013; Gray et al., 2012). Moreover, Schreiner, Appel, Isberner and Richter (2018) propose that external sources supporting an article increase its believability. This could be explained by the fact that most fake news dispatches do not include many verified sources to support the claims being made. Lack of evidence of expertise in an article may therefore indicate
that it is fake (Fullfact, 2016). Next to arguments, the credibility of the author or the source (i.e., newspapers, social media or websites) also adds to the believability of a story. That is why it is important to check whether, in the past, fake news ever came from a specific source (Conroy et al., 2015). If more stories on a specific source endanger its credibility, it is very likely that this source pays little attention to truth of content (Nagler, 2016). Furthermore, if a source is known for its parody, its news articles can be fake as well. A domain name (URL) is an effective way to check the credibility of a source, because sources spreading fake news like to imitate authentic, quality-driven sources. An example of a small, not directly noticeable alterations in a URL is “.com.co” instead of the usual “.com” (Factfull, 2016; Nagler, 2016). Another way of journalists ensuring credibility is by them using experts to support their claims. Creators of fake news almost never use many experts to back their story (Davis, 2016). Having said that, a common mistake of sources that spread fake news articles is their writing style. Professional newspapers apply grammatical standards for their publications (Nagler, 2016), while fake news dispatches often try to gather attention by overusing punctuations and capital letters (Conry et al., 2015).

Category 2: Article presentation factors

One characteristic of news that can impact the perception of fake news dispatches, is the amount of other sources that spread the same message. If multiple sources publish the same information, its trustworthiness grows. Only one source reporting on a specific event might indicate the fake nature of a story (BBC, 2017; Burgess, 2017; Prince, 2017). A second characteristic which helps in recognizing fake news spreading platforms is the inclusion of an “About Us” page on a website. An “About Us” page provides visitors with useful information about writers of articles (NPR, 2016). This type of page is particularly often nonexistent on websites that regularly publish fake news. Online publications of news often provide readers the possibility to comment, which makes up for the third characteristic within this category. Fake news often provokes loads of reactions of its readers. If these comments are mostly about the trustworthiness of the article, in most cases this indicates that the article is fake in nature (NPR, 2016).

Category 3: Author intention

Intentions of authors of stories are not always easily extracted. If a website is known for its parody, it is very likely to exaggerate in its publications (CloudFont, 2016). If an article is written with the purpose of amusing readers, it is very likely to tell a story which does not respect ‘true’ events at its best. Also, websites to which the above can be applied sometimes write stories based on fantasy or inspiration, clearly resulting in fake news (Factfull, 2016; Gannett, 2017; NOS, 2017).
This research focuses on aspects of credibility, because these are related to content. The five factors belonging to the category of credibility represent the content of articles. That is why the first goal of this study is to test these. Whether the five factors can reveal a potential fake nature of a news item will be determined by their presence herein. With regards to writing style, for example, words written in capital are easier to recognize than a few exclamation points. As a result, subtle use of punctuation with the purpose of generating attention will probably not have much impact on the interpretation of the nature of news by readers.

RQ1: In what way do credibility manipulations (i.e., Argument supported articles, Authors’ credibility, URL, Writing style and Use of experts) attribute to the possibility of recognizing fake news dispatches?

2.4 Research model

![Figure 2: Research model.](image)
3. Method

The chapter provides an overview of the research design, the instruments and measures that were used in this study.

3.1 Research design

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of fake news and valance on several consumer responses. Therefore, a 2 (fake versus real) x 2 (positive versus negative) experiment with a between subjects design was used to measure the effects of fake news and valance on attitudinal change, brand hate, brand love, word-of-mouth, product evaluation and awareness of fake news. See Table 2 for the experimental research design.

Table 2
2 x 2 Experimental research design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valence</th>
<th>News</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Real</td>
<td>Fault</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive real news</td>
<td>Positive fake news</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Negative real news</td>
<td>Negative fake news</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Stimulus material

To ensure the fitting of fake manipulations into one news item, an article was chosen which was negative and included experts providing arguments supporting their opinions. Dutch newspaper Algemeen Dagblad published the original article, which reported on Nike, a sportswear company, refusing visitors wearing brand items of competitors. This article was used to create four different news articles; negative ‘real’ news, negative fake news, positive ‘real’ news and positive fake news.

The stimulus material contains four different versions of this news item, which are included in Appendix A. Each respondent read one of these four. An English version of the original article can be found in Appendix B. Version one contains ‘real’ negatively charged news. This version corresponds with the original and was only edited by deleting adds and related publications so that readers would not be distracted while reading.

The second version is fake, because the original version was manipulated in five ways. The actual name of the writer and the actual URL were replaced by fictional names, which, especially in the case of the URL, were not credible at all. Another writing style was implemented by adding some completely capitalized sentences and an excessive amount of exclamation marks. Names of experts
were randomly made up and this version lacked supporting arguments. Also, this version was negatively charged.

The third version is ‘real’ and positively charged, thus resulting in positive writing on Nike. Version one is rewritten to replace the negativity of the article to positivity in the article.

Version four contains fake and positively charged content. For this version, the third version was edited with the five different manipulations used in version two. This resulted in the second and the fourth version containing five factors which are representative for the concept of fake news.

To work on the layout of all versions, Photoshop was used, resulting in corresponding looks for all versions. Figure 3 shows different manipulations that were used for the article versions in the study. Number 1 shows the changed URL, number two shows the name of the writer that has been changed. Number three shows two different items that have been edited for the writing style; all normal letters were replaced by capital letters and four exclamation marks. Number four shows the changed expertise of the correspondent. The fifth manipulation cannot be shown because this manipulation is the lack of argumentation. For this manipulation the arguments of the expert have been deleted.

After reading such a version, respondents had to fill in a survey containing multiple questions about the attitude towards the brand, Brand hate, Brand love, word-of-mouth, product evaluation and awareness of fake news. The survey can be found in Appendix C.
Figure 3: Example of the five manipulations visible.
Pre-test

A focus group was used for the pretest, wherein six participants debated on several manipulations which are relevant to this study, including: the name of the writer, the URL and specific opportunities for manipulating the writing style. All participants varied in age, education and place of residence, with ages varying from 21 to 54 to reproduce the population of the Netherlands as good as possible. After discussing multiple options for each manipulation, most decisions were made unanimously.

Besides the manipulations the respondents had to rate which manipulation was easier to recognize than the other. Two factors are believed to influence the extent to which manipulations ‘give away’ that news might be fake in nature. Notably, these are the plausibility and the noticeability of manipulations. For example, while overused punctuation is more noticeable, it could still be plausible. While, a URL which is not credible scores low on plausibility, but also on noticeability and might thus not be recognized. Therefore, the hypothesis of this study is that the fake nature of news is mostly revealed by the least plausible and most noticeable manipulations. Figure 4 shows the empty awareness model which was used.

Figure 4: Awareness model.
3.3 Measures

The survey questioned six constructs. Respondents answered various statements regarding these constructs to indicate to what extent they agreed upon the statements on a five-point Likert scale (Spector, 1992) varying from strongly disagreeing to strongly agreeing.

Attitudinal changes towards the brand

Behavioral avoidance was measured by three statements derived from Sengupta and Johar (2002). An exemplary item is: “I believe that Company X is very reliable” (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.72).

WOM

Word-of-mouth was measured by combining different scales, focusing on purchase intention, product choosing and the willingness of respondents to recommend the brand or company. Firstly, product choosing was measured by three statements from Berens, Riel and Bruggen (2005). An exemplary item is: “If I were planning to buy a product of this type, I would choose Product X.”

Secondly, the purchase intention of the word-of-mouth was measured by three statements derived from Putrevu and Lord (1994) and Baker and Churchill (1977). An exemplary item is: “I tend to purchase products from Brand X” (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.85).

Product evaluation

Product evaluation was measured by three statements derived from Priester and Petty (1996). An exemplary item is: “How indecisive are you when evaluating products of Brand X after reading this advertisement?” (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.75).

Brand hate

Brand hate was measured by four statements derived from Zeki and Romaya (2008) and Salvatori (2007). An exemplary item is: “I do not like Brand X.” The item “I would like to interact with Brand X” was deleted to increase the Cronbach’s alpha to 0.78.

Brand love

Brand love was measured by thirteen statements derived from Bagozzi, Batra and Ahuvia (2014). An exemplary item is: “Brand X makes me look how I want to look” (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.89).
Awareness of fake news

No fitting scale was found to measure fake news. Therefore, the scale was comprised of various self-conceived items regarding fake news (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.73). Items that were used for this construct:

“I think that the article I just read was a fake news dispatch.”

“I think the article I read is fake news.”

“The article lacked substantiation for certain statements.”

“The name of the writer of this article sounds unreliable.”

“The article contained a weird domain name.”

“There were grammatical errors in the article.”

“There were exaggerated exclamation marks in the article.”

“Experts were missing in this news article.”

“The article sounds unbelievable.”

3.4 Participants and procedure

The survey was created using Qualtrics and spread using snowball sampling. An anonymous link was send to multiple people using social media, e-mail and WhatsApp as platforms for spreading the survey. Respondents were asked if they were willing to participate in a test regarding news articles. Considering the large images which were used in the survey, only tablets and computers were used to complete it, because mobile phones were incapable of showing complete images because of a lack of screen size. This study involved a total group of 139 participants, with 70 male and 69 female respondents, a mean age of 37.6 years and an age range of 17 to 69. Table 3 shows age and gender distribution across the four conditions. Most people in the four conditions were highly educated. Those respondents receiving the version with negatively charged fake news were for 72.9% highly educated, and for negatively charged ‘real’ news, this percentage was 67.6%. This percentage is lower for positively charged fake news (53.6%) and positively charged real news (58.3%). Table 3 shows how most respondents mostly are exposed to news through social media in daily life. Not many respondents rely on magazines as a medium to keep up-to-date.
Table 3
Demographics of the participants for each condition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Negative fake news</th>
<th>Negative real news</th>
<th>Positive fake news</th>
<th>Positive real news</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>36.1 (13.7)</td>
<td>41.0 (12.8)</td>
<td>38.8 (14.5)</td>
<td>34.9 (14.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basis school</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VMBO</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HAVO</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VWO</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBO</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBO</td>
<td>45.9%</td>
<td>54.1%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WO</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News papers</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>52.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazines</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News programs</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>78.4%</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social media</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>89.3%</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Websites</td>
<td>73.7%</td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td>67.9%</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Results

This chapter presents the results of the pre- and main-study. Analyses of variance were used to investigate the effects of independent variables on dependent variables.

4.1 Results Pre-test

Results of the pre-test about the awareness of fake news show that the URL is the most recognizable factor. Therefore, this factor most likely shows the fake nature of news. It is believed that author’s credibility is the second most recognizable factor, followed by argument supported articles and believability of the article. Least recognizable, according to the results of the focus group, are use of experts and, finally, writing style. Figure 5 shows how the different factors score on these two scales. See below for a schematic overview.

![Figure 5: Noticeability and plausibility of fake news for the following factors and their numbers: Argument supported articles (1), Authors’ credibility (2), URL (3), Writing style (4) and Use of experts (5)
4.2 Results main study

Table 4 presents the mean, the standard deviation (SD), the decrease of freedom and the probability value for each condition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Condition 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Condition 2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude before reading</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude after reading</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product evaluation</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand hate</td>
<td>2.39*</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>2.24*</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand love</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of fake news</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Condition 3</th>
<th></th>
<th>Condition 4</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude before reading</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude after reading</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product evaluation</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand hate</td>
<td>1.88*</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand love</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of fake news</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test if there were any significant differences, a Bonferroni post hoc test was performed. An ANOVA including the four different conditions as dependent variables revealed a main effect of these conditions on brand hate ($F(3, 135) = 3.90, p<.01, \eta^2 = 0.08$). Figure 6 shows that positively charged ‘real’ news is evaluated with less brand hate than negatively charged ‘real’ news ($M = 1.88, SD = 0.66$ versus $M = 2.39, SD = 0.56$). A Bonferroni Post Hoc Test confirmed this finding and also shows a difference between positively charged ‘real’ news and negatively charged fake news ($p<.02$) ($M = 4.12, SD = 0.66$ versus $M = 3.76, SD = 0.74$). Regarding the other dependent variables, no significant differences were found between the four conditions.
Table 5: Means and SD for each construct on fake news

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Fake</th>
<th></th>
<th>Real</th>
<th></th>
<th>F-Value</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude before reading</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude after reading</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product evaluation</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand hate</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand love</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of fake news</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test if there were any significant differences, a Bonferroni post hoc test was performed. Concerning the conditions and the different dependent variables, no significant differences were found between the effects of fake and ‘real’ news dispatches on dependent variables.
Table 6 shows the valence of the news regarding the different dependent variables.

Table 6: Means and SD for each construct on valence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Valence</th>
<th></th>
<th>F-Value</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude before reading</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude after reading</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product evaluation</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand hate</td>
<td>3.70*</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>3.99*</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand love</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of fake news</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To test if there were any significant differences, a Bonferroni post hoc test was performed. An ANOVA with negatively charged versus positively charged news as dependent variables revealed a main effect on brand hate ($F(3, 135) = 6.81$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2 = 0.02$). With regard to other dependent variables, no significant differences were found between the valance of news. Table 7 shines light on the different means of the questions about the awareness of the nature of news.

Table 7 shows the different means of questions asked about the awareness of fake news.

Table 7: Awareness of fake news

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Fake news</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think the article I read is fake news.</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The article lacked substantiation for certain statements.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The name of the writer of this article sounds unreliable.</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The article contained a weird domain name.</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were grammatical errors in the article.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were exaggerated exclamation marks in the article.</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts were missing in this news article.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The article sounds unbelievable.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the awareness of the nature of news, no significant differences were found between fake and ‘real’ news dispatches.
5. Discussion

This study aimed to examine whether nature and valence of news affect several constructs of consumer responses. An online survey was used in which all respondents were exposed to one out of four manipulated news items.

5.1 Discussion of the results

Results show a significant difference on the construct brand hate between, on the one hand, positively charged ‘real’ news and negatively charged fake news and, on the other hand, positively charged ‘real’ news and negatively charged ‘real’ news. The latter can be explained by the fact that the valance of the news item influences the way in which respondents complete a survey. Therefore, the difference between positively charged real news and negatively charged fake news is more significant. Results confirm that differences are mostly related to valance and less to nature (i.e., whether an item is fake or ‘real’). These differences found between negatively and positively charged news correspond with previous research (Dillman Carpentier, 2005). The lack of other significant differences, in the valance of the news, can be explained by the fact that Nike is a strong and deeply-rooted brand. The fact that most respondents already had an opinion on and attitude towards Nike confirms this. Another explanation could be that the news did not impact the respondents enough to make an attitudinal change. If the news, which was used for the article, causes more uproar it could have had an bigger impact on the respondent and therefore could have influence their attitude.

Furthermore, respondents cannot distinguish fake from ‘real’ news dispatches, as Table 7 illustrates, no significant differences were found in means by respondents who read fake news items and those who read ‘real’ news items. At the same time, the sequence of the manipulations did not come out as predicted on forehand. As stated in Chapter 2, out of all indications, the URL should have been the easiest to recognize. This was not the case as results point to a lack of supportive material as the most recognizable indication. The second most recognizable indication is the missing experts, followed by the URL and the name of the author. Grammatical errors are the least recognizable indication.

Regarding safety and trust issues, it is highly important that people become able to distinguish the fake from the ‘real’. Not only are respondents easily deceived, but a fake news item can also have consequences for brand perception or reputation. The amount of attention the concept of fake news gathers proves its contemporary societal impact. Nowadays, journalists stand for the task of becoming more critical towards credibility of news. A study, done by Reintjes and de Boer (2018), shows that 25% of Dutch readers have less trust in the Dutch media compared with 2 years ago. The lack of media credibility could, eventually, lead to a decrease in popularity and thus
revenue because readers are becoming increasingly skeptical when it comes to reading and judging news. So far, only a few organizations seem to be working on solutions for the rise of fake news. For now, the seriousness towards the problematic nature of the concept of fake news keeps on growing.

5.2 Theoretical implications
As mentioned before, little research has been done on the concept of fake news and even less while combined with consumer responses. Therefore, this study can be used as a basic for understanding the concept of fake news. This study mostly covers information on what is, until now, known about fake news and its impact on individuals and society. Manipulations used in this study can help in recognizing whether news is fake or ‘real’ in nature. Even though none of them were significantly different, the results of different constructs can be used as comparative material for studies which will also include these constructs.

The results from this study can be used to research for more significant indicators of fake news. As mentioned in the theoretical framework, only the credibility indicators where taken into account. The article presentational factors and the authors intention factors could have an impact on the reader as well. That many people cannot distinguish fake- from ‘real’ news indicates how big the problem of fake news is.

5.3 Practical implications
The results show that respondents cannot easily distinguish the fake from the ‘real’. That implies that newspapers and other media platforms should pay more attention to preserving their trustworthiness by increasing awareness on the concept of fake news. In doing so, they should provide the public with indications to aid them in decreasing their doubt when considering the ‘realness’ of information. If the government desires a stop on the spread of fake news, they could initiate a serious campaign about the deceiving nature of fake news. For journalists, this study could provide some useful insights for verification and, even more important, proper reflection on their societal role and credibility.

5.4 Future research and limitations
While the results of this study have offered some useful insights into the effects of fake news on consumer responses, there are some limitations that might have influenced its results. These limitations can easily be solved by implementing some changes in future research.

One limitation is the generalizability of this study. According to the results, more than 50% of all respondents are highly educated. In order to generalize results, the focus group should have been more representative of society. In addition to the generalization, for this study only 139 respondents
were questioned. Increasing this number would definitely contribute to the generalization of its results. Furthermore, to measure word-of-mouth in future research, it is recommended to use a different scale. The scale that was used in this research, mostly focuses on purchase intention. Therefore, a different scale could provide new insights.

A survey was used for this study. Respondents could thus only choose between fixed answers. That is why qualitative research could lead to new insights. By using interviews for future depth research, interviewers can gather more detailed information.

Multiple factors influence the perception of news. However, this study only investigated factors concerning credibility. Other factors, such as author intention and article presentation provide interesting opportunities for examination and future research. Furthermore, different brands can be subjected to investigation. Nike, which was used in this study, is a well-known brand with a solid reputation. Therefore, it is possible that respondents already experienced brand hate or brand love towards Nike before participating in the survey.

5.5 Conclusion

This study investigated the following research question: “Compared to ‘real’ news, to what extent does fake news influence consumer responses and the awareness of fake news?” Its results show that respondents cannot distinguish the ‘real’ from the fake when it comes to news items. However, when it comes to the nature of news (i.e., fake versus ‘real’) no significant differences between the two were found between the results of the constructs. This indicates that respondents pay little to no attention to the five items pointing to the concept of fake news (i.e., lack of supportive material, missing experts, domain name, strange name of the author and grammatical errors). Brand hate, as a scale, did show a significant difference when it came to positively and negatively charged news. This indicates that reputation of the investigated brand, that is Nike in this case, was already rooted too deep to be increased or decreased by positivity or negativity. Even though the results did not show significant differences, this research is a valuable addition to the research field of fake news and consumer responses in terms of reflection and creating awareness.
6. References


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Appendix A: Articles

Condition 1: Negative ‘real’ news
Condition 2: Negative fake news

Adidasvest taboe bij bezoek aan Nike

Nike houdt een strakke greep op de sportkleding. Het is niet alleen om het merkvenster heen te rijden, maar ook de concurrentie in het merkvenster te verstrooien. Vanaf nu worden de Adidasvesten bij bezoeken aan Nike taboe.

We hebben het merk Nike, in tegenstelling tot Adidas, dat de concurrentie in het merkvenster kan versterken. In tegenstelling tot Adidas, dat de concurrentie in het merkvenster kan versterken. In tegenstelling tot Adidas, dat de concurrentie in het merkvenster kan versterken.
Condition 3: Positive ‘real’ news

Master thesis – The awareness of fake news and its effects on consumer responses
Master thesis – The awareness of fake news and its effects on consumer responses
Appendix B: English news article

Adidas vest taboo when visiting Nike
Nike uses a strict dress code. Not only employees, but also visitors get to do with it. Who wants a tour through the headquarters of the sports giant in Hilversum, must leave his Adidas cap and Puma vest at the door.

Who wants to visit the headquarters of Nike, Inc., receives the request in advance not to wear competing brands. Boots are fine, but sneakers from Puma or Adidas are taboo. "When someone comes to us with, for example, a cardigan or Adidas cap, we ask him to take this off", confirms a spokesperson for the sports giant. In The Netherlands this strict policy caused a stir, when a class with autistic youth was asked to meet the remarkable dress code. "Make it clear to someone with autism that he is not allowed to wear his favorite pair of shoes from Adidas to a school trip," one of the mothers complained on Facebook.

"Explain it clear to someone with autism that he is not allowed to wear his favorite shoes."
- Kelly Rymenams

The 41-year old Kelly Rymenams, mother of the autistic Yannick (18), initially thought that Nike's request was a joke. ,, We received an email from school that Nike had explicitly asked not to wear competing brands during the company visit to the Nike warehouse in Hasselt, including concrete examples such as Adidas, Puma and New Balance. "That is sensitive to Nike and the guides, "stated the mail. 'If a student still wears these brands, he/she can be refused during the visit.' Rymenams finds the request short-sighted. "I understand that you impose such a directive on employees within a company, then it makes sense to me. But not to young people with autism?"

Although, Nike, Inc. is not necessarily doing wrong with the dress code for visitors, says professor of labor law Marc De Vos of the University of Ghent. ,, I don’t see a problem, " says De Vos. "If the company invites you to visit under certain conditions, then it is up to the visitor to follow these conditions. If you are not willing to, then you could stay at home, it's as simple as that! You choose to visit that company. So you adapt to the rules. " The spokesman of the European headquarters of Nike in Hilversum seems to find the dress code the most common thing in the world. ,, I will not say that we really refuse visitors if they are competitive brand, but we do ask them to avoid certain brands. "

Master thesis – The awareness of fake news and its effects on consumer responses
Appendix C: Survey
Introduction and instructions

Beste deelnemer,

Allereerst wil ik u graag bedanken voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek. Dit onderzoek vindt plaats in het kader van mijn afstudeeropdracht voor de opleiding Communicatiewetenschap aan de Universiteit Twente.

U leest straks een nieuwsbericht over Nike. Lees het artikel aandachtig door. Hierop volgen een paar korte vragen over de inhoud van het nieuwsbericht. Bij het beantwoorden van de vragen staat uw mening centraal; er zijn dus geen goede of foute antwoorden.

Deelnemen aan dit onderzoek is volledig anoniem en het onderzoek zou ongeveer 5 minuten duren.

Met vriendelijke groet,
Jerre Oude Nijhuis

Ik heb bovenstaande informatie gelezen en ik stem geheel vrijwillig in met deelname aan dit onderzoek. Ik behoud me daarbij het recht voor om op elk moment zonder opgaaf van redenen mijn deelname aan dit onderzoek te beëindigen.

☐ Akkoord
☐ Niet akkoord

------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------
Het volgende gedeelte zal bestaan uit vragen over het artikel dat u zojuist gelezen heeft. Bij het beantwoorden van de vragen staat uw mening centraal; er zijn dus geen goede of foute antwoorden.

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Helemaal oneens</th>
<th>Oneens</th>
<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ik wil niks te maken hebben met Nike.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik zou graag met Nike communiceren.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik vind Nike geen leuk merk.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik ben ontevreden over Nike.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen. Mijn algemene impressie van Nike is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Helemaal oneens</th>
<th>Oneens</th>
<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dat Nike een positief merk is.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat Nike een betrouwbare merk is.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat Nike een slecht merk is.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stelling</th>
<th>Helemaal eens</th>
<th>Oneens</th>
<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Het dragen van Nike producten definieert mij als persoon.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nike helpt mijzelf te presenteren als het soort persoon dat ik wil zijn.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nike is in staat om iets te doen dat mijn leven meer zinvol maakt.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik denk geregeld na over Nike.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik heb een gevoel van &quot;het willen hebben&quot; van Nike producten.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik heb een gevoel van verlangen naar Nike producten.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik heb in het verleden interactie gehad met Nike.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik voel me emotioneel verbonden met Nike.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mijn mening is dat er een natuurlijke &quot;fit&quot; is tussen mij en Nike.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik vind dat Nike een leuk merk is.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik verwacht producten van Nike vaak te dragen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik verwacht dat Nike nog lang een deel van mijn leven zal zijn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Als Nike zou verdwijnen, zou ik dat erg vinden.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik heb een afkeur tegen Nike.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik vind Nike een goed merk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Het merk Nike vind ik negatief.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nike is als merk sympathiek.</td>
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</table>
Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Helemaal</th>
<th>Oneens</th>
<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal \ eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ik heb moeite met het beoordelen van een Nike product na het lezen van dit artikel.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Het is moeilijk om producten van Nike te evalueren.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik heb gemengde gevoelens bij het beoordelen van producten van Nike.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

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<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal \ eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Als ik van plan was om een product te kopen in deze categorie, dan zou ik kiezen voor een product van Nike.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik overweeg om een product van Nike te kopen.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik zou een vriend van mij aanraden om een product te kopen van Nike als hij of zij op zoek is naar een soortgelijk product.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ik ben geneigd producten van Nike af te nemen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik zou meer informatie willen hebben over de producten van Nike.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ik ben geïnteresseerd in de producten van Nike.</td>
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</table>
Nu volgen enkele stellingen over het artikel dat u zojuist heeft gelezen.

Geef aan in hoeverre u het eens bent met de volgende stellingen:

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<thead>
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<th>Helemaal oneens</th>
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<th>Neutraal</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ik denk dat het artikel dat ik las fake nieuws is.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In het artikel ontbraken onderbouwingen voor bepaalde stellingen.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De naam van de schrijver van dit artikel klinkt onbetrouwbaar.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Het artikel bevatte een rare domeinnaam.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Er zaten grammaticale fouten in het artikel.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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<tr>
<td>Er zaten overdreven veel uitroep tekens in het artikel.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts ontbraken in dit nieuwsartikel.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Het artikel klinkt ongelooifwaardig.</td>
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<th>Neutraal</th>
<th>Eens</th>
<th>Helemaal eens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nike werd positief omschreven in dit artikel.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>In het artikel dat ik gelezen heb, werd Nike negatief neergezet.</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Circle" /></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tot slot nog een aantal algemene vragen over uzelf.

Wat is uw geslacht?
- Man
- Vrouw

Wat is uw leeftijd?

Wat is uw hoogst genoten (of huidig) opleidingsniveau?
- Basisschool
- VMBO
- HAVO
- VWO
- MBO
- HBO
- WO

Hoe blijft u up-to-date met betrekking tot het nieuws? (Meerdere antwoorden mogelijk)
- Krant(en)
- Tijdschriften
- Nieuwsprogramma’s op TV
- Social media
- Websites
Hartelijk dank voor uw medewerking aan dit onderzoek. Indien u de resultaten van dit onderzoek wilt, kunt u contact opnemen met het volgende e-mailadres: J.h.oudenijhuis@student.utwente.nl

Om u te bedanken voor het meedoen aan dit onderzoek, verloot ik vier keer een fles wijn of enkele speciaal biertjes. Vul de volgende twee vragen in en u doet automatisch mee aan de loting. Via e-mail stel ik de winnaars op de hoogte. Daarna worden de e-mailadressen weer verwijderd.