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Social Media User's Personal Space and Their Attitude Towards Personalised Advertising: The Impact of Uninvited Ads

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Master in Marketing

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Department of Marketing, Strategy and Operations

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Resumo

As redes sociais têm-se tornado cada vez mais relevantes, quer enquanto meio para as marcas se publicitarem, quer para os utilizadores, que as percecionam como um espaço pessoal. Ao permitirem aos usuários, a criação de um espaço pessoal digital personalizado, onde revelam opiniões e aspetos pessoais, confere-lhes também, um sentimento de posse, mas que é influenciado regularmente por anúncios personalizados. Assim sendo, torna-se relevante avaliar se as suas perceções de espaço pessoal afetam as suas atitudes face a anúncios.

Este estudo investiga, como a perceção dos utilizadores das redes sociais, afeta as suas atitudes aos anúncios personalizados, considerando igualmente, se a preocupação com a privacidade e a autorevelação são fatores influenciadores.

O estudo focou-se na rede social Instagram, tendo sido desenvolvido um questionário através do qual se obtiveram 313 respostas válidas. Primeiramente, avaliou-se a dimensionalidade e a reliabilidade dos dados obtidos. Posteriormente, testou-se hipóteses através de modelos de regressão.

Apurou-se que a auto-revelação dos utilizadores do Instagram, impacta positivamente a perceção de espaço pessoal. O resultado entre a perceção de espaço pessoal e a preocupação com privacidade foi o oposto do esperado, verificando-se que, quanto maior a perceção de espaço pessoal, menor a preocupação com a privacidade. Constatou-se, que as preocupações com a privacidade afetam a atitude dos usuários aos anúncios personalizados. Ora, quanto menores as preocupações com a privacidade, melhor a atitude aos anúncios.

Este estudo apresenta contribuições relevantes na perceção dos utilizadores do Instagram ao seu espaço pessoal e fatores impactantes na sua atitude face a anúncios personalizados.

Palavras-chave: Redes Sociais, Instagram, Espaço Pessoal, Auto-Revelação, Preocupações com Privacidade, Anúncios Personalizados

Sistema de Classificação JEL: M31 – Marketing M37 – Advertising

Abstract

As social media platforms have become a relevant advertisement space for brands and personal space for users, it is essential to explore their interrelations. Namely, as social media allows individuals to self-disclose their personal lives and develop a sense of ownership for their digital space, it is relevant to evaluate whether the users' sense of personal space affects their attitude towards personalised advertisements in social media. This study investigates how users' perception regarding their accounts impacts their attitude towards personalised ads. Furthermore, aspects like privacy concerns and selfdisclosure are considered for their influence.

To do so, the focus was placed on Instagram as a social network. A survey was developed and shared on various platforms. A total of 313 valid responses were collected. The data was first examined for reliability and dimensionality, and then hypotheses were tested using regression models.

It was found that Instagram users' self-disclosure positively impacts their perception of personal space. Moreover, the higher user's personal space perception, the lower their privacy concerns – which is the opposite expected effect result. Furthermore, privacy concerns affect the user's attitude towards personalised advertisements. Thus, the lower one's privacy concerns, the higher one's attitude towards personalised advertisements.

This study shows relevant contributions to Instagram users' perception of their personal space and contributing factors for their attitude towards personalised advertisements.

Keywords: Social Media, Instagram, Personal Space, Self-Disclosure, Privacy Concerns, Personalised Advertisements

JEL Classifications System: M31 – Marketing M37 – Advertising

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1. Introduction

Brands' marketing strategies have changed drastically in recent years, particularly regarding their media plan, which moved to digital. Within that, social media platforms became a must due to their 4,74 billion users (Data Reportal et al., 2022). Social media are vital for connecting brands with their customers (Aichner et al., 2021). Therefore, one must be aware of the consumer's point of view towards social media and the factors affecting one's attitude towards personalised advertisements. Some previous studies refer to customers' perception of personalised advertisements on social media (e.g., Gaber et al., 2019; Herder & Zhang, 2019; Shareef et al., 2019) but do not significantly build on the individual relevance of these platforms. This topic hasn't been studied in depth (Pounders et al., 2016). After all, the existing literature on one's attachment to their possessions is based on the pioneer study by Belk in 1988, which only recently started being approached. It revolutionised how the topics of extended self and possessions were viewed and connected (Ladik et al., 2015).

There are various social media formats, including social networking sites (Facebook and Instagram), video sharing (YouTube), microblogging (Twitter), interactive short media (TikTok) and messaging (WhatsApp and Messenger) (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). According to Carr and Hayes (2015), there is no definition consensually accepted and mentioned by all investigators for what makes various platforms as social media. Still, it was always considered a tool for humans to interact and establish a connection among themselves (Aichner et al., 2021).

On social networking sites, users have their personal accounts, which they use to contact friends and family, get entertained, and discover products to buy (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). These accounts are also the 'place' where they share their thoughts, points of view, insights, and media and try to establish bonds with brands (Schau & Gilly, 2003), besides creating content to express themselves (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). Moreover, many things people consider significant are more frequently turning digital (Belk, 2013, as cited in Denegri-Knott et al., 2020). Some examples are apps, digital music, photographs, posts, and texts, which have evolved from our prior diary journal, music collection, analogue photo album, and letters, accordingly (Denegri-Knott et al., 2020). Nonetheless, digital possessions do not have the same significance level as physical possessions (Atasoy & Morewedge, 2018; Belk, 2013, as cited in Belk, 2014). However, Belk's (2014) study did not corroborate or reject this idea. The statements made by the author referred globally to various digital possessions, not social media platforms alone.

Social media platforms are one's digital possessions (Belk, 2014; O'Leary & Murphy, 2019; Odom et al., 2011), and our possessions are part of one's self (Belk, 1988). The studies by Bargh *et al.* (2002) and Livingstone (2008) show that social networking sites has become a key tool for younger age groups to communicate who they are. More recently, these platforms are the 'space' where they can practice

positive self-expression and exhibit themselves (Barbovschi et al., 2018), which are a few of many different tools (Doster, 2013). These allow individuals to establish identities in various dimensions (Schau & Gilly, 2003). Furthermore, these are deemed reliable repositories for curated and meaningful content (Zhao & Lindley, 2014) or long-lasting exhibitions of personal data (Hogan, 2010). It allows them to relieve past moments of their life (Peesapati et al., 2010; Zhao & Lindley, 2014). On top of that, the shared content (such as pictures, videos and messages) is collected by its users (Odom et al., 2011).

Nonetheless, social media are also one of the brands' and organisations' marketing techniques. Therefore, private users can feel like their personal space is invaded when viewing personalised advertisements (Boerman et al., 2017; Kelly et al., 2010; Niu et al., 2021). Personalised advertisements are based on users' personal data manipulation (Lee et al., 2022), which can be easily found on social networking sites. According to Lee and Hong (2016), this might be gathered illegally and utilised for unplanned motives. When viewing these online, individuals can feel a loss of control over their personal data (Edwards et al., 2002). Moreover, one's personal space can be referred to as the small protective sphere in which intrusion may lead to discomfort feeling (Hayduk, 1978). Personal space is a concept that has been well documented but in territorial terms. However, the world has changed, and people are sharing more and more personal information and who they are (self-disclosing and self-presenting) online.

Consequently, concerns individuals about their privacy (Dwivedi et al., 2021; Jung, 2017; Smit et al., 2014; Ur et al., 2012). Privacy concerns is a topic that recently started to gain more attention (Dhir et al., 2019) due to the social media platforms' relevance increase (Bright et al., 2015). Individuals pay more attention to brands' behaviour as their level of privacy concerns increases because they seek more transparency (Aguirre et al., 2015; Turow et al., 2009). Despite this, sharing personal data on social media has become a life habit users find difficult to change (Debatin et al., 2009). These platforms have become a key element of people's daily lives (Gao et al., 2018). Additionally, users who have a higher level of privacy concerns might start to become fatigued of these platforms (Baruh et al., 2017; Bright et al., 2015) or stop using them, notably those who use these to share their self's (Gao et al., 2018).

Hence, this dissertation aims to comprehend consumers' self-disclosure on social media platforms, their perception of personal space and their privacy concerns as influencing factors on their attitude towards personalised advertisements. On top of that, also research the effects on their attitude towards the social media platform. Notably, this study focuses on Instagram users.

1.1. Objective and Research Questions

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore the consumers' perspective on personalised advertisements on social media platforms, particularly the social networking site Instagram. And evaluate whether users' perception of their personal space influence the effects. Thus, the following research questions were proposed:

RQ1: How do users' perception of personal space influence consumers' attitudes towards personalised advertisements on social media platforms?

RQ2: How do social media users' privacy concerns and perception of personal space influence the effects of personalised advertisements?

RQ3: How do consumers' attitude towards personalised advertisements on social media impact their attitude regarding these platforms?

This is a significant topic for organisations, as social media is a highly relevant communication tool for advertisement purposes. Nevertheless, these are also a platform for individuals to share personal information about themselves and their lives. Thus, companies and brands need to comprehend the factors influencing one's attitude when viewing advertisements on these platforms and if these affect their perspective on social media. Even though this is a topic approached previously by academia, it hasn't been studied in terms of considering social networking sites as a consumer's personal space through one's attachment to their possessions. Thus, this dissertation aims to fill a knowledge gap.

1.2. Overview of the Structure

This dissertation is structured into four chapters: the literature review, methodology, results and discussion, and conclusion.

The literature review is divided into four parts – social media platforms, consumer's privacy concerns, consumer's personal space, and conceptual model – each helps clarify the topics approached and investigate previous studies. The first part approaches the importance of digital marketing in today's world, where personalised advertisements play a crucial role and are highly presented to consumers on social media platforms. Furthermore, it defines social media platforms and the social media user profile. The second part is regarding individuals' privacy concerns on the Internet and social media, correlating to the fact that those who have these concerns still share personal information online and the existing unawareness of consumers towards online privacy and organisations' data collection methods. The third part concerns one's perspective of social media platforms being part of their personal space as these are part of their significant possessions and platforms where they disclose themselves. In other words, defining one's digital personal space perception based on their possessions which are a self-extension. The fourth part consists of the guideline for the study research,

based on the knowledge gap identified during this chapter, and the research hypotheses formulated and explained.

The methodology identifies the research model utilised in this dissertation, the sample and procedure performed, the measurements and items used, and the data analysis procedure.

The results and discussion, as indicated by the title, present the research findings, verifying whether the proposed hypotheses are accepted or rejected. Moreover, discussing these by correlating them with previous studies.

Lastly, the conclusion states the culmination of this study. Furthermore, it names the theoretical and managerial contributions, limitations, and future research suggestions.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Social Media Platforms

2.1.1. Digital Marketing

Marketing is defined by the American Marketing Association (2017) as "the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large". It is described as a personal attitude and an organisational culture, a strategy, a collection of techniques and means, besides a practice made of anticipation and reactivity (Lindon et al., 2004). Therefore, it is a two-way relationship where organisations generate customer value and construct connections to obtain value from them (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). Its purpose is not for a company to find a "clever way" to dispose of its manufactured items (Kotler, 2003). Moreover, its significance has significantly increased since 1949 and is expected to keep rising (Hise et al., 1979).

Marketing-mix is "a set of controllable tactical marketing tools that the firm blends to produce the response it wants in the target market" (Kotler et al., 2008, p. 49). These include four groups of variables: Product, Price, Place, and Promotion (Kotler et al., 2008). An organisation's promotion-mix, also referred to as the marketing communications-mix, is a combination of tools utilised to develop customer bonds and transmit their value to the public (Kotler et al., 2008; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). Thus, the goal is to communicate, entice, and recall its target group of the availability and advantages of a specific product or service (Kotler, 2004). Promotion is "activities that communicate the merits of the product and persuade target customers to buy it" (Kotler et al., 2008, p. 50). Furthermore, the five significant promotion tools englobe advertising, direct marketing, personal selling, public relations, and sales promotion (Kotler et al., 2008; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). Nevertheless, Kotler (2004) divided these tools into other categories: advertising, direct marketing, public relations, sales force, and sales promotion.

Advertising is one of the brands' several methods for reaching its consumers. Advertising is "any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor" (Kotler et al., 2008, p. 692; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 436). However, it is also referred to as "an approach to communicate brand messages to intended mass audiences through various paid media" (Kotler et al., 2021, p. 118). Besides, consumers might deem these intrusive (Kotler et al., 2021). These definitions were further developed and elucidated, such as "the placement of announcements and messages in time or space by business firms, non-profit organizations, government agencies, and individuals who seek to inform and/or persuade members of a particular target market or audience regarding their products, services, organizations or ideas" (American Marketing Association, 2022a). When a firm shares an advertisement, it is entirely in charge of the way its publicised to the overall

public, which allows it to create a "one-way channel of communication" (American Marketing Association, 2022c). Additionally, advertising can have multiple and distinct objectives. These are defined as "a specific communication task to be accomplished with a specific target audience during a specific period of time" (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012, p. 437). The authors aggregate them based on their primary purpose in three categories – informative, persuasive, and reminder (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). 'Informative advertising' is used to enlighten the public regarding a new product or feature, 'persuasive advertising' to showcase a product or service advantages compared to competitors, and 'reminder advertisement' to remind consumers of the product or service's existence (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012).

Nowadays, it is possible to witness a massive increase in the evolution of technology, data, and analytics relevance, which have changed how marketing is conducted (Burgess & Burgess, 2020). Digital marketing techniques are as relevant or even more so when compared to those of traditional marketing tactics (American Marketing Association, 2022d). It can be defined as "the use of digital or social channels to promote a brand or reach consumers" (American Marketing Association, 2022b). In other words, communication and marketing strategies implementation for products and services through digital channels (such as websites, blogs, social media, and mobile apps) and electronic devices (Faustino, 2019). Furthermore, it was described as "an adaptive, technology-enabled process by which firms collaborate with customers and partners to jointly create, communicate, deliver, and sustain value for all stakeholders" (Kannan & Li, 2017, p. 23).

These are historical times (Paula et al., 2018), especially in the importance attributed by organisations to social media platforms (F. Li et al., 2021). These platforms are vital for marketers' due to their various advantages (Lamberton & Stephen, 2016) and to cope with a dubious environment (Burgess & Burgess, 2020). Social media platforms are a key component of a brand's communication strategy, as they can affect customer-brand relationships (Aichner et al., 2021).

2.1.1.1. Personalised Advertisements

Nowadays, personalised advertisements are significant in one's daily life. According to Dioníso *et al.* (2009), communication is the most straightforward marketing-mix function to personalise online compared to the remaining variables.

Personalised advertisements can be described as "a form of customized promotional messages that are delivered to each consumer through paid media based on personal information (such as consumers' names, past buying history, demographics, psychographics, locations, and lifestyle interests)" (Baek & Morimoto, 2012, p. 59). Personalisation aims to provide meticulous data to individuals according to their specific preferences (J. Li et al., 2016). Therefore, contrary to traditional

ones, this kind of advertisement is viewed by those it is targeted at (Lee & Hong, 2016). However, personalised advertisements on these platforms are deemed intrusive (Lee et al., 2022; Niu et al., 2021).

Personalised advertisements are based on users' personal data manipulation (Lee et al., 2022), which can be easily found on social media. According to Lee and Hong (2016), this might be gathered illegally and utilised for unplanned motives. Consequently, organisations might obtain intimate information without one's consent for unethical motives (Wang et al., 2016). Moreover, individuals can feel a loss of control over their personal data when viewing these online (Edwards et al., 2002).

An individual's attitude towards advertisements can be referred to as "a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion" (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989, p. 49).

Therefore, "when social media advertisements pops up and occupies those private spaces that are filled with personal content, individuals can also feel that their personal spaces are invaded" (Niu et al., 2021, p. 3). Besides, "when an advertiser collects and uses information without disclosing it and without consent, this may lead to a violation of the social contract, a violation of personal space, and, as a result, lowers trust" (Boerman et al., 2017, p. 368). On top of that, Kelly *et al.* (2010) study regarding the MySpace platform showed that advertisements can be based on the target audience's previously shared demographics information and passions. Hence, "these messages are displayed in an environment that is designed and controlled by the receiver of the messages and is considered a personal space" (Kelly et al., 2010, p. 23).

Some personalised advertisements on Facebook are deemed creepy by their target audience (Herder & Zhang, 2019). For that reason, according to Herder and Zhang (2019), these must be shown in the proper environment, not be built with intimate private information, and the data collection methods need to be accepted by its target audience. Moreover, a significant part of personalised advertisements is considered insignificant or irritating (Herder & Zhang, 2019).

According to Gaber *et al.* (2019), credibility, informativeness, entertainment, and lack of irritation are significant factors in Instagram users' attitude towards personalised advertisements. Furthermore, one's attitude is influenced by the advertisement's perceived value (Shareef et al., 2019). Consequently, an advertisement's perceived value is affected by its entertainment level and informativeness (Shareef et al., 2019). Additionally, Lee and Hong (2016) refer that individuals' advertisements perspective improves with the ad's informativeness level.

An individual has a less optimistic approach to Internet personalised advertisements due to being aware of brands using their intimate details available online and offline for commercial purposes (Aguirre et al., 2015). Moreover, those with higher privacy concerns tend to avoid advertisements (Jung, 2017). Even with this, Van den Broeck *et al.* (2020) state that individuals are not preoccupied with their privacy on Facebook because before creating an account, they had already anticipated there would be personalised advertisements on the platform. Still, they have limitations on brand data collection for commercial purposes (Van den Broeck et al., 2020). Regardless, one's awareness of intimate data usage motivations may influence the personalised advertisements' success possibility (White et al., 2008). Besides, an individual's previous data collection authorisation (Aguirre et al., 2015) and feelings towards having or not having the power to choose how and when their private details are utilised (Tucker, 2014) can also affect the ad's success probability. According to Herder and Zhang (2019), to decrease one's anxiety (to a specific point) and mistrust, although individuals whose levels of trust increased were reported, a firm must be straightforward and elucidating of its data collection methods. Individuals trust that they own their data (Aguirre et al., 2015).

Therefore, brands should be transparent regarding their data collection methods and clear about when one's personal information is being gathered (Aguirre et al., 2015). Individuals desire more openness in the brand's information collection strategies (Turow et al., 2009) but are unaware of which protective strategies are successful due to their evaluation inability (Boerman et al., 2017). Despite this, consumers' intimate apprehensions encourage brands to establish privacy strategies (Tsai et al., 2011). In fact, "the emerging trend of targeted personal advertising has led to an increase in privacy concerns from consumers" (Dwivedi et al., 2021, p. 3). Individuals believe Internet personalised advertisements have some advantages but also make them apprehensive about their privacy (Ur et al., 2012). Additionally, individuals were preoccupied with personal data misuse while viewing personalised advertisements (Smit et al., 2014). Thus, personalised advertisements significantly impact their privacy breach concerns (Smit et al., 2014).

2.1.1.2. Social Media Definition

In 1994, the expression social media was referred to for the first time by Darrell Berry, who was creating an online media environment in Tokyo entitled Matisse (Bercovivi, 2010). However, there is no definition consensually accepted and mentioned by all investigators for what makes various platforms as social media (Carr & Hayes, 2015). The characterisations differ significantly in their "complexity, focus, and applicability outside their home discipline" (Carr & Hayes, 2015, p. 48). Even though, between 1996 and 2019, this term has had multiple definitions, it was always considered a tool for humans to interact and establish a connection among themselves (Aichner et al., 2021).

Social media platforms can be referred to as a tool created during Web 2.0, with online applications providing a platform for users to share developed content (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). In addition, these can be characterised as "easy searching, open participation, a minimal publishing

threshold, dialogue, community, networking and the rapid and broad spread of information and other content via a wide range of feedback and linking systems" (Aula, 2010, p. 44).

The author Nair (2011) adds to this definition by stating that users can also share their thoughts, points of view, insights, media and establish bonds with brands. Accordingly, the number of active social media users increased, and creating multiple new platforms allowed these to become one of the most popular Internet applications (Aichner et al., 2021).

Additionally, there are various social media formats, including social networking sites (e.g., Facebook and Instagram), video sharing (e.g., YouTube), microblogging (e.g., Twitter), interactive short media (e.g., Douyin and TikTok) and messaging (e.g., WhatsApp and Messenger) (Dollarhide, 2023).

2.1.1.3. Social Media User Profile

There were 7,99 billion people worldwide in August 2022; 4,74 billion (59,3%) are active social media users (Data Reportal et al., 2022). Social media platforms are available, but the most utilised worldwide include Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Instagram, WeChat, Tik Tok, and Twitter (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). Besides, the users' favourite platforms, according to the inquiries, respectively englobe WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram, WeChat, Douyin, TikTok and Twitter (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). Additionally, on average, individuals use 7,2 social media platforms monthly (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023).

On average, a social media user spends 2 hours and 28 mins daily on these platforms (Data Reportal et al., 2022). Moreover, compared to males, females (on average) spend more time on these (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). Nonetheless, most social media users are men (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). The time spent on these is for users to keep in contact with friends and family, be entertained, keep updated on the news, research content, view trending topics being discussed, note ideas for things to do and purchase, and among other factors, discover products to buy (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023). Furthermore, they use these to follow accounts of their friends, family, acquaintances they know, actors, comedians, other performers, companies and brands they have purchased from (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023).

2.2. Consumer's Privacy Concerns

2.2.1. Individual Privacy Concerns

Privacy concerns is a topic that recently started to gain more attention (Dhir et al., 2019) due to the social media platforms' relevance increase (Bright et al., 2015). Therefore, "the concern about privacy has been considered a critical issue in this technological era" (Choi & Sung, 2018, p. 2290).

According to the study by Y. Li (2014), the term 'privacy concerns' can also be referred to as 'privacy beliefs' and 'privacy attitudes'. Nevertheless, this statement is refuted by Kokolakis (2017) by mentioning that 'privacy concerns' and 'privacy attitudes' are inherently distinct because the first one is often not related to a particular circumstance, and the second one alludes to a distinct privacy behaviour assessment. Regardless, Y. Li (2014) created a multi-level model of individual information privacy beliefs – summarising individual data privacy beliefs and helping to comprehend the results of their practices on the internet – focused on three levels of privacy beliefs.

'Internet privacy concerns' or 'general privacy concerns' can be defined as the global discernment an individual has of the privacy risks on the Internet (Y. Li, 2014). Privacy risks refer to the level of 'loss' an individual expects the overall users to reveal their personal data (Malhotra et al., 2004). 'Specific privacy concern' or 'situation-specific concern' can be denoted as the interpretation of privacy risks an individual has in a particular circumstance or website (Y. Li, 2014). 'Disposition to privacy' or 'psychological need for privacy' can be described as an individual's inherent need for privacy (Y. Li, 2014).

In addition, Kietzmann *et al.* (2011) study state that social media users' self-disclosure and selfpresentation level – the extent of showcasing their identity – are directly linked to their privacy concerns. After all, these platforms can be seen as "passively facilitate or actively encourage" (Kietzmann et al., 2011, p. 244) organisations to utilise their personal data as an initiator for data mining and surveillance (Kietzmann & Angell, 2010, as cited in Kietzmann et al., 2011). These platforms are where their apprehensions originate (Shin, 2010). Despite this, sharing personal data on social media has become a life habit users find difficult to change (Debatin et al., 2009). These platforms have become a key element of people's daily lives (Gao et al., 2018). Regardless of privacy preoccupations, they share personal information as it is the equivalent of having a social life (Blank et al., 2014).

Social media users who have a higher level of privacy concerns might start to become fatigued of these platforms (Baruh et al., 2017; Bright et al., 2015) or stop using them, notably, those who use these to share their self's (Gao et al., 2018). Moreover, they can negatively connect these platforms with profile visibility and friending without limiting their self-disclosure levels (H. T. Chen & Chen, 2015). According to H. T. Chen and Chen (2015), one's profile visibility and friending are social media protection measures. Furthermore, social media users' privacy intrusion is linked to their negative thoughts and utilisation of these regarding performance and happiness; and positive for levels of technostress (Yao & Cao, 2017). Those who share more personal information become more cautious before doing so (Shin, 2010).

Hence, privacy concerns are related to an individual being afraid of no longer having their personal data (Xu et al., 2008) and being unaware of who took it and what will occur to it (Martin, 2018; Phelps et al., 2000).

2.2.2. Information Privacy Paradox

Many social media users have privacy concerns, but their behaviour on these platforms does not showcase it, as many users might appear to be sharing their personal information without a second thought (Gerber et al., 2018). Therefore, it evokes the already-known concept of the 'information privacy paradox' or 'privacy paradox' (Barth & de Jong, 2017). It was first recognised by the study by Brown (2001), according to Kokolakis (2017), which aimed to comprehend online shoppers' apprehensions regarding their privacy and security (Brown, 2001). Still, it was only acknowledged by Norberg *et al.* (2007) study (Kokolakis, 2017), which focused on understanding people's personal information disclosure intentions versus their behaviours (Norberg et al., 2007). The information privacy paradox refers to the difference between one's information privacy perception and their veritable acts (Kokolakis, 2017).

Nonetheless, some studies reject the privacy paradox due to the inexistent impactful connection between individual privacy concerns and the amount of personal information shared (Baruh et al., 2017). According to Kokolakis (2017), the first studies on this paradox were intensely built on through the creation of comprehensive models, or to describe this concept, allowing us to see its compounded essence. Thus, "the dichotomy between privacy attitude and behaviour should not be considered a paradox anymore since literature provides several logical explanations. It is, however, a complex phenomenon that has not been fully explained yet" (Kokolakis, 2017, p. 130). Additionally, "attempts to theoretically explain and practically solve the problem of the privacy paradox are still scarce and we feel the subject deserves far more attention" (Barth & de Jong, 2017, p. 1052). Some of the justifications provided, as stated by Kokolakis (2017), include issues in the utilised research approaches (e.g., Dienlin & Trepte, 2015); the everyday role these platforms play (e.g., Blank et al., 2014; Debatin et al., 2009; Morando et al., 2014); and among others, analysing the risks and benefits of sharing personal data before disclosing it (e.g., Xu et al., 2011).

2.2.3. Information Privacy Asymmetry

Regardless, there are privacy protection strategies individuals may applicate. Although several of the protection privacy "choices" are unfeasible (Baruh et al., 2017). There are six forms of information privacy-protective responses: refusal, misrepresentation, removal of information from online organisations companies databases, negative word-of-mouth, complaining directly to online

companies and complaining indirectly to third-party organisations (Son & Kim, 2008, as cited in Kokolakis, 2017). Anyhow, younger individuals are who employ more strategies, such as changing the privacy settings, to safeguard themselves online (Blank et al., 2014), women have a higher probability of taking measures to protect their privacy on the Internet (Baruh et al., 2017), and individuals have in regard their privacy when choosing their primary social media platform (Choi & Sung, 2018).

Moreover, "online privacy is a new social phenomenon people are still trying to understand" (Kokolakis, 2017, p. 129). There isn't a significant connection between privacy concerns and sharing personal information, as individuals do not have the expertise, understanding or education to alter their behaviour online (Hargittai & Marwick, 2016). There is an 'information asymmetry', as brands are knowledgeable about their target audience due to analysis of their personal information (Boerman et al., 2017). Still, individuals are unaware of the brands' treatment to this information archive (Boerman et al., 2017).

The study by Aguirre *et al.* (2015) mentions two information collection methods: overt and covert. The 'overt information collection' strategy is one where individuals are aware their data is being gathered due to the brand informing them of such (Sundar & Marath, 2010, as cited in Aguirre et al., 2015). One possible example is utilising a cookie's notification (Aguirre et al., 2015). The 'covert information collection' tactics are where individuals aren't knowledgeable of their personal information being gathered (Mine et al., 2008, as cited in Aguirre et al., 2015). This data may be used for personalised advertisements (Aguirre et al., 2015).

On top of that, the Twilio Segment (2021) report mentions the directives for advertising changed, and third-party cookies, besides data sharing, are the foundation of advertisements. However, this type of data collection can be deemed a privacy invasion encouraging individuals to turn to ad blockers on their electronic devices, thus, disregarding these completely (Twilio Segment, 2021). Individuals want their intimate details protected, which could leave them apprehensive when viewing personalised advertisements, yet some do not comprehend that sharing one's history search is a key breach of their privacy (Shuford et al., 2018).

Third-party data – the less valuable – consists of information gathered by a data collection company and can subsequently be bought by those who desire it (Twilio Segment, 2021). With that, its reliability isn't analysed and can be assembled unethically (Twilio Segment, 2021). That is, advertising purchased and sold using software (Brodherson et al., 2021). On the other hand, first-party data is the most relevant as it is collected first-hand by the organisation (Twilio Segment, 2021). In other words, the riskless collection method, allows one to comprehend the customer experience and its origin is known (Twilio Segment, 2021). Second-party data can be defined as first-party data given or purchased by a non-competitive player (Twilio Segment, 2021).

Deactivating third-party cookies would cause a decrease of 52% in ad revenue for the top 500 publishers worldwide, but to ensure an organisation's future success, they must possess the information they utilise (Twilio Segment, 2021). According to Brodherson *et al.* (2021), since 2022, advertisers and publishers could only rely on data on first-party data from walled gardens, contextual targeting, and more significant support from data platforms. In addition, some of the biggest US publishers utilise first-party data in their ad targeting, while others have 80% of their ad revenue from third-party data (Brodherson et al., 2021).

2.3. Consumer's Personal Space

2.3.1. Personal Space Through a Territorial Perspective

The study of physical space brought the academia's attention to the personal space topic, as it consisted of a knowledge gap at the time (Evans & Howard, 1973). Personal space can be characterised as "a small protective sphere or bubble that an organism maintains between itself and others" (Hall, 1990, p. 119). Being later on described as "the area individual humans actively maintain around themselves into which others cannot intrude without arousing discomfort" (Hayduk, 1978, p. 118). Moreover, someone's personal space can be seen as a 'body buffer zone' to tend to the individual's emotional well-being (Horowitz et al., 1968; Horowitz, 1970, as cited in Evans & Howard, 1973).

The existing literature on the topic shows that personal space varies according to the gender of the individual. Males tend to have larger personal spaces when compared to females (Evans & Howard, 1973). Furthermore, the amount of personal area required when females connect with other females is smaller in contrast to males interconnecting among themselves (Horowitz, 1970; Lott & Sommer, 1967; Pellegrini & Empey, 1970; Sommer, 1959, as cited in Evans & Howard, 1973). Consequently, it can be stated that females have a higher predisposition to stay closer to other females, while men opt to stay away from each other (Harnett et al., 1970; Leibman, 1970; Willis, 1966, as cited in Evans & Howard, 1973). Additionally, the authors Evans and Howard (1973) referred that most of the previous studies implied that individuals who are friendly with each other or aim to showcase a positive attitude tend to connect with a more reduced personal space area compared to those who are not close. Thus, an individual's setting takes spatially significantly influences how they connect with others (Hecht et al., 2019).

2.3.2. Digital Personal Space

Personal space is a concept that has been well documented but in territorial terms. Nonetheless, the world has changed, and people are sharing more and more personal information and who they are (self-disclosing and self-presenting) online, especially on social media in the recent past. Consequently,

this topic hasn't been studied in depth by academia and is a must since these platforms play a key role for their private and professional users. Some examples of studies done in terms of digital personal space englobe: measuring an individual's perception of personal space intrusion in interpersonal distance among avatars in virtual reality (e.g., Nishihara & Okubo, 2015; Sun et al., 2021), or in a nonimmersive environment (e.g., Nassiri et al., 2010); the perception of personal space intrusion, in terms of the interpersonal distance, between mobile phone users while in groups of people in public spaces (e.g., lizuka & Go, 2014); the navigation of robots to avoid individual's personal space intrusions (e.g., Lindner, 2016); the comparison between young people's online journals and their bedrooms – their most controlled and individual spaces (e.g., Hodkinson & Lincoln, 2008; Kokubo et al., 2016); the ideal distance for an individual to take a selfie regarding the background and the outcomes in terms of engagement on social media (e.g., Hong et al., 2022); or considering the psychological ownership theory – "the state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership or a piece of that target is theirs" (Pierce et al., 2003, p. 86) (e.g., Niu et al., 2021; Tsay-Vogel et al., 2018).

2.3.2.1. Self-Disclosing and Self-Presenting

Self-disclosure is referred to as "the act of revealing personal or private information about one's self to other people" (American Psychological Association, 2022a). Two people need to establish a relationship through sharing trust, commitment, and intimacy (Park et al., 2011). Moreover, Wheeless and Grotz (1976) state there are five dimensions of self-disclosure, respectively: amount of disclosure, control of the depth or intimacy of the disclosure, consciously intended disclosure, honesty/accuracy of the disclosure, and positive/negative nature of the disclosure. Self-presentation is characterised as "any behaviours intended to convey a particular image of, or particular information about, the self to other people" (American Psychological Association, 2022b).

Self-presentation was first studied by Erving Goffman in 1956, and the author aimed to bring to attention the significance of these behaviours by describing one's occupancy in a social order, the intention and effect of a connection, and to mitigate the play of role-governed conduct (Pounders et al., 2016). Individuals worry about the image others have of themselves, therefore, have caution in presenting and managing themself (Goffman, 1956). To rephrase it, any behaviour where one individual can form an image of others by the acts done (Benoit, 1997), which was also verified by Greenwald and Breckler (1985). Moreover, self-presentation is the extent an individual is willing to go vulnerable (C. P. Chen, 2016). Nevertheless, the study by Belk in 1988 revolutionised how the topics of extended self and possessions were viewed and connected (Ladik et al., 2015).

2.3.2.2. The Self and Its Possessions

To comprehend how consumers behave, it is first crucial to study the underlined level of attachment given to their possessions which can be understood as a part of oneself and are a vital factor and a reflection of our identities (Belk, 1988).

According to Belk (1988), it is common knowledge that what an individual generates or alters makes them part of the self. However, the author develops this statement by referring to previous literature. It is mentioned that the "natural basis" for one's property consists of everything one owns, thus the things created by one's body movements and natural materials without ownership (Locke, 1960, as cited in Belk, 1988). It furthers it by adding that things an individual spends their time and focus on become part of the self (Csikszentmihalyi & Rochebeg-Halton, 1981, as cited in Belk, 1988). After all, "one difference in the present view is that the extended self is seen not to be limited to external objects and personal possessions, but also includes persons, places, and group possessions as well as body parts and vital organs" (Belk, 1988, p. 140).

Many things people consider significant are more frequently turning digital (Belk, 2013, as cited in Denegri-Knott et al., 2020). Some examples are apps, digital music, photographs, posts, and texts, which have evolved from our prior diary journal, music collection, analogue photo album, and letters, accordingly (Denegri-Knott et al., 2020). Besides, greeting cards, emails, webpages, virtual real estate, and other virtual assets such as clothing, furniture, weapons, and vehicles from avatar characters (Belk, 2013, as cited in Belk, 2014).

Digital possessions do not have the same level of significance as physical possessions (Atasoy & Morewedge, 2018; Belk, 2013, as cited in Belk, 2014). Nonetheless, this is more complex for social media, as these are platforms with two-way communication (Belk, 2014). Other users (such as friends and family) can tag, share, and comment among different behaviours, therefore co-construct their identity (Belk, 2014). As well as, the posts shared could be seen by millions of people (Belk, 2014). Besides, individuals are compiling status messages from social media, for instance (Odom et al., 2011). On top of that, "although our digital possessions may not have the heft and gravitas of physical possessions, they can still play a key role in our sense of self" (Belk, 2014, p. 1107). Still, this statement refers to all possible digital possessions, not social media platforms alone.

2.3.2.3. The Self and Social Media

There is a lack of studies studying self-presentation in new digital platforms, which include social media (Pounders et al., 2016), due to most studies have been done regarding people facing other people and discarding the fact that individuals can now do it through more than one way.

A personal webpage is a well-thought and planned self-presentation (Dominick, 1999). At the time, personal web pages were the most significant way for an individual to present themself unprompted. However, the majority gave little personal information, as one would share a short bio about themselves, one photo, an email address, and links to other sites the author might have considered relevant (Dominick, 1999). These could be deemed as the 'place' where the users can express themselves via their posts and interactions on their platforms (Schau & Gilly, 2003), and there was a significant increase in the number of individuals doing so (Inglehart & Oyserman, 2004). Furthermore, females tended to self-disclose in greater depth as they would include a more detailed biography, their romantic relationship partners and families, and expressions of opinion (Dominick, 1999).

Nonetheless, in today's world, personal web pages can be deemed social media platforms. Their users have utilised social media to disclose, self-promote, and publicise (Elmer, 2015). They have also taken the opportunity to "go public with their feelings, frustrations, and likes" (Elmer, 2015, p. 1), thus sharing personal information.

The studies by Bargh *et al.* (2002) and Livingstone (2008) show that social networking sites have become a key tool for younger age groups to communicate who they are. More recently, these platforms are the 'space' where they can practice positive self-expression and exhibit themselves (Barbovschi et al., 2018), which are a few of many different tools (Doster, 2013). These allow individuals to establish identities in various dimensions (Schau & Gilly, 2003). Besides, the image they presented online and offline was consistent (Barbovschi et al., 2018; Boyd, 2007). Nevertheless, this statement was refuted by stating that self-presentation online is an exaggerated image of their actual self (Schau & Gilly, 2003). Furthermore, social networking sites users could consider actions such as tagging, commenting, or sharing past pictures invasive to their self-presentation (Barbovschi et al., 2018).

Facebook was already viewed in 2011 as a platform where individuals could self-disclose online, being critical to feeling intimate an build relationships with others (Park et al., 2011). An example of personal information purposely shared are photos (Castro & Marquez, 2017; Park et al., 2011), staple personal data (such as name, birthday, age, and education), personal favourites (music and movies), and other input (for instance, political, religious views, relationship status) (Castro & Marquez, 2017). Thus, their ideas and sentiments become "concrete, tangible, and socially recognizable" (Kim & Sherman, 2007, p. 2). According to Castro and Marquez (2017), users utilise Facebook to exhibit their various life moments and personalities. Indeed, thousands of millions of photos and videos are being shared online daily (O'Leary & Murphy, 2019).

Furthermore, these are deemed reliable repositories for curated and meaningful content (Zhao & Lindley, 2014) or long-lasting exhibitions of personal data (Hogan, 2010). Consequently, individuals may use it as a via to look back on specific moments of their lives (Peesapati et al., 2010; Zhao & Lindley, 2014). Moreover, for social media users, it is more relevant for the content shared to have personal value rather than registering many views (Zhao & Lindley, 2014). Hence, the content shared can be considered as digital possessions (Belk, 2014; O'Leary & Murphy, 2019; Odom et al., 2011), allow individuals to feel secure in their self-identity (O'Leary & Murphy, 2019), and manage their self-presentation (O'Leary & Murphy, 2019; Odom et al., 2011). Despite this, the digital extended self demonstrates itself by a collection of "bits and bytes" (Sheth & Solomon, 2014, p. 127).

2.4. Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

This dissertation aims to comprehend the factors influencing consumers' attitudes towards personalised social media advertisements. Figure 2.1 illustrates the conceptual model, and below are the motives for such and the hypotheses development.

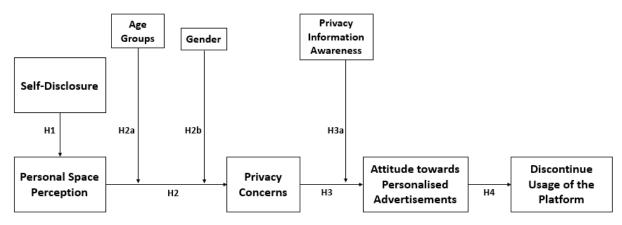


Figure 2.1 - Conceptual Model (developed by the author)

The study by Belk (1988) refers that our possessions reflect our identities and can be viewed as a part of our extended self. Nonetheless, one's possessions are turning digital (Belk, 2013, as cited in Denegri-Knott et al., 2020), including social media platforms (Belk, 2014; O'Leary & Murphy, 2019; Odom et al., 2011). These might not have the same relevance as physical possessions (Atasoy & Morewedge, 2018; Belk, 2013, as cited in Belk, 2014), but it's not a clear statement regarding social media platforms (e.g., Belk, 2014). Despite this, nowadays, individuals are investing more effort into these platforms: spend more time (Data Reportal et al., 2022, 2023), use several features (Castro & Marquez, 2017), update their accounts (Bargh et al., 2002; Livingstone, 2008), collect messages (Odom et al., 2011), review and revisit them (Peesapati et al., 2010; Zhao & Lindley, 2014), share personal content (Hogan, 2010; Zhao & Lindley, 2014), manage their self-presentation (O'Leary & Murphy,

2019; Odom et al., 2011) and show their real identity (Barbovschi et al., 2018; Boyd, 2007). Notably, Schau and Gilly (2003) refuted this statement, stating that self-presentation online is an exaggerated image of their actual self. Additionally, from a territorial perspective, personal space refers to an area others cannot intrude on without causing discomfort (Hayduk, 1978). Still, an individual's digital personal space isn't a well-researched topic. Consequently, one must understand one's perception of their social media accounts. It can be integrated as part of one's self and personal space perspective. Hence, the first hypothesis:

H1: There is a positive direct effect between one's investment in self-disclosure and their perception of the platform as their personal space

For this study, one's personal space perception is built based on self-disclosure in these platforms. So, investigating the effect of individuals' personal space perception and privacy concerns is crucial due to the Kietzmann *et al.* (2011) study and hypothesis formulated above. Furthermore, the studies by Boermann *et al.* (2017) and Niu *et al.* (2021) stated that when individuals view a personal social media advertisement, they can perceive it as a personal space invasion. The Niu *et al.* (2021) study first analysed one's perception of personal space through the psychological ownership theory and then correlated it with advertising invasiveness (attention invasiveness and space invasiveness). Additionally, compared to men, females are willing to engage in more privacy protection measurements (Baruh et al., 2017). This was also verified for younger age groups (e.g., Blank et al., 2014). Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H2: There is a positive direct effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns

H2a: Age groups moderate the effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns, in the sense that the effect is more intense for older age groups H2b: Gender moderates the effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns, in the sense that the effect is more intense for females

The Dwiveldi *et al.* (2021), Smit *et al.* (2014) and Ur et al. (2012) studies stated that personalised advertisements concern individuals over their privacy. Those with higher privacy concerns tend to avoid advertisements (Jung, 2017). More so, these platforms are where their apprehensions originate (Shin, 2010). Moreover, Facebook's personalised advertisements can be deemed creepy (Herder & Zhang, 2019). Therefore, to react better to these, they must be shown in the proper environment, not be built with intimate private data, and the data collection methods must be agreed-upon (Herder & Zhang, 2019). The study by Gaber *et al.* (2019) showed that one's attitude towards Instagram personalised advertisements is influenced by their point of view on credibility, informativeness, entertainment, and lack of irritation from the ad. Despite this, it is relevant to comprehend individuals'

privacy concerns as a significant contributing factor to their attitude towards personalised advertisements. Moreover, the Boerman *et al.* (2017) study referred that brands know their consumers, because of their private data, but this isn't reciprocated.

After all, one's awareness of intimate data usage motivations may influence the personalised advertisements' success possibility (White et al., 2008). Besides, an individual's previous data collection authorisation (Aguirre et al., 2015) and feelings of having or not having the power to choose how and when their private details are utilised (Tucker, 2014) can also affect the ad's success probability. Furthermore, individuals pay more attention to brands' behaviour as their level of privacy concerns increases because they seek more transparency (Aguirre et al., 2015; Turow et al., 2009). Thus, it is also relevant to analyse if one's privacy information awareness moderates the effects of privacy concerns on attitude towards personalised advertisements. Ergo, the following hypotheses:

H3: There is a negative direct effect between one's level of privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements

H3a: Privacy information awareness moderates the effect between one's privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements, in the sense that the effect is less intense for those with higher levels of privacy information awareness

Lastly, the study by Yao and Cao (2017) stated that social media users' privacy concerns are directly connected to their thoughts and utilisation regarding these platforms (negative for performance and happiness, and positive for technostress). On top of that, those who have higher privacy concerns level might start to become fatigued of these platforms (Baruh et al., 2017; Bright et al., 2015) or stop using them, notably, those who use these to share their self's (Gao et al., 2018). Moreover, they can negatively connect these platforms with profile visibility and friending without limiting their self-disclosure levels (H. T. Chen & Chen, 2015). According to Shin (2010), social media users who self-disclose more become more concerned before sharing their sensitive private data. Individuals regard their privacy when choosing their primary social media platform (Choi & Sung, 2018). Therefore, previous studies have correlated users' privacy concerns and discontinuous usage intention. Nonetheless, to the author's knowledge, this hasn't been analysed between their attitude towards personalised advertisements and the platform. In the conceptual model (Figure 2.1), privacy concerns are considered a possible significant factor for their attitude towards personalised advertisements and the previous studies indirect factor for their discontinuation platform usage. In other words, it follows the previous studies' leads. Consequently, the flowing hypothesis was formulated:

H4: There is a negative direct effect between one's attitude towards personalised advertisements and their discontinuation of usage of the platform

3. Methodology

An online survey was developed to answer the research questions and test the previously proposed hypotheses. In other words, quantitative data collection was realised as the primary data source from the 28th of April to the 17th of May.

The main objective of this dissertation is to comprehend consumer's attitude towards personalised advertisements on social networking sites. Nonetheless, the development of the survey focuses on Instagram instead of approaching most of these platforms in a global matter. Instagram is an app owned by Meta, available for free for iPhone and Android (Meta, 2023). It allows their users to share photos and videos with their followers or a selected group of people, besides being able to interact with other individuals' content (Meta, 2023). According to Data Reportal *et al.* (2023), it had 1.318 billion users worldwide in January 2023, being the fourth world's most active social media platform and the second favourite globally. Furthermore, this platform has a total of 1.32 billion users reach for their ads, a value that has decreased 4,9% compared to the previous quarter and 10,8% when in terms of the previous year (Data Reportal et al., 2023). Instagram offers several features, such as digital collectables, direct messaging, stories, reels and lives (Meta, 2023), allowing users to disclose themselves through distinct tools. Thus, being one of the social media platforms with all the features individuals deemed as relevant, which were previously approached in the literature review.

The survey was done on Qualtrics Research Platform, available in English (Annex A) and Portuguese (Annex B) – where the translations were thoroughly analysed to keep the accuracy of the items – and structured into six sections centring on the research questions and objectives of this dissertation. First, the question "Do you have an Instagram account?" was presented. Those who answered 'Yes' would continue to the second section, and those who responded 'No' would be redirected to the end of the survey as they didn't fit the target group of this study. Second, comprehend their privacy practices and Instagram loyalty with the following questions: "Please indicate your privacy settings on your Instagram account, in terms of visibility?"; "How often do you login to and check your Instagram account?"; and "How much time do you usually spend on Instagram each day?". Third, apprehend their attitude towards personalised ads and their level of privacy of information awareness. Fourth, grasp their level of privacy concerns and their personal space perception towards Instagram. Fifth, understand their level of self-disclosure and attitude towards Instagram. Lastly, a few questions regarding their demographics, such as: "Please indicate the gender you identify with"; "Please indicate the age group you fall into"; and "Please indicate your occupational situation".

The questionnaire link was mainly shared on Instagram, as well as Facebook, LinkedIn, and WhatsApp. Moreover, a QR Code for the questionnaire was created and placed around the ISCTE-IUL campus to reach the most people possible.

3.1. Measures and Items

To accomplish the objectives of this dissertation, one of the most important steps was the definition of the measurements and items being used according to past literature. It is relevant to mention that all the items and measures utilised were retrieved from previous studies, which were published in wellranked journals on Scimago Journal Ranking, to help ensure validity and decrease problems with reliability. On top of that, the items in the questionnaire were randomised as it identifies arbitrary responses and decreases bias (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The proposed measurements were resumed in Table 3.1, having a total of 31 items.

Self-Disclosure – The level at which an individual self-discloses on Instagram was measured by adapting the items proposed and verified by Wheeless (1976). The authors Wheeless and Grotz (1976) defend that there are five subscales of self-disclosure, respectively: amount of disclosure; control of the depth or intimacy of the disclosure; consciously intended disclosure; honesty/accuracy of the disclosure; and positive negative nature of the disclosure. Therefore, the items adapted are the ones regarding the 'honesty/accuracy of the disclosure', as the purpose is to comprehend the level of transparency and openness an individual has when self-disclosing on Instagram, that is, to which level the content shared on this social media platform reflects with accuracy who one is. All 4 items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'Strongly disagree' to (7) 'Strongly agree', with the intermediate option (4) 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

Personal Space Perception – All the studies found regarding personal space have had this factor of their research measured regarding territorial aspects in the interpersonal distance. The most common techniques are: unobtrusive observation, stop-distance, chair placement or selection, felt board, and paper and pencil (Hayduk, 1978). Nonetheless, these aren't valid for this dissertation, as they do not consider what an individual considers their psychologically personal space, apart from their distance to another individual or object. Thus, it was necessary to explore the connection previously mentioned in the literature review between an individual and their possessions, most specifically considering their digital possessions as an extension of the self, due to digital personal space not being a well-researched topic. Consequently, to measure the personal space perception an individual has with their Instagram account, particularly the content they share in their personal profiles, it was necessary to adapt the items previously proposed and verified in the Ferraro *et al.* (2011) study to have a better match with the topic being researched on this dissertation. All 8 items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging

from (1) 'Strongly disagree' to (7) 'Strongly agree', with the intermediate option (4) 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

Privacy Concerns – To measure the level of concern one has with their personal data online being utilised, the items proposed and verified by Akhter (2014) were adapted. All 3 items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'Strongly disagree' to (7) 'Strongly agree', with the intermediate option (4) 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements – An individual's attitude towards personalised advertisements on Instagram was measured based on and adapted to the items proposed and verified by McDonald and Cranor (2010) and Turow *et al.* (2009). All 6 items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'Strongly disagree' to (7) 'Strongly agree', with the intermediate option (4) 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

Privacy Information Awareness – To measure an individual's privacy information awareness level, the items previously proposed and verified by McDonald and Cranor (2010) were adapted to ensure that these correlated better with this study. All 6 items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'Strongly disagree' to (7) 'Strongly agree', with the intermediate option (4) 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

Discontinue Usage of the Platform – To measure individuals' discontinuation of usage of the platform, in this case, Instagram, the items previously proposed and verified by Maier *et al.* (2015) and Ravindran *et al.* (2014) were adapted to guarantee that these correlated better with this research. All 4 items were scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) 'Strongly disagree' to (7) 'Strongly agree', with the intermediate option (4) 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

Table 3.1 – Measures and Items

Measure	Source	Adapted and Used Items
		SD1: The content I share on Instagram is a true reflection of myself
	Adapted from	SD2: My self-disclosures on Instagram are completely accurate reflections of who I
Self-Disclosure	Adapted from: Wheeless (1976)	really am
	Wileeless (1970)	SD3: My self-disclosures on Instagram can accurately reflect my own feelings,
		emotions, and experiences SD4: The content I share on Instagram is always accurate self-perceptions
		PSP1: I have a special bond with the content I share on Instagram
		PSP2: I consider the content I share on my Instagram account as part of who I am
		PSP3: I often feel a personal connection between the content I share on my Instagram account and me
		PSP4: Part of me is defined by the content I share on my Instagram account
Personal Space	Adapted from:	PSP5: I feel as if I have a close personal connection with the content I share on my
Perception	Ferraro <i>et al</i> .	Instagram account
	(2011)	PSP6: I can identify with the content I share on my Instagram account in my life
		PSP7: There are links between the content I share on my Instagram account and how
		l view myself
		PSP8: The content shared on my Instagram account is an important indicator of who I
		am
Driveou	Adapted from: Akhter (2014)	PC1: Privacy is protected on Instagram
Privacy Concerns		PC2: Instagram is secure for confidential information
concerns		PC3: I am concerned about my privacy on Instagram
		APA1: I prefer that Instagram show ads that are targeted to my interests
	Adapted from:	APA2: I prefer that Instagram offer discounts targeted to my interests
Attitude towards	McDonald and	APA3: Nobody should use data about my Instagram use for producing ads
Personalised		APA4: The idea of ads being adjusted to my Instagram use is horrible
Advertisements	Turow <i>et al</i> .	APA5: I prefer ads that are adjusted to my preferences
	(2009)	APA6: To me, the idea that someone monitors my Instagram use for the purpose of
		advertising is a privacy violation
		PIA1: When I visit Instagram I ads that might not be the same as someone else
		visiting it
		PIA2: The ads that appear on Instagram differ per visitor
Privacy	Adapted from:	PIA3: Your behaviour on Instagram determines which ads you are going to see during
Information	McDonald and	your next visit PIA4: Companies are allowed to store information about Instagram use, provided
Awareness	Cranor (2010)	that it is not traceable to a person
		PIA5: Companies create different user segments based on their Instagram behaviour
		and they show these groups personalized ads
		PIA6: Instagram can be offered for free because of online advertising revenues
	Adapted from:	DUP1: In the future, I will use Instagram far less than today
Discontinue	Maier <i>et al</i> .	DUP2: In the future, I will use another social media platform
Usage of the Platform		DUP3: I will sometimes take a short break from Instagram and return later
		DUP4: If I could, I would discontinue the use of Instagram

Source: Developed by the author

3.2. Data Analysis Strategy

The data collected aim to respond to the research questions and validate or not the hypotheses formulated. Accordingly, it is relevant to first analyse the sample to comprehend and reach some conclusions regarding its respondent's characteristics. Followed by an analysis of the measures/constructs utilised, even though other authors tested all the items used in previous literature, an exploratory factor analysis through the extractions of principal components allows to eliminate items that can be significant in more than one dimension (cross-loading). Moreover, it is too vital to investigate the internal reliability of each of the constructs by calculating its Cronbach's alpha. To make a descriptive analysis of each measure by calculating the minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation, and variance, previously it must be developed the computing of new variables for all constructs. This consists of the mean of the variables for every measure. The following step consists of the hypotheses testing, in other words, to create linear regression models, as well as checking for its assumptions. The hypotheses regarding moderators are to be analysed through the PROCESS macro developed for SPSS by Andrew F. Hayes, making it easier to comprehend the significance of these variables in the conceptual model. However, the moderators must be recoded into dummy moderators and re-examined for their frequencies. Lastly, discussing the results obtained with the ones in previous literature is crucial.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

A total of 504 responses were collected on the questionnaire, but only 313 (62,1%) are considered valid, as 43 (8,5%) respondents indicated not having an Instagram account and the 148 (29,4%) remaining responses had missing values. Most responders were female (64,9%), had a private Instagram account (78,3%), and logged into their Instagram account several times a day (59,7%). On top of that, a more significant part of inquiries is between the ages of 20 and 24 years old (49,5%), are students (46,6%), and spend between 30 minutes to 1 hour per day on Instagram (23%).

	N	%
Gender		
Male	107	34,2%
Female	203	64,9%
Other	3	1,0%
Age Group		
Under 10	0	0,0%
10 - 14	0	0,0%
14 -19	37	11,8%
20 - 24	155	49,5%
25 - 30	37	11,8%
31 - 35	11	3,5%
36 - 40	5	1,6%
Over 40	68	21,7%
Occupational Situation		
Student	146	46,6%
Student - Worker	51	16,3%
Employed Part Time	6	1,9%
Employed Full Time	98	31,3%
Unemployed	8	2,6%
Retired	4	1,3%
Disabled	0	0,0%

Table 4.1 – Sociodemographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

Source: Developed by the author

	N	%
Privacy Settings		
Private Instagram account	245	78,3%
Public Instagram account	68	21,7%
Instagram Usage		
Less than once a month	44	14,1%
Once a month	10	3,2%
Few times a week	30	9,6%
Once a day	42	13,4%
Several times a day	187	59,7%
Instagram Time Spent Per Day		
Less than 10 mins	52	16,6%
Between 10 and 30 mins	64	20,4%
Between 30 mins and 1h	72	23,0%
Between 1h and 1h30	50	16,0%
Between 1h30 and 2h	41	13,1%
Between 2h and 2h30	19	6,1%
Over 2 hours and 30 minutes	15	4,8%

Table 4.2 – Instagram Accounts Characteristics of the Survey Respondents

Source: Developed by the author

The relational structure of the items of the various constructs was investigated through an exploratory factor analysis on the correlation matrix, with the extraction of factors by the principal components method and a Varimax rotation. The factors extracted were those with an eigenvalue greater than 1.

The principal components analysis (PCA) requires the initial variables to be correlated. Thus two tests were performed to access this requirement: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) with a value of 0,855 (good sampling adequacy) (Pestana & Gageiro, 2014; Reis, 2001) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity regarding the correlation of variables in the population. That is, test the population correlation matrix as an identity matrix (the initial variables are correlated) (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The factor analysis converged to a solution of 8 principal components that explain 67,03% of the total variance. Therefore, to improve this solution, items that show factor loadings lower than 0,50 and which saturate in more than 1 factor (cross-loading) were removed (Marôco, 2018; Pestana & Gageiro, 2014). In total 2 items were removed following this criterion and the theoretical context: one from the Personal Space Perception ("PSP₈: The content shared on my Instagram account is important indicator of who I am"), and the other from Privacy Concerns ("PC₃: I am concerned about my privacy on Instagram"), in other words, the items highlighted in grey in Table 4.3, where the saturation of items (> 0,30) in each of the main components can be seen.

Moreover, it is important to refer that several items had to be reverse-coded before the PCA could be developed, respectively: "APA₃: Nobody should use data about my Instagram use for producing ads"; "APA₄: The idea of ads being adjusted to my Instagram use is horrible"; "APA₆: To me, the idea that someone monitors my Instagram use for the purpose of advertising is a privacy violation"; "PC₁: Privacy is protected on Instagram"; and "PC₂: Instagram is secure for confidential information".

Furthermore, the components were analysed for the items to be adjusted regarding the theoretical model. The third and fourth principal components were considered only one due to the theoretical context of McDonald and Cranor (2010) and Turow *et al.* (2009) and identified as Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements. This situation was also verified for the fifth and seventh principal components because of McDonald and Cranor (2010), and denoted as Privacy Information Awareness. Lastly, the first, second, sixth, and eighth principal components correspond to Personal Space Perception, Self-Disclosure, Discontinue Usage of the Platform, and Privacy Concerns, respectively.

Table 4.3 – Rotated Component Matrix

		Component							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I often feel a personal connection between the content I share on my Instagram account and me	PSP3	0,810							
I consider the content I share on my Instagram account as part of who I am	PSP2	0,792							
I have a special bond with the content I share on Instagram	PSP1	0,766							
I feel as if I have a close personal connection with the content I share on my Instagram account	PSP5	0,752	0,362						
I can identify with the content I share on my Instagram account in my life	PSP6	0,712	0,340						
There are links between the content I share on my Instagram account and how I view myself	PSP7	0,694	0,374						
Part of me is defined by the content I share on my Instagram account	PSP4	0,633	0,387						
The content shared on my Instagram account is an important indicator of who I am	PSP8	0,598	0,539						
The content I share on Instagram is always accurate self-perceptions	SD4		0,853						
My self-disclosures on Instagram are completely accurate reflections of who I really am	SD2	0,373	0,840						
My self-disclosures on Instagram can accurately reflect my own feelings, emotions, and experiences	SD3	0,306	0,824						
The content I share on Instagram is a true reflection of myself	SD1	0,421	0,729						
I prefer that Instagram show ads that are targeted to my interests	APA1			0,839					
I prefer that Instagram offer discounts targeted to my interests	APA2			0,835					
I prefer ads that are adjusted to my preferences	APA5			0,799					
Nobody should use data about my Instagram use for producing ads	APA3				0,802				
To me, the idea that someone monitors my Instagram use for the purpose of advertising is a privacy violation	APA6				0,775				
The idea of ads being adjusted to my Instagram use is horrible	APA4			0,367	0,684				
I am concerned about my privacy on Instagram	PC3				-0,537				
The ads that appear on Instagram differ per visitor	PIA2					0,816			
When I visit Instagram I ads that might not be the same as someone else visiting it	PIA1					0,760			
Your behaviour on Instagram determines which ads you are going to see during your next visit	PIA3					0,690			
In the future, I will use Instagram far less than today	DUP1						0,770		
If I could, I would discontinue the use of Instagram	DUP4						0,649		
In the future, I will use another social media platform	DUP2						0,581		
I will sometimes take a short break from Instagram and return later	DUP3						0,560		
Companies create different user segments based on their Instagram behaviour and they show these groups personalized ads	PIA5							0,746	
Companies are allowed to store information about Instagram use, provided that it is not traceable to a person	PIA4							0,711	
Instagram can be offered for free because of online advertising revenues	PIA6							0,629	
Privacy is protected on Instagram	PC1								0,852
Instagram is secure for confidential information	PC2								0,816

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Source: Developed by the author

Afterwards, the internal consistency was tested. The internal consistency of the measures used was analysed through the internal consistency coefficient Cronbach's alpha. This ranged from a minimum of 0,569 (low) from the Discontinue Usage of the Platform to a maximum of 0,922 (very good) from the Self-Disclosure, as can be seen in Table 4.4 (which does not consider the two deleted items). The Cronbach's alpha classification values follow the reference Pestana and Gageiro (2014).

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Self-Disclosure	0,922	4
Personal Space Perception	0,900	7
Privacy Concerns	0,736	2
Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements	0,823	6
Privacy Information Awareness	0,735	6
Discontinue Usage of the Platform	0,569	4

Source: Developed by the author

Nonetheless, the internal consistency reliability of the scales used through Cronbach's alpha, considering the calculus of the two items the PCA ruled out, can be seen in Annex C.

After all the measures and items had been analysed, the following step was to compute new variables to create only per construct with the respective items that had been validated on the PCA, that is, (i) Self-Disclosure, (ii) Personal Space Perception, (iii) Privacy Concerns, (iv) Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements, (v) Privacy Information Awareness and (vi) Discontinue Usage of the Platform. These new variables consist of the mean of the items for each measure.

Additionally, the values obtained by the respondents can be interpreted in Table 4.5 as it indicates the minimum and maximum values, means, standard deviations, and respective variance of all constructs, in other words, the descriptive statistics. Privacy Information Awareness is the construct most significantly above the midpoint of the rating scale (4). Nonetheless, Privacy Concerns, Discontinue Usage of the Platform, and Personal Space Perception too have means above the midpoint of the rating scale, while Self-Disclosure is below the rating scale midpoint. Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements mean's is not significantly different from the midpoint of the rating scale.

Regarding how far the average value of each construct is from its mean, it is possible to observe that Self-Disclosure and Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements have the highest standard deviation. In contrast, Privacy Information Awareness and Discontinue Usage of the Platform have values closest to the respective means (lowest standard deviation).

Table 4.5 – Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Self-Disclosure	313	1,00	7,00	3,6262	1,59979	2,559
Personal Space Perception	313	1,00	7,00	4,2209	1,39178	1,937
Privacy Concerns	313	1,00	7,00	4,5703	1,51906	2,308
Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements	313	1,00	6,83	4,0570	1,33121	1,772
Privacy Information Awareness	313	1,33	7,00	5,4579	0,99101	0,982
Discontinue Usage of the Platform	313	1,00	7,00	4,2995	1,06252	1,129
Valid N (listwise)	313		•		•	

Source: Developed by the author

The following step consists of developing the hypotheses testing. Thus, linear regression models were developed. According to Pestana and Gageiro (2014), regression models allow us to understand if one or more independent variables can explain a variable (dependent variable), and if so, to which level, besides illustrating the margin of error of these projections. To conduct these models for each of the hypotheses, first, a preliminary analysis was performed through a correlation matrix and scatter plots.

The construct's correlation matrix enables the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis – which value varies between -1 and +1 – and measures the linear correlation between two variables (Pestana & Gageiro, 2014). In Table 4.6 is possible to view the correlation between all the constructs. Nonetheless, as Pestana and Gageiro (2014) referred, unless these values are in their absolute -1 or +1, each and all are extrapolations on average.

Table 4.6 – Correlation Coefficients Matrix

		Self-Disclosure	Personal Space Perception	Privacy Concerns	Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements	Privacy Information Awareness	Discontinue Usage of the Platform
Self-Disclosure	Pearson Correlation						
Self-Disclosure	N	313					
Derconal Space	Pearson Correlation	0,653**					
Personal Space	Sig. (2-tailed)	<0,001					
Perception	N	313	313				
	Pearson Correlation	-0,286	-0,277				
Privacy Concerns	Sig. (2-tailed)	<0,001	<0,001				
	N	313	313	313			
Attitude towards	Pearson Correlation	0,106	0,208**	-0,322			
Personalised	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,062	<0,001	<0,001			
Advertisements	N	313	313	313	313		
Privacy	Pearson Correlation	0,033	0,04	-0,066	0,178**		
Information	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,557	0,481	0,244	0,002		
Awareness	N	313	313	313	313	313	
Discontinue	Pearson Correlation	0,129*	0,022	0,037	-0,167	0,083	
Usage of the	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,022	0,696	0,511	0,003	0,141	
Platform	N	313	313	313	313	313	313

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Developed by the author

The scatter plots for all the regression models are present in Annex D and aim to illustrate one of the assumptions of the regression models. Consequently, the assumption of linearity between the variables is substantiated.

All regression models were too examined for the remaining assumptions, which were held. In other words, the mean of the residual component of the models was zero, the independent variables were not correlated with the residual terms, there was no correlation among the residual terms, the variance of the random terms was constant, there was no correlation among the explanatory variables, and the normality of the residuals was verified. Table 4.7 presents the Durbin-Watson values of the regression models for the hypotheses.

	Durbin-Watson Values
Hypothesis 1	1,915
Hypothesis 2	1,960
Hypothesis 3	1,865
Hypothesis 4	1,804

Source: Developed by the author

H1: There is a positive direct effect between one's investment in self-disclosure and their perception of these platforms as their personal space

This hypothesis suggests that the more one self-discloses, the higher their perception of these platforms as their personal space. There is a positive linear correlation by analysing the correlation coefficient and standardized coefficient Beta ($R = \beta = 0,653$) and unstandardized coefficient beta (B = 0,568). Thus, this is an accepted idea. The regression model validity was evaluated via an ANOVA test, and the null hypothesis was rejected (*p*-value = <0,001). That is, the explanatory variable predicts the dependent variable with reliability. Regarding the *t*-test of the coefficient Beta, the null hypotheses were also rejected ($t_{constant}$ = 14,597; Sig.<0,001) ($t_{Self-Disclosure}$ = 15,199; Sig.<0,001). Thus, there is statistical evidence that Self-Disclosure significantly influences Personal Space Perception. Moreover, Self-Disclosure explains 42,6% (R^2 = 0,426) of the Personal Space Perception variability of the model. Therefore, the formulated hypothesis is accepted.

H2: There is a positive direct effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns

This hypothesis emphasises that the higher one's personal space perception, the higher the privacy concerns. This idea is unsubstantiated by the correlation coefficient and standardized coefficient Beta (R= -0,277) and unstandardized coefficient beta (B = -0,277), suggesting a negative linear correlation. More so, Personal Space Perception explains 7,7% (R² = 0,077) of the Privacy Concerns variability of the model. A *t*-test for coefficients Beta was developed and the null hypotheses were rejected ($t_{Constant}$ = 22,121; Sig.<0,001) ($t_{PersonalSpacePerception$ = -5,082; Sig.<0,001). Therefore, statistical evidence shows that Personal Space Perception significantly influences Privacy Concerns. The ANOVA test null hypothesis was rejected (*p*-value= <0,001) – Personal Space Perception predicts Privacy Concerns with reliability. The connection between both variables is significant but has the opposite expected effect. The higher one's perception of personal space, the lower one's privacy concerns. Accordingly, the formulated hypothesis is rejected.

H3: There is a negative direct effect between one's level of privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements

This hypothesis indicates that the higher one's privacy concerns, the worse one's attitude towards personalised advertisements. The correlation coefficient and standardized coefficient Beta ($R = \beta = -0,322$) and unstandardized coefficient beta (B = -0,282) indicate a negative linear correlation. Thus, this is a validated idea. Besides, Privacy Concerns explain 10,4% ($R^2 = 0,104$) of the model's Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements variability. An ANOVA test was conducted for the model's validity, and the null hypothesis was rejected (*p*-value = <0,001). Therefore, the independent variable explains the dependent one with reliability. More so, a *t*-test on coefficients Beta indicated there is statistical evidence that Privacy Concerns significantly influence Personal Space Perception, as the null hypotheses were rejected ($t_{constant}$ = 23,608; Sig.<0,001) ($t_{PrivacyConcerns}$ = -6,004; Sig.<0,001). Consequently, the formulated hypothesis is accepted.

H4: There is a negative direct effect between one's attitude towards personalised advertisements and their discontinuation of usage of the platform

This hypothesis states that the higher an individual's attitude towards personalised advertisements, the lower their intentions towards discontinuing using the platform. The correlation coefficient and standardized coefficient Beta (R = β = -0,167) and unstandardized coefficient beta (B= -0,133) evidence a negative linear relationship. Thus, this idea is acknowledged. Furthermore, Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements explains 2,8% (R²= 0,028) of the Discontinue Usage of the

Platform variability of the model. A *t*-test on the coefficients Beta showed there is statistical evidence that Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements significantly influences Discontinue Usage of the Platform due to the null hypotheses being rejected ($t_{constant}$ = 25,412; Sig.<0,001) ($t_{AttitudeTowardsPersonalisedAdvertisements}$ = -2,991; Sig.=0,003). For the validity of the model, an ANOVA test was conducted, and the null hypothesis was rejected (*p*-value = 0,003). In other words, Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements predicts Discontinue Usage of the Platform with reliability. Hence, the formulated hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.8 summarises the linear regression model results for each and all previously analysed hypotheses.

	Correlation Coefficient & Standardized Coefficient Beta	R Square	Unstandardized Coefficient B	p -value	Sig. of <i>t</i> -test (Constant)	Sig. of <i>t</i> -test (Variable)
Hypothesis 1	0,653	0,426	0,568	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Hypothesis 2	-0,277	0,077	-0,277	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Hypothesis 3	-0,322	0,104	-0,282	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Hypothesis 4	-0,167	0,028	-0,133	0,003	<0,001	0,003

Table 4.8 – Summary Linear Regression Models Results

Source: Developed by the author

To analyse the remaining hypotheses, it was necessary to conduct several moderation models utilising the PROCESS macro for SPSS by Andrew F. Hayes (version 4.2) – "PROCESS is an observed variable OLS and logistic regression path analysis modeling tool" (Hayes, 2023). Moderation consists of "the effect of X on some variable Y is moderated by W if its size, sign, or strength depends on or can be predicted by W" (Hayes, 2018, p. 220). Furthermore, the conceptual model in Figure 2.1 illustrates Gender, Age Groups, and Privacy Information Awareness as moderator variables for each of its respective hypotheses. However, Gender (0 = Non-Female; 1 = Female) and Age Groups (0 = Younger Age Groups; 1 = Older Age Groups) needed to be transformed into dummy moderators due to not being continuous. Privacy Information Awareness (0 = Low Level of PIA; 1 = High Level of PIA) was also recoded into a dummy moderator because of the hypothesis 3a formulation. Notably, in it, the construct is divided into two separate groups. Therefore, Table 4.9 exhibits a simple frequency analysis of the dummy moderators.

	N	%
Gender		
Non-Female	110	35,1%
Female	203	64,9%
Age Groups		
Younger Age Groups (Till 24 Years Old)	192	61,3%
Older Age Groups (After 24 Years Old)	121	38,4%
Privacy Information Awareness (PIA)		
Low Level of PIA (Mean bellow 5,499)	138	44,1%
High Level of PIA (Mean above 5,50)	175	55,9%

Source: Developed by the author

For the following hypotheses testing, several options were selected: model 1 was selected, the mean center for the construction of products is only for continuous variables that define products, the probe interactions of moderation and conditioning if p < 0,10, and the conditioning values are based on the mean and standard deviation (-1SD and +1SD).

H2a: Age groups moderate the effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns, in the sense that the effect is more intense for older age groups

This hypothesis emphasizes that the direct effect between one's personal space perception and privacy concerns increases for older age groups. Nevertheless, the moderator is not significant (p = 0,949 > 0,050, so the null hypothesis is accepted). Concerning the effect size, 0% (R2-chng = 0,000) of the model's additional variance is justified with the interaction term. Figure 4.1 demonstrates the moderation effect. Accordingly, the formulated hypothesis is rejected.

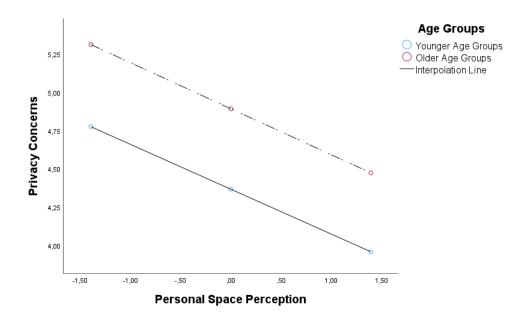


Figure 4.1 – Hypothesis 2a Moderation Effect (developed by the author)

H2b: Gender moderates the effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns, in the sense that the effect is more intense for females

This hypothesis indicates that the direct effect between one's personal space perception and privacy concerns increases for females. However, the moderator is not significant (p = 0,517 > 0,050, so the null hypothesis is accepted). In terms of effect size, 0,1% (R2-chng = 0,001) of the model's additional variance is explained with the interaction term. Figure 4.2 displays the moderation effect. Consequently, the formulated hypothesis is rejected.

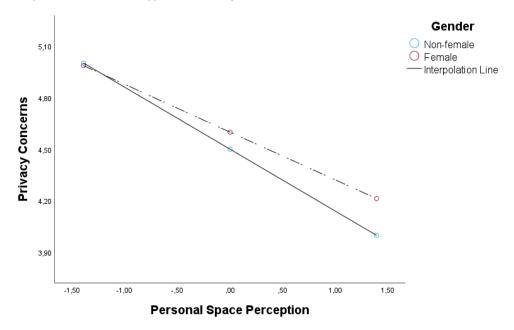


Figure 4.2 – Hypothesis 2b Moderation Effect (developed by the author)

H3a: Privacy information awareness moderates the effect between one's privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements, in the sense that the effect is less intense for those with higher levels of privacy information awareness

This hypothesis states that their privacy information awareness moderates the effect between one's privacy concerns and attitude towards personalised advertisements. Nonetheless, the moderator is not significant (p = 0,798 > 0,050, so the null hypothesis is accepted). Regarding effect size, 1,3% (R2-chng = 0,013) of the model's additional variance is elucidated with the interaction term. Figure 4.3 exhibits the moderation effect. Hence, the formulated hypothesis is rejected.

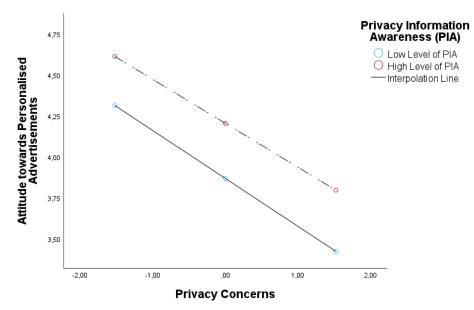


Figure 4.3 – Hypothesis 3a Moderation Effect (developed by the author)

Table 4.10 summarises the moderation models effects for each and all previously analysed hypotheses.

	R2-chng	F (model)	df1 (model)	df2 (model)	p (model & Int_1)	t (Int_1)	LLCI (Int_1)	ULCI (Int_1)
Hypothesis 2a	0,001	0,004	1,000	309,000	0,949	-0,063	-0,243	0,227
Hypothesis 2b	0,000	0,421	1,000	309,000	0,517	0,648	-0,167	0,331
Hypothesis 3a	0,000	0,066	1,000	309,000	0,798	0,256	-0,164	0,213

Table 4.10 – Summary Results of Moderation Models

Source: Developed by the author

Accordingly, Table 4.11 summarises the hypotheses testing decisions. It is possible to observe that several hypotheses were accepted.

Table 4.11 – Hypotheses Testing Decisions

Hypothesis	Decision
H1: There is a positive direct effect between one's investment in self- disclosure and their perception of the platform as their personal space	Accepted
H2: There is a positive direct effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns	Rejected
H2a: Age groups moderate the effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns, in the sense that the effect is more intense for older age groups	Rejected
H2b: Gender moderates the effect between one's personal space perception and their level of privacy concerns, in the sense that the effect is more intense for females	Rejected
H3: There is a negative direct effect between one's level of privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements	Accepted
H3a: Privacy information awareness moderates the effect between one's privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements, in the sense that the effect is less intense for those with higher levels of privacy information awareness	Rejected
H4: There is a negative direct effect between one's attitude towards personalised advertisements and their discontinuation of usage of the platform	Accepted

Source: Developed by the author

4.2. Discussion

The H1, which refers to the Instagram users' self-disclosure influence on their personal space perception, was accepted. There is a positive and impactful connection between these. This supports Belk's (1988, 2014) studies as there is a significant effect between individuals' possessions (personal Instagram accounts) and themselves. Therefore, the more an individual uses their Instagram accounts as a platform to share who they are through their content, the higher their perception of personal space towards these. When one of the factors decreases, the other decreases as well. For this dissertation, self-disclosure refers to Instagram users' sharing their identity accurately through the content published on their accounts.

The H2 was rejected. It investigated the possible positive direct effect of personal space perception over privacy concerns. It was found that the connection between both variables is significant but has the opposite expected effect. In other words, the higher one's perception of personal space, the lower one's privacy concerns. Furthermore, H2a and H2b were rejected. Instagram users' age and gender do not affect the effects of their perception of personal space and privacy concerns.

The H3 was accepted, which refers to the effect of individuals' privacy concerns and their attitude towards personalised advertisements. This supports the Dwiveldi *et al.* (2021), Smit *et al.* (2014) and Ur *et al.* (2012) findings. The higher one's privacy concerns, the worse one's attitude towards personalised advertisements. To rephrase it, there is a significant negative direct effect. Additionally, the H3a was rejected. Instagram users' privacy information awareness does not moderate the effect between their privacy concerns and attitude towards personalised advertisements. This hypothesis formulation followed the lead that one's awareness of intimate data usage motivations may influence the personalised advertisement's success (White et al., 2008).

Lastly, the H4 regarding Instagram users' attitude towards personalised advertisements' effect on their discontinued platform usage was accepted. The higher an individual's attitude towards personalised advertisements, the lower their intentions towards discontinuing using the platform. Accordingly, there is a significant negative direct effect.

5. Conclusion

Social media plays an essential role for brands as a communication and advertising tool and for their private users as a space where they can share themselves. More so, individuals are developing a sense of ownership towards their social networking sites accounts. Consequently, this dissertation addresses a knowledge gap regarding consumers' attitudes towards personalised advertisements. Particularly when perceiving their social networking sites accounts as part of their personal space.

For this study, it was given focus on analysing Instagram users' perceptions of their personal accounts. It was found that the more an individual self-disclose on their Instagram accounts through the content shared, the higher their perception of personal space towards these. A positive significant effect exists between one's published content demonstrating identity and personal space perception. Personal space should be deemed as more than a territorial area. In today's world, it is much more than that. It must also englobe what one has a personal connection to, such as the content shared on these platforms.

To comprehend one's perception of social media platforms as their personal space, the research was based on Belk's (1988, 2014) studies. The author defends that one's possessions are part of the self (Belk, 1988). Besides, social media are a platform where one can disclose who they are (Barbovschi et al., 2018; Boyd, 2007). Moreover, from a territorial perspective, personal space is a well-researched topic, whether in terms of definition or how to measure it (e.g., Evans & Howard, 1973; Hayduk, 1978). However, a clear and agreed-upon definition of digital personal space wasn't found.

Furthermore, the effect of one's personal space perception on their privacy concerns was too researched. It was found that Instagram users' personal space perception and privacy concerns connection is significant but has the opposite expected effect – it has a negative rather than positive impact. Accordingly, the higher Instagram user's perception of personal space, the lower their privacy concerns. The effect between the two variables was expected to be positive due to the studies by Boermann *et al.* (2017) and Niu *et al.* (2021) which indicated that when individuals view a personal social media advertisement, they can perceive it as a personal space invasion, and Kietzmann *et al.* (2011) study regarding the connection of one's self-disclosure and their privacy concerns. Additionally, an individual's age and gender does not significantly moderate the effect.

Previous studies have numbered several factors that impact an individual's attitude towards personalised advertisements. According to Gaber *et al.* (2019), credibility, informativeness, entertainment, and lack of irritation are relevant factors in an individual's attitude towards personalised advertisements. An advertisement's perceived value is impacted by its entertainment level and informativeness (Shareef et al., 2019). Moreover, one's attitude is affected by the advertisement's perceived value (Shareef et al., 2019). Thus, it was deemed relevant to comprehend

the role privacy concerns have on one's attitude towards personalised advertisements. It was found that Instagram users' privacy concerns is a significant factor in their attitude towards personalised advertisements, which corroborated Dwiveldi *et al.* (2021), Smit *et al.* (2014) and Ur *et al.* (2012) findings. That is, the higher one's privacy concerns, the worse one's attitude towards personalised advertisements. Additionally, individuals' privacy information awareness does not significantly moderate the effect of privacy concerns on attitude towards personalised advertisements.

Lastly, Instagram users' attitude towards personalised advertisements was found to impact their discontinued platform usage. The higher an individual's attitude towards personalised advertisements, the lower their intentions towards discontinuing the platform. Baruh *et al.* (2017) and Bright *et al.* (2015) studies stated that those with higher privacy apprehensions developed a fatigue sentiment towards social media platforms. Or stopped using them, notably those who use them to share themselves (Gao et al., 2018). Consequently, these leads were investigated because privacy concerns were considered a significant factor in Instagram users' attitude towards personalised advertisements.

5.1. Managerial and Theoretical Implications

This study aims to fill a visible knowledge gap regarding the factors influencing consumers' perspective of social media platforms. This research builds Belk's (1988, 2014) studies to understand the connection between individuals and their social media accounts and consider these as their personal space. Belk (1988) defended that the things an individual generates or alters make them part of the self. After all, "one difference in the present view is that the extended self is seen not to be limited to external objects and personal possessions, but also includes persons, places, and group possessions as well as body parts and vital organs" (Belk, 1988, p. 140).

Personal social media accounts fall into this concept (Belk, 2014; O'Leary & Murphy, 2019; Odom et al., 2011) and as shown by this research. Therefore, making them an extension of the self (Belk, 1988). Previous studies mentioned that social media platforms can be part of an individual's personal space. However, this statement utilised the psychological ownership theory (e.g., Niu et al., 2021; Tsay-Vogel et al., 2018). Thus, the premise of one's Instagram account being one's personal account based on the studies by Belk (1988, 2014) is pioneering, and connecting it with the self-presentation and selfdisclosure concepts represents a singular approach from a theoretical perspective.

This dissertation further develops the digital personal space topic by comparing it with personal space from a territorial perspective. It is a relevant theoretical contribution as personal space is addressed in physical distance terms. Moreover, it is currently only measured as such (e.g., Hayduk, 1978). Considering one's Instagram account itself the digital personal space, makes it distinct from previous studies which referred to digital personal space in terms of distance between individuals or

avatars in AR and VR (e.g., Nassiri et al., 2010; Nishihara & Okubo, 2015; Sun et al., 2021), or the ideal distance for better social media engagement on a selfie (e.g., Hong et al., 2022).

Furthermore, considering one's Instagram personal space perspective and privacy concerns as influencing factors for one's attitude towards personalised advertisements is theoretically significant. This is because previous studies identify data collection methods, informativeness, and among others, entertainment as the contributing factors (e.g., Gaber et al., 2019; Lee & Hong, 2016; Shareef et al., 2019).

More so, investigating the previously researched connection between an individual's privacy concerns and social media platforms perception (e.g., Baruh et al., 2017; Bright et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2018) but as a result of their attitude towards personalised advertisements on Instagram is also impactful.

Social media platforms are utilised by both private users and organisations (for commercial motives). It is a company's extremely relevant advertisement communication tool (e.g., Faustino, 2019). For a brand to succeed in its digital marketing campaigns, it needs to be aware of how its consumers perceive every tool used. Thus, a brand must know its customers the best it possibly can in every way. Nevertheless, there are limits on what individuals deem reasonable for their personal data usage for commercial purposes (Van den Broeck et al., 2020).

This dissertation shows that individuals' personal space perception englobes their Instagram accounts, as they have a very intimate and strong connection to them. These are a space in which they can disclose who they are, and that affects their attitude towards the personalised advertisements they are in contact with. Moreover, as a brand and platform, Instagram can also focus on developing new features or improving existing ones to further establish itself as a crucial and indispensable component in its users' lives. After all, there is a special bond between active Instagram users and their personal accounts. Besides, Instagram is vital for brands to connect with their existing customers and explore new leads.

Lastly, a significant effect exists between Instagram users' attitude towards personalised advertisements and the platform. Brand's commercial and advertising behaviour on Instagram is directly affecting Instagram. Users with a lower attitude towards personalised advertisements could discontinue the platforms' usage. This could decrease Instagram's active users and other consequences for the platform.

5.2. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This research makes several managerial and theoretical contributions to digital marketing. Nonetheless, it presents some limitations which can be converted into future investigation. In the development of this dissertation, it was visible that ISCTE-IUL didn't offer institutional journal access to a significantly large part of articles related to individuals' perception of their personal space, either from a territorial or a psychological perspective. Hence, one suggestion would be to further investigate the new advancements in this research field to develop a more comprehensive grasp of the consumer's digital personal space.

In addition, the results of this study are focused on one large age group of respondents (between the ages of 20 and 24) and with a high disparity in the number of those of different age groups, particularly for the older age groups and the youngest ones (which did not register responses). After all, for younger age groups, social media is a key tool to self-express themselves (Bargh et al., 2002; Livingstone, 2008), and they are the ones who employ more strategies to protect their privacy (Blank et al., 2014). Therefore, one future suggestion is to ensure that the study results are based on respondents of all and each age group and that these are well represented. As well as complementing the research by using qualitative methods of primary data such as interviews (e.g., Kelly et al., 2010) and focus groups better understand individuals' personal space perception, privacy concerns, privacy information awareness and discontinuation of the platform usage.

Furthermore, a different perspective on this study would be comparing consumers' attitude to these versus personalised advertisements in the User Generated Content (UGC) format instead of only focusing on personalised advertisements. Thus, to understand if advertisements developed by individuals (created by other private social media users) compared to those of brands would be considered less intrusive to one's personal space.

Additionally, this study can focus on and compare personalised advertisements of different brand sectors according to the individual's preferences. Therefore, comprehend if there are sectors one is more reluctant to or even find more invasive than others, and how it translates into their perception of the brands and used platform.

Another suggestion would be to revisit this study for different social media platforms (such as Facebook, TikTok, WhatsApp, or YouTube), as these also allow users to share personal information. Moreover, compare them among themselves and per age (for instance) as currently Facebook is commonly associated with older individuals while TikTok is to the younger ones. However, also analyse if other sociodemographic characteristics are influential (for example, nationality or income) due to the personalised advertisements definition by Baek and Marimoto (2012).

On top of that, it could also be relevant to complement this study by analysing the possible role of one's motivations for disclosing and using social media platforms in personal space perception.

To conclude, a very different outtake would be to connect the first part of this research – individuals' personal space perception – to their emotional and mental well-being regarding these

platforms instead of privacy concerns. Therefore, following the lead of previous studies (e.g., Allahverdi, 2022; Evans & Howard, 1973; Keles et al., 2020; Lai et al., 2019; Yıldız Durak, 2020).

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7. Annexes

Annex A – Online Questionnaire in English

Q1 Dear participant,

I am in my final year in the Master in Marketing at ISCTE Business School, and am asking you to answer the following survey which aims to comprehend consumers' views on social media advertisements.

The survey will only take a few minutes, and it complies with ethical research standards by ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of the data collected, which is only used for educational purposes.

Thank you for participating in this study.

For any questions or clarifications feel free to contact me at rmaco2@iscte-iul.pt.

Q2 Do you have an Instagram account?

🔿 No

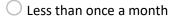
○ Yes

Q3 Please indicate your privacy settings on your Instagram account, in terms of visibility:

O Private Instagram account

O Public Instagram account

Q4 How often do you login to and check your Instagram account?



Once a month

• Few times a week

Once a day

O Several times a day

Q5 How much time do you usually spend on Instagram each day?

 \bigcirc Less than 10 mins

O Between 10 and 30 mins

 \bigcirc Between 30 mins and 1h

 \bigcirc Between 1h and 1h30

O Between 1h30 and 2h

O Between 2h and 2h30

Over 2 hours and 30 minutes

	1 - Strongly disagree	2	3	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 - Strongly agree
I prefer that Instagram show ads that are targeted to my interests	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
I prefer that Instagram offer discounts targeted to my interests	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0
Nobody should use data about my Instagram use for producing ads	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0
The idea of ads being adjusted to my Instagram use is horrible	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
l prefer ads that are adjusted to my preferences	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0
To me, the idea that someone monitors my	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0

Q6 Please rate on a scale of 1 to 7 (where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 7 is "strongly agree") the following statements:

Instagram use for the purpose of advertising is a privacy violation

	1 - Strongly disagree	2	3	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 - Strongly agree
When I visit Instagram I see ads that might not be the same as someone else visiting it	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0
The ads that appear on Instagram differ per visitor	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
Your behaviour on Instagram determines which ads you are going to see during your next visit	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Companies are allowed to store information about Instagram use, provided that it is not traceable to a person	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Companies create different user segments based on their Instagram	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

Q7 Please rate on a scale of 1 to 7 (where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 7 is "strongly agree") the following statements:



Q8 Please rate on a scale of 1 to 7 (where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 7 is "strongly agree") the following statements:

	1 - Strongly disagree	2	3	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 - Strongly agree
Privacy is protected on Instagram	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Instagram is secure for confidential information	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	0
I am concerned about my privacy on Instagram	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

Q9 Please rate on a scale of 1 to 7 (where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 7 is "strongly agree") the following statements:

	1 - Strongly disagree	2	3	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 - Strongly agree
I have a special bond with the content I share on Instagram	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
l consider the content l share on my Instagram account to be as part of who l am	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
I often feel a personal connection between the content I share on my Instagram account and me	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc
Part of me is defined by the content I share on my Instagram account	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc
I feel as if I have a close personal	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0

connection with the content I share on my Instagram account l can identify with the content I share on my Instagram account in my life There are links between the content I share on my Instagram account and how I view myself The content shared on my Instagram account is an important indicator of who I am

0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
			0			
0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

	1 - Strongly disagree	2	3	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 - Strongly agree
The content I share on Instagram is a true reflection of myself	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
My self- disclosures on Instagram are completely accurate reflections of who I really am	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	0
My self- disclosures on Instagram can accurately reflect my own feelings, emotions, and experiences	0	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
The content I share on Instagram is always accurate self- perceptions	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc

Q10 Please rate on a scale from 1 to 7 (where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 7 is "strongly agree") the following statements:

	1 - Strongly disagree	2	3	4 - Neither agree nor disagree	5	6	7 - Strongly agree
In the future, I will use Instagram far less than today	\bigcirc	0	0	0	0	0	0
In the future, I will use another social media platform	\bigcirc	0	0	0	0	0	\bigcirc
I will sometimes take a short break from Instagram and return later	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
If I could, I would discontinue the use of Instagram	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

Q11 Please rate on a scale from 1 to 7 (where 1 is "strongly disagree" and 7 is "strongly agree") the following statements:

Q12 Please indicate the gender you identify with:

○ Male

○ Female

 \bigcirc Other

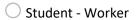
Q13 Please indicate the age group you fall into:

🔘 Under 10

- 0 10 14
- 0 15 19
- 0 20 24
- 0 25 30
- O 31 35
- 0 36 40
- Over 40

Q14 Please indicate your occupational situation:

O Student



- \bigcirc Employed part time
- O Employed full time
- Unemployed

O Retired

O Disabled

Annex B – Online Questionnaire in Portuguese

Q1 Caro(a) participante,

Eu estou no meu último ano do Mestrado de Marketing da ISCTE Business School, e estou a pedirlhe que responda ao seguinte questionário cujo objetivo é compreender a perceção dos consumidores a anúncios nas redes sociais.

Este questionário apenas demorará alguns minutos, e segue os padrões éticos de pesquisa ao assegurar a anonamidade e confidencialidade dos dados, que serão utilizados para somente propósitos educacionais.

Obrigada por participar neste estudo.

No caso de questões ou esclarecimentos sinta-se livre de me contactar através de rmaco2@iscteiul.pt

Q2 Tem uma conta no Instagram?

🔘 Não

🔿 Sim

Q3 Por favor, indique a configuração de privacidade na sua conta do Instagram, em termos de visibilidade:

O Conta privada do Instagram

O Conta pública do Instagram

Q4 Com que frequência faz login e verifica sua conta do Instagram?

O Menos de uma vez por mês

O Uma vez por mês

Poucas vezes por semana

O Uma vez por dia

🔾 Várias vezes ao dia

Q5 Quanto tempo costuma passar diariamente no Instagram?

- O Menos de 10 minutos
- O Entre 10 e 30 minutos
- O Entre 30 minutos e 1h
- O Entre 1h e 1h30
- 🔘 Entre 1h30 e 2h
- 🔘 Entre 2h e 2h30
- O Mais de 2 horas e 30 minutos

	1 - Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 - Nem concordo, nem discordo	5	6	7 - Concordo totalmente
Eu prefiro que o Instagram me mostre anúncios direcionados aos meus interesses	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Eu prefiro que o Instagram ofereça descontos direcionados aos meus interesses	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
Ninguém deve usar dados sobre meu uso do Instagram para produzir anúncios	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	0
A ideia de anúncios serem ajustados ao meu uso do Instagram é horrível	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	0
Eu prefiro anúncios que são ajustados às minhas preferências	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Para mim, a ideia de que alguém monitoriza o	0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc

Q6 Por favor, classifique numa escala de 1 a 7 (onde 1 é "discordo totalmente" e 7 é "concordo totalmente") as seguintes afirmações:

meu uso do Instagram para fins publicitários é uma violação de privacidade

	1 - Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 - Nem concordo, nem discordo	5	6	7 - Concordo totalmente
Quando visito o Instagram vejo anúncios que podem não ser os mesmos de outras pessoas	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Os anúncios que aparecem no Instagram diferem por pessoa	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
O teu comportamento no Instagram determina que anúncios irás ver na tua próxima visita	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
Empresas estão autorizadas a armazenar informação sobre o uso do Instagram, desde que não seja rastreável a uma pessoa	0	0	0	0	0	0	\bigcirc
Empresas criam diferentes segmentos de utilizadores consoante o seu comportamento no Instagram e mostram-Ihes anúncios personalizados	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc
O Instagram pode ser disponibilizado	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Q7 Por favor, classifique numa escala de 1 a 7 (onde 1 é "discordo totalmente" e 7 é "concordo totalmente") as seguintes afirmações:

gratuitamente devido às receitas dos anúncios online

Q8 Por favor, classifique numa escala de 1 a 7 (onde 1 é "discordo totalmente" e 7 é "concordo totalmente") as seguintes afirmações:

	1 - Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 - Nem concordo, nem discordo	5	6	7 - Concordo totalmente
A privacidade é protegida no Instagram	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O Instagram é seguro para informações confidenciais	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0
Eu estou preocupado com a minha privacidade no Instagram	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	0

	1 - Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 - Nem concordo, nem discordo	5	6	7 - Concordo totalmente
Eu tenho uma ligação especial com o conteúdo que partilho no Instagram	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Eu considero que o conteúdo que partilho na minha conta do Instagram, é parte de quem eu sou	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	0
Eu muitas vezes, sinto uma conexão pessoal entre o conteúdo que partilho na minha conta do Instagram, e eu próprio(a)	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
Parte de mim, é definida pelo conteúdo que eu	0	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	0	0

Q9 Por favor, classifique numa escala de 1 a 7 (onde 1 é "discordo totalmente" e 7 é "concordo totalmente") as seguintes afirmações:

partilho na minha conta do Instagram Eu sinto como se tivesse uma conexão pessoal próxima com o conteúdo que partilho na minha conta do Instagram Eu consigo me identificar com o conteúdo que partilho na minha conta do Instagram, na minha vida Existem ligações entre o conteúdo que partilho na minha conta do Instagram e como eu me vejo a mim mesmo(a) 0 conteúdo

conteúdo partilhado na minha conta do

			0			
			0			
0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0
\bigcirc						

Instagram é um indicador importante de quem eu sou

	1 - Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 - Nem concordo, nem discordo	5	6	7 - Concordo totalmente
O conteúdo que eu partilho no Instagram é uma reflexão verdadeira de mim mesmo(a)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
As minhas auto- revelações no Instagram são reflexões completamente precisas de quem eu sou	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
As minhas auto- revelações no Instagram conseguem refletir de um modo preciso os meus sentimentos, emoções, e experiências	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O conteúdo que eu partilho no Instagram é sempre uma auto-perceção precisa	0	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0	\bigcirc

Q10 Por favor, classifique numa escala de 1 a 7 (onde 1 é "discordo totalmente" e 7 é "concordo totalmente") as seguintes afirmações:

	1 - Discordo totalmente	2	3	4 - Nem concordo, nem discordo	5	6	7 - Concordo totalmente
No futuro, eu usarei o Instagram muito menos do que hoje	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
No futuro, eu usarei outra plataforma de redes sociais	0	0	0	0	0	0	\bigcirc
Eu às vezes faço intervalos no uso do Instagram	0	0	0	0	0	0	\bigcirc
Se eu pudesse, pararia de usar o Instagram	0	0	0	\bigcirc	0	0	\bigcirc

Q11 Por favor, classifique numa escala de 1 a 7 (onde 1 é "discordo totalmente" e 7 é "concordo totalmente") as seguintes afirmações:

Q12 Por favor, indique o gênero com o qual se identifica:

OHomem

O Mulher

Outro

Q13 Por favor, indique o grupo etário no qual se enquadra:

O Menos de 10 anos

- 0 10 14
- 0 14 19
- 0 20 24
- 0 25 30
- 0 31 35
- 0 36 40
- O Mais de 40 anos

Q14 Por favor, indique a sua situação ocupacional:

O Estudante

- O Estudante Trabalhador
- \bigcirc Empregado a tempo parcial
- Empregado em tempo integral

○ Desempregado

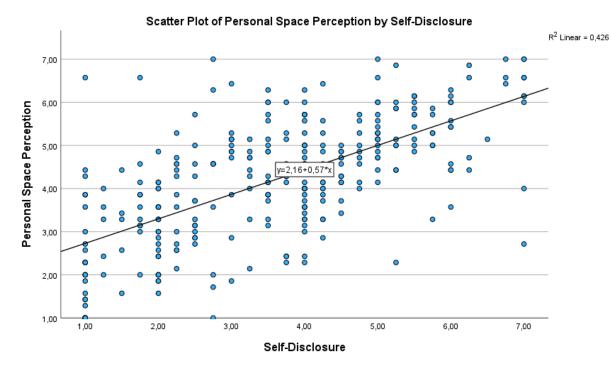
O Reformado

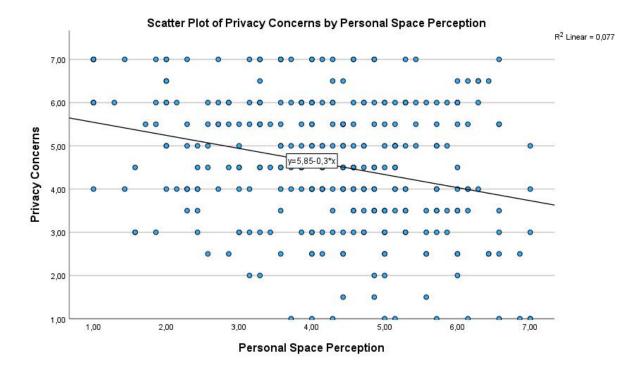
○ Inválidos

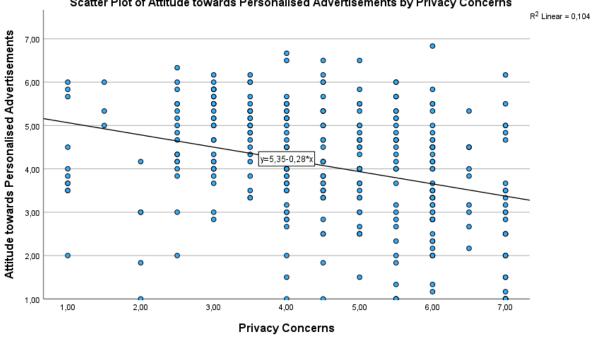
Annex C – Internal Consistency Reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Self-Disclosure	0,922	4
Personal Space Perception	0,913	8
Privacy Concerns	0,550	3
Attitude towards Personalized Advertisements	0,823	6
Privacy Information Awareness	0,735	6
Discontinue Usage of the Platform	0,569	4

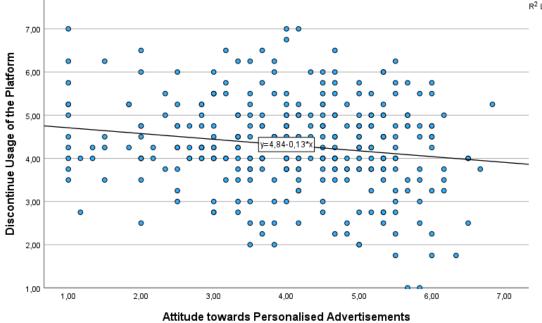
Annex D – Scatter Plots







Scatter Plot of Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements by Privacy Concerns



Scatter Plot of Discontinue Usage of the Platform by Attitude towards Personalised Advertisements R² Linear = 0,028