

# YouTubers Versus VTubers: Persuasiveness of Human and Virtual Presenters in Promotional Videos

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11 **Abstract**

12 With the recent advances in motion tracking technologies and three-dimensional computer graphics  
13 software, communication through avatars has become increasingly popular. Can avatars be  
14 sufficiently persuasive, when compared to traditional forms of interpersonal communication? What  
15 factors contribute to the persuasiveness of virtual influencers? Existing literature has studied the  
16 differences in persuasiveness between human and virtual speakers extensively, particularly in  
17 education. However, few studies have been conducted on product promotion. Therefore, in this  
18 study, we investigated the characteristics of persuasiveness for humans and virtual influencers, as  
19 well as the differences between them in this regard in a more modern and practical situation: product  
20 introduction videos used in influencer marketing. Specifically, we recruited participants to watch  
21 product introduction videos on YouTube, presented by either humans or avatars. The videos were  
22 similar, except for the appearance of the presenter. Before and after watching the videos, the  
23 participants were asked to complete a questionnaire about their willingness to purchase the products  
24 and the characteristics of presenters' persuasiveness. The results show that although promotion via  
25 avatars can increase the participants' willingness to purchase, human influencers were more  
26 persuasive. However, VTuber was more persuasive for certain product domain. VTubers who can  
27 change their appearance to match the product domain have potential for future applications. We also  
28 attempted to construct a model of persuasiveness in this pragmatic context based on the Dyson's  
29 persuasiveness rating scale and the overall impression about the video. Additionally, the degree of  
30 persuasiveness was found to be related to the presenters' likability, whether the presenter was a  
31 human or an avatar, the degree of familiarity between the presenter and the audience, the presenters'  
32 trustworthiness, and the quality as well as the entertainment level of the video. This model is helpful  
33 for the successful promotion on YouTube. Our findings verify that avatars can be fairly persuasive in  
34 some situations, including promotional videos. These findings contribute to the future development  
35 of communication through avatars.

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Since the establishment of the online video-sharing platform YouTube in 2005, “YouTubers”—  
38 people who post and stream videos on the platform—have become increasingly popular. More  
39 recently, with advances in three-dimensional computer graphics (3DCG) software, virtual YouTubers  
40 (VTubers), who post and stream videos using 3DCG avatars that are similar to characters in anime,  
41 have also gained widespread popularity (Liudmila, 2020). The 3DCG software captures the facial  
42 expressions and movements of VTubers and maps them into a 3D model, thus animating the  
43 VTubers’ avatars and enabling them to record videos with natural-looking 3D animations.

44 YouTube's Culture and Trends Report noted that VTubers have grown to over 1.5 billion views per  
45 month by October 2020 (Allocca, 2020). According to the ranking of earnings on YouTube, known  
46 as Super Chat, in 2021, 8 of the top 10 YouTube video contributors worldwide were VTubers  
47 (Playboard, 2022). Currently, “Gawr Gura” has more than 4 million subscribers, making them the  
48 VTuber with the largest following. In particular, VTubers have the advantage of controlling avatars  
49 that are character-like and do not have to show their own faces or reveal their true physical  
50 appearance; however, it is difficult for them to show delicate facial expressions and movements.  
51 Thus, it is not clear in what situations videos made by VTubers using avatars can be as convincing to  
52 viewers as those performed by real people (YouTubers), or in what ways they differ.

53 In conventional corporate advertising, companies promote their products directly using mass media  
54 advertising, such as television, newspapers, and magazines. In contrast, YouTubers and VTubers  
55 introduce the product from the users’ perspective, sharing their experiences with products and  
56 services with the users to build a more intimate and personal relationship (Freeman and Chapman,  
57 2007). This type of influencer marketing alters consumer behavior by disseminating information on  
58 social media (Brown and Hayes, 2008; Jin et al., 2019; Hudders et al., 2020; Vrontis et al., 2021).  
59 Therefore, researchers have been interested in studying factors affecting influencer marketing, such  
60 as perceived credibility (Xiao et al., 2018).

61 In particular, product promotions have been on the rise on video-sharing platforms, such as YouTube  
62 and TikTok, as videos provide more information than text on Twitter or photos on Instagram. Unlike  
63 text and photos, videos can convey changes in facial expressions and movements, as well as provide  
64 detailed instructions on how to use a product. Although the persuasive effect of such videos has been  
65 attracting considerable attention, no specific research has been conducted on the topic. However,  
66 from a marketing perspective, investigating the persuasive effect of such videos is imperative, as it  
67 can serve as a guideline for how YouTubers (humans) and VTubers (avatars) can be utilized, and  
68 what presenter types should be used to effect changes in purchasing decisions when introducing  
69 products. Further, such investigation is also meaningful in terms of studying persuasion and in  
70 practical situations.

71 In the field of marketing, numerous studies have investigated the effects of corporate advertising on  
72 consumers’ willingness to purchase diverse products (Krugman, 1965; Park and Young, 1986).  
73 Recent marketing studies have also shown that TV, print, and other advertising, as well as celebrity  
74 endorsements, influence purchase intentions (Arshad and Aslam, 2015). Moreover, advertising  
75 entertainment, advertising familiarity, social imaging, and advertising spending influence purchase  
76 behavior (Haider and Shakib, 2018). Research on smartphone advertising has also shown the  
77 importance of contextual advertising and other types of advertising that are location- and time-  
78 specific (Lee et al., 2017).

79 Prior research has studied persuasion in the context of purchase decisions on websites and other  
80 sources (Hopkins et al., 2004). Moreover, several studies have suggested that the use of avatars

81 representing companies and products on websites can improve attitudes toward products and improve  
82 user satisfaction, as well as willingness to purchase (Choi et al., 2001; Holzwarth et al., 2006).  
83 However, prior studies have not examined the differences in persuasiveness between human and  
84 avatar presenters in product promotional videos using experimental designs that are similar to real  
85 environments.

86 Therefore, this study investigates the persuasive effects of using YouTubers or VTubers in product  
87 promotional videos (i.e., videos introducing specific products) using an experimental design that is  
88 similar to the actual video promotion and viewing environment. Specifically, we attempt to  
89 determine whether YouTubers or VTubers exhibit persuasive effects, such as influencing purchase  
90 decisions, identify which factors contribute to their persuasiveness, and highlight the differences  
91 between them. This study clarifies the differences in persuasive effects between humans and avatars  
92 in the modern and practical setting of product promotion through YouTube videos. As the existing  
93 evidence suggests that avatar attractiveness affects the favorability perceived by users, and  
94 favorability affects persuasiveness, we also explore the role of favorability in this study (Keeling et  
95 al., 2010; Khan and Sutcliffe, 2014).

96 We must note that prior research has investigated the impact of interaction with salespeople using  
97 avatars on product promotion. Various studies have attempted to determine whether avatars (in the  
98 form of interactive agents on websites) can affect purchase decision (McGoldrick et al., 2008;  
99 Keeling et al., 2010). For example, multimodal interactions between users and avatars providing  
100 product information have been shown to enhance the enjoyment of the online shopping experience  
101 (Jin and Bolebruch, 2009). Moon et al. (2013) have demonstrated that interactions between users and  
102 salespeople and peers in virtual stores can increase users' social presence, shopping enjoyment,  
103 positive attitudes toward brands, and willingness to purchase. Nevertheless, this study examines the  
104 impact on purchase decisions in the practical setting of video promotion.

105 Persuasion is also one of the key themes in psychology, with various studies investigating persuasion  
106 in many domains, not limited to purchase decisions. For example, research has been conducted on the  
107 differences in persuasiveness between humans and avatars in the field of education. Some studies  
108 have shown that nonverbal expressions are also important for the persuasive ability of robots  
109 (Chidambaram et al., 2012). The influence of eye gaze has also been studied in terms of persuasive  
110 strategies using robots (Ham et al., 2015). In terms of learning effectiveness in expressive education,  
111 several studies have investigated whether study participants change their minds when exposed to a  
112 lecture (Zanbaka et al., 2006). In these studies, the experimental setting was such that participants  
113 were directly persuaded regarding a single solution to a problem on which they were divided (Baxter  
114 et al., 2017; Hashemian et al., 2019; Jamy, 2015).

115 The current study, however, uses content that includes entertainment elements in addition to the  
116 persuasive content, that is, product promotion. In other words, not all of the video content is related  
117 to persuasion. Additionally, in this study, we use professional-quality videos that are similar to actual  
118 YouTube promotional videos.

119 Against this backdrop, we intend to see if we can be persuasive through our avatars by studying  
120 whether VTubers (avatars) can be used to promote products on YouTube. Because this study uses a  
121 practical experimental environment, it is significant as an empirical study in marketing and as a study  
122 of persuasion in psychology.

123 To determine whether YouTubers (human appearance) or VTubers (avatar appearance) are more  
124 persuasive when promoting products, which factors contribute to this difference, and in what way, a  
125 human YouTuber wearing a motion-capture suit under his clothes filmed a product promotion video.  
126 By utilizing the captured motion, we were able to produce a product promotional video for the  
127 VTuber. We asked a group of viewers to watch these videos with the same audio, composition, and  
128 other conditions, except for the presenters' appearance, and compared the differences in  
129 persuasiveness through a questionnaire. In the questionnaire, based on previous research on  
130 persuasion, users were asked about the impressions they had of the videos and presenters after  
131 viewing the promotional videos (Mullennix et al., 2003).

132 Our study aims to answer the following two research questions:

133 1. How do YouTubers and VTubers influence their persuasiveness and viewers' purchase decisions  
134 when promoting products using videos, and what are the differences between them?

135 2. What are the mechanisms through which the impressions about the promotional videos and video  
136 contributors influence their persuasiveness (i.e., persuasiveness structural model)?

## 137 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 138 **2.1 Participants**

139 Using a social media application (Twitter), we recruited 318 participants—mostly students from  
140 Kwasei Gakuin University and Osaka University—without gender segregation. The cases of  
141 participants excluded from the study are discussed later.

### 142 **2.2 Research Design**

143 We employed a between-subjects experimental design. Immediately after submitting the application,  
144 the respondents were asked to complete a pre-questionnaire to gauge their state of mind. The  
145 participants were then randomly divided into groups to watch a product promotional video presented  
146 by either a YouTuber or a VTuber. Afterwards, the participants in each group watched promotional  
147 videos for two different product categories (tapioca drinks and game apps). After viewing the videos,  
148 they were asked to complete a post-questionnaire about their impressions of the presenter and the  
149 video content, as well as their willingness to purchase the product. The participants were paid a  
150 gratuity of 1,500 Yen.

151 This study was reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Review Committee of Kwasei  
152 Gakuin University's "Behavioral Research on Human Subjects." Informed consent was obtained  
153 from the participants by means of written informed consent forms.

### 154 **2.3 Materials**

155 For the experiment, product promotional videos were created that differed only in the appearance of  
156 the presenter (i.e., a human or an avatar). We created videos for two product categories (i.e., tapioca  
157 drinks and game apps) because they are familiar to young people. We struck a balance by selecting  
158 the two products from different product categories: food and beverages (tapioca drinks) and  
159 entertainment (game apps). As VTubers are avatars, they cannot really consume tapioca drinks. The  
160 intention was also to check if this would make a difference.

161 Specifically, the YouTuber introduced the product in a filming studio, which was then edited to  
162 create a video of a human (YouTuber) introducing the product. However, this presenter was wearing  
163 a tracking suit, and his body position and movements were recorded in the same chronological order  
164 by the tracking system in the filming studio. In addition, a 3DCG model of an avatar of a character  
165 based on this presenter was created in advance. By moving and recording this avatar model in the  
166 same manner as actual human movements, a product promotional video involving the avatar  
167 (VTuber) was also created. To make it viewer-friendly, the avatar was designed by a well-known  
168 professional Japanese character designer. This was because existing literature demonstrates that  
169 avatars with realistic human appearances may seem “creepy” (Tinwell et al., 2011). The videos were  
170 also edited with the help of a major VTuber studio.

171 To ensure that the videos would not look out of place when posted on YouTube as actual YouTuber  
172 and VTuber videos, the product promotional videos were produced by a professional team and studio  
173 that actually produces and delivers YouTuber and VTuber videos. Perception Neuron Pro was used  
174 as the tracking suit, Unity was used as the software to manipulate the 3DCG models, and Adobe  
175 Premiere was used for video editing.

176 The two product promotional videos differed only in the appearance of the presenter. However, the  
177 content of speech, audio, and video composition were identical, as shown in Figure 1. The length of  
178 the videos was approximately nine and six minutes for the tapioca drink and game app, respectively.

### 179 **2.4 Procedure**

180 As noted above, participants were recruited through social media. They were then asked to complete  
181 a pre-survey generated on Survey Monkey. Following this, after a period of one to two weeks, they  
182 were asked to watch the source video. Immediately following the viewing, participants were asked to  
183 complete a post-questionnaire. The following subsection describes the content of the questionnaire.

### 184 **2.5 Questionnaire Summary**

185 The pre-questionnaire included items measuring participant demographics and their willingness to  
186 purchase the tapioca drinks and game apps. The post-questionnaire did not ask for any information  
187 about the user, but asked the same questions about their willingness to purchase the products, using  
188 exactly the same format as in the pre-questionnaire. Both the VTuber and YouTuber groups  
189 responded to the same questionnaire.

190 The post-questionnaire was more voluminous than the pre-questionnaire. Dyson’s persuasiveness  
191 rating scale was employed as the primary rating instrument (Mullennix et al., 2003). This  
192 persuasiveness rating scale measures effectiveness of the product promotion, perception toward the  
193 message, and perception toward the presenter. To compare with the synthesized persuasiveness index  
194 that was calculated later, the perceived persuasiveness toward the presenter was directly evaluated  
195 using one question item.

196 The participants were also asked about their overall impression, including the favorability felt toward  
197 the presenter, perceived trustworthiness of the presenter, eye contact felt with the presenter, closeness  
198 between the presenter and the participants, and qualities of the product promotional video.

199 The post-questionnaire response time was measured to determine if the entire video was viewed  
200 appropriately. This included the time spent watching the video and the minimum response time to the  
201 questionnaire. Further, we included a brief set of questions to ascertain whether the video was

202 watched. These questions were designed to exclude respondents who either did not watch the video  
203 or did not take the video seriously.

## 204 **2.6 Questionnaire Details**

205 The pre-questionnaire asked for information about the user (sex, personality traits, anime viewing  
206 preferences, and familiarity with VTubers and YouTubers).

207 The purchase decision was examined by ranking the products the participants would like to purchase.  
208 For each tapioca drink and game app, seven different products were prepared. Participants were  
209 asked to rank the products in the order in which they would like to purchase them. They were asked  
210 to rank the seven products in the pre-questionnaire and to repeat the process in the post-questionnaire  
211 to measure how the rankings varied. This was based on a questionnaire used in an existing agent  
212 persuasion study (Ogawa et al., 2009).

213 To assess persuasiveness, we used Dyson’s persuasiveness rating scales, which are used as a measure  
214 of an agent’s persuasiveness (Mullennix et al., 2003). Effectiveness of the product promotion was  
215 rated on a 9-point Likert scale for multiple adjective pairs provided to the participants for each  
216 subscale. Perception toward the message and the presenter was rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Each  
217 adjective pair is shown below (adjective pairs marked with an asterisk “\*” are reversal items).

218 Effectiveness of the product promotion: Bad—Good, Foolish—Wise, Negative—Positive,  
219 Beneficial—Harmful, Convincing—Unconvincing, Effective—Ineffective.

220 Perception toward the message: Flamboyant—Conservative, \*Stimulating—Boring, Vague—  
221 Specific, Unsupported—Supported, Complex—Simple, \*Convincing—Unconvincing, Boring—  
222 Interesting.

223 Perception toward the presenter: Unintelligent—Intelligent, \*Straightforward—Evasive, \*Active—  
224 Inactive, \*Qualified—Unqualified, \*Sincere—Insincere, Meek—Forceful, Incompetent—Competent,  
225 \*Honest—Dishonest, Unassertive—Assertive, Uninformed—Informed, Untrustworthy—  
226 Trustworthy, Timid—Bold, Loud Voice—Soft-Spoken Voice, Deep Voiced—Squeaky Voiced, Fast  
227 Speaking—Slow Speaking, Heavy Accent—Faint Accent, Talked Too Long—Did not Talk Long  
228 Enough, Heavy Nasality—Faint Nasality, Monotone—Lively.

229 The overall impression included questions on favorability felt toward the presenter, the perceived  
230 trustworthiness of the presenter, eye contact felt with the presenter, and closeness between the  
231 presenter and the participants. Each item was evaluated directly using one question, as provided  
232 below, following which the responses were obtained on a 7-point Likert scale.

233 - How favorable was your impression of the presenter?

234 - How trustworthy did you think the presenter was?

235 - To what extent did you feel that the presenters looked at you when they talked to you?

236 Closeness refers to the degree of similarity between the participant and the presenter, as perceived by  
237 the participants. To evaluate closeness, we employed the Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale (Aron et  
238 al., 1992). This scale indicates the degree of overlap between representations of self and others, as

239 indicated by the overlap of the two circles. In this study, the assessment was obtained using a 7-point  
240 Likert scale.

241 To estimate impressions of the videos, we included the following questions about the likability,  
242 completeness, and interestingness of each viewed video. The responses were obtained using a 7-point  
243 Likert scale.

244 - How much did you like the product promotional video that you watched?

245 - How good was the quality of the video for product promotion?

246 - How interesting was the content of the product introduction video?

### 247 **2.7 Data Analysis**

248 For the actual analysis, participants (those who watched the videos till the end and responded) were  
249 filtered using the following procedure. First, we selected the respondents who spent more than 20  
250 minutes, or at least longer than the length of the video, answering the questionnaire. The 20 minutes  
251 was decided based on the results of time measurements on a pilot sample of about 10 people, which  
252 is slightly longer than the minimum time to have watched all of the videos. Then, the respondents  
253 who correctly answered questions that could be easily answered if they had watched the video (e.g.,  
254 the episode played in the game app video, the flavor of the drink featured in the tapioca drink video)  
255 were picked.

256 In this study, Dyson's measure of persuasiveness consisted of three categories: effectiveness of the  
257 product promotion, perception toward the message, and perception toward the presenter. Cronbach's  
258 alpha coefficients were used to confirm consistency within these measures. For the analysis of  
259 Research Question 1, we conducted a two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) between participants  
260 in the YouTuber and VTuber groups and the pre- and post-questionnaire. For subsequent analyses,  
261 these measures were combined using principal component analysis to create a synthesized  
262 persuasiveness index. The validity of this index was confirmed by checking the contributions of the  
263 principal components, as well as by correlating them with the overall impression of the presenter's  
264 persuasiveness, which had been answered beforehand.

265 In addition, the impressions respondents had of the videos and presenters for the tapioca drink and  
266 the game app were obtained separately. Therefore, we could verify whether the impressions  
267 significantly differed by product category. Specifically, we tested the possibility that the participants  
268 might have thought that the avatar was not consuming the tapioca drink, thus affecting the results.  
269 Using the cosine similarity measure, consistency (similarity) was calculated to evaluate the  
270 consistency of the respondents' impressions of the presenter in each video. Taking the responses to  
271 each impression item as a vector value, the inner product of the vector of impressions from the  
272 tapioca drink video and the vector of impressions from the game app video was divided by their  
273 norm. If the measure was close to 1, then the respondents had the same impression, regardless of the  
274 video content. Conversely, if it was close to 0, the respondents' impressions varied greatly,  
275 depending on the video content. Cosine similarities were determined for each participant and their  
276 means were calculated.

277 To use Dyson's measure of persuasiveness (i.e., the synthesized persuasiveness index) as the  
278 objective variable in the multiple regression analysis of Research Question 2, its principal  
279 components had to be valid. The explanatory variables included the overall impressions (the

280 presenter's favorability, presenter's trustworthiness, presenter's eye contact, closeness with the  
 281 presenter, likability of the video, completeness of the video, and interestingness of the video) and  
 282 whether a VTuber or a YouTuber was featured in the video.

### 283 3 Results

284 As mentioned above, 318 participants were initially recruited. Then, to filter the data, we only  
 285 included in the analysis those who had responded to both the pre- and post-questionnaires, which  
 286 resulted in 248 participants for analysis. Following this, unserious respondents were excluded from  
 287 the analysis, and the number of participants was reduced. Specifically, we excluded those who  
 288 responded to the post-questionnaire in less than 20 minutes (13 respondents) and those who gave  
 289 incorrect answers to simple questions measuring whether they had watched the videos properly (39  
 290 respondents). In the end, 196 respondents were included in the analysis.

291 In addition, we checked the consistency of the main evaluation measure of this study: Dyson's  
 292 measure of persuasiveness ratings. Specifically, we checked the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for  
 293 each measure across participants in the YouTuber and VTuber groups and for each product category  
 294 (tapioca drinks and game apps). The values were greater than 0.7 under both conditions, confirming  
 295 the consistency of the responses.

296 Next, we discuss the results for each research question.

#### 297 *1. How do YouTubers and VTubers influence their persuasiveness and viewers' purchase decisions* 298 *when promoting products using videos, and what are the differences between them?*

299 First, we measured the effect of the product promotional videos on the respondents' willingness to  
 300 purchase. The participants were asked to rank several product groups, including those promoted in  
 301 the videos, according to their willingness to purchase, both before and after watching the videos. For  
 302 each product, the change in ranking was calculated by subtracting the pre- from the post-ranking. We  
 303 averaged the rankings for each participant and used ANOVA to compare the results of the VTubers  
 304 and YouTubers. Although the mean was higher for YouTubers (median  $\pm$  standard deviation:  
 305  $0.712 \pm 1.787$ ) than for VTubers ( $0.644 \pm 1.629$ ), we found no significant differences in the variation in  
 306 the rankings [ $F(0, 195) = 0.076, p = 0.7829$ ].

307 Then, we analyzed the differences by product category. As illustrated in Table 1 and Figure 2, the  
 308 participants' rankings of the tapioca drinks and game apps were analyzed using ANOVA to measure  
 309 the differences between the VTuber and YouTuber groups and before and after viewing. For the  
 310 tapioca drinks, the results showed a main effect for pre- and post-ranking, with a significant increase  
 311 in purchase intent ranking [ $F(1, 194) = 44.4, p < 0.001$ ]. There was also an interaction effect [ $F(1,$   
 312  $194) = 10.3, p < 0.005$ ]. Then, a back-test showed that the changes in rankings for participants in  
 313 both VTuber [ $F(1, 194) = 48.7, p < 0.001$ ] and YouTuber groups were significant [ $F(1, 194) = 5.96, p$   
 314  $= 0.016$ ]. By contrast, there was no main effect for game apps. However, there was an interaction  
 315 effect [ $F(1, 194) = 8.85, p < 0.005$ ]. Further, a back-test demonstrated that participants in the  
 316 YouTuber group experienced more changes in rankings, as compared to the VTuber group [ $F(1, 194)$   
 317  $= 9.8, p < 0.005$ ].

318 In terms of persuasion details, the respondents were asked about their impressions of the promotion  
 319 in the videos they watched, the content of the messages, and the presenters, with 6, 7, and 19 items,  
 320 respectively. The detailed data of the persuasiveness rating scale are shown in Table 2. The ANOVA  
 321 revealed that VTubers sounded more conservative in their messages than YouTubers. Additionally,



we found that the YouTubers' messages were supported more than that of the VTubers, and that the YouTube presenters' speech did not seem like it was longer than that of the VTubers'. We then synthesized indicators of persuasiveness to ascertain and identify the differences in persuasiveness between the VTuber and YouTuber groups, and to serve as one objective variable in the multiple regression analysis. We combined the respondents' impressions of multiple items (32 items) in three categories (i.e., effectiveness of the product promotion, perception toward the message, perception toward the presenter) into a single index, as shown in Figure 3. Specifically, a principal component analysis was conducted to synthesize the impressions held about both videos and summarize the impressions held about these categories. The contribution of the first principal component (the synthesized persuasiveness index) was 0.833, which was sufficiently representative. Meanwhile, the contribution of the second principal component was only 0.053, which mainly accounted for the respondents' impressions of the presenters. The loadings of the promotional videos, message, and presenters on the persuasiveness index were 0.726, 0.553, and 0.409, respectively. For the synthesized persuasiveness index, we used the average scores of the tapioca drinks and game apps.

Meanwhile, by considering each item for each video as a vector (32-dimensional vector with 32 items as elements in three categories), we could calculate how close (i.e., consistent) the impressions formed based on the tapioca drinks video were to the impressions created based on the game apps video, in terms of cosine similarity. The cosine similarity was calculated as the inner product of the vector of impressions formed based on the tapioca drink video and the vector of impressions created based on the game app video, divided by their respective norms. For each participant, it is possible to determine whether each vector group of impressions perceived in the tapioca drinks video matches each vector group of impressions perceived in the game apps video. The cosine similarities were mostly close to 1, as shown in Table 3. As the impressions formed based on both videos are very similar, their average can be used to create a measure of persuasiveness. However, there was a difference between the YouTuber and VTuber groups in terms of consistency of their impressions about the two promotional videos, with the YouTuber group being more consistent in their perceptions than the VTuber group [ $F(1, 194) = 4.68, p = 0.032$ ]. The perceptions about the message and presenters showed no differences in consistency.

Figure 4 shows the differences between the VTuber and YouTuber groups on the synthesized persuasiveness index, with the YouTuber group showing significantly more perceived persuasiveness [ $F(1, 194) = 7.31, p = 0.0075$ ]. The overall evaluation also included an item directly measuring the presenters' perceived persuasiveness. The correlation coefficient between this item and the synthesized persuasiveness index was 0.70, implying a high correlation. Additionally, the correlation coefficient with the aforementioned ranking—that is, change in the willingness to purchase—was 0.45, indicating a correlation trend.

*2. What are the mechanisms through which the impressions about the promotional videos and video contributors influence their persuasiveness (i.e., persuasiveness structural model)?*

With the synthesized persuasiveness index as the objective variable, we conducted multiple regression analysis using the following explanatory variables: the overall impressions (the presenters' favorability, presenters' trustworthiness, presenters' eye contact, closeness with the presenter, likability of the video, completeness of the video, interestingness of the video) and whether the presenter was a VTuber or a YouTuber. In the multiple regression analysis, presenter type (YouTuber or VTuber) was used as the explanatory variable. The results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that persuasiveness was explained by the participants' favorability toward the presenter,

366 closeness with the presenter, presenters' trustworthiness, completeness of the video, and presenter  
367 type (a VTuber or YouTuber), as illustrated in Figure 5.

368 Particularly influential was the favorability of the video contributor (presenter; coefficient: 0.41),  
369 followed by presenter type (a VTuber or YouTuber; coefficient: 0.36); the higher the favorability of  
370 the presenter, the more persuasive. The model is well represented with an adjusted coefficient of  
371 determination of 0.61.

372 For the purposes of subsequent discussion, we also analyzed the differences for each item of the  
373 overall evaluation. The results are listed in Table 4. For the aforementioned indicators, there were no  
374 significant differences between the YouTuber and VTuber groups in the presenters' favorability [ $F(1,$   
375  $194) = 0.001, p = 0.971$ ], presenters' trustworthiness [ $F(1, 194) = 1.857, p = 0.175$ ], completeness of  
376 the video [ $F(1,194) = 0.969, p = 0.326$ ], and interestingness of the video [ $F(1, 194) = 0.203, p =$   
377  $0.653$ ]. Meanwhile, the presenter's eye contact and closeness with the presenter were significantly  
378 higher among respondents in the YouTuber group than those in the VTuber group, with [ $F(1, 194) =$   
379  $17.7, p < 0.001$ ] and [ $F(1, 194) = 17.7, p < 0.001$ ], respectively.

## 380 4 Discussion

### 381 4.1 Research Question 1

382 First, referring to Ogawa et al.'s (2009) study on product promotion by robots, we conducted an  
383 experiment to examine the changes in purchase decisions. We found a main effect for the changes in  
384 the willingness to purchase tapioca drinks, with a significant improvement in ranking. We also  
385 identified an interaction effect, with a significant change in ranking for viewers of both VTubers and  
386 YouTubers when back-testing was conducted. In contrast, there was no main effect for the game app;  
387 however, there was an interaction effect, with the YouTuber group reporting significantly greater  
388 fluctuations in ranking than the VTuber group. For the game app video, the results of the analysis of  
389 individual items also showed that the respondents formed more positive impressions about the  
390 promotional videos and the content of the messages presented by human YouTubers compared to  
391 VTubers (avatars).

392 When the averages of the tapioca drinks and game videos are compared, the average for YouTubers  
393 is higher. However, the results of the change in the ranking for tapioca drinks is greater for VTubers  
394 than for YouTubers. This suggests that some products are better or worse in certain domains than  
395 others. However, one possible problem with the experimental design is that the questionnaire for the  
396 ranking changes was administered after viewing the product introduction video for THE ALLEY (the  
397 target brand), which may have led the participants to believe that the experimenter expected an  
398 improvement in THE ALLEY's ranking. It is also possible that it would have been difficult for the  
399 participants to sort through the pictures of each brand of tapioca drink and the text of its  
400 characteristics and ask them about their attitudes toward the ambiguous sensation of taste. We plan to  
401 analyze the changes in attitude and behavior induced by persuasion by conducting further  
402 experiments in the future.

403 However, this does not mean that human influencers are always effective in persuasion, while virtual  
404 ones (avatars) are ineffective. Indeed, our results showed that promotional videos presented by both  
405 humans and avatars can cause a change in purchase intent depending on the product category (or  
406 video content).

407 Further, Dyson's measures of persuasiveness, which assessed the impressions about the effectiveness  
408 of the product promotion, perception toward the message, and perception toward the presenter, were  
409 synthesized using principal component analysis. The contribution ratio of the synthesized  
410 persuasiveness index was 0.833, indicating good representation of persuasiveness. This was used as  
411 an evaluation index for persuasiveness in the multiple regression analysis described below. The  
412 second principal component loaded heavily on the impression about presenters; however, its  
413 contribution ratio was 0.053, indicating that it could not represent persuasiveness to a great degree.  
414 For comparison, the overall evaluation also directly explored impressions about persuasiveness, and  
415 the correlation coefficient with the persuasiveness index was highly correlated at 0.70. When this  
416 persuasiveness index was used to compare the VTuber and YouTuber groups, respondents in the  
417 YouTuber group were more significantly persuaded about the product. In other words, humans have  
418 greater persuasive power than avatars.

419 Previous studies have compared the persuasive power of humans and avatars, and found that virtual  
420 characters can be similarly persuasive (Zanbaka et al., 2006; Zanbaka et al., 2007). In particular, they  
421 pointed out that androids can be as persuasive as humans (Ogawa et al., 2009;). Using the YouTube  
422 environment, our results do not differ significantly from theirs. However, we show that differences  
423 are affected by the content of the video and the experimental environment setting.

424 The loadings of the effectiveness of the product promotion, perception toward the message, and  
425 perception toward the presenter on the synthesized persuasiveness index were 0.726, 0.553, and  
426 0.409, respectively; this indicates that the quality of the video, the message articulated, and the  
427 viewer's impression about the presenter, in that order, affect persuasiveness.

428 In addition, we used cosine similarity to estimate the consistency of the respondents' impressions  
429 about videos involving the two product categories: tapioca drinks and game apps. Most of the cosine  
430 similarities were close to 1, as shown in Table 3, indicating that the impressions formed based on the  
431 two videos are very similar. Thus, the average of the tapioca drinks and game apps could be used to  
432 create a measure of persuasiveness. However, there were differences in the consistency of  
433 impressions about the promotion videos, with the VTuber group experiencing less consistency in the  
434 impressions about the two video promotions. It is possible that the impression of a conservative  
435 explanation was helpful in introducing the tapioca drink, while the impression of a well-explained  
436 and reasoned explanation was helpful in introducing the game. One possible reason is the fact that  
437 the respondents experienced a less informative facial impression from the avatar compared to that  
438 from the human presenter.

### 439 **4.2 Research Question 2**

440 In this study, the persuasiveness structural model and the underlying mechanisms were examined  
441 through multiple regression analysis using seven items as explanatory variables: the overall  
442 impressions (the presenter's favorability, presenter's trustworthiness, presenter's eye contact,  
443 closeness with the presenter, likability of the video, completeness of the video, and interestingness of  
444 the video), and the presenters' appearance (human or avatar). Indeed, the objective variable was an  
445 index of persuasiveness that had been examined using a principal component analysis and other  
446 methods, and the validity of this index as being representative of persuasiveness was discussed in the  
447 previous section.

448 The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that persuasiveness was explained by the  
449 presenter's favorability (coefficient: 0.41), presenter type (VTuber or YouTuber; coefficient: 0.36),  
450 presenter's trustworthiness (coefficient: 0.20), closeness with the presenter (coefficient: 0.16), and

451 completeness of the video (coefficient: 0.16). As the coefficient of determination was 0.61, the model  
452 was considered to be reasonably well represented.

453 Specifically, the presenter's favorability has the greatest impact on persuasiveness, which is  
454 consistent with previous studies (Keeling et al., 2010; Khan and Sutcliffe, 2014). Additionally,  
455 whether the presenter is a VTuber (avatars) or a YouTuber (humans) also has a significant impact,  
456 with humans having more persuasive power. Persuasiveness is also likely to vary depending on trust  
457 in the presenter, degree of closeness to the presenter, and the quality of the video. Thus, we suggest  
458 that designing avatars with a high level of trustworthiness and closeness to the audience may increase  
459 persuasiveness. While it is difficult to create or change human appearance so that it is highly  
460 trustworthy and highly relatable, it is easy to change the appearance of avatars. Further, the viewers'  
461 degree of closeness to the presenter is significantly higher for YouTubers than for VTubers,  
462 suggesting that there is room for improvement in the future. What constitutes a reliable avatar, and  
463 what type of avatar one perceives as relatable are issues that should be investigated by future studies.

464 Some studies have found that people feel more favorability and trust toward virtual agents that mimic  
465 participants' head movements than those that do not (Verberne et al., 2013). Hence, in the future,  
466 presentations by avatars should be partially automated, with the possibility of generating on-the-fly  
467 videos that mimic the user and gradually change their behavior. Such innovations may aid in  
468 developing more persuasive promotional videos by avatars.

469 Owing to some technical aspects, the YouTuber made the audience feel that he was looking at them  
470 significantly more than the VTubers in terms of the presenter's eye contact. However, the impact on  
471 persuasiveness was limited.

### 472 **4.3 Limitations**

473 For both humans and avatars, the study has a limitation in that only one male presenter was  
474 considered. As research has shown that women are more easily persuaded by male avatars and men  
475 are more easily persuaded by female avatars (Zanbaka et al., 2006), we intend to conduct further  
476 experiments with female YouTubers and VTubers.

477 Moreover, avatar designs were created by professional designers, with general digital avatars (anime-  
478 style avatars) familiar to Japanese participants. In the future, we intend to expand on this research  
479 using multiple presenters, as outside Japan, YouTubers and VTubers are in demand in different ways,  
480 and the results may vary.

## 481 **5 Conclusions**

482 This study examined the characteristics of persuasiveness for human and avatar presenters and the  
483 differences between them in this regard, in the setting of product promotional videos on YouTube.  
484 Although the findings show that humans are more persuasive than avatars, the persuasive effect can  
485 vary, depending on the product category. Further, it is possible that different avatar design techniques  
486 can increase persuasiveness.

487 Using a between-subjects experimental design, with the assistance of professional character designers  
488 and video creators, we created videos with exactly the same audio, angle of view, and composition  
489 for a YouTuber with a so-called human appearance and a VTuber using an avatar with a character-  
490 like 3DCG model. After viewing the videos, the participants were asked to complete a questionnaire  
491 about their impressions of the presenters and the videos related to persuasiveness, as well as overall

492 impression measures, such as favorability and trustworthiness. Changes in willingness to purchase  
493 the products presented in the videos were also measured before and after the experiment.

494 Although there were differences depending on the product category, humans were more likely than  
495 avatars to alter participants' willingness to purchase. However, product promotions by avatars also  
496 influenced the willingness to purchase in the case of tapioca drinks. Regarding persuasiveness, the  
497 presenter's favorability and presenters' appearance (human or avatar) had a significant impact. The  
498 results also suggested that persuasiveness could be enhanced by designing avatars that are more  
499 trustworthy and closer to the audience. In this regard, future research should explore how to design a  
500 more persuasive appearance through variation in avatar appearance or using techniques that generate  
501 spontaneous movements by the avatars in response to the user.

### 502 **6 Conflict of Interest**

503 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
504 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

### 505 **7 Author Contributions**

506 HS designed the experiments, compiled the data, wrote the first draft of the paper, performed the  
507 analyses, and contributed to fundraising. AH and MM performed the experiments, performed the  
508 analyses, and contributed to preparing the manuscript. CK supported the experiments and data  
509 analyses. YH designed the experiments and contributed to the experimental design and preparing the  
510 manuscript.

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### 518 **10 Ethics Statement**

519 This study was reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Review Committee of "Behavioral  
520 Studies on Human Subjects" at Kwansai Gakuin University. Informed consent was obtained from  
521 participants by means of written informed consent forms.

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### 611 **12 Data Availability Statement**

612 Please contact the authors for the raw data used in this study.

613



614 **Figure Captions**

615 Figure 1. Product promotional videos (left: Tapioca Drink; right: Game App)

616 Figure 2. Effects of the promotional videos by VTubers (Virtual YouTubers) and YouTubers on  
617 participants' willingness to purchase

618 Figure 3. Results of principal component analysis on the synthesized persuasiveness index

619 Figure 4. Differences in synthesized persuasiveness between VTubers (Virtual YouTubers) and  
620 YouTubers

621 Figure 5. Mechanisms of persuasiveness for YouTube product introduction videos (results of the  
622 multiple regression analysis)

623 **13 Tables**

624 Table 1. Changes in rankings of the two product domains

	Tapioca Drinks (M±SD)		Game Apps (M±SD)	
	Pre-Ranking	Post-Ranking	Pre-Ranking	Post-Ranking
VTuber	4.247±2.220	2.660±1.559	3.371±1.841	3.670±2.228
YouTuber	3.717±2.137	3.162±1.846	3.869±2.048	3.000±2.000

625 *Note:* M = median; SD = standard deviation; VTuber = Virtual YouTuber

626

627

628 Table 2. Data from the persuasiveness rating scales

	Presenter (M±SD)		Contrast	
	VTuber	YouTuber	F	p
Effectiveness of the product promotion				
Good	4.740±1.333	4.566±1.296	0.78	ns
Wise	4.186±1.334	4.333±1.287	0.62	ns
Positive	4.773±1.351	5.040±1.279	2.00	ns
Harmful	4.866±1.503	4.495±1.449	2.99	+p < 0.10
Unconvincing	4.660±1.338	4.596±1.449	0.10	ns
Ineffective	4.402±1.352	4.495±1.431	0.22	ns
Perception toward the message				
Conservative	3.660±1.243	3.192±1.032	8.16	**p < 0.01
Boring	3.804±1.462	3.838±1.454	0.03	ns
Specific	3.876±1.501	4.040±1.524	0.57	ns
Supported	3.691±1.417	4.182±1.720	4.70	*p < 0.05
Simple	5.402±0.991	5.222±1.069	1.47	ns
Unconvincing	4.381±1.280	4.182±1.438	1.04	ns
Interesting	4.103±1.696	3.778±1.703	1.78	ns
Perception toward the presenter				
Intelligent	3.928±1.667	4.121±1.423	0.75	ns

Persuasion through Avatars on YouTube

Evasive	4.907±1.437	5.242±1.102	3.33	+p < 0.10
Inactive	4.010±1.396	3.889±1.449	0.35	ns
Unqualified	4.299±1.507	4.141±1.470	0.54	ns
Insincere	5.051±1.271	4.879±1.008	1.10	ns
Forceful	3.670±1.146	3.889±1.413	1.40	ns
Competent	4.155±1.230	4.364±1.185	1.45	ns
Dishonest	5.268±1.312	5.475±1.001	1.52	ns
Assertive	3.577±1.299	3.768±1.347	1.00	ns
Informed	4.062±1.314	4.323±1.582	1.56	ns
Trustworthy	4.271±1.373	4.404±1.490	0.64	ns
Bold	3.784±1.245	3.818±1.201	0.04	ns
Soft	3.784±1.160	3.980±1.442	1.09	ns
Squeaky	3.804±1.012	3.990±0.732	2.15	ns
Slow	5.196±1.154	5.404±1.053	1.72	ns
Unaccented	5.897±1.272	5.586±1.231	2.00	+p < 0.10
Not Long	4.134±1.660	4.626±1.508	4.68	*p < 0.05
Less Nasal	4.773±1.702	4.657±1.478	0.26	ns
Lively	2.959±1.399	3.051±1.553	0.19	ns

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629 *Note:* M = median; SD = standard deviation; VTuber = Virtual YouTuber

630

631

632 Table 3. Cosine similarity between the two domains

	Effectiveness of the product promotion (M±SD)	Perception toward the message (M±SD)	Perception toward the presenter (M±SD)
VTuber	0.936±0.062	0.939±0.043	0.951±0.040
YouTuber	0.953±0.041	0.947±.0034	0.956±0.033

633 *Note:* M = median; SD = standard deviation; VTuber = Virtual YouTuber

634

635

636 Table 4. Ratings for overall impression

	The presenter's favorability (M±SD)	The presenter's eye contact (M±SD)	The closeness with the presenter (M±SD)	The presenter's trustworthiness (M±SD)	The completeness of the video (M±SD)	The interestingness of the video (M±SD)
VTuber	4.10±1.49	3.45±1.32	1.81±0.79	4.46±1.32	4.07±1.32	3.78±1.57
YouTube r	4.11±1.51	4.26±1.36	2.27±1.28	4.46±1.17	4.26±1.34	3.69±1.39

637 Note: M = median; SD = standard deviation; VTuber = Virtual YouTubers