



Topic Familiarity and Information Skills in Online Credibility Evaluation

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12 Topic Familiarity and Information Skills in Online Credibility Evaluation
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Abstract

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5 With the rise of user generated content, evaluating the credibility of information has become
6
7 increasingly important. It is already known that various user characteristics influence the way
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9 credibility evaluation is performed. Domain experts on the topic at hand primarily focus on
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11 semantic features of information (e.g., factual accuracy), whereas novices focus more on
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13 surface features (e.g., length of a text). In this study, we further explore two key influences on
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15 credibility evaluation, namely topic familiarity and information skills. Participants with
16
17 varying levels of information skills (i.e., high school students, undergraduates, and post-
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19 graduates) evaluated Wikipedia articles of varying quality on familiar and unfamiliar topics
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21 while thinking aloud. When familiar with the topic, participants indeed focused primarily on
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23 semantic features of the information, whereas participants unfamiliar with the topic paid
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25 more attention to surface features. The utilization of surface features increased with
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27 information skills. Moreover, participants with better information skills calibrated their trust
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29 to the quality of the information, whereas trust of participants with poorer information skills
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31 did not. This study confirms the enabling character of domain expertise and information skills
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33 in credibility evaluation as predicted by the updated 3S-model of credibility evaluation.
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Introduction

Nowadays, we live in a world in which anyone can go online to attain all information imaginable, and more. While this presents the opportunity to expand our knowledge very quickly, the freedom of the Internet also has its downsides. One particular issue is that of the credibility of online information. In the pre-Internet era, evaluating credibility was relatively easy, as usually one specific individual could be held accountable (i.e., the author). Moreover, this task was mostly performed by trained professionals, such as newspaper or book editors. Nowadays, credibility evaluation is increasingly a responsibility of the end user, who often lacks the required skills (and often motivation) for the job (Flanagin & Metzger, 2007). The second wave of Internet technology (Web 2.0) has amplified this problem, because nowadays anyone can make information available to everyone.

The topic of credibility evaluation in online environments has attracted numerous researchers trying to explain the behavior of Internet users. The influence of many aspects, such as user characteristics (Metzger, 2007; Hilligoss & Rieh, 2008), information features (Yaari, Baruchson-Arbib, & Bar-Ilan, 2010; Lucassen & Schraagen, 2010), or other situational factors (Fogg, 2003; Kelton, Fleischmann, & Wallace, 2008) have been shown. One particular study demonstrated the impact of three distinctive user characteristics (namely domain expertise, information skills, and source experience) on the information features used in credibility evaluation (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2011). Initial validation for the proposed relationship between user characteristics and information features (in the 3S-model, explained below) was provided by means of an online quasi-experiment, which mainly focused on the influence of domain expertise.

In the current study, we attempt to gain more insight into the influence of various user characteristics on credibility evaluation. Two key user characteristics for active credibility evaluation (domain expertise and information skills) are manipulated and controlled

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3 systematically in a think-aloud experiment, in order to better understand their relationship
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5 with credibility evaluation and, ultimately, trust. Moreover, the experiment conducted can
6
7 show which particular strategies to evaluate credibility are applied by various users.
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10 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. We start by discussing and
11
12 defining the concepts of trust and credibility in online environments. After this, the 3S-model
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14 (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2011) is discussed and revised, and related research is reviewed. Our
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16 method to explore the role of domain expertise and information skills in credibility evaluation
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18 is explained, followed by the results. The paper ends with a discussion on the results, and
19
20 their implications for academic research and practice.
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22 23 Trust and Credibility Evaluation

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25 Trust is an important concept in a world where we rely on interactions with other people
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27 (e.g., financial transactions, information exchange). Constant monitoring of the other person
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29 is often impossible, so we need to have trust in this person such that his or her actions are
30
31 beneficial (or at least not detrimental) to us (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). This
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33 implies that a certain risk is taken each time we trust someone (Kelton et al., 2008).
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36 In the case of trust in other people during information exchanges, trust implies that we
37
38 believe the information to be correct. This aspect of information is often called credibility. In
39
40 psychology, two key elements of credibility are defined, namely trustworthiness and
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42 expertise (Fogg & Tseng, 1999). The first refers to whether someone *wants* to give correct
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44 information (well-intentioned), whereas the latter refers to whether he is *able* to do so
45
46 (knowledgeable). Information usually travels from one person to another, so one-way
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48 relationships between the reader and author can be expected rather than mutual relationships
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50 (Kelton et al., 2008).
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52
53 In some situations, people may want to reduce the risk they take when they trust
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55 information (or similarly: trust that the other person gives us correct information). This may,
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3 for instance, be the case when the consequences of incorrect information are high (i.e., taking
4 important, but wrong decisions based on the information). The risk of trusting can be reduced
5 by performing a credibility evaluation. In such an evaluation, users search for cues in the
6 information which they apply as indicators of high or low credibility. Which cues these are, is
7 largely dependent on the mental model of trust of each individual user (Hilligoss & Rieh,
8 2008). Different users may have very different conceptions of what is important for
9 credibility. It has, for instance, been shown that references are a very important indicator for
10 credibility for college students (Lucassen, Noordzij, & Schraagen, 2011). This can be
11 explained by an academic bias towards references. Users without academic training are
12 expected to attribute less value to this particular cue. They may pay more attention to other
13 aspects, such as understandability or images.

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The extent to which a credibility evaluation is performed, is dependent on the motivation and ability of the user (Metzger, 2007). Following dual-process theory (Chaiken, 1980), users only perform a credibility evaluation when they have a motivation to do so. According to Metzger (2007), motivation stems from the “consequentiality of receiving low-quality, unreliable, or inaccurate information” (p. 2087). Moreover, the level of processing (i.e., heuristic vs. systematic) is dependent on the ability (skills) of the user; a systematic evaluation is thus only performed when a user is motivated and able to evaluate.

It should be noted that the apparent dichotomous choice between heuristic and systematic processing is somewhat simplistic in the domain of trust. Credibility evaluation as a strategy to reduce the risk of trusting is always heuristic to a certain extent. This claim can be illustrated by considering the extreme case of systematic processing. If a user would consider all aspects of credibility systematically, he or she would be certain of the credibility of the information. This means that the concept of trust is eliminated. Hence, absolute

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3 systematic processing is not possible in credibility evaluation, and therefore always remains
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5 heuristic to a certain extent.
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7 The 3S-model

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9 In order to better understand how people form their judgments on the credibility of
10 information, the 3S-model was introduced by Lucassen and Schraagen (2011). In this model,
11
12 three strategies of credibility evaluation are proposed.
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16 The first strategy is to consider semantic features of the information, such as its
17 accuracy or neutrality. This requires a certain level of domain expertise from the user, as the
18 presented information is compared with his or her own knowledge on the topic. Following
19
20 this strategy, the most salient aspect of credibility is attended, namely factual accuracy.
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24 When domain expertise is low or non-existent, it is nearly impossible to follow the
25 semantic strategy. Users can work around this deficit by considering surface features of the
26 information. These features pertain to the way the information is presented and include for
27 instance the length of the text or the number of references. However, this requires different
28 skills from the user, namely generic information skills. Such skills include knowledge of the
29 user on how particular features are related to the concept of credibility (e.g., the presence of
30 references suggests well-researched information).
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34 A third strategy is to consider previous experiences with a particular source as an
35 indicator for credibility. As opposed to the first and second strategy, this is a passive strategy,
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37 as the actual information itself is not considered, but only the source where it came from.
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41 When evaluating credibility, users follow one or more of these strategies, leading to a
42 trust judgment. Following the outcome of the trust judgment, source experience can be
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44 adjusted accordingly.
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3 In this study, we propose an updated version of the 3S-model (see Figure 1). The key
4 point of the model remains unchanged, but two adjustments have been made to enhance the
5 clarity of the model.
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10 <<Insert Figure 1 here>>

11 First, the originally introduced term “Trust Judgment” proved to be ambiguous. It can
12 be interpreted as the *process* of judging trust (i.e., credibility evaluation, considering the
13 various related features) or as the *outcome* of this process (i.e., trust in the information). Since
14 the 3S-model is more of an information model than a process model, we decided to rename
15 “Trust Judgment” to “Trust” in the revised version.
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23 Moreover, in the original model, the connecting arrows only indicated that a
24 relationship existed between certain user characteristics and information features. By
25 switching the position of information characteristics and user characteristics in the original
26 model, we are better able to specify the nature of these relationships. The three user
27 characteristics play an enabling role in the selection of information features; for instance,
28 possessing domain expertise on a topic *enables* the utilization of semantic features. The same
29 goes for information skills and source experience: possessing information skills *enables* the
30 utilization of surface features and possessing source experience *enables* the utilization of
31 source features in credibility evaluation. Considering the enabling character of the user
32 characteristics it naturally follows that only those information characteristics which are
33 enabled have an *influence* on trust. Consider, for example, a college student with no
34 particular knowledge on the topic at hand. We can expect a reasonable level of information
35 skills, which he or she can bring to bear when evaluating credibility. However, his or her
36 domain expertise on the topic is low or even non-existent. This means that when the
37 information looks credible on the surface level (e.g., lengthy, numerous references and
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3 images), factual errors in the information are likely to go undetected by this student. This
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5 may result in (unjustifiably) high trust in the information.
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8 It is perhaps tempting to interpret the semantic strategy as a systematic approach and
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10 the surface strategy as a heuristic approach. However, this is not necessarily the case. For
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12 example, recognizing stated facts as you have learned them before can be considered
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14 heuristic processing (Klein, Calderwood, & Clinton-Cirocco, 1986), but classifies as a
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16 semantic strategy. Similarly, considering the quality of each of the references is clearly
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18 systematic processing (Lucassen, Noordzij, & Schraagen, 2011), but classifies as a surface
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20 strategy. Hence, both the semantic and surface strategy can be performed systematically and
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22 heuristically. An exception has to be made for the source strategy: this is largely heuristic, as
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24 the actual information is not considered at all, but only where it came from. Earlier
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26 experiences with this source are in this case a predictor of the credibility of the current
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28 information.
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31 32 Domain expertise

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34 The important role of domain expertise in credibility evaluation has been shown on numerous
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36 occasions. It has been demonstrated that having knowledge on the topic at hand leads to more
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38 trust (Self, 1996; Chesney, 2006) in the information. However, we argue that this is not
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40 necessarily the case. Following Lucassen and Schraagen (2011), trust will only be high if the
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42 features incorporated in the evaluation indicate high credibility. Hence, domain experts will
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44 only have high trust in information that is credible at the semantic level (e.g., factually
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46 accurate). This claim is supported by Chesney (2006), who argued that Wikipedia is credible,
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48 since domain experts trusted the information more than novices.
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52 Domain experts are expected to evaluate credibility better than novices. Kelton,
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54 Fleischmann, & Wallace (2008) argued that their trust is better calibrated to the actual
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3 credibility of information, as their general propensity to trust has less influence on their
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5 judgments than novices' propensity to trust.
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7 Information skills

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9 Information skills, or information literacy, can be defined as “the skills required to identify
10 information sources, access information, evaluate it, and use it effectively, efficiently, and
11 ethically” (Julien & Barker, 2008, p. 12). Brand-Gruwel, Wopereis, and Vermetten (2005)
12 defined five stages for information problem solving, namely defining, selecting, searching,
13 processing, and organizing. Information skills influence how well information users perform
14 each of these tasks. It has for instance been shown that experts (PhD students) spend more
15 time defining the problem than novices (undergraduates) before moving on to subsequent
16 stages (Brand-Gruwel, Wopereis, & Vermetten, 2005). Moreover, information experts more
17 often activate their prior knowledge, elaborate on the content, and regulate their process.
18 These differences result in a better task performance of experts.
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32 As follows from the definition given above, information skills do not only relate to the
33 ability to evaluate credibility. However, it is an important sub skill, which relates to multiple
34 stages of the information problem solving process. For instance, source credibility is of
35 importance when selecting appropriate information sources, but when processing information
36 that was found, credibility at the surface and semantic level can be evaluated.
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43 According to Alexander & Tate (1999), users who evaluate information should focus on
44 five criteria, namely accuracy, authority, objectivity, currency, and coverage. Walraven,
45 Brand-Gruwel, and Boshuizen (2009) showed that students often know more of such criteria
46 than they actually apply when searching for information, indicating that they lack a critical
47 disposition to information from online sources. Moreover, Julien & Barker (2009)
48 demonstrated large gaps in the information skills of students (e.g., lack of knowledge on how
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3 search engines work), arguing that education in information skills should be improved,
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5 especially at high-schools.
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8 Following the various studies on information skills of students at various educational
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10 levels (i.e., high-school, undergraduate, post-graduate) it can be concluded that information
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12 skills improve with education. High-school students have very limited skills to evaluate
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14 information, which means that they largely depend on the credibility of a source (e.g.,
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16 university websites are credible) rather than evaluating the content itself (Julien & Barker,
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18 2009). Undergraduate students are better able evaluate information, largely by applying
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20 various heuristics (on the source of information *and* the content itself; Hilligoss & Rieh,
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22 2008). Post-graduate (PhD) students can be considered experts in information problem
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24 solving (at least in comparison with undergraduate students), as they focus much more on
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26 various aspects (e.g., quality, relevance, reliability) of the actual content of information
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28 (Brand-Gruwel, Wopereis, & Vermetten, 2005).
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31 32 Wikipedia

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34 One particularly interesting source on the Web to study the evaluation behavior of lay
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36 Internet users is Wikipedia. This vast online encyclopedia thrives on user contribution:
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38 everyone can make changes or additions to the available articles, or create new ones.
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40 Intuitively, this seems like a bad idea, as this open-editing model is bound to attract vandals
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42 (Viégas, Wattenberg, & Kushal, 2004) and other individuals with bad intentions (consider the
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44 “trustworthiness” aspect of credibility). Moreover, how can we know that contributors have
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46 the appropriate credentials (consider the “expertise” aspect of credibility, Fogg & Tseng,
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48 1999) to add information?
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52 Still, history has proven many of the early critics wrong. Wikipedia has been shown to
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54 be a reliable source of information on numerous occasions (e.g., Giles, 2005; Chesney, 2006;
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56 Rajagopalan et al., 2010). This has been attributed to the collaborative manner in which the
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3 articles are written (Wilkinson & Huberman, 2007). However, because of this very same
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5 principle, Wikipedia users can never be *entirely* certain of the credibility of the articles. This
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7 imposes the need for trust and thus also the need to evaluate credibility before using the
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9 information.
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11 The notion that traditional heuristics no longer apply on the Web is also true in the
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13 domain of Wikipedia, perhaps to an even larger extent due to its open-editing model
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15 (Magnus, 2009). This of course has implications for credibility evaluation on this source.
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17 Lucassen and Schraagen (2011) showed that when factual errors are present in Wikipedia
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19 articles, trust is only influenced when the user is a domain expert, and even then only to a
20
21 limited extent. Novices were not influenced at all by the factual errors. In an earlier study
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23 (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2010), undergraduate students worked around their lack of domain
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25 expertise by applying their information skills. By doing so, they were able to distinguish high
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27 and low quality information on Wikipedia (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2010).
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32 Hypotheses

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34 In the original study on the 3S-model (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2011), initial validation
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36 through an online quasi-experiment was provided. This was done by manipulating a key
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38 semantic feature (factual accuracy) and showing that users with some domain expertise were
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40 influenced by errors, whereas complete novices were not. However, this approach has certain
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42 limitations, which we address in this study.
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45 The participants in the preceding study were recruited on the basis of their domain
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47 expertise (high vs. low) in the field of automotive engineering. This means that their level of
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49 information skills was not controlled for. The first goal in this study is to further explore the
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51 influence of both domain expertise and information skills on the features used in credibility
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53 evaluation. Domain expertise was manipulated in a more rigorous fashion by presenting the
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55 participants information on topics on which they indicated themselves to have high or low
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3 prior knowledge. In line with the results of Lucassen and Schraagen (2011), we formulate the
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5 following hypothesis:
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8 *Hypothesis 1: Users with more domain expertise utilize more semantic features in*
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10 *credibility evaluation than users with less domain expertise.*

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12 Information skills were controlled by selecting three different groups that are known to
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14 differ in their level of information skills, namely high school students, undergraduates, and
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16 post-graduates (Brand-Gruwel, Wopereis, & Vermetten, 2005; Julien & Barker, 2009).
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18 Naturally, these groups will also differ on other dimensions than information skills only (e.g.,
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20 age), which may introduce confounding variables in our experiments. However, these three
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22 groups are all regular information seekers in comparable contexts (i.e., education), which aids
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24 to the external validity of this research. In contrast, we believe that a more controlled but
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26 isolated approach (e.g., training one half of a coherent group with low information skills)
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28 would harm the validity of this study.
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32 Following the preceding discussion on information skills, we expect that users with
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34 better information skills (e.g., post-graduate students) can bring to bear more strategies to
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36 consider various features of the information, rather than only focusing on the factual accuracy
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38 (i.e., semantics features) of information. By doing so, they can work around their lack of prior
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40 knowledge by considering surface features. In contrast, users with poorer information skills
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42 will incorporate fewer surface features, as they are unfamiliar with such indicators of
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44 credibility. Instead, they will mainly consider the semantics of the information, also when
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46 they have limited prior knowledge on the topic at hand. This leads to the second hypothesis:
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50 *Hypothesis 2: Users with better information skills utilize more surface features in*
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52 *credibility evaluation than users with poorer information skills.*

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54 As noted, in the original experiment a semantic feature was manipulated. This means
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56 that differences in trust between users were mostly caused by differences in their domain
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3 expertise. The application of surface features in credibility evaluation was also shown in the
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5 experiment. However, the articles were kept unchanged on the surface level, which means
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7 that although information skills were applied, this had no influence on trust.
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9
10 In this study, we manipulate the quality of the presented information following the
11 classification of the Wikipedia Editorial Team (“Wikipedia:Version 1.0 Editorial Team”,
12 2012). Their goal is to assess all Wikipedia articles on how close they are to a “distribution-
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14 quality article on a particular topic.” While this implies that the articles should be factually
15
16 accurate, we expect that the difference between high-quality articles and low-quality articles
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18 is best visible on the surface level, for instance by the number of references, its length, and
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20 the presence of images. These characteristics are explicitly noted in the grading scheme² of
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22 the Wikipedia Editorial Team.
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28 When the quality levels of the Wikipedia Editorial Team are indeed best visible at the
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30 surface level, this means that a certain level of information skills is needed in order to be
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32 influenced by the quality. We expect that users with poorer information skills do not focus on
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34 the features which reflect the quality level, and are thus not influenced by them. This leads to
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36 the following hypotheses:
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39 *Hypothesis 3: Trust of users with better information skills is influenced by the quality of*
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41 *the information.*

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43 *Hypothesis 4: Trust of users with poorer information skills is not influenced by the*
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45 *quality of the information.*
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48 In contrast, we do not expect that domain expertise has much influence on trust in high-
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50 quality or low-quality information. Articles with lower quality are generally also not expected
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52 to feature major errors; they are mainly much shorter and unfinished compared to higher-
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54 quality articles.
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Method

Participants

A total of 40 participants took part in the experiment. Three participant groups were created, namely high school students, undergraduate students, and post-graduate (PhD) students.

Table 1 shows the key characteristics of each of the participant groups.

<<Insert Table 1 here>>

The high-school students were in their third year out of six years of pre-academic education (i.e., preparing them for a subsequent university or college education). They received monetary compensation for their participation. Their experience with Wikipedia ranged from 2-5 years with an average of 4. Only three of the high school students mentioned the open-editing model behind Wikipedia when asked to explain the basics of this website. One high school student had experience in editing articles on Wikipedia himself.

The undergraduates were all following education in the domain of behavioral sciences. They received course credits for participating. Their experience with Wikipedia ranged from 3-8 years with an average of 5. All undergraduates students were able to explain the basics of Wikipedia in their own words. None of them had contributed to Wikipedia before.

The post-graduates were from various disciplines, such as behavioral sciences, physics, and management sciences. Their experience with Wikipedia ranged from 4-10 years with an average of 7. All post-graduates described the online encyclopedia as an open source that anyone can edit. Three post-graduates had experience in editing articles on Wikipedia.

All participants in the three groups were proficient in the Dutch language and able to effortlessly express their thoughts in this language. Therefore Dutch was chosen for the think aloud method (Ericsson & Simon, 1984). The articles used in the experiment were obtained from the English Wikipedia for the undergraduate and post-graduate students. No major language barriers were reported after the experiment. The participating high school students

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3 were not sufficiently proficient in the English language to be able to fully comprehend
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5 information in this language, therefore the Dutch Wikipedia was used to select articles for
6
7 this participant group.
8

9 10 *Task*

11 The participants performed the Wikipedia Screening Task (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2010). In
12
13 this task, a Wikipedia article is displayed in a web browser. The participants are asked to
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15 evaluate its credibility, without imposing a particular method on them to do so. This means
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17 that they are free (and encouraged) to employ their own approach for this task. While doing
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19 this, the participants were asked to think aloud following standard think-aloud instructions
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21 (Ericsson & Simon, 1984). The participants were not allowed to navigate away from the
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23 article during the task. No time limit was set.
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27 28 *Design*

29 A 3 (student group) × 2 (familiarity) × 2 (article quality) mixed design was applied for the
30
31 experiment. Student group (high school, undergraduate, post-graduate) was a between
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33 subjects factor, whereas familiarity (familiar/unfamiliar) and article quality (high/low) were
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35 both within subject factors. Each participant evaluated ten articles in total.
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38 Familiarity was manipulated by selecting articles to be used in the experiment for each
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40 participant individually. This was done on the basis of a telephone interview, conducted a few
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42 days before the actual experiment. In this interview, the participants were asked for their
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44 personal interests and disinterests. Half of the articles were selected to be on familiar topics;
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46 the other half were on unfamiliar topics. Each article was only used once throughout the
47
48 whole experiment. Familiarity alternated between trials, starting with a familiar topic.
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51 Article quality was manipulated following the classification of the Wikipedia Editorial
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53 Team (“Wikipedia:Version 1.0 Editorial Team”, 2012). Manual assessments of the quality
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55 are available for most of the articles on Wikipedia, resulting in a categorization into seven
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3 classes (see Table 2). However, A-class articles are largely underrepresented on Wikipedia,
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5 which makes it virtually impossible to find articles on specific topics in this class. Therefore,
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7 it was excluded from the experiment, leaving a total of six classes. Articles in the highest
8
9 three classes were considered high quality (Featured articles, Good articles, and B-class
10
11 articles); articles in the three lowest classes were considered low quality (C-class articles,
12
13 Start articles, and Stub articles). Article quality was randomized between trials.
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16 <<Insert Table 2 here>>
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19 Unfortunately, no classification of quality is available on the Dutch Wikipedia (apart
20
21 from the Dutch equivalent of the “Featured articles”, but these are very few). Instead, we
22
23 applied the clear criteria of the Wikipedia Editorial Team to articles from the Dutch
24
25 Wikipedia ourselves to distinguish high and low quality. To ensure the validity of this
26
27 manipulation, inter-rater reliability was calculated after double-rating the selected articles.
28
29 The result was a Cohen’s Kappa of .89 (Landis & Koch, 1977), which indicates a near perfect
30
31 agreement.
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35 The articles used in the experiment were presented exactly as they appeared on
36
37 Wikipedia, with the exception of the removal of cues specific for Wikipedia, indicating
38
39 diminished credibility (e.g., *[citation needed]* indications) or high credibility (e.g., bronze
40
41 stars in Featured articles). The removal of such indicators ensured that the participants could
42
43 only utilize cues from the information itself in their credibility evaluations rather than cues
44
45 only valid in the domain of Wikipedia.
46

47 *Procedure*

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49 Upon arrival, participants were provided a brief explanation of the experiment and asked to
50
51 sign an informed consent. As all participating high school students were under 18 years of
52
53 age, we also asked their parents or legal guardians to sign an informed consent in advance.
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3 After signing, the participants had to fill in a short questionnaire regarding standard
4 demographic features, and their familiarity and experience with Wikipedia (on 7-point Likert
5 scales) along with their quotidian usage. They were also asked to provide a short explanation
6 of what Wikipedia is and how it works.
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11 Following this questionnaire, the participants were instructed on the Wikipedia
12 Screening Task and the course of the experiment. The participants practiced the Wikipedia
13 Screening Task and the think-aloud task during two practice trials. The articles used in these
14 trials were “Barcelona” and “Titanic” for the high school students, and “Flat earth” and
15 “Ethnography” for the undergraduates and post-graduates. Task performance was considered
16 sufficient for all participants after two practice trials.
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25 When the participants finished a trial, they indicated this to the experimenter verbally,
26 who then handed them a questionnaire, on which perceived credibility and familiarity were
27 measured on 7-point Likert scales. This was repeated 10 times for each participant, resulting
28 in a total duration of approximately 90 minutes.
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34 *Data analyses*

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36 All sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed afterwards. In a protocol analysis, all
37 utterances regarding credibility were marked and categorized. Each utterance was coded on
38 the following aspects:
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41

- 42 - The *component* of the article to which the utterance referred (Introduction, Text,
43 Table of contents, Images, References, and Other).
44
- 45 - The *strategy* applied by the participant (Semantic, Surface). Note that the Source
46 strategy of the 3S-model (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2011) was not used here, as the
47 source remained constant throughout the experiment.
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3 - Which *feature* of the component was mentioned by the participant (e.g., *number* of
4 references, *quality* of the pictures). Ad hoc categories were created for the features
5 mentioned.
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10 The protocol of one student in each group was double-coded by two experimenters.
11 Based on this overlap, the inter-rater reliability was calculated. A Cohen's Kappa of .87
12 (Landis & Koch, 1977) indicated a near-perfect agreement.
13
14

15
16 During the protocol analysis, it became apparent that the participants greatly differed in
17 number of utterances. In order to ensure that expressive participants did not have a larger
18 influence on the outcome of each group than the others, the number of utterances of each
19 participant (i) in each category (n) was corrected. This was done by multiplying each number
20 by the correction factor derived in the following formula:
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$$27 \text{ correction factor} = \frac{\text{number of remarks}_n/n}{\text{number of remarks}_i}$$

28
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31 After this correction, the number of utterances was averaged over each group to create a
32 coding scheme for each group.
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35 Only non-parametric tests were performed on all data gathered on Likert-scales, as they
36 are assumed to be measuring at the ordinal rather than the nominal level (Jamieson, 2004).
37
38

39 Results

40 *Familiarity manipulation check*

41
42 The questionnaires after each article indicated that the manipulation of familiarity was
43 successful. On a 1-7 familiarity scale, familiar topics were rated higher ($M = 5.20$, $SD = .92$)
44 than unfamiliar topics ($M = 1.94$, $SD = .87$), $Z = 5.48$, $p < .001$. A more detailed analysis
45 showed that this was the case for all participating groups (high school students,
46 undergraduates, and post-graduates).
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53 *Credibility evaluation*

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3 Table 3 shows the number of remarks indicating the application of a semantic or surface
4 strategy in the credibility evaluations of our participants. Typical examples of remarks
5 categorized as a semantic strategy were “Yes, I know this is true, because the things I know
6 about it are in line with the text.” and “I know this already, because I traveled by airplane last
7 year.” Remarks such as “There are images everywhere, which seems trustworthy to me.” and
8 “Every claim is referenced, that’s a good thing.” were typical for the surface strategy.
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16 <<Insert Table 3 here>>
17

18 Participants evaluating articles on familiar topics used more semantic cues than when
19 evaluating unfamiliar topics, $\chi^2(1, N = 931) = 24.40, p < .001$. This was the case for all
20 participant groups (high-school students: $\chi^2(1, N = 661) = 11.05, p < .01$; undergraduates:
21 $\chi^2(1, N = 1122) = 41.74, p < .001$; post-graduates: $\chi^2(1, N = 1010) = 29.43, p < .001$).
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28 Moreover, the participant groups differed in their application of the semantic and
29 surface strategy regardless of familiarity, $\chi^2(2, N = 931) = 111.35, p < .001$. This effect was
30 caused by the high-school students using less surface features than the other groups. No
31 difference was found between undergraduates and post-graduates.
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36 Table 4 shows the number of remarks concerning the various components of the
37 articles.
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40 <<Insert Table 4 here>>
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43 Participants in the various groups considered the different components of the article to
44 varying degrees, $\chi^2(12, N = 2793) = 435.85, p < .001$. Post-hoc analyses showed that this was
45 caused by post-graduates having fewer remarks on images and more on the introduction than
46 the other groups. The number of remarks on references differed between all groups,
47 increasing with education level. Finally, high school students mentioned the component ‘text’
48 more and ‘table of contents’ less than the other groups.
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56 Table 5 shows the key features used by each group.
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3 <<Insert Table 5 here>>
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5 As can be seen in Table 4, high school students had a smaller arsenal of strategies to
6 evaluate credibility than the other groups. Some evident strategies are mentioned by all users
7 (e.g., factual accuracy), but other strategies such as considering the references and the
8 objectivity of the information were only mentioned by undergraduates and post-graduates.
9

10 *Trust*

11 Table 6 shows trust in the information of all participants in all conditions.
12

13 <<Insert Table 6 here>>
14

15 No effect of student group on trust was found, $\chi^2(2, N = 40) = .21, p = .90$. This
16 indicates that high school students, undergraduates, and post-graduates all have similar trust
17 in Wikipedia.
18

19 Moreover, no effect of familiarity on trust was found, $Z = 1.68, p = .09$. This was also
20 the case for each individual student group (high school: $Z = 1.09, p = .28$; undergraduates: Z
21 $= 1.30, p = .19$; post-graduates: $Z = .66, p = .51$).
22

23 Quality had a significant effect on trust: high-quality articles were trusted more than
24 low-quality articles ($Z = 3.62, p < .01$). However, a more detailed analysis showed that this
25 was only the case for undergraduates ($Z = 2.67, p < .01$) and post-graduates ($Z = 2.84, p <$
26 $.01$), but not for high school students ($Z = 1.37, p = .17$).
27

28 Discussion

29 In this study the influence of domain expertise and information skills on credibility
30 evaluation and trust was examined. The results supported the updated 3S-model. It was found
31 that users with domain expertise tended to focus more on semantic features than users
32 without domain expertise. Moreover, surface features were used more by users with better
33 information skills. Information quality was manipulated following the classification of the
34 Wikipedia Editorial Team. We hypothesized that this would be mainly visible at the surface
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3 level of the articles. Our experiment confirmed that indeed only trust of users with better
4 information skills was influenced by the quality manipulation (i.e., only undergraduates and
5 post-graduates, not high-school students). As expected, domain expertise had no influence on
6 trust in high or low quality articles, as low-quality articles are also expected to be free of
7 (large) factual errors.
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14 The main contribution of this study is that the enabling character of domain expertise
15 and information skills has been demonstrated, together with the influence of the
16 corresponding information features on trust. In the original study on the 3S-model (Lucassen
17 & Schraagen, 2011), it was already shown that trust of domain experts was influenced when a
18 semantic feature (enabled for domain experts) indicated low credibility. Now, we also
19 demonstrated that when surface features indicate lower credibility, this only has an influence
20 on users with sufficient information skills. Hence, only undergraduates and post-graduates
21 were influenced, whereas high school students were not.
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32 This observation is very much in line with prominence-interpretation theory (Fogg,
33 2003), which states that each cue in a piece of information has a certain prominence to a
34 certain user. Only when a cue is prominent, the user can give an interpretation to this cue
35 (i.e., consequences for credibility), and have an influence on trust. The key addition of the
36 3S-model in comparison to prominence-interpretation theory is that we attribute specific user
37 characteristics to specific information features.
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45 In this experiment, we showed that people with knowledge on the topic evaluate the
46 credibility of information differently than people without such knowledge. The key difference
47 is the utilization of semantic features, such as the accuracy of information. Novices on the
48 topic at hand are not able to compare presented information with their pre-existing
49 knowledge, which leads them to the consideration of other, surface features. Interestingly,
50 one does not have to be an absolute domain expert to apply the “semantic strategy” of
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3 credibility evaluation. Whereas in Lucassen and Schraagen (2011), domain experts were self-
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5 selected from various Internet forums on automotive technology, in this experiment
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7 familiarity was merely manipulated by asking the participants for their topics of interest. This
8
9 does not ensure a substantial level of expertise at all. Still, the influence of familiarity at this
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11 level on credibility evaluation was made quite clear. Participants familiar with the topic at
12
13 hand used nearly twice as many semantic features in their credibility evaluations than
14
15 participants unfamiliar with the topic (except for high-school students, to be discussed later).
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19 Interestingly, when users encounter information on a familiar topic, they do not shift to
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21 semantic features completely. Instead, they apply a combination of surface and semantic
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23 strategies to evaluate credibility. This means that familiar users (with sufficient information
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25 skills) are best equipped to evaluate credibility in a meaningful manner. However, this
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27 experiment merely indicated the capabilities of various users to evaluate, which may differ
28
29 from their actual behavior in real-life. As predicted by Metzger (2007), the motivation of
30
31 users primarily determines to which extent credibility is evaluated. This experiment showed
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33 what they are capable of when they are motivated.
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37 As stated earlier, the shift towards semantic features when evaluating familiar
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39 information was much less distinctive for high-school students than for the other two groups.
40
41 We do not attribute this to an unexpected high level of expertise in unfamiliar topics (the
42
43 familiarity manipulation proved successful), but to a low level of information skills. We
44
45 argued before that the most salient strategy for credibility evaluation is to consider the factual
46
47 accuracy. This is also what the high-school students did. However, when evaluating
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49 information on unfamiliar topics, this strategy is quite unsuccessful. We also observed this in
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51 many participants remarking that they felt unable to evaluate the article at hand, as they did
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53 not know anything about the topic (e.g., “If you don’t know anything about it, it is tempting
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55 to believe the information is correct.” or “It doesn’t ring a bell, it could be true.”).
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3 Participants with better information skills worked around this deficit by considering various
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5 alternative (surface) features. However, high-school students were not able to do so, due to
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7 their limited information skills, which meant that a large portion (about half) of the remarks
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9 still included semantic features (albeit unsuccessful). This was reflected in the trust of high-
10
11 school students in the information; as opposed to the other groups, no difference in trust was
12
13 observed between high-quality and low-quality information. The key surface feature that
14
15 high-school students did not consider at all as opposed to the other groups, was references.
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17 High-school students were not at all aware of the importance of references, whereas a large
18
19 part of the remarks of undergraduates and post-graduates considered this feature (about 30%).
20
21 This replicates the finding of Lucassen, Noordzij, and Schraagen (2011), who found that
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23 undergraduates consider the references of information on various levels.
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28 The limited information skills of high-school students could lead one to believe that
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30 they could still perform a meaningful credibility evaluation on familiar topics, as they can
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32 bring their knowledge on the topic at hand to bear. However, no influence of information
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34 quality on trust was found for high-school students, regardless of their familiarity. It could be
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36 argued that this is due to their limited domain expertise, also on familiar topics. However, a
37
38 more plausible explanation can be found in the nature of the quality manipulation at hand.
39
40 We decided to replicate normal quality fluctuations as can be observed on Wikipedia.
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42 However, these fluctuations can primarily be found at the surface level, as the information is
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44 expected to be generally factually accurate (Giles, 2005), also in low-quality articles. High-
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46 school students utilize a lot less surface features in their evaluations, which means they did
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48 not notice the differences in quality.
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52 The manner of manipulating information quality also explains why despite earlier
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54 findings (Self, 1996; Eastin, 2001; Chesney, 2006), familiarity had no influence on trust. It
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56 can be expected that most of the articles used in this experiment were factually accurate.
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3 Thus, no negative influence of knowledge on the information is expected. However, given the
4 overall high trust in the presented information (> 5 on a 1-7 scale), it is questionable whether
5 familiarity would increase trust even more. A study in which the role of familiarity is
6 examined in trust in information of more questionable credibility would be of interest to
7 further explore this topic.
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14 No effect of participant group on trust was found. This means that trust in Wikipedia is
15 the same for high-school students, undergraduates, and post-graduates. This is remarkable,
16 since knowledge on the open-editing system behind Wikipedia (largely absent in high-school
17 students) could lead to less trust. On the other hand, accumulating positive experiences with
18 Wikipedia may increase trust in this source (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2011). This would
19 indicate that the strategy of considering the source of information was also applied, but
20 implicitly, as no participants mentioned this in the think aloud protocols (Taraborelli, 2008).
21
22

23 *Limitations*

24
25 A few limitations should be kept in mind regarding the interpretation of the results of this
26 study.
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30
31 The three participating groups of students were selected on the basis of their expected
32 level of information skills. We have shown that this had a direct influence on credibility
33 evaluation. However, other factors will also inevitably vary among these groups (e.g., age).
34 These factors may act as confounding variables. However, we would argue that an isolated
35 approach of varying information skills (e.g., training half of a coherent group of participants
36 with low information skills) does not add to the external validity of the study.
37
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41 In this study, Wikipedia served as an information source for our stimuli. This online
42 encyclopedia is always a great case study, as information quality is generally very high
43 (Giles, 2005), but changeable (e.g., Cross 2006; Dooley, 2010). However, certain
44 characteristics of this source may limit the potential for generalization to other sources
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3 (online and offline). An example of such a characteristic is the open editing model behind
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5 Wikipedia; this mechanism may cause users to approach the information differently (e.g., in a
6
7 more skeptical manner). For future research, it is important to verify the validity of the
8
9 proposed 3S-model in different contexts, such as other websites, or offline sources (e.g.,
10
11 books, newspapers).
12

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14 The think-aloud method is a great tool to gain insights in the task performance of
15
16 participants. It should however be noted that in this study, the participants were explicitly
17
18 asked to evaluate credibility, whereas normally this is a subset of a larger task set (i.e.,
19
20 finding and evaluating information). Therefore, the observed behavior in this experiment
21
22 should not be interpreted as the way users always perform credibility evaluation. The degree
23
24 to which credibility is actually being evaluated may vary heavily (Metzger, 2007). The
25
26 behavior we observed in this study can rather be seen as credibility evaluation under optimal
27
28 circumstances (in terms of motivation and ability). In real life, users may pick a few
29
30 strategies from the set we found, depending on the context of the information.
31
32

33 34 *Further Research*

35
36 This study has shed more light on the role of user characteristics in online credibility
37
38 evaluation. Additional validation was found for the 3S-model (Lucassen & Schraagen, 2011).
39
40 However, this study primarily aimed at validating the semantic and surface components of
41
42 the model. Future studies should also focus on the third strategy, considering the source of
43
44 information.
45
46

47 48 Acknowledgments

49
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51
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53
54 to perform the experiments with high-school students at their school.
55

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Science, 37, 487-498.

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3 Figure Captions
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5 **Figure 1: Revised 3S-model of credibility evaluation.**
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For Peer Review

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Table 1: Key characteristics of all participant groups. Standard deviation for age is given in parentheses.
* For the undergraduate group, the uncoded transcriptions (raw utterances of the participants of Lucassen and Schraagen (2010) were used in the data analyses.

	N	Age	Gender		Nationality	
			Male	Female	Dutch	German
High school	13	14.3 (0.6)	5	8	13	0
Undergraduate*	12	23.4 (6.3)	5	7	7	5
Post-graduate	15	27.0 (1.9)	7	8	13	2

For Peer Review

Table 2: Quality classes according to the Wikipedia Editorial Team Assessment. Detailed descriptions are available on http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikipedia:Version_1.0_Editorial_Team/Assessment.

Status	Description
FA	The article has attained Featured article status.
A	The article is well organized and essentially complete, having been reviewed by impartial reviewers from a WikiProject or elsewhere. Good article status is not a requirement for A-Class.
GA	The article has attained Good article status.
B	The article is mostly complete and without major issues, but requires some further work to reach Good Article standards. B-Class articles should meet the six B-Class criteria.
C	The article is substantial, but is still missing important content or contains a lot of irrelevant material. The article should have some references to reliable sources, but may still have significant issues or require substantial cleanup.
Start	An article that is developing, but which is quite incomplete and, most notably, lacks adequate reliable sources.
Stub	A very basic description of the topic.

Table 3: (Corrected) Number of remarks indicating semantic or surface strategy application by the participants of all three groups. Percentages are given in parentheses.

	Familiar		Unfamiliar		All	
	Semantic	Surface	Semantic	Surface	Semantic	Surface
High-school	215 (63.4%)	124 (36.6%)	163 (50.7%)	159 (49.3%)	378 (57.2%)	283 (42.8%)
Undergraduates	241 (41.6%)	339 (58.4%)	127 (23.4%)	415 (76.6%)	368 (32.8%)	754 (67.2%)
Post-graduates	257 (43.1%)	338 (56.9%)	110 (26.5%)	305 (73.5%)	367 (36.3%)	643 (63.7%)
Average	238 (47.1%)	267 (52.9%)	133 (31.2%)	293 (68.8%)	371 (39.8%)	560 (60.2%)

Table 4: (Corrected) Number of remarks indicating the utilization of several components of the information by the participants of all three groups. Percentages are given in parentheses.

	Introduction	Text	Table of contents	Images	Internal links	References	Other
High-school	18 (2.7%)	532 (80.5%)	3 (.4%)	72 (10.9%)	11 (1.7%)	4 (.5%)	21 (3.2%)
Undergraduates	49 (4.3%)	485 (43.2%)	38 (3.4%)	140 (12.5%)	33 (2.9%)	319 (28.4%)	59 (5.2%)
Post-graduates	99 (9.8%)	408 (40.4%)	38 (3.7%)	66 (6.5%)	27 (2.7%)	337 (33.4%)	34 (3.4%)
Average	166 (5.9%)	1425 (51.0%)	79 (2.8%)	278 (10.0%)	71 (2.5%)	660 (23.6%)	114 (4.1%)

For Peer Review

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Table 5: Key features used by participants of each group. Strategies were included if at least 50% of the participants in that group applied the strategy at least once.

	High school	Undergraduates	Post-graduates
Factual accuracy	X	X	X
Completeness	X	X	X
Images	X	X	X
Length of text	X	X	X
Writing style	X	X	X
Quality of text	X	X	X
Scope of text	X	X	X
Understandability	X	X	X
References		X	X
Objectivity		X	X
Structure		X	X
Statistics		X	

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Table 6: Trust in the information on 7-point Likert scales in all conditions (HQ = High quality, LQ = Low quality). Standard deviations are given in parentheses.

	Familiar			Unfamiliar			All		
	HQ	LQ	All	HQ	LQ	All	HQ	LQ	All
High-school	5.77 (1.03)	5.00 (1.78)	5.29 (1.09)	5.62 (.97)	4.44 (1.96)	5.03 (.96)	5.69 (.71)	4.74 (1.82)	5.23 (.94)
Undergraduates	5.86 (.72)	4.63 (1.31)	5.28 (.75)	5.71 (.56)	4.38 (1.05)	5.00 (.72)	5.76 (.52)	4.52 (1.05)	5.14 (.65)
Post-graduates	5.46 (.49)	4.78 (1.05)	5.16 (.63)	5.33 (.61)	4.82 (.89)	5.05 (.69)	5.37 (.44)	4.84 (.76)	5.11 (.54)
Average	5.69 (.75)	4.80 (1.38)	5.24 (.82)	5.55 (.71)	4.55 (1.30)	5.03 (.79)	5.61 (.56)	4.70 (1.21)	5.16 (.71)

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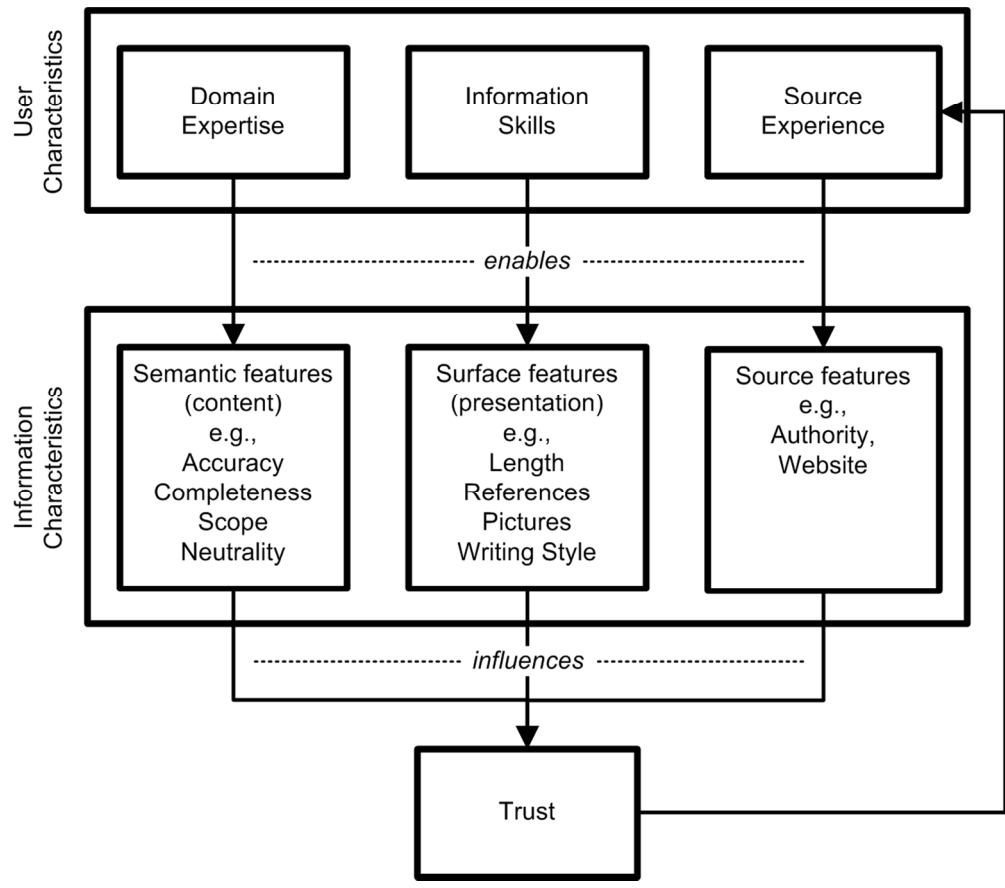


Figure 1: Revised 3S-model of credibility evaluation.