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Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour: Forms, Triggers and Impacts

By

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I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me (Philippians 4:13).

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Abstract

Influencing behaviour, as a form of Customer Engagement Behaviour (CEB), has the potential to impact other actors within a network and likewise the value and performance of firms in different ways, depending on its valence. However, despite its potentially detrimental effect, negatively-valenced influencing behaviour (NVIB) remains relatively poorly studied in terms of empirical work, specifically regarding its forms, triggers and impact. This thesis adopts mixed methods research, specifically, a sequential exploratory design so that the qualitative study provides findings that inform the quantitative study. The first study which is qualitative used netnography to explore how customers engage in NVIB and what triggers customers to engage in NVIB on review sites. The findings include six forms of NVIB classified as direct and indirect, based on the way customers use each form in their online reviews. The findings also contain five triggers of NVIB and indicate relationships between forms and triggers of NVIB. The second study which is quantitative used three experiments to measure the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers using the forms conceptualised in the first study. The results from the three experiments showed the negative impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, with a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB displayed. The thesis contributes to understanding NVIB by providing a typology of six distinct forms of NVIB and five triggers and also by showing that customers may directly or indirectly address other actors when engaging in NVIB; however, both direct and indirect forms of NVIB negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Finally, this thesis contributes to studies in this area with empirical results that show the impact of specific forms of NVIB on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

Chapter 1. Introduction

In today's markets, the growth of the internet has led to a dramatic influencing role for customers (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Kozinets, 2002; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2016). Not satisfied with the passive role of being a receiver of firms' offerings and armed with various resources such as experience, knowledge and time (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014), customers proactively engage in product development by, for example, providing firms with knowledge that can improve and enhance their offerings (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Hoyer et al., 2010; Kristensson, Magnusson and Matthing, 2002) and in interactive activities that influence other social actors embedded within networks, for example, by recommending a product or brand or service provider to other actors (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Dholakia, Singh and Westbrook, 2010; Granovetter, 1985; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Rowley, 1997; Storbacka et al., 2016). This thesis focuses on customers' interactive activities that influence other actors. Such activities are becoming increasingly influential in the service industry as a result of today's digital world (Brodie et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2010; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; Libai et al., 2010; Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017; Mohd-Any, Winklhofer and Ennew, 2015).

Customers rely on each other to get authoritative information to reduce uncertainty, specifically in relation to services as the evaluation of focal service quality before actual experience is difficult (Mittal and Baker, 2002). As hospitality products and services are especially difficult to evaluate prior to actual consumption (Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013), the plethora of tourism related web communities empower customers to play an increasingly active role via engagement behaviours that go beyond transactions (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010). Accordingly, customers utilise the internet, particularly online reviews, as a prime source of information about services and products (Anderson, 2012; Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017; Phelan, Chen and Haney, 2013; Wu et al., 2016). Recent market research has revealed that 77% of customers read online reviews before making a purchase decision, while 35% adjust their entire

plans based on online reviews (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016b; WorldTravelMarket.com, 2014).

The influential role of customers is not limited to getting or providing authoritative information about products and services, however, it has been extended to involve influencing other actors' opinions, choices and decisions about products and services (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010). Shared online experiences of customers, whether positive or negative, act as a contribution of resources into other actors' purchase processes (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Hoyer et al., 2010). For example, customers when they publicly share their focal service experience online contribute their knowledge about a product or service based on their experience (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Moreover, sharing their experience online requires computer skills in addition to writing or blogging skills, and certainly time (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004).

These contributed resources may impact other actors' decisions to purchase products or services as they might adjust their expectations about services or products and the way they evaluate the value of offerings (Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Blazevic et al., 2013; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). Specifically, these influencing customers share their experiences, intending to adjust how others feel, think and behave towards a focal object, brand, product, service or firm (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). Hence, these shared experiences, whether positive or negative, may impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions about products or services (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Bowden et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2011; Oliver, 1980; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991).

In addition to influencing other actors within a network, customers also can generate or reduce value for the firm through various means beyond their purchase behaviour (Kumar et al., 2010). Customers' shared experiences, whether positive or negative, make a focal firm, brand, product, or service more attractive or less appealing to other actors (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016). For example, they can

refer or recommend a product, brand or service to other actors; however, they may also warn others away from this product, brand, or service, which potentially affect the value of a product/brand/ firm/service provider (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Brodie et al., 2013; Hoyer et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012).

To capture this beyond-traditional role of buyers' activities and behaviours, customer engagement (CE) has emerged in recent marketing and service research as an overarching concept that has an impact on customer experiences and values and the performance of organisations (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Brodie et al., 2011; Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Solem and Pedersen, 2016). One perspective of CE defines it as "a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a firm or brand" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 260). Recognising the imminent need to foster CE (Kumar et al., 2010), firms are devoting substantial resources to steering customer engagement strategically (Harmeling et al., 2017).

In the marketing literature, conceptualisations of CE encompass cognitive, behavioural and emotional dimensions (cf. Brodie et al., 2011; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Marbach, Lages and Nunan, 2016).This thesis acknowledges this tripartite dimension but concentrates on the behavioural dimension of CE identified by the term 'Customer Engagement Behaviour' (CEB) (Van Doorn et al., 2010). Drawing from the perspective of Service-Dominant (S-D) logic, this thesis views CEB as a concept through which customers voluntarily contribute resources with a brand or firm focus beyond transactions and resulting from triggers (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010).

Understanding CEB has become one of the top priorities for firms and an emergent research perspective in marketing and service management (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; MSI, 2016; Van Doorn et

al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010). Despite its influencing power and relationship to key outcomes for firms, such as loyalty, lifetime and shareholder value (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verleye, Gemmel and Rangarajan, 2014; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012), the majority of studies address consumers' specific positively-valenced engagement behaviour. Thus they largely overlook the negative side despite its detrimental effect, especially online, being contagious and viral in nature with ensuing implications that may involve potential short and long-term financial and reputational detrimental outcomes for firms, brands and service providers (Bowden et al., 2017; Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2016)

This thesis concentrates on one of the forms of CEB, namely, influencing behaviour, which relates to customer contribution of resources to adjust other actors' knowledge, perceptions and expectations about focal service providers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014) and contributes to the limited literature on negative CEB by focusing on negatively-valenced influencing behaviour, specifically within online reviews. The following sections of this chapter outline the broad aim and research objectives of this thesis before introducing the adopted research approach. Subsequently, the final section presents an overview of the thesis chapters.

1.1 Thesis Aim and Objectives

The aim of this thesis is to **explore the concept of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour (NVIB) and measure its impact on other actors in an online context.** This broader aim is designed to understand negatively-valenced customers' specific behavioural manifestations within online contexts. This aim is influenced by CEB literature which highlights an academic and managerial need to understand NVIB, especially empirically, and specifically regarding its forms, triggers and impact within a network (Bowden et al., 2017; Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013).

In particular, several authors stress the need to advance research on the valence of engagement, specifically empirically, and particularly negative valence, whose coverage remains scant in the literature thus far (Bowden et al., 2017; Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Additionally, a distinctive conceptualisation of negative engagement underpinned by different nomological network is needed (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013) since, in the majority of the extant studies, positive and negative engagement have been conceptualised as opposite forms of the same construct underpinned by the same nomological elements (e.g. trust, rapport, loyalty, brand attachment and customer empowerment).

Furthermore, as the literature transcends its focus beyond a dyadic perspective of engagement, a need exists to better understand engagement within a network (Bolton, 2011; Bowden et al., 2017; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016), specifically, the influence of negatively-valenced engagement behaviour on other actors' attitudes and probable actions towards service providers, which is scant in the literature to date (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016). In particular, in contrast with a rich body of literature on customers' purchase behaviours, customer behaviours beyond purchase in tourism related web communities are under-researched (Anderson, 2012; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016).

This thesis draws on the existing CE and CEB literature and from the macro perspective of S-D logic to show how customers engage in NVIB, what triggers customers to engage in NVIB and the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers within an online context. Accordingly, the thesis aim is addressed through three research objectives that are introduced as follows.

The knowledge gap relating to the forms and triggers of customers' negatively-valenced behavioural manifestations leads to the first and the second objectives.

These research objectives are explored using netnography (Study 1). They relate to the need to understand how customers engage in NVIB through identifying the forms they use when they engage in it and the triggers that elicit these manifestations within online reviews through the following objectives:

Objective 1*: To conceptualise forms of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*

Objective 2*: To identify triggers of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*

Customers' behavioural manifestations are preceded by experienced triggering events that affect the valence of the content of their shared online influencing behaviour (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). These triggering events elicit customers to engage in a range of forms of NVIB (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016). For firms to be able to manage NVIB, specifically on review sites, the key challenge is to identify its different forms (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Despite indications in the literature that NVIB may have different forms and that identifying these forms would enable practitioners to manage NVIB if occurs within online reviews appropriately, influencing behaviour as a type of CEB has no typology for its negative forms on review sites within the literature to date. Moreover, this thesis acknowledges that negative engagement should be conceptualised not as an opposite form of positive engagement underpinned by the same nomological network that signals positive elements, such as trust, rapport, loyalty, customer empowerment and brand attachment (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013).

The third objective considers the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers as follows:

Objective 3: *To measure the impact of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers*

Specifically, in Study 2 the impact of NVIB is measured through three experiments. This objective relates to the need to better understand the impact of NVIB within a network, specifically, regarding its impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers particularly within tourism related web communities (Anderson, 2012; Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016). This research echoes the service ecosystem literature extending beyond the customer-to-customer and customer-to-firm dyads (Akaka and Vargo, 2015), as in this thesis, the online context of focus is TripAdvisor. This specific context represents a service ecosystem as it involves resource integrators that are "connected by shared institutional arrangements" that TripAdvisor sets "and mutual value creation through service exchange" (Vargo and Lusch, 2016, p. 11) that are socially established via the exchange of resources such as knowledge and skills among actors (Akaka and Vargo, 2015). In this thesis, using TripAdvisor as an online context, NVIB is studied as customers' contribution of resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, time and experience) to impact other actors within a network. The next section introduces the research approach adopted in this thesis to satisfy the aim and objectives.

1.2 Research Approach

To satisfy the research aim and objectives, this thesis adopts a mixed method approach, specifically a sequential exploratory design (SED) that commences with a qualitative study (netnography) followed by a quantitative study (experiments), which builds on the results of the qualitative study (see Figure 1-1). The rationale behind selecting the SED is influenced by the exploratory nature of objectives 1 and 2, which relate to conceptualising forms of NVIB and identifying its triggers within online reviews. Forms and triggers of NVIB on review sites have not been explored. Accordingly, this thesis starts with a qualitative study (netnography) to explore NVIB and then expands on the qualitative findings to measure its impact on customers' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers using a quantitative study (experiments).The data collection and analysis for study 1were conducted in summer 2016 and study 2 was undertaken in spring 2017.
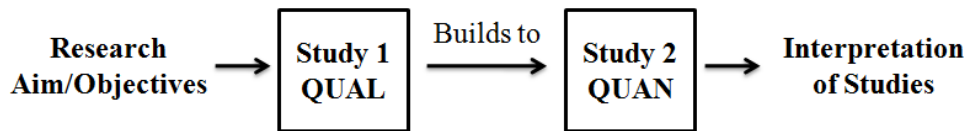
Figure 1-1: Research Approach

This research design required an alternative approach to the thesis chapters' structure, specifically the empirical studies (chapters 4 and 5). That is, each chapter contains elements of the theoretical background and adopted methods, as well as the findings (results) and a discussion. The next section illustrates the outlined structure of this thesis and what each chapter addresses.

1.3 Thesis Overview

The structure of this thesis is outlined as follows. The literature review chapter (**Chapter 2**) is followed by a methodology chapter (**Chapter 3**) which introduces and addresses the adopted philosophical approach and research design. The subsequent chapter (**Chapter 4**) addresses the first empirical study (**Study 1),** presenting an exploratory qualitative study (netnography) to conceptualise forms and identify NVIB triggers. The findings of (**Study 1**) are used in (**Study 2**) to measure the impact of NVIB on customers' attitudes and behavioural outcomes. The following chapter (**Chapter 5**) addresses **Study 2** and introduces three experiments to measure the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. A discussion chapter (**Chapter 6**) presents an interpretation of the previous two empirical studies. It discusses the results of the two studies in relation to literature and how the quantitative results (**Study 2**) test the qualitative results (**Study 1**). Additionally, it examines how the connected results of the two studies have satisfied the research aim and objectives of this thesis, specifically, the contribution to knowledge of the two studies. The concluding chapter (**Chapter 7**) outlines the main contribution of the thesis, along with the theoretical and managerial implications as well as the limitations and future research suggestions. A brief of the thesis chapters is provided as follows:

Chapter 2 reviews the literature on CE, CEB, influencing behaviour and S-D logic. Initially, the chapter introduces the relationship between general and middle-range theories, considering the perspective that CE is a bridging concept for the macro Service-Dominant (S-D) logic. Then the chapter explores S-D logic as a worldview, discusses its foundational premises (FPs) and highlights FPs specifically underpinning this research. Subsequently, the chapter addresses the roots of engagement. It then proceeds by addressing CE's theoretical foundations, conceptualisations and dimensions, particularly its behavioural dimension, which is at the core of this research. Then the chapter proceeds by discussing the dimensions, forms, triggers and outcomes of CEB. Finally, the chapter introduces influencing behaviour as a type of CEB.

Chapter 3 introduces the research design of this thesis. Initially, it discusses and critiques three philosophical research paradigms, the post-positivist, the social constructivist and the pragmatist, and justifies selecting a pragmatist approach. Subsequently, the chapter introduces the mixed methods research, which is appropriately suggested by the research objectives, followed by introducing and justifying the adoption of a sequential exploratory design, where a qualitative strand (Chapter 4) is followed by a quantitative one (Chapter 5), which builds on the results of the qualitative study. Finally, the chapter outlines phases of the research and discusses analysis procedures.

Chapter 4 introduces and discusses the findings of the qualitative exploratory strand (Study 1), which conceptualised forms and identified triggers of NVIB within online reviews. Using netnography, NVIB is explored over six phases of data collection and thematic analysis of online reviews posted by customers on TripAdvisor to hotels, restaurants and things to do at twelve different destinations worldwide. The findings involve firstly, six forms and five triggers of NVIB. Secondly, forms of NVIB are classified into direct and indirect, based on the way customers engage in NVIB using each form. Finally, the findings reveal specific explored relationships between these forms and triggers.

Chapter 5 measures the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers, using the identified forms from Study 1 (Chapter 4). This second study introduces three experiments. As customers' NVIB is classified into direct and indirect, the first experiment tests the impact of direct compared to indirect NVIB. Customers are exposed to different sources of influence besides the negatively-valenced reviews. Commonly, online forums that provide customers' reviews also provide aggregate ratings for a product or service which represent the group norm: how other actors rated this product or service. Aggregate ratings alongside the valence of the shared online reviews represent a collective level of influence that customers are typically exposed to. Informed by study 1 analysed data and to approach an extant debate in the literature about the influence of valence of reviews paired with aggregate ratings, the second experiment measures the impact of NVIB alongside excellent and terrible aggregate ratings given to service providers.

Moreover, customers do not commonly read only negative reviews; they are exposed to both positively- and negatively-valenced reviews. Informed by study 1 analysed data and to approach an extant debate in the literature about the influence of positive alongside negative valence of reviews, the final experiment measures the impact of NVIB juxtaposed with high and equal volumes of positive online reviews. In addition to this, the final experiment measures the impact of individual forms of NVIB within online reviews. Study 1 identified six distinct forms customers use when engage in NVIB. They use each form differently and, accordingly, the impact of each form merits further investigation for probable variable impact. The results of the three experiments show empirically that NVIB impacts other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers with direct NVIB being relatively stronger than indirect NVIB. The study also shows that NVIB has a much stronger impact on other actors even when paired with aggregate ratings and volumes of positive reviews, specifically direct NVIB. Finally, the heterogeneity of the forms of NVIB resulted in variable impacts on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

Chapter 6 synthesises the two studies and discusses how the connected results of the two studies have satisfied the research aim and objectives of this thesis. Integrating results of the qualitative and quantitative studies is pivotal within a mixed methods research and offers valuable insights as it increases the chances to make the best out of the collected data. Additionally, this chapter introduces and discusses the contribution to knowledge of the two studies to CE, CEB and the influencing behaviour literature.

Chapter 7 presents the key contributions of the thesis as evidenced in the results of the two empirical studies, with their respective theoretical and managerial implications as well as limitations and future research suggestions.

The next chapter presents the literature reviewed relating to CE, CEB, influencing behaviour and S-D Logic.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

The introduction chapter presented the aim and objectives of this thesis and showed the importance of studying influencing behaviour as a form of CEB, specifically within an online context and in particular its negative side, which has yielded scant attention in the related literature to date. This respective chapter also mentioned that this thesis draws from the macro perspective of S-D logic, for which CE is a bridging concept. Accordingly, this chapter commences by introducing the relationship between general and middle-range theories. Subsequently, the chapter proceeds by introducing and discussing S-D logic as a worldview reviewing its axioms and foundational premises (FPs) and highlighting their conceptual fit to CE. Then the chapter addresses CE's theoretical roots, conceptualisations and dimensions, particularly its behavioural dimension, which is the core of this research. Subsequently, the chapter discusses dimensions, forms, triggers and outcomes of customer engagement behaviour (CEB). The final section addresses influencing behaviour as a type of CEB and the focus of this thesis. Finally, the chapter summarises the main points addressed and emphasises the research gap in relation to existing studies.

2.1 General and Middle-Range Theories

General theories inherently fail to accept empirical investigation, conserving it to be too abstract (Hunt, 1983; Merton, 2002; Weick, 1989). To overcome the difficulty in approaching empirical research with general theory and to develop testable hypotheses (Weick, 1989), middle-range theories have initially been explored by Merton (1967) in the field of sociology. Recently, midrange theories have received considerable attention in the marketing field (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011).

Middle-range theories bridge general and empirical findings within contexts of discovery and justification (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011) as they closely align to "actionable language of business practice" (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011, p. 284). In the context of discovery, general theories play a central role in developing

propositions or hypotheses related to middle-range theories for empirical investigation (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011). In the context of justification, the findings of these empirical investigations can, consequently, verify focal developed hypotheses or propositions (Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011). As a result, the scope of the middle range theory and of general theories is refined and expanded (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011) (see Figure 2-1).

Context of Discovery
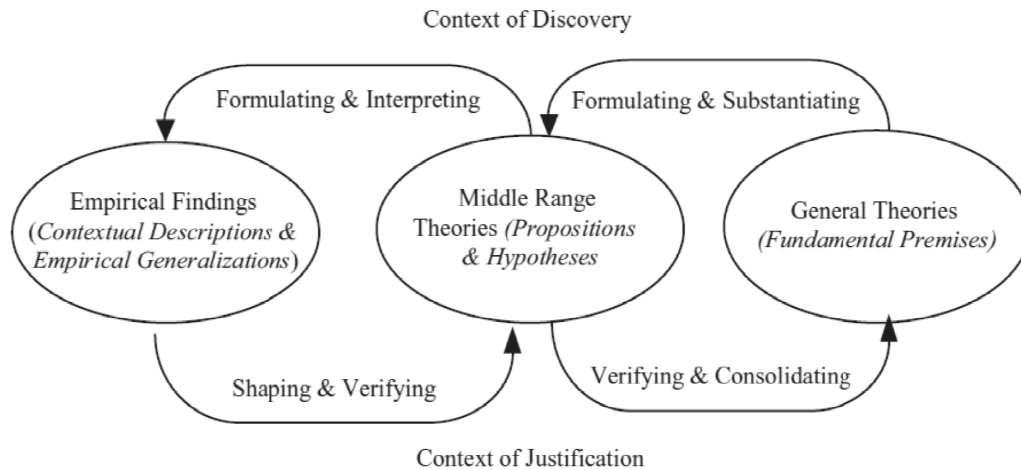
. 81).

The broadening in the scope of marketing from the transactional to the relational exchange has led researchers to "reconsider the nature of general theories that underpin the marketing discipline" (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011, p. 76). S-D logic represents a shift in thinking and a unification of the transactional and relational perspectives of marketing (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). S-D logic conceives markets as service networks connecting multiple parties (Akaka and Vargo, 2015; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). Although S-D logic is at the pre-theoretical phase (Vargo and Lusch, 2008a), it is still considered to offer a meta-theory (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Storbacka et al., 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017; Winklhofer, Palmer and Brodie, 2007). Recently, the interest in developing CE as a middle range theory has been related to S-D logic in order to provide more evidence-based research that advances

this theoretical domain (Brodie et al., 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). This is discussed in more detail in the next subsection.

2.1.1 Customer Engagement as a Bridging Concept

Engagement is an important concept within the broad lexicon of S-D logic (Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017); it enables an understanding of the dynamics characterising focal marketing practices associated with S-D logic (Brodie et al., 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). According to Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith (2011), CE and its Fundamental Propositions (FPs) exist within the realm of a middle-range theory. S-D logic offers a meta-theory that explains interactive experiences and the co-creation of value, hence, CE's conceptual foundations (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011). In light of this, CE represents a bridging concept within the broad lexicon of S-D logic which provides the conceptual foundations of CE (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011) and, hence, bridging general theory and empirical enquiry (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017).

Several conceptual and empirical studies (see Table 2-1) have used S-D logic as an underlying theory to develop CE as a midrange theory through conceptualising CE (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011b), measuring CE, refining its nomological network (Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014), understanding value creation within service systems (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Storbacka et al., 2016) and providing conceptual foundations of actor engagement valence (Li, Juric and Brodie, 2018). As a result, these studies have played a central role in refining and expanding the scope of CE as a midrange theory; likewise, the scope of S-D logic as a general theory has been widened (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011). Accordingly, this thesis draws from the macro perspective of S-D logic being consistent with the core tenants of engagement to inform and advance knowledge about the domain of CE (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016).

Study and Authors	Key Outcomes
Customer Engagement (Brodie et al., 2011)	▪ Conceptualisation of CE as a psychological state that occurs in dynamic iterative processes ▪ Development of five fundamental propositions that show its nomological network and its multidimensionality (cognitive, behavioural and emotional) ▪ Delineation of CE from relational concepts like participation and involvement
Brand Engagement (Hollebeek, 2011b)	▪ "Conceptualisation of customer brand engagement (CBE) as the level of a customer's cognitive, emotional and behavioural investment in specific brand interactions" (Hollebeek, 2011b, p. 555). ▪ Identification of immersion, passion and activation as three CBE themes
CE within a network (Brand communities) (Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016).	Empirical results that refine the nomological network of CE and reveal the "complex multidimensional and dynamic nature of CE" and that the process of CE involves "sub-processes reflecting consumers' interactive experiences within online brand communities, and value co-creation among community participants" (Brodie et al., 2013, p. 105)
Measuring CE (Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014)	Development and validation of a CBE scale in a particular social media context.
CE within service systems (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014)	Empirical results that provide four forms of customer engagement behaviour (CEB), focusing on customers within a service system and conceptualising the role CEB in value co-creation within service ecosystem.
Linking CE to S-D logic (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016)	Development of an integrative, S-D logic-informed framework of CE focusing on customer resource integration, knowledge sharing/learning as CE antecedents and customer individual/interpersonal operant resource development, co-creation as CE consequences.
Actor Engagement (Storbacka et al., 2016)	Conceptualisation of actor engagement as a micro-foundation for value co-creation in a service ecosystem context.
Valence of Actor Engagement (Li, Juric and Brodie, 2018)	Conceptual foundations of actor engagement valence. provision of propositions and research directions

Table 2-1: Key Studies on Developing CE as a Midrange Theory

As identified above, S-D logic offers a meta-theory capable of explaining interactive experiences and the co-creation of value (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011). The next section introduces and discusses S-D logic as a worldview, its roots, its axioms and its foundational premises (FPs). The section also highlights these axioms' conceptual fit to CE.

2.2 Service-Dominant Logic

2.2.1 An Evolutionary Perspective

Tracing the heritage and roots of how S-D logic has been understood, approached and conceptualised uncovers the pathways that lead to contemporary meaning (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). More than a decade ago, an initial collaboration by Vargo and Lusch (2004) offered an evolutionary perspective on a new dominant logic, recently termed S-D logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). In this collaboration, the authors identified a marketing thought that focuses on processes and demonstrates marketing evolution from its economic origins to comprise more social subjects (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2017).

Early marketing thinking has been highly descriptive of characteristics of goods, institutions and marketing functions, with a focus on outputs and the way institutions and marketing functions add value to commodities (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). Later, marketing management thought started to focus on customer satisfaction through market segmentation and targeting followed by making the best decisions in relation to the marketing mix (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2004; 2017). Starting in the 1980s, a dominant logic that conceives marketing as a persistent economic and social process has begun to emerge (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2004). With the emergence of the field of services marketing in the early 1990s, a broad marketing perspective has prevailed, involving not only exchanging manufactured goods but also services (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Merz, He and Vargo, 2009). This era witnessed a call for re-examining the relevance of the historical marketing management function to marketing theory and practice, thereby suggesting a paradigm shift for marketing theories that acknowledges the nature of marketing actors' relationships (Lusch and Vargo, 2014).

S-D logic views markets from a broader perspective rather than a traditional one that focuses solely on goods exchange (Chandler and Vargo, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). This logic represents a "convergence of contemporary thinking regarding market and economic exchange" (Lusch and Vargo, 2014, p. 49). In light of this, marketing and economic activities are best understood in terms of S-D logic's

core tenets (Brodie et al., 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). These core tenets are that service rather than goods is the basis of exchange and value is co-created rather than delivered by one actor (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017).

These core tenets have stimulated the debating views about S-D logic which has led few authors to suggest considerable care and caution when drawing from the perspective of S-D logic (e.g. Brown and Patterson, 2009; Venkatesh, Penaloza and Firat, 2006; Wilkie and Moore, 2006). However, these core tenets are not entirely new and imply that the development of S-D logic is grounded on a foundation built by many others rather than a radically new idea (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). For example, the concept 'service-for-service exchange' was conceived years ago by Bastiat and George (1964). Likewise, the concept of value creation was advocated by Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000) four years before Vargo and Lusch (2004). Importantly, these core tenets necessitate a shift from what is known as Goods-dominant (G-D) logic, which the next subsection discusses.

2.2.2 A Shift from Goods-Dominant (G-D) Logic

Basically, a shift from G-D logic arises out of various changes in thought (see Table 2-2), for instance, a shift from exchanging goods-for-goods or goods-for-money to service-for-service, the change in goods role as consignors of core competencies instead of mere end products, the customers role as active value co-creators rather than segmented recipients of goods, and the determination of value not by the producer but by the consumer (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2014). Marketing thought and practice have been limited as a result of their historical ties to G-D logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2014; 2017). Unlike S-D logic, this logic views value as something that firms create, distribute, promote and deliver to customers (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017) rather than emerging, being dynamic and being co-created with multiple actors (Akaka and Vargo, 2015; Vargo and Lusch, 2014; 2017). In contrast to G-D logic, which views goods as the source of value (Lusch, Vargo and O'Brien, 2007; Vargo and Lusch, 2008a), S-D logic primarily conceives the activities people do for themselves and others emanating from their competencies (e.g. knowledge, skills) as the source of value and thus the core of exchange (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011;

Vargo and Lusch, 2017), which is key for this thesis. Additionally, S-D logic offers a zooming out perspective that holistically and dynamically views value creation via service exchange among broader networks of stakeholders (Akaka and Vargo, 2015; Vargo and Lusch, 2016). Thus, it reveals more details than the dyadic level and enhances the understanding of phenomena at both the macro and micro levels (Chandler and Vargo, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017), which is also important to this thesis.

	Goods-Dominant Logic	Service-Dominant Logic
Primary unit of exchange	Customers exchange for goods	Customers exchange to acquire the benefits of specialised competencies or services.
Role of goods	Goods are end products. Marketers take matter and change its form, place, time, and possession	Goods are transmitters embedded knowledge; they are intermediate products that are used by customers as appliances in value creation processes
Role of customer	The customer is the recipient of goods and marketers segment them, distribute to them, and promote to them	The customer is a co-producer of service. Marketing is a process of doing things in interaction with the customer
Determination and meaning of value	Value is determined by the producer. It is embedded in the goods and is defined in terms of 'exchange-value'	Value is perceived and determined by the consumer on the basis of value-in-use. Firms can only make value propositions
Firm-customer interaction	Customers are acted on to create transactions with resources.	Customers are active participants in relational exchanges and coproduction
Meaning of relationship	Dyadic bonds represented by trust and commitment. Long-term patronage – repetitive transactions	Reciprocal, service-for-service nature of exchange. Co-creation of value. Complex networked structure of the market. Temporal, emergent nature of value creation. Contextual nature of value determination

Table 2-2: G-D logic versus S-D logic adapted from (Vargo, 2009, p. 376; Vargo and Lusch, 2004, p. 7).

Arguably, because of marketing thoughts and practice linkage to G-D logic, few authors have opposed the perspective of S-D logic based on prior views of 'services' (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). Confusions exist because of goods normative qualities and the attempt to view service more like goods (Vargo and Lusch, 2008a; 2008c). However, under S-D logic, service (singular) represents applying competencies to benefit another party (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). The use of the singular term as opposed to the plural one 'services' is purposive as it represents a shift from conceiving value in terms of static tangible resources or units of output (Vargo and Lusch, 2014).Therefore, confusion should not exist: goods are still important and

sometimes involved as transmitters of competences; however, service (singular) is superordinate (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2004; 2014). S-D logic is composed of specific key concepts. These are discussed in detail in the next subsection, highlighting how these features are relevant to CE's conceptual foundations.

2.2.3 Key Features of Service-Dominant Logic

The lexicon of S-D logic comprises specific key concepts (see Table 2-3): service, value co-creation, resource integration, operant/operand resources and value network (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Lusch, Vargo and Gustafsson, 2016; Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010; Vargo and Lusch, 2016). These key concepts relate to CE's conceptual foundations, reflecting customers' interactive, co-creative experiences with other actors within networked service relationships (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016).

Key Concepts	Definition
Service	"The application of specialised competencies (operant resources –knowledge and skills) through deeds, processes and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself" (Vargo and Lusch, 2008c, p. 26; 2017).
Value co-creation	"Value co-creation occurs through (social and economic) actors involved in resource integration and service exchange, enabled and constrained by institutions and institutional arrangements, establishing nested and interlocking service ecosystems of value co-creation, which serve as the context for future value co-creation activities" (Lusch, Vargo and Gustafsson, 2016, p. 2958).
Resource Integration	"A customer's incorporation, assimilation and application of focal operant and/or operand resources into the processes of other actors" (Hibbert, Winklhofer and Temerak, 2012, p. 248; Vargo and Lusch, 2008b; 2016).
Operant Resources	Core competencies which are employed to act on operand resources and other operant recourses (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2004).
Operand Resources	Resources on which an operation is carried out to produce an effect (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2004).
Value Network	"A spontaneously sensing and responding spatial and temporal structure of largely loosely coupled value proposing social and economic actors interacting through institutions and technology to: (1) co-produce service offerings, (2) exchange service offerings, and (3) co-create value" (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010, p. 20).

Table 2-3: Key Features of S-D Logic

Service

Under S-D logic, service, in its singular form, refers to applying competencies for self-gain or for benefiting others (Vargo and Lusch, 2017). According to S-D logic, service and goods are not alternatives (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). Service represents a broader concept underlying the process of exchange: service is commonly and fundamentally exchanged, however, goods aid the process of service offering (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2008c). Thus, service as a key feature of S-D logic is accurate and captures the essential meaning of actors contributing their resources for the benefit of other actors (Lusch, Vargo and O'Brien, 2007; Vargo and Lusch, 2008c).

Additionally, the designation of service has several implications for marketing practice and theory (Vargo and Lusch, 2008c). It provides a common denominator that simplifies the exchange model (Vargo and Lusch, 2008c; 2017). As opposed to the inherited marketing thought, 'service' has a unique marketing origin (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). It shifts marketing thoughts towards value-in-use rather than value-in-exchange (Lusch, Vargo and O'Brien, 2007; Vargo and Lusch, 2008c). Importantly, it focuses on resources rather than products, which is core to this thesis as, under S-D logic, customers contributing resources such as skills and knowledge are mutually creating value through service exchange (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017).

Value Co-creation

Under S-D logic, value is always co-created by actors, encompassing the beneficiary (Vargo and Lusch, 2016), whether the firms are willing or planned to do this or not. CE is viewed as occurring within these dynamic processes typified by the co-creation of value (Brodie et al., 2011). In this thesis, customers engaging in behavioural manifestations via the contribution of resources are doing this voluntarily, and not to follow the focal system imposed by the firms, which other concepts like prosumption and co-production illustrate. The term prosumption is a blend of production and consumption (Toffler, 1980). It refers to the situation where customers produce for themselves (Dujarier, 2014) (e.g. petrol pumps, automated teller machines (ATMs), e-ticketing, vending machines). Although involving

customers in self-service creates more value (Dong, Evans and Zou, 2008; Wikström, 1996), customers here do not contribute resources voluntarily, rather, they are obliged to do that based on the way the firm chooses to provide its service/product.

Co-production refers to the integration and application of resources contributed by focal firms and customers (Cabiddu, Lui and Piccoli, 2013; Hoyer et al., 2010); however, the firms decide the nature and the level of co-production (Ojasalo, 2010). For example, customers may collaborate in designing or assembling of products (Hoyer et al., 2010; Kristensson, Magnusson and Matthing, 2002; Wikström, 1996) and help in enhancing the offerings of firms. However, under S-D Logic, value co-creation is more sophisticated than a simple transfer of labour to customers. Under S-D logic value co-creation always occurs; hence, it is not something actors can 'opt out' of or outsource; conversely, co-production is 'optional' for the actor based on "expertise, control, tangible capital, risk-taking, psychic and economic benefits" (Lusch and Vargo, 2014, p. 144). Therefore, co-creation of value is superordinate where co-production is nested within.

An alternative view of co-creation by Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000); (2004a; 2004b) as jointly created by the company and the customer which enables creating an experiential atmosphere that involves active dialogue and personalised co-creative experiences. To facilitate co-creative experiences, the authors suggest "dialogue, access, risk-benefits, and transparency" (DART) as the basis for customer-firm interaction (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004a, p. 9). In support of this, several authors emphasise that dialogue enhances customer-firm relationships (Payne, Storbacka and Frow, 2007), which could be much difficult to occur when no access to information is made available to the customer (Ordanini and Pasini, 2008). Importantly, Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a) stress that dialogue, access and transparency enable customers to assess the risk and benefits of a course action before making a decision which would result in a better CE (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004b). In consistent with this, this thesis acknowledges that customers have access to much information through the internet; specifically they use online reviews as a main reference of information to reduce uncertainty before they make a

purchase decision (Anderson, 2012; Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017; Phelan, Chen and Haney, 2013; Wu et al., 2016).

Resource Integration

Integration of resources refers to the application of customers' resources into other actors' processes (Hibbert, Winklhofer and Temerak, 2012; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2008b; 2016). Resource integrators are actors that create resources by combining other resources to co-create value (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). Resources can be tangible (operand) or intangible (operant). Customers' knowledge, skills, time and experience are examples of operant resources that they contribute into purchase processes of other actors (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). According to Van Doorn et al. (2010), such contributed resources may directly or indirectly affect a focal firm or other customers, which is relevant to this thesis.

Under S-D logic, resource integrators represent social as well as economic actors (Vargo and Lusch, 2017), hence, suggesting that firms can consider customers as partners as they may help the firm through the integration of resource engaging favourably with a firm/brand product/service provider (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). Furthermore, CE behavioural manifestations (the focus of this thesis) affect co-creation of value via customer's contribution of resources towards other actors or service providers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014).

Operand /Operant Resources

Operand resources are tangible in nature on which an operation is carried out to produce an effect, while operant resources are intangible and dynamic; they are core competencies that are applied on operand resources and other operant resources (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Lusch and Vargo, 2014). For example, customers ordering a drink during a holiday are integrating operand resources (money) with a product or brand or service provider (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). Importantly, customers' application of operand/operant resources is essential to the development of CE (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). In this thesis, customers engaging in specific behavioural manifestations online are

integrating operand and operant resources (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). They use their computers (operand) to engage online with firm, brand or other actors via the contribution of their operant resources, such as their time, skills, knowledge and experience.

Value Networks

Value network is pivotal to S-D logic. A value network refers to a broad structure of actors with value propositions, interact for value co-creation purposes (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010). This notion can be also viewed as a service ecosystem to clearly represent its evolutionary and adaptive nature (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010). Within a value network, social and economic actors are "held together by the trinity of competences, relationships, and information" (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010, p. 21). Customers have competencies that they use to offer service to other actors, relationships and information that they share within networks. In this view, "the context of service, as well as value co-creation, is socially constructed through the exchange and application of operant resources (e.g. knowledge and skills) among multiple actors" (Akaka and Vargo, 2015, p. 456). In this thesis, customers sharing their experiences online within a network of other actors mutually create value through service exchange (Akaka and Vargo, 2015).

Overall, these key features specifically reflect the proactive co-creative role of customers as opposed to the traditional view of passive recipients (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Lusch, Vargo and Gustafsson, 2016; Vargo, 2008) and the co-creation of value through resource integration within "constellations of networked actors accessing or acquiring scarce resources" (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016, p. 8). Under S-D logic, engaged customers contributing operant resources such as their knowledge, skills, and experience in focal interactions are specifically offering others service for the purposes of value co-creation (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017), which, in turn, urges firms to permanently learn to serve in a value network (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010).

Logics are always based on premises and assumptions (Lusch and Vargo, 2014). The development of S-D logic is currently illustrated through eleven foundational premises (FPs), comprising the underlying structure of S-D logic based on five axioms shaping the foundation of S-D logic and providing a framework to view all actors within the exchange process (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). These axioms and FPs are summarised in Table 2-4 and discussed in the next subsection.

2.2.4 Axioms and Foundational Premises of Service-Dominant Logic

Axiom 1: Service is the fundamental basis of exchange

This axiom reveals that S-D logic is committed to competencies exchange, rather than tangible goods with an entrenched value (Merz, He and Vargo, 2009; Vargo and Lusch, 2008a; 2017), emphasising that actors exchange service for service rather than goods-for-goods or goods-for-money (Vargo and Lusch, 2017). In other words, the activities people do for themselves or others emerging from their specialised knowledge and abilities represent the underpinning value source and thus the core of exchange (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017) while goods act as exchange intermediaries to meet beyond functionality needs (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016). Axiom 1 exhibits a conceptual fit with CE (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). In this thesis, engaged customers within particular interactions provide service to others by contributing resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, experience, and time) for value co-creation purposes (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2011).

Axioms / FP's		Current Foundational Premise	Comment/explanation
Axiom 1	FP1	Service is the fundamental basis of exchange	The application of operant resources (knowledge and skills) is the basis for exchange
	FP2	Indirect exchange masks the fundamental basis of exchange	Service as a basis of exchange is not always explicit, being provided through sophisticated combinations of money, goods and institutions
	FP3	Goods are a distribution mechanism for service provision	Goods are valued via utilisation of service they offer
	FP4	Operant resources are the fundamental source of strategic benefit	The service provider also has the role of the beneficiary, given the reciprocal service exchange
	FP5	All economies are service economies	Service is clearer with more outsourcing and specialisation
Axiom 2	FP6	Value is co-created by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary	Creation of value is neither singular nor dyadic but rather a multi-actor interactional phenomenon
	FP7	Actors cannot deliver value but can participate in the creation and offering of value propositions	The acceptance of value propositions implies a continuing role by the associated actors, whether afforded through resources provided interpersonally or through goods
	FP8	A service-centred view is inherently beneficiary oriented and relational	Service is known in terms of benefit determination, hence, inherently oriented and rational
Axiom 3	FP9	All social and economic actors are resource integrators	The context of value is networks of networks
Axiom 4	FP10	Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary	Value is idiosyncratic, experiential, contextual and meaning-laden
Axiom 5	FP11	Value co-creation is coordinated through actor-generated institutions and institutional arrangements	Value co-creation is represented by the reciprocity of exchange and the existence of the shared institutions that facilitate this exchange

Table 2-4: Foundational Premises of S-D logic based on (Vargo and Lusch, 2016, p. 8).

Axiom 2: Value is co-created by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary

This axiom reveals that usual inclusion of the beneficiary in the co-creation of value, which reflects the increasing proactive co-creative role of customers. Moreover, it shows that co-creation of value takes place via multiple actors "involved in resource integration and service exchange, establishing nested and interlocking service ecosystems of value co-creation, which serve as the context for future value co-creation activities" (Lusch, Vargo and Gustafsson, 2016, p. 2958). This implies the transcending nature of service relationships (Lusch, Vargo and Tanniru, 2010; Vargo, 2009) and value co-creation via integration of resources

(Akaka and Vargo, 2015; Hibbert, Winklhofer and Temerak, 2012; Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). In light of this axiom, service is seen to provide customer benefits via mutual value creation with other stakeholders within service relationships by virtue of interaction (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016), which is at the core of this thesis.

Axiom 3: All social and economic actors are resource integrators

Resource as a concept is used to discuss economic and social exchange; however, S-D logic views resources as "what actors can draw on for support" (Lusch and Vargo, 2014, p. 119). Resource integrators are actors that create and apply operant or operand resources into other actors' utility brand/firm related optimisation processes to co-create value (Hibbert, Winklhofer and Temerak, 2012; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Lusch and Vargo, 2014). This axiom identifies all economic and social actors as resource integrators (Vargo and Lusch, 2016). This shows the occurrence of value creation in networks (Brodie et al., 2011) and suggests that firms consider customers as partners via the integration of their specialised skills and knowledge (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017).

Axiom 3 is central to the development of CE given that resource integration occurs by virtue of interaction with the intention of value creation (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). For example, customers engage through viral marketing activities and provide referrals or recommendations to others about products and services (Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010), which may help the firm in developing their offerings (Hoyer et al., 2010) and, in turn, co-create value (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Their contributed resources (e.g. skills, knowledge, time, money and actions) can, directly and indirectly, affect other actors (Van Doorn et al., 2010). This is at the core of this thesis and will be discussed in more detail in section 2.5.

Axiom 4: Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary

This axiom reveals that ultimately the beneficiary determines and uniquely assesses value (Vargo and Lusch, 2017). It implies that each service exchange creates a different experience and consequently a unique value assessment by the beneficiary (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016) as the contexts alter the way actors integrate resources (Chandler and Vargo, 2011). This axiom specifically emphasises the contextual, experiential, and subjective nature of the co-creation that is also applicable to CE (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). In this thesis, the positive or negative valence of customers' behavioural manifestations reflects customers' evaluation of the focal service as good or bad (Brady et al., 2006). In light of this, the final assessment of interactions exists in the customer's mind; subsequently, it might not be fully controlled by the firm (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016).

Axiom 5: Value co-creation is coordinated through actor-generated institutions and institutional arrangements

The essential role institutions play to understand the processes of value co-creation from the perspective of S-D logic ecosystems, specifically underpins the addition of this axiom (Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). Institutions represent the "humanly innovated integrated resources that are continually assembled and reassembled to provide the structural properties" (Vargo and Lusch, 2016, p. 17). This axiom explicitly combines the concepts of networked actors and service systems in S-D logic (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Koskela-Huotari and Vargo, 2016). Service systems view interactions among people, organisations, shared information and technology as driving forces for value co-creation (Akaka and Vargo, 2015). Similarly, service ecosystems focus on the influence of interactions within networks of actors and technology on experience; however, they also emphasise the importance of institutional arrangements (in this thesis are set by TripAdvisor) that guide focal interactions and the determination of value (Akaka and Vargo, 2015; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). Central to CE, this axiom reflects the interactivity within networked actors, relationships and stakeholders' value-co-

creation intentions (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). This notion is central to this thesis as it uses TripAdvisor as an online context to study how customers engage in NVIB within a network and the impact of engaging in NVIB on other actors within that network.

2.2.5 Interactive, Co-Creative Experiences in the Axioms of S-D Logic

Under S-D logic, the first and the second axioms reflect that service is conceived as a generator of benefits to customers via mutual value creation with other actors' within service relationships by virtue of interactions (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). Additionally, the respective axioms show that the activities people undertake for themselves or others emerging from their specialised knowledge and abilities are the underpinning value source and thus the core of exchange (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). For example customers sharing their experiences online are engaging in a behavioural manifestation via the contribution of their operant resources such as their knowledge, skills, time and experience, thereby providing service to other actors for value co-creation purposes (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2011).

The second axiom specifically focuses on value as always created by the beneficiary, which reflects the increasingly proactive co-creative role of customers. Moreover, it shows the co-creation of value through the integration of resources among multiple actors (Akaka and Vargo, 2015; Hibbert, Winklhofer and Temerak, 2012; Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). Similarly, the third axiom shows that value creation takes place within networks (Brodie et al., 2011) and suggests that firms consider customers as partners via the integration of their specialised skills and knowledge (Lusch and Vargo, 2014; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). For example, customers engage through viral marketing activities and provide referrals or recommendations to others about products and services (Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010), which may help the firm in developing their offerings (Hoyer et al., 2010) and, in turn, co-create value (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). The fourth axiom specifically implies that the final assessment

of interactions exists in the customer's mind; subsequently, it might not be fully controlled by the firm (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). For example, positive or negative valence of customers' behavioural manifestations reflects the way customers perceive a service as good or bad (Brady et al., 2006). Finally, the fifth axiom reflects interactivity within networked actors, relationships and stakeholders' value co-creation intentions (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016).

As identified earlier in this section, marketing has experienced a shift in conceiving customers as interactive and capable of co-creating value, rather than passive recipients of value and organisational strategies (Brodie, Hollebeek and Conduit, 2016; Brodie et al., 2011; Kumar et al., 2010). The concept of CE enables capturing the nature of customers' interactive co-creative experiences (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011). The next section addresses CE, starting with the roots of engagement followed by conceptualisations of CE, its fundamental propositions (FPs), and its antecedents, consequences and dimensions.

2.3 Customer Engagement (CE)

2.3.1 Roots of Engagement

In the last two decades, the 'engagement' notion has yielded a considerable attention within multiple academic disciplines. For instance, 'social engagement' has been studied in psychology, 'engagement of nation-states' in political science, 'civic engagement' in sociology and 'employee and stakeholder engagement' in organisational behaviour (cf. Achterberg et al., 2003; Catteeuw, Flynn and Vonderhorst, 2007; Crawford, LePine and Louis Rich, 2010; Greenwood, 2007; Huo, Binning and Molina, 2009; Jennings and Stoker, 2004; Mondak et al., 2010; Noland and Phillips, 2010; Resnick, 2001). Table 2-5 summarises the key engagement studies in various disciplines, illustrating definitions, key findings and the identified dimensionality of engagement.

Discipline/Construct and Authors	Definition/key findings	Dimensionality
Sociology Civic engagement (Jennings and Stoker, 2004)	Involvement in voluntary organisations and the performance of volunteer work, facilitating the development of social networks. Civic engagement levels are impacted upon to a significant extent by the Big Five Personality dimensions	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Political science State engagement (Resnick, 2001)	Iterative process aiming to influence political behaviour of a target state through maintained contacts with that state across multiple issue areas (e.g. diplomatic, economic) and focused on generating a relationship of increasing interdependence	Behavioural
Psychology - Social Engagement (Achterberg et al., 2003)	A high sense of initiative, involvement and adequate response to social stimuli, participating in social activities, interacting with others	Behavioural
Psychology - Task Engagement (Huo, Binning and Molina, 2009; Matthews et al., 2010)	Represented by group identification and group-oriented behaviour. Effort or active striving Vigilance performance on a particular task; attention resource availability, sustained attention and alertness	Emotional and Behavioural
Psychology - Occupational Engagement (Bejerholm and Eklund, 2007)	A lifestyle characteristic that describes the extent to which a person has a balanced rhythm of activity and rest, a variety and range of meaningful occupations or routines and the ability to move around society and interact socially. Levels may vary along a continuum	Cognitive and Behavioural
Educational Psychology Student Engagement(Bryson and Hand, 2007)	On a disengaged-engaged continuum, a student may exhibit differing engagement levels to a particular task/assignment, module, course of study and higher education	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Student Engagement (London, Downey and Mace, 2007)	Students' academic investment, motivation, and commitment to their institution; perceived psychological connection, comfort and sense of belonging toward their institution. Engagement comprises institutional, situational and individual aspects	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Organizational Behaviour Employee Engagement (Frank, Finnegan and Taylor, 2004)	Employees' desire or willingness to give discretionary effort in their jobs in the form of extra time, brainpower/energy (includes cognitive, affective, and behavioural aspects)	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Employee Engagement (Catteeuw, Flynn and Vonderhorst, 2007)	The degree to which employees are satisfied with their jobs, feel valued and experience collaboration and trust. The result is a high performing, productive company	Cognitive and Emotional
Employee Engagement (Luthans and Peterson, 2002)	To be emotionally engaged is to form meaningful connections with others (e.g. co-workers/managers) and to experience concern or empathy for others' feelings. Being cognitively engaged refers to the degree of awareness of an employee's mission and role in the work environment. Behavioural engagement plays a lesser role	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Employee Engagement (Saks, 2006)	The amount of cognitive, emotional and physical resources an individual is prepared to devote in the performance of his or her work roles. Result is contingent on the economic and socio-emotional resources received from the organisation	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Employee Engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008)	A broad construct consisting of state, trait and behavioural forms that connote a blend of affective energy and discretionary effort directed to one's work and organisation	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural
Employee Engagement (Crawford, LePine and Louis Rich, 2010)	Harnessing of organisation members' selves to their job roles by which they employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances.	Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural

Table 2-5: Key Engagement Studies in Multiple Disciplines based on (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 256-266)

Predominantly within these disciplines, the concept of engagement has been presented as a multidimensional concept with a considerable variation in its tripartite dimensions (cognitive, behavioural and emotional) across engagement contexts and subjects or objects (Brodie et al., 2011). Additionally, the concept of engagement has been viewed to occur within broader iterative processes of engagement, distinguished by focal interactions or experiences between engagement subjects and objects with levels that are developing over time based on favourable interactions that foster these levels.

2.3.2 Conceptualisations of Customer Engagement

Despite the considerable attention paid to the notion of "engagement" across multiple academic disciplines, customer engagement (CE) concept only emerged in the marketing literature relatively recently (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Van Doorn, 2011) as a core concept that has an impact on customer experiences and values and the performance of organisations (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Brodie et al., 2011; Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Solem and Pedersen, 2016). CE was acknowledged as a top-tier research priority for the 2016-2018 period by the Marketing Science Institute (MSI, 2016).

On the practical side, firms have recognised the imminent need to foster CE and are devoting resources to strategically steer CE (Harmeling et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2010; Pansari and Kumar, 2017). This is to avoid lost opportunities as a result of ignoring CE (Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010), such as connection and emotional bonding with a focal firm, trust and loyalty (Bowden, 2009b; Brodie et al., 2013; Van Doorn et al., 2010), product recognition, favourable word-of-mouth (WOM), referrals (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Scott and Craig-Lees, 2010), undervaluation of customers (Kumar et al., 2010), and misallocation of resources across customers (Kumar et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010).

In less than a decade, research on CE has grown rapidly within the literature of marketing. Key contributions in this area include the conceptualisation of CE and

the development of its fundamental propositions (FPs) (Brodie et al., 2011), the conceptualisation of CE sub-forms and theoretically related concepts, including 'customer engagement behaviour' (CEB) (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010), 'actor engagement' (Storbacka et al., 2016), 'customer disengagement' (Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015), 'brand engagement' (Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Sprott, Czellar and Spangenberg, 2009),'online reviewer engagement' (ORE) (Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017), 'audience engagement' (Scott and Craig-Lees, 2010), 'media engagement' (Calder, Malthouse and Schaedel, 2009), 'social media engagement behaviour' (SMEB) (Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016), and 'online brand communities engagement' (OBCE) (Bowden et al., 2017; Brodie et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017; Wirtz et al., 2013).

The majority of CE conceptualisations were informed by a range of management, psychology, social science and organisational behaviour research (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014). Existing definitions of CE and its sub-forms have similarities; however, inconsistencies exist (Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016). Importantly, CE has been observed to have components such as the level of customer concentration (dedication) on a brand or firm, a sense of belonging, the level of investment in interaction with a specific object or brand, and the two-way customer-firm/brand/object communication, along with experiential and instrumental values (cf. Higgins, 2006; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2011b; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006). Table 2-6 provides additional CE conceptualisations within the marketing literature.

	Customer Engagement	Typologies/ Examples
Kumar et al. (2010)	Customers increase (reduce) value of firms in many ways apart from direct transactions	Customer influencer behaviour (e.g. word of mouth) Customer knowledge behaviour (e.g. feedback and ideas for innovations and improvements)
Van Doorn et al. (2010)	Beyond-transactions customer behavioural manifestations driven by motivational triggers	Blogging, web posting. Customer referral behaviour (e.g. referrals). Customer-to-customer interaction. Feedback, suggestions for new products ideas. Organizing public actions against a firm. Recommendations, referrals, word of mouth. Writing reviews
Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft (2010)	A behavioural manifestation towards the brand or firm that goes beyond transactions	Blogging. Co-creation with new product development activity. Providing customer ratings. Customer-to-customer interactions
Brodie et al. (2011)	A psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/object (e.g., a brand) in focal service relationships	Cognitive/Emotional/Behavioural
Hollebeek (2011b)	The level of an individual customer's motivational, brand-related state typified by levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity in direct brand interactions	Cognitive activity (e.g. level of concentration and /or engrossment in the brand). Emotional activity (e.g. level of brand-related inspiration and/or pride). Behavioural activity (e.g. level of energy exerted in interacting with a focal brand)
Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	Beyond the purchase, events and activities engaged in by the consumer that are not directly related to search, alternative evaluation and decision making involving brand choice	Feedback to marketers, consumers, and society. Participation in activities (e.g. skill development activities and events, creative events, online activities, product innovation and development events, workshops). Word of mouth
Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)	Customer engagement behaviour through which customers make voluntary resource contributions that have a brand or film focus but go beyond what is fundamental to transactions	Augmenting behaviours (e.g. posting content on social media, inventing, alternating alternate uses for products). Co-developing behaviour (e.g. customer support, ideas for new or improved products, involvement in product development and innovation). Influencing behaviour (e.g. word of mouth, blogging, recommendations, referrals, customer-to-customer interaction). Mobilising behaviours (e.g. recruitment, boycotts)
Verleye, Gemmel and Rangarajan (2014)	Voluntary customer behaviours with a firm or brand focus	Cooperation (e.g. providing information and assistance to employees); feedback (e.g. suggestions for product improvements, participation in new product development); helping other customers (e.g. encouraging other customers to show appropriate behaviours, helping others to have better service experiences); positive recommendations, referrals
Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen (2016)	A customer's motivationally driven, volitional investment of focal operant/operand resources into brand interactions in service systems	Customer resource integration. Customer knowledge sharing (e.g. sharing information or experience with others). Customer learning (e.g. customer socialization, education, training, post-purchases learning)
Pansari and Kumar (2017)	The level of connectedness among customers, between customers and employees, and of customers and employees within a firm	Customer purchases (e.g. posting content on social media, inventing alternate uses for products). Customer referrals. Customer influence (e.g. word of mouth). Customer knowledge (e.g. feedback and ideas for innovation and improvement)

Table 2-6: Examples of CE Conceptualisations adapted from (Harmeling et al., 2017, p. 315-316)

Brodie et al. (2011) provide the first attempt at an overarching definition identifying interactive experiences between customers and firms or brands as a core feature of CE (Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010). The authors view CE as "a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive customer experiences with a focal agent/object such as a firm or a brand" (Brodie et al., 2011, p.260), which this thesis acknowledges for several reasons. Firstly, unlike other definitions of CE, this broader definition portrays CE in a generic rather than a context-specific way and extends beyond conceptualisations that focus on behavioural or experiential aspects of CE (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011). Secondly, this definition positions CE within a transcending perspective of relationships (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Vargo, 2009). This is necessary when a study's aim is to "consolidate knowledge about the conceptual domain of CE" (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011, p. 284). Without this perspective of relationships, CE cannot be viewed as theoretically different from traditional concepts (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011).

Finally, this definition delineates CE from traditional relational concepts such as "involvement" and "participation" since they fail to comprehensively reflect interactive, co-creative experiences as CE does (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011). For instance, unlike involvement, CE requires the satisfaction of instrumental and experiential values (Mollen and Wilson (2010). Furthermore, CE transcends a simple demonstration of a state or attitude (Brodie et al., 2011), as referred to involvement by Cermak, File and Prince (1994). While CE requires the occurrence of customer's interaction with a specific firm/service/product, the "conceptual scope of involvement, which is focused on interest and personal relevance, does not require the undertaking of any specific interactions per se" (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014, p. 63). In addition to this, CE involves interactive relationships of customers with focal engagement objects where the concept of involvement represents an antecedent (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011).

Similarly, CE is distinct from participation. Customer participation refers to customers' actions during service production or delivery (Lovelock and Wirtz, 2011) and is considered to be at the core of service delivery as it enhances service quality and value perceptions (Auh et al., 2007; Ordanini and Pasini, 2008). Levels of customers participation could be gained according to Bitner et al. (1997) through payment and physical presence only or through assisting the firm to deliver superior service (e.g. assisting in preparing a tax return report) or through working with firms to co-produce a focal service (e.g. education, training, healthcare). In light of this and even with high levels of participation, CE differs from participation as it fails to represent the voluntary disposition nature of CE (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Moreover, participation represents an antecedent of CE rather than a dimension (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011) and it does not capture either interactive or co-creative experiences as CE does (Brodie et al., 2011).

Overall, extant conceptualisations reflect beyond purchases customers' tendencies to invest in undertaken interactions with the focal engagement brand or firm (Brodie, Hollebeek and Conduit, 2016; Brodie et al., 2011; Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016). However, most conceptualisations of CE signal positive outcomes as CE is considered to generate outstanding attainments to organisational performance, yet, little is known regarding its negative side, especially empirically (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Additionally, the variation in defining CE reveals a difference in understanding the notion which resulted in the nebulosity of the conceptual nature and dimensionality of CE and its sub-forms in the literature to date (Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017).

2.3.3 Fundamental Propositions of Customer Engagement

CE's conceptual nature can be explained by drawing on a broader perspective of marketing relationships that offers a transcending view of relationships capable of addressing customer experiences that are interactive and co-creative in nature

(Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011). S-D logic offers this transcending view that is opposed to the transactional traditional perspective of marketing relationships (Vargo, 2009; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017) and recognises that:

> "Specific consumer behaviour outcomes are generated by customers' particular interactive, value co-creative experiences with organizations and/or other stakeholders" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 253).

From the perspective of S-D logic, along with extending and refining insights obtained from reviewing practitioner, social science and management literature, Brodie et al. (2011) develop five fundamental propositions (FPs) in developing a general definition of CE. Recently, these FPs have been revised by Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen (2016) to explicitly integrate the concept of CE with S-D logic, which this section will incorporate with the original FPs, providing at the end of the section a discussion on the commonalities and differences between the revised and the original FPs.

FP1: CE is a psychological state, which occurs by virtue of interactive customer experiences with a focal agent/object within specific service relationships

This FP highlights the fundamentality of interactive experiences (Brodie et al., 2011) and reflects CE's "interactive experiential nature inherent in specific service relationships" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 259). These interactive experiences occur between customers and focal objects (e.g. firms, brands, product and services) or other actors within focal service relationships (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2011b), whereby customers voluntarily invest operand (e.g. equipment) and operant resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, time, experience) into brand/firm-related interactions within service systems (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). This concurs with the perspective of S-D logic, additionally, suggests that CE occurs within broad networks of stakeholders and, therefore, extends beyond customer-to-customer dyad (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016).

FP2: CE states occur within a dynamic, iterative process of service relationships that co-create value

CE's conceptual roots exist in the broader view of S-D logic (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011), which focuses primarily on interactive, co-creative experiential processes arising from specific interactions within the context of service relationships (Vargo, 2008). Such co-created value "may contribute to the ensuing outcomes of customer loyalty and it includes perceived customer/firm communications, service delivery, and/or dialogue" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 259). According to Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen (2016), value co-creation is considered a beneficial outcome of CE since the development of operant resources (e.g. knowledge and skills) can be interpersonally spread through knowledge sharing. This FP also reveals the iterative dynamic nature of CE, which suggests that the relational concepts that act as CE consequences might appear as its antecedents within sequent CE processes over time (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011).

FP3: CE plays a central role within a nomological network of service relationships

CE is a relational concept operating not in isolation but rather within a broader nomological network that include other relational concepts acting as CE antecedents or consequences:

> "Required relational CE antecedents include 'participation' and 'involvement', which may also extend to coincide, or occur concurrently, with CE. Other potential relational antecedents may include 'flow' and 'rapport'. CE relational consequences may include 'commitment', 'trust', 'self-brand connections', consumers' 'emotional attachment' to focal brands, and 'loyalty'" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 260).

What is noteworthy is that this nomological network underpins CE conceptualisation within most of the extant studies, where negative and positive engagement have been conceptualised as two opposite forms of the same construct underpinned by the same nomological elements (cf. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). This thesis acknowledges that negative engagement should be underpinned by different nomological elements than trust, rapport, brand attachments, etc. (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013). These nomological elements signal positive rather than negative engagement, which

provokes a need for a distinct conceptualisation of negatively-valenced engagement underpinned by a different nomological network composed of elements that connote negative rather than positive engagement. Furthermore, identifying a nomological network for negative CE will further verify and advance literature on CE (Brodie et al., 2011). Table 2-7 shows the definitions of the relational concepts within the CE nomological network and its relationship to CE as identified by Brodie et al. (2011). Subsequently, section 2.3.4 will illustrate in more detail various studies that identified more antecedents and consequences of CE in addition to these concepts.

Relational Concept	Definition	Relationship to CE
Involvement	An individual's level of interest and personal relevance in relation to a focal object/decision in terms of his or her basic values, goals and self-concept (Mittal, 1995)	CE antecedent required prior to the expression of a customer's relevant engagement level
Participation	The degree to which customers produce and deliver service (Bolton and Saxena-Iyer, 2009)	CE antecedent required prior to the expression of customer's CE level
Flow	A state of optimal experience characterised by focused attention, clear mind, mind and body unison, effortless concentration, complete control, loss of self-consciousness, distortion of time, and intrinsic enjoyment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990)	May act as a CE antecedent in specific contexts, including online environments
Rapport	Perceived level of harmonious, empathetic, or sympathetic connection to another (Brooks, 1989)	May act as a CE antecedent for existing customers in specific contexts; May also act as a CE consequence
Customer satisfaction	An overall evaluation based on the total purchase and consumption experience with a good/service over time (Johnson and Fornell, 1991)	'CE behaviour' antecedent for experienced and/or existing customers (Van Doorn et al., 2010). May act as a CE consequence for new customers
Commitment	An ongoing relationship with a specific another party so as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it (Morgan and Hunt, 1994)	CE consequence of a potentially positive relationship (Saks, 2006). CE antecedent for existing customers (Bowden, 2009a). 'CE behaviour' antecedent for existing customers (Van Doorn et al., 2010)
Trust	Consumer-perceived reliability in brand interactions and the belief that the brand acts in consumers best interests (Rotter, 1967)	CE consequence for new customers; CE antecedent for existing customers (Bowden, 2009b). 'CE behaviour' antecedent for existing customers (Van Doorn et al., 2010)
Self-brand connection	The extent to which individuals have incorporated brands into their self-concept (Escalas, 2004)	Potential CE consequence, which may develop based on customers' specific interactive brand experiences
Emotional brand attachment	Emotion-laden, target-specific bond between a person and a specific brand (Thomson, MacInnis and Park, 2005)	Potential CE consequence, which may occur as the result of a customer's specific, interactive brand experiences
Loyalty	Repeated purchases prompted by a strong internal disposition over a given period of time (Guest, 1944)	Potential CE consequence (Bowden, 2009a; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006)

Table 2-7: The Nomological Network of CE (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 261)

FP4: CE is a multidimensional concept subject to a context- and/or stakeholder-
specific expression of relevant cognitive, emotional and behavioural
dimensions

In the marketing literature, conceptualisations of CE exhibit cognitive, behavioural and emotional dimensions (e.g. Bowden, 2009b; Brodie et al., 2011; Higgins, 2006; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006); while other conceptualisations focus either on cognitive and emotional dimensions (e.g. Mollen and Wilson, 2010) or on the behavioural dimension (e.g. Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012). Recently, Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen (2016) add the social dimension for its particular relevance within service systems (e.g. brand communities), thus conceptually aligning with S-D logic's fifth axiom. The relative importance of CE dimensions varies according to the "situational contingencies under which CE is observed" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 260), which results in the emergence of different CE levels of intensity or complexity (Brodie et al., 2011).

FP5: CE occurs in a specific set of situational conditions, generating differing
CE levels

This FPs highlights the context-dependence feature of CE (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). For example, CE expressions online differ compared to offline environments (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie et al., 2013). CE and its contextual nature are inseparable and ignoring the context leads to misunderstanding the nature and purpose of CE itself (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016), as this contextual contingency may cause variations in the impact of specific customer manifestations of CE, in terms of intensity and valence (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). Specifically, valence can be negative or positive, and the negative aspect has remained overlooked in research (Hollebeek et al., 2016; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

This FP also highlights the generation of different CE levels that exist on a continuum ranging from:

"Non-engaged (absence of interactive experience), marginally engaged (somewhat cognitively, emotionally, and/or behaviourally engaged in a specific interactive experience), engaged (broad levels of cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural CE in a particular interactive experience), and highly engaged (high levels of cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural engagement in a specific interactive experience)" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 260).

It is noteworthy that customer non-engagement occurs either before CE with a focal object or after it is terminated, while this may also happen during a dormancy (temporarily inactive) state of CE (Brodie et al., 2011).This implies that non-engagement and dormancy are considered disengagement rather than forms of negative engagement.

Collectively, the five FPs provide the foundation for a general definition of CE as a psychological state that takes place via interactive, co-creative experiences of customers with firms or brand within service relationships (Brodie et al., 2011). This "psychological state occurs under a specific set of context-dependent conditions generating differing CE levels; and exists as a dynamic, iterative process within service relationships that co-create value" (Brodie et al., 2011, p. 260). This well-accepted definition is applicable across different situations and broad enough to involve any contextual-based expressions of CE (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011). Moreover, it delineates CE from other traditional relational concepts (Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011). Fundamental to CE is the central role of the interactive co-creative experiences of customers (Brodie, Hollebeek and Conduit, 2016; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). As previously mentioned, CE has its theoretical roots within the broad S-D logic lexicon (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). This broad transcending perspective delineates CE from other relational concepts as their roots reside within narrower perspectives of marketing relationships (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011).

Although the five FPs have been developed using S-D logic (Brodie et al., 2011), further theoretical development of CE is provided by Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen (2016) to explicitly consolidate CE and S-D logic. Insights from this study are addressed above in this section and Table 2-8 summarises the FPs devised by Brodie et al. (2011) and the revised ones.

Brodie et al.'s (2011) original FPs of CE	Revised, S-D logic informed FPs of CE
FP1: CE reflects a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive customer experiences with a focal agent/object within specific service relationships	**FP1**: CE reflects a customer's motivationally driven volitional investment of specific operant and operand resources into brand interactions in service systems
FP2: CE states occur within a dynamic iterative process of service relationships that co-create value	**FP2**: The CE benefits of customer individual and interpersonal operant resource development and co-creation result from CE within service systems
FP3: CE plays a central role within a nomological network of service relationships	**FP3**: The CE foundational processes of customer resource integration, knowledge sharing and learning represent either necessary (i.e. for customer resource integration), or conducive (i.e. for customer knowledge sharing/learning) factors for the development of CE in service systems
FP4: CE is a multidimensional concept subject to a context- or stakeholder-specific expression of relevant cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions	**FP4**: CE reflects a customer's investment of focal cognitive, emotional, behavioural and social resources during, or related to, specific brand interactions in service systems
FP5: CE occurs within a specific set of situational conditions, generating differing CE levels	**FP5**: CE is contingent on focal context-specific characteristics in service systems. Customer manifestations (including intensity and valence) of CE, the CE foundational processes and CE benefits may thus vary across contextual contingencies

Table 2-8: Original and Revised FPs of CE (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016, p. 12).

In the main, the revised FPs use terminologies associated with S-D logic (e.g. operand/operant resources, resource integrations, etc.). Specifically, the revised FP1 explicates the interactive experiences with reference to the volitional investment of operand/operant resources into interaction. The revised FP2 explicitly conceives value co-creation as a benefit of CE, which is also reflected in the original one. However, the revised FP2 does not refer to the dynamic iterative nature of CE processes that occur within service relationships. This specific iterative nature underpins why some relational concepts act as CE consequences then as antecedents thereafter.

Similarly, the revised FP3 identifies customer resource integration, knowledge sharing and learning as nomological elements for developing CE in a service system which differs from the original FP3, as it does not mention the central role CE plays in this nomological network. Moreover, the revised FP3 specifies certain elements these are: knowledge sharing, learning and resource integration. However, the

original FP3 refers to the central role CE plays within a nomological network without specifying elements of this network. This makes the nomological network more generic, ergo; adding more elements to this network will not change the meaning of the related FP. Elaborating on the multidimensionality nature of CE, the revised FP4 mentions the original tripartite dimensions and added a social dimension to align with S-D logic institutions' fifth axiom. Finally, the revised FP5 builds on the contextual contingency and identifies variations that are stated in the original one.

Accordingly, rather than selecting or focusing on one version of FPs, this thesis acknowledges the incorporation of the original and the revised FPs. This is to capitalise on the more explicit focus on networks (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016) and the use of S-D logic terminologies demonstrated by the revised FPs which might serve to develop a better understanding of the theoretical associations of CE with S-D logic (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016), however, without changing CE's conceptual foundations reflected in the original FPs specifically within FP2 and FP3.

As earlier identified in this section, CE plays a pivotal role within a nomological network where other relational concepts act as its antecedents or consequences. Accordingly, the next sub-section discusses the antecedents and consequences of CE as identified by various studies in this field.

2.3.4 Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Engagement

CE operates in a nomological network of service relationships along with other relational concepts that act as its antecedents and consequences (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011). Antecedents that must occur prior to CE are called 'required' and include involvement and participation (Brodie et al., 2011; Ng, Plewa and Sweeney, 2016; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012). Other relational concepts that act as potential antecedents in specific contexts include flow and rapport (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011b; Ng, Plewa and Sweeney, 2016).

On the consequences side, CE relational concepts, such as trust, commitment, loyalty, satisfaction, self-brand connection, emotional bonding, customer value and customer empowerment, may rise within specific CE processes (Bowden, 2009b; Brodie et al., 2011; 2013; Hollebeek, 2011b; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Ng, Plewa and Sweeney, 2016; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006; Saks, 2006; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012). However, due to the iterative dynamic nature of CE process within service relationships, some CE consequences may act as antecedents thereafter such as satisfaction, commitment, trust and rapport as shown in Table 2-9 (Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011).

Relational Concept	Authors	CE Antecedent / Consequence
Involvement	Brodie et al. (2011) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	CE required antecedent
Participation	Brodie et al. (2011) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	CE required antecedent
Flow	Brodie et al. (2011)	Potential CE antecedents (specific contexts, e.g. online environments)
Rapport	Brodie et al. (2011) Hollebeek (2011) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016)	Potential CE antecedent – existing customers CE consequence – new customers.
Commitment	Brodie et al. (2011; 2013) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016) Saks (2006) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	CE consequence
	Van Doorn et al. (2010)- CEB Bowden (2009)-Existing Customers	CE antecedent
Trust	Brodie et al. (2011) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	CE consequence – new customers
	Van Doorn et al. (2010)- CEB Bowden (2009)- Existing customers	CE antecedent
Loyalty	Bowden (2009) Brodie et al. (2011; 2013) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016) Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter (2006) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	Potential CE consequence
Customer Satisfaction	Brodie et al. (2011; 2013)	CE consequence – new customers
	Brodie et al. (2011) – existing customers Van Doorn et al. (2010) - CEB	CE antecedent
Customer Value	Hollebeek (2011) Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	Potential CE consequence
Self-brand Connection	Brodie et al. (2011; 2013) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	CE consequence as a result of consumer's interactive brand experiences.
Emotional Brand Attachment	Brodie et al. (2011; 2013) Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012)	CE consequence as a result of consumer's interactive brand experiences
Customer Empowerment	Brodie et al. (2013) Ng, Plewa and Sweeny (2016)	CE consequence

Table 2-9: Antecedents and Consequences of CE

From this table, it is observed that the role the respective relational concepts play as antecedents or consequences of CE suggests their conceptual difference from CE (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011). As mentioned earlier, due to the iterative nature of service relationships, some CE relational consequences may act as CE antecedents afterwards, specifically for existing, as opposed to, new customers

(Bowden, 2009b; Van Doorn et al., 2010). For example, relational concepts such as satisfaction, commitment and trust act as CE and CE 'behaviour' antecedents for existing customers (Bowden, 2009b; Van Doorn et al., 2010) but as CE consequences for new ones (Brodie et al., 2011; Ng, Plewa and Sweeney, 2016; Saks, 2006; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012). Similarly, rapport acts as a potential CE antecedent for existing customers while act as CE consequence for new ones (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011; Ng, Plewa and Sweeny, 2016).

As with antecedents and consequences, the dimensions of CE also show some inconsistency within existing conceptualisations. This is discussed in detail in the next sub-section.

2.3.5 Dimensions of Customer Engagement

Typically, CE's multidimensionality is expressed via the tripartite dimensions of cognitive, emotional and behavioural investment in a focal interaction with an engagement object (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Nonetheless, variations in conceptualising CE in the marketing literature have been observed, specifically regarding the number of dimensions (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016). Although most of the conceptualisations of CE exhibit its cognitive, behavioural and emotional dimensions (e.g. Bowden, 2009b; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006), there are other conceptualisations that largely focus on the emotional dimension (e.g. Scott and Craig-Lees, 2010; Sprott, Czellar and Spangenberg, 2009) or the behavioural dimension (e.g. Gummerus et al., 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010). These variations might relate to CE's contextual contingency as the exhibition of specific dimensions may differ across contexts (Brodie et al., 2011).

Both cognition and emotions interplay to induce an individual's behaviour (Bigné, Mattila and Andreu, 2008). The three dimensions capture different levels of

customers' investments in interaction with a focal engagement object (Brodie et al., 2011). The emotional dimension captures customers' experienced emotions related to an engagement focus, the cognitive dimension captures customers' experienced active mental states and the behavioural dimension captures customers' actions beyond purchase with respect to an engagement focus (Brodie et al., 2011; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

It is noteworthy that within the majority of extant studies on CE, these dimensions are captured signalling positive rather than negative engagement despite the existence of negative expressions of the concept (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn, 2011). For example, enthusiasm and enjoyment refer to captured customers' experienced emotions (Hollebeek, 2011a; Hollebeek, 2011b; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006) while recommending and referring refer to captured customers' activities and behaviours (Gummerus et al., 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010).

In summary, CE's five FPs provide the foundation for its general definition that is applicable to various situations and delineates the concept from other traditional relational concepts. These relational concepts exist within a nomological network where CE plays a central role while other relational concepts act as CE's required or potential antecedents and/or consequences. The theoretical roots of CE reside within the broad perspective of S-D logic, which offers a meta-theory capable of explaining interactive co-creative customers' experiences. While CE is predominantly multidimensional, variations in its conceptualisation are observed due to variations across contexts.

Despite the existence of CE negative expressions, most of the research on CE has focused on its positive side with little remains known, particularly in an empirical sense regarding negatively-valenced customers' manifestations within broader networks, which are expected to incur negative ensuing outcomes, yet have yielded limited insights to date (Bowden et al., 2017; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek,

Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Additionally, there is a need to distinctively conceptualise negative engagement (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016) as most of the existing studies (cf. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014) have conceptualised negative engagement as opposed to positive engagement, underpinned by the same nomological elements (e.g. trust, loyalty, rapport, flow…etc.). However, negative engagement should have a different underlying nomological network (Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013) that connotes negative rather than positive engagement.

CE behavioural expressions are often captured through the term 'customer engagement behaviour' (CEB), which was initially coined by Van Doorn et al. (2010) to refer to beyond-transactions customers' behavioural manifestations that result from triggers. The next section introduces and discusses CEB, specifically its dimensions, triggers, forms and outcomes.

2.4 Customer Engagement Behaviour (CEB)

CEB represents the behavioural dimension of CE according to Van Doorn et al. (2010) that refers to customers' behavioural manifestations that extend beyond transactions and result from triggers. Understanding CEB has become one of the top priorities for firms and a new research perspective in marketing and service management (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; MSI, 2016; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010). Despite its influencing power and relationship to key outcomes for firms, such as loyalty, lifetime, and shareholder value (Brodie et al., 2013; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verleye, Gemmel and Rangarajan, 2014; Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012), the majority of studies address consumers' specific positively valenced engagement behaviour, thus largely overlooking the negative side and its ensuing implications (Bowden et al., 2017; Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Informed by the macro perspective of S-D logic, this thesis views CEB through which customers voluntarily contribute resources (e.g. skills, time, knowledge and experience) beyond

transactions and resulting from triggers (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010).

Beyond-transactions behavioural manifestations (Van Doorn et al., 2010) differ from many close extant concepts, for example, co-production (e.g. ATM, vending machines) and more general scripted forms of behaviour (e.g. IKEA assembly instructions) (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016). These concepts are rarely voluntary, being a core element within the service transactions whereby activities are firm-driven, seeking the help of the customers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). However, customers are viewed exogenously through CEB, driven by their own unique purposes rather than those dictated by firms (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Moreover, CEB can be positively or negatively-valenced, and, hence, either rewarding or harmful for firms (Brodie et al., 2011; 2013; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

2.4.1 Dimensions of Customer Engagement Behaviour

Dimensions of CEB are necessary to understand the ways customers may choose to engage with focal objects which, in turn, promotes an understanding of the nature of the concept itself (Van Doorn et al., 2010). There are five dimensions of CEB (see Table 2-10) – valence, modality, scope, nature of the impact, and customer goals – as identified by Van Doorn et al. (2010). The five dimensions are discussed in this section along with examples that show their relevance to this thesis.

Regarding valence, which is at the core of this thesis, it refers to the positive or negative characteristics of emotion or behaviour based on theories of emotion (Colombetti, 2005). For example, positive valence refers to approaching, retaining, tolerance and acquisition while negative valence refers to withdrawal, escape, refusal and aggression (Lewin, 1935; Schneirla, 1959). The valence of behaviour reflects the extent to which particular service outcomes are perceived by customers as good or bad and is considered challenging for being uncontrollable in most instances (Brady et al., 2006).Additionally, its importance lies in its potential impacts: the positive (negative) valence of behaviour might have favourable (detrimental) long-term

financial, relational and reputational consequences on brands or firms (Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010), for example, increased distrust in brands and a deterioration in the focal firm's reputation and perceived brand image (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Despite its potential detrimental consequences, the majority of studies have focused on positively-valenced and largely overlooked negatively-valenced engagement behaviours (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), which this thesis addresses.

CEB Dimension	Justification
Valence	▪ Can be positive or negative ▪ Positively valenced CEB are those actions that have positive consequences (financial and nonfinancial) either in the short or the long run and the opposite goes for negatively-valenced ▪ Several customer actions may turn out to be positive or negative for the firm based on the valence of the content
Modality or Form	Different ways expressed by customers (e.g. complaining, offering useful suggestions or advice to other customers or salespersons within a store)
Scope (Temporal & Geographic)	▪ CEB can be temporary or ongoing ▪ Geographic scope of CEB may be local (WOM delivered in person) or global (posting on a global website)
Nature of Impact - Immediacy of Impact - Intensity of Impact - Breadth of Impact - Longevity of Impact	▪ *Immediacy of impact*: how quickly CEB affects any of the constituents. Thus, the immediacy of internet-based CEBs may be faster than writing a letter to a store manager ▪ *Intensity of the impact*: level of change affected within the target audience ▪ *Breadth of the impact*: the number of people affected. Thus, spending an hour – in person – to convince a close friend why he or she should buy a particular brand of automobile has narrow breadth but high intensity ▪ *Longevity of the impact* may depend on several factors such as the ability to codify and preserve the activity in some form. For instance, if one posts an online review at a website that is routinely visited by people, the review will have more longevity since it is likely to be there for a long period of time, as opposed to in-person WOM, which may be likely forgotten
Customers' Goals	Consumers may choose to *voluntarily* assist other consumers in a retail setting. Or they may *identify a need* and develop a new free smartphone application. They may *impulsively* make a recommendation to a stranger about a product or service. Overall, if customers' goals are aligned with the firm's goals, then CEB should have a positive overall impact on the firm.

Table 2-10: Dimensions of CEB based on (Van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 255).

Modality of CEB refers to the various ways in which customers can engage in CEB. For example, a focal customer may join an event on behalf of a certain firm or brand via the contribution of time, money and effort (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Other modalities may take the form of complaining (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016) or advising other actors about a product/brand/firm/service provider (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010) which is the focus of this thesis, or even extend to help the company by offering advice on miswritten tag prices on a product in a store or call

the company to raise issues that occur during consumption for improvement and enhancement of their offering (Van Doorn et al., 2010).

Scope as a dimension of CEB addresses its temporal and geographical natures. Therefore, CEB can be momentary or ongoing, local or global (Van Doorn et al., 2010). The scope may be "determined by the modality and form used by consumers" (Van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 255). For example, when customers post their suggestions to improve a focal offering on a popular website, the geographical impact is predicted to be widespread and the opposite applies if the modality is local. The impact of CEB on the firm can be viewed in terms of its immediacy, intensity, breadth and longevity (Kumar et al., 2010; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). For example, online CEB- the research context of this thesis- demonstrates a faster immediate impact reaching a large number of people (breadth), with a probable higher level of change within targeted audience (intensity). Further, longevity of impact may depend on preserving the activity (Van Doorn et al., 2010). For instance, if a customer posts an online review on a website or forum that is regularly visited by numerous users (e.g. TripAdvisor), the review will have greater longevity as it will probably remain for a long period of time as opposed to offline modality. Accordingly, the choice of channel is expected to strengthen or weaken CEBs' focal impact:

> "In a digital world with high level of customer connectivity to many constituents and audiences, the immediacy, intensity, breadth, and the longevity of the impact of CEBs should only rise and in ways that require careful research and conceptualization. To the extent consumers can engage through multiple channels: in person, peer to peer, in person in a retail setting, via the Internet (text, photo, video, or application), via phone, mail, or e-mail" (Van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 255).

The last dimension of CEB is customers' purpose, which, when aligned with the firm's goals, will result in a favourable impact on the firm, while, if these purposes are not consistent with the firm's goals, CEB may have more negative consequences (Van Doorn et al., 2010). For example, a customer identifying a need and developing a new free smartphone application demonstrates aligned purposes with the focal firm. However, a customer's purposes and the firms' goals are misaligned and will lead to unfavourable impacts on the firm if they write a bad review about a focal

brand/firm/product/service provider (Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010) which is the focus of this thesis.

2.4.2 Triggers, Outcomes and Forms of Customer Engagement Behaviour

Triggers of Customer Engagement Behaviour

Customers' positively and negatively-valenced CEBs are induced by triggers (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Predominantly within the reviewed literature, these triggers are categorised as customer-related and firm-related (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Customer-related triggers include satisfaction, a sense of brand commitment/attachment, trust, good relationships with the brand or firm and customers' need for improving a focal offering. These are facilitated by communication with firms or providers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). In addition to customer goals that might be firm or brand-related (e.g. maximising benefits from consumption), they might be unrelated to the brand or product experience (e.g. helping others with suggestions) and rely on the customer's resources (e.g. evaluation of costs and benefits of engaging in specific behaviours) (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verleye, Gemmel and Rangarajan, 2014).

Firm-related triggers include the actual characteristics of the brand or firms and how these are perceived by customers (e.g. perceived actions, responsiveness, quality, value and promise) (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010). For instance, if a brand or firm with a high reputation fails, the negative impact in terms of CEB may be higher compared to brand or firm with a lower reputation (Van Doorn et al., 2010). Another firm-related driver is access, which is considered a central factor driving CEB; firms may facilitate access via developing engagement platforms and welcoming the involvement of customers in the service system (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010). For example, through engagement platforms a customer's interactions are accessible and visible to the broad breadth of the audience; the customer's contribution of resources enacted

within their shared contents facilitates dialogue, and, therefore, value-generated interactions among multiple actors (Breidbach and Brodie, 2016; Frow et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2010; Ramaswamy and Ozcan, 2016), thus increasing the chance for firms to engage proactively with their customers (Malthouse et al., 2016).

Few studies have approached the negative valence of engagement, specifically brand engagement and online brand communities (OBC), claiming that customers are triggered by their feelings of hatred, anger and stress towards a service provider, brand or firm (Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017). Hollebeek and Chen (2014) provided a typology of triggers that elicit customers to engage in positively or negatively-valenced brand engagement. These triggers are perceived brand action, quality, value, innovativeness, responsiveness and delivery of promises. Notably, these triggers are not specified as positive and negative; instead, they are related to the trigger being perceived favourably or unfavourably, which, consequently, would result in positive or negative engagement. However, a typology of triggers that elicit customers to engage in negatively-valenced CEBs remains scant in the literature, but it is a typology that this thesis provides (Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016).

Outcomes of Customer Engagement Behaviour

CEBs accrue outcomes for customers, firms and other actors (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Engaged customers contribute resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, time and experience) to other actors and the firm (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2016; 2017). This reduces purchase decision risks (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014) or adds to a firm's offering or facilitates product or service development (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Hoyer et al., 2010; Kristensson, Magnusson and Matthing, 2002), thus benefiting both customers and other actors from improved offerings (Hoyer et al., 2010; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Nonetheless, such a contribution of resources may also shape other actors' expectations, knowledge and preferences and, thus, actions towards a service provider, brand or firm which this thesis empirically investigates (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004; Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander,

2014; Mohd-Any, Winklhofer and Ennew, 2015). This, in turn, may affect the value of the firm or brand based on the valence (positive/negative) of CEBs shared via this contribution of resources (Brodie et al., 2013; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

Customers generate value to the firm through various means besides their purchase behaviours. For example, they can refer, encourage and share their experience with other prospects; moreover, their ideas to the firms can be innovative and promote improvements of services or products (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Brodie et al., 2013; Hoyer et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Pansari and Kumar, 2017), thus, potentially enabling firms to provide unique products or services that are beneficial and save costs (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2009). However, CEB within the extant literature usually signals favourable rather than unfavourable outcomes. A limited number of studies particularly on customer brand engagement indicate detrimental outcomes, such as brand image deterioration (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), spillover effect on other customers (Bowden et al., 2017), increased distrust in brands and detraction from the overall service value (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016). Despite the existence of negatively-valenced CEB, its potential ensuing outcomes have yielded limited insights in the research to date, specifically in the empirical sense, which this thesis provides (Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016).

Forms of Customer Engagement Behaviour

The existing research on forms of CEB is limited but draws together a range of customer behaviours beyond transactions that have 'implications for value creation' for customers, firms, and other actors (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016, p. 1). In an attempt to holistically understand CEBs and their role in the co-creation of value, Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) aggregated pre-existent fragmented customer activities beyond normal transactions. Table 2-11 provides details of the types of CEB, mentioning examples and justifying the reasons for each type. These include customer participation in product development (Hoyer et al., 2010; Kristensson, Magnusson and Matthing, 2002) as co-developing behaviour and customers'

interactive activities that affect other actors (Brodie et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Verhagen, Nauta and Feldberg, 2013) as influencing behaviour.

CEB Type	Definition	Examples	Reasons for engagement
Co-developing Behaviour	Customer contributions of resources to facilitate a firm's development of its offering	Providing ideas for new products, participating in design contests and serving in customer panels or as members in innovation team	Dissatisfaction with an existing offering, a desire to enhance the development of products/services that better fulfil needs. Financial rewards and gaining technology-related knowledge
Influencing Behaviour	Customer contribution of resources to affect other actors' perceptions, preferences, or knowledge regarding a firm	Word-of-mouth (WOM), e-WOM, recommendations, and referrals, testimonials, online reviews	Reward or punish a firm for a given service, reciprocate experience by recommending a provider or warning others not to transact with this provider, to telegraph expertise and generate publicity
Augmenting Behaviour	Customer contribution of resources to directly augment and add to a firm's offering beyond transaction	Customers acting on their own initiative to adapt, modify and create new uses or content surrounding a focal firm or brand	To benefit adapted products/services, social benefits and intellectual value through C2C interaction
Mobilizing Behaviour	Customer contributions of resources to mobilise other stakeholders' actions towards a firm	Boycotting of certain products. Use social media to force firms to listen to customers' needs	Forcing firms to change a decision. Gathering support and recognition around a common cause

Table 2-11: CEB types (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016, p. 6-10)

Furthermore, the authors identify two additional types, augmenting behaviour, which relates to customer contributions of resources to augment and add to firms' existing offerings, and mobilising behaviour, which relates to customer contributions of resources to mobilise the actions of other actors towards specific focal firms. As indicated earlier, this thesis focuses on one of the types of CEB, namely, influencing behaviour which next section introduces.

2.5 Influencing Behaviour

Influencing behaviour is one form of CEB, which is defined as follows:

> "Customer contributions of resources such as knowledge, experience, and time, to affect other actors' perceptions, preferences, or knowledge regarding the focal firm" (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014, p. 256)

Influencing behaviour can be positive or negative (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010).This thesis focuses on negatively-valenced

influencing behaviour (NVIB), using the above definition to guide the empirical study.

The explosive growth of the internet, has led to the dramatic rise in the influence of customers and a shift in the locus of control from firms to customers (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Kozinets, 2002; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2016). Accordingly, customers' online influencing behaviours are becoming increasingly influential in the service industry (Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Kumar et al., 2010; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; Libai et al., 2010; Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017; Mohd-Any, Winklhofer and Ennew, 2015). Customers can use online contexts to share experiences, recommend service providers or firms or warn other actors against focal providers (Blazevic et al., 2013; Brodie et al., 2013; Libai et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

Influenced by the opinions and choices of other customers about products and services, customers rely on each other to get authoritative information to alleviate purchase decision risks rather than depending solely on communications provided by firms (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Lee et al., 2011; Libai et al., 2010). Their shared experiences, whether positive or negative, represent an act of contributing resources (e.g. knowledge, experience, skills and time) into other actors' purchase processes, which potentially adjusts their expectations of service providers and consequently the way they evaluate the value of offerings (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Bolton and Drew, 1991; Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Oliver, 1980; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993).

'Influencing behaviour' broadly describes the contribution of resources by one customer to a group of other customers with the potential to change their preferences, expectations and actual purchase behaviour (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Customers engage in influencing behaviours via contribution of resources in order to affect the ways in which other actors behave, feel and think about the focal firms and service providers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). To

do this, customers can use different communication tools, such as WOM, e-WOM, referrals, recommendations, online reviews, blogging and mobile apps to share this influencing behaviour (Azer and Alexander, 2018; Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). It is clearly claimed in social psychology research that the influencing agent (e.g. the customer) uses media to share specific behaviour with the intention of influencing the cognition, behaviour and emotions of other actors towards a certain cause or object (Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). Customers may, therefore, use different communication tools each time they engage in influencing behaviour or engage in different forms of influencing behaviour, but still use the same communication tool to share these (Azer and Alexander, 2018).

Recently, customers' online interactions have increasingly involved images, video-logging (V-logging) and clicking 'likes' (Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Souza et al., 2015), which are naturally attention-grabbing and more effective at influencing other actors than electronically communicated statements (Souza et al., 2015). The term 'influencing behaviour' can broadly represent the myriad of activities that customers do to influence other actors, whether these activities are textual or visual. Accordingly, in agreement with other authors (e.g. Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014), this thesis posits 'influencing behaviour' as a superordinate term within which a range of activities such as WOM, e-WOM, blogging, referrals, online reviews and mobile apps are contained.

Given the online context of this thesis, the next subsections start by discussing the digitisation of WOM, showing the differences between WOM and e-WOM, the main factors that influence the adoption of both by their receivers and the theoretical foundations of prior e-WOM studies. Subsequently, the sections approach the types of e-WOM, specifically online reviews, ending with the main research gap in this literature stream.

2.5.1 The Digitisation of WOM

Research on WOM conceives it as a communication tool used by customers to exchange marketing information (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955). It can be positive or

negative and it is characterised as informal, spontaneous, altruistic and interpersonal (Sahelices-Pinto and Rodríguez-Santos, 2014). The influence of WOM communication has been well recognised (Arndt, 1967; Herr, Kardes and Kim, 1991; King and Summers, 1970); customers perceive WOM as more trustworthy and persuasive than traditional media (e.g. print ads, personal selling, radio and TV advertising) (Cheung and Thadani, 2012). Predominantly, research in this area stresses the importance of the credibility of the source and considers this the core of the influence of WOM (Feick and Price, 1987). Hence, the higher influence of opinion leaders (Feick and Price, 1987; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Libai et al., 2010), in addition to the tie-strength between the seeker and source, which is considered to enhance the persuasiveness of the information communicated (Gilly et al., 1998).

Another factor that appears in this research stream and has an impact on the acceptance of the exchanged WOM between a sender and a receiver is utilitarian value, which refers to the recipient's belief that a certain product or service may provide benefits (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Feick and Price, 1987; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955). Finally, there is the factor of homophily, which involves a message being more persuasive when given by similar others (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld, 2008).

The emergence of the internet has facilitated the development of WOM online – that is, e-WOM (Chu and Kim, 2015) – which refers to positive or negative product- or service-related statements electronically communicated by individuals and made available to a myriad of people (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). Within CE and CEB literature, authors have referred to e-WOM as a social transmission (Kumar et al., 2010); an example of customer's influencing behaviour (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014); a marketing outcome (Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012); an activity of CEB (Brodie et al., 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010); and an action of brand dialogue behaviour (Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016) (see Table 2-12).

Authors	e-WOM
(Kumar et al., 2010)	A social transmission that might influence the transmitters' and receivers' behaviour
(Brodie et al., 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010)	e-WOM, C2C interactions and blogging are CEB activities
(Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012)	A marketing outcome among other outcomes of engaging customers, such as receiving value, loyalty and share of wallet
(Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014)	An example of influencing behaviour among other examples, such as referrals, recommendations and blogging
(Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016)	A style of communication categorised under influencing/mobilizing behaviour among other communication styles, such as user-generated content, and offering trial to network
(Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016)	An action included in brand dialogue behaviour

Table 2-12: E-WOM as viewed in the CE and CEB literature

As with WOM, within the e-WOM research stream, there are key factors known to be associated with the communicator and affecting the adoption of focal e-WOM messages by the receivers (see Table 2-13).

Construct	Definitions	Studies
Source Credibility	Message source's perceived expertise or motivation to provide accurate and trustable information	(Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Cheung et al., 2009; Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009)
Reviewers' Motives	Attribution of the reviewers' motives in positing the review	(Lee and Youn, 2009; Sen and Lerman, 2007; Wu et al., 2016)
Social Tie	The level of intensity of a social relationship between communicators	(Steffes and Burgee, 2009)
Utilitarian Value	The benefit from getting purchase- or consumption-related advice	(Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010)
Homophily	The degree to which pairs of communicators are similar in age, gender, education and social status	(Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Steffes and Burgee, 2009)

Table 2-13: Factors associated with the communicator, adapted from (Cheung and Thadani, 2012, p. 466)

Source expertise and credibility, recipient utilitarian value, tie-strength between the source and the recipient and homophily have also been considered to affect the acceptance and persuasiveness of e-WOM (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; Reichelt, Sievert and Jacob, 2014; Trusov, Bodapati and Bucklin, 2010), which explicitly reflects a dyadic relationship between the sender and receiver, and consequently provides an incomplete view as different customers may influence each other in many ways, even anonymously (Libai et al., 2010).

There are, however, differences between the online and the offline contexts (see Table 2-14), and hence between WOM and e-WOM, owing to the anonymity of online identity (Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Huang, Hsiao and Chen, 2012; Meuter, McCabe and Curran, 2013). Specifically, the credibility of source and source/recipient tie-strength in WOM rely on the fact that the source is known (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Kim et al., 2016; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014).Conversely, in the online context identity may be anonymous, and accordingly customers assess the credibility of the message transmitted based on the credibility of the forum or website or engagement platform (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Choi et al., 2016).

	WOM/Offline Context	E-WOM/Online Context
Mode	Usually oral or verbal one-to-one communication Simultaneous communication	Various online forms of one-to-one and one-to-many communication Simultaneous and non-simultaneous
Receivers	Individuals	Individuals, small groups and public
Senders	Identifiable and accountable	Identifiable or unidentifiable
Scope	Geographical and temporal constraints	Limited geographical and temporal constraints
Connection between senders and receivers	Strong ties	Weak ties
Diffusion speed	Slow	Fast

Table 2-14: Differences between offline and online contexts (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016, p. 529)

WOM and e-WOM also differ in terms of other dimensions. E-WOM communications possess a much greater speed of diffusion (Avery, Resnick and Zeckhauser, 1999; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Dellarocas, 2003; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014; Li and Hitt, 2008; Steffes and Burgee, 2009) with a higher breadth and longevity of impact compared to WOM (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Libai et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010). WOM is exchanged in private conversations between individuals, which makes it rather difficult to pass this information on to any other individuals who were absent when this information was exchanged (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014). On the other hand, the online context where e-WOM is exchanged makes it easier for all

communicators to be aware of this information, with no need to be present at the same time as the information is initially provided (Karakaya and Ganim Barnes, 2010).

In contrast to WOM, communications of e-WOM are more persistent and accessible, given the archiving of customers' shared information on the Internet and hence its indefinite availability for a myriad of actors (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Hung and Li, 2007; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Park, Lee and Han, 2007; Sen, 2008). Finally, they differ in terms of the salience of valence (King, Racherla and Bush, 2014); with WOM, the main source of valence is the communicated message, hence misinterpretation is likely, while with e-WOM, customers can assign a numerical rating which makes the valence of a sender's opinion easier to interpret (Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014).

Although these differences contribute to the uniqueness of e-WOM compared to WOM, a lack of consistency exists in current research. To illustrate, there are contradicting views about the credibility of source and tie-strength between senders and receivers, with authors contrasting their influence on the adoption of e-WOM (Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; De Bruyn and Lilien, 2008; Trusov, Bodapati and Bucklin, 2010; Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels, 2009) with their influence on the adoption of WOM but not e-WOM because of the anonymity of online users (Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Cheung and Lee, 2012; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Libai et al., 2010). Additionally, although the presence of ratings makes interpreting the valence of a sender's opinion easier with e-WOM compared to WOM (Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006), conflicting views also exist regarding the effect of customer ratings (Reinstein and Snyder, 2005; Sawhney and Eliashberg, 1996), while other studies claim the sole impact of valence (Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008). Finally, the persuasiveness of messages given by similar others, which according to prior research are more persuasive and lead to higher impacts (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Brown and Reingen, 1987; Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld, 2008; Reichelt, Sievert and Jacob, 2014), has shown no impact within e-commerce compared to social media and tourism platforms (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Choi et al., 2016).

2.5.2 Theoretical Foundations

Theoretically, the majority of prior e-WOM studies have drawn from theories such as theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behaviour, interpersonal theory, equity theory, theory of risk-taking, social presence theory, sociolinguistic theory, complexity theory, and attribution theory. However, unlike this thesis, none of the extant studies have drawn from the perspective of S-D logic. Table 2-15 provides more theoretical foundations of prior e-WOM studies.

Theory	Studies
Dual Process Theory	(Cheung et al., 2009; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Zhang and Chen, 2008)
Interpersonal Theory	(Cheung et al., 2009; Huang, Hsiao and Chen, 2012; Park and Lee, 2009)
Attribution Theory	(Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Sen and Lerman, 2007)
Negative Bias	(Cheung et al., 2009; Park and Lee, 2009)
Social Presence Theory	(Kumar and Benbasat, 2006)
Social Ties	(Steffes and Burgee, 2009)
Sociolinguistic Theory	(Awad and Ragowsky, 2008)
Trust Literature	(Awad and Ragowsky, 2008; Liu and Zhang, 2010; Liu and Park, 2015)
Source Credibility Literature	(Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Cheung et al., 2009; Park, Lee and Han, 2007; Sahelices-Pinto and Rodríguez-Santos, 2014; Senecal and Nantel, 2004)

Table 2-15: Theoretical Foundations of prior e-WOM studies adapted from (Cheung and Thadani, 2012, p. 463).

According to S-D logic, service is conceived as a generator of benefits to customers via mutual value creation with other actors within service relationships by virtue of interactions (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). Additionally, the activities that people undertake for others, emerging from their specialised knowledge and abilities, are the underpinning value source and thus the core of the exchange (Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). By studying influencing behaviour from this perspective, this thesis views customers sharing their experiences online as engaging in a behavioural manifestation via the contribution of their own resources such as their knowledge, skills, time and experience, thereby providing a service to other actors for value co-creation purposes (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2011).

Notably, any theories that have been used to frame studies of e-WOM rarely adopted the same perspective, instead, exploring individually customer motivations to use e-WOM (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004) (see section 2.5.4). However, drawing from S-D logic, what customers do to benefit other actors (by virtue of interactions) demands more focus than any individual motivations. Under S-D logic customers engage in influencing behaviour with the intention to influence other actors' knowledge, perceptions and expectations towards service providers (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016); thereby providing service to other actors for value co-creation purposes (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014).

2.5.3 Types of E-WOM Communications

Previous research has investigated several types of e-WOM communications, such as discussion forums (Andreassen and Streukens, 2009; Cheung et al., 2009), UseNet groups (Godes and Mayzlin, 2004), online reviews (e.g. Abubakar and Ilkan, 2016; Berezina et al., 2015; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Filieri, 2015; Filieri, Alguezaui and McLeay, 2015; Sparks, So and Bradley, 2016; Zhang, Zhang and Yang, 2016); blogs (e.g. Dhar and Chang, 2009; Kozinets et al., 2010; Thorson and Rodgers, 2006; Verma, 2014) and social networking sites (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels, 2009). Although the literature in this area is rich, the broad range of platforms, coupled with the myriad of methods used to study them, has led to fragmentation and inconsistency in the findings of the extant literature (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014). In particular regarding factors associated with the communicated e-WOM messages (e.g. valence, volume and rating). These factors have been given much attention in this research stream, specifically for their effect on the impact of online reviews (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014). Given the focus of this thesis, section 2.5.6 discusses the existing views in details alongside prior research findings in terms of the impact of negative e-WOM.

Online Reviews

Recently, customers have begun to increasingly use online reviews as a major source of information (Anderson, 2012; Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017; Phelan, Chen and Haney, 2013; Wu et al., 2016) affecting 20% to 50% of purchase decisions (Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017). Based on recent market research, 77% of customers read online reviews before booking a hotel, 50% refer to online reviews before selecting a restaurant and 35% adjust their entire plans based on reviews (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016b; WorldTravelMarket.com, 2014). Importantly, online reviews are becoming extensively influential in today's global service industry (Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Libai et al., 2010; Mathwick and Mosteller, 2017; Mohd-Any, Winklhofer and Ennew, 2015; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2016). They have the potential to affect the bottom line of a firm or service provider (Wu et al., 2016) as an improvement in the online reputation of a service provider or firm can lead to a significant increase in their revenues (Anderson, 2012). Given the focus of this research, this section proceeds with discussing research on online reviews within tourism related web communities.

Previous research has examined the impact of online reviews on trip planning (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Berezina et al., 2015; Gretzel and Yoo, 2008) and on hotel performance (Phillips et al., 2015; Ye, Law and Gu, 2009). Other studies have considered the importance of hotels' responses to online reviews (Sparks, So and Bradley, 2016; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013); consumers' motivations to read or post online reviews (Bronner and de Hoog, 2010; Wu et al., 2016); the effects of review valence (Filieri and McLeay, 2014; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017; Sparks and Browning, 2011); reviewer's expertise (Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009; Zhang, Zhang and Yang, 2016); reviewer's identity (Liu and Park, 2015; Xie et al., 2011) and source credibility (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Choi et al., 2016; Zhang, Wu and Mattila, 2014). Table 2-16 illustrates recent key findings in this regard, with an emphasis on negative reviews.

Authors	Key findings
Racherla and Friske (2012)	Negative reviews are perceived to be more useful than either extremely positive or moderate reviews.
Ayeh, Au and Law (2013)	Source credibility has a strong influence on attitude but weak direct effect on behavioural intention. Homophily drives credibility perceptions and attitudes.
Berezina et al. (2015)	Customers are inclined to specifically seek negative reviews because negative information is considered as being more diagnostic and informative.
Sparks, So and Bradley (2016)	The provision of an online response (versus no response), especially to negative reviews, enhances inferences that potential consumers draw regarding the business's trustworthiness.
Wu et al. (2016)	Powerless consumers are more likely to post positive reviews when the forum consensus is also positive. Conversely, powerful consumers are more likely to post negative reviews when the overriding consensus is positive.
Zhang, Zhang and Yang (2016)	As the reviewing expertise level of a traveller increases, the traveller posts more negative ratings.
Lee, Jeong and Lee (2017)	Negative reviews are more helpful when customers read online reviews for their future stay. However, when negative emotions are expressed, the impact of negative reviews diminishes.

Table 2-16: Recent key findings of studies on travellers' online reviews

Despite research in this area, not much is known about several key points. Firstly, most existing research ignores the heterogeneity of e-WOM (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). In other words, the current research provides insights about what customers say about a product, brand, firm or service in their online reviews, but 'it would be valuable to also capture how they say it, which is not provided in literature' (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010, p. 317), however, this thesis addresses the issue. Secondly, a major limitation of existing research on e-WOM is the lack of consistent findings regarding the impact of e-WOM (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). Specifically, customers' evaluation of online reviews, which subsequently affects the impact of these reviews, is considered an area that merits further research (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). This is because the extant research shows contrasting findings about customers' evaluation of the valence of an online review compared to focal aggregate rating and the volume of juxtaposed positive or negative messages (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hollebeek et al., 2016; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014). These are discussed in detail in section 2.5.6 and empirically approached by this thesis.

Thirdly, the analysis of most of the extant studies assumes an aggregate impact of online reviews, with the underlying assumption that all e-WOM messages are

equal in terms of their impact (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010), although according to King, Racherla and Bush (2014), this impact may differ with some messages have a stronger impact than other. This is new to the literature and another aspect that this thesis empirically approaches. Finally, previous studies have largely focused on positive e-WOM (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Kim et al., 2016). Those studies that concentrate on negative e-WOM have primarily addressed its impact, notwithstanding the findings are inconclusive (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). This has resulted in a lack of understanding of how customers talk about a brand, firm or service in their reviews and what triggers them to spend their time sharing their experiences with others within an online environment (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2016). The following subsections discuss triggers, forms and outcomes of influencing behaviour in relation to existing literature and highlight research gap in particular regarding NVIB which is the focus of this thesis.

2.5.4 Triggers of Influencing Behaviour

Customers' online influencing behaviours are preceded by experienced triggering events that affect the valence of their shared content (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Research reveals that customers triggered by unfavourable or favourable consumption experiences (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010) might engage in negatively- or positively-valenced influencing behaviour to reward or punish a firm (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014) or to recommend others to or warn them from transacting with a focal provider (Blazevic et al., 2013; Libai et al., 2010).

Although triggering events can be simple or complex (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016), research in the area of CEB has revealed triggering experiences as being generally satisfying or dissatisfying. However, triggers affect the valence of behaviour and, hence, their complexity or simplicity. For instance, Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter (2006) point to the existence of more potent triggers, such as depriving customers of their fundamental human needs (e.g. security, justice and self-esteem) compared to dissatisfying levels of service. This implies the existence of various

triggers with different potency levels that might differently affect the valence of behaviour.

It is noteworthy that triggers are distinct from motivational factors; triggers are "perceived and experienced by customers as critical events" (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016, p. 282) while motivational factors are unique individually-based reasons to generally engage in online activities (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). The majority of extant research has explored customers' motivational factors to engage in online, beyond-transactions, behavioural manifestations within research streams on CE and parallel ones on e-WOM. These include concern for others, self-enhancement, advice-seeking, realising social/economic/hedonic benefits, social/personal integration, helping the company, utilitarian motive, the pleasure derived from sharing information and a desire to help others (cf. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Gummerus et al., 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Ng, Plewa and Sweeney, 2016; Verhagen et al., 2015; Walsh, Gwinner and Swanson, 2004; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004).

On the negative side, this research stream also conveys that consumers communicate negative e-WOM for various reasons, including venting negative feelings, cognitive dissonance reduction, anxiety reduction, vengeance, revenge, face concern and reappraisal (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Berezina et al., 2015; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Sundaram, Mitra and Webster, 1998; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). These are all predominantly the result of self- rather than other-serving motivations (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016), while the intention of engaging in NVIB, as identified in its theoretically derived definition, is to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions towards focal service providers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014).

NVIB is a new concept whose triggers have not been searched adequately; however, studies on service relationships have explored their negative side and identified a number of triggers that antagonise customers. These triggers include misuse of information, privacy invasion, unjust favouritism and financial exploitation, (Frow et al., 2011). Additionally, studies in the e-WOM research stream have claimed that generally negative emotions, such as a feeling of injustice

triggered by an unsatisfactory consumption experience, increase the likelihood of producing negative e-WOM (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Ladhari, 2007; Maute and Dubes, 1999; Riegner, 2007; Söderlund and Rosengren, 2007; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). Likewise, within the CE and CEB literature, a few studies have approached the negative valence of engagement, showing that customers are triggered by their feelings of hatred, anger and stress towards a service provider, brand or firm (Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017). This is in addition to a typology of triggers provided by Hollebeek and Chen (2014) that elicit customers to engage in positively (negatively)-valenced brand engagement based on favourable (unfavourable) perceived brand action, quality, value, innovativeness, responsiveness and delivery of promises.

Importantly, none of these studies has identified how these triggers are related to various forms of customers' negatively-valenced engagement behaviours which this thesis attempts to provide. Understanding the relationship between forms and triggers is necessary as it shows what triggers customers to engage in a specific NVIB, which, in turn, facilitates the identification of triggers that induce forms of NVIB with much stronger impact and helps managers to manage NVIB appropriately.

2.5.5 Forms of Influencing Behaviour

Favourable or unfavourable triggering experienced events induce customers to engage in positively or negatively-valenced influencing behaviours, respectively (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Therefore, influencing behaviour can be negative or positive; however, the concept has not yet been explored and no typology of its negative forms exists in the literature to date. Moreover, parallel streams of research on the communication tools (e.g. WOM, e-WOM, referrals, blogging, and online reviews) that customers may use to engage in influencing behaviours do not provide any conceptualisation or any evidence that they have different forms. However, within the literature on CE and CEB, there are indications that NVIB may have different forms. For example, Juric, Smith and Wilks (2016) claim the existence of a range of negatively-valenced behaviours that customers may engage in when triggered by unfavourable triggering events.

Additionally, several authors argue that the key challenge for firms in managing NVIB is to identify its different forms (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010), which this research provides within online reviews.

Within the research stream of e-WOM, it is clearly shown that e-WOM can be positive, neutral or negative; however, extremely positive or negative are the most common examples, resulting from satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the firm, brand, product, or service (Anderson, 1998; Bowman and Naryandas, 2001; Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007). For instance, positive e-WOM communication is likely to consist of pleasant, vivid or novel descriptions of experiences, whereas negatively valenced communication is likely to include unpleasant or denigrating product descriptions (Anderson, 1998; Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007; Sparks and Browning, 2011). It is also claimed within this respective research stream, that customers may tend to adopt a storytelling approach in the context of negative e-WOM (Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007). Within tourism-related online reviews, tangible aspects of the firm or service provider (e.g. hotels) are found to be typically discussed within negative rather than positive reviews. This is in addition to financial issues (e.g. charge, credit and cost), which also appear more frequently in negative reviews (Berezina et al., 2015; Sparks and Browning, 2011).

However, no prior research has suggested that any of these aspects is a measurable e-WOM component (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007). In other words, the current literature of e-WOM reflects what customers say about a firm, brand, product or service in their reviews, but to date there is no typology that classifies or specifies how they say it (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010); thereby providing measurable components (Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007) and hence enabling the identification of different impacts rather than assuming that all e-WOM messages are equal in terms of their impact (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014).

This research focuses on conceptualising forms of NVIB within online reviews which to date have been unexplored. However, a limited number of studies on

negatively-valenced online behavioural manifestations exist, specifically, negatively-valenced brand engagement (NVBE), online brand communities (OBCs) and social media engagement behaviour (SMEB). According to these studies, forms of negatively- valenced SMEB include detachment (removal of brand-related contents), sharing negative content and co-destruction (negative active contribution) (Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016). However, according to Brodie et al. (2011), detachment is considered rather as a form of disengagement than negative engagement. Additionally, negatively-valenced behaviours exhibited within OBCs include destructive behaviour (recruiting others to boycott a provider), constructive behaviour (directed at solving the problem) (Naumann et al., 2017), brand boycotting behaviour and exiting brand community behaviour (Bowden et al., 2017). Arguably, constructive behaviour that is directed at solving a problem is, rather, a positively-than negatively-valenced engagement behaviour. Exiting a brand community, once again, is more akin to disengagement with the brand rather than negative engagement. It is noteworthy that none of the extant studies has furthered knowledge about the degree of influence of negatively-valenced engagement behaviour which this thesis provides.

2.5.6 Outcomes of Influencing Behaviour

Online influencing behaviours have the potential to affect other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards firms, brands or service providers. According to social psychologists, influencing agents (e.g. customers) engage in influencing behaviour with the intent of affecting the way other actors feel, think and behave towards focal firms or service providers (Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). Marketing research shows that expectations, knowledge and perceptions globally define customers' focal evaluations and, therefore, their attitudes regarding a brand, firm or service provider (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Oliver, 1980; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). Additionally, changes in attitude set the stage for potential changes in behaviour (Lee et al., 2011; Oliver, 1980; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991), which refers to the willingness of other actors to contribute resources to focal service providers or firms within the concept of influencing behaviour (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014).

Therefore, NVIB is expected to negatively affect attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors towards firms, brand or service providers and, consequently, these providers' value. The same goes for triggers and forms; the outcomes of NVIB are scant in the literature, with empirical evidence, in particular, being rare. Conceptual research on influencing behaviour has identified its potential impact on other customers' expectations about the value and content of a focal service, brand or product (Jaakkola, Aarikka-Stenroos and Kimmel, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). However, this thesis provides an empirical evidence of the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers within online reviews.

Existing insights into negative valence of engagement within the CE and CEB literature (e.g. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016) are predominantly focused on customer-to-brand interactions and their ensuing outcomes for firms. The research indicates detrimental short and long-term financial and reputational outcomes (Anderson, 2012; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2016) such as: brand image deterioration (Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014); spillover effect (Bowden et al., 2017); increased distrust in brands and detraction from the overall service value (Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016); and deterioration of firms' online reputations, reflected in online reviews (Wu et al., 2016) which can significantly decrease their value (Kumar et al., 2010) and potentially decrease their revenues (Anderson, 2012).

A review of prior studies on e-WOM reveals that the outcomes of e-WOM at the market level mainly focus on sales and purchase intentions, with a few studies on attitude using three key metrics: customer ratings, valence and volume of reviews (e.g. Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Berger, Sorensen and Rasmussen, 2010; Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Cheung et al., 2009; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Davis and Khazanchi, 2008; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Liu, 2006; Reinstein and Snyder, 2005; Sawhney and Eliashberg, 1996; Wirtz et al., 2013). Although research in this area is rich, it mainly concentrates on the impact on sales, revenue, and customers' purchase

behaviours, while customer behaviours beyond purchase are understudied, specifically within tourism-related web communities (Anderson, 2012; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016).

Moreover, conflicting views exist regarding the effect of customer ratings and valence. For instance, some authors suggest that sales revenues are affected by aggregate ratings (Reinstein and Snyder, 2005; Sawhney and Eliashberg, 1996), while other studies suggest that customers can infer the quality of a product from the valence of online reviews only (e.g. Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Lee, Rodgers and Kim, 2009). Additionally, some authors argue that negative product ratings are more powerful in impacting a customer's purchase intention than positive ratings, while the attitude of customers is mainly influenced by the valence of the review (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Weinberger and Dillon, 1980). Importantly, most of the existing studies have been conducted to demonstrate the discrete impacts of aggregated rating and review valence on purchasing intentions; however, little has been learned about their interactions (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012). For instance, Chevalier and Mayzlin (2006) argue that customers seem to value review valence more than aggregate rating, while Qiu, Pang and Lim (2012) find that conflicted aggregate rating and review valence decreases their impact.

This is in addition to findings regarding the power of positive over negative messages and their impact, with authors contrasting the relative power of negative messages (Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Halstead, 2002; Heitmann, Lehmann and Herrmann, 2007; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014) or positive messages (Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Cheung et al., 2009; Kim and Gupta, 2012) to have the stronger impact. Other authors argue that few negative messages might serve to promote the credibility of a website or a review site (Doh and Hwang, 2009) since it is the volume of reviews that matters (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Berger, Sorensen and Rasmussen, 2010; Davis and Khazanchi, 2008; Dhar and Chang, 2009; Liu, 2006; Wirtz et al., 2013). For instance, while Liu (2006) finds that the volume, but not the valence, of reviews explains the success of new feature films, Duan, Gu and Whinston (2008) report that both valence and volume of reviews drive

cinema box office revenues. Babić Rosario et al. (2016) find that volume of reviews has a stronger impact on sales than valence; similarly, Dhar and Chang (2009) find that the volume of blog posts is positively correlated with future sales of music albums, while Chevalier and Mayzlin (2006) show that valence of book reviews leads to an increase in sales.

Regarding the impact of negative online reviews, several studies have studied this impact within different online platforms. Nevertheless, the current findings on the impact of negative review are inconclusive, as they demonstrate conflicting views even when the studies focus on the same empirical context (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010), which according to Hennig-Thurau et al. (2010) has led to a major limitation in the e-WOM research. For instance, although negative reviews show a negative impact on trust in sellers within online shopping platforms (Ba and Pavlou, 2002), they do not always jeopardise sales (Babić Rosario et al., 2016) and they enhance the credibility of the focal online forum (Doh and Hwang, 2009; Hiura et al., 2010). Conversely, other authors find that negative reviews decrease sales (Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Ho, Lim and Camerer, 2006; Sun, 2012).

In terms of the impact of negative reviews on customers' attitudes, Lee, Rodgers and Kim (2009) find that negative reviews negatively impact attitude towards the products or brand; however, Lee, Park and Han (2008) claim that this impact occurs only when customers are exposed to a specific volume of negative reviews. Another view relates this negative impact only to a lesser known brand (Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009) and utilitarian products (Sen and Lerman, 2007). In terms of purchase intentions, conflicting findings exist, of no impact of negative reviews (Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009) and their negative impact (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012; Sen and Lerman, 2007; Zhang, Craciun and Shin, 2010) on customers' purchase intentions.

Although negative reviews have been found to have a detrimental effect on brand equity, leading to significant brand dilution (Bambauer-Sachse and Mangold, 2011), and an intense impact on a destination image (Filieri and McLeay, 2014; Morgan, Pritchard and Piggott, 2003), other authors find no impact for negative

reviews, as they are received as irrational and less informative, especially when negative emotions are expressed (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017). Finally, although reviewers' expertise plays a key role in customers' evaluations of negative reviews, and consequently their impact (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Zhang, Zhang and Yang, 2016), other authors find negative expert reviews to be the least persuasive (Racherla and Friske, 2012; Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009).

Importantly, the analysis of most of the extant studies within the e-WOM literature assumes an aggregate impact of online reviews (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010), while this impact may differ with some having a stronger impact than others. This aspect is new to the literature and merits investigating (King, Racherla and Bush, 2014) and this thesis empirically approaches it. Moreover, existing insights are predominantly focused on customer-to-brand interactions and their ensuing outcomes for firms (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Bowden et al., 2017; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010), with an emphasis on the impact on sales, revenues and purchase intentions, while customer behaviours beyond purchase are understudied (Anderson, 2012; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016). Finally, as the literature transcends its focus beyond the dyadic perspective of engagement (Bolton, 2011; Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2016), a need exists to better understand the influence of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers within a network (Bowden et al., 2017; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016). This thesis provides such an analysis within an online travel community.

2.6 Conclusion

This thesis draws from the macro perspective of S-D logic being consistent with the core tenets of CE. CE represents a bridging concept within the broad lexicon of S-D logic which offers a meta-theory, providing the foundations capable of explaining the conceptual foundations of CE; these are interactive experiences and the co-creation of value. Therefore, CE bridges general theory and empirical inquiry.

Several conceptual and empirical studies have drawn from the perspective of S-D logic to develop CE as a midrange theory (e.g. Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Li, Juric and Brodie, 2018; Storbacka et al., 2016). As a result, these studies have played a central role in refining and expanding the scope of CE as a midrange theory and, likewise, the scope of S-D logic as a meta (general) theory.

Marketing activities are best understood in terms of S-D logic's core tenets. These core tenets are that service is the fundamental basis of exchange and value is always co-created. The key features of S-D logic (service, value co-creation, resource integration, operand/operant resources, and value network) specifically reflect the proactive co-creative role of customers (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Lusch, Vargo and Gustafsson, 2016; Vargo, 2008) and co-creation of value through resource integration within value networks (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016). Under S-D logic and consistent with this thesis, engaged customers contribute resources in focal interactions and are specifically offering others services for the purpose of value co-creation. Moreover, the five axioms of S-D logic shaping its foundation provide a framework for viewing all actors within the exchange process and correspond to the interactive co-creative nature of CE within ecosystems.

The concept of CE emerged in the marketing literature recently, representing a core concept that has an impact on customer experiences and values and the performance of organisations. Notably, most conceptualisations of CE signal positive outcomes as it is considered to generate outstanding attainments to organisational performance, yet, little is known regarding its negative side, especially empirically (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). In particular, regarding the nomological network that underpins CE's conceptualisations, where negative and positive engagement has been conceptualised as two opposite forms of the same construct underpinned by the same nomological elements (e.g. than trust, rapport and brand attachments...etc.). This thesis acknowledges, however, that negative engagement should be underpinned by different nomological elements that connote negative engagement (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013).

Additionally, despite the existence of CE negative manifestations, little remains known, particularly in an empirical sense regarding negatively-valenced CE behavioural manifestations within broader networks, which are expected to incur negative ensuing outcomes (Bowden et al., 2017; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

The term CEB captures CE behavioural expressions (manifestations). Taking an S-D logic-informed view, this thesis views CEB as a process by which customers voluntarily contribute operant resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, experience, time) beyond transactions and which result from triggers. There are five dimensions of CEB (valence, modality, scope, nature of impact and customer goals) that are necessary to understand the way customers may choose to engage with focal objects (Van Doorn et al., 2010). The valence of behaviour which is the core of this thesis reflects the extent to which particular service outcomes are perceived by customers as good or bad. The other four dimensions are also related to this thesis, for instance, the way customers choose to engage in CEB, which this thesis addresses in relation to how customers engage in NVIB. Furthermore, the choice of the channel is expected to influence the impact of CEBs with higher impacts of online contexts (the focus of this thesis) in terms of their immediacy, intensity, breadth and longevity. Finally, in relation to customer's goals, this thesis focuses on NVIB which according to Van Doorn et al. (2010) represents a misalignment with firms' goals with potential unfavourable impacts on firms.

Customers' positively and negatively-valenced CEBs are induced by triggers (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Existing research has focused on triggers that elicit positively rather than negatively-valenced CEB, which has resulted in scant literature in this area (Hollebeek et al., 2016). As with the outcomes of CEB, research has concentrated on CEB that adds to a firm's offering or facilitates product or service development (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Hoyer et al., 2010). However, CEB can be positive or negative; despite its potential ensuing outcomes, negatively-valenced CEB has yielded limited insights into research to

date, specifically, empirically, an oversight this thesis seeks to address (Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016).

This thesis focuses on one of the types of CEB, namely, influencing behaviour (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014) and proposes its superordinate nature where different ranges of activities (e.g. WOM, e-WOM, blogging, referrals, online reviews, mobile apps...etc.) are nested within. In other words, the concept of NVIB does not contrast negative e-WOM; however it provides a broader view to study the influence of customers on other actors. The concept of NVIB is unexplored in the literature to date, therefore, this thesis theoretically derives the definition of influencing behaviour to guide the empirical study. Despite the indications in the literature that NVIB may have different forms that, when identified, will help practitioners to appropriately manage NVIB (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010), there is no typology of such forms of NVIB in the literature to date. With reference to the e-WOM research stream, the extant literature reflects what customers say about a firm, brand, product or service in their reviews; however, there is no typology to date that classifies or specifies how they say it (Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). The heterogeneity of e-WOM messages has been overlooked and merits studying (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010) to contribute to the current literature with measurable forms (Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007), hence enabling the identification of different impacts rather than assuming an aggregate one (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014).

Similarly, triggers of NVIB are not adequately studied; the existing literature shows no typology of triggers of NVIB. With reference to prior research; triggers are not specified as triggers of negatively-valenced engagement behaviour but rather as perceived favourable or unfavourable ones, then a related valence (positive/ negative) is triggered (cf. Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). In other studies, triggers are limited to being emotionally rooted (cf. Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017). Likewise, existing studies in the e-WOM literature find that negative emotions triggered by unsatisfactory consumption experiences increase the chances of negative e-WOM communications (cf. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Ladhari, 2007; Maute and Dubes, 1999; Riegner, 2007; Söderlund and

Rosengren, 2007; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). Importantly, existing studies have not identified the relationships between triggers and forms, although understanding the relationship between forms and triggers is necessary as it shows what triggers customers' engagement in a specific NVIB, which, in turn, facilitates the identification of potent triggers that induce specific forms of NVIB with much stronger impact and helps managers to manage NVIB appropriately.

Furthermore, NVIB is expected to negatively affect the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors towards firms, brand or service providers and, consequently, these providers' value. Conceptual research on influencing behaviour has identified its potential impact on other customers' expectations about the value and content of a focal service, brand or product (Jaakkola, Aarikka-Stenroos and Kimmel, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Existing insights into negative valence of engagement within the CE and CEB literature (e.g. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016) are predominantly focused on customer-to-brand interactions and their ensuing outcomes for firms. Similarly, studies of outcomes of e-WOM at the market-level mainly focus on sales and purchase intentions, with few studies on attitude using customer ratings, valence and volume of reviews. Although research in this area is rich, it concentrates mainly on the impact on sales, revenues, and customers' purchase intentions, while customer behaviours beyond purchase are understudied, specifically within tourism-related web communities (Anderson, 2012; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016).

Moreover, conflicting views exist regarding the effect of customer ratings and valence. This is in addition to contrasting findings regarding the power of positive over negative messages which render the current findings on the impact of negative reviews inconclusive (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). This has caused a major limitation in this research stream (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). Importantly, the analysis of most of the extant studies assumes an aggregate impact of online reviews (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010), while this impact may differ, with some have a stronger impact than others (King, Racherla and Bush, 2014), an aspect which this thesis empirically approaches.

Finally, the rationale of combining the online context and NVIB in this thesis is underpinned by, firstly, the vast importance of the online contexts that has led to the dramatic influence of customers and a greater impact of CEB (Kumar et al., 2010; Lemon and Verhoef, 2016; Libai et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Secondly, NVIB on review sites is expected to have potentially detrimental impacts for being contagious and viral in nature (Bowden et al., 2017), yet have yielded limited insights in literature, in terms of its forms, triggers and impacts on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, especially in online tourism communities (Anderson, 2012; Bowden et al., 2017; Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013; Wu et al., 2016). The next chapter introduces and discusses the adopted research design that can explore the concept of NVIB and measure its impact.

Chapter 3. Research Methodology

The previous chapter highlighted the need to better understand NVIB within a network, especially empirically and, specifically, regarding its forms, triggers and outcomes. The chapter firstly reintroduces the research objectives and their implications for the collection of data. Subsequently, this chapter presents three philosophical approaches and justifies adopting the pragmatist approach. Thereafter, the chapter introduces the mixed methods research and its different designs, focusing on the adopted sequential exploratory design (SED). Its adoption is informed by the exploratory (qualitative) nature of the first study, which conceptualises the forms and identifies the triggers of NVIB. Thereafter, a quantitative study builds on the qualitative findings to measure the impact of NVIB. Finally, the chapter outlines the phases of the research and discusses the approaches to analysis.

3.1 Thesis Aim and Research Objectives

The aim of this thesis is to *explore the concept of NVIB and measure its impact on other actors within an online context.* This broader aim is designed to understand how customers engage in NVIB within an online context, what triggers customers to engage in NVIB and what the impact of NVIB is on other actors. This thesis has three research objectives:

> **Objective 1**: *To conceptualise forms of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*
>
> **Objective 2**: *To identify triggers of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*
>
> **Objective 3**: *To measure the impact of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers.*

The aim and research objectives of this thesis are influenced by recent texts highlighting the existence of a need to understand NVIB within online reviews, especially empirically, and specifically regarding its forms, triggers and outcomes (Bowden et al., 2017; Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn, 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013).This is in

addition to the need to advance empirical research on the negative valence of engagement (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016), and to also arrive at a distinctive conceptualisation of negative engagement underpinned by a different nomological network (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013). Furthermore, as the literature transcends its focus beyond the dyadic perspective of engagement, a need exists to better understand negative engagement within a network (Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016), particularly regarding its influence on attitudes and probable actions of other actors towards service providers (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2016).

Accordingly, due to the unexplored nature of NVIB, this thesis is designed to conceptualise forms of NVIB within online reviews and identify its triggers through a qualitative study (Study 1) to satisfy the first and the second research objectives. These objectives relate to the need for a distinctive conceptualisation of NVIB underpinned by a different nomological network. In addition, there is a need to better understand NVIB, how customers engage in NVIB and what triggers customers to engage in NVIB within online contexts in particular service systems. Thereafter, this thesis measures the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions by conducting a quantitative study (Study 2) that builds on the findings (conceptualised forms) of the qualitative study (Study 1). This is aimed at satisfying the third research objective of this thesis, which relates to the need to better understand engagement within a network, specifically regarding the influence of the negative valence of engagement on other actors' attitudes and probable actions towards service providers. The next section presents three philosophical research paradigms and justifies adopting the pragmatist approach.

3.2 Philosophy and Interpretation

In any research, philosophical ideas are associated with specific research designs, therefore, influence the identification of research designs (Creswell, 2009; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Tronvoll et al., 2011). Additionally, understanding philosophy suggests possible and novel approaches, thus enabling the

researcher to move beyond reiterating others' ideas (Cherryholmes, 1992; Crotty, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Greetham, 2006). Determining a philosophical position requires understanding the distinctions among various philosophical stances and the presumptions a researcher is making to acquire knowledge when adopting a focal approach (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The acquisition or claim of knowledge dictates the researcher's propositions on "how and what they will learn during their inquiry" (Creswell, 2009, p. 6). These claims might be called *paradigms* (Guba and Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln and Guba, 1985), *philosophical assumptions, epistemologies, or ontologies* (Crotty, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012), or a *worldview* (Creswell, 2009; Kuhn, 1962; Schwandt, 1989) represented in the beliefs of researchers about the nature of reality, knowledge and values.

At the epistemological level, paradigm wars exist as a result of an ongoing debate about quantitative and qualitative research (Bryman, 2006b). This debate takes the form of "denigrating the other point of view, or completely ignoring its existence" (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012, p. 17). To understand both sides of this argument, the next section introduces the most dominant stances in the social science research, which are post-positivism and social constructivism (Creswell, 2009; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012), and provides justifications that elucidate not adopting these two approaches in this thesis.

3.2.1 Post-Positivism and Social Constructivism

The philosophical stances of post-positivism and social constructivism are identified at two opposite poles of a metaphysical research continuum among other paradigms (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). There are three assumptions developed to compare different philosophical stances (cf. Guba and Lincoln, 2005). These assumptions are *ontology, epistemology* and *methodology* (see Table 3-1).

Philosophical Term	Explanation
Ontology	Philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality
Epistemology	General set of assumptions about the best ways of inquiring into the nature of the world.
Methodology	Combination of techniques used to inquire into a specific situation.

Table 3-1: Philosophical Assumptions (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012, p. 18)

The post-positivist and the social constructivist approaches are distinct in relation to their ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions (Bryman, 2006b; Morgan, 2007). Typically, inquirers conducting research within a specific set of metaphysical assumptions reject alternate assumptions underpinning other paradigms (Morgan, 2007). This is also in addition to the concept of the incommensurability of paradigms, which refers to a proposed impossibility of combining two approaches (Bryman, 2006b; Kuhn, 1962).

The Post-Positivist Approach

This approach is sometimes referred to as the scientific method, quantitative research, positivist or post-positivist research, or empirical science (Creswell, 2009). Prior to this, the age of enlightenment witnessed the prominence of the positivist paradigm, which was first popularised by the French philosopher Auguste Comte, who applied the scientific paradigm to the social world (Crotty, 1998; Scotland, 2012). The ontological assumption underpinning this approach is of realism, which refers to the independence of objects and researchers and its epistemological assumptions, acknowledges knowledge only when observed (Crotty, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Scotland, 2012; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Subsequently, the post-positivist approach emerged to challenge the notion of the absolute truth of knowledge, specifically when studying humans' behaviour (Creswell, 2009; Crotty, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012).

Post-positivists are deterministic, seeking the affirmation of causality, as well they are reductionist, reducing ideas to separate small sets to test them (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). For post-positivists, the reality is objective, observable and measurable. Mainly, they adopt hypothetic-deductive

approaches that build on theories to develop hypotheses and then statistically analyse collected data to either support or disapprove extant theories (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Crotty, 1998; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The Social Constructivist Approach

The social constructivist approach emerged in the latter half of the 20th century, as an alternative to employing positivism within social science research (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Crotty, 1998; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). In opposition to the post-positivist approach, the ontological assumption underpinning social constructivism is one of relativism rather than realism. This entails a subjective reality distinct from one person to another (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Scotland, 2012). Epistemologically, knowledge is culturally driven and shaped via humans' world interactions developed and transferred within social contexts which entails interpreting the meanings people conceive about the world (Crotty, 1998; Scotland, 2012).

Methodologically, instead of building on extant theories, social constructivists "inductively develop a theory or a pattern of meaning"(Creswell, 2009, p. 9), using methods that are mainly associated with gathering, thematically analysing, interpreting and presenting narrative data (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Moreover, rather than resorting to reductionism, social constructivists look for a plurality of views. Thus, research depends on participants' views about any situation under study (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Crotty, 1998). Table 3-2 shows the main differences between the two approaches.

Research Assumption(s)	Post-Positivism	Social Constructivism
Ontology	Reality is single, tangible and fragmentable	Reality is multiple, constructed and holistic
Epistemology	Knower and known are independent, a dualism	Knower and known are interactive, inseparable
Axiology	Inquiry is value free	Inquiry is value bound
Human Interest	Should be irrelevant	The main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	Hypotheses and deduction	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of 'whole situations'
Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large number selected randomly	Small number of cases chosen for specific reasons

Table 3-2: Post-Positivism and Social Constructivism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012, p. 24; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 86)

Despite the paradigm wars, recent researchers have argued against the polarisation of research for being neither productive nor meaningful and proposing instead that research can be qualitative or quantitative or both (Bryman, 2006b; Crotty, 1998; Ercikan and Roth, 2006). As reliance on a single paradigm results in inherent biases and delimitation of focal research scope (Deshpande, 1983), a dialogue is necessary between different research paradigms and their proponents (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011). In this thesis, relying on post-positivism does not satisfy the research objectives specifically that the concept of NVIB is unexplored. Accordingly, seeking causality or building on theories to develop hypotheses is not possible in this thesis before exploring the concept of NVIB first. Likewise, relying on social constructivism in this thesis, although suitable to satisfy the first and the second research objectives of this thesis being exploratory in nature, it does not fulfil the third research objective which aims at measuring the impact of NVIB. Consequently, as a result of the paradigm wars and the persistent argument against polarisation, research paradigms that emphasise the disappearance of research polarity and philosophically resist the incompatibility issues have emerged (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007). One of these research paradigms is the 'pragmatist' approach, which this thesis adopts (Creswell, 2014; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

3.2.2 The Pragmatist Approach

The modern approach of pragmatism has emanated from the work of Charles Peirce, William James and John Dewey (Cherryholmes, 1992). Its core feature dwells in the "efficacy in practical application" (Honderich, 2005, p. 747). In other words, the determination of the truth is based on what practically works out most effectively (Honderich, 2005). Philosophically, pragmatism takes a realism-relativism compromising position (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012) provoked by prospected consequences (Cherryholmes, 1992). Pragmatists conceive knowledge to emanate out of specific consequences and not based on antecedences (Creswell, 2009; 2014). They do not accept that there are "predetermined frameworks" that form truth and knowledge (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012, p. 32). Therefore, researchers can use all approaches to understand a research problem (Creswell, 2009). Critics of pragmatism have concentrated on these beliefs instead of focusing on "the particular arguments in which these beliefs function' (Biesta, 2009, p. 34) which has led to a misunderstanding of the pragmatist approach. For instance, based on these beliefs Horkheimer (1947) proposes that pragmatism is a form of scientism that is incapable of critiquing the central role of science in the modern society. However, critics of pragmatism according to Dewey (1905), misunderstand that:

> "In giving a reinterpretation of the nature and function of knowledge, pragmatism gives necessarily a thoroughgoing reinterpretation of all the cognitive machinery sensations, ideas, concepts, etc.; one which inevitably tends to take these things in a much more literal and physically realistic fashion than is current" (Dewey, 1905, p. 326).

In opposition to both the positivists' and social constructivists' approaches that conceive of a value-free and value-bound standpoints of inquiry respectively (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009), for pragmatists, human actions and interaction values precede a search for descriptions, theories, explanations and narratives (Cherryholmes, 1992). In addition, they challenge the distinction between objectivity and subjectivity, claiming that the "epistemological issues exist on a continuum rather than on two opposing poles" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 90). Methodologically, the pragmatist approach is not restricted to induction or deduction;

instead, it believes that "research at any point would fall somewhere within the inductive-deductive research cycle" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 89). Accordingly, as a pragmatic alternative to core methodological issues, abduction is used to support a process of inquiry that assesses the results of previous inductions (Morgan, 2007). Therefore, at the abduction stage:

> "The goal is to explore the data, find out a pattern, and suggest a plausible hypothesis with the use of proper categories; deduction is to build a logical and testable hypothesis based upon other plausible premises, and induction is the approximation towards the truth in order to fix our beliefs for further inquiry" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 89).

In particular, this version of abduction is employed when integrating qualitative and quantitative methods in a sequential design (Morgan, 2007), which fits the research approach adopted in this thesis. Pragmatists view the relationship to research process as inter-subjective rather than subjective or objective (Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009), thereby claiming knowledge via combined actions complemented by a range of methodological approaches (Morgan, 2007). Referring to its core concept of applicability, pragmatism adopts transferability, which focuses on factors that affect the transferability of gained knowledge to other settings instead of claiming the generalisability or contextual-dependability of the focal research (Morgan, 2007).

The pragmatist approach is deemed appropriate for this thesis, firstly, as ontologically, human actions and interaction values precede a search for descriptions, theories, explanations and narratives (Cherryholmes, 1992). In this thesis, NVIB is a new concept unexplored in literature to date, hence, related explanations and narratives. Therefore, to conceptualise its forms and identify its triggers, it is necessary to explore how customers engage in NVIB (human actions and interaction values) then proceed with explanations and narratives that by their turn will provide relevant descriptions and theories. Secondly, as epistemologically the pragmatist approach does not view a research process as objective and subjective, but rather as inter-subjective (Morgan, 2007) which is also useful for this thesis. The research process in this thesis involves two studies, the first to explore NVIB and the second to measure its impact. Accordingly, it is impossible to position this research process

on two opposite poles of subjectivity and objectivity, instead, viewing this process as inter-subjective that claims knowledge through combined actions associated with a range of methodological approaches (Morgan, 2007) is deemed appropriate to satisfy research objectives of this thesis. Finally, as methodologically, the pragmatist approach is not restricted to induction or deduction, instead uses abduction to support a process of inquiry which is also useful for this thesis to enable exploring NVIB, identify its forms and triggers then develop hypotheses to measure its impact using the conceptualised forms (Morgan, 2007).

Although this thesis adopts and advocates pragmatism being a philosophical approach that "builds bridges between conflicting philosophies, pragmatism, like all current philosophies, has some shortcoming"(Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). This thesis considers these weaknesses (see Table 3-3) and attempts to address clearly the workability of the research results alongside the practical and theoretical implications of this research.

	▪ Pragmatism may promote incremental change rather than more fundamental, structural, or revolutionary change in society
	▪ Pragmatic researchers sometimes fail to provide a satisfactory answer to the question for who is a pragmatic solution useful?
Weaknesses of Pragmatism	▪ What is meant by usefulness or workability can be vague unless explicitly addressed by a researcher
	▪ Although pragmatism has worked moderately well, many current philosophers have rejected pragmatism because of its logical (as contrasted with practical) failing as a solution to many philosophical disputes
	▪ Some neo-pragmatists completely reject correspondence truth in any form, which troubles many philosophers

Table 3-3: Weaknesses of Pragmatism adapted from (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 19).

Importantly, the methodological assumption underlying the pragmatist approach conceives the usefulness of both qualitative and quantitative methods, relating the decision to use either or mix them to the research questions (Creswell, 2014; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Such a collective approach to data collection underpinning this approach allows the selection of the most appropriate methods that can build

knowledge based on the research questions (Creswell, 2009; Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Accordingly, adopting a pragmatist approach enables harnessing qualitative and quantitative methods connecting points, thereby capitalising on the use of numerical and narrative data (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Table 3-4 offers a summary of the discussed philosophical approaches. The next section introduces the mixed methods research design.

Post-Positivism	▪ Post-positivists do not claim absolute truth. Accordingly, the researchers fail to reject hypotheses ▪ Post-positivistic claims often involve theory testing ▪ Knowledge is shaped by data ▪ Researchers seek to demonstrate causality ▪ Objectivity is a must
Social Constructivism	▪ Meanings are phenomenologically constructed ▪ Social constructivists make sense of their surroundings according to their own social perspective ▪ Meaning generated from research is derived from social interaction and constructed through inductive approaches analysed by using thematic analysis ▪ Subjectivity is crucial
Pragmatism	▪ Researchers have freedom of choice; methods can be selected that best meet the needs of the study ▪ Pragmatists do not see the world in absolute unity and look to a range of methods to make sense of the research problem ▪ For pragmatists, truth is whatever works at the time and is not based on an objective or subjective perspective, rather inter-subjective ▪ For the mixed methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, worldviews and assumptions

Table 3-4: Post-Positivism, Social Constructivism and Pragmatism based on (Creswell, 2009, p. 7-12).

3.3 Mixed Methods

Recently, mixed methods research has gained in popularity and it is known as the third research approach among qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell, 2009; 2014; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Aiming not to replace any of these approaches, mixed methods research not only builds on strengths but also minimises the weaknesses of using either approach in a single study (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Johnson and

Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). A well-accepted definition of this approach conceives it as:

> "The type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007, p. 123).

Before proceeding, it is important to differentiate between a multi-method and a mixed method approach (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). Multi-method combines multiple qualitative methods (e.g. case study and ethnography) or multiple quantitative methods (e.g. surveys and experiments) (Harrison and Reilly, 2011).This is close to what early researchers called multiple operationalism, which was introduced as a way to ensure the validation of research (cf. Campbell and Fiske, 1959). This was then progressed in the 1970s to convey the potential for triangulating both quantitative and qualitative data sources as a way to cross-validate (Denzin, 1978; Jick, 1979). Despite the denotation that using a range of methods would signify the research process, researchers' ideas about multiple operationalism, convergent validation and triangulation are closely related to a multi-method approach rather than a mixed method approach (Harrison and Reilly, 2011; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007).

The mixed method approach extends beyond simple triangulation (Creswell, 2014; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Rather, it is a legitimate approach of research underpinned by pragmatic philosophical assumptions integrating qualitative and quantitative methods within the same study to answer research questions that cannot be addressed using a singular method (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Doyle, Brady and Byrne, 2009; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). In marketing, several authors have adopted mixed methods to study value in business relationships (Ulaga and Eggert, 2006), hedonic shopping motivation (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003), corporate reputation (Walsh and Beatty, 2007) and branding (Thomson, 2006; Venable et al., 2005). To date, only a few studies have adopted mixed methods within the literature of CE and CEB to, for example, understand CE and its

relationship to customer loyalty (Thakur, 2016), investigate CEB in the hospitality context (Wei, Miao and Huang, 2013) and explore the value of CEB (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016).

There are benefits and also challenges to adopt a mixed methods approach. The benefits mainly revolve around taking advantage of using both narrative and numbers in one research, increasing generalisability as the researcher can capitalise on the strength of one method to overcome the weakness of the other. Furthermore, the benefits include the provision of strong evident conclusions via findings corroboration, and finally, rich insights that might be missed using one method. On the other hand, the challenges are related to mixing multiple methods, increased costs and time (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21). Practically, these challenges that predominantly revolve around the availability of enough time dedicated to multiple data collection phases are surmountable. The approach of this thesis is to explore NVIB in two sequential studies these are presented in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 to fulfil the aim of this thesis gradually. Thereafter, their results are synthesised in Chapter 6 which is the general discussion chapter of this thesis. The following section presents the sequential exploratory design adopted in this thesis.

3.3.1 Sequential Exploratory Design (SED)

The four basic mixed methods designs are "convergent parallel design, the explanatory sequential design, the exploratory sequential design and the embedded design" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 69) (see Table 3-5). These are classified under two main categories of sequential and concurrent designs (Creswell, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Harrison and Reilly, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Through employing sequential designs, researchers start with one data collection method and then, after the analysis, continue with another, before reaching a final stage of analysis. Through concurrent designs, researchers conduct research activities simultaneously (Creswell, 2009; 2014; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Design	Timing	Merging
Concurrent	Concurrent: quantitative and qualitative at the same time	Merging the data during the interpretation or analysis
Embedded	Concurrent or sequential	Embed one type of data within a larger design using the other type of data
Explanatory	Sequential: quantitative followed by a qualitative	Connect the data between the two phases
Exploratory	Sequential: qualitative followed by a quantitative	Connect the data between the two phases

Table 3-5: Major Mixed Methods Designs adapted from (Harrison and Reilly, 2011, p. 15).

Given the unexplored nature of the concept of NVIB and in turn, the exploratory nature of the first two objectives, this thesis starts by exploring the concept of NVIB through conceptualising its forms, and identifying its triggers and, thereafter, using the conceptualised forms to measure its impact. Thus, the sequential exploratory design (SED, see Figure 3 -1) fits the research objectives under study.
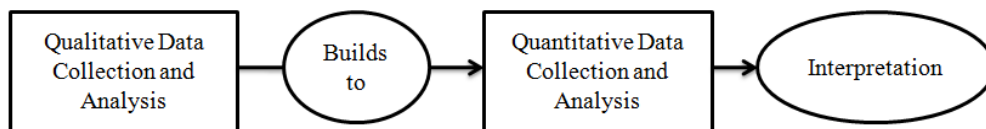
Figure   : Sequential Exploratory Design (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 69)

SED is a popular mixed methods design that commences with qualitative data collection and analysis, which informs the subsequent quantitative data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009; 2014; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Harrison and Reilly, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). It has several uses, such as:

> "Exploring relationships when study variables are unknown; developing new instruments, based on initial qualitative analysis; generalizing qualitative findings; and refining or testing a developing theory" (Harrison and Reilly, 2011, p. 15).

To choose a mixed methods design; there are some aspects to consider. First, the level of interaction should be either independent or interactive (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In this thesis, an interactive level is adopted, where the design and conduct of the quantitative strand depend on the results of the qualitative strand (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).The conceptualised forms of NVIB from Study 1 will be used in Study 2 to investigate the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions.

Second, the priority of the respective strands is classified into three options: equal priority, quantitative priority or qualitative priority (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Adopting SED in this thesis, qualitative and quantitative methods have an equal priority as both play an "equally important role in addressing the research problem"(Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 65). Table 3-6 shows examples of mixed methods research studies in marketing using an SED, which displays different qualitative and quantitative strands priorities. For instance, the table shows that several marketing researchers have adopted an SED with equal priorities of qualitative and quantitative strands (e.g. Argouslidis and McLean, 2004; Commuri and Gentry, 2005; Du, Sen and Bhattacharya, 2008; Kirmani and Campbell, 2004; Marcella and Davies, 2004; Mekonnen, Harris and Laing, 2008; Ulaga and Eggert, 2006). The research problem in this thesis relies on a better understanding of NVIB, especially empirically, and specifically regarding its forms, triggers and impact. Therefore, both the qualitative study that conceptualises forms of NVIB and identifies its triggers and the quantitative study that is informed by the findings of the qualitative study to measure the impact of NVIB are equal in priority and importance.

Study	Purpose of Study	Priority
Thakur (2016)	Developing and validating a measurement model for customer engagement	qual → QUAN
Wei, Miao and Huang (2013)	Exploring customer engagement behaviour and hotel responses	qual → QUAN
Botti, Orfali and Iyengar (2009)	Investigating the effect of consequential, undesirable decisions on emotions and preferences	qual →QUAN
Hand et al. (2009)	Exploring the triggers that influence online grocery shopping	qual→ QUAN
Du, Sen and Bhattacharya (2008)	Exploring business and social returns	QUAL →QUAN
Mekonnen, Harris and Laing (2008)	Exploring the construction of consumer value in affinity credit cards and assessing the identified perceptions and behaviour patterns	QUAL →QUAN
Avlonitis and Indounas (2007)	Investigating pricing policies and the factors that influence these policies.	qual→QUAN
Walsh and Beatty (2007)	Assessing and validating corporate reputation of service firms.	qual→ QUAN
Ulaga and Eggert (2006)	Investigating value-based distinctiveness in business relationships	QUAL→QUAN
Griffiths-Hemans and Grover (2006)	Explore the idea fruition process that organizations engage in to develop a new product.	qual→QUAN
Venable et al. (2005)	Assessing and validating how brand personality affect charitable activities	qual→QUAN
Commuri and Gentry (2005)	Investigating household resource allocation	QUAL→quan
Grayson and Martinec (2004)	Identifying the cues of assessing indexical and iconic types of authenticity	qual →QUAN
Russell, Norman and Heckler (2004)	Development and validation of scale for TV programming consumption	qual→ QUAN
Argouslidis and McLean (2004)	Investigating service elimination process in the British financial services sector	QUAL→QUAN
Marcella and Davies (2004)	Investigating the use of customer language in international marketing communication	QUAL→QUAN
Kirmani and Campbell (2004)	Exploring customers' response to interpersonal marketing persuasion	QUAL→QUAN
Wolfinbarger and Gilly (2003)	Dimensions, assessing and predicting e-Tail quality	qual→ QUAN
Arnold and Reynolds (2003)	Exploring hedonic shopping motivations	qual→QUAN
Brennan, Turnbull and Wilson (2003)	Developing dyadic adaptation taxonomy in B2B markets, and exploring the drivers of relationship adaptation	qual→QUAN

Table 3-6: Marketing Studies Adopted SED with Different Priorities adapted from (Harrison and Reilly, 2011, p. 13)

The third aspect to decide on is the timing, which refers to the temporal relationship between both strands within a study. It could be concurrent, sequential or multiphase combination timing (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). In this thesis, sequential timing best fits the requirements, allowing for the collecting and analysing of the qualitative data (Study 1), which provides the basis for the quantitative study (Study 2). There is no possibility of this thesis running both strands at the same time as the quantitative study builds on the

qualitative results. That is, the forms of NVIB conceptualised by the qualitative study will be used to measure the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Accordingly, before measuring the impacts, the concept of NVIB has to be explored first. The final aspect is the connecting strategy adopted in this thesis as the results of the qualitative study build to the collection of the quantitative data (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Based on these aspects, the procedural diagram for the mixed methods design employed in this thesis is shown in Figure 3-2. Procedural diagrams are utilised to "convey the complexity of mixed methods designs" (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 110), using notations to convey aspects of the used design, thereby facilitating the communication of research procedures (Creswell, 2009; 2014; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Appendix 1offers a key to these notations.
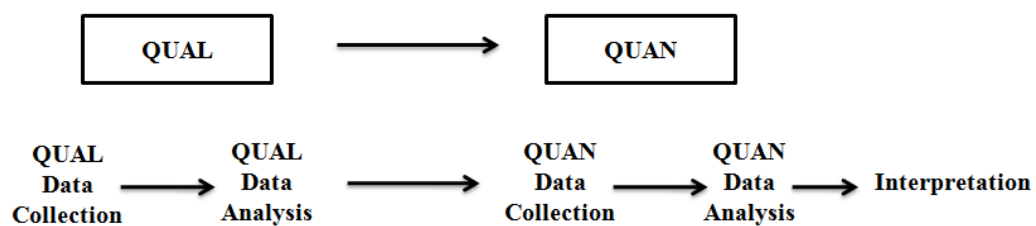
Figure 3-2: Adopted SED based on (Creswell, 2009, p. 209).

The SED is typically conducted when the research problem can only be handled initially qualitatively to explore constructs that are necessary for the study, as well as to build up to a quantitative study. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), the reasons to conduct an SED involve the unavailability of measures or instruments, guidance or theory. The research problem is more qualitative in nature, in particular, if the important constructs of the study are unknown or previously unexplored and, time-wise, it is convenient to conduct two phases of research. Importantly, the qualitative results may require quantitative data to answer the research questions.

It is appropriate to adopt the SED in this thesis for several reasons. Firstly, it is useful with respect to this research aim and objectives as it begins qualitatively, thus allowing for the exploring of NVIB and then expands on the qualitative findings to

measure the impact on other actors, which cannot be achieved relying only on the qualitative results. In this thesis, the unexplored nature of NVIB can be researched by employing a qualitative study, looking at how customers engage in NVIB, which involves conceptualising the forms of this construct. These forms are unidentified in the literature to date. The triggers of NVIB also are unexplored in the literature. Secondly, the two-phase approach of the SED (qualitative followed by quantitative research) makes the research easy to implement and straightforward to describe and report on (Creswell, 2009). Finally, the nature of the PhD, specifically its duration, makes the use of the mixed methods research using the SED feasible, despite the time required. This thesis aims to explore the concept of NVIB and measure its impact. To achieve this aim, its triggers and forms should be initially explored qualitatively, subsequently; the conceptualised forms will be used to measure the impact of NVIB. Figure 3-3 shows a flowchart of the basic procedures in implementing an SED.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Design and Implement Qualitative Strand:                          │
│ -  State qualitative research questions and determine the qualitative │
│    approach                                                        │
│ -  Obtain permissions                                              │
│ -  Identify the qualitative sample                                 │
│ -  Collect open-ended data with protocols                          │
│ -  Analyse qualitative data using procedures of theme development and │
│    those specific to qualitative approach to answer the qualitative │
│    questions and identify the information needed to inform the second │
│    phase.                                                          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                  │
                                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Use Strategies to build on the Qualitative Results:               │
│ -  Refine quantitative research questions or hypotheses            │
│ -  Determine how participants will be selected for the quantitative │
│    sample                                                          │
│ -  Design and pilot test a quantitative date collection instrument based │
│    on the qualitative results                                      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                  │
                                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Design and Implement Quantitative Strand:                         │
│ -  State qualitative research questions or hypotheses that build on the │
│    qualitative results, and determine the quantitative approach    │
│ -  Obtain permissions                                              │
│ -  Identify the quantitative sample                                │
│ -  Collect closed-ended data with instrument designed from qualitative │
│    results                                                         │
│ -  Analyse quantitative data using descriptive or inferential statistics │
│    and effect sized to answer the quantitative and mixed methods   │
│    research questions or hypotheses.                               │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                  │
                                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Interpret the Connected Results:                                  │
│ -  Summarise and interpret the qualitative results                 │
│ -  Summarise and interpret the quantitative results                │
│ -  Discuss to what extent and in what ways the quantitative results │
│    generalise or test the qualitative results                      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 3-3: Flowchart for Implementing the SED (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 88)

In applying this flowchart to this thesis, it first starts with a qualitative strand. After this qualitative study, the quantitative study is undertaken, followed by an interpretation of the connected results. The next section addresses the approaches to interpretation and analysis**.**

3.4 Approaches to Analysis

Approaches to mixed-method data analysis and interpretation can take the form of a non-integrative approach or a separate analysis with some integration during the interpretation, or integration during both the analysis and interpretation (Greene, Caracelli and Graham, 1989). Typically, quantitative and qualitative data are separately analysed within mixed methods before combining the data and results (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Although mixed methods researchers do not always combine their findings (Bryman, 2006a; 2007), the lack of integration delimits their chances to make the best out of the collected data. Integrating quantitative and qualitative findings potentially can offer valuable insights that researchers could not otherwise discover (Bryman, 2007). Nevertheless, there is a potential barrier to integration that relates to substantial aspects underpinning the incommensurability debate that has been discussed earlier (see section 3.2.1). In order to preclude any potential problems regarding this point, no opportunities to 'quantitise' qualitative data or the opposite are considered in this thesis (Bryman, 2007).

Integration is pivotal within a mixed methods research design as different methodological approaches contribute to the understanding of a complex phenomenon interdependently (Caracelli and Greene, 1993). Moreover, in having two strands, the analysis from the second should be dependent on that of the first or otherwise it would not be "an instance of sequential mixed data analysis" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 274). Following the suggested steps for collecting and analysing SED research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011), this thesis starts by collecting the qualitative data using netnography, analysing it using thematic analysis, which is best suited to conceptualising forms and identifying the triggers of NVIB. Thereafter, this thesis designs the experiments that will be used to conduct the quantitative study based on the qualitative study findings and consequently, to collect the quantitative data and analyse it using analytic approaches best suited for experimental research. Finally, this thesis will show how the integrated results both studies satisfy the research's aim and objectives.

The SED approach is 'validatory' and developmental. In an SED, the quantitative phase validates any generated themes from the qualitative phase (Creswell, 2014; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The qualitative study of this thesis (Chapter 4) is based on netnography, which is then followed up with a quantitative strand (Chapter 5), which uses experimental research. Data from the first study is analysed independently and the quantitative study builds upon the first study results. Then an interpretation (Chapter 6) is provided on how the connected results have satisfied the research aim and objectives of this thesis.

The subsequent chapters of this thesis are consistent with the suggested steps to conduct SED research illustrated in Figure 3-3. Thereby, the following chapter (4) presents the qualitative study (1) using a netnographic research on TripAdvisor reviews to identify triggers and conceptualise forms of NVIB. Chapter 5 addresses the third research objective using an experimental research conducted using the forms conceptualised from the qualitative study. Subsequently, Chapter 6 integrates the two studies, providing a comprehensive discussion and showing how the connected results have satisfied this thesis aim and objectives and the implications of the results of both studies. Finally, Chapter 7 concludes with this thesis contribution to knowledge and their respective theoretical and managerial implications and future research suggestions.

Chapter 4. Forms and Triggers of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour (Study 1)

This chapter addresses the first study of the SED, which is exploratory in nature based on the reviewed literature which identifies the scarcity of research addressing forms and triggers of NVIB. This study addresses objectives 1 and 2 of this thesis:

> *Objective 1: To conceptualise forms of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*

> *Objective 2: To identify triggers of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*

The theoretically derived definition of influencing behaviour is used to guide the empirical study and it refers to:

> "Customer contributions of resources such as knowledge, experience, and time, to affect other actors' perceptions, preferences, or knowledge regarding the focal firm" (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014, p. 256).

The concept of NVIB is currently undefined; accordingly, this study adapts Jaakkola and Alexander's (2014) definition of influencing behaviour and views NVIB as "*customer contributions of resources such as knowledge, skills, experience and time to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions of a focal service provider*". According to Vargo and Lusch (2017) customers' competencies represent their knowledge and skills. Combining the resources identified in the definition of influencing behaviour (i.e. knowledge, time and experience) with those referred to in S-D logic and CE literature (i.e. knowledge and skills), this thesis acknowledges that customers' contributed resources include knowledge, skills, time and experience. Moving from the dyadic firm-customer relationship, actors within this study are viewed as other customers, potential customers or a collection of customers (e.g. organisation), which is similar to the view of social actors embedded within networks. This is well acknowledged by several authors (e.g. Granovetter, 1985; Rowley, 1997; Storbacka et al., 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017).

Despite indications that NVIB might have a range of forms and manifestations, there is no typology to date, although it is a key challenge for service firms to

manage online NVIB appropriately (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Additionally, there is a need to conceptualise NVIB as underpinned by a different nomological network (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013). This is unlike the majority of the existing studies, where positive and negative engagement have been conceptualised as two opposite forms of the same construct underpinned by the same nomological elements that signal positive engagement (e.g. trust, rapport, brand attachment and customer empowerment…etc.).

NVIB is preceded by triggering events experienced by customers (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). These events which trigger NVIB represent a decline in service providers' performances and they redirect the attention of customers towards evaluating providers' current performances (Gardial, Flint and Woodruff, 1996; Roos, 2002). Consequently, they spark NVIB, with potentially detrimental long-term financial, relational and reputational consequences on brands or firms (Van Doorn et al., 2010) such as, increased distrust in brands (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016) and a deterioration in the focal firm's reputation and perceived brand image (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Wu et al., 2016).

As indicated earlier (see section 2.5.4), triggers of NVIB have not yet been explored, while few studies have approached the triggers of negatively-valenced brand engagement (cf. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). However, none of the extant studies has identified how these triggers relate to forms of customers' negatively-valenced engagement behaviours, which this study provides. In addition, studies on negative valence of engagement have limited triggers to being emotionally rooted, such as hatred, anger and stress towards a service provider/ brand/ firm (Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017).

Practically, understanding forms and triggers of NVIB can offer important managerial insights into CEB. The extant research reveals that service firms' online reputations, reflected in online reviews, can significantly affect their revenues (Anderson, 2012; Wu et al., 2016). It is, therefore, necessary for service managers to

know how customers engage in NVIB and understand the triggers that boost NVIB within online reviews. Additionally, this study provides practitioners with multiple ways in which NVIB can negatively affect service firms or providers and offers inferred by data recommendations to manage different forms of NVIB on review sites.

Influenced by recent texts highlighting a need for academic and managerial understanding of NVIB, specifically regarding its forms and triggers within a network (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010), this study uses netnography to study online customer reviews posted to TripAdvisor to engage in NVIB. This is to show how customers engage in NVIB, by conceptualising its forms, and what triggers customers to engage in NVIB by identifying its triggers. Within this specific context, this research provides insights into NVIB, which is believed to have potentially detrimental impacts, being specifically contagious and viral in nature (Bowden et al., 2017).

Netnography is selected as an appropriate method to guide this study. Kozinets (1999) develops netnography as an online marketing research technique for providing consumer insights. The following sections of this chapter, in following Kozinets (2010) guidelines on conducting netnography, address and discuss site selection, sampling, data collection and data analysis.

4.1 Netnography

Netnography is a qualitative research method that adapts ethnographic research techniques to investigate communities and cultures emanating from computerised communications (Kozinets, 2002; 2010; 2012). As a marketing research technique, netnography uses publicly available online information to explore the needs and decision influences of relevant online consumer groups (Kozinets, 2002). Since Kozinets' pioneering work, several studies in the area of CE have adopted netnography to investigate consumers' specific cognitions, emotions and behavioural patterns (see Table 4-1).

Authors	Aim of the study	Netnographic Approach
Smaliukiene, Chi-Shiun and Sizovaite (2015)	Studying interactions on online travel communities to investigate application of value co-creation approach in online travel services	In an unobtrusive manner, records from online forums related to TripAdvisor, Couch Surfing and Airbnb are collected and analysed
Hollebeek and Chen (2014)	Conceptualising brand engagement to cover both negatively and positively valenced expressions	Adopting a 'lurker' approach, consumer-generated content posted to four brand engagement platforms related to Apple and Samsung brands are studied
Verma (2014)	Studying how marketers can effectively use blogs to engage with customers	In an unobtrusive manner, posts on eight corporate blogs related to CE are collected and analysed
Brodie et al. (2013)	Exploring the nature and scope of CE in an online brand community environment	In adopting a participative approach to study an online community, the authors begin by observing communication in this community. Further, they use qualitative depth-interviews with community members

Table 4-1: Netnographic Studies within CE Research

Netnography can be conducted in a participative or unobtrusive manner (Belz and Baumbach, 2010; Kozinets, 2002; 2006; 2010; Langer, Elliott and Beckman, 2005; Mkono and Markwell, 2014). In some cases, the participative approach is not necessary, specifically when "embedded cultural understanding" is not at the core of the study (Kozinets, 2010, p. 75). Several authors adopt the 'lurker' approach when investigating customers reviews posted to tourism-related forums or web communities (Mkono and Markwell, 2014), for example, in exploring customers' collaboration to provide an image of a destination (Miguéns, Baggio and Costa, 2008), their complaints (Vásquez, 2011), hotel image on TripAdvisor (O'Connor, 2010) and helpful reviewers on TripAdvisor (Lee, Law and Murphy, 2011).

The unobtrusive form of netnography has some advantages, particularly when compared to other qualitative methods (e.g. focus groups and personal interviews). This specific form of netnography enables the observation of naturally occurring behaviours in a "context that is not fabricated by the marketing researcher" (Kozinets, 2002, p. 64). Such a unique combination (naturalistic and unobtrusive) is not found in any other marketing research method (Kozinets, 2010). Moreover, the unobtrusive form of netnography does not face challenges such as a lack of responses in recruitment attempts faced by focus groups, personal interviews and the obtrusive

form of netnography (Kozinets, 2010; Langer, Elliott and Beckman, 2005). Additionally, this specific form of netnography does not require gaining individual consent when data is collected from publicly accessible sites (Kozinets, 2010; Langer, Elliott and Beckman, 2005; Mkono and Markwell, 2014), thus, making the unobtrusive form of netnography less time consuming and less costly compared to other qualitative methods. To capitalise on these advantages, this research adopts the unobtrusive approach to study NVIB enacted through customers' reviews posted publicly to TripAdvisor.

Under some conditions, netnography can be partial (e.g. it should be accompanied with interviews) or sufficient (used as a stand-alone technique), which depends on the research focus (Kozinets, 2010; 2012). To address this, Kozinets (2010) differentiates between studying online communities and studying communities online. Research on online communities refers to studying specific manifestations of these communities in which stand-alone netnography is considered sufficient (Kozinets, 2010). However, interviews are needed as a second stage to netnography for the examination of embedded cultural meanings the community members associate with their experience within a specific online community (c.f. Brodie et al., 2013). This is what Kozinets (2010) refers to as studying communities online, which typically entails addressing a general social phenomenon that exists among specific online community members and extends beyond their online interactions (e.g. the Star Trek community). According to this dichotomy, this study is a research on 'online communities', whereby stand-alone netnography is sufficient to study customers' particular manifestations shared via online reviews posted on TripAdvisor.

Netnography has several distinctive strengths and a few challenges (see Table 4-2). It can "provide the researcher with a goldmine of information" (Xun and Reynolds, 2010, p. 19) without the researcher's direction or interference (Närvänen, Saarijärvi and Simanainen, 2013) for the least cost and time (Kozinets, 2002). Moreover, the use of written statements is considered a distinctive aspect of netnography compared to other qualitative approaches (e.g. focus group and interviews) as directly quoting online respondents is more illustrative and self-

reflective (Xun and Reynolds, 2010). On the challenging side, researchers' interpretive skills are required to conduct netnography; also, the anonymity of online identities makes generalising results difficult (Kozinets, 2002).

Strengths	Challenges
Greater accessibility to a broader cohort of respondents	Respondent authenticity
Greater continuity in research	A need for a researcher's interpretive skills
More economically viable and time-saving than conventional techniques	Poor quality of textual discourse
Greater capacity and flexibility for observation and analysis	Ethical sensitivity
The reflective quality of online discourse	Narrow focus on online communities

Table 4-2: Strengths and Challenges of Netnography adapted from (Kozinets, 2006) and (Xun and Reynolds, 2010).

This study adopts a non-participatory, observational netnographic approach whereby the identity of the researcher is not revealed to users of TripAdvisor. Additionally, publicly communicated online messages are open to researchers and, legally, it is the user's responsibility to identify what information to share publicly on the internet (Frankel and Siang, 1999; Kozinets, 2010; Langer, Elliott and Beckman, 2005; Mkono and Markwell, 2014; Sandlin, 2007). Accordingly, if users' identities are not recorded and access to the forum or website is available to the public, then ethical sensitivity is not at issue. Therefore, gaining individual consent is not required as TripAdvisor is a publicly accessible site (Kozinets, 2010; Mkono and Markwell, 2014). Moreover, member checks are not necessary. Hence, participation in TripAdvisor does not require formal membership and contributors of quoted entries within this study use pseudonyms (Langer, Elliott and Beckman, 2005; Sandlin, 2007).

Based on Kozinets' (2002) recommendations, this study follows guidelines that provide rigour in conducting netnographic research. These guidelines are covered in the next sections of this chapter as follows: research planning and site selection, data collection, analysis and interpretation, and research reporting.

4.1.1 Research Planning and Site Selection

Before conducting a netnographic research, a particular online site or forum that is appropriate for fulfilling the research objectives should be identified (Kozinets,

2002). This study addresses two research objectives relating to conceptualising forms of NVIB and identifying its triggers and selects TripAdvisor as the online context of this inquiry based on Kozinets' (2010) recommendations on site selection. According to (Kozinets, 2010), the relevancy of the selected site to the research focus is pivotal. TripAdvisor is relevant to this study focus. Founded in 2000, TripAdvisor is the most prominent stand-alone, user-generated review site within travel, playing the role of trusted intermediary for travellers (Jeacle and Carter, 2011; Miguéns, Baggio and Costa, 2008; O'Connor, 2010). Additionally, its credibility is underlined by academic research that refutes fears about falsely posted reviews and which underpins its reliability (Chua and Banerjee, 2013; Filieri, Alguezaui and McLeay, 2015; Miguéns, Baggio and Costa, 2008; O'Connor, 2010).

Moreover, the selected site should be active, displaying recent and regular communications (Kozinets, 2010). TripAdvisor demonstrates recent and regular publicly available communications that reach 350 million average monthly new visitors and 255 new posted contributions per minute (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016b). Moreover, the chosen site should be interactive with a good flow of communication among participants (Kozinets, 2010). Discussion forums on TripAdvisor offer engagement and flow of communication between participants which facilitate value-generating interactions and experiences through resources exchange (Breidbach and Brodie, 2016).

Additionally, the selected site should have a substantial mass of heterogeneous communicators (Kozinets, 2010). TripAdvisor offers 385 million reviews and opinions, covering 6.6 million accommodation types, restaurants and attractions, and has a critical mass of heterogeneous communicators. It operates in 48 markets worldwide (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016b). Finally, the site should provide detailed and descriptively rich data (Kozinets, 2010). TripAdvisor offers such data: customers can post reviews to categories such as hotel, restaurant, things to do; furthermore, there is the option to provide an individual rating for reviews, which encompasses rating of the service, hygiene levels, value, quality and location (Schuckert, Liu and Law, 2016).

4.1.2 Sampling and Data Collection

Just as the site selection needs to be planned carefully, so do the strategies of data collection (Kozinets, 2002). The size of the data collected can be identified according to the type of data analysis plan chosen. In the case of coding data manually, data collection should be limited to a relatively small amount, and the opposite applies when coding data using dedicated qualitative analysis software programs, which this study uses (Kozinets, 2010).

> "Researchers using computer-assisted qualitative data analysis can download more prolific quantities of data, and focus on collecting a large set of data" (Kozinets, 2010, p. 105).

To ensure a diversity of contexts associated with different experiences and thus different behavioural responses, categories of travellers' experiences available on TripAdvisor such as hotels, restaurants and things to do, are selected across twelve destinations worldwide. Destinations included the most and second most visited destinations for 2016 per continent (see Table 4-3).To ensure additional robustness for the findings, the research exercise was composed of six consecutive phases to confirm and refine coding.

Most visited destinations	Second most visited destinations	Continent
London – United Kingdom	Paris – France	Europe
Siem Reap –Cambodia	Bangkok – Thailand	Asia
Marrakech – Morocco	Cape Town – South Africa	Africa
New York City – USA	Cancun – Mexico	North America
Buenos Aires – Argentina	Rio De Janeiro –Brazil	South America
Sydney – New South Wales	Queenstown – New Zealand	South Pacific

Table 4-3: Most and Second Most Visited Destinations Worldwide in 2016 (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016a).

As opposed to random sampling, qualitative samples tend to be non-random, purposive linked to fulfilling the research objectives under study (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). This study uses purposive sampling to sample the categories per destination. The rationale behind this lies in two key considerations, firstly, to strengthen the stability and validity of findings and, secondly, to ensure an appropriate amount of data. Thereby to strengthen the

stability and validity of findings, the entire sample reflects a range of similar and contrasting categories (Miles and Huberman, 1994); each destination includes three categories (hotel, restaurants and things to do) per phase and these categories show different (contrasting) aggregate ratings. For example, London was the most visited destination in Europe for 2016. The categories sampled for the first phase were 'The Montague on the Gardens (hotel, excellent (5/5)), 'Jimmy's World Grill and Bar' (restaurant, poor (2/5)), and 'Downing Street' (things to do, average (3/5)). Therefore, looking at the sample per destination shows various categories with different aggregate ratings. Also, within each phase similar and contrasting categories (i.e. similar and contrasting aggregate ratings) are used, which, in turn, strengthens the stability and validity of the findings (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Secondly, to ensure an appropriate amount of data, the categories were sampled per destination as they had the largest number of reviews in the aggregate rating level they represent. To illustrate, if restaurant (X) in a certain destination showed an aggregate rating of 5/5 with a volume of reviews within a specific period of 300 reviews, while restaurant (Y) in the same destination showed the same aggregate rating but with a volume of reviews within the same specific period of 500 reviews, then Y was sampled and not X. Using the same example mentioned above, 'The Montague on the Gardens' hotel was chosen as it had the highest number of reviews in the 5/5 aggregate rating level and same goes for 'Jimmy's World Grill and Bar' restaurant, and 'Downing Street' as both had the highest number of reviews in the aggregate level they represent.

The rating system of TripAdvisor allows reviewers to rate categories (e.g. hotels) numerically using a five-point scale (5= excellent, 1=terrible).This is a process known as an individual rating. This study followed Kozinets' (2010) recommendation to examine data for relevant areas of interest. Therefore, the researcher spent two months exploring how TripAdvisor operates, specifically regarding the individual ratings and how it may or may not differ from what the customers post in their reviews. It was observed that customers commonly rated categories as terrible or poor; consistently, their reviews amount to exemplars of NVIB. However, in some other instances, customers' individual ratings were not

consistent with their posted reviews. Customers might rate a specific category as 'average', for instance, but write reviews that demonstrate exemplars of NVIB.

Accordingly, this study did not filter for only poor or terrible individual ratings. Instead, this study followed recommendations for netnographic studies and sampled all reviews posted in English per category for a specific period of time, then thoroughly inspected and filtered these reviews for relevance, with a narrowing focus to include only negatively-valenced reviews for analysis (Kozinets, 2010). These two stages are shown in Tables 4-4 to 4-9 by the columns labelled sampled reviews and relevant reviews. The sampled reviews represent all reviews posted in English for a specific period of time per category per destination, while the relevant reviews represent filtered reviews that demonstrate exemplars of NVIB, which have been saved and analysed.

Over the six phases of the study, 954 negatively-valenced reviews were identified and analysed. For phases one, two and three, the relevant data comprised 360 negatively-valenced reviews posted to categories from June to August 2016 within the most visited destinations worldwide (London, Siem Reap, Marrakech, New York, Buenos Aires, and Sydney). Following analysis of the three phases, another wave of data collection was undertaken to check and confirm the coding. This wave was composed of three more phases and the relevant data comprised 594 negatively-valenced reviews posted to categories from March to August 2016 (phase 4), from January to September 2016 (phase 5) and from September 2015 to September 2016 (phase 6) within the second most visited destinations worldwide (Paris, Bangkok, Cape Town, Cancun, Rio de Janeiro and Queenstown). Tables 4-4 to 4-9 show the data collected for the six phases.

Location	Category	Sampled Categories	Overall Rating		Sampled Reviews	Relevant Reviews
London	Hotels	The Montague on the Gardens	5/5	Excellent	150	1
	Restaurants	Jimmy's World Grill & Bar	2/5	Poor	50	25
	Things to do	Downing Street	3/5	Average	31	4
Siem Reap	Hotels	Steung Siem Reap Hotel	4/5	V. Good	13	0
	Restaurants	Angkor Palm	3.5/5	Good	10	1
	Things to do	Two Season Travel & Tour	2/5	Poor	15	8
Marrakech	Hotels	Club Eldorador Palmeraie	4/5	V. Good	8	3
	Restaurants	Café de France	3/5	Average	30	14
	Things to do	Royal Palace of Marrakech	2.5/5	Bad	10	7
New York City	Hotels	Manhattan Broadway Hotel	3/5	Average	8	1
	Restaurants	Roxy Diner	2.5/5	Bad	31	20
	Things to do	Central Park Zoo	4/5	V. Good	90	8
Buenos Aires	Hotels	NH Buenos Aires City	4/5	V. Good	3	0
	Restaurants	Salvador Grill Bar	2.5/5	Bad	10	7
	Things to do	Estacion Terminal de Buenos Aires	3/5	Average	1	0
Sydney	Hotels	L'Otel	1/5	Terrible	10	10
	Restaurants	Farm House Kings Cross	5/5	Excellent	40	2
	Things to do	Kings Cross	3/5	Average	10	2
Total number of reviews for phase 1, a three-month period (Jun – Aug, 2016)					520	113

Table 4-4: Phase 1: Sample of Categories per Destination

Location	Category	Sampled Categories	Overall Rating		Sampled Reviews	Relevant Reviews
London	Hotels	St. Joseph Hotel	2/5	Poor	23	14
	Restaurants	Jamie's Italian Covent Garden	3/5	Average	164	23
	Things to do	Brick Lane Music Hall	5/5	Excellent	10	0
Siem Reap	Hotels	Angkor Western Lodge	2/5	Poor	6	6
	Restaurants	Sala Bai Restaurant	5/5	Excellent	10	0
	Things to do	Phnom Bakheng	3.5/5	Good	11	4
Marrakech	Hotels	Hotel Le Marrakech	2/5	Poor	10	6
	Restaurants	Dar Nejjarine	3.5/5	Good	10	2
	Things to do	Morocco Active Adventures	5/5	Excellent	20	0
New York City	Hotels	The Aladdin	1/5	Terrible	6	4
	Restaurants	TGI Friday's	3/5	Average	30	12
	Things to do	Madame Tussauds New York	4/5	V. Good	168	24
Buenos Aires	Hotels	Argentina Tango Hotel	2.5/5	Bad	10	8
	Restaurants	The Argentine Experience	5/5	Excellent	21	0
	Things to do	Zoo Buenos Aires	3.5/5	Good	20	6
Sydney	Hotels	ADGE Apartment Hotel	5/5	Excellent	32	6
	Restaurants	Imperial Peking Harbour side	2/5	Poor	30	10
	Things to do	Paddy's Market	3.5/5	Good	50	3
Total number of reviews for phase 2, a three-month period (Jun-Aug, 2016)					631	128

Table 4-5: Phase 2 Sample of Categories per Destination.

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Location	Category	Sampled Categories	Overall Rating		Sampled Reviews	Relevant Reviews
London	Hotels	Blair Victoria Hotel	1/5	Terrible	10	10
	Restaurants	The Five Fields	5/5	Excellent	70	0
	Things to do	Sea Life London Aquarium	3/5	Average	259	40
Siem Reap	Hotels	Golden Temple Hotel	5/5	Excellent	139	1
	Restaurants	Happy Herb Pizza	3/5	Average	4	2
	Things to do	Terrace of Elephants	4/5	V. Good	55	1
Marrakech	Hotels	La Maison Arab	5/5	Excellent	44	0
	Restaurants	Gastro MK	4.5/5	Great	68	6
	Things to do	Museum of Marrakech	3.5/5	Good	24	5
New York City	Hotels	Casablanca Hotel -Times Square	5/5	Excellent	171	3
	Restaurants	Jekyll & Hyde of Greenwich	2/5	Poor	27	4
	Things to do	Discovery Times Square	3.5/5	Good	45	5
Buenos Aires	Hotels	Unique Luxury Park	3/5	Average	10	2
	Restaurants	Brasas Argentinas	3.5/5	Good	10	5
	Things to do	Avenida 9 De Julio	4/5	V. Good	27	3
Sydney	Hotels	Parkview Hotel Sydney	2/5	Poor	10	7
	Restaurants	Kobe Jones	3/5	Average	36	15
	Things to do	Bondi Beach	4/5	V. Good	193	10
Total number of reviews for phase 3, a three-month period (Jun-Aug, 2016).					1202	119

Table 4-6: Phase 3 Sample of Categories per Destination

Location	Category	Sampled Categories	Overall Rating		Sampled Reviews	Relevant Reviews
Paris	Hotels	Grand Hotel de Paris	2.5/5	Bad	20	10
	Restaurants	L'epi Du Pin	4/5	V. Good	21	1
	Things to do	Place de la Bastille	3.5/5	Good	28	4
Bangkok	Hotels	First House Bangkok	3/5	Average	33	10
	Restaurants	Nami Teppanyaki Steakhouse	4.5/5	Great	95	7
	Things to do	Central World Plaza	4/5	V. Good	400	10
Cape Town	Hotels	Cape Town Ritz Hotel	3/5	Average	90	20
	Restaurants	Ferrymans Tavern	3.5/5	Good	44	10
	Things to do	Cape Point Nature Reserve	4.5/5	Great	290	15
Cancun	Hotels	Hotel Riu Cancun	4/5	V. Good	360	32
	Restaurants	Johnny Rocket's	3/5	Average	48	10
	Things to do	Flea Market	2.5/5	Bad	35	11
Rio de Janeiro	Hotels	Hotel Marina Palace	4/5	V. Good	14	2
	Restaurants	Alessandro e Frederico Pizzaria	3.5/5	Good	15	3
	Things to do	Rio Water Planet	3/5	Average	10	1
Queenstown	Hotels	Sofitel Queenstown Hotel & Spa	4.5/5	Great	124	3
	Restaurants	Mandarin Chinese Restaurant	2/5	Poor	6	5
	Things to do	Sky City Casino	3/5	Average	27	5
Total number of reviews for phase 4, a six-month period (Mar-Aug, 2016)					4290	159

Table 4-7: Phase 4 Sample of Categories per Destination

Location	Category	Sampled Categories	Overall Rating		Sampled Reviews	Relevant Reviews
Paris	Hotels	Hotel Bristol Republique	2/5	Poor	10	7
	Restaurants	La Petite Hostellerie	3/5	Average	15	6
	Things to do	La cite des Sciences et de l'industrie	4/5	V. Good	21	3
Bangkok	Hotels	Intercontinental Bangkok	4.5/5	Great	284	10
	Restaurants	Nara Thai Cuisine	3/5	Average	115	21
	Things to do	Wat Sai Floating Market	2.5/5	Bad	15	8
Cape Town	Hotels	Fountains Hotel	3.5/5	Good	74	13
	Restaurants	Cape Town Fish Market	3/5	Average	61	11
	Things to do	District Six Museum	4.5/5	Great	223	6
Cancun	Hotels	Caribe Internacional	2/5	Poor	10	6
	Restaurants	Puerto Madero	5/5	Excellent	365	11
	Things to do	Plaza Caracol	3/5	Average	15	6
Rio de Janeiro	Hotels	Royalty Copacabana Hotel	2.5/5	Bad	15	13
	Restaurants	Banana Jack	3/5	Average	11	2
	Things to do	Theatro Municipal	4/5	V. Good	113	5
Queenstown	Hotels	Lakeside Motel	2/5	Poor	11	5
	Restaurants	Pedro's House of Lamb	4.5/5	Great	208	3
	Things to do	Queenstown Mall	4/5	V. Good	115	6
Total number of reviews for phase 5, a nine-month period (Jan-Sept 2016).					1681	142

Table 4-8: Phase 5 Sample of Categories per Destination

Location	Category	Sampled Categories	Overall Rating		Sampled Reviews	Relevant Reviews
Paris	Hotels	Pavillon Opera Lafayette	2.5/5	Bad	15	9
	Restaurants	Le Relais Paris Opera	2/5	Poor	21	13
	Things to do	Parc Zoologique de Paris	3/5	Average	39	2
Bangkok	Hotels	Kawin Place	2/5	Poor	10	7
	Restaurants	Baiyoke Sky Hotel Restaurant	3.5/5	Good	116	28
	Things to do	Patpong Night Market	3/5	Average	320	111
Cape Town	Hotels	Protea Hotel Cape Town	3/5	Average	65	11
	Restaurants	Peddlars& Co.	3/5	Average	72	18
	Things to do	Castle of Good Hope	3.5/5	Good	142	44
Cancun	Hotels	Hotel Los Girasoles Cancun	3/5	Average	17	1
	Restaurants	Mocambo's	4/5	V. Good	92	10
	Things to do	Playa Delfines	5/5	Excellent	273	3
Rio de Janeiro	Hotels	Hotel Astoria Palace	3.5/5	Good	43	4
	Restaurants	Espirito Santa	4/5	V. Good	63	10
	Things to do	Museu da Republica	4.5/5	Great	20	4
Queenstown	Hotels	Swiss-Belresort Coronet Peak	3/5	Average	56	12
	Restaurants	Memories of Hongkong	3/5	Average	5	4
	Things to do	The Winery	5/5	Excellent	115	2
Total number of reviews for phase 6, a twelve-month period (Sept 2015-Sept 2016).					1484	293

Table 4-9: Phase 6 Sample of Categories per Destination.

The rationale behind decisions regarding periods of data collection, language and the valence of reviews is discussed as follows. First, the assigned periods are selected based on their proximity to the time of data collection and the availability of high anticipated numbers of reviews posted to categories, which specifically depends on high tourism season in different destinations (e.g. summer in Sydney is winter in Paris). Second, to avoid inaccurate translation, only reviews posted in English were considered. Third, to ensure the relevance of the data to the stated research aim, NVIB was identified within reviews in accordance with its theoretically informed definition in addition to research papers addressing textual discourse (Broadbent, 1977; Giora, 2002; Polanyi and Zaenen, 2006) that were consulted to aid the identification of negatively-valenced reviews. Table 4-10 illustrates some examples of items generally known to communicate positive and negative valence.

Part of Speech	Positive Valence	Negative Valence
Simple Lexical Valence		
Verbs	Boost, Ease, Encourage, Delight	Discourage, Fail, Haggle
Nouns	Benefit, Worth, Favour	Backlash, Catastrophe
Adjectives	Attractive, Better, Good	Annoying, Awry, Bad
Contextual Valence Shifters		
	Effect	Terms
Negatives	Flip the valence of a term	Not, never, nobody, neither, nothing, etc.
Intensifiers	Weaken a valence of a term Strengthen a valence of a term	*Rather* efficient *Deeply* suspicious
Presuppositions	Shift the valence of evaluative terms	*Barely* sufficient
Connectors	Negate evaluations	Although, however, but, etc.

Table 4-10: Elements Communicating Textual Positive and Negative Valence (Polanyi and Zaenen, 2006).

Moreover, to ensure analytical rigour, contextual valence shifters (i.e. negatives, intensifiers, presuppositions and connectors) were considered in addition to the way in which negative valence was communicated (e.g. ironically) (Giora, 2002) and its weight (negative vs. positive) (Broadbent, 1977; Polanyi and Zaenen, 2006). For example, when reviewers mentioned one negative feature or aspect of a service but showed many other aspects to be adequate, their reviews did not communicate negative valence. Table 4-11 illustrates the difference in the weight of valence, revealed in two reviews (bold text is added to show the weight of the valence).

Type of review	Example of reviews
Not considered a negatively-valenced review	*'Had a 10-day business trip to Cape Town, was booked at the Ritz Cape Town. After reviewing the location and **overall experience was excited**. Buffet breakfast was included and with free Wi-Fi, **pleasantly surprised**... large LED T...extra blankets available besides duvet. Amazing view towards Lions Head and Sea Point, walking distance to promenade. **Amazing buffet** breakfast... reception was friendly and always willing to help. BUT, there were ongoing construction at the time, disturbances during the day were common'*(Wilcot, Hotel: Cape Town).
Considered a negatively-valenced review	***'This place is the rip-off of all rip-offs! Dry, over-cooked fake chicken. Mushy cold fries…They forgot our sauces; they squirt ketchup sloppily on a plate instead of giving you packets if you ask for it. And they are rude. They should be ashamed conducting a business like that and charging those prices. Avoid like the plague.*** *Plenty of other better choices there (Ken M, Restaurant: Cancun).*

Table 4-11: Examples of Weight of Negative Valence in Online Reviews

4.1.3 Interpretation and Analysis

Thematic analysis is used to interpret forms and triggers of NVIB, considering the entire post as the unit of analysis (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Thomsen, Straubhaar and Bolyard, 1998). Thematic analysis is conducted using open and axial coding (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Open coding involves examining data and considering all the possibilities within it, followed by "coding conceptual labels" on the respective data. Axial coding involves "crosscutting or relating concepts to each other" (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 195). The open/axial coding represents an iterative process of going back and forth between extant literature, data and the emerging theory (Danneels, 2003).

In this study, themes were initially identified inductively from the raw data and deductively from the literature review (Danneels, 2003; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Taylor and Bogdan, 1984). However, as prior research addressing the concept of NVIB does not exist in the literature, an analytical emphasis is placed on the inductively emanated themes. Therefore, the themes that initially emerged using open coding gained further scrutiny during axial coding by comparing them to identify their similarities, relationships and distinct differences; thus, it builds the codes into higher-order conceptual constructs (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Miles and Huberman, 1994). Open coding involves identifying forms, and axial coding involves relating emerging themes to direct (Customers explicitly address other actors in their reviews) and indirect (Customers are not explicitly address other

actors in their reviews) NVIB (Becker, 2005). Similarly, themes of triggers gain further scrutiny during axial coding and are related to either cognitive or emotional root.

This study uses a process of analysis that "builds over time [six phases] with the acquisition of data" (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 57). This process corresponds to the analytical sequence of abstracting and comparing followed by checking and refinement (see Table 4-12) which is also recommended for netnographic data analysis (Kozinets, 2010; Miles and Huberman, 1994). During data analysis, themes emerging from the first phase are compared for similarities and differences against the sets of data collected in the subsequent phases. This resulted in the discovery of new codes and, subsequently, new forms and triggers over the six phases.

Analytic Processes	Justification
Coding	Affixing codes to data drawn from online sources, whereby these codes label the data as belonging to or being an example of some more general phenomenon
Noting	Reflections on the data, also known as 'memoing'
Abstracting and Comparing	Materials are sorted to identify similar phrased, shared sequences, relationships, and distinct differences; thus, it builds the categorised codes into higher-order or more general conceptual constructs, whereas comparing looks at the similarities and differences across data incidents
Checking and Refinement	Returns to the field for the next wave of data collection in order to isolate, check and refine the understanding of patterns, process, commonalities and differences
Generalising	Elaborated a small set of generalisations that cover or explain the consistencies in the dataset
Theorising	Confronting generalisations gathered from data with formalised body of knowledge that uses construct or theories

Table 4-12: Qualitative Data Analytic Process (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 9).

To ensure the efficient management of data, NVivo10 was used. Coding and analysis demonstrated a total of 1,941 coded references for both forms (1,091) and triggers (850) of NVIB. The number of coded references resulted from coding all of the 954 reviews. The coded references demonstrate that a single review reveals both triggers and forms. Additionally, one trigger can lead customers to use more than one form of NVIB within the same review. Analysis of the first phase revealed four forms of NVIB (Discrediting, expressing regret, deriding and dissuading) and four

triggers (Service failure, overpricing, deception and disappointment). Two more forms (Warning and endorsing competitors) were observed during analysis of the second phase; however, analysis of the third phase demonstrated the same number of forms and triggers generated from the preceding phases. Analysis of the fourth phase revealed one new trigger (insecurity) on top of those previously observed during analysis of the preceding phases. However, analysis of the two successive phases (fifth phase: 9 months' worth of reviews) and (sixth phase: 12 months' worth of reviews) resulted in no new triggers or forms. Thus, theoretical saturation was achieved (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Figure 4-1 illustrates the identification of forms and triggers over the six phases.
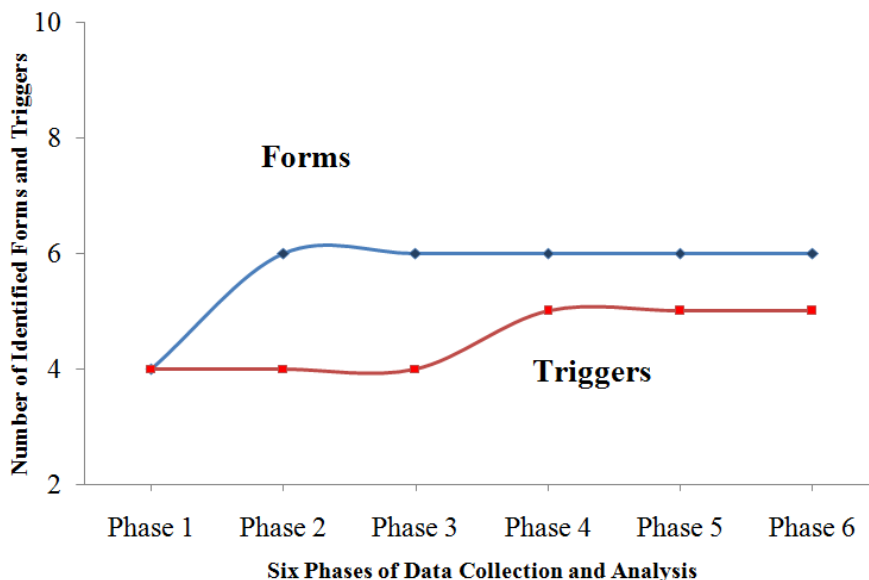
Figure 4-1: Phases of Data Collection and Analysis

Following the recommendations of Creswell (2014), crosschecking of coding was undertaken (see Appendix 2). Eight doctoral students studying marketing were chosen based on their experience with the process of coding and were sent a document with a sample of eleven reviews and a list of the eleven codes developed during analysis. To avoid confusion or misinterpretation, the document included clear coding instructions. They were asked to read the reviews carefully and match them to identified codes. Agreement on coding depends on "whether two or more coders agree on codes" used for reviews (Creswell, 2014, p. 203). In this study, six

coders showed a 100% coding agreement, with all codes developed during analysis, while two coders showed 90.9% coding agreement, giving a high overall consistency between coders (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The analysis reveals that NVIB within online reviews is composed of six forms: *discrediting, deriding, expressing regret, dissuading, warning* and *endorsing competitors*. The five triggers identified are *service failure, overpricing, deception, disappointment* and *insecurity*. These are introduced and discussed in the following sections, with exemplars of online reviews analysed (a bold font is used in the exemplars to highlight specific forms and triggers). Appendices 3, 4, and 5 provide more exemplars of reviews.

4.2 Research Findings

4.2.1 Forms of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

This study provides a typology of six forms of NVIB, namely, *Discrediting, Expressing Regret, Deriding, Dissuading, Warning,* and *Endorsing competitors*. Table 4-13 shows the percentage of each form represented by the number of the coded references of each form within the total coded references of forms (1091) in this study.

Forms of NVIB	Number of References	Percentage
Discrediting	437	40%
Dissuading	315	28%
Expressing Regret	186	17%
Endorsing Competitors	53	5%
Deriding	50	5%
Warning	50	5%
Total Number of Coded References	1091	100%

Table 4-13: Number and Percentage of Coded References of NVIB Forms within Online Reviews

This study also identifies that customers engage in NVIB either by explicitly addressing other actors or without explicitly addressing other actors in their online reviews; accordingly, this study classifies forms of NVIB into direct and indirect based on the way customers engage in NVIB using each form within their reviews (see Figure 4-2).
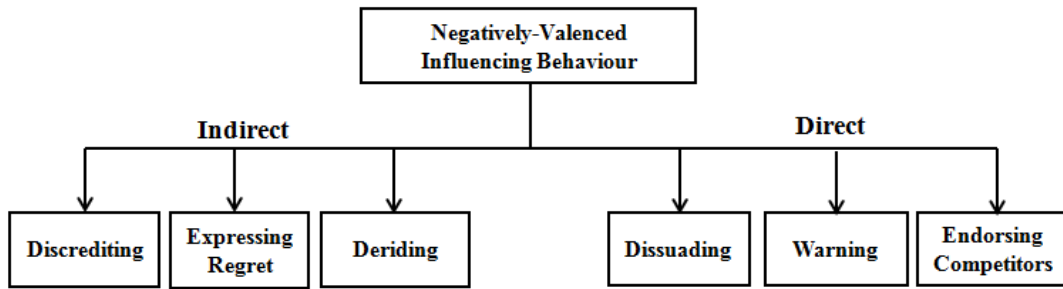
Figure 4-2: Direct and Indirect Forms of NVIB within Online Reviews

Indirect Forms of NVIB

Discrediting, expressing regret and deriding forms represent indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews. By using indirect forms, customers contribute resources such as knowledge, skills, time and experience to discredit a service provider, to express regret for choosing a focal provider or to deride service providers based on their experiences without directly addressing or advising other actors not to transact with particular firms or service providers.

Discrediting

Customers engage in NVIB, by discrediting service providers based on their experience without directly addressing other actors or advising them not to transact with this provider. In their reviews, they share their negative experiences, reporting on details of substandard service provided by focal service providers or firms. In most instances, reviewers evaluate the functional and service environment quality and the service staff of firms or service providers. For example:

> The **staff at the reception was not friendly** or **helpful**; the girl who served us **continued her conversation with a security guard on the other side of the foyer whilst serving us**…*pleased that we **hadn't** spent a lot of money to go there (Kindcat2014, Things to do: New York).*

> How bad can a 4* be? **In this case, really, really bad**. Unfortunately, **the facilities haven't been updated. Peeling paint**, **noisy** …**food was awful**… **None of the staff were able to do anything without the manager's approval who conveniently were never available**…**1 electrical socket per room**, **The staff were horrible**…**A truly horrible place** (travelgirl078, Hotel: Marrakesh).

> When we walked in, the hotel **didn't have room for us** and **put us in another hotel a block away**. It wasn't far, **but not what we booked. The room wasn't ready or clean**…**there was only one set of towels for a triple room**…they were all out for laundry. So I had to walk back to the

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*first hotel and ask for towels **because that receptionist was too lazy to call over and ask them for towels**. There was **nowhere to plug our electronics in**. The air conditioner/heater did not work; we were told we could open the window. **We were given a rod to use to keep it open**. The **cold water faucet of the sink did not work**. The three receptionists we dealt with **were rude**, inconsiderate and just didn't seem to care* (deb699, Hotel: Buenos Aires)

Accordingly, as a form of NVIB, discrediting is defined as:

> ***Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about the focal service provider by discrediting this provider based on a specific service experience.***

Expressing Regret

Customers engage in NVIB, by explicitly express regret for choosing a service provider based on their experience, without directly addressing other actors. Customers using this form of NVIB intend to express their regret for choosing a service provider. It is common that customers communicate negative emotions within their online reviews even if they regret their choices (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). Embedded emotions of regret within online reviews are known to play a powerful role in changing other actors' perceptions and knowledge towards focal service providers as they elicit an avoidance motivation (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017; Stieglitz and Dang-Xuan, 2013; Strack and Deutsch, 2004). In addition to expressing regret, customers also reveal their 'not to repeat' intentional plans (Strack and Deutsch, 2004). For example:

> *'When I spent my night in this hotel it was my worst experience **I regretted my decision**. All the furniture, carpets, even the toilet are old. **I will not stay there again**' (Xnan44, Hotel: Paris).*

In some instances, customers express their regret for misevaluating prior alternatives, such as considering other customers' negative reviews about a focal provider before making their decision (Bell, 1982). For example:

> *Absolutely horrible **never again would visit it**! At the time only had 2* but I thought I'd give it a chance. **Wish I listened to the reviews** (Megso19, Restaurant: New York)*

> *Going to this place was by far our worst travel experience. **We were already warned about the ping-pong** scam but we still insisted on going out of curiosity (**bad decision**). **We thought it was probably just a one-off case, but came to the biggest regret, never again** (Katrina Y, Things to do: Bangkok)*

Notably, customers engaging in this form focus mainly on communicating regret in their online reviews, to other customers to tell them about a bad service (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004) rather than sharing detailed service experiences, which is unlike

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the discrediting form where customers share detailed negative experiences without expressing any emotions.

Accordingly, as a form of NVIB, expressing regret is defined as:

> ***Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions of focal service provider by expressing regret for choosing this provider and revealing their future avoidance plans based on a specific service experience.***

Deriding

Customers engage in NVIB, by deriding a focal service provider based on their experience without directly addressing other actors. In their reviews, customers use sarcasm that shifts the polarity of positive or negative speech to its opposite (Giora et al., 2000; González-Ibánez, Muresan and Wacholder, 2011). For example:

> *There are stairs everywhere – including to the lift. And while I'm on the subject of the lift: **two people can fit in there as long as they're good friends and neither of them has BO** (Fiftynot, Hotel: Paris)*

> ***This is Pippa the pig – Barn accommodation.** On a lovely rainy noon, we arrived at the **barn**...The smell was beyond sensational. Even if I **was a pig, enjoying mud, dirt etc. I wouldn't go there again even for - 125 pounds for 4** (Cornelia W, Hotel: Queenstown)*

> ***TV** seemed to be an **Internet stream** as it **kept buffering** and played more **like a slide show**. Shaving light cover is **lying next** to bare bulb. This is what I can recall before my **brain started to** subliminally **bury the horror to protect my sanity** (willbug, Hotel: London)*

In some other instances, customers use salient, incompatible meanings of non-literal language, to deride a focal provider, which is known to be more retainable and memorable than compatible literal meanings (Giora, 2002). For example:

> *To show the poor state of the Castle of Good Hope in Cape Town: 'Castle of **Doom!**' (683stuarte, Things to do: Cape Town).*

> *To call TGI Fridays, based on a bad experience: 'Thank GOD it's **Finished** (Audacious_D12, Restaurant: New York).*

> *To show the ruined gardens of Queenstown mall: 'Ye Gods! What a **mess** in the **garden of the gods**!' (Jimgo, Things to do: Queenstown)*

Accordingly, as a form of NVIB, deriding is defined as:

> ***Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by deriding this provider based on a specific service experience.***

Direct Forms of NVIB

Dissuading, Warning and *Endorsing competitors* represent direct forms of NVIB within online reviews. By using these forms, customers contribute resources by explicitly addressing other actors, by dissuading or warning them to avoid transacting with focal providers based on their unsatisfactory or perilous experiences, respectively, or by endorsing competitors encouraging other actors to transact with over a focal provider.

Dissuading

Customers engage in NVIB, by directly dissuading other actors from transacting with a focal firm or service provider, stressing opposition to and the refusal of a focal provider based on an unfavourable experience. For example:

> *The waiter was WAY too busy to listen to us and brought us vegetarian food we didn't want and didn't order. The food was greasy and expensive. No one cared that it wasn't what we ordered. **Do not eat here** (Susan B, Restaurant: Paris)*
>
> *We were cheated, was told $100 for 2 person…But when we going to leave we were told to pay 3800 baht!!!! For few stupid adult shows…This is absurd!!! **Tourists do not be tempted to go the Ping Pong show** (Quek P, Things to do: Bangkok)*
>
> *Took all of 15 minutes to get round the place. There are about 70 stalls in a building and all are selling the same stuff except a couple of jewellery and 1 tequila unit. **Don't waste your time** (TravelBug1004, Things to do: Cancun)*

As a form of NVIB, dissuading is defined as:

> **Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by dissuading other actors from transacting with this provider based on a specific service experience.**

Warning

Customers engage in NVIB, by directly warning other actors when they have evidence of or concerns about risk (Meloy et al., 2012). They explicitly warn other actors in their reviews about a probable risk based on a perilous experience. Unlike other forms, customers here use affirmative and simple sentences, which are known to be easier to understand than negative and passive ones (Broadbent, 1977). They

also use capital letters within their reviews, which are regarded as playing a central role in highlighting their alerting message (Godfrey et al., 1983). For example:

> *Warning! Read this if you are going to Patpong. **WARNING! BE WARNED!!!** Thailand doesn't seem that safe after all. **BEWARE!** (PatrikL, Things to do: Bangkok)*

> ***I WARN YOU! NO CREDIT CARDS- THEY WILL ROB YOU!!!!**(Bennett_Traveler, Restaurant: Rio de Janeiro)*

> ***I WARN** you all **STAY AWAY from here IT IS SCARY OUTTHERE** (dloctrav, Hotel: Paris)*

Notably, customers using this form do not share their experiences, instead they focus on warning others highlighting issues of risk, peril and insecurity in their online reviews. They specify the entire review for warning others, which is unlike the dissuading form where customers detail their experiences and then advise others not to transact with focal service providers.

Accordingly, as a form of NVIB, warning is defined as:

> *Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by warning other actors against this provider based on a specific service experience involving threat assessments.*

Endorsing Competitors

Customers engage in NVIB, by directly endorsing competitors for other actors over a focal service provider. For example:

> *This is more a large pokies room. No atmosphere and old slot games. Not worth it. **Go to Auckland Sky city** (naths1, Things to do: Queenstown)*

> *If you are up for all you can eat in Port Madero, **go to Gourmet Porteno better than this restaurant by far** (MzHC, Restaurant: Buenos Aires)*

> *Other resorts have better facilities. Other resorts go above and beyond to give you what you want. **Crown Paradise**…does a much better job of **catering**, and **offering entertainment for adults and kids**. **Golden Parnassus** - highly recommended if you are going without kids. All better experiences than this Riu hotel (Kimberly R, Hotel: Cancun)*

Unlike the dissuading form, customers using this form are neither sharing their detailed experience nor explicitly dissuading others from transacting with focal providers, instead, do they devote their entire reviews to recommend competitors attempting to encourage other customers to choose these competitors over a focal

provider. Importantly, providing other actors with alternatives (competitors) influences their commitment to a focal provider (Yim, Chan and Hung, 2007).

As a form of NVIB, endorsing competitors is defined as:

> ***Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions of a focal service provider by endorsing competitors for other actors, encouraging them to choose these competitors over this provider based on a specific service experience.***

The six forms of NVIB identified within online reviews are classified into direct and indirect based on the way customers use them. Customers engage in NVIB without explicitly addressing other actors in their reviews, by discrediting a service provider, deriding a service provider or by expressing regret for choosing a service provider based on their experience, to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about focal providers. On the direct side, customers engage in NVIB, by directly dissuading other actors from transacting with focal service providers based on their experience or by warning other actors against a focal provider based on a perilous experience or by endorsing competitors for other actors, encouraging them to choose competitors over a focal provider based on their experience to negatively affect their knowledge, expectations and perceptions of these providers. Table 4-14 summarises the empirically derived definitions of the six forms. The next subsections introduce the identified five triggers of NVIB and the explored relationships between triggers and forms of NVIB.

Forms of NVIB within Online Reviews		Definitions
Indirect	Discrediting	Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by discrediting this provider based on a specific service experience
	Expressing Regret	Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by expressing regret for choosing this provider and revealing their future avoidance plans based on a specific service experience
	Deriding	Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by deriding this provider based on a specific service experience
Direct	Dissuading	Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by dissuading other actors from transacting with this provider based on a specific service experience
	Warning	Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by warning other actors against this provider based on a specific service experience involving threat assessments
	Endorsing Competitors	Customer contributions of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by endorsing competitors for other actors, encouraging them to choose these competitors over this provider based on a specific service experience

Table 4-14: Empirically Derived Definitions of Forms of NVIB within Online Reviews

4.2.2 Triggers of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

In general, triggers refer to factors or events experienced by customers that alter customers' evaluation of an offering or service, consequently inducing NVIB (Gustafsson, Johnson and Roos, 2005; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010).This study identifies five triggers of NVIB within online reviews, namely, *service failure, overpricing, deception, disappointment,* and *insecurity.* Table 4-15 shows the percentage of each trigger represented by the number of its coded references within the total coded references of triggers (850) in this study.

Triggers of NVIB	Number of References	Percentage
Service Failure	434	51%
Disappointment	155	18 %
Overpricing	144	17%
Deception	92	11%
Insecurity	25	3%
Total Number of Coded References	**850**	**100%**

Table 4-15: Number and Percentage of Coded References of Triggers of NVIB within Online Reviews

The first trigger is *service failure* and relates to incidents when a focal service fails to live up to customer expectations (Edvardsson, 1992; Lewis and McCann, 2004). Examples of service failure as revealed in reviews comprise the core service itself, the service environment, the behaviour of service staff and the dysfunctionality of service facilities. For example:

> We **seated ourselves** and had to sit at a **dirty table** while **waiting around 10 minutes** to simply get **a menu and then waited a further 10-15 minutes for someone to take our food/drink order**. When we finally got our food **everything was wrong…Overall terrible service** and the food is horrible (anonymous16162016; Restaurant: New York)

> **Service is a disgrace** food is average at best. We **waited hours** for the restaurant to open due to a technical issue and it certainly **wasn't worth it**. I then **emailed** the restaurant regarding our experience and **they ignore feedback** (Chakravarthi N, Restaurant: London)

> **Poor Service**, we were given menus, had our orders taken and then **made to wait 45 minutes for a glass of water**. The orders were **incomplete and meat overcooked** (Shannon P, Restaurant: Buenos Aires)

The second trigger is *overpricing*, which relates to the conceptualisation of poor value for money. Customers conceive a service or product as overpriced when the value of what they receive (e.g. taste of a meal, hygiene standards, service level, type of attraction, facilities of a focal place) is poor compared to the price they pay (Priem, 2007). For example:

> **Overpriced** for a chain restaurant…It's also dirty and the staff is plain rude…Venture out and look on trip advisor for other restaurants in the area. The food is better and the price will either be the same or cheaper - depending on what you're looking for (Vanessa N, Restaurant: New York).

> **Food was nowhere near great at the prices they were charging** $35 a plate for calamari that was like rubber fried rice that may have hit the pan for a second which had no taste even with the egg, ham, prawns and spring onion the crispy duck was dry. (Troy S, Restaurant: Sydney)

> Did not buy anything from here, **all items are overpriced**. Go down a block to the **nice supermarket** and the **large Mexican tourist store** to **buy your items** (Adam M, Things to do: Cancun)

The third trigger is *deception*, which relates to a perceived act of cheating deliberately carried out by a focal firm or service provider towards customers (Chowdhury and Miles, 2006; Williamson, 1993). For example:

> *'**Dishonest!** Service was legitimately terrible. Border crossing was a disaster and completely unorganized. **The agency took advantage of our situation took advantage of us**' (Keith, Things to do: Siem Reap).*

> *'I really needed to leave and catch my plane back. They **used this chance to overcharge a service and force me to pay too much**. This happened directly with the hotel manager, who didn't hesitate a second in **ripping me off given the circumstances**' (Pedro, Hotel: Rio de Janeiro).*

> *'**Don't be fooled by the glamorous photos! False advertising. The hotel does not look like the photos advertised at all**. Don't go to this hotel' (Mel, Hotel: Sydney).*

The fourth trigger is *disappointment*. This relates to negative feelings occurring when the outcomes of a focal service disconfirm customers' previously held expectations (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). For example:

> *I convinced my boyfriend we should go for a wander around and was **thoroughly disappointed**. The whole area lacked any character or atmosphere. Most of the stalls were half empty, the traders rude, and prices expensive and definitely no taxi ride out there (Lucy R, Things to do: Bangkok)*

> *A huge disappointment…Market pretty average, got hassled for tips constantly- **massively disappointed**, dirty place. People are not friendly (Mrs.welshy, Things to do: Queenstown)*

> ***Disappointing** for a place that is not much more than your ordinary restaurant, prices charged one can get far better quality food…**far from what is expected for that price** (CTstudentReviews, Restaurant: Cape Town)*

The fifth trigger is *insecurity* and relates to customers' feelings of insecurity based on perilous experiences involving particular threat assessments (Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006).

> *Believe me they try it on me but **I started to yell so they let me go**, but it was a scary experience. **Too many stories about tourist being stung over here**…**Watch it** (Coby D, Things to do: Bangkok)*

> *Lots of citizens remind us to hold tightly of the camera as **someone will pick up from you**. **Remember! Lock or zip un-used camera in bags** (Winfield T, Things to do: Rio de Janeiro)*

> *The walk back around at dark was no better as you had to **be wary nobody was following you** as that is **the anxiety the hotel had put upon us**…**This shabby, slimy, shocking place engraved with us a bad vibe for Paris** (dloctrav, Hotel: Paris)*

The five triggers have both cognitive and emotional roots. Cognition and emotions coexist and interplay to elicit human behaviours (Bigné, Mattila and Andreu, 2008). However, human behaviour is "controlled by two interacting systems that follow different operating principles" (Strack and Deutsch, 2004, p. 220). The reflective system requires a high amount of cognitive capacity to generate a focal behaviour based on knowledge, evaluation and the assessment of facts and values, while the impulsive system requires little cognitive capacity as it elicits focal behaviour based on emotions (Strack and Deutsch, 2004). Translating this to relate to the findings of this study, 'service failure', 'overpricing' and 'deception' are considered triggers with more cognitive than emotional roots as they involve an assessment of services, prices and provider dishonesty in the minds of customers, traded off against their expectations of what they would receive in interactions with particular firms and service providers (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). On the other hand, 'disappointment' and 'insecurity' are considered triggers with more emotional than cognitive roots, as they involve feelings of antipathy expressed by customers when they feel disappointed or insecure (Verhagen, Nauta and Feldberg, 2013).

These five triggers of NVIB identified are classified into cognitive (*service failure, overpricing* and *deception)* and emotional *(disappointment* and *insecurity*) triggers, whereby cognitive triggers elicit focal NVIB within online reviews, based on the knowledge, evaluation and assessment of facts and values while emotional triggers elicit NVIB based on emotions. *Service failure* relates to incidents where a focal service fails to meet customers' expectations. *Overpricing* relates to customers' conception of a service value as poor compared to its price. *Deception* relates to a perceived act of cheating deliberately carried out by a focal firm or service provider towards customers, such as add-on fees and fake communication. *Disappointment* relates to disconfirmation of outcomes of a focal service with customers' previously held expectations and *insecurity* relates to customers' feelings of insecurity based on experiences involving particular threat assessments. The next subsection introduces the relationships between triggers and forms of NVIB as explored in this study.

4.2.3 Relationships between Triggers and Forms of NVIB

Further investigation of the relationships between triggers and forms of NVIB was conducted using the matrix coding query function of NVivo10 to show the coverage of each form and the possible co-occurrence with triggers (see Table 4-16) by "searching for data coded to multiple pairs of items simultaneously" (Hutchison, Johnston and Breckon, 2010, p. 295) using the row percentage matrix. This matrix considers the total number of coded words across all cells for each row and then a percentage is given for each cell to represent its proportion compared to other cells in the same row (QSRInternational.com, 2016).

	Discrediting	Expressing Regret	Deriding	Dissuading	Warning	Endorsing Competitors
Service Failure	37.19%	26.73%	8.23%	21.79%	0.48%	5.59%
Overpricing	35.17%	23.26%	3.33%	27.88%	0.71%	9.64%
Disappointment	34.95%	40.77%	3.14%	17.78%	0%	3.37%
Deception	19.8%	22.41%	0.14%	35.3%	11.4%	10.95%
Insecurity	8%	16.07%	0%	10.65%	52.66%	12.63%

Table 4-16: Matrix Coding Query – Row Percentages

The table shows dominant (circled and bold) and less common relationships (i.e. not lower than 25%, circled only). The results of this coding query reveal that service failure and overpricing triggered 37.19% and 35.17% of coded discrediting form, respectively. Both service failure and overpricing trigger other NVIB forms but less commonly, such as expressing regret and dissuading forms, respectively. The first example shows the discrediting form triggered by service failure, and the second, by overpricing:

> *I was greeted at the front area by a **rude bartender** who mocked me as soon as my back was turned by saying 'hello hello hello' Wow, haven't experienced this level of **impertinence at any restaurant before**, and **so blatant**. Then, I was served **cold ravioli**, not once but **twice** (JudyLemke, Restaurant: London)*

> *Way too expensive for what you get. My husband is a huge star wars fan and we saw this and felt it was a must see. **We spent $65 for two tickets, which is a total over charge…**to just walk around and look at costumes that are about it. Plus we can't take photos with a flash and most of the rooms are dark (LisaClohessey, Things to do: New York)*

As revealed in reviews, disappointment overwhelmingly triggers the expressing regret form of NVIB. For example:

> *Huge **disappointment**!! We totally **regret this decision**! Market pretty average, we went to see a ping pong show but got hassled for tips constantly, dirty place, people not friendly. **Definitely won't be back.** (Mrwelshy, Things to do: Bangkok)*

In most instances, deception from service providers triggers dissuading, while insecurity exclusively triggers the warning form. The first example shows the dissuading form elicited by deception, and the second shows the warning form elicited by insecurity:

> *So we had 16 minutes to put our stuff in a paid locker (**there are free ones next the attraction but the lady at the counter didn't tell us that**) so we were lied to…We rushed past the next round of wax dummies to the 4D movie. What a joke. **It's barely 2.5d. The glasses were useless**…**Don't waste your time or money, this software isn't even in beta and they are selling it as a premium experience** (sqm211, Things to do: New York)*

> *Absolutely **HORRIFYING**!! As **we ran away, the receptionist then picked up a heavy glass ash tray to throw at us** but we got away safely. We **went to the police** but **they wanted to see blood before they could do anything! BEWARNED DO NOT STAY HERE IT IS NOT SAFE!!!!!!!** (Enisab13, Hotel: Bangkok)*

Given the lower frequency of both endorsing competitors and deriding forms compared to other forms in the row, a column percentage matrix was developed to show the coverage of these two forms and possible co-occurrence with NVIB triggers (see Table 4-17). The column percentage matrix considers all coded words per form (i.e. per column) and the cross cells that show higher percentages per column representing the associated trigger (Hutchison, Johnston and Breckon, 2010; QSRInternational.com, 2016). Table 4-17 shows the column percentage matrix for endorsing competitors and deriding forms and their co-occurrence with the five triggers.

	Endorsing Competitors	Deriding
Service Failure	45.35%	86.34%
Overpricing	21.3%	9.51%
Disappointment	3.13%	3.77%
Deception	23.99%	0.39%
Insecurity	6.24%	0%

Table 4-17: Matrix Coding Query – Column Percentage

The matrix shows that both the deriding and endorsing competitors forms are most frequently triggered by service failure. For example:

*As soon as we arrived we **were visited by a family of 5 flying cockroaches**…..At the end of the night, **another flying cockroach came to say goodbye**. It was a **memorable night** (Patrick A, Restaurant: Rio de Janeiro)*

*We went in on Saturday evening for a few drinks and something to eat... Shown to a **dirty wobbly table**...**Not even been offered a drink**. **Go to Applebee's round the corner** (705grant, Restaurant: New York)*

This study indicates that service failure is a predominant trigger of NVIB within online reviews; it commonly elicits customers to engage in NVIB by using three forms – discrediting, deriding and endorsing competitors. Overpricing commonly triggers customers to engage in NVIB by discrediting service providers. Deception predominantly triggers dissuading other actors, while disappointment commonly elicits expressing regret for choosing focal service providers. Exclusively, insecurity triggers warning other actors against service providers based on a service experience that involves threat assessment. To summarise the findings of this chapter, Figure 3 illustrates the five triggers (cognitive/emotional roots) and their relationships with the six forms of NVIB (the bold arrows represent dominant relationships while the dotted arrows represent less common ones) within online reviews. The next section discusses the findings of the research and their theoretical implications.
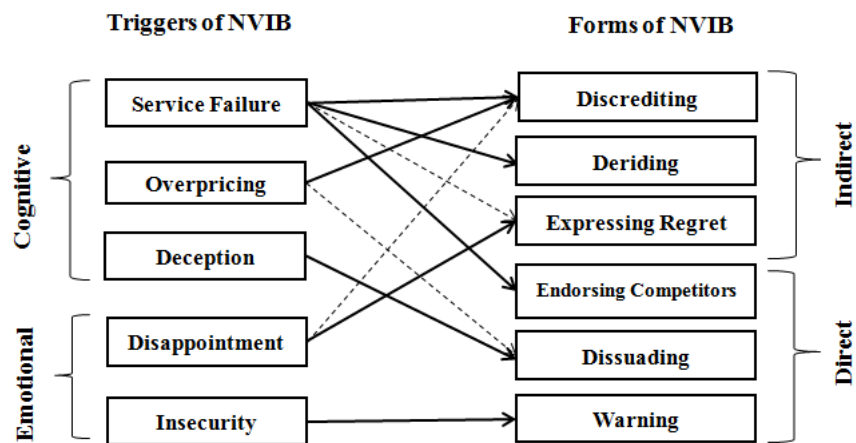
Figure 4-3: Forms and Triggers of NVIB within Online Reviews

4.3 Discussion

This study advances empirical research on negatively-valenced engagement thereby, responding to calls from Van Doorn et al. (2010), Hollebeek and Chen (2014), and Hollebeek et al. (2016). Using a netnographic study within a service-related web community context, this study conceptualises six forms of NVIB and classifies them into direct and indirect based on the way customers use them in their online reviews. Moreover, the study identifies five triggers of NVIB with both cognitive and emotional roots and identifies the specific relationships between these forms and triggers.

Prior CE, CEB and e-WOM research has tended to focus on the positive aspects with a minimal focus on the negative side and ensuing outcomes (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). In providing empirically-generated conceptualisations of forms of NVIB within online reviews, this study contributes to the emerging literature on negatively-valenced CE and CEB, which has so far been nebulous. The six forms should contribute to extant insights about influencing behaviour, specifically its negative side as expressed by customers on review sites. Thereby, responding to calls by Hennig-Thurau et al. (2010) and Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar (2007) to capture how customers talk about service providers in their negative reviews and to contribute to current literature with measurable forms.

This study classifies forms of NVIB, into direct and indirect based on the way customers employ them. Prior research commonly concentrates on recommending, referring or warning to capture customers' influential roles (e.g. Blazevic et al., 2013; Gummerus et al., 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010), which are typically direct in nature. However, this research provides ways that customers may use to share their negative experiences on review sites without explicitly addressing other actors. This approach, when applied to study CE, CEB and influencing behaviour is expected to provide rich insights into the influential roles of customers. Moreover, valence, is known to be positive, negative or neutral (Brady et al., 2006; Cheung and Thadani, 2012;

Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010), this research contributes to knowledge with the classification of negative valence to direct and indirect, thereby, providing a clearer view of how customers may attempt to influence other customers and establishing new routes for addressing CEB and its forms.

Reflecting on the frequency of occurrence of each form within the collected reviews, the implications are that customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews are inclined to use some forms more than others. Compared to other forms, discrediting (40%) is predominant. The rationale behind this might be the straightforwardness of this form, For instance, customers post their dissatisfying experience in detail to draw the attention of other actors to a service provider's lack of success in specific aspects (e.g. poor process, dimensions or value). This study also identifies that customers engage in NVIB by expressing their regret for choosing a focal service provider based on their experience. Reflecting on the frequency of occurrence of this form within the coded references, 17% of coded references represent expressions of regret. This may relate to customers' willingness to communicate emotions of regret to others which may be viewed as embarrassing (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004).

Moreover, the study shows that customers engage in NVIB by deriding a service provider without addressing other actors. However, their use of sarcasm, specifically non-literal meanings, makes their contribution more retainable and memorable (Giora, 2002). Reflecting on the frequency of occurrence of the deriding form (5%) implies that a limited number of customers use this form which may relate to the special cognitive skills required to employ sarcasm (Giora et al., 2000).

On the direct side, this study indicates that customers directly dissuade other actors from transacting with a focal service provider based on their experience. In this form, customers share their negative experience and explicitly dissuade other actors from transacting with focal service providers. By looking at the frequency of occurrence of this form, dissuading represents 28% of the coded references in this study, which may relate to the straightforwardness of this form. This study also

indicates that customers warn other actors against a service provider based on a perilous service experience. Prior research has shown that an experience that involves threat assessments is the main reason for individuals to warn others (Meloy et al., 2012). This study also shows that customers' reviews that show exemplars of engaging in NVIB using its warning form are short, simple, written mostly in capital letters and stress alarming words. Reflecting on the low frequency of the occurrence of the warning form (5%) may relate to the severity of the experience: not all experiences involve threat assessments; accordingly, customers may not frequently warn other actors when engaging in NVIB in their reviews.

Finally, this study indicates that customers endorse competitors for other actors, encouraging them to choose these competitors over focal service providers based on their experience. In this form, customers directly address other actors by providing them with alternatives (competitors) and recommend those competitors over a focal provider in their online reviews. This form differs from the dissuading form where customers stress on persuading other actors in their reviews not to transact with a specific provider. Reflecting on the frequency of the occurrence of the endorsing competitors form (5%), it implies that a few customers use this form because it may relate to their prior experience that enables them to know and recommend alternatives.

This study also identified five triggers of NVIB namely, *service failure, overpricing, deception, disappointment* and *insecurity*. Moreover, this study provided the relationships between triggers and forms of NVIB within online reviews. By providing these triggers, this study advances research on CE, CEB and influencing behaviour literature, firstly, as these triggers connote negative rather than positive engagement. This study provides a specifically negative typology that triggers customers to engage in NVIB within online reviews using a range of its forms which is unlike the unspecified positive or negative triggers identified by Hollebeek and Chen (2014).

Secondly, this study classifies these triggers as cognitive and emotional, which is a classification of triggers that is rarely introduced in the literature, as the majority of

prior studies on negative CE and e-WOM have concentrated solely on emotional triggers such as feelings of hatred, anger, stress and injustice (e.g. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Ladhari, 2007; Maute and Dubes, 1999; Naumann et al., 2017; Riegner, 2007; Söderlund and Rosengren, 2007; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004).

Thirdly, this study specifically extends on existing nomological network, where CE operates (Brodie et al., 2011) by providing a nomological network that encompasses *deception, disappointment, insecurity, service failure* and *overpricing* rather than trust, rapport, brand attachment, customer empowerment and loyalty, which signal positive rather than negative elements. Thereby verifying and advancing research on CE and CEB, specifically the negative side and responding to recent calls by several authors in the CEB and e-WOM literature to identify what triggers customers to share their negative experiences with others within an online environment (e.g. Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010).

This research provides further evidence that NVIB, at service system level, is likely to affect value co-creation (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). For customers, the value of engaging in NVIB relates to "their power to punish a service provider for a bad service" (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016, p. 8). For other actors, the value of engaging in NVIB relates to reducing uncertainty (Daft and Lengel, 1986) and gaining trustworthy information (Libai et al., 2010), specifically regarding purchase decisions related to services, as it is difficult to inspect the quality of service before actual experience (Mittal and Baker, 2002). Online shared experiences of customers, therefore, act as resources contributed to the purchase process of other actors (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016). Although this study was not conducted to show the impact of NVIB, nevertheless, exemplars of reviews collected show that other actors might change their plans based on customers' reviews of focal providers and, in some instances, regret not checking reviews before making decisions. In other instances, customers might consider it as their duty to advise other actors against focal providers. For example:

*We **use TripAdvisor to book all our stays** and one concern **was the report on noise at 4am**. (**You can look back to find this.**) We **asked reception for a quiet room*** (Galloway26, Hotel: Queenstown)

Oh, TripAdvisor, why did I not open and read you before I chose to dine today??? *I would have saved some cash (Froglovinlady, Restaurant: New York).*

I had to let everyone know how bad it really is *(Aaron R, Restaurant: New York).*

We feel a strong need to warn other parents about staying here *(Iriana, Hotel: Cancun)*

These examples show that engaged customers within particular interactions provide a service to others by contributing resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, experience and time) for value co-creation purposes (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2011). This chapter discussed the first strand of the SED and its results, which fulfils objectives 1 and 2 of this thesis. The following chapter discusses the second strand of the SED, which builds on the findings of this study, using the conceptualised forms of NVIB, employing an experimental research to measure the impact of NVIB within online reviews.

Chapter 5. The Impact of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour (Study 2)

This chapter introduces the second study of the SED, employing experimental research to measure the impact of NVIB within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Existing insights into the negative valence of engagement (e.g. Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016) are predominantly focused on customer-to-brand interactions and their ensuing outcomes on firms. However, as the literature has moved its focus beyond the dyadic perspective of engagement, a need exists to better understand engagement within a network (Bowden et al., 2017; Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016), particularly, the influence of NVIB, on other actors' attitudes and probable actions towards service providers, which is rare in the literature and which this study provides (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016).

Conceptual research shows that customers rely on each other to get authoritative information about products and services and that their online shared experiences, whether positive or negative, might adjust the knowledge, expectations and behavioural intentions of other actors towards a service provider (e.g. Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Blazevic et al., 2013; Libai et al., 2010; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). Correspondently, social psychology research shows that an influencing agent (e.g. a customer) might behave in a certain way with the intention of impacting the way other actors feel, think or behave towards a focal object (Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). The way customers feel (affect) or think (cognition) about a service provider forms their attitudes towards it (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Thurstone, 1931; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). Furthermore, a change in attitude sets the stage for a potential change in behaviour (Lee et al., 2011; Oliver, 1980; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). Additionally, marketing research shows that customer's attitudes towards a service provider are formed as a result of a global evaluation that comprises their experience, knowledge and perceptions of focal provider (Bolton and Drew, 1991),

while in the absence of prior experience, expectations form their attitudes towards focal service providers (Oliver 1980). Consequently, based on this theoretical evidence and the evidence from (Study 1), customers' NVIB might negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers based on specific service experiences.

To measure the impact of NVIB within online reviews, this study is composed of three experiments: the first compares the influencing of direct versus indirect NVIB, the second investigates the effect of NVIB when accompanied with aggregate ratings of service providers and the third examines the impact of NVIB juxtaposed with positive reviews. The rationale behind conducting the three experiments is underpinned by the following theoretical considerations. First, as the results of study 1 show a classification of NVIB into direct and indirect, it is deemed appropriate to start with an experiment that compares their impact on other actors. Thereafter, to provide a comprehensive understanding of the impact of NVIB that may or may not be consistent with the impact of a collective level of influence, the second experiment investigates the impact of direct and indirect NVIB accompanied by the group norms of the network represented by the aggregate ratings. This was specifically informed by data analysed in study 1 where customers referred in their reviews to the aggregate ratings of categories such as hotels, restaurants and things to do. Additionally, this experiment aims at approaching an existing debate in the literature about the impact of aggregate ratings versus the negative valence of behaviour.

Finally, the last experiment is conducted to provide insights into the impact of each form conceptualised in study 1, not only as direct and indirect NVIB but rather as a stand-alone form of NVIB, as the heterogeneity of the conceptualised forms implies probable variable impacts. This experiment also measures the impact of the six forms alongside different volumes of positive reviews to address an ongoing debate in the literature about the relative power of positive over negative messages. This was also informed by data analysed in study 1 showing customers' explicitly refer to posted positive reviews. This chapter starts with a theoretical background section and hypotheses formulation followed by another section to address the

experimental methods and introduce the chosen designs of the three experiments and their procedures. Subsequently, the results of each experiment are presented in separate sections and then a discussion of all the results is represented in the final section of the chapter.

5.1 Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

5.1.1 Influencing Attitudes and Behavioural Intentions

Prior research has shown that customers are influenced by the choices and opinions of other customers on products and services (e.g. Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004; Lee et al., 2011; Libai et al., 2010). Customers might use a media setting (e.g. the internet) to share their experience and recommend a service provider or firm or warn other actors away from a focal provider (Blazevic et al., 2013). Customers accept such influencing information to alleviate perceived risks and reduce their reliance on communications provided by firms (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Lee et al., 2011). Social psychologists call individuals who behave this way 'influencing agents' and claim that their intention is to affect the way others behave, feel or think about a firm or service provider (Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). This is identified by the notion of influencing behaviour as customer's contribution of resources to affect other actors' knowledge, expectations, perceptions or actions towards a firm or a service provider (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014).

Individuals' thoughts (cognition) and feelings (affect) form their attitudes towards a focal object. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) define attitude as the affect for or against a certain object, while Bolton and Drew (1991, p. 2) observe that a "customer's attitude corresponds to a global evaluation of a product or service", which involves their expectation, perceptions and knowledge of this product or service. Additionally, Oliver (1980) suggests that a customer's attitude towards a service provider is formed based on a prior experience, and in the absence of this experience, expectations initially define customers' attitude.

Moreover, customers might not only affect how others think or feel, but also how they behave towards a focal object (Lee et al., 2011; Oliver, 1980; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). This is identified within the concept of influencing behaviour as the willingness of other actors to contribute resources towards a focal service provider or firm (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Conceptual and empirical marketing research show that customer recommendations have the potential to increase sales and customer acquisitions, while their warnings and negative disseminated information about an offering can reduce a firm's value and decrease the future purchase decisions of other actors (Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010).

Actual behaviour is not always possible to observe and researchers tend to measure behavioural intentions instead, being a direct antecedent to behaviour that represents the intentions of an individual to perform certain behaviour (Madden, Ellen and Ajzen, 1992; Norman and Smith, 1995). Social psychologists identify behavioural intention as a "function of salient information about the likelihood that performing a particular behaviour will lead to a specific outcome" (Madden et al., 1992, p. 3). Translating this into the current study, the behavioural intention of other actors after coming across NVIB is a function of the salient information offered by an influencing agent (customer) about a provider and by the extent to which other actors' evaluations of transacting with this provider will lead to favourable or unfavourable outcomes. Several authors have observed that attitude might affect behaviour at a later stage (Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991), whereby a customer's favourable or unfavourable attitude towards a focal offering affects their purchase intention (Oliver, 1980; Lee et al., 2011). These observations are consistent with findings of conceptual research in the area of CEB regarding the probable effect of positive or negative shared experiences in adjusting other actors' expectations, evaluations and knowledge regarding a service provider, which, in turn, affect their willingness to contribute resources towards this provider (Jaakkola, Aarikka-Stenroos and Kimmel, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Zeithaml, 1988; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993).

Translating the above discussion into the current study using the definitions of social influence, attitude, and behavioural intentions, it is appropriate to posit that an influencing agent (customer) engages in an influencing behaviour using one of the communication tools (e.g. online reviews) with an intention of impacting other actors' attitudes (expectations, knowledge, and perceptions) and behavioural intentions (potential willingness to contribute resources) towards a service provider or firm. Study 1 of this thesis classified forms of NVIB into direct and indirect according to the way customers use each form in their reviews. To measure the impact of direct and indirect NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, this study followed recommendations of Fishbein (1967) and Triandis (1971) to measure attitudes and behavioural intentions separately. This is based on the assumption that the extent to which individuals' feelings, cognitions and behavioural intentions towards a focal object are consistent with their real actions, has underpinned the attitude-behaviour debate (Triandis, 1971). Accordingly, this study hypothesises that:

H1a: Direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider.

As revealed in study 1, on the indirect side, customers engage in NVIB, by discrediting service providers, deriding service providers or expressing regret for choosing a service provider without explicitly addressing or advising other actors not to transact with this service provider. On the direct side, customers engage in NVIB, by explicitly dissuading other actors not to transact with a service provider, warning other actors against a provider or endorsing competitors for other actors. Based on prior research on descriptive and injunctive messages (cf. Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008), indirect forms are to a great extent descriptive in nature while direct forms are more injunctive. Extant empirical research shows that injunctive messages are more persuasive than descriptive ones and so have a greater impact on changing an individual's behaviour (Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008). Accordingly, to measure the impact of direct versus indirect forms of NVIB, this study hypothesises that:

H1b: Direct forms are more powerful than indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, in negatively affecting other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider.

5.1.2 Negative Valence and Aggregate Rating

Influencing behaviour is usually accompanied by an aggregate rating of a service provider. For instance, on TripAdvisor, customers are exposed to both online reviews and aggregate ratings given to categories (e.g. hotel, restaurant, or things to do). This aggregate rating represents the average number of stars (5=Excellent, 1= Terrible) that have been awarded to the product by all reviewers (Filieri, 2015). Accordingly, the aggregate ratings represent the perceived norms of the network (Wu et al., 2016) The impact of such a collective level of influence may or may not be consistent with the impact of NVIB within online reviews.

Data analysed from study 1 revealed that customers refer to aggregate ratings in their reviews, in most instances, they discredit a highly rated category, dissuade others from believing a high/average rate, or from ignoring a terrible rate. For example:

> *This is no way a 5* restaurant!! It is terrible in everything, slow service; subpar food, rude staff and the list can go on forever! (DonCansse2, Restaurant: New York).*

> *We were on a tight budget; although we knew it's low rated we thought it could be unfairly rated! However, they showed even lower than their rate. Don't go, rates say it all (Machel133, Restaurant: Bangkok).*

> *Absolutely overpriced, I wonder why it got that high rating! Even average is not worth it. We had to wait 50 minutes to get a terrible meal. Don't go there (Morteiz, Restaurant: Rio de Janeiro).*

Prior empirical research has demonstrated conflicting views about the effect of aggregate rating and valence of reviews with authors suggesting the impact of aggregate rating (Reinstein and Snyder, 2005; Sawhney and Eliashberg, 1996) and others suggesting that customers can infer the quality of a product from the valence of the reviews only (e.g. Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Lee, Rodgers and Kim, 2009). Another view claims that negative aggregate ratings impact customers' purchase intentions more than positive ones, with no impact on focal customers' attitudes which are impacted only by the reviews' valence (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Weinberger and Dillon, 1980).

Importantly, most of the existing studies have been conducted to demonstrate the discrete impacts of aggregated rating and review valence on customers' attitudes and purchasing intentions, but little has been revealed about their interactions (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012). For instance, Chevalier and Mayzlin (2006) argue that customers seem to value review valence more than aggregate rating, while Qiu, Pang and Lim (2012) find that conflicting aggregate rating with review valence decreases its impact. As an attempt to measure the impact of NVIB within online reviews accompanied by aggregate ratings and to approach the above-mentioned debate, this study hypothesises that:

H2: Direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, will negatively affect other actors' (a) attitudes and (b) behavioural intentions towards a service provider regardless of aggregate rating.

5.1.3 Negatively and Positively Valenced Reviews

Within online reviews, customers are exposed to negative as well as positive influencing information about the same offering. Prior research also demonstrates conflicting findings regarding the power of positive over negative messages and their impact, with authors contrasting the relative power of negative messages (Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Halstead, 2002; Heitmann, Lehmann and Herrmann, 2007; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014) or positive messages (Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Cheung et al., 2009; Kim and Gupta, 2012) to have the stronger impact.

Although negative messages shared online are known to have a detrimental effect on a focal offering, service or brand (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012), some authors argue that few negative messages might serve to promote the credibility of a website or a review site (Doh and Hwang, 2009), since it is the volume of reviews that matters (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Berger, Sorensen and Rasmussen, 2010; Davis and Khazanchi, 2008; Dhar and Chang, 2009; Liu, 2006; Wirtz et al., 2013). As an attempt to approach this debate and to identify the impact of each individual form of NVIB, this study measures the impact of each form of NVIB (six forms conceptualised in Study 1) juxtaposed with different volumes of positive reviews.

Moreover, data analysed from study 1 showed that customers discredit existing positive reviews about a hotel, express regret for not listening to bad reviews and also dissuading others from believing positive reviews about the focal hotel, for example:

> *The hotel is disastrous! I wonder how it has this amount of positive comments. I was so pleased to leave it! Everything was subpar, don't believe those reviews. I really don't know where they found these good things they mentioned in their comments (Allisea, Hotel: Sydney).*

> *What is really ridiculous is the publicity this hotel has! we can't find a clue for all of that! I feel like we are talking about different hotels. Don't go it is a very bad hotel (SEMNS, Hotel: Cancun).*

> *We always check reviews before booking and as we found marvellous reviews we decided to ignore the bad ones! Regretful decision! We will never do this again and certainly won't be back (Bensons, Hotel: Paris).*

Study 1 conceptualised six different forms of NVIB within online reviews: discrediting, expressing regret, deriding, dissuading, warning, and endorsing competitors. Each form differs in the way customers use it. In addition to the overarching difference between direct and indirect forms, the specific heterogeneity of these forms implies probable variable impacts. Although the common feature shared by the indirect forms of NVIB is that customers do not explicitly address other actors in their reviews, within this classification, customers use each form differently. For instance, customers engage in NVIB by discrediting a focal provider for a substandard service. They provide in their reviews details about their experience without addressing other actors. Nevertheless, based on conceptual research, their shared experiences serve as a contribution of resources to other actors' purchase processes and might adjust their expectations about service providers and the way they evaluate the value of offerings (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). This study investigates this impact empirically and hypothesises that:

H3a: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by discrediting service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.

Customers engage in NVIB by expressing regret for choosing a service provider based on their experience. According to prior research, embedded emotions within

customers' reviews have a powerful role in changing other actors' perceptions and knowledge of focal service providers (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999; Stieglitz and Dang-Xuan, 2013). However, other authors claim that customers view embedded negative emotions within online reviews as an unpleasant behaviour and less informative (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017). Accordingly, to investigate the impact of this form, this study hypothesises that:

> **H3b: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by expressing regret for choosing a service provider will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.**

Customers engage in NVIB by deriding a focal provider based on their experience. Based on prior research, the use of sarcasm, specifically, salient incompatible meaning of non-literal language, is more retainable and memorable than compatible literal meaning (Giora, 2002). Accordingly, to investigate this impact, the study hypothesises that:

> **H3c: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by deriding service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.**

On the direct side, the common feature underpins this classification is that customers use direct forms by addressing other actors in their reviews. However, they use each form within this classification differently. For instance, customers engage in NVIB by dissuading other actors not to transact with a focal service provider based on their experience. In their reviews, they detail their experience and directly dissuade other actors accordingly. It is deemed appropriate to investigate the impact of dissuading other actors from transacting with a focal provider and hypothesises that:

> **H3d: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by dissuading other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews**

Customers engage in NVIB by endorsing competitors for other actors providing them with names of competitors in their reviews and encourage choosing these competitors over focal providers. Accordingly, this study investigates the impact of providing other actors with alternatives and directly encouraging them to choose these competitors over a focal provider, and hypothesises that:

H3e: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by endorsing competitors for other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.

Finally, customers engage in NVIB by warning other actors against transacting with a focal provider based on their own perilous experiences. Customers use this specific form in a different way, using simple sentences, which are known to be easier to understand than negative and passive ones (Broadbent, 1977), capital letters and warning words that play a central role in perceiving their alerting reviews (Godfrey et al., 1983). Accordingly, to investigate the impact of using this form on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, this study hypothesises that:

H3f: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by warning other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.

To test these hypotheses, an experimental research composed of three experiments is conducted. The following section introduces the experimental research and the selected designs for each experiment and discusses aspects of sampling, bias, validity, measurement and procedure.

5.2 Experimental Research

Experiments are used to test hypotheses, estimate the variances among the effect of different treatments and discover the cause of this effect (Petersen, 1985). A causal relationship exists if the cause is related to and preceded the effect while no other explanations for the effect are found other than the cause (Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002). Experiments are appropriate for studying causal relationships as in experiments, a presumed causative variable (independent variable) is manipulated

and an outcome is observed afterward; variation in the cause is checked to be related to variation in the effect (dependent variable), and different techniques are used within experiments to decrease the probability of alternative explanations for the effect (Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002).

The core of an experiment is control (White and McBurney, 2013). It distinguishes an experimental approach from a non-experimental one (Oehlert, 2010; Venkatesan, 1967). Accordingly, a researcher should have full control over all variables and attempt to hold constant irrelevant variables that might have an effect on the response of subjects to ensure that the obtained responses are caused by the manipulation of the independent variable (Venkatesan, 1967; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). The random assignment of subjects to different treatment conditions is recommended to counter alternative explanation of the results of the experiment (Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991; White and McBurney, 2013).

To conduct an experiment, a basic plan or general structure of the experiment is crucial (Myers and Hansen, 2006). An experimental design is conceived as "the set of rules by which the treatments to be used in an experiment are assigned to the experimental units" (Petersen, 1985, p. 6). While the nature of hypotheses might act as the main determinant to select a design, previous research, the type of information sought and practical problems in running the experiment also affect the choice of design (Myers and Hansen, 2006). The following sub-section outlines the experimental design adopted in this study.

5.2.1 Designs of Experiments

Experiments are either true, quasi or pre-experiments (pseudo-experiment) (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Cash, Stankovic and Storga, 2016). In a true experiment, the researcher has full control over all aspects, which allows an experimenter to infer causality and relate changes in a dependent variable to an independent variable, thus, offering high internal validity and quality of evidence (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; White and McBurney, 2013). In a quasi-experiment, "the researcher lacks the full control over the scheduling of experimental stimuli" (Campbell and Stanley, 1963, p. 34), which offers the experimenter high external

validity, yet, affects the internal validity (Cash, Stankovic and Storga, 2016). Whilst, a pre-experiment design follows experimental designs without control conditions, it fails to infer causality and offers a low quality of evidence (Cash, Stankovic and Storga, 2016).

This study adopts three true experiment designs whereby participants were assigned randomly to conditions within a controlled environment to neutralise extraneous variable effects and infer causality. The three experiments were designed using a scenario approach. The scenarios created were influenced by Study 1, comprising online reviews adapted from TripAdvisor for two categories, hotels and restaurants, whereby, hotel scenarios were chosen for the first experiment and the third experiments and restaurant scenarios for the second. The rationale of this decision is related to the percentages representing numbers of customers referring to TripAdvisor reviews prior to selecting a hotel (77%) or a restaurant (50%) (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016b).

The simplest experiments are those that have one independent variable with two conditions; the researcher, in this case, might select the two groups design approach, which could be independent or matched groups (Myers and Hansen, 2006). The matched groups design is used in case there is a subject variable (e.g. gender) that might have an effect on the dependent variables of the experiments, which is not the case with this study. In this study, the first experiment is a simple one, testing the effect of one independent variable (NVIB) with two conditions (direct and indirect). Therefore, the two independent groups design is deemed to be the most appropriate to use to gather more accurate information (Myers and Hansen, 2006).

According to Campbell and Stanley (1963), this design is identified as the most convenient for social science research when compared to other true experimental designs (e.g. Solomon Four Groups and Pre-test-post-test control group design). As it might not be "desirable to use a treatment condition in which subjects are not exposed to some value of the independent variable" (Myers and Hansen, 2006, p. 263), this experiment used both levels of NVIB (i.e. direct and indirect) as treatment conditions. This design particularly fits the aim of the first experiment to look at the

differences in attitudes and behavioural intentions of subjects when they are exposed to different levels of NVIB and to compare the impact at these levels accordingly.

For the second and the third experiments of this study, a factorial design was adopted given that each experiment has two independent variables (White and McBurney, 2013). Moreover, this design fits well with measuring the impact of NVIB on other actors, juxtaposing different levels of service providers' aggregate ratings (second experiment) and different levels of positive reviews (third experiment). The simplest factorial experiment has two independent variables with two levels each (see Table 5-1), and it is referred to as a two-by-two (2×2) factorial design (White and McBurney, 2013).

Factor B	Factor A	
	A_1	A_2
B_1	A_1B_1	A_2B_1
B_2	A_1B_2	A_2B_2

Table 5-1: A 2 x 2 Factorial Design (White and McBurney, 2013, p. 272).

Factorial designs provide more valuable information compared to other experimental designs (Myers and Hansen, 2006). They enable measuring the effect of each independent variable (main effect) and when factors interact, an estimate of interaction is provided which a single experiment at a time cannot estimate (Oehlert, 2010; White and McBurney, 2013). Moreover, replication is deemed to be one of the principal advantages of this design, since the main effect will be estimated with precision as if the whole experiment was devoted to one factor (Petersen, 1985). On the other hand, the disadvantages of this design centre on the difficulty to interpret large factorials specifically when interactions exist (Petersen, 1985; Myers and Hansen, 2006) and this is the rationale behind conducting two factorial experiments rather than combining more than three independent variables with at least three levels each in one factorial experiment.

5.2.2 Sampling

In experimental research, sampling is of particular importance. Although it is always favourable to draw samples from subsets of a population, access to subjects is

a major challenge of sampling (Myers and Hansen, 2006). To overcome this challenge, sampling university students have been accepted in marketing and social science research for access and validity issues (Alexander et al., 2012; Park, Robertson and Wu, 2004; Smith and Bolton, 1998; Wan, 2013). In this study, sampling comprises both students and real customers drawn from a subset population. For the first and the second experiments, students were taken to represent consumers in a given sample as they patronise different hotels and restaurants and use TripAdvisor to read reviews, search, book or plan their stays, while in the third experiment, the sample is drawn randomly from a subset population of real customers. Moreover, to ensure representation of the sample in the three experiments, a question about the frequency of usage of TripAdvisor was added to filter out respondents who had never used TripAdvisor.

In experimental research, subjects are either randomly assigned to conditions (between-subject design) or all subjects experience all treatments (within-subject design) (White and McBurney, 2013). Assigning subject randomly to conditions "protects against confounding which occurs when the effect of one factor or treatment cannot be distinguished from that of another factor or treatment" (Oehlert, 2010, p. 7). In the three experiments of this study, participants were randomly assigned to conditions using a between-subjects design in order to avoid drawbacks of within-subject designs such as order and sequence effects. Moreover, randomisation was presumed to control unknown confounding variables (Myers and Hansen, 2006).

To identify an appropriate sample size, impacts on statistical power should be considered. The power of a statistical test is determined by three factors: effect size, alpha ($\propto$) and sample size (Hair et al., 2010).The effect size helps the researcher to determine if the observed relationship is considered meaningful; however, the relationship between the three factors is complicated because "at any given alpha level increased sample sizes always produce greater power for the statistical test" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 10). Nevertheless, very large sample sizes make the statistical test overly sensitive as any effect is shown as significant (Hair et al., 2010).

Accordingly, experiments should be designed to achieve at least 0.05 of the alpha level with an acceptable power level of 0.8 (Cohen, 1988). Regarding the sample size, fewer than 30 subjects in each treatment group is not considered acceptable; otherwise, the desired statistical power could be at issue (Hair et al., 2010; Myers and Hansen, 2006). Hair et al. (2010) suggest a sample size per group to achieve different levels of effect size and 80% statistical power in multiple analyses of variance (MANOVA; see Table 5-2).

Effect Size	Number of Groups		
	3	4	5
	Two Dependent Variables		
Very Large	13	14	16
Large	26	29	34
Medium	44	50	60
Small	98	115	135

Table 5-2: Sample Size Requirements per Group (Hair et al., 2010, p. 466)

Following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), a large effect size was chosen, and the estimated sample size requirements per group to achieve 0.8 statistical power were adopted, whereby, the sample sizes of the three experiments were not fewer than 30 subjects in each treatment group even when the ideally estimated was slightly less than 30 (e.g. 26 and 29). Sampling is not the only aspect that can affect the results of an experiment; bias can have significant effects on an experimental research, which is discussed in the next section.

5.2.3 Bias

There is a prevalent agreement that bias can significantly affect experiments (White and McBurney, 2013). Studies have indicated that experimenters can bias results unintentionally (Rosenthal, 1976; Venkatesan, 1967). To overcome bias, researchers can apply a single-blind procedure whereby the researcher does not know "which treatment is given to which subject" (Oehlert, 2010, p. 6). A single-blind procedure helps to "minimize the effects of demand characteristics" (Kirk, 2009, p. 32) which might result from signs and cues given to subjects during the experiment (Orne, 1962). However, double-blindness (researcher and participants) is more favourable and effective to avoid participants' cooperation in pleasing the researcher or non-cooperating by sabotaging the experiment (Kirk, 2009; Oehlert, 2010).

In this study, to overcome experimenter bias, the experimenter did not know which unit experienced which treatment in the three experiments. Written instructions were given to participants in accordance with the procedures of the experiment, with no interference or influence from the experimenter side (White and McBurney, 2013). For the first and the second experiments, participants were told that their answers were a part of a tutorial exercise to ensure double-blindness, while for the third experiment, the experimenter was not familiar or in contact with the participants, and online written procedures were standardised and sent to subjects that were recruited by specialised purchased panel providers. Importantly, it is not only bias that the researcher should consider. Experimental methods are specifically concerned with validity (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012). However, there is much debate regarding the validity of the experimental research, which is addressed in the next section.

5.2.4 Validity

Experiment validity is considered to be a complex issue, provoking much debate specifically regarding internal and external validity. According to Shadish, Cook and Campbell (2002), researchers should take into consideration the internal, external and construct validity while designing an experimental research. Construct validity refers to "the extent to which the results support the theory behind the research" which can be improved by using manipulation checks (White and McBurney, 2013, p. 143). In addition to improving construct validity, manipulation checks enable researchers to claim that:

> "(1) The treatment manipulations are related to 'direct' measures of the latent variables they were designed to alter and (2) the manipulations did not produce changes in measures of related but different constructs" (Perdue and Summers, 1986, p. 318)

In this study, pre-tests were conducted for the three experiments to check the effectiveness of the treatment manipulations. Moreover, within the three main experiments, manipulation checks were used to ensure respondents' understanding of treatments. Additionally, to avoid the bias of response to dependent variables, manipulation checks were placed after items measuring the dependent variables

(Perdue and Summers, 1986). In addition to the construct validity, both internal and external validity are particularly important for addressing while a researcher is deciding on an experimental design to avoid questioning or the disregarding of results by other researchers (Boudah, 2011).

Internal Validity

Maximising internal validity is the aim of experimental designs, which requires diminishing any plausible alternative explanation for observed differences (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012; Ryals and Wilson, 2005). Random assignment of subjects to experimental and control groups would "ensure that the subsequent experiences of the two groups are identical in all respects, except for the focal variable" (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 45). According to several researchers, there are some threats to the internal validity of an experimental design (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; White and McBurney, 2013).

For instance, history relating to incidents that might happen outside an experiment could influence the results (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The first two experiments are laboratory-designed and experimental conditions were presented to subjects under full control at the same time. Also, maturation, which is an error caused by a difference in time between measurements (White and McBurney, 2013), which was overcome in this study by avoiding significant lapses of time between measurements. Mortality, or what is also known as attrition or withdrawal of subjects before completion of an experiment (Campbell and Stanley, 1963), which was overcome in this study by conducting the experiment during the time when subjects can commit (i.e. during the semester time for students). Overall, the results of an experimental research can demonstrate high internal validity; however, external validity, which is about the generalisability of results, is also an issue (Shadish, Cook and Campbell, 2002).

External Validity

External validity is mainly concerned with the extent to which an experiment is close to the real world (White and McBurney, 2013). It is the generalisability of conclusions beyond a study (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The level and importance of external validity in the field compared to laboratory experiments has been a point of debate for some time (Winer, 1999). In field experiments, the level of external validity is advocated to be higher than in laboratory experiments since the latter has "artificial features and does not have some of the extraneous features" that exist in the real world (Anderson and Bushman, 1997, p. 21). The most common indictment of marketing, social and psychology research is the use of students as experimental subjects while researchers depend on this type of units for "their accessibility to the researcher and presumed representativeness" (White and McBurney, 2013, p. 151). These assumptions might be controversial as in a case where the internal validity of a study is low, it does not clearly infer dependent-independent variables causal relationships; consequently, generalisability is already questionable (Anderson and Bushman, 1997).

Importantly, several authors have tried to approach this debate by taking the middle ground and suggesting alternative ways of evaluating the generalisability aspect, for instance, by evaluating a focal laboratory study results in terms of other field study results (McGrath and Brinberg, 1983). In light of this, Anderson and Beshman (1997) found that results of both experiments carried out in different settings (i.e. laboratory and field) were consistent. In some other instances, Winer (1999) argued that researchers should consider internal over external validity because if they cannot infer a causal relationship then claiming high external validity will be baseless. Additionally, other authors relate it to the experimenter's decision to either generalise findings to the real world (i.e. effect application) or to a theory application (Calder, Lynn and Alice, 1981) and advocate laboratory experiments for "creating and testing theories of how conceptual variables interrelate" (Anderson and Bushman, 1997, p. 22). Consequently, researchers with this priority should consider internal more than external validity (Winer, 1999), while the opposite goes for researchers prioritising a generalisation of results to the real world.

Given the novelty of the concept of NVIB, the main aim of this study is to investigate the impact of this notion using its recently conceptualised forms (Study 1); nevertheless, it is still appropriate to generalise relations among conceptual variables (Anderson and Bushman, 1997). Notably, discrepancies between fully controlled and field experiments results should arise when key variables are either prevalent in the real life but are kept controllable in the experiment or what is controllable in the real world is operated freely in the experiment (Anderson and Bushman, 1997). Accordingly, to avoid such discrepancies within this study, prevalent, in-the-real-world, conceptual variables were not controlled, while confounding variables that might affect subjects' attitudes and behavioural intentions were controlled. The next section addresses the first experiment's procedures, scenarios, manipulation checks, measurements and data analysis. Experiments were conducted after gaining the required ethical approval. Appendix 6 shows the participants information sheet and consent given to the respondents of the three experiments to gain their consent.

5.3 Experiment 1 – Influence of Indirect versus Direct NVIB

This experiment tested two hypotheses:

H1a: Direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider.

H1b: Direct forms are more powerful than indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews in negatively affecting other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider.

Pre-tests

Before conducting the main experiment, pre-tests were carried out. The first pre-test was carried out in 20 research students who were given scenarios of the experiments and were asked to read them and then answer questions of manipulation checks. *'This review is'*: 1- Addressing you, 2- Not addressing you. The results from the manipulation checks showed a high level of confusion among participants as per their feedback. Accordingly, another pre-test was conducted on 20 undergraduate students, with a change in the syntax of the respective questions applied as follows:

In this review, the reviewer is trying to': 1- Inform other reviewers of a terrible service experience, 2- Advise other reviewers explicitly not to transact with a service provider based on a terrible service experience. The results of the second pre-test showed that 90% of participants exposed to the indirect NVIB condition answered the questions correctly; similarly, 90% correctly answered when exposed to the direct NVIB condition. Moreover, the scenario realism was pre-tested with 20 undergraduate students using one item adapted from (Gelbrich, Gäthke and Grégoire, 2015): '*I think the description of the situation is realistic*', anchored in a 7-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree), and the results of the pre-test show that students agreed that the scenarios of this experiment were realistic (*M*= 5.90, SD=1.021).

5.3.1 Experiment 1 - Design and Procedures

This experiment uses a two independent groups design to investigate one independent variable (NVIB) with two conditions (indirect and direct). Accordingly, independent-samples t-test is deemed appropriate to compare the mean scores of attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors when exposed to direct and indirect conditions of NVIB (Hair et al., 2010; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; White and McBurney, 2013). Following the recommendations by Hair et al. (2010) for an adequate sample size and with reference to contemporary studies that have applied two independent groups design (cf. Albrecht, Walsh and Beatty, 2016), a sample of 100 third-year undergraduate students (females 65%, average age = 21.31 years, *SD* = 1.29) was compiled.

A scenario-based approach was used in this experiment whereby each participant was exposed to a hotel scenario demonstrating a real online review adapted from TripAdvisor (Study 1). To compare direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, two main forms were selected to represent the direct and indirect classification, namely, discrediting (indirect) and dissuading (direct). The rationale for this decision relates to the highest percentage of occurrence each of these forms demonstrated in the findings of Study 1. The scenarios represent reviews that were sampled and analysed in Study 1. The choice of the scenarios was carried

out as follows. First, the reviews of discrediting and dissuading forms were filtered to show those posted to hotels. Second, another wave of filtration was conducted to exclude too short and too long reviews. This is to avoid reluctance of respondents to read too long reviews, and insufficient information given by too short ones. Third, a random choice was made from the remaining reviews.

To maximise the internal validity for this experiment, it was conducted in a fully controlled environment and subjects were randomly assigned to the conditions. As an attempt to ensure the representativeness of the sample, a question about the frequency of usage of TripAdvisor was added and used to exclude participants who answered 'never' (1=Always, 5=Never). Three participants (1 from the indirect, and 2 from the direct group) were dropped from the sample, leaving 97 participants. To overcome bias, double-blinding was applied, whereby the researcher was unaware which subject was exposed to which treatment (White and McBurney, 2013); additionally, the students were given the scenarios as a part of a tutorial exercise. Moreover, subjects were randomly assigned to conditions using a between-subjects design and no participant experienced both treatments or experienced a treatment more than once (within-subject design). This was to avoid the drawbacks of within-subject designs such as carryover effects. Basically, carryover effects (e.g. order and sequence effects) occur when a participant is exposed to more than one treatment and a change in the participants' responses may result from repeated testing (White and McBurney, 2013).

Manipulation Check and Measurements

Forms of NVIB within online reviews are manipulated on two levels (direct and indirect), resulting in two scenarios (see Figure 5-1). The Items measuring manipulation checks come in order after items measuring dependent variables (Perdue and Summers, 1986) to avoid the bias of response to dependent variables. To check respondents' understanding of treatments, participants exposed to the two conditions were asked to choose one of two possible answers to this question '*In this review, the reviewer is trying to*': 1- Inform other reviewers of a terrible service experience (indirect) 2- Advise other reviewers explicitly not to transact with a service provider based on a terrible service experience (direct). Results from the

manipulation checks for both levels of NVIB show that 94% of the participants answered correctly when exposed to the indirect condition of NVIB and three participants failed to answer correctly. While, for the direct condition, 92% of the participants answered correctly and four participants failed to answer correctly. Accordingly, participants who failed to answer were also dropped from the sample, leaving 90 participants (45 in each group).

Scenario of Indirect NVIB

You are planning a vacation and while checking Hotels at the planned destination on TripAdvisor, you came across this review:
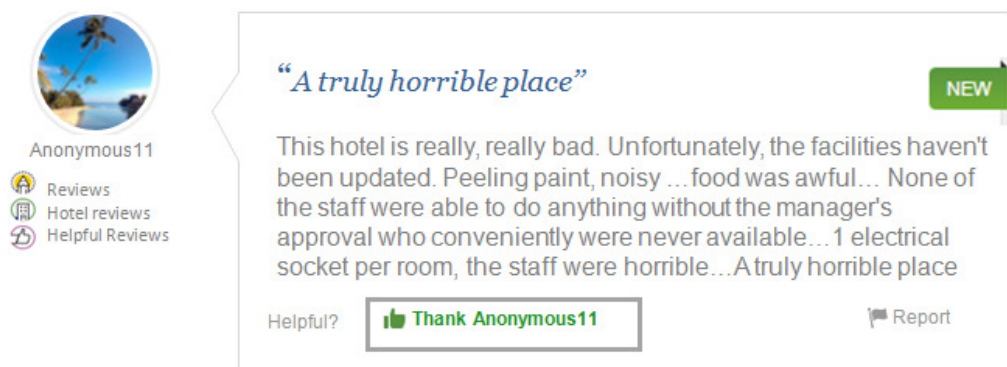
Scenario of Direct NVIB

You are planning a vacation and while checking Hotels at the planned destination on TripAdvisor, you came across this review:
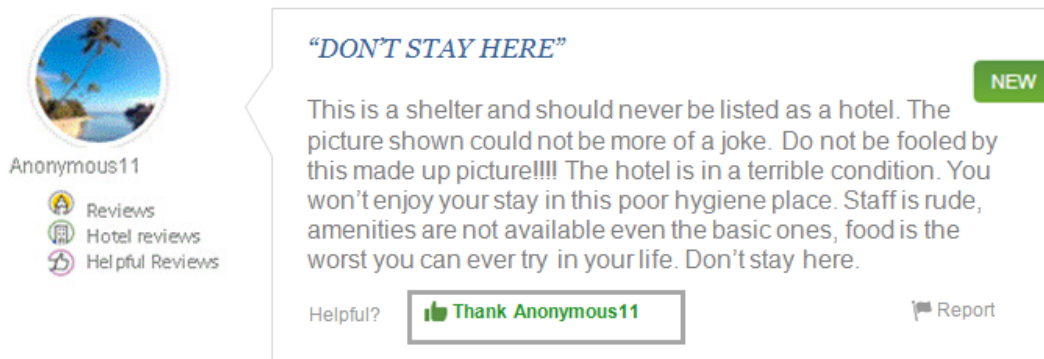
Figure 5-1: Scenarios of Experiment 1.

After reading the scenarios, the participants completed a questionnaire that comprised items for measuring dependent variables (Attitudes and Behavioural

Intentions), manipulation check, and demographic items (gender and age). To measure attitude, a Likert scale is recommended as the best scale, showing the highest level of reliability compared to semantic differential and Thurstone scales (Tittle and Hill, 1967). Accordingly, in this study, the attitude was measured using three items (α= 0.88) adapted from (Bansal and Taylor, 1999), (Cronin and Taylor, 1992) and (Putrevu and Lord, 1994), anchored in a 7-point Likert scale. Behavioural intentions were measured using three items (α=0.80) adapted from (Gelbrich, 2010) and (Park, Robertson and Wu, 2004), anchored in a 7- point Likert scale (see Table 5-3).

Dependent Variables	Anchors	Questions (Items)
Attitude **(Bansal and Taylor, 1999; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Putrevu and Lord, 1994)**	Very Unfavourable /Very favourable [1] Very Poor / Excellent [2] Strongly Disagree / Strongly Agree [3]	'My overall feeling about this hotel can be best described as' [1] 'I think the quality of service of this hotel is' [2] 'The decision to book this hotel is considered a good one' [3]
Behavioural Intentions **(Gelbrich, 2010; Park, Robertson and Wu, 2004)**	Definitely will not/Definitely will [1]	'Would you consider booking this hotel?' [1] 'Would you recommend it to other people?' [1] 'I would tell other people good things about the hotel' [1]
Confounding Variables	Anchors	Questions (Items)
Attitude towards Online Reviews **(Donthu and Gilliland, 1996; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012)**	Strongly Disagree/ Strongly Agree [1]	'Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision making' [1] 'If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision' [1] 'I want to be sure about my purchase decisions' [1]
Perceived TripAdvisor Credibility **(Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012)**	Strongly Disagree/ Strongly Agree [1]	'In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy' [1] 'In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable' [1] 'In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible' [1]

Table 5-3: Dependent Variables Measurement Scales

Using a 7-point rating scale is advocated for different reasons: the maximisation of reliability (Cicchetti, Showalter and Tyrer, 1985; Finn, 1972); sensitivity to detect statistically significant differences compared to lesser-point scales (Diefenbach,

Weinstein and O'Reilly, 1993; Jaeschke and Guyatt, 1990) and reliability of rating (Miller, 1956; Riker, 1944); curtailment of uncertain responses (Matell and Jacoby, 1971), and coverage of hypothesised space (Green and Rao, 1970).

Although random assignment of subjects to conditions "protects against confounding" (Oehlert, 2010, p. 7), confounding variables are measured to ensure they do not affect the results of the study. Participants completed questions addressing confounding variables before reading scenarios that would not influence their responses (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013). Based on previous research on online reviews and communities (cf. Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; Filieri, Alguezaui and McLeay, 2015; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012) two confounding variables were selected: attitude towards checking online reviews and perceived credibility of TripAdvisor. Attitude towards online reviews was measured using three items ($\alpha= 0.82$) adapted from (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012) and (Donthu and Gilliland, 1996) while the perceived credibility of TripAdvisor was measured using three items ($\alpha=0.94$) adapted from (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012), which were also anchored in a 7-point Likert scale, as shown earlier in Table 5-3. The aim of using these two confounding variables was to determine the extent to which a participant's perceived credibility of TripAdvisor and their attitude towards online reviews might contribute to their response to conditions of NVIB.

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) revealed a good fir with the data $\chi^2/df = 1.40$; confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .97; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.05. Additionally, factor loading and the reliability of scales were all above the recommended threshold of .7 (Hair et al., 2010). Table 5-4 summarises the factors' loadings of the items and their reliabilities. Appendix 7 shows an example of this experiment.

Constructs and Items	Factors	Cronbach

	Loading[1]	α
Attitude (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Bansal and Taylor 1999; Putrevu and Lord 1994)		.88
My overall feeling about this hotel can be best described as	.95	
I think the quality of service of this hotel is	.92	
The decision to book this hotel is considered a good one	.93	
Behavioural Intentions (Gelbrich, 2010; Park, Robertson and Wu, 2004)		.80
Would you consider booking this hotel?	.90	
Would you recommend it to other people?	.85	
I would tell other people good things about the hotel	.86	
Attitude towards Online Reviews (Donthu and Gilliland, 1996; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012)		.82
Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision making	.83	
If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision	.81	
I want to be sure about my purchase decisions	.80	
Perceived TripAdvisor Credibility(Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012)		.94
In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy	.91	
In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable	.93	
In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible	.92	

Table 5-4: Factors' Loading and Reliability of Items - Experiment 1.
[1]Standardised loadings: all loadings were significant at $p < .001$.

5.3.2 Data Analysis and Results

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the dependent variables scores associated with the two groups exposed to two conditions of the independent variable (NVIB), the indirect and direct groups. However, before conducting an independent-samples t-test, two assumptions had to be satisfied: the homogeneity of variance and the normality of distribution of differences between means (Hair et al., 2010; Ho, 2006; Pallant, 2013). The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's Test $p = .734$ which is $> .05$ (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013). Moreover, Skewness and

Kurtosis were calculated to ensure the normality of distribution among the two groups and show satisfied values (Hair et al., 2010; Schmider et al., 2010; West, Finch and Curran, 1995). Additionally, the difference between trimmed and original means for both groups resulted in a very small value (0.02), which confirmed the normality of the distribution (Pallant, 2013). Table 5-5 illustrates the values of trimmed means, Skewness and Kurtosis.

		Statistics	
Attitude	**Indirect NVIB**	Mean	2.9407
		5% Trimmed Mean	2.9588
		Difference	0.02
		Skewness	-.305
		Kurtosis	.280
	Direct NVIB	Mean	1.8593
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.8354
		Difference	0.02
		Skewness	.085
		Kurtosis	-1.048
Behavioural Intentions	Indirect NVIB	Mean	2.5481
		5% Trimmed Mean	2.5597
		Difference	0.01
		Skewness	-.097
		Kurtosis	.133
	Direct NVIB	Mean	1.5185
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.4609
		Difference	0.06
		Skewness	1.117
		Kurtosis	1.368

Table 5-5: Trimmed Means, Skewness and Kurtosis Values - Experiment 1

The t-test shows a difference in mean scores of attitude ($M_{indrect}$ = 2.94, SD=0.76, M_{direct} = 1.86, SD = 0.70) and a statistically significant effect (t (88) = 6.88, p = .000, two-tailed), with a magnitude of difference in means (mean difference = 1.08, 95% CI: 0.77 to 1.40).To provide an indication that the difference between the two groups did not occur by chance, Cohen's d was calculated to show a large effect size of 1.48. According to Cohen (1988), 0.10 is a small effect size, 0.50 is medium, and more than or equal to 0.80 is large. Similarly, t-test shows a difference in mean scores of behavioural intention ($M_{indrect}$ = 2.55, SD=0.66, M_{direct} = 1.52, SD=0.62) and a statistically significant effect (t (88) = 7.57, p = .000, two-tailed) with a magnitude of difference in means (mean difference = 1.03, 95% CI: 0.76 to 1.31). Cohen's d was calculated to show the large effect of 1.60 (Cohen, 1988) (see Table 5-6).

Conditions of NVIB	Outcomes	
	Attitude	Behavioural Intentions
Indirect NVIB	2.94 (0.76)	2.55 (0.66)
Direct NVIB	1.86 (0.69)	1.52 (0.62)
t- values	6.88*	7.57*
Cohen's d	1.48	1.60

Table 5-6: Mean, Standard Deviation, T-values, and Effect Size

*p<.001

To assess the effect of the confounding variables, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted for each confounding variable with each dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of assumptions of measurement; confounding variables were "measured before the experimental manipulation begins" (Pallant, 2013, p. 312). For the assumption of the reliability of covariates, Cronbach's alpha was calculated and satisfied, at more than .70 (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013) for the perceived credibility of TripAdvisor (α=0.94) and attitude towards checking online reviews (α= 0.82).

For the assumption of correlation among confounding variables, the effective confounding variables are those showing low and insignificant correlation among themselves (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013; Stevens, 2012). This is because if the confounding variables are highly or significantly correlated, it means that one confounding variable can explain some of the variance that could be explained by the other confounding variable and hence reduces its effect (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013) and accordingly, one of them should be excluded from the analysis (Stevens, 2012). However, when the two confounding variables are lowly correlated (e.g. less than 0.20) then they are removing relatively distinct pieces of the error variance; hence a much greater total error reduction is obtained (Stevens, 2012). The assumption of correlation among confounding variables is satisfied, as the correlation between attitude towards checking online reviews and perceived credibility of TripAdvisor is positive, low and insignificant (r=.105; p=.324; N=90). Accordingly, both confounding variables are considered effective and included in the analysis.

For the assumption of linearity and homogeneity of the regression slopes of the covariates, the scores show a linear straight line relationship, which does not violate

the linearity assumption; similarly, the homogeneity of the regression slopes was assessed statistically and satisfied, showing a non-significant level of interaction (p > .05) (Ho, 2006; Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013) (see Table 5-7).

Dependent Variables	Attitude	Behavioural Intentions
Source	Sig.	Sig
NVIB×Online Rev.	.702	.532
NVIB×TripAdvisor	.248	.369

Table 5-7: Homogeneity of Regression Slopes - Experiment 1

After satisfying the preliminary checks for conducting ANCOVA, the test was conducted and the results of ANCOVA demonstrate a non-significant interaction effect of the independent variable (NVIB) and the confounding variables (p >.05) on the two dependent variables (see Table 5-8).

Dependent Variables	Confounding Variables					
	TripAdvisor Credibility			Attitude towards Online Reviews		
	Interaction	Sig.	Eta	Interaction	Sig.	Eta
Attitude	.248	.809	.003	.702	.734	.001
Behavioural Intentions	.369	.211	.018	.532	.630	.008

Table 5-8: ANCOVA for Confounding Variables- Experiment 1

Based on the results of this experiment, both hypotheses (H1a and H1b) are confirmed. The significant results (t-values) and the difference between the mean scores of the two groups, as well as the large effect size (Cohen's d), confirm the assumption of the first hypothesis that direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Moreover, the mean scores reflect the relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB, as participants exposed to direct NVIB within online reviews scored more negatively on attitudes and behavioural intention than those exposed to indirect NVIB, thus, confirming the assumption held within the second hypothesis.

5.4 Experiment 2 - The Impact of NVIB alongside Aggregate Ratings

This experiment tests the second hypothesis to measure the impact of NVIB within online reviews alongside aggregate ratings (high = 5/5 excellent; low = 1/5 terrible) on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards a service provider. Prior studies argue that negative aggregate ratings are more powerful in affecting a customer's behavioural intentions than positive ratings while the attitudes of customers are influenced by the valence of the review. Accordingly, this study hypothesises that:

> **H2: Direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, will negatively affect other actors' (a) attitudes and (b) behavioural intentions towards a service provider regardless of aggregate rating.**

Pre-tests

Before conducting this experiment, a pre-test was conducted on 20 undergraduate students and the results show that 95% correctly answered the indirect NVIB manipulation check and 95% correctly answered the direct NVIB one. For the other independent variable (aggregate rating), the manipulation check question was: '*The aggregate (overall) rating of this restaurant is*': 1- High, 2- Low. The results show that in the high aggregate rating condition, 80% correctly answered with 'High' while in the low aggregate rating condition, 100% correctly answered with 'Low'. Additionally, the scenario realism was pre-tested with 20 undergraduate students using 1 item adapted from Gelbrich et al. (2015): '*I think the description of the situation is very realistic*', anchored in a 7-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree). The results of the pre-test show that students agreed that the scenarios of this experiment were realistic (*M*= 6.20, SD= 1.10).

5.4.1 Experiment 2 – Design and Procedures

To test H2, a 2 × 2 factorial design was deemed appropriate, manipulating two independent variables each with two levels: forms of NVIB (direct and indirect) and the aggregate rating (High and Low). In applying the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010) for a sample size per group (30 participants, 4 groups), a sample of 120

undergraduate students (females 55%, average age = 20.10 years, *SD* = 1.07) was recruited. A scenario-based approach was used in this experiment too, whereby each participant was exposed to a restaurant scenario, demonstrating an online review adapted from TripAdvisor (Study 1). As with Experiment 1, the same two forms represented the direct (dissuading) and indirect (discrediting) classification in this experiment and also the choice of scenarios was made via the same process followed in experiment 1, however, filtration was favour of restaurant scenarios rather than hotel ones. This experiment was also conducted in a fully controlled environment and the subjects were randomly assigned using between-subjects design and double blinding to the four conditions. None of the participants was dropped from the sample thus far, as the frequency of TripAdvisor usage (M = 2.7, SD = 0.94) showed no 'never' answers.

Manipulation Check and Measurements

The forms of NVIB and aggregate ratings were manipulated on their two levels, each resulting in four scenarios (see Figure 5-2). As with experiment 1, the items measuring the manipulation checks came after the items measuring the dependent variables and the same questions were used to check the respondents' understanding of NVIB treatments. Additionally, the respondents were asked the following question as a manipulation check of the aggregate rating: '*The aggregate (overall) rating of this restaurant is*': 1- High, 2- Low. The results of the manipulation checks show that 99% of the participants in each group answered correctly when exposed to conditions of NVIB and Aggregate rating. One participant from each of the four groups failed to satisfy the related manipulation check. Accordingly, the four participants who failed to answer were dropped from the sample, leaving 116 participants (29 in each group). Appendix 8 shows an example of this experiment.

Scenario 1: Direct NVIB / High Aggregate Rating

You are spending your vacation in another country and planning to have some dinner, since you do not know where to go, you decided to check restaurants at this destination on TripAdvisor, while searching you came across this review posted to a restaurant with an excellent aggregate rating:

Scenario 2: Direct NVIB/ Low Aggregate Rating

You are spending your vacation in another country and planning to have some dinner, since you do not know where to go, you decided to check restaurants in this destination on TripAdvisor, while searching you came across this review posted to a restaurant with a terrible aggregate rating:

Scenario 3:Indirect NVIB / High Aggregate Rating (Same wording of the high rated scenario)

Secnario 4: Indirect NVIB/ Low Aggregate Rating (Same wording of the low rated scenario)
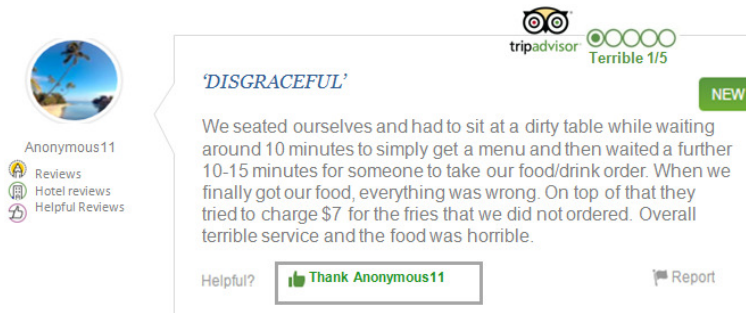
Figure 5-2: Scenarios of Experiment 2

After reading the scenarios, participants completed a questionnaire that comprises, in this order, items to measure dependent variables (attitudes and behavioural intentions), manipulation checks and demographic items (age and gender). Similar to the previous experiment, participants completed questions addressing confounding variables before reading scenarios that would not influence their responses (Pallant, 2013; Hair et al., 2010). The same scales and measurements from the first study were used to measure attitude and behavioural intentions as well as the confounding variables. The measures had good reliability and the CFA revealed an acceptable fit (χ^2/df = 2.0; CFI = .93; RMSEA= 0.07). Table 5-9 shows the factors' loadings and the scales reliability, which are also above the recommended threshold of .7 (Hair et al. 2010).

Constructs and Items	Factors' Loading[1]	Cronbach α
Attitude (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Bansal and Taylor 1999; Putrevu and Lord 1994).		.97
My overall feeling about this restaurant can be best described as	.90	
I think the quality of service of this restaurant is	.85	
The decision to choose this restaurant is considered a good one	.88	
Behavioural Intentions (Gelbrich, 2010; Park, Robertson and Wu, 2004).		.96
Would you consider selecting this restaurant?	.88	
Would you recommend it to other people?	.87	
I would tell other people good things about this restaurant	.85	
Attitude towards Online Reviews(Donthu and Gilliland, 1996; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012)		.96
Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision-making	.88	
If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision	.89	
I want to be sure about my purchase decisions	.90	
Perceived TripAdvisor Credibility(Qiu, Pang and Lim 2012)		.98
In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy	.95	
In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable	.96	
In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible	.93	

Table 5-9: Factors' Loading and Reliability of Items - Experiment 2.

[1]Standardised loadings: all loadings were significant at p < .001

5.4.2 Data Analysis and Results

A Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine the effect of NVIB and the aggregate rating (independent variables) on attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors (dependent variables). Using MANOVA in this experiment has various advantages, such as enabling analysis of the multiple dependent and independent variables, controlling the experiment error rate in case a degree of inter-correlation between dependent variables exists, and more statistical power compared to ANOVA (Hair et al., 2010). However, before conducting MANOVA several preliminary checks are conducted to ensure non-violations of assumptions of independence of observations, equality of variance-covariance, normality of distribution, linearity, and multicollinearity of the variate of dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003).

In this experiment, independence of observation was satisfied via the controlled environment of the experiment (Pallant, 2013; Hair et al., 2010). A non-significant Box's test (p>.01) ensured the satisfaction of the equity of variance-covariance. A minor difference between the trimmed and original means of both dependent variables ensured the normality of distribution (Pallant, 2013). Moreover, Skewness and Kurtosis were calculated to ensure a normality of distribution among the groups and show the satisfied values (Hair et al., 2010; Schmider et al., 2010; West, Finch and Curran, 1995). Additionally, as shown in Figure 5-3, the assumption of linearity is satisfied, hence, of the normality of the distribution, with a straight line relationship existing between the dependent variables.
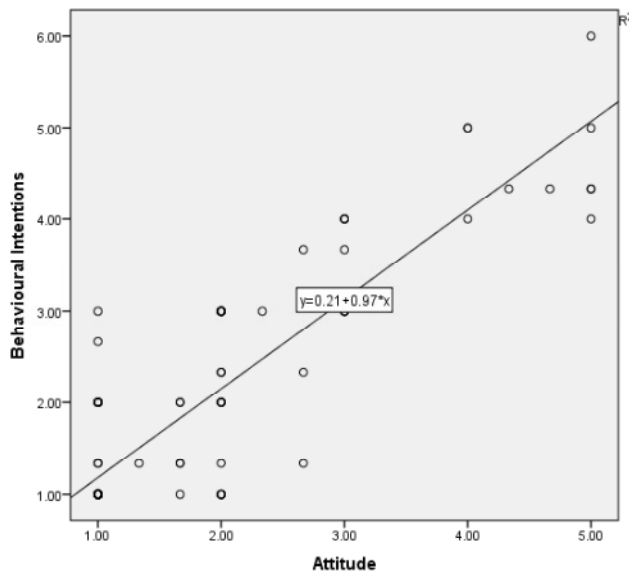
Figure 5-3: Linearity Assumption - Experiment 2

Finally, no issues of multicollinearity or multivariate outliers were found as the dependent variables (attitudes and behavioural intentions) are moderately (r < .8) correlated (r=.475; p=.000; N=116) and the Mahalanobis distance was calculated and satisfied (6.30) as it is below the critical value of 13.82 (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013; Penny, 1994) (see Table 5-10).

Number of dependent variables	Critical value	Number of dependent variables	Critical value
2	**13.82**	5	20.52
3	16.27	6	22.46
4	18.47	7	24.32

Table 5-10: Critical Values of Mahalanobis' Distance (Pallant, 2013, p. 298).

After satisfying the preliminary checks, the MANCOVA was initially conducted to examine the attitude towards online reviews and the perceived credibility of TripAdvisor as covariates, the attitudes and behavioural intention as dependent variables, and the NVIB and the Aggregate rating as independent variables. The results of the multivariate test reveal significant main effects for both NVIB (Wilk's lambda = .64, F (2, 111) =31.4, p <.001) and the Aggregate rating (Wilk's lambda = .67, F (2, 111) = 27.3, p < .001), and a significant interaction effect between the factors (Wilk's lambda = .81, F (2, 111) = 12.7, p < .001). Commonly, four measures

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are used to test the overall significance between groups in a multivariate analysis. According to Hair et al., (2010), each measure is preferred in different situations:

> "Pillai's criterion or Wilk's lambda is the preferred measure when the basic design considerations (adequate sample size, no violations of assumptions, approximately equal cell sizes) are met. Pillai's criterion is considered more robust and should be used if sample size decreases, unequal cell sizes appear, or homogeneity of covariance is violated. Roy's [greatest root] is a more powerful test statistic if the researcher is confident that all assumptions are strictly met and the dependent measures are representative of a single dimension of effects" (Hair *et al*., 2010, p. 464)

In this study, Wilk's lambda was used as no violations of assumptions were made and equal cell sizes were met. Additionally, Roy's greatest root is considered less useful in situations where all differences across dimensions of the dependent variables should be considered (Hair et al., 2010). It is noteworthy that the four measures indicated significant main and interaction effects between the factors (see Table 5-11).

Effect		Value	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.851	.000	.851	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.149	.000	.851	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	5.727	.000	.851	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	5.727	.000	.851	1.000
NVIB	Pillai's Trace	.361	.000	.361	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.639	.000	.361	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.566	.000	.361	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.566	.000	.361	1.000
Aggregate Rating	Pillai's Trace	.333	.000	.333	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.667	.000	.333	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.499	.000	.333	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.499	.000	.333	1.000
NVIB ×Aggregate Rating	Pillai's Trace	.186	.000	.186	.996
	Wilks' Lambda	.814	.000	.186	.996
	Hotelling's Trace	.229	.000	.186	.996
	Roy's Largest Root	.229	.000	.186	.996

Table 5-11: Multivariate Test - Experiment 2.

The interaction was significant for both attitudes and behavioural intention (p < .001) and plotted for each of the dependent variables (see Figure 5-4), demonstrating an ordinal effect (Hair et al., 2010), showing that direct NVIB within online reviews consistently has a greater effect on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other

actors than indirect NVIB no matter how high or low the aggregate rating of a service provider. The nonparallel lines for attitudes and behavioural intentions notably portray the effect of direct NVIB over indirect NVIB.
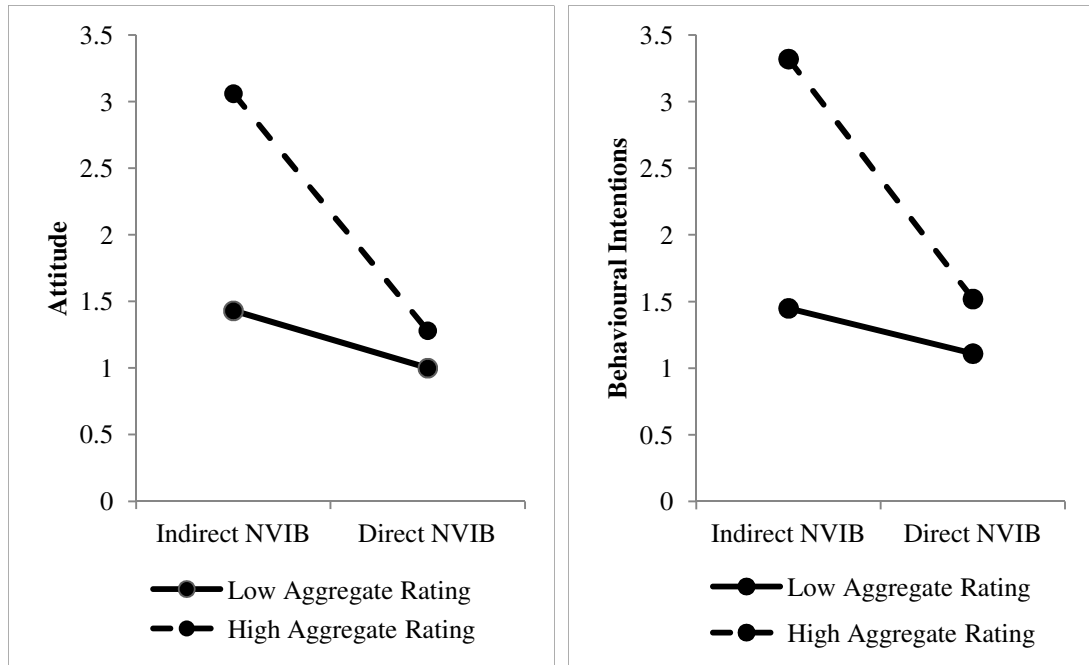
Figure 5-4: Interaction Effect for Attitudes and Behavioural Intentions – Experiment 2

Although the effect of aggregate rating can still be seen, the marked differences in the impact of valence are represented clearly via the minor difference in the mean scores of direct NVIB on the two levels of aggregate rating. Any effects for the confounding variables were non-significant. Table 5-12 shows the means for the significant interaction effects on attitudes and behavioural intentions.

	Levels of NVIB	Levels of Aggregate Rating	Means
Attitude	Indirect	High	3.06
		Low	1.43
	Direct	High	1.28
		Low	1.00
Behavioural Intention	Indirect	High	3.32
		Low	1.45
	Direct	High	1.52
		Low	1.11

Table 5-12: Means of Significant Interaction Effect on Dependent Variables, p< .001 –Experiment 2

Additionally, a pairwise comparison of means was conducted (see Table 5-13) and the results show that all pairwise differences for both dependent variables are significant (p <.001).

	Levels of NVIB (I)	Levels of NVIB (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Levels of Aggregate Rating (I)	Levels of Aggregate Rating (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)
Attitude	Indirect NVIB	Direct NVIB	1.103*	High	Low	.954*
	Direct NVIB	Indirect NVIB	-1.103*	Low	High	-.954*
Behavioural Intentions	Indirect NVIB	Direct NVIB	1.069*	High	Low	1.138*
	Direct NVIB	Indirect NVIB	-1.069*	Low	High	-1.138*

Table 5-13: Pairwise Analysis – Experiment 2
*Mean difference significance p <.001

Based on the results of this experiment, H3 is confirmed, as the results show that both direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews, negatively affect other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers of high and low aggregate ratings.

5.5 Experiment 3 – The Impact of NVIB alongside Positive Reviews

This experiment was aimed at testing the third hypothesis: to measure the impact of the six forms of NVIB developed in Study 1 on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers when juxtaposed by different volumes of positive reviews.

H3a: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by discrediting service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.

H3b: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews by expressing regret for choosing service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards focal service providers when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews

H3c: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews by deriding service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews

H3d: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews by dissuading other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews

H3e: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews by endorsing competitors for other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews

H3f: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews by warning other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews

Pretests

Before conducting this experiment, pretests were conducted on 20 undergraduate students. The results show that 90% of participants exposed to the indirect NVIB condition correctly answered; similarly, in the direct NVIB condition, 90% correctly answered. For the other independent variable (volume of positive reviews), the manipulation check was: 'Number of positive reviews is... negative reviews': 1- higher than, 2- Equal to. The results show that in relation to the higher volume condition, 100% correctly answered, while in the equal volume condition, 85% correctly answered. The scenario realism was pre-tested using one item adapted from Gelbrich et al. (2015): '*I think the description of the situation is very realistic*', anchored in a 7-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree). The results show that participants found the scenarios realistic (M=5.92, *SD*=1.15).

5.5.1 Experiment 3 - Design and Procedure

This experiment was a 6 × 2 factorial design, with two independent variables: the forms of NVIB with online reviews manipulated on its six levels (discrediting, expressing regret, deriding, dissuading, warning, and endorsing competitors) and the volume of positive reviews on its two levels (Higher than, Equal to NVIB), resulting in twelve scenarios. As with the two previous experiments, the choice of the scenarios of the forms of NVIB was made via the same process mentioned earlier. However, for the positive reviews, they were selected from TripAdvisor reviews posted to one of the hotels in this exact order to one of the NVIB reviews. Applying the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), a sample of 1200 individuals (females

50.8%, average age = 40 years, *SD* = 1.23) was recruited by MTURK, a specialized purchased panel provider. The rationale for selecting MTURK relates to the flexibility in identifying the cost of the purchased panel, and the auto-migration facility it provides with Qualtrics and to the coded confirmation the subjects should provide upon finalising the experiment. No specific instructions were given to MTURK regarding the demographic criteria of the respondents, apart from the request that they should frequently check online reviews.

Using the randomisation facility provided by Qualtrics, blocks of scenarios were designed to randomly capture 100 participants per scenario; accordingly, subjects were assigned randomly to conditions using a between-subjects design. To counter bias threats, the experimenter was not familiar with any subject recruited through the specialised provider. Scenarios and questions were standardised and made available to the panel online. Thus, a blind approach was applied so the experimenter did not know which subjects received which conditions.

In addition to the confounding variables controlled for participants' perceived credibility of TripAdvisor (α = .98) and their attitudes towards online reviews (α= .87), another confounding variable was added to this experiment to control for participants' attributions of reviewers' motivations using three items (α = .80) adapted from Sen and Lerman (2007) anchored in a 7-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 7= Strongly Agree): (1)'*The motive behind the reviewers posting these reviews is to inform others about the quality of this hotel*' (2) *I feel the reviewers' comments are based on their true experience*' (3) '*Reasons other than the service quality might influence the reviewers to post these review*'. The rationale behind adding this confounding variable to this experiment is that because of the different forms of NVIB, some of which are more strongly worded than others, it might make people think there was malicious intent behind the review.

Manipulation Check and Measurements

As with experiments 1 and 2, items measuring manipulation checks came after the items measuring dependent variables and the same questions were used to check the respondents' understanding of NVIB treatments. Additionally, the respondents

were asked the following question as a manipulation check of the positive reviews volume: '*The number of positive reviews is .... negative reviews: 1- Higher than 2- Equal to.* The results of the manipulation checks show that 95% of each group answered correctly to the checks questions; however, five participants from each of the 12 groups were dropped from the sample, leaving 1,140 participants (95 per group). Apart from the results of the manipulation checks, none of the participants was dropped from the sample, as the frequency of TripAdvisor usage (M = 2.75, *SD* = 0.89) showed no 'never' answers. The number of positive reviews for the 'higher than' condition was chosen to be three reviews alongside one NVIB review. The rationale behind this decision is related to the factsheet of TripAdvisor, which indicates that customers check four to twelve reviews before booking a hotel (TripAdvisor.co.uk, 2016b). Accordingly, in order not to risk customers' unwillingness to continue the experiment for being too long, this study provided respondents with maximum four reviews (3 positive reviews and 1 form of NVIB). Figure 5-5 illustrates the scenarios of this experiment.

	You are planning a vacation and while checking Hotels at your planned destination on TripAdvisor, you came across these reviews:
Discrediting	*"A truly horrible place"* NEW This hotel is really, really bad. Unfortunately, the facilities haven't been updated. Peeling paint, noisy ...food was awful... None of the staff were able to do anything without the manager's approval who conveniently were never available...1 electrical socket per room, the staff were horrible...A truly horrible place Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous11 🚩 Report
Expressing Regret	*"Will not be going back"* NEW This was a regretful choice a big mistake that we won't repeat again. The hotel is terribly bad, staff is careless, the grounds were very tatty and glass on the paths...Worst all-inclusive I have ever been to. Will not return Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous11 🚩 Report
Deriding	*"Pippa the pig – Barn accommodation"* NEW On a lovely rainy noon, we arrived at the barn...The smell was beyond sensational. Even if I was a pig, enjoying mud, dirt etc. I wouldn't go there again even for - 125 pounds for 4 Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous11 🚩 Report
Dissuading	*"DON'T STAY HERE"* NEW This is a shelter and should never be listed as a hotel. The picture shown could not be more of a joke. Do not be fooled by this made up picture!!!! The hotel is in a terrible condition. You won't enjoy your stay in this poor hygiene place. Staff is rude, amenities are not available even the basic ones, food is the worst you can ever try in your life. Don't stay here. Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous11 🚩 Report
Endorsing Competitors	*"Worst hotel ever. Terrible travel experience"* NEW This hotel is a joke. I recommend you try the Sofitel, it's worth it. If your budget allows it, try other hotels in this area, all are better than this one. Avoid destroying your travel experience by staying at this hotel. Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous20 🚩 Report
	(Continued)

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Warning	"*Absolutely horrifying!!*" WARNING! WARNING! AVOID LIKE A PLAGUE! The receptionist tried to hit me with an ashtray! You would not imagine how SCARY this hotel is!!!!! We went to report this incident to the police but they wanted to see BLOOD before they could do anything! BEWARNED !!!!!!!!' Helpful? Thank Anonymous15 Report
Equal volume of positive reviews	"*Good value*" Had a 1 night stay here and we thought it was good value!! Short walk to tube station. Continental breakfast with a variety of options. Clean room and excellent shower. The best is that it is close to everything and very good for the price we paid. Helpful? Thank Anonymous22 Report
Higher volume of positive reviews	"*Good value*" Had a 1 night stay here and we thought it was good value!! Short walk to tube station. Continental breakfast with a variety of options. Clean room and excellent shower. The best is that it is close to everything and very good for the price we paid. Helpful? Thank Anonymous22 Report "*Nice break*" It was a nice 3 nights staying. Clean, small but comfy room; tiny bathroom with a big shower. Kind receptionist, great position near the station and buses, good price. The breakfast was not so rich. Overall, it is a good hotel for a short break Helpful? Thank Anonymous15 Report "*Great location*" A great location close to everything with variety of transportation links that makes it all easy to go anywhere. The hotel is a little tired but has a charm about it. Continental breakfast more than enough. A budget hotel but perfect for a few days sightseeing. Would book again Helpful? Thank Anonymous20 Report

Figure 5-5: Scenarios of Experiment 3

After reading the scenarios, participants completed a questionnaire that comprised the items to measure the dependent variables; attitude (α = .99) and behavioural intentions (α = .98), the manipulation checks and the demographic items (age and gender) in this order. The measures had a good reliability and the CFA revealed a good fit (χ^2/df= 1.90; CFI = .98; RMSEA = 0.03). Table 5-14 summarises the factors' loading and the reliability of the scale, which also show the values above the recommended threshold of .7 (Hair et al. 2010). Appendix 9 shows an example of this experiment

Constructs and Items	Factors' Loading[1]	Cronbach α
Attitude (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Bansal and Taylor 1999; Putrevu and Lord 1994)		.99
My overall feeling about this hotel can be best described as	.88	
I think the quality of service of this hotel is	.83	
The decision to book this hotel is considered a good one	.84	
Behavioural Intentions (Gelbrich, 2010; Park, Robertson and Wu, 2004)		.98
Would you consider booking this hotel?	.85	
Would you recommend it to other people?	.88	
I would tell other people good things about the hotel	.83	
Attitude towards Online Reviews (Donthu and Gilliland, 1996; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012)		.87
Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision making	.95	
If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision	.93	
I want to be sure about my purchase decisions	.90	
Perceived TripAdvisor Credibility (Qiu, Pang and Lim 2012)		.98
In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy	.88	
In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable	.89	
In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible	.87	
Perceived reviewers' motives (Sen and Lerman 2007)		.80
The motive behind the reviewers posting these reviews is to inform others about the quality of this hotel	.90	
I feel the reviewers' comments are based on their true experience	.85	
Reasons other than the service quality might influence the reviewers to post these reviews	.83	

Table 5-14: Factors' Loading and Reliability of Items - Experiment 3.
[1] Standardised loadings: all loadings were significant at p < .001

5.5.2 Data Analysis and Results

A MANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of NVIB and volume of positive reviews (independent variables) on attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors (dependent variables). Although not conducted within a controlled environment, in this experiment, the independence of observation was satisfied via the random assignment of conditions (Hair et al., 2010). Regarding the assumption of homoscedasticity, the univariate homogeneity of variance using Levene's Test shows a non-significant value (p >.05) for the two dependent variables (Attitude: p = .425, Behaviour: p=.113). Moreover, to assess the equality of the entire variance-covariance matrices, the Box's Test shows also a non-significant value (p = .153), indicating no significant difference between the groups on the two dependent variables collectively.

Correlation among the dependent variables is significant; however, no issues of multicollinearity or multivariate outliers were found as the dependent variables (attitudes and behavioural intentions) are moderately (r < .8) correlated (r=.520; p=.000; N=1140) and the Mahalanobis distance as calculated and satisfied (2.605) as being less than the critical value 13.82 (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2013; Penny, 1994). This is in addition to the linear straight line relationship of the dependent variables. Skewness and kurtosis were calculated to ensure the normality of the distribution and show the satisfied values (Schmider et al., 2010; West, Finch and Curran, 1995). Additionally, the minor difference between the trimmed and original means of both dependent variables ensured the normality of the distribution (Pallant, 2013) (see Table 5-15).

Dimension	Variable	Statistic	Attitudes	Behavioural Intentions
Attitudes / Behavioural Intentions	Discrediting	Mean	2.2877	2.3614
		5% Trimmed Mean	2.3197	2.4016
		Difference	0.032	0.04
		Skewness	-.293	-.479
		Kurtosis	-.609	-.645
	Expressing Regret	Mean	2.3316	2.5053
		5% Trimmed Mean	2.3684	2.5614
		Difference	0.037	0.06
		Skewness	-.594	-1.003
		Kurtosis	-.878	-.165
	Deriding	Mean	1.9632	2.0123
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.9591	2.0136
		Difference	0.003	0.001
		Skewness	.019	.027
		Kurtosis	-.298	-.720
	Dissuading	Mean	1.1333	1.1456
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.0926	1.1062
		Difference	0.04	0.04
		Skewness	1.179	1.020
		Kurtosis	2.839	2.156
	Endorsing Competitors	Mean	1.3316	1.3316
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.3129	1.3129
		Difference	0.018	0.02
		Skewness	.721	.721
		Kurtosis	-1.496	-1.496
	Warning	Mean	1.0825	1.0895
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.0361	1.0439
		Difference	0.05	0.05
		Skewness	1.076	1.870
		Kurtosis	2.742	2.570

Table 5-15: Skewness, Kurtosis and Trimmed Mean of Dependent variables - Experiment 3

After satisfying the preliminary checks, a MANCOVA was conducted to examine the attitudes towards online reviews, the perceived credibility of TripAdvisor, the perceived motives of reviewers as covariates, the attitudes and behavioural intentions as dependent variables and the NVIB and volume of positive reviews as independent variables. The results of the multivariate test reveal

significant main effects for both NVIB (Wilk's lambda = .41, $F_{(2, 254)}$ =125.12, p <.001) and Positive reviews (Wilk's lambda = .91, $F_{(1,127)}$ = 55.85, p < .001) and a significant interaction effect between the factors (Wilk's lambda = .925, $F_{(2,254)}$ = 8.91, p < .001).

The interaction was significant for both attitudes and behavioural intention (p < .001) plotted for each of the dependent variables (see Figure 5-6), demonstrating an ordinal effect (Hair et al., 2010) and showing that warning, dissuading and endorsing competitors forms consistently have a greater negative effect on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors than deriding, discrediting or expressing regret forms no matter how higher or equal the volume of juxtaposed positive reviews. Also, the interaction effect shows that warning and dissuading forms have a higher negative effect on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors than the endorsing competitors form of NVIB. Additionally, the deriding form demonstrates the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions compared to other indirect forms of NVIB (discrediting and expressing regret). Any effects for the confounding variables were non-significant under both conditions of positive reviews.
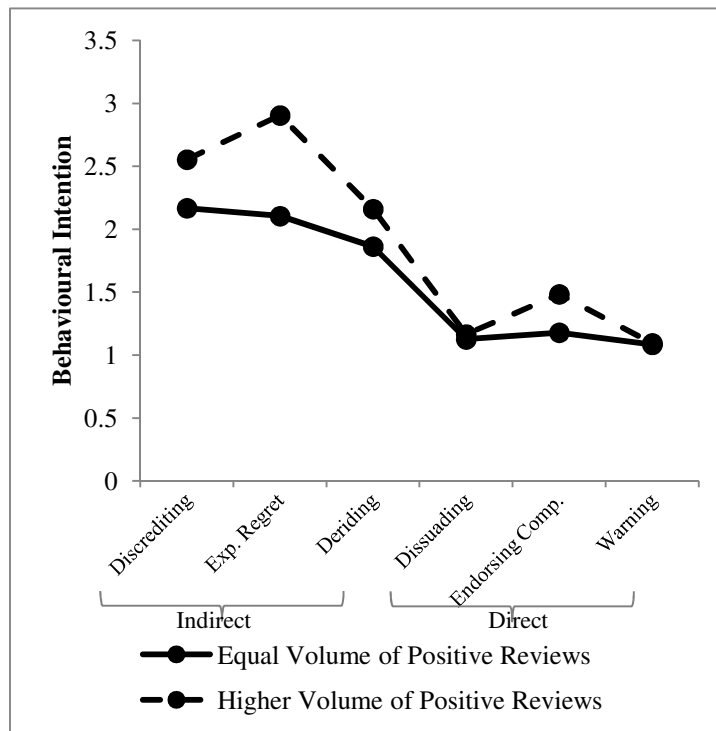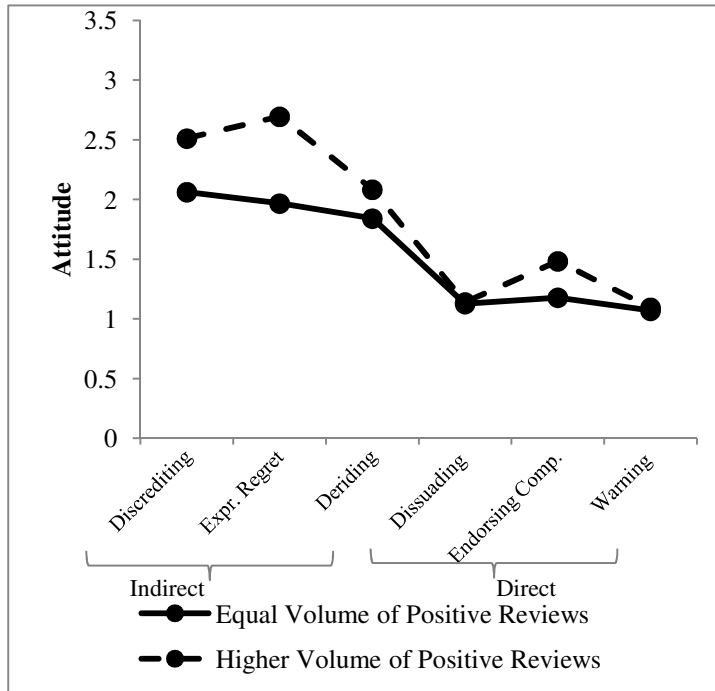
Figure 5-6: Interaction Effects for Attitudes and Behavioural Intentions

Although the variation in impacts of the six forms on attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors can still be seen in the above figure, the marked differences in their impact are represented clearly in Table 5-16 which shows the means for the significant interaction effects on attitudes and behavioural intentions.

Dependent Variables	Forms of NVIB within Online Reviews	Volume of Positive Reviews	Means
Attitude	Discrediting	Higher than NVIB	2.512
		Equal to NVIB	2.063
	Expressing Regret	Higher than NVIB	2.695
		Equal to NVIB	1.968
	Deriding	Higher than NVIB	2.084
		Equal to NVIB	1.842
	Dissuading	Higher than NVIB	1.140
		Equal to NVIB	1.126
	Endorsing Competitors	Higher than NVIB	1.484
		Equal to NVIB	1.179
	Warning	Higher than NVIB	1.095
		Equal to NVIB	1.070
Behavioural Intentions	Discrediting	Higher than NVIB	2.554
		Equal to NVIB	2.168
	Expressing Regret	Higher than NVIB	2.905
		Equal to NVIB	2.105
	Deriding	Higher than NVIB	2.161
		Equal to NVIB	1.863
	Dissuading	Higher than NVIB	1.165
		Equal to NVIB	1.126
	Endorsing Competitors	Higher than NVIB	1.484
		Equal to NVIB	1.179
	Warning	Higher than NVIB	1.095
		Equal to NVIB	1.084

Table 5-16: Means of Significant Interaction Effects on Dependent Variables, (p < .001) – Experiment 3

Based on the results of this experiment, H3a-H3f are confirmed, as the results show that the six forms of NVIB within online reviews, negatively affect other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers when juxtaposed with equal and higher volume of positive reviews. The profile plots and the mean differences show the relative strength of the warning form in impacting the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors towards service providers regardless of the volume of positive reviews, whether higher or equal to NVIB, compared to other direct forms of NVIB within online reviews. While the dissuading form also showed this high relative strength, yet respondents exposed to the warning form scored more negatively on both attitudes and behavioural intentions. Endorsing competitors showed a lower impact compared to the other direct forms, showing a

minor difference in mean values on the two levels of positive reviews. For the other three forms, deriding shows a higher effect on other actors compared to discrediting and expressing regret forms, while the latter shows the lowest negative effect, especially when juxtaposed with the higher volume of positive reviews.

This chapter investigated the impact of NVIB within online reviews, on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions by conducting three experiments. The first experiment investigated the impact of direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews and compared their impact, showing the relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB. The second experiment investigated the impact of NVIB within online reviews alongside aggregate ratings, which represent a collective level of influence that comprises both valence and rating. This experiment also showed the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, with a relatively greater degree of influence of NVIB than the aggregate rating, specifically direct NVIB. The third experiment investigated the impact of NVIB within online reviews, alongside volumes of positive reviews. This experiment investigated the individual impact of each form of NVIB within online reviews. The results showed the relative power of direct over indirect NVIB; moreover, the heterogeneity of the forms resulted in variable impacts on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors towards service providers. All the hypotheses of the three experiments were confirmed, as shown in Table 5-17. The next section discusses the results, implications and limitations of the three experiments.

Exp.	Hypothesis	Results
Exp. 1	H1a: Direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider.	Confirmed
	H1b: Direct forms are more powerful than indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, in negatively affecting other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider.	Confirmed
Exp. 2	H2: Direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews, will negatively affect other actors' (a) attitudes and (b) behavioural intentions towards a service provider regardless of aggregate rating	Confirmed
Exp. 3	H3a: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by discrediting service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.	Confirmed
	H3b: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by expressing regret for choosing service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews	Confirmed
	H3c: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by deriding service providers will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews	Confirmed
	H3d: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by dissuading other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews	Confirmed
	H3e: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by endorsing competitors for other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews	Confirmed
	H3f: Customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, by warning other actors will negatively affect other actors' (i) attitudes and (ii) behavioural intentions towards a focal service provider when juxtaposed with higher or equal volumes of positive reviews.	Confirmed

Table 5-17: Confirmed Hypotheses

5.6 Discussion

This study has measured the impact of NVIB within online reviews on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers. The results reveal the negative impact of NVIB on other actors with a relative strength of direct over indirect forms of NVIB, in addition to the relative strength of NVIB over

accompanied aggregate ratings and positive reviews. Moreover, the study provides empirical results on the impact of each of the six forms of NVIB.

The Impact of Direct vs. Indirect forms of NVIB

The first experiment of this study measured the impact of direct compared to indirect NVIB and hypothesised that both direct and indirect forms of NVIB would negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions with a relative strength of direct over indirect forms of NVIB based on prior research on the power of persuasive compared to injunctive messages (Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008). The results of this study showed that both direct and indirect NVIB negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, with a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB. Customers exposed to the direct condition of NVIB showed more negative mean scores than those exposed to the indirect condition of NVIB, which reflects the relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB within online reviews. Additionally, the significant results (t-values), as well as the large effect size (Cohen's d) confirm that other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions are significantly impacted by NVIB.

Prior conceptual research on influencing behaviour shows that customers' shared online experiences, whether positive or negative, have the potential to adjust the way they think, feel and behave towards service providers (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). This study offers an empirical result of this effect. In addition, and unlike prior research on e-WOM where the analysis of most of the extant studies assumes an aggregate impact of online reviews (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010); this study provides empirical results that show the stronger impact of direct compared to indirect NVIB on review sites, which has not been introduced to the literature to date.

Moreover, in opposition to the majority of the extant studies that limit the influence of customers on other actors to direct recommendation of a firm or service provider or warning other actors from transacting with focal firms or providers (e.g. Blazevic et al., 2013; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al.,

2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010), this study shows that customers' influence extends to involve indirect NVIB; without explicitly addressing other actors in their online reviews, customers engaging in NVIB negatively affected their attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

The Impact of NVIB alongside Aggregate Rating

Subsequently, this study proceeded with the second experiment, which measured the impact of NVIB within online reviews alongside aggregate rating hypothesising that both direct and indirect NVIB will negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers regardless of excellent (high) or terrible (low) aggregate rating. The results of this experiment show a significant effect for both aggregate rating and NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, with a relative strength of NVIB over aggregate rating, specifically direct NVIB. The plotted interaction effect for attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors implied a consistently higher impact of direct NVIB on attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors than indirect NVIB, no matter how high or low the aggregate rating of a service provider.

Most of the existing studies have been conducted to demonstrate the discrete impacts of aggregated rating and review valence on consumers' product attitudes and purchasing intentions, with sparse insights about their interactions (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012), which this study has provided. This study reveals that both aggregate rating and NVIB within online reviews have a significant effect on both behavioural intentions and attitude, with a much stronger influence from NVIB than the aggregate rating. Accordingly, the results of this study are consistent with studies indicating that customers value review texts more than aggregate rating (cf. Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006); however, these results run contrary to prior studies that claim no impact of aggregate rating (e.g. Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Lee, Rodgers and Kim, 2009); those that relate its impact to purchase intentions and the impact of reviews' valence to attitude only (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Weinberger and Dillon, 1980); and views that claim a decrease of impact when valence and ratings are in conflict (cf. Qiu, Pang

and Lim, 2012). This study shows that customers' attitudes and behavioural outcomes were negatively impacted when exposed to both direct and indirect NVIB, whether they were paired with excellent or terrible aggregate ratings given to the service provider, with direct NVIB having a stronger effect.

The Impact of Specific Forms of NVIB

Chapter 4 of this thesis showed that customers within online reviews use each of the forms of NVIB differently; accordingly, the third experiment investigated the impact of each individual form of NVIB to test if the heterogeneity of these forms would result in variable impacts. This experiment also investigated the impact of forms of NVIB within online reviews juxtaposed with a volume of positive reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. This is because customers are exposed to negative as well as positive influencing information about the same offering. In addition to this, prior research shows conflicting views about the power of positive and negative messages and their impact.

The results confirmed all the related hypotheses as the six forms of NVIB negatively affect other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers when juxtaposed with equal and higher volume of positive reviews. Accordingly, the results are consistent with prior research that suggests the relative power of negative over positive valence (e.g. Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Halstead, 2002; Heitmann, Lehmann and Herrmann, 2007; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014); however, these results run contrary to studies that suggest the opposite (e.g. Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Cheung et al., 2009; Kim and Gupta, 2012) and those claiming the higher impact of volume compared to the valence of reviews (e.g. Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Berger, Sorensen and Rasmussen, 2010; Davis and Khazanchi, 2008; Dhar and Chang, 2009; Liu, 2006; Wirtz et al., 2013).

Additionally, this experiment also revealed that the heterogeneity of the six forms resulted in variable impacts of these forms on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Thereby, this study contributes to extant literature with the first empirical results on the impact of individual forms of NVIB. Moreover, this

research responds to recent calls within the e-WOM literature stream by several authors (e.g. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014) with empirical results that demonstrate variable rather than aggregate impact of the six forms of NVIB with some forms having a stronger impact than others.

The profile plots and the mean differences showed that on the direct side, customers engaging in NVIB by warning other actors negatively affect their attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers regardless of the volume of positive reviews, whether they are higher or equal to NVIB with a higher relative strength compared to other direct forms (dissuading and endorsing competitors) of NVIB. Dissuading other actors also showed a high impact on their attitudes and behavioural intentions slightly less than the impact showed by the warning form of NVIB. However, endorsing competitors showed a lower impact specifically when juxtaposed with a higher volume of positive reviews, compared to the respective direct forms of NVIB.

On the indirect side, the three forms (i.e. discrediting, deriding and expressing regret) of NVIB within online reviews, showed a negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions juxtaposed with volumes of positive reviews with a relatively much stronger effect demonstrated by the deriding form. The results show the relatively higher impact of deriding compared to discrediting and expressing regret forms of NVIB which may relate to the use of sarcasm, specifically non-literal meanings, which makes customers contributions using the deriding form more retainable and memorable (Giora, 2002). Although prior research has shown that descriptive messages have minor impact on changing behavioural intentions (Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Schultz, Khazian and Zaleski, 2008), this study shows that the discrediting form which is functional and descriptive in nature, negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

The results of the third experiment of this study extend extant research addressing embedded emotions within online reviews that face a debate regarding their powerful influence (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999; Stieglitz and Dang-

Xuan, 2013) or weak impact (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017) by showing that expressing regret negatively impacts other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Notwithstanding its lower influence compared to deriding and discrediting forms of NVIB, as an individual form of NVIB, it showed a negative impact.

Finally, the study confounded the credibility of TripAdvisor, customers' general attitudes towards checking online reviews and perceived motives of reviewers. The three variables were controlled to check the impact of NVIB on other actors without the effect of these variables. The results show that neither the type of the forum, its credibility, customers' favourable or unfavourable general attitudes towards online reviews nor their perceived motives of reviewers had any significant effect. In contrast to prior research that considered source expertise, credibility and recipient utilitarian value to affect the adoption, persuasiveness and consequently the impact of e-WOM (e.g. Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; De Bruyn and Lilien, 2008; Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld, 2008; Reichelt, Sievert and Jacob, 2014; Trusov, Bodapati and Bucklin, 2010; Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels, 2009), the results show that customers were influenced by NVIB within online reviews, regardless of the credibility of the source, which is seen as a main source of influence in traditional WOM research and has been replaced by the credibility of forum owing to the anonymity of online identity in e-WOM research (Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007).

Also, the recipient utilitarian motive is known to influence the acceptance of WOM and e-WOM which refers to customers' motives to get consumption or purchase advice (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004), confounded by the items measuring general attitudes towards checking online reviews and showed no influence on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Finally, perceived motive of reviewer was confounded, and in opposition to studies that show its impact on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Zhang, Zhang and Yang, 2016), this study shows no significant impact of this construct.

Accordingly, this study advances research on CEB and influencing behaviour, firstly with an empirical study which measures the impact of influencing behaviour, specifically by providing evidence on the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Secondly, it shows that indirect and direct NVIB, negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, which offers a new insight into the influence of customers that are not limited to recommending and warning other actors against a provider. Thirdly, it shows the relative strength of the impact of NVIB over aggregate rating and volumes of positive reviews, and the relative strength of NVIB compared to factors such as source credibility, recipient utilitarian value and perceived motives of reviewers that have always been known to influence the acceptance of customers' influencing activities such as WOM and e-WOM. Finally, it provides empirical results about the impact of individual forms of NVIB on review sites, whereby, the heterogeneity of these forms resulted in a variation in their impacts on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions.

The next chapter synthesises the two empirical studies and discusses how the integrated results of the two studies have satisfied objectives and aim of this thesis. Additionally, this chapter introduces and discusses the contribution to knowledge of CE, CEB and the influencing behaviour literature.

Chapter 6. General Discussion

Integrating qualitative and quantitative findings is pivotal to most mixed methods designs and offers valuable insights as it increases the chances to make the best out of the collected data (Bryman, 2007; Caracelli and Greene, 1993; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Accordingly, this chapter synthesises the two empirical studies and discusses how the integrated results of the two studies have satisfied aim and objectives of this thesis. Additionally, this chapter introduces and discusses the contribution to knowledge of CE, CEB and the influencing behaviour literature. The first section of the chapter discusses the forms and triggers of NVIB as identified in this thesis and the second discusses the impact of NVIB based on the results of the two studies. Finally, the chapter concludes by discussing the broad aim and contribution of this thesis.

6.1 Identifying Forms and Triggers of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

This section addresses the first two objectives of this thesis that were designed to understand how NVIB is revealed and what triggers customers to engage in NVIB on review sites:

> ***Objective 1***: *To conceptualise forms of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*
>
> ***Objective 2***: *To identify triggers of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews*

These objectives were introduced given the need to understand the concept of NVIB, especially empirically, and specifically regarding its forms and triggers (Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Furthermore, negative engagement should be viewed as a distinct concept due to different underpinning nomological elements than trust, rapport, brand attachment, customer empowerment and loyalty, which signal positive rather than negative engagement (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013). Accordingly, this thesis did not study negative and positive engagement as two

opposite forms of the same construct, but rather focused on negatively-valenced CEB, specifically one of its forms, influencing behaviour. This is aimed at exploring the concept of NVIB and investigating its impact on other actors within online reviews. This section starts with a summary of the findings that fulfil the first two objectives of this thesis. Then, the section proceeds with a discussion on the six forms of NVIB as identified within online reviews, their direct and indirect classification, the identified five triggers and the relationships between these triggers and forms.

This thesis conceptualised six forms of NVIB and classified them into direct and indirect based on the way customers use each form in their reviews. The direct forms are *dissuading, warning* and *endorsing competitors*, while the indirect forms are *discrediting, expressing regret* and *deriding*. Moreover, this thesis identified five triggers of cognitive and emotional roots that induce customers to engage in various forms of NVIB within online reviews. *Service failure, overpricing* and *deception* are considered triggers with more cognitive than emotional roots as they involve an assessment of services, prices and provider dishonesty in the minds of customers, traded against their expectations of what they would receive in interactions with particular firms and service providers. On the other hand, *disappointment* and *insecurity* are considered triggers with more emotional than cognitive roots, as they involve feelings of antipathy expressed by customers when they feel disappointed or insecure. Additionally, this thesis identified specific relationships between these triggers and forms. Figure 6-1 illustrates the five cognitive and emotional triggers and their relationships with the six forms of NVIB (the bold arrows represent dominant relationships while the dotted arrows represent less common ones).

Triggers of NVIB   **Forms of NVIB**

Cognitive:
- Service Failure
- Overpricing
- Deception

Emotional:
- Disappointment
- Insecurity

Indirect:
- Discrediting
- Deriding
- Expressing Regret

Direct:
- Endorsing Competitors
- Dissuading
- Warning
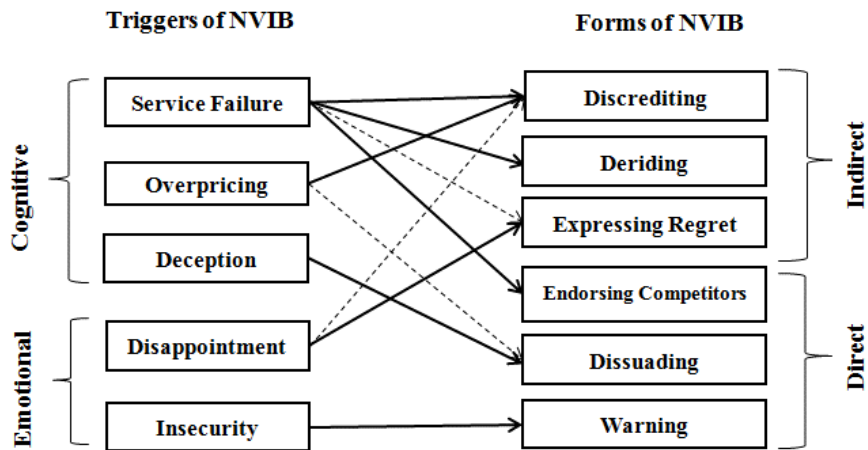
6.1.1 Forms of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

Research on the negative side of engagement, specifically, negatively-valenced CEB is scarce in the literature (Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). The majority of existing studies have focused on positive rather than negatively-valenced engagement behaviours despite the existence of negative expressions of CE (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn, 2011). Similarly, within the research stream of e-WOM, prior studies have largely focused on positive e-WOM, specifically online reviews (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Kim et al., 2016). Few studies have provided indications that customers might engage in a range of NVIB (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016). Forms of NVIB have remained unidentified, although the main challenge for service providers in appropriately managing NVIB within online reviews is to identify its different forms (Van Doorn et al., 2010). Similarly, within the broad literature on e-WOM, most existing research ignores the heterogeneity of e-WOM, providing insights about what customers say about a service provider, rather than capturing how they say it (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010), hence, offering immeasurable components of e-WOM (Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007). Conversely, this thesis identified six forms of NVIB within online reviews, thereby contributing to the emerging CEB literature particularly its negative side which has remained nebulous to date and also to the broad e-WOM literature

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with empirically defined and measurable forms capturing how customers engage in NVIB within online reviews.

This thesis indicated that without explicitly addressing other actors, customers engage in NVIB, by *discrediting* service providers based on an offered substandard level of service. This form is literal and functional in nature; customers detail their experience concentrating on a functional evaluation of how bad the service environment, the service staff or management is. Prior research studies on online reviews have identified that customers tend to discuss tangible aspects of the firm or service provider (e.g. hotels) within negative reviews (Berezina et al., 2015; Sparks and Browning, 2011), which is picked up by this thesis specifically in the discrediting form. This thesis also indicated that engaging in NVIB by discrediting service providers negatively impact other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

This thesis revealed that customers also engage in NVIB by *expressing regret* for choosing a focal provider based on specific experiences, revealing their future avoidance intentions towards focal service providers. Marketing research has identified the role embedded emotions in online reviews play in changing other actors' perceptions and knowledge of focal service providers (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999; Stieglitz and Dang-Xuan, 2013). Correspondently, social psychology research suggests that emotions of remorse indirectly elicit an avoidance motivation (Strack and Deutsch, 2004), which was picked in customers' reviews as a 'not to repeat' intentional plan (Strack and Deutsch, 2004).

In other instances, customers express regret for choosing a focal provider despite negative reviews or without checking reviews, and they clearly state that in their reviews. This degree of regret was also identified in social psychology research to relate to prior options which customers could have chosen (Bell, 1982). It is also noted that customers using this form do not share their detailed experiences; instead, they devote their reviews for communicating regret to others to tell them about a bad experience which was also picked up by social psychology research (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). This thesis indicated that engaging in NVIB by expressing regret

negatively impact other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

This thesis indicates that customers engage in NVIB by *deriding* a service provider in their reviews. They use non-literal meanings, which, as identified in customers' reviews and picked up by contemporary linguists, they shift the polarity of positive or negative speech to its opposite (González-Ibánez, Muresan and Wacholder, 2011), which makes their contribution more retainable and memorable (Giora et al., 2000). The deriding form demonstrated a higher relative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions compared to the other two indirect forms.

On the direct side, customers may directly *dissuade* other actors from transacting with a focal service provider based on their experience. Customers using this form, provide details about their service experience and attempt to persuade other actors not to transact with focal providers accordingly. This form showed a high negative impact on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service provider. This thesis also indicated that customers *endorse competitors* for other actors and encourage them to transact with competitors of a focal provider. In some instances, they go beyond mentioning competitors' names and provide other actors with details on competitors' services compared to focal providers. This is according to prior marketing research known as offering other actors with alternatives which influence their commitment towards focal providers (Yim, Chan and Hung, 2007). Customers using this form do not provide details of their service experience, however, specify their entire online review to recommend competitors and encourage other actors to transact with these competitors over focal service providers. This thesis also showed that engaging in NVIB by endorsing competitors negatively impact other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions, however, showed a relatively lower impact compared to other direct forms of NVIB.

Finally, customers may engage in NVIB by *warning* other actors about a service provider based on an experience that involved a threat assessment. This specific type of experience was identified in customers' online reviews when they engaged in

NVIB using the warning form. Consistently, threat assessment was picked by behavioural science and law research as the main reason for warning others (Meloy et al., 2012). It was observed in this thesis that customers use this form specifically differently. They keep their reviews short and simple, entirely devoted for the warning, rather than detailing their service experiences. They also write their reviews in capital letters, and stress warning and alarming words. Short and simple sentences as suggested by ergonomics research enhance understanding of their warning message (Broadbent, 1977) and capital letters and alarming words play a central role in perceiving their alerting reviews, as suggested by labelling and advertising research (Godfrey et al., 1983). Specifically, this form showed the highest negative impact on other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers compared to the other five forms of NVIB.

Prior studies within CE and CEB literature have identified forms of negative engagement behaviour (e.g. detachment, negative contribution, exiting, boycotting and co-destruction behaviours) (cf. Bowden et al., 2017; Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017). However, detachment and exiting behaviours represent disengagement rather than negative engagement behaviours (Brodie et al., 2011). Moreover, negative contribution and co-destruction behaviours are referred to as sharing negative online content (Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016), which is arguably general in meaning. Sharing positive or negative online content amounts to capturing general customers' online activities (Gummerus et al., 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010). In other words, customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews by discrediting service providers, deriding service providers, expressing regret for choosing service providers, dissuading other actors not to transact with service providers, warning other actors against a service provider, or endorsing competitors for other actors are commonly sharing negative content. However, they do so in different ways that distinguish each of the six forms.

This thesis acknowledges that positive and negative engagement behaviours involve a contribution of resource and provides six forms that signal negatively-valenced engagement behaviour. Customers engage in forms of NVIB by

contributing resources such as knowledge, skills, time and experience; they neither exit nor detach from but actively engage in NVIB. This thesis conceptualises specific forms of NVIB. Each form is specifically defined based on the way customers use it thereby contributing to the literature with empirically defined and measurable forms that could be used in future research and providing service providers with customers' specific forms of NVIB rather than general negative contribution behaviour.

6.1.2 Direct and Indirect Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

Prior research has indicated that engagement behaviour may occur at varying ways (Malthouse et al., 2013; Muntinga, Moorman and Smit, 2011). However, such interpretations have not clearly stated how customers behave within these classifications. This thesis identifies a classification of forms of NVIB within online reviews as direct and indirect according to the approach customers adopt on each. On the indirect side, customers engage in NVIB by sharing their negative experience without explicitly addressing other actors in their reviews, while on the direct, they engage in NVIB by directly addressing other actors, not to transact with a focal provider. This approach of classifying NVIB into direct and indirect provides a more complete view of how customers may influence other actors and establishes new routes for addressing CE and it sub-forms.

The extant research commonly concentrates on recommending, referring or warning when capturing customers' influential roles (e.g. Blazevic et al., 2013; Gummerus et al., 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010), which are typically direct in nature. However, this research shows that customers might not explicitly address other actors, yet affect them. By looking at the results of the second study, both direct and indirect NVIB negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

Prior research on influencing behaviour has proposed that:

> "Proposition 6: Influencing behaviour affects other stakeholders' propensity to contribute resources towards a focal firm"

"Proposition 7: Influencing behaviour calibrates other stakeholders' expectations towards the firm or offering, which affects their value interpretations" (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014, p. 255).

By reflecting on these propositions, it can be seen that there can be two types of influencing behaviour: one that affects the willingness of other actors to contribute resources towards providers and another that calibrates their expectations and value interpretations. In this thesis, the results from Study 1 explicitly show this difference. On the indirect side of NVIB, customers share online negative service experiences without directly addressing other actors in their reviews. Nevertheless, their detailed experiences are likely to indirectly elicit an avoidance motivation and recalibrate other actors' expectations and interpretations of value (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). The indirect classification of NVIB is revealed in the way customers use the discrediting, expressing regret and deriding forms. Whereby, customers contribute resources to discredit a service provider based on a substandard level of service offered, express regret for choosing a certain provider, or deride a focal provider based on their experiences, however, without directly addressing other actors.

On the direct side, customers explicitly address other actors in their online reviews, not to transact with a service provider in an attempt to not only recalibrate their expectations but also to directly influence their tendencies to contribute resources towards focal providers (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Direct NVIB is demonstrated in its various forms, namely, *dissuading, warning* and *endorsing competitors*, whereby customers contribute various resources such as knowledge, skills, experience and time to other actors using online reviews, to dissuade or warn them not to transact with focal providers or to directly endorse competitors to influence other actors' willingness to contribute resources to them. Therefore, this thesis contributes to the current understanding of influencing behaviour by introducing direct and indirect NVIB which, when tested in Study 2, they indicated variable impacts with a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB.

6.1.3 Triggers of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

Customers' negative engagement behaviours are preceded by triggers that affect the valence of their engagement behaviour (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010).This thesis identifies five triggers of NVIB within online reviews, namely, *service failure, overpricing, deception, disappointment,* and *insecurity*. *Service failure* relates to incidents where a focal service fails to meet customers' expectations. The concept of critical incidents was also picked up in service research (Edvardsson, 1992; Lewis and McCann, 2004) and identified in customers' reviews, revealing details on the core service itself, the service environment, the behaviour of service staff and the dysfunctionality of service facilities. As identified in marketing and consumer research, customer evaluation of a service or product value involves a trade-off assessment of the price paid and the quality of this product or service (Priem, 2007; Zeithaml, 1988). Also, this thesis identified *overpricing* as a trigger of NVIB. In customers' reviews, this trigger related to customers' conception of a service value (e.g. taste of a meal, hygiene standards, service level, type of attraction and facilities of a focal place) as poor compared to its price.

The third trigger this thesis indicated is *deception*, which relates to a perceived act of cheating deliberately carried out by a focal firm or service provider towards customers. Customers' reviews reveal several deliberate cheating actions of service providers, such as add-on fees and fake communication. As indicated in prior business and marketing research, feelings of disappointment occur when the outcomes of a focal service disconfirm customers' previously held expectations (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). Also, in this thesis, *disappointment* was identified in customers' reviews, where they explicitly stated their disappointment of a focal provider in relation to their prior expectations or experience. According to Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter (2006), depriving customers of their basic human needs (e.g. security) induces negative engagement behaviour. This thesis pointed to *insecurity* as a trigger of NVIB that relates to customers' feelings of insecurity based on perilous experiences involving particular threat assessments.

Commonly, CE is seen as positive relating to concepts such as affection, absorption, passion and dedication (e.g. Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006). This thesis contributes to the CE, CEB and influencing behaviour literature by providing five triggers of NVIB that connote negative rather than positive engagement. Additionally, the triggers identified by Hollebeek and Chen (2014) were not specified as positive and negative; instead, they were related to the trigger being perceived as favourable or unfavourable, which, consequently, would result in positive or negative engagement. The typology provided by this thesis, in contrast, is specific.

These triggers were found to have both cognitive and emotional roots. The cognitive triggers induce NVIB based on knowledge, evaluation and assessment of facts and values (cognitive roots) are *service failure, overpricing* and *deception*. On the other hand, the triggers that elicit NVIB based on feelings of antipathy (emotional roots) are *disappointment* and *insecurity*. This classification of triggers has rarely been introduced in the literature. Apart from a recent study that identified cognitive (subjectivity) and emotional (irritation and community intimacy) triggers of community engagement (Heinonen, 2017), the majority of existing studies on the have identified only emotional triggers, such as hatred, anger, stress and feelings of injustice (e.g. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Ladhari, 2007; Maute and Dubes, 1999; Naumann et al., 2017; Riegner, 2007; Söderlund and Rosengren, 2007; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004).

CE is a relational concept operating not in isolation but rather within a broader nomological network that encompasses elements such as trust, rapport, loyalty, brand attachment, and customer empowerment (Brodie et al., 2011). In opposition to prior studies within CE and CEB literature that have addressed negative and positive engagement behaviours as two opposite forms of the same construct underpinned by the same nomological network (Bowden et al., 2017; Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), this thesis acknowledges that negative engagement should be underpinned by a different nomological network that signals negative engagement (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013) and

extends the extant nomological network by providing a nomological network that encompasses *deception, disappointment, insecurity, service failure* and *overpricing* rather than trust, rapport, brand attachment, customer empowerment and loyalty, which signal positive rather than negative elements. Therefore, this thesis contributes to the CE and CEB literature with a nomological network that underpins NVIB, thereby verifying and advancing research on CE and CEB, specifically the negative side.

6.1.4 Relationships between Forms and Triggers of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

Few studies in parallel research streams on the negative side of service relationships, brand engagement and negative e-WOM have conceptualised typologies of triggers (e.g. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Frow et al., 2011; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). However, none of these studies has identified how these triggers are related to forms of customers' negatively-valenced engagement behaviours, which this thesis provided. Induced by service failure, customers engage in several forms of NVIB within online reviews, namely discrediting, deriding, and endorsing competitors. In an indirect sense, customers discredit or deride a focal provider, focusing on the level of substandard service they offer, while in a direct sense, they encourage other actors to choose competitors over these providers by endorsing competitors' services and offerings. Induced by overpricing, customers predominantly engage by discrediting service providers, concentrating on how their services are overpriced. Triggered by deception, customers dissuade other actors from transacting with this provider based on their act of deliberate cheating. Induced by disappointment, customers express regret for choosing a certain provider. Triggered by insecurity, customers warn other actors from transacting with a service provider.

Understanding the relationship between forms and triggers is necessary as it shows what triggers customers to engage in a specific form of NVIB, which, in turn, facilitates the identification of potent triggers that induce forms of NVIB within online reviews with much stronger impact. Despite the indications within CE and CEB literature that triggers can be simple or complex and might have different

strength levels (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006), it has received limited attention to date. This thesis posits strong triggers based on the explored relationships between forms and triggers from study 1 combined with the results of study 2. This thesis proposes that *insecurity* is the strongest trigger since it induces customers to engage in NVIB within online reviews by *warning* other actors. This specific form based on the results of study 2, showed the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions compared to all of the forms of NVIB. This is consistent with a prior view by Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter (2006) that conceives depriving customers of human fundamental needs (e.g. security) as a potent trigger that potentially impacts the valence of CEB more than a dissatisfying service experience.

Therefore, this section contributes to knowledge in several ways. Firstly, it provides six empirically defined and measurable forms of NVIB within online reviews that signal negative engagement rather than disengagement. Secondly, it provides a classification of NVIB as direct and indirect, thereby extending our understanding of how customers might engage in influencing behaviour and establishing a new route to study CEB, especially its negative side. Thirdly, it identifies five triggers of NVIB within online reviews with cognitive and emotional roots and extends the extant CE nomological network with one that signals negative engagement. Finally, it indicates the relationships between triggers and forms of NVIB that provide a more complete view of the concept of NVIB within online reviews and its strongest trigger. The next section addresses the impact of NVIB on customers' attitudes and behavioural outcomes followed by a concluding section.

6.2 The Impact of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

This section addresses the third objective of this thesis:

Objective 3: *To measure the impact of negatively-valenced influencing behaviour within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers*

This objective relates to the need to investigate the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers within a network (Bowden et al., 2017; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016). This need exists to move the literature focus beyond the firm-customer dyadic perspective of engagement (Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016). To address this objective, Study 2 used the conceptualised forms from Study 1 to investigate the impact of NVIB within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Study 2 was composed of three experiments: the first one compared the impact of direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews, the second experiment investigated the impact of NVIB within online reviews when paired with aggregate ratings of service providers and the third experiment examined the effect of NVIB within online reviews juxtaposed with positive reviews. The results from this study supported all the related hypotheses that empirically show the negative impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions (see Figure 6-2).
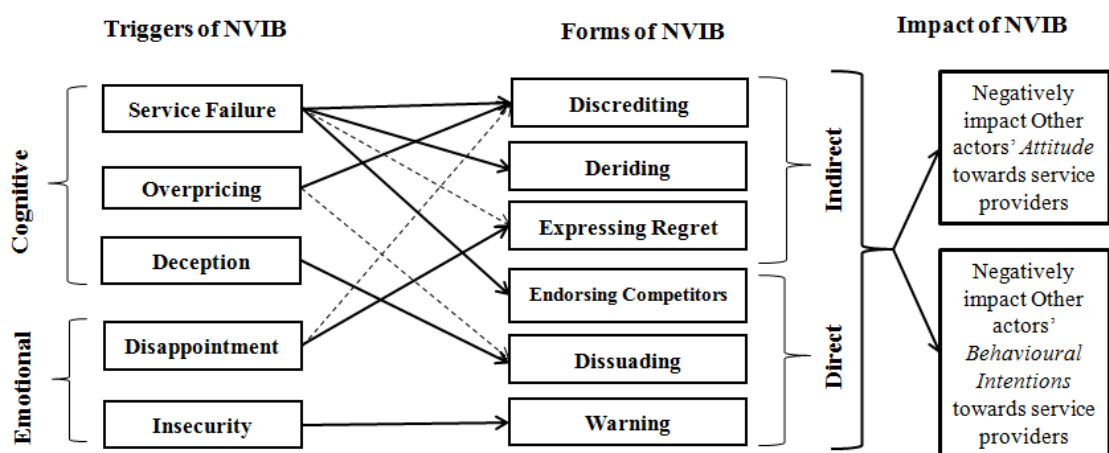
Figure 6-2: Forms, Triggers and Impact of NVIB within Online Reviews

6.2.1 The Degree of Influence of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

The results from the three experiments showed the relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB within online reviews. The results from the first experiment showed that customers exposed to direct NVIB had more negative attitudes and behavioural intention towards service providers than those exposed to indirect NVIB. Specifically, the second and the third experiments showed a higher impact of direct over indirect even when accompanied with excellent aggregate ratings given to service providers or a higher volume of positive reviews.

This thesis extends the influencing behaviour research with empirical results that reveal that customers engage in NVIB within online reviews via the contribution of resources that negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Prior conceptual research on influencing behaviour has proposed that customers' shared experiences, whether positive or negative, are an act of contributing resources (e.g. knowledge, experience, skills and time) to other actors' purchase processes, which have the potential to adjust their expectations about service providers (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016; Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Grissemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993). This thesis provided empirical results for the impact of NVIB within online reviews and showed the relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB, which has not been introduced in the literature to date.

Additionally, this thesis contributes to the literature with results that show variable impacts of NVIB; this is unlike the current suggestion, in most of the extant studies on online reviews, that they have an aggregate impact, based on the assumption that all e-WOM messages are equal in terms of their impact, while they may differ with some messages having stronger impact than others (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014). The results of this thesis provide empirical evidence of the relative strength of direct over indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews.

The three experiments show that both direct and indirect NVIB negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. The majority of the extant studies suggest the influence of customers on other actors by recommending a firm or service provider or by warning other actors from transacting with focal firms or providers (e.g. Blazevic et al., 2013; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Libai et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Both recommending and warning behaviours directly address other actors. This provides an incomplete perspective of the influence of customers on other actors. According to this thesis, customers engage in NVIB by directly addressing other actors or indirectly addressing other actors; however, direct and indirect NVIB negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Accordingly, this approach of addressing how customers may influence other actors (direct/indirect) contributes to the understanding of the impact of influencing behaviour that has been viewed from a direct (recommending or warning) perspective and introduces new knowledge about the degree of influence of NVIB.

This degree of influence is revealed in the results of study 2, as follows. In the first experiments that compared direct and indirect NVIB, the results show that both direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers, with a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB. The second experiment investigated this impact alongside group norms represented by the aggregate rating given to service providers. The results reveal the main effect of both aggregate rating and NVIB, with NVIB having a much stronger influence which is unlike the extant research that ignores any effect of aggregate ratings (e.g. Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Lee, Rodgers and Kim, 2009); those that relate its impact on purchase intentions and the impact of reviews valence on attitude only (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Weinberger and Dillon, 1980) and views that claim a decrease of impact of conflicting valence and ratings (cf. Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012).

Study 2 also revealed a much stronger influence of NVIB when paired with different volumes of positive reviews. The results reveal that direct and indirect

NVIB within online reviews negatively impacted the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors regardless of whether they were exposed to higher or equal volume of juxtaposed positive reviews. Nevertheless, the higher volume of positive reviews showed a slightly favourable impact when customers were exposed to indirect NVIB. Therefore, the results are consistent with prior research that suggests the relative power of negative over positive valence (e.g. Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Halstead, 2002; Heitmann, Lehmann and Herrmann, 2007; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), however, these results run contrary to studies that suggest the opposite (e.g. Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Cheung et al., 2009; Kim and Gupta, 2012) and those claiming the impact of volume rather than valence of reviews (e.g. Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Berger, Sorensen and Rasmussen, 2010; Davis and Khazanchi, 2008; Dhar and Chang, 2009; Liu, 2006; Wirtz et al., 2013). This thesis acknowledges the impact of both the volume of positive reviews and NVIB, with both showing a significant main effect on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors. However, NVIB showed a much stronger effect, specifically direct NVIB, regardless of a higher volume of positive reviews.

Finally, Study 2 shows the impact of NVIB within online reviews on other actors regardless of the credibility of the forum (source credibility), customers' general attitudes towards checking online reviews (utilitarian motive) or the motives of reviewers. These results run contrary to studies suggesting the influence of these factors on the adoption and consequently the impact of shared online reviews (cf. Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; De Bruyn and Lilien, 2008; Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld, 2008; Reichelt, Sievert and Jacob, 2014; Sen and Lerman, 2007; Trusov, Bodapati and Bucklin, 2010; Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels, 2009); however, they are consistent with prior research that advocates no significant impact for these factors within online contexts because of the anonymity of online users (Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Cheung and Lee, 2012; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Libai et al., 2010).

Importantly, both study 1 and study 2 of this thesis provide further evidence that NVIB, at service system level, is likely to affect value co-creation (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). For customers, the value of engaging in NVIB within online

reviews relates to "their power to punish a service provider for a bad service" (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016, p. 8). Customers discredit, deride service providers or express regret for choosing service providers. They may also dissuade, warn other actors from transacting with focal providers or endorse competitors to encourage other actors to transact with over a focal provider.

For other actors, the value of engaging in NVIB within online reviews relates to alleviating risk (Daft and Lengel, 1986) and gaining trustworthy information (Libai et al., 2010), specifically for decisions related to services, as it is difficult to inspect the quality of service before the actual experience (Mittal and Baker, 2002). Both studies showed that other actors are impacted with shared experiences of customers (Alexander and Jaakkola, 2016). Study 2 showed that, customers in their reviews use direct or indirect forms of NVIB, negatively impact other actors' attitude and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Study 1 also showed how other actors revert back to customers' reviews. Although Study 1 was not conducted to show the impact of NVIB, nevertheless, exemplars of reviews collected show that other actors regret not checking reviews before making decisions; change their plans based on customers' reviews of focal providers and in some instances, consider it as their duty to advise other actors against focal providers. For example:

> *I wish I had looked at the reviews beforehand* then I'd of never visited *(Chenellechen, Restaurant: London).*
>
> *I changed my decision after reading the terrible reviews. Thanks everyone.* *It seems they are accurate. (Mennas, Hotel: Buenos Aires).*
>
> *We see it's our duty to WARN families*. *This place is not suitable for families at all (Alain, Hotel: Cancun).*

Therefore, both studies show empirically that engaged customers within particular interactions provide a service to others by contributing resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, experience and time) for value co-creation purposes (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2011).

6.2.2 Impacts of Specific Forms of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour

In addition to revealing the degree of influence of NVIB within online reviews as shown in the relevant strength of its direct over indirect classification, the heterogeneity of the six forms within the direct/indirect classification has resulted in varying impacts of each form. On the direct side, the results of Study 2 show that warning and dissuading forms have a greater influence compared to the endorsing competitors form. The results show that other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions were negatively impacted by the three forms; however, directly addressing other actors by dissuading or warning them not to transact with a focal provider can be a powerful enough inducement to adjust their attitudes and intentions compared to providing alternatives (competitors) based on experience. These results introduce new knowledge about the impact of the three direct forms of NVIB on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors towards service providers.

On the indirect side, the results show the higher influential nature of the deriding form compared to the two other forms in the indirect classification, namely, discrediting and expressing regret. The influential nature of the deriding form might relate to the power of sarcasm identified in metaphor and symbolism literature as retainable and memorable (Giora, 2002). Additionally, the results demonstrate a relatively lower influence of expressing regret compared to the discrediting form of NVIB within online reviews. These results extend the extant research addressing embedded emotions within online reviews that face a debate regarding their powerful influence (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999; Stieglitz and Dang-Xuan, 2013) or weak impact (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017) by showing that engaging in NVIB within online reviews by expressing regret for choosing certain service provider negatively impacts other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. Although it has less influential strength compared to deriding and discrediting forms, as a stand-alone form, it revealed this impact. The results also show empirically the impact of each of the indirect forms on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, which has not been explored in the literature.

Therefore, this section contributes to CE, CEB and influencing behaviour as follows. Firstly, this thesis provides the first empirical study on the impact of NVIB within online reviews, showing that customers engage in NVIB via contribution of resources negatively impacting other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Secondly, the results show the degree of influence of NVIB within online reviews revealed variably in its direct and indirect forms and revealed in the much stronger impact of NVIB when accompanied by aggregate ratings and volumes of positive reviews. Finally, this thesis identifies the variable impacts of the six forms of NVIB within online reviews. Accordingly, this section advances the empirical research on CE, especially negative engagement, and provides insights into the influence of customers on other actors within an network, thus responding to recent research calls within CEB literature that have identified a need to better understand the influence of the negative valence of CEB within a network (Bowden et al., 2017; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016) and providing a broader view that extends beyond the dyadic customer-to-customer and customer-to-firm perspectives of engagement.

Furthermore, this section contributes to the existing understanding of influencing behaviour with empirical results that show the impact of NVIB and its six forms within online reviews, thereby contributing to the e-WOM literature and responding to the work of several authors (e.g. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014) with empirical results that demonstrate variable rather than aggregate impact of six different forms of NVIB within online reviews, with some forms having a stronger impact than others.

6.3 Conclusions

This thesis is aimed at exploring the concept of NVIB and measuring its impact on other actors within an online context. This broader aim was designed to understand how NVIB is revealed within an online context through conceptualising forms of NVIB on review sites and to understand what triggers customers to engage in it through identifying such triggers. Subsequently, this thesis used the identified

forms to investigate the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. To explore the concept of NVIB, Study 1 identified six forms of NVIB, namely, discrediting, expressing regret, deriding, dissuading, warning and endorsing competitors, and classified them into direct and indirect, based on the way customers use each form. Additionally, the study indicated five triggers with both cognitive (*service failure, deception* and *overpricing*) and emotional (*disappointment* and *insecurity*) roots and provided the relationships between these triggers and forms of NVIB. This thesis also extends the extant CE nomological network and provides a network with components that connote negative rather than positive engagement.

The classification of NVIB into direct and indirect introduces a new approach to addressing CE and its sub-forms, specifically CEB. Customers may or may not explicitly address other actors in their online reviews; however, both direct and indirect NVIB negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers, with a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB. Therefore, this thesis provides a broader view of how customers may influence other actors, which differs from what is commonly addressed in the literature about CEB activities that involve direct recommending or warning behaviours. Moreover, the direct/indirect classification has led to revealing the degree of influence of NVIB. Both direct and indirect NVIB negatively affect other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions; however, with a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB. This degree of influence was also revealed in a much stronger negative impact of NVIB when paired with aggregate ratings and volumes of positive reviews. Accordingly, the classification of NVIB into direct and indirect provides a more complete view of customers' influence on other actors. Furthermore, the heterogeneity of the six forms was shown in their variable impacts on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers, thereby contributing to the influencing behaviour literature with the first empirical study on the impact of the various forms of NVIB within online reviews. The final chapter synthesises the key contributions of this thesis, outlines the theoretical and managerial implications along with limitations and future research suggestions.

Chapter 7. Conclusions

This chapter synthesises this thesis contributions as evidenced in the results of the two empirical studies with their respective theoretical and managerial implications as well acknowledges limitations and provides future research suggestions. Firstly, the chapter contributes towards understanding how customers engage in NVIB and what triggers customers to engage in NVIB within online reviews. The final contribution relates to the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Subsequently, this chapter presents concluding remarks on how this thesis has refined and expanded the scope of CE as a midrange theory along with the scope of S-D logic as a general theory and reflections on viewing influencing behaviour as a superordinate concept.

7.1 Thesis Contributions

Contribution 1: Identification of forms and triggers of NVIB within online reviews

The first contribution relates to understanding how customers engage in NVIB and what triggers them to engage in various forms of NVIB on review sites. This thesis conceptualised six forms of NVIB and classified them into direct and indirect forms, based on the way customers engage in NVIB within online reviews using each form. The direct forms are *dissuading, warning* and *endorsing competitors*, whereby customers are directly addressing other actors in their reviews. The indirect forms are *discrediting, expressing regret* and *deriding,* whereby customers are not explicitly addressing other actors in their reviews. Moreover, this thesis identified five triggers of cognitive and emotional roots that induce customers to engage in various forms of NVIB. *Service failure, overpricing* and *deception* are considered triggers with more cognitive than emotional roots, as they involve an assessment of services, prices and provider dishonesty in the minds of customers, traded against their expectations of what they would receive in interactions with particular firms and service providers. On the other hand, *disappointment* and *insecurity* are considered triggers with more emotional than cognitive roots, as they involve feelings of antipathy expressed by customers when they feel disappointed or

insecure. Additionally, this thesis identified specific relationships between these triggers and forms.

Contribution 2: Identification of the impact of NVIB within online reviews

The second contribution relates to the impact of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. This thesis provides empirical results revealing that customers engage in NVIB via contribution of resources which negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. This thesis shows that both direct and indirect NVIB, negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers with a relative strength of the direct over the indirect identified forms. The thesis also investigated this impact alongside group norms represented by the aggregate rating given to service providers. The results reveal the main effect of both aggregate rating and NVIB, with NVIB having a much stronger influence. The results show that customers' attitudes and behavioural intentions were negatively impacted when exposed to both direct and indirect NVIB, whether they were paired with excellent or extremely poor aggregate ratings given to service providers, with direct NVIB having a stronger negative impact than indirect NVIB.

Additionally, this thesis investigated the impact of NVIB when paired with different volumes of positive reviews. The results reveal that direct and indirect NVIB negatively impacted the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors regardless of whether they were exposed to a higher or equal volume of juxtaposed positive reviews. Nevertheless, the higher volume of positive reviews showed a slightly favourable impact when customers were exposed to indirect NVIB. This thesis also provided empirical results on the impact of each of the six forms of NVIB. Finally, the results of this thesis reveal the impact of NVIB on other actors regardless of the credibility of the forum (source credibility), customers' general attitudes towards checking online reviews (utilitarian motive) or the perceived motives of reviewers.

7.2 Theoretical Implications

Despite the existence of negative expressions of CE and the indications within literature that customers might engage in a range of NVIB (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010), a typology of forms of NVIB within online reviews have remained unidentified, with the majority of studies focusing on the positively-valenced CEBs (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Additionally, within the broad literature of e-WOM, prior studies have focused on what customers say in their negative reviews about service providers rather than capturing how they say it. Thus, no typology exists to date and consequently, no measurable forms (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007).

This thesis identified six different forms of NVIB within online reviews, thereby contributing to the emerging CEB literature, specifically its negative side, which has remained nebulous and to the literature of influencing behaviour, specifically, negative communicated online reviews. These six forms specifically reflect negatively-valenced CEB rather than disengagement (cf. Bowden et al., 2017; Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017) and each form is specifically defined based on the way customers use it, thus, contributes to the extant literature with empirically defined and measurable forms of NVIB within online reviews that could be used in future research.

Moreover, this thesis also provided the impact of each of the six forms, thereby contributing with the first empirical results on the impact of forms of NVIB within online reviews on other actors. The results show that the heterogeneity of these forms resulted in variable impacts on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Thus, this study contributes to our current understanding of the impact of customer's influencing behaviour within online contexts. Previous research has thus far yielded insights suggesting an aggregate impact based on the assumption that all messages are equal in terms of their impact (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014). In opposition to this, and responding to calls by several authors, specifically within the e-WOM research stream (e.g. Balaji,

Khong and Chong, 2016; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; King, Racherla and Bush, 2014), this thesis provides empirical results that demonstrate the variable rather than aggregate impact of six different forms of NVIB within online reviews.

The thesis shows that these six forms negatively impact other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, demonstrating variable impacts with some forms having a stronger impact than others. For instance, warning and dissuading forms have a greater negative impact compared to the endorsing competitors form. The results also show the higher influential nature of the deriding form compared to the two other forms in the indirect classification, namely, discrediting and expressing regret. Accordingly, the results are consistent with prior studies that acknowledge the negative impact of negative reviews (e.g. Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Ho, Lim and Camerer, 2006; Lee, Rodgers and Kim, 2009; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012; Sen and Lerman, 2007; Sun, 2012; Zhang, Craciun and Shin, 2010) and run contrary to studies that show no impact (e.g. Doh and Hwang, 2009; Hiura et al., 2010; Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009), especially when negative emotions are expressed within customers' reviews (Diefendorff and Richard, 2003; Kim and Gupta, 2012; Lee, Jeong and Lee, 2017).

Additionally, this thesis contributes to the current understanding of customers' influencing behaviour by introducing direct and indirect NVIB, thereby establishing a new approach to addressing how customers influence other actors. Customers may or may not explicitly address other actors in their reviews, yet they negatively impact their attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. The extant research commonly concentrates on recommending, referring or warning when capturing customers' influential roles (e.g. Blazevic et al., 2013; Gummerus et al., 2012; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft, 2010), which are typically direct in nature. The classification of direct and indirect NVIB has led to providing new insights about their variable impacts when further tested in this thesis. This thesis provided the impact of direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. The thesis therefore contributes to knowledge in the field with empirical results that also demonstrate variable rather than aggregate impact (cf.

King, Racherla and Bush, 2014), revealing a relative strength of direct over indirect NVIB within online reviews.

The thesis provides five triggers with cognitive (service failure, overpricing, and deception) and emotional (disappointment and insecurity) roots that trigger customers to engage in NVIB within online reviews. The majority of existing studies on the negative valence of engagement and e-WOM have concentrated on emotional triggers, such as hatred, anger, stress and feelings of injustice (e.g. Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Bowden et al., 2017; Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Ladhari, 2007; Maute and Dubes, 1999; Naumann et al., 2017; Riegner, 2007; Söderlund and Rosengren, 2007; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004), however, this thesis provides a typology of cognitive and emotional triggers which is rarely provided in the literature.

Moreover, this thesis extends the extant CE nomological network with one that is composed of negative rather than positive elements. In opposition to prior studies in the CE and CEB literature that have addressed negative and positive engagement behaviours as two opposite forms of the same construct underpinned by the same nomological network (Bowden et al., 2017; Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), this thesis acknowledges that negative engagement should be underpinned by a different nomological network that signals negative engagement (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Smith, Juric and Niu, 2013) and extends the extant nomological network by providing a nomological network that encompasses *deception, disappointment, insecurity, service failure* and *overpricing* rather than trust, rapport, brand attachment, customer empowerment and loyalty, which signal positive rather than negative elements. Thus, verifying and advancing research on CE and CEB, specifically the negative side.

Additionally, this thesis denotes specific relationships between triggers and forms of NVIB which has led to identifying focal potent triggers based on the revealed impact of each of the six forms of NVIB. Despite the indications in the CE and CEB literature that triggers can be simple or complex and might have different strength levels (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter, 2006),

this has received limited attention to date. This thesis proposes that *insecurity* is the strongest trigger, since it induces customers to engage in NVIB within online reviews by *warning* other actors. This specific form, based on the results, showed the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions compared to all the other conceptualised forms. This is consistent with a prior view by Patterson, Yu and De Ruyter (2006) that conceives depriving customers of human fundamental needs (e.g. security) as a potent trigger that potentially impacts the valence of CEB more than a dissatisfying service experience.

Furthermore, this thesis contributes to the ongoing debate in the literature regarding the impact of aggregate rating, valence and volume of online reviews. Most of the existing studies have demonstrated the discrete impacts of aggregated rating and review valence but rarely addressed their interactions (Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012); however, this thesis has contributed with insights about their interactions. Moreover, in opposition to most of the existing studies that have limited their investigation to customers' purchase intentions (e.g. Bickart and Schindler, 2001; Kim et al., 2016; Park and Lee, 2009; Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012; Sen and Lerman, 2007; Zhang, Craciun and Shin, 2010), this thesis has approached their behavioural intentions extending beyond the purchase transactions

The results of this thesis show the impact of both aggregate rating and NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions; however, NVIB has a much stronger influence. Therefore, the results run contrary to extant research that ignores any effect of aggregate ratings (e.g. Chen, Wu and Yoon, 2004; Duan, Gu and Whinston, 2008; Lee, Park and Han, 2008; Lee, Rodgers and Kim, 2009); those studies that relate the impact of aggregate ratings on purchase intentions only and the impact of reviews valence on customers' attitudes (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Weinberger and Dillon, 1980); and views that claim a decrease of impact in cases where valence and ratings are conflicting (cf. Qiu, Pang and Lim, 2012). This thesis shows that customers' attitudes and behavioural intentions were negatively impacted when exposed to both direct and indirect NVIB within online reviews, whether they were paired with excellent or extremely poor aggregate ratings given to service providers, with direct NVIB having a stronger negative impact than indirect NVIB.

Moreover, this thesis has measured the impact of NVIB juxtaposed with equal and higher volumes of positive reviews and has shown that both had an impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions but with a much stronger impact of NVIB. This extends the prior research that suggests the relative power of negative over positive valence (e.g. Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Halstead, 2002; Heitmann, Lehmann and Herrmann, 2007; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014); however, these results run contrary to studies that suggest the opposite (e.g. Adjei, Noble and Noble, 2010; Cheung et al., 2009; Kim and Gupta, 2012) and those advocating the powerful impact of volume compared to valence of reviews (e.g. Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Berger, Sorensen and Rasmussen, 2010; Davis and Khazanchi, 2008; Dhar and Chang, 2009; Liu, 2006; Wirtz et al., 2013). This thesis shows that customers' attitudes and behavioural intentions were negatively impacted when exposed to NVIB juxtaposed with a higher volume of positive reviews.

Importantly, existing insights are predominantly focused on customer-to-brand interactions and their ensuing outcomes for firms (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016; Bowden et al., 2017; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). However, this thesis provides insights about the influence of NVIB on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers within a network of an online travel community, thereby contributing to the literature with insights that transcend the dyadic perspective of engagement and respond to the work of several authors in this particular regard (Bowden et al., 2017; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016; Hollebeek, Conduit and Brodie, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016).

This thesis has shown that customers engaging in NVIB within online reviews, negatively impact the attitudes and behavioural intentions of other actors in the network towards service providers, regardless of the credibility of the source, which is seen as a main source of influence in WOM research and has been replaced by the credibility of the forum in e-WOM research owing to the anonymity of online identity (Bansal and Voyer, 2000; Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007). Also, this thesis has shown the negative impact of NVIB within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers regardless of their

general attitudes towards checking online reviews, which was measured by items representing the recipient's utilitarian motive. This motive, which refers to customers' motives to get consumption or purchase advice, has also been acknowledged by both WOM and e-WOM literature to influence the adoption of the transmitted message and subsequently its impact (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004).

Moreover, this thesis has shown the negative impact of NVIB within online reviews on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions regardless of their perception of the motives of reviewers. This perception of motive has been seen within WOM and e-WOM research to influence the adoption and so the impact of online reviews (Sen and Lerman, 2007; Zhang, Zhang and Yang, 2016). Finally, the persuasiveness of the message when given by similar others, which according to prior research is more influential and leads to higher impacts (Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Brown and Reingen, 1987; Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld, 2008; Reichelt, Sievert and Jacob, 2014), has shown no impact. The three experiments in this thesis controlled for homophily and deliberately hid any factor that reflected the reviewers' age, image, gender, nationalities, or social status (Babić Rosario et al., 2016; Steffes and Burgee, 2009).

Therefore, these results run contrary to studies suggesting these factors' influence on the adoption and consequently, the impact of shared online reviews (cf. Ayeh, Au and Law, 2013; Coulter and Roggeveen, 2012; De Bruyn and Lilien, 2008; Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld, 2008; Reichelt, Sievert and Jacob, 2014; Sen and Lerman, 2007; Trusov, Bodapati and Bucklin, 2010; Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels, 2009); however, the results are consistent with prior research that shows no significant impact for these factors within online contexts because of the anonymity of online users (Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007; Cheung and Lee, 2012; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; Libai et al., 2010). Hence, these results specifically agree with Libai et al. (2010) that the influence of these factors implies a dyadic perspective of engagement, as different customers may influence each other in many ways, even anonymously.

7.3 Managerial Implications

Customers engaging in NVIB on review sites have potentially detrimental implications for service providers, making it necessary for practitioners to better understand what trigger customers to engage in NVIB within online reviews. This study provided five triggers of NVIB within online reviews, to enhance practitioners' understanding of how their offered services are perceived by customers and to help them identify triggers that induce NVIB, thus affecting their online reputation and subsequently their revenues (Anderson, 2012; Wu et al., 2016). Based on the reviews analysed, it would seem that customers value the service offered including the service environment, service staff behaviour, and functionality of service facilities, based on a trade-off between what they pay and what quality of service they get. Moreover, they perceive exploitative and deliberate cheating behaviours in their providers, such as add-on fees and fake communication. In other severe instances, customers are exposed to shocking or violent behaviours of staff or other customers. In light of this, managers could use the triggers provided in this thesis as a diagnostic tool to pinpoint what parts of their services are failing and develop action plans to address issues and unfavourable trends in their offered service.

The challenge for managers to handle NVIB on review sites lies in identifying its forms in order to develop appropriate strategies to manage these forms (Juric, Smith and Wilks, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). This thesis provides managers with six forms of NVIB within online reviews. The way customers use each form differs, as does their impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers. Accordingly, to help managers apply different approaches to handling NVIB on review sites, this study inferred from the analysis of data some recommendations on how managers may deal with its various forms.

Firstly, this thesis shows that whether customers are directly or not explicitly addressing other actors in their online reviews, they negatively impact the attitudes and behavioural intentions of others towards service providers. Accordingly, it is recommended that managers devote resources to monitor and track both direct and indirect forms of NVIB. As the results of this thesis showed a relative strength of

direct over indirect forms of NVIB, even when paired with excellent aggregate rating and a higher volume of positive reviews, it is recommended that managers differentiate between direct and indirect NVIB on review sites rather than conceiving them as somehow homogenous. Additionally, based on the results of this thesis, managers are not recommended to rely solely on given aggregate ratings; even excellent aggregate ratings do not result in a favourable impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions, specifically with direct forms of NVIB. Likewise, it is highly recommended that managers should not neglect the impact of NVIB in a single online review, especially reviews that demonstrate direct forms of NVIB. Importantly, it is recommended that managers use monitoring tools to detect direct forms of NVIB on review sites at an early stage: a quick response to these forms is likely to be critical.

Although a managerial response to both direct and indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews is recommended and is considered essential to imply that they are listening to their customers and willing to take advice and improve performance (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016), however, within this direct and indirect classification, customers use each of the six conceptualised forms differently, hence, the managerial response to each should also be different. On the indirect side, deriding service providers demonstrated the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions compared to other indirect forms. It is recommended that the managerial responses to the deriding form might differ from responses to other indirect forms of NVIB within online reviews. For instance, a response to the discrediting form could be functional in nature, with a sincere apology for the customer's experience and a reassurance that the business is already working on improvements. This is likely to prevent other actors from drawing their own, negative inferences about this service provider (Wan, 2013; Xie et al., 2016) It is also recommended that a response to this form should include a paraphrase of a customer's negative experience, as according to Balaji, Khong and Chong (2016) this reflects that the managers have thoroughly reviewed the problem.

A response to the expressing regret form is recommended to show empathy, especially because customers engaging in NVIB using this form are publicly

expressing regret for their own decision of choosing a focal service provider (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). Accordingly, it is recommended that managers show empathy in their response to this form, which in addition to offering a public apology is likely to be effective in restoring customer face (Wan, 2013). Unlike the discrediting form, customers engaging in NVIB by expressing regret are not giving details about their experience in their reviews; hence, a functional response will not be appropriate to handle this form.

Finally, a response to the deriding form is recommended to include an acknowledgement of the issue reported in the customer's review, an apology, and a highlight of the service provider or firm's values, maybe in a friendly good-humoured way, as friendly and humorous responses are known to counter the negative effects of derision (Collinson, 2002). Importantly, highlighting the firm's values is also highly recommended as a response to this form, so that other actors in the network will not anticipate that this is the typical customer experience that this service provider offers (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016). Additionally, since as mentioned earlier that this specific form demonstrated the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers compared to other indirect forms, it is also recommended that managers develop strategies to identify, mitigate, and prioritise response to this form when it occurs. Finally, it is highly recommended that managers post a picture in their response showing how the problem is being resolved. This is likely to demonstrate a management commitment to listening to and acting on customers' NVIB on review sites even when it takes the form of derision (Xie et al., 2016). Also, in case of exaggeration from the customer's side, a picture will reveal that to other actors too.

Similarly, customers use direct forms in different ways. The warning form demonstrated the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions compared to other direct forms. Managerial responses to this form might differ from responses to other direct forms of NVIB on review sites. For instance, responses to the dissuading and endorsing competitors forms are recommended to involve acknowledgement of the causes of dissatisfaction, apology, explanation and promises of future satisfaction. The service provider can offer public compensation

(Sparks, So and Bradley, 2016; Wu et al., 2016), demonstrating a guarantee and commitment that customers will be fairly treated in the future.

Endorsing competitors incorporates direct recommendations of competitors; therefore, it is recommended that managers should use a text-link analysis to know what customers are saying about specific competitors and their services (Balaji, Khong and Chong, 2016). Importantly, it is recommended that managers in their response to the endorsing competitors form should not refute what customers are saying about the competitors; this is likely to communicate distrust on the part of the service provider, and may discourage other actors from using their services (Sparks, So and Bradley, 2016). Instead, in their response to this form, managers are recommended to highlight the aspects that encourage customers to choose them over the competitors.

The managerial response to the warning form which is exclusively based on perilous experiences is recommended to show concrete evidence that any insecurity issue has been readdressed. In addition to acknowledgement and apology, it is highly recommended that this response should include a managerial promise of future security to reduce potential anxiety (Meloy et al., 2012). Additionally, as this specific form demonstrated the highest negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers, it is also recommended that managers develop strategies to identify, mitigate, and prioritise response to this form.

Finally, it is recommended that managers respond to all online reviews that demonstrate the provided six forms of NVIB, preferably within a very short time (Wu et al., 2016), keeping in mind their negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions. This thesis has provided managers with the impact of each of the six forms; accordingly, managers are recommended to continuously track the number of online reviews that demonstrate the six forms and categorise them based on the strength of their negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers as evident in the results of this thesis. However, if time is a challenge, it is recommended that managers respond to reviews that demonstrate the warning, dissuading and deriding forms first and

preferably in this order, which is based on the strength of their negative impact on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards service providers.

7.4 Limitations and Future Research

Despite the contributions and implications indicated above, the limitations of this study also offer the potential for future research in this area. Using unobtrusive netnography allowed the identification of new forms and triggers of NVIB within online reviews; nevertheless, netnography has inherent limitations that lend itself to inductive rich insights rather than generalisations (Kozinets, 2010). However, sampling was intended to be meticulous to ensure diversity of contexts (all traveler's activities on TripAdvisor were sampled), robustness (research was conducted over six consecutive phases to confirm and refine coding) and stability of findings (a range of similar and contrasting categories' was considered) (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Furthermore, TripAdvisor was selected as the focus of this thesis for the reason of appropriateness rather than representativeness (Kozinets, 2010). However, the findings of this research do reveal a convergent pattern across similar and contrasting categories located in twelve different destinations worldwide. Although the results indicated no impact for the type of forums, future research could replicate this study using other online forums. Similarly, both the categories (hotels, restaurants, and things to do) chosen to study and the destinations (most and second most visited for 2016) were selected based on our sampling criteria (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009), rather than the industry representativeness. However, although this study presented comparative data and analysed a large number of reviews, they may not be representative of all travel services, despite demonstrating a stable pattern across multiple and various destinations worldwide. Further studies should replicate this study within different industries and sectors such as financial services and airlines.

Moreover, this research provided the frequency of occurrence of each form, however, did not identify the rationale underpinning the inclination of customers to use some forms over others. Future research may use these frequency percentages provided in this study to investigate the reasons why customers are willing to use

some forms over others, for instance, if customers' personality traits affect their decisions to use some forms over others. Future research may also investigate whether the nature of the forum (public/private online community) will affect customers' inclinations to engage in NVIB using specific forms. Additionally, this research denotes specific relationships between the conceptualised forms and triggers; further studies may statistically analyse large sample data to test these proposed relationships.

The conceptualised forms of NVIB could be further studied in future research given the empirically driven definitions and the clear explanation provided on how customers engage in each form. This thesis identified these forms within online reviews; future research may explore NVIB within social media sites, blogs and mobile apps and may also use different techniques to explore visual NVIB (e.g. v-logging, image sharing...etc.). Additionally, this thesis views knowledge, skills, time and experience as customers' contributed resources; future research may investigate which resources are specifically contributed when customers engage in each of the conceptualised forms of NVIB on review sites. This thesis provides a new approach to addressing CEBs: customers may directly or indirectly address other actors. Applying this approach to explore other forms of CEB is expected to enhance current research. This research focused on NVIB in an online context that is specifically viral and contagious in nature, future research may explore NVIB in offline contexts.

This thesis measured the impact of NVIB on customers' attitudes and behavioural outcomes. Due to the untested nature of the NVIB concept, the need for high internal validity underpinned the experimental approach adopted (Calder, Lynn and Alice, 1981); future studies could adopt quasi-experimental approaches to replicate this study. It was advantageous that the reviews in all the experiments conditions did not show the nationality, age, name, social status or gender of the reviewers all remained anonymous as this eliminated any confounding of homophily. However, in a real-life setting, these factors are neither anonymous nor the same in all reviews. Future research might consider manipulating these factors and test their impact as mediators.

Although prior research has shown that reviewer profile pictures displayed along product reviews on platforms might not be as influential as the reviews (Utz, 2010), the experiments kept the pictures of profiles of reviewers similar in all experiments among groups that were exposed to direct or indirect treatment, while in the third experiment, customers were exposed to more than one review per group and, accordingly, to get as close to real-life settings, different pictures, however the same for all groups, were adopted as profile pictures of the reviewers of the positive reviews. All the pictures adopted in the three experiments represented a natural landscape so as not to reveal the real personal pictures of the reviewers; however, in real-life settings, customers sometimes use personal pictures. Accordingly, future studies could investigate the impact of NVIB while manipulating the pictures of the reviewers. Finally, future research might also measure the impact of each form of NVIB paired with other variables than aggregate rating and positive reviews.

7.5 Concluding Remarks

The results of this thesis advance research on CE which bridges general theories, using S-D logic and providing empirical findings (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2017). Drawing from the perspective of S-D logic was central to this thesis to further advance both the theoretical and empirical understanding of CE (Brodie and Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie, Hollebeek and Smith, 2011; Brodie, Saren and Pels, 2011) as S-D logic offers a meta-theory consistent with the core tenants of engagement, providing foundations capable of shaping interactive experiences and the co-creation of value (Hollebeek, Srivastava and Chen, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2017; Winklhofer, Palmer and Brodie, 2007). The results of this thesis extend the research on CE, specifically its negative side and provide a nomological network with elements that connote negative rather than positive CE. Moreover, this thesis shows that CE behavioural manifestations are not limited to direct forms like warning and recommending other actors, but also can be indirect, thereby shaping and verifying the concept of CEB. Further investigation of direct and indirect NVIB revealed their variable impacts on other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions on review sites.

Reflecting on influencing behaviour based on prior research and this thesis results the following is observed. According to social psychology, individuals share their influencing behaviour with an intention to influence others and adjust the way they think, feel or behave towards an object (Zimbardo and Leippe, 1991). To do this, customers can use different communication tools, such as WOM, e-WOM, referrals, recommendations, online reviews, blogging and mobile apps to share this influencing behaviour (Groeger, Moroko and Hollebeek, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014). Customers might, therefore, use different communication tools each time they engage in influencing behaviour (Azer and Alexander, 2018). Based on the results of this thesis, customers may engage in six forms of NVIB using the same communication tool - online reviews - to share this behaviour, yet still have the same intention to influence other actors' attitudes and behavioural intentions.

The concept of NVIB represents the customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions of a focal provider (Azer and Alexander, 2018). Existing research relates to negative e-WOM as negative product-, service-, or brand-related statements electronically communicated by an individual and made available to others (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). These concepts are not disparate; however, the concept of NVIB provides a wider view that could include all facets of customer's negative influence on other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about focal service providers. On the other hand, negative e-WOM reflects, from its well-acknowledged definition, textual influencing activities: written statements that are communicated electronically. However, customers' influencing activities are not only textual, they could be visual too (e.g. likes, v-logging and images) and with the consistent and rapid technological advancement, there could be more different influencing activities eventually.

The broad concept of influencing behaviour is more adequate to represent the myriad of activities that customers engage in to influence others, whatever the nature of these activities. Additionally, the broad view provided by the concept of influencing behaviour has enabled conceptualising forms of its negatively valenced facet by looking at how customers engage in NVIB on review sites, not only what

they say about a service provider, but rather how they say it to influence other actors, which was not previously captured by the e-WOM research stream. Besides, conceptualising forms of NVIB on review sites has enabled identifying variable impacts of NVIB rather than suggesting an aggregate impact based on the assumption within e-WOM research that all messages are equal in terms of their impact. Therefore, as a response to Jaakkola and Alexander's (2014) inquiry about whether influencing behaviours should be formalised or remain as an organically emerging field, this thesis proposes that influencing behaviour should be formalised as a superordinate concept where WOM, e-WOM, online reviews, blogs…etc. are nested within.

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Appendix 1. Notations of Mixed Methods

Notation	Meaning of the Notation
QUAN or quan	Stands for quantitative method
QUAL or qual	Stands for qualitative method
Uppercase Letters: QUAN or QUAL	The qualitative or quantitative methods are prioritized in the design
Lowercase Letters: quan or qual	The qualitative or quantitative methods have a lesser priority in the design
Plus Sign QUAN + QUAL	Concurrent Mixed Methods Design: quantitative and qualitative strands conducted concurrently
Arrow: QUAL→QUAN	Sequential Mixed Methods Design. A quantitative follows and builds on a qualitative strand
Parentheses: QUAN(qual)	A qualitative method is embedded within a large design
Double Arrows: QUAL→←QUAL	Methods are implemented in a recursive process

Appendix 2. Coding Confirmation Exercise

1- Forms of Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour (NVIB)

Please read the following definitions of each form of NVIB carefully before answering this coding exercise.

Style of Form	Forms of NVIB	Indicator	Definitions
Indirect*	Discrediting	**A**	Customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by discrediting this provider based on a specific service experience
	Expressing Regret	**B**	Customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by expressing regret for choosing this provider and revealing their avoidance plans based on a specific service experience.
	Deriding	**C**	Customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by deriding this provider based on a specific service experience
Direct**	Dissuading	**D**	Customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by dissuading other actors from transacting with this provider based on a specific service experience
	Warning	**E**	Customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by warning other actors against this provider based on a specific service experience involving threat assessments
	Endorsing Competitors	**F**	Customer's contribution of resources to negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations and perceptions about a focal service provider by endorsing competitors for other actors, encouraging them to choose these competitors over this provider based on a specific service experience

*Indirect: Customers in their reviews are **NOT** addressing other actors.

Direct: Customers in their reviews are **addressing other actors

Kindly read the following reviews and circle the alphabet that represents the form of NVIB from the above table that matches the review. Please note that each form should match only one review.

*'When we walked in, the hotel **didn't have room for us** and **put us in another hotel a block away**. It wasn't far, **but not what we booked**. The **room wasn't ready or clean**…**there was only one set of towels for a triple room**… they were all out for laundry. So I had to walk back to the first hotel and ask for towels, **because that receptionist was too lazy to call over and ask them for towels**. There was **nowhere to plug our electronics in**. The **air conditioner/heater did not work**. The **cold water faucet of the sink did not work**. The receptionists **were rude**, **inconsiderate and just didn't seem to care'** (deb699, Hotel: Buenos Aires).*

<p style="text-align:center">**A   B   C   D   E   F**</p>

*'The waiter was WAY too busy to listen to us and brought us vegetarian food we didn't want and didn't order. The food was greasy and expensive. No one cared that it wasn't what we ordered. **Do not eat here'** (Susan B, Restaurant: Paris).*

<p style="text-align:center">**A   B   C   D   E   F**</p>

*'Had such high expectations due to my visit with the one in Glasgow which is opposite from New York! Absolutely horrible **never again would visit it**! At the time only had 2* but I thought I'd give it a chance. **Wish I listened to the reviews'** (Megso19, Restaurant: New York).*

<p style="text-align:center">**A   B   C   D   E   F**</p>

'Warning! Read this if you are going to Patpong. WARNING! BE WARNED!!! AND STAY AWAY. *Thailand doesn't seem that safe after all.* ***BEWARE!'****(PatrikL, Things to do: Bangkok)*

<p style="text-align:center">**A   B   C   D   E   F**</p>

*__TV__ seemed to be an **Internet stream** as it **kept buffering** and played more **like a slide show**. Shaving light cover is **lying next** to bare bulb. This is what I can recall before my **brain started to** subliminally **bury the horror to protect my sanity** (willbug, Hotel: London).*

<p style="text-align:center">**A   B   C   D   E   F**</p>

*'If you are up for all you can eat in Port Madero **go to Gourmet Porteno instead of this restaurant'** (MzHC, Restaurant: Buenos Aires).*

<p style="text-align:center">**A   B   C   D   E   F**</p>

2- Triggers of NVIB

Please read the meaning of each Trigger of NVIB carefully in the following table before answering this exercise.

Triggers of NVIB	Indicator	Definition
Deception	**A**	An act of cheating deliberately made by a focal firm or service provider toward customers
Service Failure	**B**	Lack of success of a service provider to offer a satisfying service experience to customers. (e.g. poor quality of service environment, service staff, or dysfunctionality of service facilities)
Overpricing	**C**	Conceptualisation of poor value for more money.
Disappointment	**D**	A sensation that customers might experience if an actual service experience violates their expectations
Insecurity	**E**	Customers feel insecure based on an intimidating experience that involves a particular threat assessment.

Kindly read the following reviews and circle the alphabet that represents the trigger of NVIB from the above table that matches the review. Please note that each trigger should match only one review.

*'This place had very little entertainment **we were victim to a massive hustle'** (Deborah, Things to do: Bangkok).*

<div align="center">

A   **B**   **C**   **D**   **E**

</div>

***Overpriced** for a chain restaurant…It's also dirty and the staff is plain rude…Venture out and look on trip advisor for other restaurants in the area. The food is better and the price will either be the same or cheaper - depending on what you're looking for' (Vanessa N, Restaurant: New York).*

<div align="center">

A   **B**   **C**   **D**   **E**

</div>

*'**Disappointing** for a place that is not much more than your ordinary pub with a basic restaurant attached; **I don't see myself returning anytime soon'** (CTstudentReviews, Restaurant: Cape Town).*

<div align="center">

A   **B**   **C**   **D**   **E**

</div>

*'We **seated ourselves** and had to sit at a **dirty table** while **waiting around 10 minutes** to simply get **a menu and then waited a further 10-15 minutes for someone to take our food/drink order**. **Overall terrible service** and the food was horrible' (anonymous16162016, Restaurant: New York).*

<div align="center">

A   **B**   **C**   **D**   **E**

</div>

*'The walk back around at dark was no better as you had to **be wary nobody was following you** as that is **the anxiety the hotel had put upon us'** (dloctrav, Hotel: Paris).*

<div align="center">

A   **B**   **C**   **D**   **E**

</div>

Appendix 3. Exemplars of Indirect Forms of NVIB

Discrediting

'***Smelly and Limited***. *All that is really on offer is a few curry dishes which are not particularly nice, chips which are soggy some chicken and a few desserts. However, the worst thing about this **place is the smell around the desserts**, **it smells like a blocked toilet**, on further investigation it appears to be the ice cream machine that is causing the smell and I can only assume that something had gone off inside when we visited. We were in London for several days afterwards and avoided this place'* (Rioboo44, Restaurant: London)

'***Poorly organised and lacking capability***. *This restaurant seemed **more than disorganised**. This simply **led to row after row of empty serving dishes** and no forthcoming replenishment. It took some time to get the bill and **we left broadly dissatisfied'*** (LukeSJsy, Restaurant: Paris).

'***Very bad*** *tickets! We booked two tickets from Siem Reap to 4000 Is. with Sikha -the brother of the owner sold us the mini bus at 7:00 including the boat ticket for $ 22 and told us, that this trip would take 7 to 8 hrs. **This trip was not good at all**; the **bus was full with 13 passengers plus 2 kids**. Then we had to **wait 2 hours in Stung Treng petrol station for the big bus**. Next problem was, that **the guys from the boat wouldn't accept our prepaid tickets**, and we had to buy another boat ticket (4$). At 18:30 we arrived Don Det. that means **more than 11 hours travel time**. The guys from 2 seasons either don't know better, or wouldn't tell us the truth'* (Watnu, Things to do: Siem Reap).

'*We came to this hotel on the 30th July and **none of the rooms were ready for us**. So we waited a long time. We **were disgusted at the service and rooms**. The food here is also very bad. **Communication here is also very poor**; the **staff barely understands what we ask for**. This hotel is **very appalling.** Wifi is **also very bad at this hotel**- it goes on and off all the time and **air conditioning was very poor and didn't work'*** (Syssa, Hotel: Marrakesh).

'***Bad Option***. *I came to this place to have Breakfast. The service **was bad, prioritizing speed over quality (almost throwing things at the table and bringing what we didn't ask for). The food was really bad'*** (DanielJhQz, Restaurant: New York).

'***Worst experience ever***. *The room was **old and badly decorated**. Bathroom tiles had been painted over **and the paint was peeling off them**. When arriving back at around 10.30pm, my **card wouldn't let me into the building (nobody is there between 8pm and 8am).** When I was finally let into my room it was ten to midnight and **I was very distressed, and all I could hear was the nightclub next door thumping away**. **Totally ruined my weekend, this place is dodgy as hell'*** (Tia, Hotel: Sydney).

'***Little variety - not worth the effort***. *Rows and rows of the same things at this night market. **Lots of fake designer clothes and shoes, some poor-quality**. It seemed like the same 3 or 4 stalls repeated a dozen times. It was walking distance to our hotel but not worth the effort, I didn't even bother with a photo. This **market was smelly and it looks like it has an unsavoury night-life later in the evening,** judging by some of the posters and signs on doorways'* (WSy, Things to do: Bangkok).

Expressing Regret

'***Never to return again. I wish I had looked at the reviews beforehand then I'd of never visited.*** *The staff was dull and unhelpful. Food not replenished often. Food was very bland and basic and did not correspond with what was on their online menu. We came to celebrate my daughter's birthday,* ***we regret this choice, such as big Waste of £189! I definitely would not recommend****! (Chenellechen, Restaurant: London).*

'***Waste of a meal in BA*** *food was not great. I ordered a Flank steak medium rare and it came out extremely tough. I had 2 bites and moved on from that. Because it was so in-edible I ordered a mushroom risotto and that was pretty salty and just lacked the essence of a Risotto. The price was high and what's worse is that the food was so subpar.* ***Highly regretful choice, do not recommend at all****' (Dany, Restaurant: Buenos Aires).*

'*A Shocker of a Hotel!* ***I regret booking without reading reviews****. Very annoying especially when I went to clubs etc. The strangest entrance around the back through a Car yard. Tiny room but could be ok if anyone cleaned it up and painted the dirty walls. Never managed to get the TV to work - broken remote!!! The worst however was the bathroom. The shower at some time had been badly painted all over the tiles and much had peeled away. Shocked that Sydney Hotel Laws allow such a dirty place to function.* ***Of course I will NEVER EVER stay here again****'* (Yas132, Hotel: Sydney)

'*Such a* ***huge waste of time****...No explanations/apologies/waiters didn't even try to get additional drinks orders or check in.* ***Definitely won't be going back there again****' (Lezell P, Restaurant: Cape Town)*

'*324 of 6268 restaurants in Bangkok? It is beyond the realms of possibility that there are 5944 worse restaurants in Bangkok.* ***I regret reading the terrible reviews after visiting this restaurant; they are remarkably accurate.*** *In essence the food, the staff, and the atmosphere are truly horrible'* (Paul, Restaurant: Bangkok).

'*I have been a loyal Protea Hotel, but this Hotel is an insult to the Protea Brand. The hotel is dated and in desperate need of renovation. The Protea website make it sound like this is close to the waterfront, but it is not really walking distance. My air condition was so noisy that I could not sleep and I had to keep it on as it was very hot. I think the pillows are worn as the goose feathers were sticking into my skin. I also got the feeling that there were fleas in the bedroom as I could feel insects crawling on my skin the whole night.* ***I would not recommend this Hotel to anyone and I regret wasting good money on a bad stay'*** (BurgBotha, Hotel: Cape Town).

'*We had an awful time in a horrible room and a very noisy area!! No kettle in the room no Bar for a drink no lounge no Wi-Fi , The bedroom we were in needed painting and the bathroom was in need of an upgrade the toilet is position right at the window!!* ***All in all a regretful choice and a horrible experience never to be repeated!!'*** (Nurlo15, Hotel: Queenstown).

Deriding

*'It's quite unusual for me to give a place a poor rating so I think this is a first for me. Because I'm rating it "terrible." **Upon arriving to this hotel, the facades are just gorgeous here; I'd think I am in some sort of movie with Hugh Grant**...But then when I entered the hotel, it is quite simply run down and not up to par. Once I reached my room, it's an absolute nightmare. It's small and dirty. The walls are tired. The paint is tired. The carpet is tired. **The bed is tired. The sheets are tired they're so tired they should be dead'** (Bill, Hotel: London).*

*'Worst hotel ever. Terrible travel experience. **The hotel is a joke, something that only seen in movies about disastrous trips**. Every single place in the hotel is partially destroyed. **It feels like staying in a hotel at a previous war zone**. Rooms are a shock. Linens (sheets and towels) are old, dirty and with holes on it. The bathroom is a throw up. **The TV is also a joke, with a rabbit antenna for God´s sake! No chance to make a call as the 80`s style phones are merely decorative'** (Narnia, Hotel: Marrakesh).*

*'**Charm of a hospital canteen**!!!! The pool deck and bar supposed to be refurbished/ renovated, but **this venue has the charm of a hospital canteen with an interior designer hired via a group on voucher**. Sheez ... really?(RobertCpt, Hotel; Cape Town).*

*'So bad we never even ate. We went in on Saturday evening for a few drinks and something to eat. Was met by a guy **laying on the welcome point**! Not impressed that we had not booked, **shown up stairs where 1/2 the restaurant was closed down yet the staff were running around like headless chickens**. Shown to a dirty wobbly table and then nothing left after 20 minutes had. Not even been offered a drink. On way out guy **still laying over welcome point!'** (705Grant, Restaurant: New York).*

*'Disgusting!! I had to give this hotel a 1 star - only so that I could write the review. It is NOTHING like the description. The walls **haven't seen a can of paint since the London Fire**. The bedding stunk as if it hadn't been washed in months. The curtains were falling off the curtain rods. **The TV was smaller than my cell phone screen**. If I was rating this hotel - **Rat Hole would be too good for it'** (Alderson, Hotel: London).*

*'**Dinner with the rats!!!!** Typical South African take away food served **seated with a good view over a bunch of hungry rats just outside the glass window. Marvellous!'** (Francesco, Restaurant: Cape Town).*

*'Is this the worst cafe in Paris? **Congratulations!! This Cafe deserves the award for the worst cafe in Paris'** (Globalcritique, Restaurant: Paris)*

Appendix 4. Exemplars of Direct Forms of NVIB

Dissuading

'EVERYTHING WAS AWFUL!!!! Firstly the service was terrible. Also, the cooks don't even know what they are cooking. Quantity over quality is the case here. The food is EXTREMELY SALTY and food was not replaced quickly enough. HYGIENE IS A MAJOR ISSUE!!!! Nothing was cleaned and gloves were not always worn. FALSE ADVERTISEMENT ON WEBSITE. It said that students can eat for £9.99 on weekdays and my family and I went on this basis only to find out that this offer does not count for the o2 branch! The waiter was extremely unclear about this. VERY RUDE AND DON'T KNOW HOW TO DO THEIR JOBS!!!! **DO NOT GO THERE TO EAT, YOU WILL BE DISAPPOINTED'** (Maelsa15, Restaurant: London).

'Don't go! This is an awful restaurant. We ordered couscous and tajin and it was inedible. **You should avoid this place totally**. The location of this place makes you step into it but the waiters are a disgrace. They ignore customers! and the place is filled with flies and the prices were outrageous' (Apamak, Restaurant: Marrakesh).

'Don't go up there!!!!. Many tourists visit Phnom Bakheng in order to view the sunset over Western Baray and see Angkor Wat from above. So did I. However, **I am telling you Don't go up there for various reasons**. First of all, climbing the hill in the hot and humid Cambodian climate is rather exhausting. Secondly, the temple on top of the hill isn't very impressive compared to the other amazing temples in Angkor. And last but not least, the view isn't very overwhelming. In fact, **you barely see anything but trees**. From one corner of the temple you can catch a glimpse of Angkor Wat in the distance. But you'll need a very good zoom if you want to take a decent picture of Angkor Wat from this viewpoint' (PhilipH, Things to do: Siem Reap).

'Overcrowded and overpriced. The place is packed with families with kids, who run, scream and claim on the glass blocking the view for others , **you cannot walk or see anything because of the crowds** Greedy owners sell more tickets than they should! **Don't waste your £25'** (Jennnia, Things to do: London).

'Disgraceful Hotel with Rude, Aggressive Staff. It was a disaster from the moment we got off the train. They did not provide us with any directions for finding the Hotel. When we saw the room, my wife burst into tears. It was a very small, dismal room, which had not seen any renovation or decoration in years, had a distinctly bad smell and had stains on the carpet. In the tiny bathroom was a shower, the corner opening of which was about 9 inches wide. Neither of us could get into it. My advice - **avoid this place like the plague, and shun any tour operator or travel agent that tries to send you there'** (David S, Hotel: Paris).

'Biggest tourist trap ever!!!! **Just don't go**. Really. You pay €80 for the most awkward hour of saying repeatedly no to many sellers on the waterfront with the worst bunch of tourist crap souvenirs ever. Really. You'll see five boats with some coconuts and that's it. **Did I tell you not to go already**?(Lisanne H, Things to do: Bangkok).

'Overpriced tasting of wine and poor service!!!**Don't come here** looking for good service you'll be disappointed. Great concept for accessibility but the wine tasting is really expensive **you'd probably be better off buying a bottle of wine** once you add up all the tasting's you end up doing' (Koeyn, Things to do: Queenstown).

Warning

*'**BEWARE! WATCH OUT** for bars!! HUGE RIPOFF'* (5035Michael, Things to do: Bangkok)

*'So, dear TripAdvisor members and readers, **BEWARE for splurging**!! (Mag54, Things to do: Queenstown).*

*'**WARNING!!!! I HOPE THIS DOESNT HAPPEN TO ANYONE ELSE. IT WAS A HORRIBLE EXPERIENCE, BE CAREFULL'** (LeBrd13, Hotel: Cancun).*

*'Please **BEWARE!!!!! STAY AWAY**, I beg of you (dloctrav, Hotel: Paris).*

*'I wanted to write a review to **WARN YOU ALL** not to waste your money' (ParMac10, Things to do: London).*

*'**WARNING! STAY AWAY!** They will SCAM you with the tours!!!!' (Albert F., Hotel: Siem Reap).*

*'**BE WARNED DONT STAY HERE AT ANY PRICE**!' (Emmanuel, Hotel: Sydney).*

Endorsing Competitors

*'The only thing we wanted was a clean place to rest! **I recommend trying the Sofitel, although its expensive, it's worth it. If your budget allows it, try the Amanjena, the Naoura Barriere or the extraordinary Mamounia.** Finally, avoid this place at all means (Aysh55, Hotel: Marrakesh).*

*'It's dirty and the staff is plain rude. **I'd recommend Bubba Gump Shrimp over this place**. Venture out and look on trip advisor for other restaurants in the area' (Vanessa N, Restaurant: New York).*

*'Food was very limited, they didn't have room service and there are only certain spots open so late at night. The AC was not working in our room and it didn't work for the entire day. **If you are travelling to Cancun - I highly recommend staying at Riu Palace. Much better in everything than this hotel**' (Messsa, Hotel: Cancun).*

*'Sellers very rude, will take advantage of you. **Go to Pratu Nam or Siam instead**' (Gia S, Things to do: Bangkok).*

*'**Go to McDonalds instead!** Went in with low expectation since we just looked for a cheap eat nearby with wifi access. Tried their 10 euro menu, the food was terrible, most likely frozen meat/calamari' (Enman235, Restaurant: Paris).*

*'Tourist heaven in all its worst and overpriced finery. **Get out of town fast! Go to Glenarchy and Trek**. Drive the full road around the lake through all the beautiful mountains and **head over to the Sounds and wonderful Dunedin'** (BekJmL, Things to do: Queenstown).*

*'It is not worth it. **Go to The Rembrandt in Sukhumvit, it is very nice and reasonably priced'** (Captain Gro, Hotel: Bangkok).*

Appendix 5. Exemplars of Triggers of NVIB

Service Failure

'***Poor quality*** *food,* ***slow service****, needs serious improvement. Most of the* ***dishes lacked*** *any taste, the* ***quality of ingredients used was extremely poor*** *and* ***staff didn't seem to be bothered about any form of customer service****. Nearly every dessert was made with gelatine, the hot dishes were mainly not so hot and the* ***selection was surprisingly poor*** *too. The 'grill' options were* ***also really bad*** *... **Couldn't seem to get anything right***. *Have been to other buffet restaurants and* ***never had such a low standard of service'*** *(Joegallagher, Restaurant: London).*

'*Stayed for* ***2 hours before checking out.*** *The room was* ***dark and horrible****. The* ***bathroom tiles were cracked, the shower mouldy and the room was stuffy****. The* ***bathroom door didn't close and the lock wad broken anyway****. The* ***carpet wasn't clean and the bedding was less than adequate****. Everywhere seemed* ***very dark and dusty and the hallway lights didn't turn on***. ***Suffice to say it ruined our holiday'*** *(Rebecca, Hotel: Paris).*

'***Slow service - subpar food!!*** *We were very hungry after walking for hours and came across this restaurant. No line to get in but looked nice from outside. Would never go back* ***so slow and didn't enjoy food or menu selection at all'*** *(Donna C, Restaurant: New York).*

'*Low Low L'otel!! The hotel stay was a complete disaster.* ***Extremely worn bed linen****,* ***dirty glassware****,* ***faulty Wi-Fi****,* ***dead light fittings a mouldy bathrooms*** *These are all* ***management and maintenance issues, and should not be the burden of the guest in any event whatsoever.*** *After two completely sleepless nights and cleanliness issues, I was so pleased to leave this hotel'* *(Micha, Hotel: Sydney).*

'*I'm here at the Riu Cancun now and want to go home so bad!!* ***Food is rubbish*** *you can't make a meal out of anything!* ***the beds smell, no room service, TV has like one English speaking channel, there's not a chance in hell this hotel is a 5 star***. *Jacuzzis* ***dirty! Floors are constantly soaked and slimy! We have spent a fortune on eating out in other restaurants!*** *Decided to try the fish one lunch time, I couldn't stop being sick it ruined my night and my partner's! Anyway I was so ill that night I was a little sick on the bed sheet (tiny amount)* ***they have charged me 115 dollars to clean the sheet!!*** *Are they joking! Could buy the cheap rough sheets for the full floor with 115 dollars!! Definitely not clean enough for a 5 star* ***the toilet was dirty under the beds there was leaflets that weren't from us***. ***The drinks are all watered down from the alcohol to the orange juice'*** *(slc2688, Hotel: Cancun).*

'***Standards have dropped over all!!*** *The* ***standard of the food has dropped tremendously.*** *The* ***service attitude of the staffs is horrible***. *Don't waste your time and money on this restaurant'* *(Diviva, Restaurant: Bangkok).*

'***Terrible Customer Service****!! I called them to request something* ***the person on the phone was very Rude*** *siding offer alternative solution. I wouldn't recommend this place to anyone based* ***on the horrible customer service I received'*** *(725thiagol, Hotel: Paris).*

Overpricing

'**Overpriced**, poor service, below average food. We thought we'd try breakfast at this diner as it was a few steps from our hotel. **Two breakfasts (eggs and toast) cost $40.** This was by far the worst meal we had during 12 days in NYC. **It was also one of the most expensive, for what we ordered**. I don't mind paying for a good meal. I resent paying for food which is slopped onto the plate with no care' (Pamela D., Restaurant: New York).

'**Overpriced** terrible! The **food was very expensive, so we expected a great meal**. The **food was poor, the waiters not interested. The bill was huge'** (Richard F, Restaurant: Buenos Aires).

'**Overpriced and far from good standard**. Small rooms need maintenance and good cleaning. Cheapest beds in whole England which guarantee an unforgettable stay. Horrible breakfast Almost nothing to eat' (Kajkot, Hotel: London).

'**Absolutely overpriced and awful meal** had to wait 40 minutes for it! Toilets dirty, no toilet paper and shoes stuck to floor, **very unpleasant experience**!!' (Maria, Restaurant: Rio De Janeiro).

'**Overpriced**!!! I wish I could zero star this experience. I and my wife were excited to see the new Ghostbusters VR experience, **so we paid the extra up front at the counter**. **Don't waste your time or money, New York has vastly better experiences for less waiting and less money'** (sqm211, Things to do: New York).

'This restaurant is **overpriced, old and tired**, the male waiter we had was really rude and disinterested. The **food was bland and subpar whilst being really expensive**. Don't come here. **Don't waste your money**' (Kieranredhair, Restaurant: Sydney).

'**Overpriced**!! Took our kids to show them another beautiful part of our country. The **prices are too expensive**, as is **their "child" policy- a 12 year old an adult? Really?** It's not like they occupy a seat in a plane or anything like that, so it is nothing but **an easy way to take money off people'** (Leigh P, Things to do: Cape Town).

Deception

'I thought about the bill driving home and **wondered how it could be so high – and then I saw it. Gigantic Rip-off'** (tch22016; Restaurant: Sydney)

'**Check your Change!!!** I visited here a couple of times, they **don't like to bring a menu so you can see the prices,** no record seems to be kept of your orders, on both occasions **I had to ask for the rest of my change**, **the waiters must make a fortune ripping people off.** Don't come here, there are plenty of other places to go, check the reviews and give them your custom' (SMG59, Restaurant: Marrakesh).

'**Scam!!** paying almost 200 USD for 2 people for just half day activity **it's just a scam considering they don't tell you the super high price for the boat ride until you get there'** (Andrea, Things to do: Bangkok).

'In this place **we were victim to a massive hustle'** (Deborah, Things to do: Bangkok)

'We were booked for four nights stayed **one and charged for two**! **Liars and cheaters!!** After the manager assured us he could book the room out so he would only charge us for the night. **That turned out to be a lie**. He also **lied to our booking agent** when we told them of our experience! I would not wish this dive on anyone please Don't go there' (Shlk29, Hotel: Rio De Janeiro).

'**The Motto Best Price Guarantee or your first night is free (IT'S A LIE)!**I reserved my booking at intercontinental Bangkok website. A couple of day after, I found a cheaper price than what I've paid. I booked earlier but I've got more expensive price. And then I asked the hotel that I should get the first night free, because of your motto (Best Price Guarantee or Your First Night is Free), but the hotel only change the price, so I get the same price as it. **They didn't honour their own motto**. What a **shame for a hotel that has a reputation!**' (Bale9, Hotel: Bangkok).

'We paid a jungle tour and we **were told it covered 3 hours of jet skis and snorkelling fun**. Once we arrived at 'Punta del Este', **they did not honour the snorkelling offer**. They **did not give us money back** and when I returned to 'Plaza Caracol' to demand money back **they said that salesperson was not there for the rest of the month**! (Ris45, Things to do: Cancun).

Disappointment

'**Disappointed!!!** We came to this hotel on the 30th July and **none of the rooms were ready for us**. So we waited a long time and eventually they gave us the keys to a few rooms and they were all taken. **We were disgusted at the service and rooms. The food here is also very disappointing**' (Val, Hotel: Marrakesh).

'**Disappointing experience**! The whole **bitterly disappointing** experience, overseen by a disinterested manager was a disaster' (Green, Restaurant: Sydney).

'**Really disappointing**! I and my partner went to the London Sea Life centre along with the Dungeons. We were thoroughly looking forward to spending a couple of hours going around the place but **it was all in all, a massive let down. I wouldn't visit again! Extremely disappointed**' (Nick, Things to do: London).

'**Disappointed**. Not like it was in Times Square. We have gone to previous exhibits at Discovery Times Square and **this one was so disappointing** and truly was not a "real" exhibit worth paying for and attending' (741Peterm, Restaurant: New York).

'We were shocked and **disappointed** that the supposedly 33% more space that we paid for, ended up making the room feel much smaller overall (Na, Hotel: Bangkok).

'**Disappointing!** Possibly the **worst hotel I have stayed in**. No bar facilities available but the front desk were not aware? Room service was a 50 minute wait! Never again' (TARev6, Hotel: Rio De Janeiro).

'**Disappointment!** I was Looking forward to visiting Queenstown, but was **disappointed. I** had been many years ago and found a beautiful quaint, charming town. **Now this has all become much commercialized.** I won't be returning to Queenstown' (Belinda, Things to do: Queenstown).

Insecurity

'**The security concerns will keep us from returning to a RIU property**. The door that **did not lock at any time the door could have been pushed open without resistance**. The fact that **money was stolen from another room** while they were not there just adds to the concern. BEWARE and Careful! Keep your stuff locked up and close at hand' (Mal5568, Hotel: Cancun).

'**It felt like a death trap!** BEWARNED DO NOT STAY HERE!! **They do not care about you and the place felt unsafe both in your possessions and your life.** You had to pay for use of the safe in your room and sign a form to accept responsibility for your possessions. Bad work throughout and dodgy wiring and a horrible stench. I'm not normally one to complain or give negative reviews but this place is truly appalling that I had a strong sense of duty to forewarn. Wish I could give this place a zero rating but it won't like me submit this review without one' (Soph, Hotel: Rio De Janeiro).

'The older guy said, **shut your mouth and back-off if you want to go home alive**. I look back at him and responded "you shut-up and back-off" really wanting to piss them off for insulting us. Then I continued walking. **The girl attacked and pushed my friend. She almost hit her with a chair.** I tried to look around for a policeman but I found none!' (Sheila, Things to do: Bangkok).

'They would not allow our friends inside, attempting to **physically restrain our friend** but not his wife or children, and called **our friend the Spanish word for nigger. He is African**. It was a **horrific experience for us and our children** and I WARN you Never stay in this hotel' (Abbey38, Hotel: Cancun).

'The **walk back around at dark was no better as you had to be wary nobody was following you as that is the anxiety the hotel had put upon us**...This shabby, slimy, shocking place engraved with us a bad vibe for Paris. Please BEWARNED and stay away, I beg of you!' (33ghk, Hotel: Paris).

'BEWARE! **NOT a safe area**. Took the metro at midday and **young thugs were around, I had to jump in a taxi and leave** (Fetaloving, Things to do: Rio De Janeiro).

'They **tried to hold us back and tried to block the door** but as we were getting nowhere with them and **they were getting more agitated** by the second, we all rushed out as in close quarters, **we were at a disadvantage**. BE WARNED!!! AND STAY AWAY. **Thailand doesn't seem that safe after all**. BEWARE' (Patrick L, Things to do: Bangkok).

Appendix 6. Participants Information Sheet and Consent

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire is a part of a PhD research project and it is about Negatively-Valenced Influencing Behaviour. Your interest and frequent usage of online reviews, specifically TripAdvisor, are the reasons why you were asked to contribute in this study. **By continuing with this questionnaire you are volunteering and giving consent for the data to be used as part of a PhD research project. All data will be fully anonymised.** You are kindly required to read the scenarios attached and answer the questionnaire accordingly. The questionnaire is completely anonymous and it will take no longer than 5 minutes to complete.

For any further information about this research, please contact:

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Thank you for participating.

Appendix 7. Experiment 1 – Indirect Treatment of NVIB

Please insert an **X** below your chosen answer

Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree	4 Neither	5 Somewhat Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision making							
If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision							
I want to be sure about my purchase decision							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible							

You are planning a vacation and while checking Hotels at the planned destination on TripAdvisor, you came across this review:

"A truly horrible place"   NEW

This hotel is really, really bad. Unfortunately, the facilities haven't been updated. Peeling paint, noisy …food was awful… None of the staff were able to do anything without the manager's approval who conveniently were never available…1 electrical socket per room, the staff were horrible…A truly horrible place

Anonymous11
Reviews
Hotel reviews
Helpful Reviews

Helpful?   👍 **Thank Anonymous11**   🚩 Report

Please circle your chosen number on the scale:

My overall feeling about this hotel can be best described as	1 Very Unfavourable	2 3	4 Neither	5 6	7 Very Favourable
I think the quality of service of this hotel is	1 Very Poor	2 3	4 Good	5 6	7 Excellent
The decision to book this hotel is considered a good one	1 Strongly Disagree	2 3	4 Neither	5 6	7 Strongly Agree
Would you consider booking this hotel?	1 Definitely Will Not	2 3	4 Neither	5 6	7 Definitely Will
Would you recommend it to other people?	1 Definitely Will Not	2 3	4 Neither	5 6	7 Definitely Will
I would tell other people good things about this hotel	1 Definitely Will Not	2 3	4 Neither	5 6	7 Definitely Will

Kindly circle your chosen answer to the following questions:

1- In this review, the reviewer is trying to
a- Inform other reviewers of a terrible service experience
b- Advise other reviewers explicitly not to transact with a service provider based on a terrible service experience.

2- **I am a** ...   a- Male   b- Female   **My age** is .....

3- I......... use TripAdvisor
a- Always   b-Frequently   c-Occasionally   d- Sometimes   e- Never

Appendix 8. Experiment 2- Direct NVIB × High Rating

Please insert an **X** below your chosen answer

Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree	4 Neither	5 Somewhat Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision making							
If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision							
I want to be sure about my purchase decision							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible							

You are spending your vacation in another country and planning to have some dinner, since you do not know where to go, you decided to check restaurants in this destination on TripAdvisor, while searching you came across this review posted to a restaurant with an excellent aggregate rating:

"EVERYTHING WAS AWFUL!!!!"

Firstly the service was terrible and waiters were rude. Also, the cooks don't even know what they are cooking. The food is extremely salty and food was not replaced quickly enough. Hygiene is a MAJOR issue!!!! Nothing was cleaned. False Advertisement on website about a 20% on weekdays but that was a lie. Staff is very rude too. DON'T GO THERE, everything was awful!

Please circle your chosen number on the scale:

My overall feeling about this restaurant can be best described as	1 Very Unfavourable	2	3	4 Neither	5	6	7 Very Favourable
I think the quality of service of this restaurant is	1 Very Poor	2	3	4 Good	5	6	7 Excellent
The decision to choose this restaurant is considered a good one	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4 Neither	5	6	7 Strongly Agree
Would you consider selecting this restaurant?	1 Definitely Will Not	2	3	4 Neither	5	6	7 Definitely Will
Would you recommend it to other people?	1 Definitely Will Not	2	3	4 Neither	5	6	7 Definitely Will
I would tell other people good things about this restaurant	1 Definitely Will Not	2	3	4 Neither	5	6	7 Definitely Will

Kindly circle your chosen answer to the following questions:

1- **In this review, the reviewer is trying to**
   c- Inform other reviewers of a terrible service experience
   d- Advise other reviewers explicitly not to transact with a service provider based on a terrible service experience.

2- **The aggregate (overall) rating of this restaurant is**....
   a- High   b- Low

3- **I am a** ...   a- Male   b- Female   **My age** is .....

4- **I......... use TripAdvisor**
   a- Always   b-Frequently   c-Occasionally   d- Sometimes   e- Never

Appendix 9. Experiment 3 – Deriding form × Higher Volume of Positive Reviews

Please insert an **X** below your chosen answer

Items	1 **Strongly Disagree**	2 **Disagree**	3 **Somewhat Disagree**	4 **Neither**	5 **Somewhat Agree**	6 **Agree**	7 **Strongly Agree**
Online reviews are helpful for my purchase decision making							
If I do not read online reviews prior to purchase, I will feel worried about my decision							
I want to be sure about my purchase decision							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is trustworthy							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is reliable							
In general, I think TripAdvisor is credible							

You are planning a vacation and while checking Hotels at the planned destination on TripAdvisor, you came across these reviews: (Reviews are resized to fit the page)
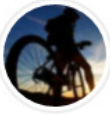
Anonymous11
- Reviews
- Hotel reviews
- Helpful Reviews

"Pippa the pig – Barn accommodation" NEW

On a lovely rainy noon, we arrived at the barn…The smell was beyond sensational. Even if I was a pig, enjoying mud, dirt etc. I wouldn't go there again even for - 125 pounds for 4

Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous11   🚩 Report

Anonymous22
- Reviews
- Hotel reviews
- Helpful Reviews

"Good value" NEW

Had a 1 night stay here and we thought it was good value!! Short walk to tube station. Continental breakfast with a variety of options. Clean room and excellent shower. The best is that it is close to everything and very good for the price we paid.

Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous22   🚩 Report

Anonymous15
- Reviews
- Hotel reviews
- Helpful Reviews

"Nice break" NEW

It was a nice 3 nights staying. Clean, small but comfy room; tiny bathroom with a big shower. Kind receptionist, great position near the station and buses, good price. The breakfast was not so rich. Overall, it is a good hotel for a short break

Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous15   🚩 Report

Anonymous20
- Reviews
- Hotel reviews
- Helpful Reviews

"Great location" NEW

A great location close to everything with variety of transportation links that makes it all easy to go anywhere. The hotel is a little tired but has a charm about it. Continental breakfast more than enough. A budget hotel but perfect for a few days sightseeing. Would book again

Helpful? 👍 Thank Anonymous20   🚩 Report

Please answer the following questions

1- My overall feeling about this hotel can be best described as

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Unfavourable			Neither			Very Favourable

2- I think the quality of service of this hotel is

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Poor			Good			Excellent

3- The decision to book this hotel is considered a good one

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree			Neither			Strongly Agree

4- Would you consider booking this hotel?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Definitely Will Not			Neither			Definitely Will

5- Would you recommend it to other people?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Definitely Will Not			Neither			Definitely Will

6- I would tell other people good things about this hotel

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Definitely Will Not			Neither			Definitely Will

7- The motive behind the reviewers posting these reviews is to inform others about the quality of this hotel

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree			Neither			Strongly Agree

8- I feel the reviewers' comments are based on their true experience

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree			Neither			Strongly Agree

9- Reasons other than the service quality might influence the reviewers to post these reviews

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree			Neither			Strongly Agree

10- In this review, the reviewer is trying to
a- Inform other reviewers of a terrible service experience
b- Advise other reviewers explicitly not to transact with a service provider based on a terrible service experience.

11- The number of positive reviews is .... the negative review
   a- Higher than
   b- Equal to

12- How frequent do your use TripAdvisor?
   a-Always   b-Frequently   c-Occasionally   d- Sometimes   e- Never

13- We would like to know your age, please
   a- 18-24   b-25-34   c-35-44   d-45-65   e- 65-74   f- 75-84   g- 85 or older

14- We would like to know your gender, if you don't mind
      a- Male   b- Female   c- Other