

University of South Australia

The Library
www.library.unisa.edu.au

Educating Professionals, Creating and Applying Knowledge, Engaging our Communities

NOTICE: this is the accepted author manuscript (AAM) or post-print which was accepted for publication in *Australasian Marketing Journal*. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms are reflected in this document. This version is licensed under a Creative Commons CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

A definitive version was subsequently published in *Australasian Marketing Journal*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 54-58, 2016, DOI: dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ausmj.2015.12.003

Measuring the Impact of Positive and Negative Word of Mouth: A Reappraisal

Abstract
Negative information normally has more impact on attitude and cognition than positive information but there is evidence that positive word of mouth (PWOM) usually has more effect on purchase intention than negative word of mouth (NWOM). We explain how this apparent inconsistency may come about and consider when attitude and intention are appropriate proxy measures for behavior. We argue that "on/off" behaviors, such as adoption, should be predicted better by a measure of intention that is *proportional to the maximum change* that could occur since this reflects the movement toward or away from adoption. We use a large database to show the differences between proportional and absolute measures. In addition, we examine the proportions of respondents reaching certainty (i.e. 100% or 0% probability of purchase) after PWOM and NWOM. The findings from these new analyses are mixed. PWOM has more impact than NWOM on purchase intention (both proportional and absolute) but a higher proportion of respondents reach certainty after NWOM.

1. Introduction

1.1. Mixed evidence on the impact of positive and negative information

Research on negativity bias shows that negative information usually has more impact on attitudes and cognition than positive information (e.g. Fiske 1980). Similarly, it is well established that negative information usually has more impact on judgments and decisions ("losses loom larger than gains", Kahneman and Tversky 2000). A review of the impact of negative information shows that this is normally greater than the impact of positive information (Baumeister et al. 2001). Related to this, negative information has been shown to have more impact on stock prices than positive information (Luo 2009). In contrast to this evidence, a widely-cited paper by East, Hammond, and Lomax (2008) shows that the intention to purchase is usually changed more by positive word of mouth (PWOM) than by negative word of mouth (NWOM) and this finding is supported by Sweeney, Soutar, and Mazzarol (2014)[1]. In the research presented here, we are concerned with the seeming inconsistency in these findings. We argue that there is no conflict; measures of attitude and intention are different, and thus produce different results. However, there remains a problem about what proxy measures serve best as predictors of behavioral effect when that behavior cannot be directly measured. We consider how different individual-level proxy measures relate to different behaviors such as adoption and the transmission of word of mouth (WOM) and compare these measures, using a large database.

The impact of information at the aggregate and individual levels

The impact of information should be measured as a change in those factors that are of concern. In marketing, at the aggregate level, we are interested in brand sales, profit, and change in share price (e.g. Srinivasan and Hanssens 2009). These outcomes rest on the direct effects of information on individuals together with any carryover effects. Aggregate measures also incorporate carryover effects whereas individual measures may assess only the direct impact of information. At the individual level, two behavioral effects may be used to directly measure the impact of word of mouth (WOM). One is whether the receivers of advice change

[1] East et al. actually measured respondent-assessed purchase probability. This is treated as equivalent to intention to purchase since Sheppard, Hartwick, and Warshaw (1988) found little difference between these measures.

their purchase behavior[2]. The second is whether these receivers change the volume and/or emphasis of the advice that they subsequently give on the brand. Both of these behaviors may have carryover effects. A person who is persuaded to buy may subsequently persuade others to adopt. A person who, after receiving WOM, increases the volume and/or emphasis of their PWOM on the product may recruit more customers. In practice, behavioral impact measures tend to focus on purchase and neglect changes in transmitted WOM. We mainly consider purchase but the chain of influence through word of mouth is considered briefly in the Discussion.

Impact measures based on intervening variables

In addition to behavioral responses, people may respond to information on a product by changing their feelings (attitude and satisfaction), their thinking (cognitions) and their intention. These variables, intervening between stimulus and behavior, are often used as indicators of behavior and thus measures of impact. For example, East et al. (2008) asked survey respondents to report the probability of purchase before and after receiving WOM, using the difference in the probabilities as the measure of impact. In another case, Ahluwalia (2002) measured changes in attitude and cognition in experiments on the impact of positive and negative information. We focus the discussion on attitude and intention. Cognitive changes may be seen as associated with attitude change since, when people add new beliefs about a concept, these beliefs carry a positive or negative attitudinal charge and thus affect attitude. Satisfaction is seen as an attitude, based on experience, since this is how it is customarily measured.

How appropriate are attitude and intention as proxies for behavior such as purchase? It seems likely that measures based on intention are superior to those based on attitude since, according to the theory of planned behavior, intention is a direct determinant of behavior while attitude, together with other variables, determines intention which then determines behavior (Ajzen 1991). However, only a moderate association between intention and behavior is found (e.g. meta-studies by Webb and Sheeran 2006, Armitage and Connor 2001). These meta-studies reviewed research where current intention was used to predict *future* behavior. In the East et al. (2008) research, respondents are asked to report on *past* changes of intention when WOM had been received. This retrospective measure will be affected by recall error but respondents making these judgments can review their experience and report on what has happened, about which they know, rather than what is yet to happen, about which they can only predict. We know of no evidence on the accuracy of such retrospective recall of intention though one study using this measure shows that there is no systematic change in the impact ratio of PWOM to NWOM when the recall period is varied (East, Uncles, Romaniuk, and Hand 2013).

There are two types of behavior that we need to predict. The first type is exemplified by adoption. This is on/off, and marketers only benefit when the adoption occurs. The second type is where behavior changes gradually in volume and strength of expression and marketers benefit from the degree of change. This applies, for example, when the share of purchase of a repertoire brand increases. In these situations, it seems likely that changes in attitude are likely to relate to gradual changes in behavior so that a person who much prefers one supermarket over others may visit it more often and buy somewhat more from this store. In another example, Fiske (1980) used an attitudinal measure in her research on person perception. Here, we would expect that the manner in which a person acts towards another

[2] We use purchase here but other commercially relevant behavior such as rental or subscription may be of interest.

person will change in volume and friendliness as the attitude toward the person increases, so that attitude is an appropriate proxy measure of positive behavior toward the person. A further example occurs when attitude is used to predict WOM volume; in this connection, Anderson (1998) found that more WOM was given at high levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Thus, when the behavior can change gradually, we would expect attitude to act as a proxy measure of behavior. However, intention will also be associated with gradual change so that this may still be the better measure.

In contrast, when attitude is used to predict an on/off behavior such as adoption, it may be quite insensitive because people can make substantial changes in their attitude without altering their actual purchase or their purchase intention. For example, persons who are set on a brand may not change their purchase intention or actual purchase when they hear that the brand has extra features but they may think and feel more positively about it. A corresponding effect may occur with negative information. People might substantially modify their attitude to a durable good if they hear that it is unreliable but, if they had a low likelihood of adopting the durable before receiving information, they will still have a low likelihood of adoption afterwards and their intention not to adopt it would remain low. This makes intention a better measure of adoption than attitude.

This review therefore suggests that attitude measures may be suitable for complex actions where the associated behavior is graduated and can be manifested in a variety of ways. When the behavior is "on/off", measures of purchase intention may be more appropriate and these will also serve for graduated behavior.

Explanations

The impact of positive and negative information on attitudes has been reviewed by Skowronski and Carlston (1989). The explanation given for the greater effect of NWOM on attitude relates to the gap between a receiver's expectations and the incoming information. Most information is positive and attitudes and expectations are formed on this basis and are thus usually positive. As a consequence, negative information tends to be more at variance with existing attitudes and expectations than positive information. This gap has two effects; one is for negative information to be more salient so that it receives more attention. The second effect is that a larger gap gives more scope for change as the gap is reduced. This negativity effect is not always observed; sometimes people have prior negative attitudes and then positive information may have more effect[3].

East et al. (2008) used a similar gap argument to explain their findings on the impact of PWOM and NWOM on intention to purchase. They found that, before receiving WOM, respondents reported a purchase probability that averaged about 0.4. Thus, PWOM could raise probability by up to 0.6 while NWOM could lower it by only 0.4, giving more scope for change in PWOM than NWOM, and a correspondingly greater change in intention was observed after PWOM. Supporting this interpretation, East et al. (2008) found that the

[3] Kahneman and Tversky's finding that "losses loom larger than gains" is well supported by evidence but not well explained. It is quite likely that this effect also rests on the fact that experience is generally positive – that is, gains are more common. This may lead to prior expectations that are positive so that negative experience, such as a loss, is felt more strongly and has more effect on the sort of decisions and judgments used in experiments in this field. Thus, we hypothesize that the "losses loom larger than gains" finding rests on the prevailing frequencies of losses and gains. Where losses are more common than gains, we might expect to see a reverse effect.

strongest predictor of shift in intention after WOM was the probability of purchase before receiving WOM (the prior probability). When the prior probability was 0.5, PWOM and NWOM had much the same impact. Thus East et al. showed that the impact of PWOM and NWOM depended on the receiver's probability of action before receiving WOM and that there may be no *inherent* difference, apart from direction of effect, between positive and negative advice.

Alternative measures of impact

Proportional change in intention

Is a shift in purchase intention from 0 to .2 probability of purchase the same as a shift from 0.8 to unity? Since purchase is an on/off behavior, nothing is achieved until the purchase decision is made and this makes the interpretation of the absolute movement of intention problematic. When a person moves their intention from 0.4 to 0.2 in response to NWOM, is this a lesser movement than when they move intention from 0.4 to 0.7 in response to PWOM? In both cases the distance to the end-point (0, 1) has been halved and it seems reasonable to argue that, for on/off behavior, the measure should be proportional to the distance from the endpoint, which would make the effect of these two movements equal (but opposite). The conclusion from the East et al. (2008) research was that the impact of PWOM was normally greater than that of NWOM because the movement of the PWOM measure was usually greater. However, if the measure should be proportional rather than absolute, this conclusion should be reassessed.

Getting to the endpoint

Another approach, takes account of reaching endpoints, which is close to reaching a decision. We can count the proportion of persons who reach zero intention following NWOM, and the proportion reaching 100% intention following PWOM. This measure is close to a behavioral measure of choice since 0% indicates that the product was/will not be bought and 100% indicates that the product has been or will be bought[4].

Do PWOM and NWOM contribute to decision making to the same extent?

When a person chooses *not* to buy a brand, they may go on to consider other alternatives. By contrast, a positive choice completes the decision process. If a negative decision does not resolve the final purchase choice, it is less useful to a consumer than a positive one and, correspondingly, negative advice is likely to be less useful than positive advice. Lapersonne, Laurent, and Le Goff (1995) found that 22% of respondents considered only one durable brand while Dawes, Mundt, and Sharp (2009) found that a majority considered only one brand in financial services. When only one brand is considered, negative information on this brand does not settle the choice since new alternatives would be needed if the single brand is excluded and some positive choice is required. Nor is the choice settled when there are three or more alternatives and one is eliminated by NWOM. Only when there are two alternatives, does the elimination of one allow a decision to be made. This analysis suggests that negative information is less useful than positive information for many consumer choices.

However, this discussion of the progress toward a decision is from the standpoint of a consumer. From the standpoint of a supplier, a shift from 0.5 probability to zero or unity means that "half" a sale has been lost or gained.

[4] But not always in retrospective evidence. A person could be moved to certainty by advice but then moved away from this by subsequent experience occurring before the opportunity to purchase.

Replication

We obtained the East et al. (2008) data from the authors, and added a further six category studies to the original 19; all 25 are listed in Table 1 together with the method, sample size, and usable response rate. The database contained the probability of purchasing a service/product before and after receiving PWOM, and before and after receiving NWOM, as shown in Table 1. Regression analysis shows that the enlarged database gave results close to those obtained by East et al. and all 25 studies, comprising 4103 records, were therefore used. The shifts in purchase probability show the pattern found by East et al. when tabled against the prior probability and these are shown in Table 2. The mean shift in the probability of purchase following PWOM was reduced to 0.17 from the 0.20 obtained by East et al. but the shift for NWOM remained at –0.11. These data are expressed as plots in Figure 1 (unbroken lines). The shifts for PWOM and NWOM rise in an approximately linear manner as the scope for change increases but above 70% for NWOM and below 30% for PWOM, the curve turns. East et al. (2008) explained this turn in the curve as a commitment effect – when people have made up their mind to buy a brand they tend to give less attention to negative advice on this brand or positive advice on a different brand. In support of this claim, East et al. showed that the effect was much diminished for repertoire categories where a degree of commitment can remain after choosing another brand. The plots for PWOM and NWOM are similar and show almost the same absolute impact when the prior probability is 0.5.

Table 1
The impact of PWOM and NWOM on brand choice probability

Category (method*, sample size, usable response rate). Data are from the UK when a country is not given	Probability of purchase %		Shift in probability of purchase (% points)	
	Prior to PWOM	Prior to NWOM	PWOM	NWOM
Supermarket (DP+DF, 300, 31%)	43	39	16	–16
Cell phone airtime (2007) (DC, 300, 64%)	40	41	16	–9
Cell phone handset (2007) (DC, 300, 64%)	50	42	8	–19
Current bank account (DC, 250, 65%)	40	47	28	–11
Camera (DP, 300, 34%)	45	38	1	–17
Computer (DC, 220, 80%)	53	49	20	–20
Cell phone airtime (2005) (DC, 250, 86%)	32	41	19	–10
Main credit card (DC, 250, 65%)	37	48	28	–17
Luxury brands (CS, 115, 87%)	38	20	12	–6
Leather goods, Lebanon (DS, 235, 74%)	48	46	23	–14
Camera (DP, 300, 27%)	53	34	17	–12
Holiday destination (2006) (DP, 300, 27%)	48	42	18	–19
Coffee shop (DC, 220, 80%)	54	42	19	–11
Holiday destination (2007) (DP, 300, 34%)	41	38	6	–6
Cell phone handset (2005) (DC, 250, 86%)	39	36	20	–7
Restaurant, favorite (DP+DF, 300, 31%)	35	59	39	–47
Restaurant, ethnic (DP+DI, 300, 30%)	36	41	34	–23
Hair colorant Japan, (DC, 222, 77%)	51	28	19	–8
Restaurant, Iranian (DF, 200, 45%)	44	22	31	–3
Skin care products, S. Korea (I, 225, na)	73	57	6	–13
Supermarkets (DC, 422, 70%)	57	50	24	–8
Coffee shops (DC, 422, 70%)	53	36	16	–6
Banking services, Uganda (DC, 210, 70%)	35	49	11	–5
Fast food restaurants (DI, 120, 48%)	46	49	15	–14
Theatre and cinema (I, 160, 76%)	43	50	24	–17
Means	**46**	**41**	**17**	**–11**

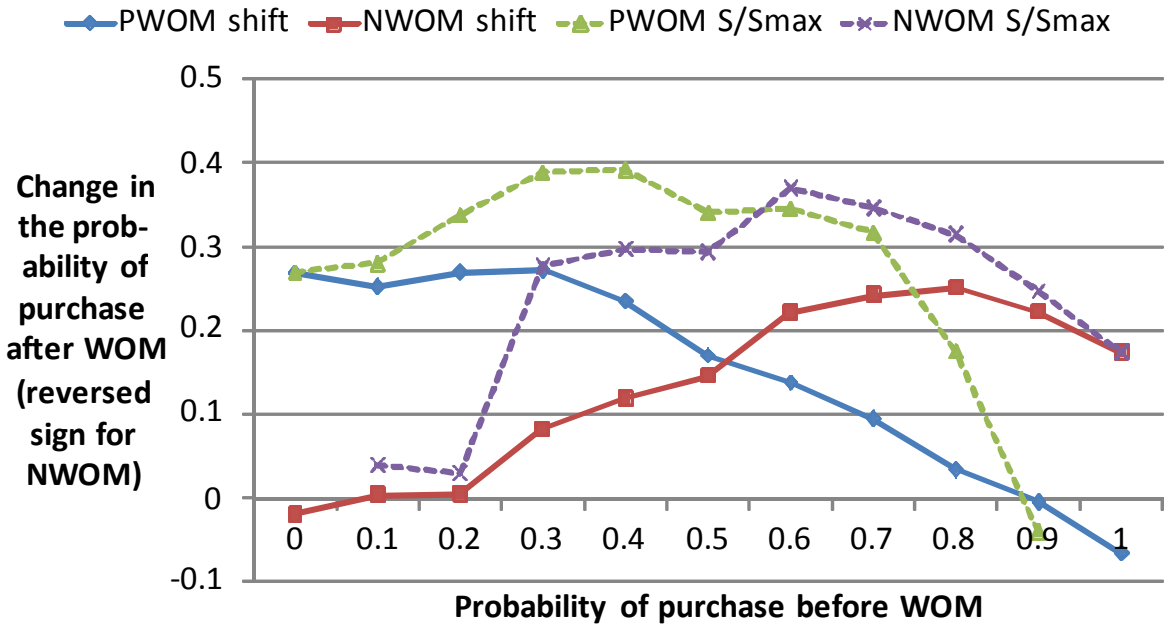
* Methods of gathering data: DP is drop-off with free post back; DF is distribution via friends; DC is drop off and collect; CS is distribution and collection in coffee shop; DS is distribution in stores; DI is face-to-face distribution and collection by intercept, I is Internet.

Table 2. Shifts in probability of purchase as a function of prior probability (S = shift and S_{max} is the maximum shift possible)

	Absolute Shift Means		Mean Shifts as a Proportion of Maximum Shift Possible	
Prior probability of purchase	Shift after PWOM (N=2610)	Shift after NWOM (N=2071)	S/S_{max} after PWOM	S/S_{max} after NWOM
0	0.269	0.019	.269	*
0.1	0.253	-0.004	.281	.040
0.2	0.270	-0.005	.338	.100
0.3	0.272	-0.083	.389	.277
0.4	0.235	-0.119	.392	.298
0.5	0.170	-0.147	.340	.294
0.6	0.138	-0.222	.345	.370
0.7	0.095	-0.243	.317	.347
0.8	0.035	-0.252	.175	.315
0.9	-0.004	-0.223	-.040	.248
1.0	-0.065	-0.174	*	.174
Mean	0.173	-0.109		

* The asterisk indicates that the quotient in not calculable because the denominator is zero

Figure 1
Impact measures as a function of the probability of purchase before receiving WOM



Proportional measures

Previously, it was argued that the measure of impact should be proportional to the distance from the endpoint when it is used to indicate change in a "yes/no" decision. Across the whole dataset, the impact ratio of PWOM to NWOM shrinks from 59% to 20% when a proportional measure is used. The proportional measure can also be expressed for each 10% shift in prior probability and this is shown in Table 2 and by the dotted lines in Figure 1 (where one point in each column has to be omitted because the divisor is zero). This gives a flatter measure of WOM impact for about 70% of the range. NWOM has less effect below a prior probability of 0.3 and PWOM has less effect above 0.7.

Endpoint measurement of impact

In the case of PWOM, those respondents who reported a probability of purchase of 100% were removed and the percentage of the remainder that reached 100% as a consequence of PWOM was measured. This was 9.2%. In the case of NWOM, those respondents who reported a purchase probability of zero before receiving NWOM were removed and the percentage of the remainder that reached zero after NWOM was measured. This was 13.0%. Thus, on this measure, an instance of NWOM has 41% more impact than an instance of PWOM. This greater effect of NWOM might be expected because the prior probabilities are closer to the zero endpoint than the unity endpoint so that the same absolute shift would take more respondents to zero than unity. However, inspection of Table 2 shows that movements near the endpoints are disproportionately small so that most of those reaching certainty started from more central positions.

Discussion

Multiple measures

In consumer research, much care is given to overall research design and the analysis of data but the choice of the measures used needs corresponding attention. The work by East et al. (2008) has been much cited but researchers have generally not questioned the measure of impact used in this work. This review suggests that impact, measured as probability of purchase, can differ substantially from impact measured as attitude change when the behavior is on/off. In both cases, the movement in the measured variable depends upon the free space left for change but this may be large for attitude when it is small for intention. These findings are not inconsistent because the measures are different. However, some measures of impact may be more appropriate to the concerns of the researcher than others and we argue that intention is more relevant than attitude when the behavior in question is on/off.

Proportionality

It is argued that non-graduated behaviors such as adoption are better measured by a measure of intention that is proportional to the space for movement before the endpoint. In this respect, we differ from East et al. (2008) who used a non-proportional measure of intention change. When proportional measures are used the greater impact of PWOM is much reduced for aggregate data and when these are used at each interval on the graphs for PWOM and NWOM, as shown in Figure 1, the impact is flattened across much of the range but still shows a reduced effect of NWOM and PWOM when the prior probability is near to zero and unity respectively. One proposal by East et al. (2008) was that the evidence could be used to identify segments that could make a substantial change in purchase probability. The flattened curve that is observed when the measure is proportional lessens the interest in such targeting. Rather, the emphasis should be on avoiding segments in the low response zones near endpoints.

Getting to the endpoint

A further impact measure focuses on the percentage that reaches zero probability of purchase after NWOM and 100% probability of purchase after PWOM. According to this measurement, NWOM has more impact than PWOM. It might be thought that those with a prior probability close to zero might be brought to this point more easily by NWOM, and those who were close to 100% might similarly be often brought to certainty by PWOM, but inspection of Table 2 shows that this is not the pattern since respondents in these areas reported little change in their intention. However, the 0% and 100% criteria are closer to real decision making than intention shifts and this suggests that NWOM is more powerful than

NWOM in controlling behavior. This finding helps us to interpret Luo's (2009) finding that negative information has more impact on share price than positive information. From his evidence, it seems that more people are put off buying a share by NWOM than are put onto buying a share by PWOM, with consequential effects on share price. However, it would be a mistake to conclude that NWOM generally has greater impact in everyday decision making when volume is taken into account. The ratio of PWOM to NWOM volume varies with the category but evidence across the range of categories indicates a ratio of about three to one in favor of PWOM (East, Hammond, and Wright 2007). We make this point because aggregate assessments of impact may include the effect of volume.

Reviewing this evidence, it appears that East et al. (2008) somewhat overstated the power of PWOM. First, a proportional intention measure reduces the superiority of PWOM compared to NWOM and, second, a measure based on the proportion reaching the endpoint, shows greater effect from NWOM than PWOM. However, claims that NWOM has far more effect than PWOM seem mistaken and we note that many consumer choices are not resolved when negative advice rules out one option whereas positive advice may effectively "rule in" an option; this detracts from the impact of NWOM.

Impact through transmitted word of mouth

Earlier, it was noted that the behavioral impact of WOM has two aspects. Beside adoption, WOM may cause receivers to give more WOM and some of this WOM may eventually produce extra sales if it is positive or reduce sales if it is negative. We think that WOM transmission occurs mainly when existing and previous owners receive WOM about their brands. Current owners are usually satisfied and likely to give positive information about their brand while previous owners have sometimes switched because they were dissatisfied and may give negative information about their erstwhile brand. This pattern was indicated by East et al. (2011) who found that 71% of PWOM came from current owners and 55% of NWOM from previous owners. We do not know how the contribution to sales is divided between direct response to WOM by the receiver and indirect response via the receiver's transmission of WOM but it seems likely that the latter makes a substantial contribution to sales. The earlier review suggested that attitude change should indicate WOM transmission and there is evidence that the volume of WOM produced is related to the extremity of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Anderson 1998). It is also likely that the strength of any expression of WOM is also related to attitude, and East et al. (2008) found that strength of expression was related to impact.

While intention seems the better predictor of direct sales, attitude may be better at predicting extra WOM and the overall effect of these two elements cannot be determined with our present knowledge. One response to this might be to abandon individual-level measurement and focus on aggregate effects. Clearly, aggregate-level effects have interest to marketers but this type of research does not tell us how the overall effects come about and, if we do not know this, marketing intervention is hampered. Thus, there remains a need for individual-level research that may reveal how different mechanisms contribute to impact.

References

Ahluwalia, R. (2002). How prevalent is the negativity effect in consumer environments? *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29 (September), 270–279.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. In E.A. Locke (ed.), *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179–211.

Anderson, E.W. (1998). Customer satisfaction and word of mouth, *Journal of Service Research*, 1(1), 5–17.

Armitage, C. J., and Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review, *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40, 471–500.

Baumeister, R.F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, K., Vols, K.D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good, *Review of General Psychology*, 5(4), 323-370.

Dawes, J., Mundt, K. and Sharp, B. (2009). Consideration sets for financial services brands, *Journal of Financial Services Marketing*, 14**,** 190-202.

East, R., Romaniuk, J., and Lomax, W. (2011) The prediction of brand performance from word-of-mouth and satisfaction measures. *The International Journal of Market Research*, 53(3) 327-346.

East, R., Hammond, K. and Lomax, W. (2008). Measuring the impact of positive and negative word of mouth on brand purchase probability, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 25(3), 215-224.

East, R., Hammond, K. and Wright, M. (2007). The relative incidence of positive and negative word of mouth: a multi-category study, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 24(2), 175-184.

East, R., Uncles, M., Romaniuk, J. and Hand, C. 2013) Distortions in retrospective word-of-mouth measurement, *International Journal of Market Research*, 55(4), 477-486.

Fiske, S.T. (1980). Attention and weight in person perception: the impact of negative and extreme behavior, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(6), 889–906.

Kahneman, D. and Tversky, A. (2000). *Choices, Values, and Frames*, New York: Russell Sage Foundation, Cambridge University Press.

Keller, E. and Fay, B. (2012). *The Face-to-Face Book*, New York: Free Press, 2012.

Lapersonne, E, Laurent, G. and Le Goff, J-J. (1995). Consideration sets of size one: An empirical investigation of automobile purchases, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12(1), 55–66.

Luo, X. (2009). Quantifying the long-term impact of negative word of mouth on cash flows and stock prices, *Marketing Science*, 28(1), 148-165.

Peterson, R.A. and Wilson, W.R. (1992). Measuring customer satisfaction: fact or artifact, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 20(1), 61–71.

Sheppard, B.H., Hartwick, J., and Warshaw, P.R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15(3), 325-343.

Skowronski, J.J. and Carlston, D.E. (1989). Negativity and extremity biases in impression formation: a review of explanations, *Psychological Bulletin*, 105(1), 131–142.

Srinivasan S. and Hanssens, D.M. (2009). Marketing and firm value: Metrics, methods, findings, and future directions, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 46(3), 293-312.

Sweeney, J., Soutar, G. and Mazzarol, T. (2014). Factors enhancing word-of-mouth influence: Positive and negative service-related messages, *European Journal of Marketing*, 48(1/2), 336-59.

Webb T.L. and Sheeran P. (2006). Does changing behavioral intentions engender behavior change? A meta-analysis of the experimental evidence. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(2), 249-68.

Acknowledgements: We thank the following fieldworkers who provided the additional six studies used in this work., Camila Borrero, Michelle Hunt, Diana Mirembe, Yumi Morita, Arun Raajenthran, Karishma Udani**.**