

BRAND-RELATED NEGATIVE ENGAGEMENT AND SPILLOVER EFFECT ON SOCIAL MEDIA

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ABSTRACT

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<p>Abstract</p> <p>Nowadays customers have a significant influencing role on online social networks. Customers utilise user-generated content as a prime source of information about products and services. Negative user-generated content is contagious and viral in nature, and it may have a detrimental impact on organizations and brands. Based on previous studies, further research was needed on different intensity levels of negative engagement and the spillover of discussion.</p> <p>The purpose of this study was to examine brand-related negative engagement and the spillover effect on social media. The objective was to describe different forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB) and the spread of discussion from one channel to another using the spillover effect through coping categories. The aim was to study the different ways that consumers cope with stress and negative emotions as well as intensity levels of NVIB to understand how people say things negatively.</p> <p>This qualitative case study combines both theory-based and theory-driven content analysis. The analytical framework of the study consists of NVIB developed by Azer and Alexander (2020, 2018) and the coping strategy framework developed by Duhachek (2005) and Jin (2010). 600 posts were chosen from the research data and used to study the #Chargegate discussions related to Apple's smartphone charger issue in 2018. The discussion was analyzed and compared on YouTube, Instagram, and Twitter.</p> <p>The results show that indirect discrediting form of NVIB and cognitive coping strategies were the most used in all channels. The distinguishing factor was that the emotional expressions of NVIB and the emotional coping strategies were common on YouTube and Instagram, while they were rarely used on Twitter. Instead, Twitter focused on sharing information without emotion. Hence, the negative engagement spilled effectively, but its form varied from channel to channel. This study emphasizes considering the perspective and the needs of the public in a crisis to improve the organization's effective crisis management.</p>	
<p>Key words</p> <p>brand engagement, coping, negative engagement, social media, spillover effect</p>	
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<p>Tiivistelmä</p> <p>Asiakkailla on nykyään merkittävä vaikuttajan rooli verkkoyhteisöissä. Asiakkaat hyödyntävät käyttäjien luomaa sisältöä tuotteiden ja palveluiden keskeisenä tiedonlähteenä. Käyttäjien luoma negatiivinen sisältö on luonteeltaan tarttuvaa ja laajasti leviävää, mikä voi vaikuttaa haitallisesti organisaatioihin ja brändeihin. Aiempien tutkimusten perusteella tarvittiin lisätutkimusta negatiivisen sitoutumisen intensiteettitasoista ja keskustelun leviämisestä.</p> <p>Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena oli tutkia brändiin liittyvää negatiivista sitoutumista ja spillover-efektiä sosiaalisessa mediassa. Pyrkimyksenä oli kuvata erilaisia negatiivisen valenssin vaikuttamiskäyttäytymisen muotoja (NVIB) sekä keskustelun leviämistä kanavasta toiseen spillover-efektinä coping- eli hallintakeinojen kautta. Tavoitteena oli tarkastella kuluttajien erilaisia tapoja hallita stressiä ja negatiivisia tunteita sekä NVIB:n intensiteettitasoja, jotta voitaisiin ymmärtää, miten ihmiset ilmaisevat negatiivisuutta.</p> <p>Tämä kvalitatiivinen tapaustutkimus yhdistää sekä teorialähtöistä että teoriaohjauvaa sisällönanalyysia. Tutkimuksen analyttinen viitekehys koostuu Azerin ja Alexandrin (2020, 2018) kehittämästä NVIB-mallista sekä Duhachekin (2005) ja Jinin (2010) kehittämistä hallintakeinojen strategioista. Tutkimusaineistosta valittiin 600 viestiä, joiden avulla tarkasteltiin Applen älypuhelinien latausongelmaan liittyvää #Chargegate-keskustelua vuodelta 2018. Keskustelua analysoitiin ja verrattiin YouTubessa, Instagramissa ja Twitterissä.</p> <p>Tulokset osoittavat, että kaikissa kanavissa käytettiin eniten NVIB:n epäsuoria muotoja ja kognitiivisia hallintakeinoja. Erottavana tekijänä oli, että NVIB:n tunneilmaisut ja emotionaaliset hallintakeinot olivat yleisiä YouTubessa ja Instagramissa, kun taas Twitterissä niitä käytettiin harvoin. Twitterissä sen sijaan keskityttiin tiedon jakamiseen ilman tunneilmaisuja. Negatiivinen sitoutuminen levisi tehokkaasti, mutta sen muodot vaihtelivat eri kanavissa. Tämä tutkimus korostaa kriisissä yleisön näkökulman ja tarpeiden huomioimista organisaation kriisinhallinnan tehostamiseksi ja parantamiseksi.</p>	
Asiasanat brändisitoutuminen, coping, negatiivinen sitoutuminen, sosiaalinen media, spillover-efekti	
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1 INTRODUCTION

With the development of social media, stakeholders interact and engage more publicly. Thereby stakeholder emotions are expressed more commonly in a visible form in digitalized arenas. (Li et al., 2018, pp. 491, 507.) Through social media, stakeholders get a chance to express negative ideas quickly and broadly by negative comment posting (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014, pp. 71–72). At the same time, the use of social media and different digital platforms has increased the weight of negative engagement further (Naumann et al., 2017b, pp. 900–904). Like negative engagement, negatively valenced influencing behavior is contagious and viral in nature and therefore has the potential to have a detrimental impact on organizations (Kowalski, 1996; Bowden et al., 2017, pp. 878, 892). There is also a so-called spillover effect on social media, where a negative chatter in one object increases the negativity in another object. This results in a chain reaction affecting engagement, which has been studied by Borah and Tellis (2016) and Bowden et al. (2017).

Previous studies indicate that negative messages and information affect more strongly on individuals' attitudes and message reception than equal amount of positive information (Doyle & Lee, 2016, p. 917; Sherrell et al., 1985, pp. 13, 16). In an online environment, negative customer stories and reviews appear to gain more publicity as well (Liu et al., 2011, pp. 346, 351). Despite these findings, the previous engagement literature has focused more on positive engagement (Do et al., 2019, p. 117). In negative engagement research, far too little attention is paid to direct and indirect forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior (Azer & Alexander, 2018, 2020). Also, engagement spillover effect is still uninvestigated in the research literature (Bowden et al., 2017, p. 879), as well as the manifestation of the phenomenon on social media. Based on this information, both negative engagement and the spillover effect have research gaps and more research is needed.

This is a case study centered on the Chargegate phenomenon, which refers to a charging issue on Apple iPhone XS phones in 2018. The issue caused widespread discussion on social media with the hashtag #chargegate. Charging problems surprised Apple users in 2018. It appeared that the iPhone XS mobile phones were sometimes not charging when they were plugged into their charging ports. Normally charging process starts immediately, when the device is plugged in. When a charging problem occurs, the phone did not start charging until the phone was unlocked. In some cases, phones had to be unplugged, unlocked, and then plugged in again before the phone started charging. Sometimes only a reboot restored normal interaction. (Macey, 2018.) The charging issue frustrated Apple users and caused a storm on social media with a hashtag #chargegate. Initially a popular video blogger Lewis Hilsenteger demonstrated the issue by

posting a video on YouTube (“Apple silent”, 2018), from there the conversation spread to other social media channels.

Negative comments about Apple’s brand spread quickly and gained a lot of visibility online. This case study and the issue called #Chargegate are only one example of the power of discussion on social media. The intense growth of digital social networks has given stakeholders a significant influencing role in today’s markets (Harrigan et al., 2018, p. 395; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010, pp. 311, 324). Stakeholders trust each other to get authoritative information (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014, pp. 256–257) and are influenced by the opinions and choices of others about products and services (Dholakia et al., 2004, pp. 259–261). Online reviews are a remarkable source of information, and they affect purchase decisions (Mathwick & Mosteller, 2017) and the reputation of the brand.

This thesis examines the negative engagement with a brand on social media. The research problem is to investigate, how stakeholders engage in different forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior, and how the discussion spills over between channels. This case study analyses and compares the #Chargegate-related discussion on different social media channels. The purpose of the study is to describe different forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior and its spread from one channel to another. The study aims to deepen the understanding of negative customer engagement towards a brand on social media. The research questions in this thesis are the following:

RQ1: What forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior are used on social media channels?

RQ2: How does the spillover effect appear on social media channels?

Qualitative research is used as the research approach and content analysis as the research method. This study combines both theory-based and theory-driven content analysis. The frameworks and categories of analysis are mainly based on the previous literature, but the already existing theories have been supplemented with categories emerging from the data. For a theory-based analysis, the goal is to test selected theories in a new context and data.

After introduction, chapters 2–4 discuss the theoretical background of negative engagement and the spillover effect. The chapters seek to illustrate key concepts and theories related to the topic. Chapter 5 describes the data and the research methods used in the study. Moreover, the research case and the research questions are presented. Chapter 6 focuses on the results of the study and chapter 7 discusses the content of the study and presents the conclusions. In addition, chapter 7 evaluates areas for development and presents possible topics for further research.

2 PERSPECTIVES ON ENGAGEMENT

This chapter discusses the concept of engagement from different perspectives. First, the concept of engagement is defined. A summary of the various definitions is compiled in the table 1. Other concepts and theories closely related to engagement are then discussed in more detail.

2.1 Definition of engagement

In communication research field, the term engagement has been defined as just about every type of interaction (Johnston & Taylor, 2018, p. 1). Engagement is seen as a repetitive, dynamic process that consists of participation, experience, and shared action as main elements. Interaction and exchange are basic components of engagement and highlight its relational and social nature. (Johnston & Taylor, 2018, pp. 1, 3.)

Johnston (2018, p. 19) extended the previous definition by defining engagement as a dynamic multidimensional relational concept, which also includes psychological and behavioral attributes of connection, interaction, participation, and involvement. An outcome is achieved or elicited at individual, organizational, or social levels in the process. (Johnston, 2018, p. 19.) A range of definitions has been proposed for various engagement forms, which outline the concept from different perspectives according to the context or stakeholders (Brodie et al., 2011).

From the thesis point of view, key perspectives of engagement are customer engagement, brand engagement, and engagement in online brand communities. These terms can be difficult to distinguish because they have many of the same features. In the literature, these engagement concepts are closely related and partially overlapping. The following chapters look in more detail at the different concepts of engagement.

Table 1 summarizes the key concepts related to engagement, their definitions, and the main sources of the definitions. The purpose of the table is to illustrate the key theories of chapter 2. Table 1 also shows how these terms are defined in this thesis.

TABLE 1. Different definitions of terms related to engagement.

Term	Definition	Article	Definition in this thesis
Engagement	"Engagement is conceptualized as an	Johnston & Taylor, 2018, pp. 1, 3	Engagement is a dynamic

	<p>iterative, dynamic process, where participation, experience, and shared action emerge as central components of engagement. It is through interaction and exchange that meaning is cocreated, such as described in the dialogic nature of engagement, to achieve understanding. The focus on interaction and exchange also highlights strong connections to the relational and social nature of engagement.”</p>		<p>multidimensional process. Participation, experience, and shared action are its central components. Engagement has a dialogic, relational and social nature. Engagement features psychological and behavioral attributes of connection, interaction, participation, and involvement, designed to achieve or elicit an outcome at individual, organization, or social levels.</p>
	<p>”Engagement is defined as a dynamic multidimensional relational concept featuring psychological and behavioral attributes of connection, interaction, participation, and involvement, designed to achieve or elicit an outcome at individual, organization, or social levels.”</p>	<p>Johnston, 2018, p. 19</p>	
<p>Customer engagement</p>	<p>”Customer engagement (CE) is a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, cocreative customer experiences with a focal agent/object (e.g., a brand) in focal service relationships. It occurs under a specific set of context-dependent conditions generating differing CE levels; and exists as a dynamic, iterative process within service relationships that cocreate value. CE plays a central role in a</p>	<p>Brodie et al., 2011, pp. 258–259</p>	<p>Same as Brodie et al., 2011</p>

	nomological network governing service relationships in which other relational concepts (e.g., involvement, loyalty) are antecedents and/or consequences in iterative CE processes. It is a multidimensional concept subject to a context- and/or stakeholder-specific expression of relevant cognitive, emotional and/or behavioral dimensions."		
Consumer engagement	"Consumer engagement is an interactive, experiential process, based on individuals' engagement with specific objects (e.g. brands, organizations), and/or other brand community members. It may emerge at different intensity levels over time reflecting distinct engagement states."	Brodie et al., 2013, p. 112	Same as Brodie et al., 2013
Consumer brand engagement	"A consumer's positively valenced brand-related cognitive, emotional and behavioral activity during or related to focal consumer/brand interactions."	Hollebeek et al., 2014, p. 154	Same as Hollebeek et al., 2014
Brand community	"A brand community is a specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relations among admirers of a brand. It is specialized because at its center is a branded good or service."	Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 412	A brand community is formed around a particular brand, based on a structured set of social relations among the brands fan base. It is a non-geographically bound online community. Consumers cocreate value for themselves
	"Consumers join online brand	Bowden et al, 2017, p. 878	

	communities to (co)create value for themselves and/or others by means of engaging with not only with focal brands, but also with each other."		and others by means of engaging with focal brands and each other.
Social media engagement	"Social media engagement is a state that reflects consumers' positive individual dispositions towards the community and the focal brand as expressed through varying levels of affective, cognitive and behavioural manifestations that go beyond exchange situations."	Dessart, 2017, p. 377	Same as Dessart, 2017
Word-of-mouth (WOM)	"Consumer word-of-mouth (WOM) transmissions consist of informal communication directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers."	Westbrook, 1987, p. 261	Same as Westbrook, 1987
eWOM	"eWOM communication is a any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet."	Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004, p. 39	Same as Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004

As seen in table 1, there are several definitions for some terms, such as engagement. Johnston and Taylor's (2018) definition of engagement places more emphasis on concreteness, such as sharing experiences and a dialogic approach to engagement. Johnston's (2018) definition describes engagement as a multidimensional phenomenon which also involves psychological attributes. In this dissertation, engagement is defined as a combination of these descriptions.

Brodie et al. (2011) define customer engagement as a psychological state consisting of, for example, customer brand experiences. It is seen as a context-bound, multidimensional phenomenon consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions. Brodie et al. (2013) emphasize an interactive, experiential process between parties in the definition of consumer engagement. The intensity of consumer engagement can vary over time. Hollebeek et al. (2014) highlight the brand perspective and positive valence in the definition of consumer brand engagement.

Muñiz & O'Guinn (2001), on the other hand, see the brand community as a group of people from around the world who are united by admiration for a product or brand. In the definition of brand community Bowden et al. (2017) emphasize the utility perspective, where the role of the community is to create value for participants. In the definition of social media engagement, Dessart (2017) highlights a positive relationship with community and the brand, which creates a deeper relationship than merely customer satisfaction.

Westbrook's (1987) WOM definition focuses on informal communication about goods or services to other consumers. In the definition of eWOM by Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) communication is instead placed on the Internet, where the message reaches the public.

2.2 Customer engagement

According to Brodie et al. (2011) customer engagement is a psychological state created by interactive customer experiences containing a focal agent (e.g. customer) or object (e.g. brand) within specific service relationship. It is a multidimensional concept, and it captures customers' cognitive, behavioral, and emotional investment in particular firm or brand interactions. (Brodie et al., 2011.) Chandler and Lusch (2015) presented instead a temporal perspective, according to which customer engagement is influenced by past service experiences. Customer's history of brand interactions may encourage to create a long-term customer-brand relationship. (Chandler & Lusch, 2015.)

Van Doorn et al. (2010) paid attention to motivational drivers as a source of customer engagement. Word-of-mouth activity (WOM), recommendations, helping others, and writing reviews are mentioned as examples (Van Doorn et al., 2010), and they are also central to this study. Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) approached the customer engagement concept from activity perspective. The amount of resources the customer is willing to spend is considered as well as the actual purchase or consumption of the brand. Active customer engagement can be based on resources such as time and money. (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010.) Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) recognized that value co-creation is influenced by

four types of customer engagement behaviors: augmenting, co-developing, influencing, and mobilizing. Since Alexander and Jaakkola (2016) described the concept of customer engagement behavior as a concept that has an impact on customer experiences, values, and performance of organizations.

Mathwick and Mosteller (2017) defined online reviewer engagement as a form of consumer engagement (Brodie et al., 2011). It appears when volunteers produce reviews within the context of a firm-controlled reviewing platform. Online reviewer engagement is a contextually dependent psychological state. It is driven by intrinsic motivation and characterized by varying degrees of altruistic and egoistic market-helping motives. (Mathwick & Mosteller, 2017.) Traditionally negative reviews and customer complaints have been considered as one form of negative engagement and thus only detrimental to brands and organizations. In certain cases, negative engagement also can turn into positive engagement for an organization. Then the public negative feedback should be constructive (rather than detrimental), and people want to acquire new habits or improve existing ones (rather than enhance their self-image). (Finkelstein & Fishbach 2012.)

2.3 Brand engagement

Hollebeek et al. (2014, p. 149) conceptualized consumer-brand engagement as a consumer's positively valenced, brand-related, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral activity. It occurs during or related to certain consumer or brand interactions. Consumer-brand involvement precedes the consumer's self-brand connection. (Hollebeek et al., 2014, p. 149.)

Hollebeek (2011) identified three key brand engagement themes, including immersion, passion, and activation. Immersion represents the extent of individuals cognitive investment, and it refers to a customer's level of brand-related concentration in specific brand interactions. Passion exposes the extent of individual's emotional investment, which refers to the degree of a customer's positive brand-related affect in certain brand interactions. Activation reveals a customer's level of energy, effort or time spent on a brand in specific brand interactions. Activation refers to the behavioral facet of customer brand engagement. (Hollebeek, 2011.) Hollebeek and Chen (2014, p. 70) extended Hollebeek's (2011) theory by developing a conceptual model (Figure 1). It includes key hallmarks, triggers, and consequences of positively and negatively valenced brand engagement.

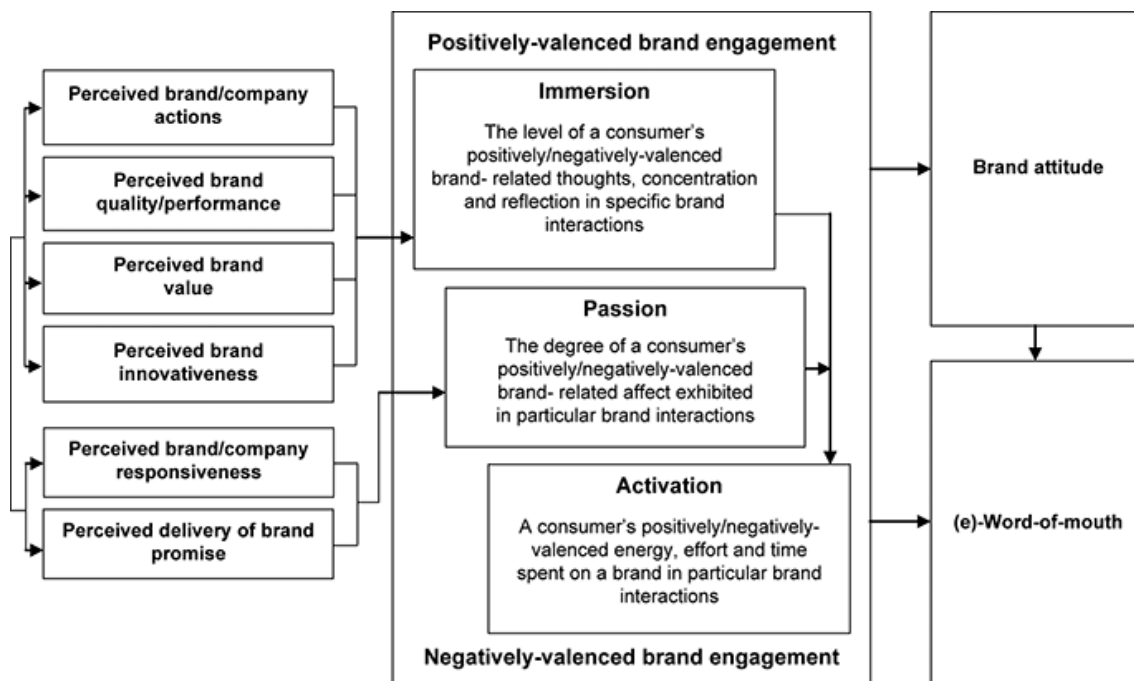


FIGURE 1. Conceptual model (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014, p. 70).

According to the conceptual model, brand engagement has two key consequences: brand-attitude and (e)-word-of-mouth. Brand attitude can range from strongly unfavorable to highly favorable. In virtual brand communities negative electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) may have significant effects to the brand, because virtual recommendations spread rapidly without cost. WOM can also be seen as a reflection of an individual's brand attitude. (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014.)

When it comes to brand engagement, it is useful to distinguish between brand experience, brand trust, and brand reputation. Brand-related stimuli evokes sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioral responses, which is defined as brand experience. Brand's identity, design and packing, communications and environments affect the customer's subjective experience. Through brand personality consumer satisfaction and loyalty are affected by brand experience. (Brakus et al., 2009.) A positive expectation from a brand can outweigh possible risks. That phenomenon and consumer's willingness to rely on the brand are conceptualized as trust in a brand. (Lau & Lee, 1999.)

A brand's positive reputation is conceptualized as an individual's opinion that the brand is good and reliable. Advertising, public relations, product quality, and performance all contribute to building the brand reputation. The brand must please its customers to build a good reputation. For example, providing genuine quality and fulfilling promises also promote positive word-of-mouth among customers. Others' positive attitude towards a brand and good reputation supports consumer's trust in the brand. A bad reputation instead contributes consumer suspicion and can cause sensitivity to potential brand flaws, which makes it more difficult for the brand to be trusted. (Lau & Lee, 1999.)

From the perspective of this thesis, it is interesting that Hidayanti et al. (2018) found that brand experience and brand trust have significant effect to brand engagement. In addition, brand trust and brand engagement contribute to the emergence of brand loyalty. (Hidayanti et al., 2018.)

2.4 Social media and online brand communities

The term social media refers to online environments that emphasize user activity. Three features have been presented to social media: communication is de-institutionalized, the user is seen as a producer, and communication is interactive and networked. De-institutionalized communication means that it is decentralized and not regulated like traditional media. Users become active content producers, turning the audience into users. The basis of social media is user interaction, and users are usually connected in a networked structure. (Bechmann & Lomborg, 2012, p. 767.) Van Dijck (2011, pp. 43–44) also points out that the definitions of social media involve the idea of an active audience or active users, which distinguishes it from the traditional, rather passive media audience.

In this thesis, three social media channels are examined: YouTube, Twitter, and Instagram. While YouTube, Twitter, and Instagram are all social media channels, they have their own characteristics. According to Laaksonen et al. (2013, p. 15), YouTube and Instagram are platforms that focus on content sharing, while Twitter belongs to the category of microblogs. Next, the social media channels discussed in this thesis are examined in more detail one by one.

YouTube is an online video sharing platform launched in 2005 and acquisitioned by Google a year later. The website allows users to view, upload, and publish streaming videos without high levels of technical knowledge. YouTube is not itself a content producer, but a platform and aggregator for content. (Burgess & Green 2009, 9, 11.) Videos represent a wide range of corporate and user-generated content, ranging from game and music videos to do it yourself and educational clips (Clement, 2020b). Sharing content is easy with URLs and HTML code when embedding content on other websites, which brings new participants and new audiences. It also offers basic community features like the ability to link with other users as friends. (Burgess & Green 2009, p. 9.) After years of constant growth, YouTube is nowadays the biggest online video platform worldwide. In 2019, YouTube had an estimated 1,68 billion users, and it its particularly popular with younger internet users. (Clement, 2020b.)

Instagram is a mobile photo and video-sharing application founded in 2010 (Sheldon et al., 2017, p. 644). Enhanced photo editing capabilities allow users to take, edit, and upload high-quality images (Lee et al., 2015). Features of the application

include selfies, images with hashtags, and multiple digital filters for image editing. On Instagram, celebrities also share personal photos and videos with their fans, which increases the popularity of the application. (Sheldon et al., 2017, p. 644.) Instagram is one of the fastest growing social medias (Sheldon et al., 2017, p. 643), and it is one of the most popular social media applications with high levels of user engagement. Nowadays Instagram has more than 1 billion monthly active users, and most users are below the age of 35. (Clement, 2020c.)

Twitter is an online social networking service founded in 2006. It allows users to share short messages called tweets. (Isotaulus et al., 2018, p. 9; Clement, 2020a.) The user can make a hashtag on any word by adding the # symbol in front of it. Hashtags make it easier to present and find information, as users can search for information on Twitter using hashtags. Retweeting, or RT, means resending a message to users own set of followers. The user can resend the message as it is or attach their own comments to it. The nature of Twitter is a bit chaotic because the flow of messages is fast, and the number of tweets is huge for large events or news. Twitter is an exceptional service in that it is open, and communication is public. It is also visible to those who have not logged in to Twitter. Any user can follow any user without a separate approval policy. With its openness, Twitter has become particularly popular in politics, journalism, and social influence, but also in sports and entertainment. (Isotaulus et al., 2018, pp. 9–12.) Twitter is used as a news source, to follow certain topics, and as an arena for following the social debate (Isotaulus et al., 2018 p. 17). Instead of interpersonal relationships, Twitter has been seen to being based on sharing information and having information at its center (Virolainen & Luoma-aho, 2018, p. 154). Twitter is currently one of the leading social networks worldwide, and in 2019 it had over 150 million daily active users (Clement, 2020a). Twitter's history has been a time of rapid growth. User and usage numbers have grown rapidly, albeit at a slower pace in recent years. (Isotaulus et al., 2018, p. 12.)

Close to the concept of social media is the term online brand community, which is also related to engagement. Online brand communities can be seen on social media, with two key engagement objects being the focal brand and the community, representing the other consumers in the group (Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2015). The growing popularity of social media and online brand communities has changed the ways consumers engage with brands (Casaló et al., 2008). Online brand communities consist of people united by their interest on a brand regardless of their geographical location. These specialized groups function based on a structured set of social relationships. (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 412.) Online brand communities are seen as engagement platforms between consumers and brands (Breidbach et al., 2014) and an interactive platform for like-minded consumers' communications (Hsu et al., 2012).

Various scholars have brought complementary views to the definition of the online brand community. Hollebeek et al. (2019) presented that individuals' cognitive, emotional, and behavioral investments made in brand-related interactions

occur in online brand communities. Consumers contribute to brand-related content and make (pro)active contributions to brand-related dialogue in online brand communities (Dolan et al., 2016; Maslowska et al., 2016). Customers engage with focal brands and with each other while creating value for oneself and others (Bowden et al, 2017). Online brand communities usually have co-operative and emotional bonds with the focal brand, other members and with the platform according to Brodie et al. (2013). They underlined the complex, multi-dimensional and dynamic nature of consumer engagement in virtual brand communities. Consumer engagement is outlined as an interactive process, including value co-creation among other community participants. Its intensity varies over time, depending on the current state of engagement. Dessart et al. (2015) analysed that individuals are engaging with another and with brands in online communities in social network platforms.

Brodie et al. (2013, p. 105) suggested that consumer engagement includes various sub-processes. These processes reflect consumers' interactive experience within online brand communities and value co-creation among community participants. They also suggest that individuals engage with specific objects (e.g. brands, organizations and other brand community members). Consumer engagement reflects distinct engagement states by emerging at different intensity levels over time. (Brodie et al., 2013, pp. 105, 112.) Dessart (2017) conceptualized social media engagement as a context-specific part of consumer engagement. It is seen as a state that reflects consumers' positive individual dispositions toward a certain brand and community. It presents itself through different levels of affective, cognitive, and behavioral manifestations. (Dessart, 2017.)

In addition, Baldus et al. (2015) demonstrated dimensions of engagement for online brand communities. Dimensions of brand community member motivations are brand influence, brand passion, connecting, helping, like-minded discussion, rewards (hedonic and utilitarian), seeking assistance, self-expression, up-to-date information, and validation. These motivations predict intentions to participate in a brand community relatively steadily over time. (Baldus et al., 2015.) Eight factors have been identified as sources of consumer motivation that motivate consumers to make contributions and engage with online communities. These include venting negative feelings, concern for other consumers, self-enhancement, advice-seeking, social benefits, economic benefits (e.g. cost savings), platform assistance, and helping the company, of which consumers are most affected by social benefits. (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004.)

2.5 Word-of-mouth (WOM)

The term word-of-mouth (WOM) is defined as the flow of communication among consumers about services or products. It includes informal communication to

other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of a particular product, service, or seller. There are three different states of involvement: 1) product involvement, where the user wants to speak about the purchase and the joys it offers, 2) self-involvement, where the user is looking for attention, recognition, or status by speaking about the purchase, and 3) other involvement, where the user attempts to aid other consumers by sharing information or experiences. (Westbrook, 1987, p. 261.)

The term WOM was used especially before the era of the internet and social media. Nowadays, the term eWOM is used more often to refer to WOM on the Internet. Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004, p. 39) define eWOM communication as any kind of positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or past customers about a product or company. In addition, eWOM is available to many people and institutions on the Internet. eWOM communication can take many forms, such as online discussion forums, opinion forums, and newsgroups. Consumers' desire for social interaction and economic incentives, their concern for other consumers, and the potential to enhance their own self-worth are the primary factors leading to eWOM behavior. (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004, p. 39.)

3 NEGATIVE ENGAGEMENT

This chapter focuses on examining negative engagement from different perspectives. First, the concept of negative engagement is defined. The table 2 summarizes and helps to outline the differences between the different concepts. Other concepts and theories related to negative engagement are then discussed in more detail.

3.1 Perspectives on negative engagement

Negative emotions and experiences are not a new phenomenon, but along social media negative engagement has significantly increased on the scholarly agenda. Negative engagement has its roots in several different disciplines. The most relevant of these are communications, marketing, public relations, economics, and psychology. Despite the fragmented concept, a common focus has been on negative emotions and behaviors. Writing negative reviews, organizing antibrand sites and implementing large-scale boycotts are examples of observed negative engagement behaviors. (Lievonen et al., 2018a, pp. 531-533.)

Negative engagement emerges through its own special characteristics, not just as a reversal of positive engagement. Both positive and negative engagement may have affective, cognitive, and behavioral drivers and dimensions, but these are measured and operate distinctively. (Juric et al., 2016, as cited in Naumann et al., 2020.) Both positive and negative engagement hold a high degree of involvement but are driven and manifest variously (Naumann et al., 2020). Negative engagement has a process-driven nature, where the actual engagement behavior is generated through certain triggers, such as dissatisfaction (Brodie et al., 2013).

As stated above, engagement with the online brand communities can be either positively or negatively valenced (Bowden et al., 2017). According to Hollebeek and Chen (2014), negative engagement is expressed through unfavorable characteristics, which include cognitive (e.g. negative brand-related thoughts), emotional (e.g. brand-related dislike), or behavioral (e.g. negative brand-related actions) dimensions. They described positively and negatively valenced brand engagement using a conceptual model (figure 1), where immersion means cognitive engagement, passion means emotional engagement, and activation means behavioral engagement. Johnston (2018, p. 22) has also defined cognitive, affective, and behavioral engagement by considering both the positive and negative dimensions. Instead, from the perspective of negative engagement alone, these dimensions have been less described. However, Naumann, Bowden, and Gabbott

(2020, pp. 1472–1473) focused on defining the affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions of negative customer engagement, as seen in table 2.

In public relations literature from the organizational perspective, negative engagement has been phrased as an experience-based series of participative actions, which contain a public discussion related to negative issues concerning a brand or an organization (Lievonen & Luoma-aho, 2015, p. 288). Therefore, negative engagement can have a significant impact on an organization's intangible assets such as reputation, trust, and legitimacy in the eyes of stakeholders (Luoma-aho & Lievonen, 2017).

Social media communications have a prominent impact on brand equity, in particular brand image and awareness (Bruhn et al., 2012). Negative engagement forms may pose a significant threat to brands on multiple levels (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). For instance, negative engagement in social media also impacts consumers' purchase decision-making process (Hutter et al., 2013). Tirunillai and Tellis (2012) examined that negative user-generated content may achieve profit losses and even negative stock returns to the brand.

Negative engagement can have a contagious effect on other online users' engagement behaviors (Kowalski, 1996). Public complaints on social network sites can spread dissatisfaction and achieve support from other dissatisfied stakeholders (Einwiller & Steilen, 2015.) It was found that information disseminated by a third party through social media provokes publics' emotions like disgust, contempt, and anger, if the crisis origin is internal (Coombs & Holladay, 2005). Also, online firestorm may occur if others join in the complaining (Pfeffer et al., 2014).

In anti-brand communities, the community may begin to reinforce negativity toward the brand affecting consumer attitudes and actions (Bowden et al., 2017). There is a high risk that negative content will be associated with the brand later because online brand communities are linked to the brand (Wirtz et al., 2013). Also, Algesheimer et al. (2005) found that identification with the brand community can lead to either positive or negative consequences. Normative community pressure and (ultimately) reactance may influence the consumer's behavior negatively. (Algesheimer et al., 2005.) It is also possible that entire online brand communities engage negatively (Loureiro & Kaufmann, 2018; Zhou et al., 2020). Zhou et al. (2020) demonstrated that received online social support may enhance happiness, when individuals share negative brand experiences to vent their emotions in online brand communities.

Table 2 summarizes the key concepts related to negative engagement, their definitions, and the main sources of the definitions. The purpose of the table is to illustrate the key theories of chapter 3 and to show how terms are defined in this thesis.

TABLE 2. Different definitions of terms related to negative engagement.

Term	Definition	Article	Definition in this thesis
Negative engagement	"Negative engagement refers to unfavorable organization or brand-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors within some form of a relationship. This phenomenon manifests through a stakeholder's negatively valenced immersion (cognition), passion (affect), and activation (behavior) resulting in focal organization-related denial, rejection, avoidance, and negative WOM."	Lievonen, Luoma-aho & Bowden, 2018a, pp. 531-532	Negative engagement consists of unfavorable organization or brand-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors within some form of a relationship. It can cause negative and/or destructive impact on organization or brand value. Negative engagement manifests through a stakeholder's negatively valenced immersion (cognition), passion (affect), and activation (behavior).
	"Negative engagement online is an experience-based series of participative actions in online environments where negative issues concerning an organization or brand are publicly discussed."	Lievonen & Luoma-aho, 2015, p. 288	
Affective negative customer engagement	Affective negative customer engagement includes feelings of anger and dislike customers hold towards a service relationship.	Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020, p. 1472	Same as Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020
Cognitive negative customer engagement	Cognitive negative customer engagement is the degree of interest and attention paid to negative information about a service brand/community.	Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020, p. 1473	Same as Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020
Behavioral negative customer engagement	Behavioral negative customer engagement manifests through collective complaint and anti-brand activism	Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020, p. 1473	Same as Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020

	towards an organization, like public venting, boycotts, and protests.		
Disengagement	"A process by which a customer-brand relationship experiences a trauma or disturbance which may lead to relationship termination; which involves a range of trigger based events; which varies in intensity and trajectory; which occurs within a specific set of category conditions and which is dependent on prior levels of customer engagement."	Bowden et al. 2015, p. 779	In the engagement continuum from positive to negative, disengagement means the lowest levels of cognitive, affective, or behavioral dimensions in the individual state of engagement. It can manifest as consumers losing interest and passion.
	"Disengagement is where the individual state of engagement represents the lowest levels of cognitive, affective, or behavioral dimensions measured against the engagement continuum. Engagement on a continuum can therefore span from negative to positive levels of each dimension attribute."	Johnston, 2018, p. 22	
Hateholders	"Hateholders are negatively engaged stakeholders who dislike or hate the brand or the organization and harm it via their behaviours. Hateholding does not occur on the level of mere dissatisfaction, but requires a clear target and stimulus, and is often the result of anger. Hateholding is a timely topic, as stakeholders today have several ways of showing their emotion and recruiting	Luoma-aho, 2010; Luoma-aho, 2015, p. 11	Same as Luoma-aho, 2010; Luoma-aho, 2015

	others to join in online. Hateholders emerge often through negative experiences and act out as a result of unresponsiveness from the organizational side, both inside and outside the organization.”		
Negative electronic word-of-mouth (neWOM)	“Negative post that is made available online to other users and is designed to denigrate a product, organization, or brand.”	Lievonen et al., 2018b, p. 4	Same as Lievonen et al., 2018b
Negatively valenced engagement	“Negatively valenced brand engagement is exhibited through consumers’ unfavorable brand-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors during focal brand interactions.”	Hollebeek & Chen, 2014, p. 63	Negatively valenced engagement refers to a consumer’s negatively valenced cognitive, emotional, and behavioral investments during focal brand interactions.
	“Negatively valenced consumer engagement is a consumer’s negatively valenced cognitive, emotional, and behavioral investments in interacting with a focal engagement object/agent.”	Bowden et al., 2017, p. 880; Bowden et al., 2018, p. 494	
Negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB)	“Negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB) is customer contributions of resources such as knowledge, skills, experience, and time to negatively affect other actors’ knowledge, expectations, and perception about a focal service provider.”	Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 469; Azer & Alexander, 2020, p. 363	Same as Azer & Alexander, 2018, 2020

There are several definitions for some of the term’s linked to negative engagement from different researchers, as seen in table 2. Such are the terms negative engagement, disengagement, and negatively valenced engagement, the different

definitions of which are comparable. For this study, one or a combination of two different definitions has been chosen as the definition of the term.

Lievonen, Luoma-aho and Bowden (2018a) emphasize that negative engagement manifests through a stakeholder's negatively valenced immersion (cognition), passion (affect), and activation (behavior). Naumann, Bowden and Gabbott (2020) also distinguish three different dimensions from negative customer engagement: affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions. Affective negative customer engagement includes feelings such as anger and dislike. Cognitive negative customer engagement refers to the degree of interest and attention paid to negative information. Behavioral negative customer engagement manifests through negative behavior, public venting, and boycotts, for instance. (Naumann, Bowden & Gabbott, 2020, pp. 1472–1473.) Instead, the definition of negative engagement in Lievonen and Luoma-aho (2015) highlights the online environment and public debate.

Bowden et al. (2015) define disengagement as a process whose intensity and direction vary and where a certain factor can lead to the termination of a relationship. It is also affected by the previous level of customer engagement. Johnston's (2018) definition of disengagement highlights the continuum of engagement from positive to negative. Hollebeek and Chen (2014) and Bowden et al. (2017, 2018) define negatively valenced engagement essentially similarly, so there are no significant differences in the definitions.

3.2 Disengagement

It is important to distinguish negative engagement from the concept of disengagement. Bowden et al. (2015) perceive customer disengagement as a psychological process which may lead to ending the customer-brand relationship. The conclusion is preceded by a trauma or disturbance which may involve varied trigger-based events. The intensity and trajectory of the process is dependent on prior levels of customer engagement. Disengagement is highly connected with engagement, and prior levels of engagement may accelerate or decelerate the process. (Bowden et al. 2015, pp. 779, 798.)

Johnston (2018, p. 22) complemented prior definition by comparing disengagement to nonengagement with the lowest level of affective, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions. Engagement is seen as a continuum, which can span from disengaged to engaged, as seen in figure 2 (Rissanen & Luoma-aho, 2016, p. 504; Johnston, 2018, p. 229). Disengagement differs from negative engagement in that negative engagement requires a form of passion (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). Disengagement occurs when the consumer loses interest. The cost of engagement can also become too high, or the consumer may have a disappointing experience

without high expectations. (Van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 254.) Motives are very similar in negative engagement and disengagement, but when there is not enough emotion or passion, it usually results in disengagement rather than negative engagement (Rissanen & Luoma-aho, 2016, p. 509; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). Negative engagement combined with disengagement can have a devastating effect on the brand (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014).

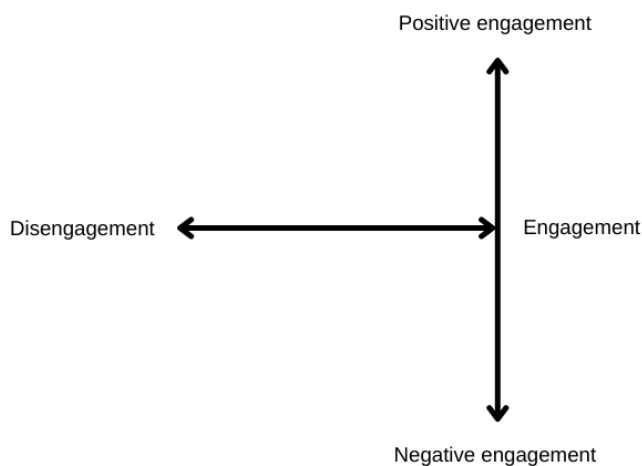


FIGURE 2. The continuum of engagement. The horizontal line depicts the degree of involvement, and the vertical line shows the tone of engagement. (Rissanen & Luoma-aho, 2016, p. 505.)

3.3 Hateholders

Hateholders are negatively engaged stakeholders, who are at high risk of harming organizations via their behaviors (Luoma-aho, 2010). Hateholders hate or dislike the organization or the brand, and they emerge often through negative experiences. Hateholding has a clear target and stimulus, so it is not only dissatisfaction. Hateholders' expressions of anger vary in severity from venting to taking revenge on an organization. In the online environment, fast spreading negative word of mouth may have major consequences. Once forgotten issues may re-vitalize in the online environment, which acts as a collective memory. Expectations can cause negative emotions, such as anger and dissatisfaction. Negative engagement is a consequence of negative emotions especially when an organization or individual is assumed to be blamed for an event or failure. (Luoma-aho, 2015, pp. 11–12.)

3.4 Negative electronic word-of-mouth (neWOM)

Previous literature has distinguished between the concepts word-of-mouth (WOM), negative word-of-mouth (nWOM), electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) and negative electronic word-of-mouth (neWOM). neWOM is a form of negative engagement and it is a central concept relating to negative communication online. The drivers of negative eWOM are related to certain forms of negative engagement: experiences, motives, and emotions. It is described as a negative online post that is designed to harm the reputation of a product, organization, or brand. It should also be visible to other users in online environment. (Lievonon et al., 2018b.)

Although nWOM is based on the definition of negative engagement, there are also differences. In negative engagement, experiences may be either personal or shared with others through some medium (Lievonon & Luoma-aho, 2015). Negative engagement is a process and a relationship between an organization and an individual, and it can change and vary between positive and negative (Bowden et al., 2015).

The reason for customer complaint is usually a real or perceived injustice or wrong (Einwiller & Steilen, 2015). Lievonon et al. (2018b) observed that venting and revenge are the main motives for negative eWOM. Customers usually felt anger, frustration, and irritation, which could easily generate more destructive forms of negative eWOM. Fast spreading neWOM can cause problems for targeted organizations. (Lievonon et al., 2018b.) Negative posts and messages could be contagious (Kowalski, 1996) and remain online long after the original publication (Coombs & Holladay, 2007). Sometimes negative and even false information about organizations is disseminated (Pfeffer et al., 2014). For an individual, electronic WOM often becomes a key aspect of the overall brand experience (Lievonon et al., 2018b). Negative eWOM affects more strongly on customer's brand evaluations than positive WOM (Oliver, 1997, as cited in Do et al., 2019). It is more advocacy-based (Brodie et al., 2013), which increases its influence. When receiving social media messages, emotional tone is crucial (Doyle & Lee, 2016).

For example, a product-harm crisis is newsworthy and may generate negative eWOM in social media. It refers to an event, where products are defective and therefore dangerous for at least some customers but also for reputation of brand and organizations. Customers may feel violated and lose trust, even though there is no physical harm. (Cleeren et al., 2017.) Mass service failures may even fundamentally change the customer relationship with the brand or organization (Harmeling et al., 2015). Spillover effect also occurs, when a product-harm crisis in one category spreads over to all categories with a particular name and tarnishes the brand's overall image (Cleeren et al., 2017).

3.5 Negatively valenced engagement

Hollebeek and Chen (2014) addressed positively and negatively valenced brand engagement, between which it may vary. Naumann et al. (2017a; 2017b) suggested that customer engagement can have several valences, which can be fluid. Three different valences can be identified: positive engagement, disengagement, and negative engagement (Naumann et al., 2017b). Each valence operates through the dimensions of affect, cognition, and behavior (Naumann et al., 2017a). In addition, Lievonon (2020, p. 12) perceived the valences of engagement as a continuum.

Negatively valenced engagement includes individual's perceived unfavorable cognitive responses, such as critical object-related thoughts. Part of the phenomenon are the consumers' emotional responses (e.g. expressions of object dislike) and behavioral inclinations (e.g. negative WOM). (Bowden et al., 2018.) Negative valenced-engagement usually leads to active and sustained venting of negative emotions. At the same time, individual seeks social support from like-minded constituents and tries to convince and convert others to one's beliefs. In addition, revenge may also be possible. (Juric et al., 2016, as cited in Bowden et al., 2018.) For example, negative WOM, boycotting the brand and establishing an antibrand community are typical manifestations of the negatively valenced engagement (Turner, 2007).

Negatively valenced consumer brand engagement is outlined as a consumers' unfavorable brand-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. These phenomena occur during brand interactions as well. Negative consumer brand engagement may have destructive impact on brand value and reputation via customer's negative word-of-mouth and potential retaliation. (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014.) Bowden et al. (2017) also define negatively valenced consumer engagement as a consumer's negatively valenced cognitive, emotional, and behavioral investments. These phenomena emerge during or related to interactions with focal objects or agents. (Bowden et al., 2017.)

3.6 Negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB)

According to Azer and Alexander (2018), influencing behavior is one specific form of customer engagement behavior. It refers to customers spending time and effort to change other peoples' knowledge and view about certain firm, brand, or service. (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). Customer's choices and opinions influence others about products and services (Dholakia et al, 2004) and they rely in each other to get authoritative information (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). Customers

engage in influencing behavior to punish or reward organizations for a given customer experience by warning or recommending others (Alexander & Jaakkola, 2016).

Influencing behavior should be distinguished from other communication activities, like WOM (Azer & Alexander, 2018). When customers engage in influencing behaviors, they have an intention to affect other customers' behavior, feelings and thinking about focal firms and service providers (Zimbardo & Leippe, 1991, as cited in Azer & Alexander, 2018). In the process, customers contribute resources (e.g. time and experience) and use different communication tools (e.g. WOM and online reviews) to share this behavior with other customers (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014).

Azer and Alexander (2018; 2020) developed a theory of negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB) on online review sites. They described the concept as customer-based resources such as knowledge and time spent on negatively affecting other peoples' opinion or perception about specific service provider. (Azer & Alexander, 2020.) Influencing behavior occurs in a range of mediums, such as e-WOM (e.g. online reviews), which are used to spread influence (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). NVIB is contagious and viral in nature in an online environment. It can cause short or long-term financial and reputational detrimental outcomes for brands and organizations. (Bowden et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2016.)

Customers engage in NVIB to influence thinking, feeling, and behavior of others towards service providers (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). They may have a negative influence on other actors' attitudes and behavioral intentions about these providers (Bowden et al., 2017; Schaeffers & Schamari, 2016; Wunderlich et al., 2013). From previous research, customers' attitudes consist of service or product evaluation. It includes their experiences, perceptions, and knowledge (Wunderlich et al., 2013) and if experiences are lacking, expectations determine customers' attitudes (Oliver, 1980).

NVIB is dependent on certain triggers (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014, p. 256). Triggers can be characterized as factors or events experienced by customers that change the basis of a relationship. Customers change their evaluation of an offering or service, which affects the valence of customer engagement behavior. (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Juric et al., 2016, as cited in Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 480.) Azer and Alexander (2018, p. 480) identified five triggers of negatively valenced influencing behavior, which include namely, service failure, overpricing, deception, disappointment, and insecurity. These triggers have both cognitive and emotional roots (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 481). The most interesting triggers for this study are service failure and disappointment. Service failure is a critical incident, when a focal service does not meet customer expectations (Edvardsson, 1992; Lewis and McCann, 2004). Disappointment occurs when a focal service

disconfirms customers' previously held expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004).

According to Azer and Alexander (2020, 2018), NVIB can occur directly or indirectly. In direct NVIB, other actors are addressed in reviews, and they are advised to do or not to do something. In indirect NVIB, negative experience is shared without explicitly advising other actors. In total, NVIB can occur in six forms: directly (dissuading, endorsing competitors, and warning behaviors) and indirectly (discrediting, regretting, and deriding behaviors). (Azer & Alexander, 2020, 2018) as seen in table 3.

TABLE 3. Different forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior (Azer & Alexander, 2018, pp. 477–479).

NVIBs	Definitions	Exemplars
Indirect NVIB		
Discrediting behaviour	Literal report of functional details of substandard service to discredit a service provider without explicitly addressing other actors in online reviews	<i>'Unfortunately, the facilities haven't been updated. Peeling paint, noisy, food was awful. None of the staff was able to do anything without the manager's approval who conveniently was never available. A truly horrible place'</i>
Regretting behaviour	Communication of emotions of regret for choosing a service provider without explicitly addressing other actors in online reviews	<i>'When I spent my night in this hotel it was my worst experience. I regretted my decision and I will not stay there again'</i>
Deriding behaviour	Usage of sarcasm to deride a service provider without explicitly addressing other actors in online reviews	<i>'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'</i>
Direct NVIB		
Dissuading behaviour	Explicit advice to convince other actors not to transact with a focal provider stressing on opposition to and the refusal of a focal provider	<i>'The waiter was way too busy to listen to us and brought us vegetarian food we didn't want or order. The food was greasy and expensive. No one cared that it wasn't what we ordered. Do not eat here'</i>
Endorsing competitors behaviour	Explicit recommendation of one or more competitors to other actors, over service providers	<i>'If you are up for all you can eat in Port Madero, go to Gourmet Porteno better than this restaurant by far'</i>
Warning behaviour	Warning other actors of a probable risk based on a perilous service experience.	<i>'WARNING!! BEWARE! Absolutely HORRIFYING!! We originally planned to stay for 2 nights, ended up staying for one only. As we ran away the receptionist then picked up a heavy glass ashtray to throw at us'</i>

This frame of analysis was chosen because it allows consideration of different intensity levels in negative engagement. Instead of focusing only on what people say about the organization, the focus is also on how they say it. The analysis framework thus provides a more nuanced overview of negative engagement. It addresses the impact of how people engage in different forms of NVIB in online reviews. The analysis framework also highlights the heterogeneity of different forms of NVIB. (Azer & Alexander, 2020, pp. 361–362.)

3.6.1 Indirect forms of NVIB

Indirect forms of NVIB include discrediting, expressing regret and deriding. These forms are used when people do not address others explicitly in their messages, or directly advise them not to deal with certain service providers. Brands or organizations are discredited by contributing resources such as experience, knowledge, skills, or time to the task. People can deride a focal provider based on their experiences or express regret for choosing them. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 477.) Customers can also share their negative experiences without directly advising other actors what not to do (Azer & Alexander, 2020, p. 364).

Discrediting service providers refers to a situation where people share their negative experiences and report on the details of substandard service. Detailed negative experiences are shared literally without expressing any emotions. For example, people can evaluate the quality and functionality of service and the staff of an organization. Other people are not directly addressed or advised to avoid the service provider. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, pp. 477–478; 2020, p. 364.)

Regret about choosing a particular service provider is expressed without explicitly addressing other people. Instead of sharing detailed experiences about service, focus is on communicating regret to others. Other people's perception and knowledge about a focal service provider may change because of the embedded emotions of regret within online reviews. Therefore, expressing regret plays a powerful role in arousing an avoidance motivation. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 478; 2020, p. 364.)

For example, the use of sarcasm or mockery of a focal service provider are manifestations of the deriding form. It is based on negative experiences and comments that do not explicitly address other people. Sarcasm shifts the meaning of positive or negative speech to its opposite. Sometimes customers can use clever wordplay to replace literal meanings with more memorable and retainable non-literal ones for great effect. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, pp. 478–479.) For example, one might criticize Disneyland by saying *More like Dismayland!*

3.6.2 Direct forms of NVIB

Direct forms of NVIB include dissuading, warning, and endorsing competitors. These forms are used when people address other people explicitly in their messages by dissuading or warning them to avoid certain providers based on their unsatisfactory or perilous experiences. Competitors can be endorsed by encouraging others to support certain service providers. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 479.) By directly addressing other actors in reviews, customers advise each other what not to do (Azer & Alexander, 2020, p. 364).

Dissuading means discouraging others to transact with a focal firm or service provider by addressing other people directly. Someone tries to convince others not to deal with the organization based on a detailed unfavourable experience. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 479.) Dissuading encompasses literal opposition (Azer & Alexander, 2020, p. 366).

Warning means severely alarming others against a service provider based on a perilous experience. When there is evidence or concerns about risk, a person warns others explicitly. Warning differs from the other forms of NVIB by having reviews kept as short as possible and using capital letters, which highlights the alert message. Simple and affirmative sentences are used, which are known to be easier to understand than passive and negative ones. It is not so much about sharing experiences, as it is about warning others by emphasizing the issues of risk, peril, and insecurity. The warning form is focused entirely on warning others. The dissuading form on the other hand has people detailing their experiences, in addition to advising others not to transact with focal service providers. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 479; 2020, p. 366.)

When endorsing competitors, rivals are promoted for others over a focal service provider. Then a writer directly addresses others, attempting to actively recommend one or more competitors over the focal providers. People encourage others to choose competitors over a focal provider by recommending them and making them more attractive. When endorsing competitors, people do not share their detailed experiences or directly dissuade others from transacting with the organization. Providing alternatives influences the commitment of others to a focal provider. (Azer & Alexander, 2018, pp. 479–480.)

4 SPILLOVER EFFECT

This chapter discusses the spread of discussion on social media through spillover theory. Coping strategies are then explored to understand what coping techniques the audience uses to manage the stress and to understand the crisis. After that, public places of interaction are examined through issue arenas theory. Finally, the concept of paracrisis and how it can affect an organization is introduced.

4.1 Spillover effect as a phenomenon

This thesis investigates the spillover effect between social media channels, so it is essential to get to know the phenomenon in more detail. Bowden et al. (2017, pp. 879, 892) illustrated that negative customer engagement with strong emotions carries the risk of creating a spillover effect onto other customers. Positively valenced engagement has accumulation effects and negatively valenced engagement has detraction effects. Consumer brand engagement can either strengthen or weaken depending on whether it is a positive or negative engagement spillover effect. (Bowden et al., 2017, pp. 879, 892.) Naumann et al. (2017b, pp. 890–901) also observed that positive customer engagement added positive value to the overall relationship, while the emotional contagion of negative engagement detracts the entire service ecosystem.

The spillover effect can be perceived through associative network theory (Collins & Loftus, 1975; Anderson, 1983). This cognitive model assumes that human memory consists of long-known principles of association. Thinking about two things at the same time can make them linked in memory. Afterwards when thinking about one of the things, the other may also come to mind. Memory is observed as a metaphorical network of cognitive concepts interconnected by links. Between pairs of concepts the association is strengthened when they are activated simultaneously by external stimuli, such as personal experiences. Spillover effect refers to spreading activation between related concepts and the strengthening of associations. (Collins & Loftus, 1975; Anderson, 1983; Wang & Korschun, 2015).

Spillover effect can be found in different marketing activities (Wang & Korschun, 2015) and negative brand information has been the focus of prior research (Trump & Newman, 2017). For example, perspective has been inside the brand portfolio (Lei et al., 2008), within the brand (Borah & Tellis, 2016) and in the brand community (Bowden et al., 2017). Spillover effect and brand related ethical perceptions (Trump & Newman, 2017) and social responsibility (Wang & Korschun, 2015) has also been studied. Borah and Tellis (2016) saw negative spillover as a

chain reaction, where negative chatter about one nameplate increases the negativity concerning another nameplate. Bowden et al. (2017) highlighted the capacity of engagement to spillover from one object (e.g. online brand community) to another (e.g. brand). The spread of the discussion from one social media channel to another can be viewed through the concept of spillover effect as well, as seen in figure 3.

Borah and Tellis (2016) discovered that spillover effect exists both for nameplates within the same brand and for nameplates across brands. The direction of the effect is asymmetric and spillover effect is stronger from a dominant brand to a less dominant brand than the other way around. Spillover effect also affects sales and stock market performance, and online discussion increases the negative effect. (Borah & Tellis, 2016.) Lei et al. (2008) examined the negative spillover of product-harm crises in brand portfolios. They found that strength and directionality of brand association influence the pattern of spillover. The number of associations linked to each brand and the salience of these associations affect the strength and the directionality of brand linkages. They show that the amount of spillover between brands is linked to the strength of the brand associations and to their directionality. The power of linkages between brands and their products or product categories predicts well the amount of spillover. (Lei et al., 2008.)

Bowden et al. (2017) examined spillover effect between consumers' engagement with the online brand communities and their engagement with the brand. They found that spillover effects may vary from an enhancing to a detraction effect. Negatively valenced engagement with the online brand communities reduced consumer brand engagement and spillover effect, while positively valenced engagement enhanced it. In addition, they show that consumers' engagement valence may vary among interrelated engagement objects, for example a brand and the online brand communities. Also variously valenced forms of engagement can co-exist within an individual. The study shows how consumers display a range of negatively valenced engagement expressions, such as temporary boycott, antagonist confrontation and negative commentary directed at specific online brand communities' members. Negative engagement with online brand communities had a detraction effect by spilling over to the brand. As a result, consumers recognize a reduction in their overall brand engagement. (Bowden et al., 2017.)

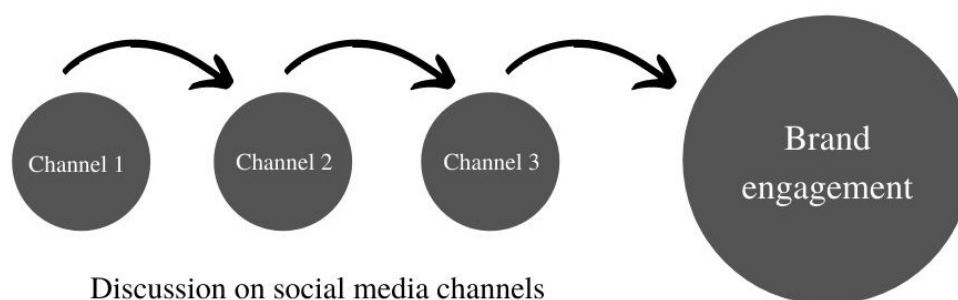


FIGURE 3. Brand-related negative engagement on social media spills from one channel to another and spilling over to the brand.

4.2 Coping strategies

Negative engagement is the result of negative emotions such as disappointment or anger. Task-centered and emotion-centered coping techniques are used consciously to manage the stress caused by the situation and to understand the crisis. Jin (2010) took a cognitive appraisal approach to crisis communication, that focuses on understanding public's emotions and other crisis responses. The cognitive appraisal theory highlights the public's perspective in crises better than the traditional organizational and situational perspective. (Jin, 2010.)

The theory is based on the idea, that people cope with stressful situations like crises differently (Lazarus, 1991, p. 112) and people's emotional manifestations vary in different situations (Duhachek, 2005, pp. 41–42). Lazarus (1991, p. 112) defines coping as managing specific external or internal demands and conflicts between them. These demands are taxing or exceeding to the resources of the person. Coping consists of cognitive and behavioral efforts, and it affects emotional processes. Duhachek (2005, p. 42) defined coping as a set of cognitive and behavioral processes, which aim to lowering the stress levels and generating more desirable emotional states.

Instead of passive reception, publics actively engage in a variety of coping strategies to make the crisis understandable, to adjust their way of thinking and to reduce stress (Jin, 2010). Duhachek (2005, pp. 44–46) identifies eight types of public's coping strategies: action, rational thinking, emotional support, instrumental support, emotional venting, avoidance, positive thinking, and denial. Jin (2010, p. 529) groups these strategies into three categories as seen in the table 4. The categories are cognitive coping (rational thinking, positive thinking, avoidance, denial), conative coping (action, instrumental support), and affective coping (emotional support, emotional venting). These public's coping strategies can be used in public relations context. (Jin, 2010, p. 526.)

In this study, the analysis framework uses a division provided by Duhachek (2005) and Jin (2010) into coping categories, used to view the spillover effect (table 4). The spillover effect is seen to be mediated by the coping strategies used by the public. This frame of analysis was chosen because it helps to identify the emotional needs of the public and the coping strategies used in the crisis. Instead of an organization-centric approach, the public perspective is at the centre of this analysis framework, which is relevant when examining consumer social media

comments. Table 4 shows the analysis framework used in the division of the coping categories and the examination of the spillover effect.

TABLE 4. Coping strategy framework of spillover effect (Duhachek, 2005, pp. 44–46; Jin, 2010, p. 529).

Cognitive coping	Conative coping	Emotional coping
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rational thinking • Positive thinking • Avoidance • Denial 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Action • Instrumental support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional support • Emotional venting

Cognitive coping strategies are used to acquiring information and understanding a crisis situation (Jin, 2010, p. 529). Rational thinking is defined as a deliberate attempt to prevent subjective emotions from directing behavior. For example, consumers control their feelings and cope by being rational and objective. Positive thinking strategies seek to psychologically construct a source of stress in a way that makes it more tolerable and less harmful. The consumer tries to look at things from a positive perspective. Avoidance means trying to create psychic or physical distance between oneself and the stressor. This coping allows a person to get their mind off the problem and to focus on doing other things. Denial coping means seeking complete mental closure from a source of stress. This includes a complete elimination of stressors, so that their negative effects on the consumer are reduced. (Duhachek, 2005, pp. 44–46.)

Conative coping focuses on acting to resolve a crisis situation (Jin, 2010, p. 529). Coping by action refers to direct, objective attempts to handle the stress. It utilizes methods, such as problem solving and seeking information. Instrumental support means an effort to assemble social resources and activities to alleviate the stressor. It involves asking for help from others to bring about objective change, which directly relieves the stressful situation. Emotional support is seen as an effort to share social resources to improve an emotional and mental state. For example, consumers seek out others for comfort. Emotional venting coping means trying to identify and express one's emotions by letting the feelings show. (Duhachek, 2005, pp. 44–46.)

The effects of crisis predictability and controllability appraisals on publics' emotional responses are also examined in the cognitive appraisal theory. Coping strategy preferences, and their acceptance of different organizational crisis responses are also considered. In predictable and uncontrollable crises, cognitive coping is preferred. When it comes to unpredictable and uncontrollable crises, conative and emotional coping styles are preferred. Publics usually experience more anger, when they perceive the crisis as controllable and predictable, and when organization is seen as responsible. (Jin, 2010, pp. 545–546.)

The cognitive appraisal theory can improve corporate crisis communication. It aims to increase mutual understanding and bridge the gap between organization's responses and publics' coping strategies. Communication can be more effective when various emotions with different intensity experienced by publics are identified, and their emotional needs and coping strategy preferences are understood. Organizations can become coping facilitators of public and use both sensible and reasonable strategies. (Jin, 2010, pp. 547–548.)

4.3 Issue arenas and sub-arenas

Number of potential issue arenas has increased with the growth of social media. Luoma-aho and Vos (2010) suggested that corporate communication is less predictable and controllable in issue arenas. Stakeholders and organizations discuss an issue online and in traditional media, and these public places of interaction are called issue arenas. Stakeholders and organizations are both interested in issues and ideas that are discussed in issues arenas. The concept represents a paradigm shift where the organization is no longer in control and at the centre. The focus shifts to issues and discussions, monitoring and dialogue. The environment is dynamic, more complex, and it changes quicker. (Luoma-aho & Vos, 2010.)

Each arena has several different actors. Active actors want to get on stage and have a say on the issue, while passive actors want to remain passive offstage, in the audience. Stakeholders' opinions quickly dominate the arena if an organization's point of view is missing. An organization usually needs to participate simultaneously in several issue arenas with several stakeholders. Actors might be active in one arena and passive in another at the same time. The level of activity in different arenas can vary and shift from one to another when time passes. The reputation of the organization depends on what is going on between the actors in the different issue arenas. (Luoma-aho & Vos, 2010.)

Pang et al. (2014) analysed how crises transit from social media to mainstream media. The subjective views of network users were the origin of the accusations made against an organization. The online accusations were more likely to be shared and escalated if they were in line with a pre-existing negative view of the organization or if they resonated with already existing negative experiences with organization by stakeholders. A substantial novelty factor could lead the issues to becoming viral even if other stakeholders do not believe in the accusations. Examples are cases involving celebrities, or if the message contains human interest elements. (Pang et al., 2014.)

It appears that in the mainstream media, conventional news values are still prevailing. Stakeholders' grievances in online media will transit onto mainstream media only if they meet the required newsworthiness criteria. Inherent news

elements include for instance celebrity factor, human interest and conflict, policies, novelty, and massive customer dissatisfaction. If the accusation was not challenged online by providing a prompt, suitable or adequate response, issues can transit onto mainstream media. Reputational damage can be mitigated if the accusation is responded to quickly and reducing insult, on the same social media platforms. Organization's response and stakeholder's satisfaction with the response affect whether the discussion continues or dies on the social media. (Pang et al., 2014.)

Coombs and Holladay (2014) examined stakeholder reactions to crisis communication messages in social medial channels, which are outlined as sub-arenas. In discussions of social media and crisis communication, the organization has been often at the centre of the review. However, the publics dominate the creation and use of social media channels. Social media provides public places for both the organization's voice and other voices to communicate about the crisis and crisis-related messages. (Coombs & Holladay, 2014.)

Frandsen and Johansen (2007, 2010a, 2010b) defined the rhetorical arena model for examining the multi-vocal approach to crises. The publics or receivers of the crisis messages may turn into crisis communicators within the rhetorical arena. All actors who talk about the crisis and respond to talk about the crisis are defined as crisis communicators. Thus, the crisis is affected by multiple voices in addition to the official organizational voice. Various actors enter into a rhetorical arena, which opens around a crisis, and engage in communication about a crisis. (Frandsen & Johansen, 2007, 2010a, 2010b.) This communication may occur before a crisis arises, as in the case of the paracrisis (Coombs & Holladay, 2012). According to Coombs and Holladay (2014), the rhetorical arena is a macro level of analysis that identifies the key voices in crisis communication and relationships between those voices.

Coombs and Holladay (2014) extended the idea of multi-vocal to multi-arena through fragmented media environment. Sub-arenas refer to multiple rhetorical arenas where the crisis is discussed in social media. A sub-arena is a limited space for a message and associated voices of crisis communicators. Crisis communicators on social media might become information-providers (e.g. first-hand accounts of experiences), critics (e.g. criticizing the organization) or supporters (e.g. praising the organization). (Coombs & Holladay, 2014.)

4.4 Paracrisis

The #Chargegate issue is an example of a crisis which can also be examined through the term paracrisis. Coombs and Holliday (2012) conceptualized the term paracrisis, which can have serious impact on the organization's stakeholder

relationships. A publicly observable crisis threat that charges an organization with unethical or irresponsible behavior is defined as a paracrisis. A paracrisis is combined with the challenge crisis, identified as a specific form of prodrome. Stakeholders petition the organization and make demands to change unethical or irresponsible behavior of the organization. A paracrisis is identified primarily as a threat to reputation because negative information threatens the reputation of the organization. (Coombs & Holladay, 2012.)

Social media has increased the emergence of paracrises and the need for quick and appropriate actions. Paracrisis requires action from the organization, but it does not require a crisis team to be convened and operate as in a crisis situation. It is difficult to determine which paracrisis messages are spreading and damaging the reputation of the organization. The public nature of paracrises make them unique crises because paracrises and threat management are visible to stakeholders. Stakeholders are also able to evaluate how management responds to paracrisis, which can affect the organization's reputation. (Coombs & Holladay, 2012.)

5 DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces the research questions, the subject of the case study, and the selection of data. In addition, research ethics in social media data and research methods are reviewed.

5.1 Research questions

This thesis examines brand-related negative engagement and spillover effect on social media. The case study analyses and compares a discussion about the Apple brand in different social media channels. The purpose of the study is to describe different forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB) and its spread from one channel to another. The spillover effect theory is used to show how the discussion has spread across different social media channels. The spillover effect is examined through coping categories, and which coping methods are used in discussions. The study aims to deepen the understanding of negative customer engagement towards a brand on social media. This thesis examines the following research questions:

RQ1: What forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior are used on social media channels?

RQ2: How does the spillover effect appear on social media channels?

Of the social media channels, the research focuses on YouTube, Twitter, and Instagram. The first research question refers to the division provided by Azer and Alexander (2020, 2018), into forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB). The analysis framework used distinguishes six different forms of NVIB: direct (dissuading, endorsing competitors, and warning behaviors) and indirect (discrediting, regretting, and deriding behaviors) (Azer & Alexander, 2018, pp. 477–479). The second research question addresses the spillover effect through the coping strategy framework developed by Duhachek (2005) and Jin (2010). The analysis framework used is divided into three main categories (cognitive, conative, and emotional coping) with eight subcategories.

5.2 The #Chargegate

This case study analyses the phenomenon called #Chargegate, which refers to a charging problem with Apple iPhone XS. People were unable to charge their phones, which triggered a phenomenon called #Chargegate in September and

October 2018. Normally the device starts charging immediately, when it is plugged in. During the problem, iPhone XS did not start charging when plugged in while screen was off. Charging initiated only after tapping the screen to wake up the device, or sometimes by picking it up. Sometimes devices became unresponsive when plugged in or refused to charge at all. In these cases, the device did not interact normally until after a restart. (Macey, 2018.) In October 2018, Apple released a new update for iOS to address the issue (Prigg, 2018).

The issue caused discussion on social media channels with the hashtag #chargegate. At first, video blogger Lewis Hilsenteger demonstrated the issue by posting a video in his Unbox Therapy channel on YouTube ("Apple silent", 2018). Unbox Therapy channel appraises and evaluates current technology in the tech marketplace (Stephen, 2019) and it has over 17 million subscribers on YouTube in November 2020. Hilsenteger continued to cover #Chargegate also on his Instagram and Twitter Unbox Therapy channels and the conversation spread from one channel to another.

Apple Inc. is an American technology company founded in 1976. It develops, designs, and sells computers, smartphones, tablets, computer peripherals and computer software. In 2007 Apple launched a smartphone called the iPhone that was able to play MP3s and videos and access the Internet. (Levy, 2021.) In the first year that iPhone was on the market, it sold nearly 1,4 million copies. Over 10 years later, BBC News describes the impact of the iPhone on modern mobile communication as unquestionable and unmatched. Nowadays Apple has a strong brand and a loyal customer base, and iPhones are still in strong demand worldwide. (Porter, 2018.)

5.3 Data selection

This study uses secondary data that has been analyzed by the researcher herself. The research material has been collected at the Jyväskylä University School of Business and Economics during the year 2018. The data consists of social media postings and related comments on YouTube, Instagram, and Twitter. These three platforms were chosen because the discussion over the #Chargegate phenomenon was active on these channels. In addition, these three platforms are widely known and represent the most popular social media channels (Tankovska, 2021), making them an interesting area for research.

The data from YouTube and Instagram has been collected from the Unbox Therapy channel. Comments from Twitter have been collected with the hashtag #chargegate. The secondary data was pre-compiled into Excel spreadsheets for each of the channels. Therefore, this research work included taking a sample from those spreadsheets.

The original, previously compiled data consisted a total of 57 183 comments. In this study, the original data was limited to 600 comments, with 200 comments selected from each social media channel. Following Puusa and Juuti (2020, p. 85), the principles of qualitative research were considered when limiting the size of the material. In qualitative research, scientificity depends on the quality and not the quantity. The most important thing is the researcher's ability to interpret the selected cases and make conceptual generalizations from them. (Puusa & Juuti, 2020, p. 85.)

The data was collected manually in chronological order from the oldest to the newest, because the interest is in the beginning of a conversation on each channel. Lewis Hilsenteger posted the video *The iPhone XS Has A Serious Problem...* on YouTube on 29.9.2018, when the #Chargegate phenomenon began. Selected comments have been published between 29.9.2018–6.10.2018, with a period of 8 days after that. This period was chosen because it describes how the discussion began on different social media channels.

The beginning of the discussion was timed differently in different channels. On YouTube and Instagram, the first 200 comments are from September 29, 2018, while the first 200 comments on Twitter are from October 1–6, 2018. This means that there has been less discussion on Twitter, and it has started later and more slowly. On YouTube and Instagram, the conversation began the day before and it has been plentiful and active from the beginning. However, the difference between the time points is not large, so it is not seen as problematic for the study.

Comments were selected from the data which was in English and fit the framework of the NVIB analysis (Azer & Alexander, 2018). In addition, two new NVIB categories were created based on the data: emotional expression and sharing information. This solution was needed because there were no similar categories in the analysis framework of Azer and Alexander. However, the forms of emotional expression and sharing information stand out from the material, so they were made into their own, new categories. The emotional expression and sharing information categories were placed in indirect NVIB formats.

Comments that did not fit into any of the analysis framework categories or two new categories were excluded. The same data was used to review the spillover effect and the coping categories. It was also used to examine both the NVIB and the spillover effect, as this provided a comprehensive picture of the data. Placing data in both categories was not as problematic as might have been expected. This was because there were some similarities in the categories of both analysis frameworks. For example, the NVIB category discrediting resembled the coping category rational thinking because in both, customers shared detailed negative experiences without expressing any emotions. To improve the consistency of the analysis frames, two new categories were added to the NVIB analysis frame: emotional expression and sharing information.

5.4 Research ethics in social media data

The use of social media data has become more common in research. Public online discussions are published information that can be used as research data. (Laaksonen, 2017.) However, the use of social media as research material requires expertise to ensure, that the conditions for ethical research are met (Laaksonen, 2018). The research should also consider the terms of use related to social media platforms as well as copyright issues (Kosonen et al., 2018, p. 118).

A special feature of the analysis of social media data is that the material almost inevitably involves personal information. For example, a username alone is sufficient to identify the user. Therefore, the research must consider both the legislation on the processing of personal data and the ethical principles of human research. The guidelines include the protection of the integrity of the subject under investigation and the prevention of harm, as well as the protection of privacy and data protection. (Laaksonen, 2017.)

Informed consent is often at the heart of ethical debate. The code of ethics for humanities of the Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity recalls that the principle of informed consent may be deviated from when examining published and public data. From this perspective, the use of social media materials does not require the consent of the subject if the material is publicly available. (Laaksonen & Salonen, 2018.) In the context of social media, technically public material means updates made available to everyone for example, on open discussion platforms or in groups. Instead, clearly private materials include private messages or messages in closed groups. The line between private and public is still volatile, and it depends on both the research topic and the sensitivity of the materials. (Kosonen et al., 2018, pp. 119–120.) The data used in this study is collected from open discussion platforms.

The Code of Ethics, published by the Association of Internet Researchers AoIR, emphasizes discretionary consideration. The more vulnerable the participant, community or author is, the more precisely the researcher's duty is to protect the participant, community, or author. (Markham & Buchanan, 2012.) The context of the material and the measures and choices made in the analysis determine whether the collection of social media material is detrimental to the subject. Anonymisation of material is a traditional way of protecting the rights of the subjects. (Laaksonen, 2017.)

The General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) became enforceable 25 May 2018. The GDPR aims to harmonize data protection legislation in EU countries, and it concerns the collection and processing of personal data registers. Any information which can be linked to a natural person may be considered personal data. (Pöyry, 2018.) Social media material should also be treated as personal data

(Laaksonen, 2017). Because of the GDPR, anonymization of data is recommended whenever possible (Pöyry, 2018). Therefore, anonymization of the data has also been chosen in this study.

The identity of the subjects is not relevant information for the research problem of this study. Only the social media comment itself is significant. To ensure anonymization, both usernames and comments have been excluded from the analysis of the data in this thesis. Laaksonen (2017) reminds that the data collected from the public network can be found by a search based only on textual content. For example, a tweet and its sender can be found on Twitter using a search engine. Although the data samples would improve the argumentation of the analysis, they have been omitted to ensure the anonymity of the subjects.

5.5 Methods

Methodological solutions are justified by research practices. In this study, qualitative content analysis is used as a method because of the interest in language as a means of communication. The qualitative research approach is suitable for studying phenomena based on consciousness, human interaction and the language that structures it (Puusa & Juuti, 2020, p. 77). Qualitative content analysis is a usable method when examining rich data, verbal or visual, that requires interpretation (Schreier, 2012, p. 3), or when the content of a communication is examined (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 53–54).

5.5.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research is an empirical type of research. Qualitative research is about the way empirical analysis examines observational data and argues. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 27.) The aim is to understand or explain the phenomena (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 33). Qualitative research does not aim for statistical generalizations. Instead, qualitative research seeks, for example, to describe a phenomenon or event, to understand a particular activity, or to give a theoretically meaningful interpretation for a phenomenon. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 98.) According to Töttö (2000) qualitative research focuses nowadays on data analysis rather than data collection.

Qualitative research process is flexible, adaptive, inductive, and case-oriented (Schreier 2012, pp. 22–26). Nothing can be taken for granted, but the obvious should be questioned. The focus of research is on the ways in which people produce meanings and social order in different contexts. (Juhila, n.d.) Qualitative research requires interpretation, which may vary depending on the interpreter

or the context. Material is symbolic and research questions deal with personal or social meanings. (Schreier 2012, p. 21.)

The subjects are treated as actors with subjectivity and not as subjects of the study without an opinion on their activities. Subjects have personal experiences, goals, and the ability to produce meanings, that is, personal, collective or social subjectivity. Research focuses on the meanings present in people's actions or the meanings they give to their internal experiences. (Juhila, n.d.)

While quantitative research strives for objectivity, qualitative research is reflexive. The researcher is involved in producing the data and findings. (Schreier 2012, p. 23.) The researcher's own subject must be identified and accepted. The goals and meanings that a researcher attaches to his or her research influence his or her interpretations. The researcher must reflect on his or her own place and be aware of his or her own prior commitments and perceptions related to the research and the subject under study. (Juhila, n.d.)

Qualitative research is related to humanities, while quantitative research is linked to natural sciences. The basis of qualitative research is phenomenological-hermeneutic, while quantitative research stems from positivism. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 73.) Despite this, confrontation between qualitative and quantitative research is unnecessary (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 73; Puusa & Juuti, 2020, p. 75). The key difference is that quantitative research involves the assumption that the subject is independent of theory and the researcher. The qualitative approach emphasizes the subjective nature of reality and the knowledge derived from it. (Puusa & Juuti, 2020, pp. 75–76.)

Qualitative, and quantitative research can also be combined. For example, mixed methods research combines these methods. It does not remove the dichotomy, but it rejects the confrontation and the idea that either approach would be better. The idea is that combining qualitative and quantitative research can create a better understanding of research problems than either one alone. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 73, 78.) Also, in this study qualitative research is complemented by data quantification. It means that the occurrences of the data are also considered in numerical form, which brings added value to the analysis.

5.5.2 Content analysis

Content analysis is one of the most used methods for reviewing qualitative data, and it is suitable for use in a wide range of qualitative research (Puusa, 2020, p. 148). It is a basic method of analysis that can be used in the traditions of qualitative research. Content analysis is both a single method and a loose theoretical frame of reference that can be linked to different sets of analyses. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 103.) Puusa (2020, p. 148) describes content analysis as a loose methodological frame of reference. It is not a single method but an appropriate

frame of reference that allows for a comprehensive examination of the data. (Puusa, 2020, p. 148.)

According to Schreier (2012, p. 1), qualitative content analysis is a method that allows the meanings of qualitative data to be described in a systematic way. The data is classified according to the coding frame as occurrences of the categories. With qualitative content analysis, data can only be described in certain ways that need to be specified. Unlike some other qualitative methods for data analysis, qualitative content analysis does not give a holistic overview of the material. (Schreier, 2012, pp. 1–4.)

Content analysis examines communication as a picture of reality (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 54). Content analysis can be used to analyse documents systematically and objectively. Documents include any written material, such as discussion and dialogue. The aim of the content analysis is to obtain a description of the phenomenon under study in a concise and general form. Content analysis is used to search for the meanings in a text. It should be noted, however, that content analysis only makes the collected data organized for drawing conclusions. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 117.) Content analysis is based on the interpretation and reasoning of empirical material, which aims towards a more conceptual understanding of the phenomenon under study (Puusa, 2020, p. 148).

The data produced in the content analysis can also be quantified. It means that it is possible to calculate how many times the same thing appears in the data. (Puusa, 2020, p. 152; Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 135.) Content analysis has been said to have developed towards a qualitative and quantitative direction (Latvala & Vanhanen-Knuutinen, 2001, as cited in Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 119). For example, Schreier (2012) does not see a contradiction in the quantification of qualitative data, even if the data was collected and analysed using qualitative methods. On the contrary, quantification can be seen to bring a different perspective to the interpretation of qualitative data (Patton, 2015, as cited in Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 137; Grove et al., 2012, as cited in Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 137). Data quantification helps to systematize the data and illustrates and describes the content of the research data (Puusa, 2020, p. 152). In this study, the number of cases in different categories is also quantified, as it complements the description of the data and systematises the analysis.

Qualitative content analysis can be done as data-driven, theory-based, or theory-guided. The difference is that the analysis and classification is based either on data or a ready-made theoretical framework (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 109–113; 121–133; Puusa & Juuti, 2020, p. 84). This study utilizes both theory-based and theory-guided qualitative content analysis when trying to find different forms of NVIB and spillover effect in social media. Next, the theory-based and theory-guided analyses are examined in more detail and arguments for choosing these forms of analysis are given.

5.5.3 Theory-based qualitative content analysis

Theory-based content analysis means that classification is based on an earlier theory, model, or conceptual framework (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 127, 133). In theory-based content analysis, the theory guides the analysis from the beginning. The study describes this model, according to which the concepts are defined. The phenomenon to be studied is thus defined according to something already known. Based on the theory, certain things are searched for in the material while the meanings and concepts arising from it are compared with already existing information or a theoretical model. The basis to an analysis is usually testing previous knowledge in a new context. Inference is usually deductive and the categories to which the material is related to have been outlined in the theory section. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 110–111.)

In this study, the analysis of the data is principally based on a ready-made theoretical framework. Theory-based content analysis is used to divide the data into coping categories. The analysis framework of the coping categories follows the division of Duhachek (2005) and Jin (2010), describing the spillover effect. According to the analysis framework, there are three main coping categories (cognitive, conative, and emotional) and eight subcategories (rational thinking, positive thinking, avoidance, denial, action, instrumental support, emotional support, and emotional venting). The theories developed by Duhachek (2005) and Jin (2010) are tested in the context of this thesis. Based on these theories, the aim is to find out what forms of coping categories can be found in the social media data. Coping categories are used to express the spillover effect, i.e. how the conversation has spread from one channel to another. Instead, the data was divided into NVIB categories using theory-guided analysis as the categories were supplemented with two new categories, which is discussed in the next chapter.

5.5.4 Theory-guided qualitative content analysis

The theory-guided content analysis proceeds on the terms of the data, just like in a data-driven analysis. The difference is how the empirical material is connected to theoretical concepts in abstraction. In theory-guided analysis, theoretical concepts are obtained as ready from the theory, while in data-driven analysis, concepts are created from the data. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 133.) The theory-guided analysis can thus be used to supplement the previous theory with for example new categories, such as in this study.

In theory-driven analysis, theory helps in data analysis, but the analysis is not directly based on the theory. The analysis shows the effect of previous knowledge, but the theory is not tested like it is in theory-based analysis. Reasoning is often abductive when the researcher's thinking is guided alternately by theory and data during the analysis. Units of analysis often emerge from the data, but their interpretation or grouping is guided by theory. Theory-guided analysis can also

be realized in such a way that the analysis is done as data-driven, but in the end, findings based on the data are tied to the theory. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 109– 110.) Puusa (2020, p. 151) also describes that in choosing the method of analysis, one takes a position on the role of theory in research. In theory-guided analysis, the researcher's thinking is guided by both the data and theory. It differs from theory-based analysis, where theory plays a primary and guiding role in examining the data.

Theory-guided content analysis is used to divide the data into NVIB categories. The analysis framework uses the division provided by Azer and Alexander (2020, 2018) into direct and indirect NVIB. The theory-guided content analysis was chosen because Azer and Alexander's theory provides a useful classification framework for examining intensity levels in negative engagement. However, not all of the data fit in a ready-made theoretical framework. Therefore, new categories were formed. These new categories are emotional expression and sharing information. They describe the occurrences but were missing from the analysis framework of Azer and Alexander.

5.5.5 Coding and classification

The coding identifies and names the content elements found in the data. In theory-based coding, theory determines which aspects of the data are of interest. Attention is paid to the differences and similarities between data units, and the data is divided into several analysis units which can be compared. In contrast, data-based coding starts with empirical data. The results emerge from the data, after which they are compared with previous theories and research results. (Vuori, n.d.) According to Schreier (2012, p. 89), in qualitative content analysis it's rare for a coding frame to be created as purely concept-driven or purely data-driven. It is more common for both of these strategies to be mixed.

This thesis combines concept-driven and data-driven strategies so that the majority of categories are concept-driven, with only a few data-driven ones added. This means that the coding frame is mainly based on what is already known but on the other hand also allows the categories to emerge from the material (Schreier, 2012, p. 84). Combining these two strategies aims at a more comprehensive examination of the data.

A coding frame is a way to structure the data (Schreier, 2012, p. 61). The chosen coding frame is based on a theory of Azer and Alexander (2018, 2020). Because the selected coding frame is based on a theory, it has been described as a concept-driven, deductive strategy (Schreier, 2012, p. 85). It was complemented by a data-driven, inductive strategy, whereby categories are also created based on the data. A data-driven strategy is considered appropriate, especially if the goal is to describe the material in detail and in depth. Qualitative data in particular is generally rich and contains more than the anticipated content. (Schreier, 2012, p. 87.)

Reductive coding means focusing on grouping data together according to the same theme, creating links between different pieces of data. Large amount of material is reduced to a few general terms, which might help to get the first impression of the material. Coding creates new links between material, when data is classified under the same category into a more abstract level. (Schreier, 2012, pp. 38-40.) Therefore, the data is processed by coding it into a format that allows analysis. Data compression facilitates the classification of the data according to coding categories.

The data was pre-collected into Excel files, so that one social media comment represents one unit. The coding began with the search for similar elements in the social media comments, which were considered to belong to the same category. In the coding, the data was condensed by writing an appropriate category next to the social media comment in Excel. An example of an entry is *indirect* (main category) and *deriding* (subcategory), which describe the content of a social media comment. The data was combined so that comments with the same meaning and common elements were marked with the same code i.e. the term. One social media comment can only be included in one category in the coding frame. Coding process was conducted twice in its entirety to ensure the reliability and credibility of the study. However, it should be noted in qualitative content analysis that coding and classification require the interpretation of the researcher, so objectivity is impossible to achieve (Schreier 2012, p. 21; Juhila, n.d.).

After coding, the data was classified combining the same concepts according to the coding frame. Classification means grouping up units of analysis into predefined categories, and classification of data always requires interpretation (Puusa 2020, p. 152). By classification, similar comments were combined under one group according to the NVIB categories. Comments marked with the same code form their own groups, which raises the level of abstraction of the data view.

After the data was coded into NVIB categories according to Azer and Alexander's (2018, 2020) theory, the same data was coded into coping categories (Jin, 2010, p. 529; Duhachek, 2005, pp. 44-46) to determine the spillover effect. The coding was carried out on the same principle as before. In Excel, the appropriate category was written next to the social media comment. An example of an entry is cognitive coping (main category) and avoidance (subcategory), which describes the content of a comment. One comment was included in only one category in the coding framework. The coding process was performed twice to improve reliability and minimize errors.

6 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of the study. The research results for NVIB are examined first, followed by the coping categories. The results are presented both quantitatively and qualitatively for each social media channel. Some sentences and words have been extracted from the data as examples.

6.1 Overview of the NVIB

The results are first examined for NVIB, which describes the different intensity levels of negative engagement. The NVIB aims to find out how people express their negative engagement to the organization on social media. The results are examined by channel through indirect and direct forms and their subcategories. Quantifying the data aims to illustrate how the use of negatively valenced influencing behavior is distributed between different channels of social media. The usage rates of the different formats are used to reflect the tone of the discussion on social media channels.

As tables 5 and 6 show, there were more indirect than direct forms in the data. In the entire material, more than a half (81,2 %) of the forms were indirect, while direct forms accounted for 18,8 %. Indirect forms were used the most in each of the three channels, with percentages ranging from 74 % to 92,5 %. Thus, the differences between the channels were not big. Most indirect forms were used on Twitter (92,5 %), leaving the number of direct forms also the lowest (7,5 %). The use of the indirect discrediting format was the most common in all social media channels.

TABLE 5. The number of indirect NVIB per channel.

NVIB	YouTube		Twitter		Instagram		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Indirect	154	77	185	92,5	148	74	487	81,2
Discrediting	75	37,5	88	44	101	50,5	264	44
Regretting	0	0	1	0,5	1	0,5	2	0,4
Deriding	39	19,5	31	15,5	13	6,5	83	13,8
Emotional expression	40	20	4	2	33	16,5	77	12,8
Sharing information	0	0	61	30,5	0	0	61	10,2
Total	200	100	200	100	200	100	600	100

Direct NVIB formats were used the most on Instagram (26 %) and the least on Twitter (7,5 %), as shown in table 6. The use of the direct endorsing format was the most common in all channels.

TABLE 6. The number of direct NVIB per channel.

NVIB	YouTube		Twitter		Instagram		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Direct	46	23	15	7,5	52	26	113	18,8
Dissuading	7	3,5	4	2	2	1	13	2,1
Endorsing	37	18,5	10	5	50	25	97	16,2
Warning	2	1	1	0,5	0	0	3	0,5
Total	200	100	200	100	200	100	600	100

Next, the different forms of NVIB are examined individually by channel. The aim is to review social media data within the limits of research ethics. Therefore, data samples of full messages have been omitted to ensure the anonymity of the subjects, even though they would have improved the argumentation of the analysis. Instead of direct quotations, the aim is to describe the material verbally as accurately and comprehensively as possible. It aims to provide an understanding of how different forms appear in the data. Sample citations have been referenced by changing the original text so that the sentence order has been changed, only the most important part of the comment has been extracted or words have been replaced with synonyms.

6.1.1 NVIB in YouTube

Indirect forms of NVIB

There is a total of 77 % indirect NVIB forms on YouTube data, meaning that most of the posts are indirect. Discrediting is the most common indirect form in the data, accounting for 37,5 % of all. The second most common indirect form is emotional expression, which is used in 20 % in the data of all. The third largest number is of deriding forms consisting of 19,5 % of all. The forms of regretting and sharing information are missing from YouTube data.

On YouTube, people share their negative experiences with others by commenting most commonly in the discrediting form. According to the theory of Azer and Alexander (2018, 2020), only messages in which people share their experiences literally without emotional expressions were included in the discrediting category. People share their own experiences and describe what kind of phone problems they or their acquaintances have had quite neutrally. People also make guesses as to what the charging problem might be due to in an expert-like tone.

Some speculate that the problem is Apple's plot to get people to buy a wireless charger. Images are also created in posts.

Imagine charging your phone all night and in the morning when you wake up, it's still 0 %.

Authors might mention that they are not going to buy an iPhone, or that they are relieved for not having bought it already. The bugs and the high price of the iPhone are described in a negative tone as in *overpriced*. Apple is also criticized for going constantly in the worse direction and for its lack of appreciation towards customers. Apple is a subject to requirements such as bug fixes and price reductions, like in the instructional expression.

Apple needs to fix phones!

Deriding format comments on YouTube use sarcasm by expressing a negative and critical attitude towards Apple. For example, a charging problem is sarcastically called an innovation or a feature of a phone. The mockery targets the Apple brand and all its products.

The issue is that the manufacturer is Apple.

Apple is suspected of correcting the problem by requiring people to buy new chargers or a new phone. The messages use for example exaggeration, wordplays, and rhetorical questions. Also, sarcastic laughter is attached after some of the comments. The expensive price of the phone is raised as one of the problems in addition to the charging issue. A discrepancy between the quality and the price is being brought up in the comments. People who buy an iPhone are stigmatized and mocked by using derogatory names about them like *isheeps*.

Because there were also emotional expressions in the data for which Azer and Alexander did not have a ready-made category, a new material-based category called emotional expression was created. On YouTube, emotional expressions play a key role as people vented their frustration and disappointment: there are several comments where people express their emotions instead of sharing detailed experiences. The charging failure is not considered acceptable, and equipment is described as expensive rubbish. Venting comments are usually short and contain swear words directed at the iPhone XS mobile phone and the Apple brand. Abusive words mostly target the Apple brand but even the CEO is mentioned. Feelings of hate and anger are also expressed which is highlighted, for example, by exclamation marks and capital letters.

Direct forms of NVIB

There are 23 % direct NVIB forms on YouTube. The proportion is thus significantly lower than with the indirect NVIB forms. The most common direct NVIB

form is the endorsing (18,5 %). There are significantly less dissuading forms (3,5 %), with the warning form remaining in only 1 % of all.

On YouTube, dissuading comments use a negative imperative form that seeks to guide others. The imperative form presents a direct call to action or to be in a certain way. Examples of wording used include *don't buy, leave alone, stop buying, say no to, learn lesson* aimed at getting the reader to avoid using the products. Messages are emphasized using mocking words like *sheep of Apple's system* to refer to people who use iPhone phones. Phones and their features are also downplayed, so that their value diminishes in the eyes of others. Others are also sought for confirmation of their own opinions by asking for likes if they agree.

The endorsing comments mention the names of competing phone brands in a positive tone. For example, the messages state that the phones of other brands work well and are cheaper. Instead, the iPhone is brought up as a worse and more expensive option with bugs. The messages are mostly short and use the comparative forms *better, best, superior*, emotional expressions *love, glad, fucked up* and time expressions *forever, next year*. User experiences are described and compared for different phone brands. People point out in their posts which phone brand they plan to buy next - and it's not Apple. People are relieved that they bought another brand of phone, which does not have similar problems. The choice can also be justified by the words *that's why I am using* followed by the brand name. The relationship with other phone brands can also be described by expressions of love.

There are two forms of warning in the data, both of which warn others directly. The phrases used are *watch out* and *be aware* to inform others about the charging issue. Apple is seen as a brand that should be treated with caution.

6.1.2 NVIB in Twitter

Indirect forms of NVIB

There are a total of 92,5 % indirect NVIB formats on Twitter out of all. Thus, the share of indirect forms is the largest of the three different social media channels. Discrediting forms can be found the most in the material (44 %) and sharing information the second most (30,5 %). The deriding form occurs in 15,5 % of the data. Emotional expressions are less used on Twitter (2 %) as is the regretting format (0,5 %).

There are discrediting category posts on Twitter that briefly mention that there is a charging problem on Apple's devices. In discrediting posts, people talk about their experiences, sometimes in more detail.

I can't charge my iPhone.

They may just mention that they are also victims of #Chargegate, but without outbursts of emotion. The causes of the charging issue are analyzed and suspected to be either an intentional or new feature by Apple.

Could it be a hardware or software issue or a security feature?

The posts also describe how the charging issue could have been avoided, for example, by changing the charger or restarting the phone. In addition, Apple is accused of the situation and has been tagged in several posts, which allows people to notify them about the problem. Apple is expected to respond, take a stand and to correct the charging failure. In the posts, people wonder why the organization is silent. The silence of the company is perceived negatively as indifference or suspicious behavior. The messages also analyse whether the charging problem is a feature of the phone or a way to charge customers extra.

On Twitter, the regretting format is rare, just like on the other social media channels. There is only one post in the data expressing regret on Twitter. This comment states that the price of the iPhone is a waste of money. Also, it has a link to a YouTube video called *My Biggest Mistake of 2018 – Rs 2,09,800 Wasted?*

On Twitter deriding messages use sarcasm, which shifts the meaning of positive or negative speech to its opposite. Examples of this are the use of the phrase *good job* and describing the charging technology as *revolutionary*. It is stated that it is lovely to wake up and notice that the phone has not been charged. #Chargegate is also described as *the most innovative smartphone feature of the year*. Humour and word games are utilized.

Highly charged but not charging.

Comments can laugh by typing *haha* or *lol* into problems sarcastically. As a continuation of #Chargegate and the previous Beautygate, the following gates such as Datagate and Updategate are already being speculated. The #Chargegate issue is also described in the posts as humorous and Apple's potential reaction to it hilarious. One comment states that Apple is impressed with how far they can go with the price and quality of the phone not matching. The charging issue is negatively highlighted from the perspective that the price of the device is high.

Emotional expressions are rarely used on Twitter, as there are only 4 of them in the data. These messages contain outbursts of emotion due to disappointment with the Apple brand caused by the charging issue. People reinforce what they say with swear words and exclamation marks.

Because there were also neutral, informative posts in the data for which Azer and Alexander did not have a ready-made category, a new material-based category

called sharing information was created. Posts of the sharing information category only appeared on Twitter. These expressions were differentiated into their own category because on Twitter, the tone of the posts differed from other social media channels, which needed to be highlighted. Posts in this category share information about the existence of an Apple charging issue and usually link to news or YouTube videos, for example. In the posts, the authors do not share their own experiences. Instead, the goal was to communicate the issue to others in a neutral tone, knowledge in priority, without emotions or personal perspective. A post may also give a link to a news article. The messages also generally tell others about the existence of the #Chargegate phenomenon and explain what the phenomenon is.

Chargegate is the new iPhone XS scandal.

Some iPhone devices are experiencing charging issues.

A post can begin with a question, which is presented as a rhetorical means of posting a reader's interest, rather than as a direct reference to others.

Are you a victim of Chargegate?

Direct forms of NVIB

There are 7,5 % direct NVIB forms on Twitter in total. The number is less than half of that on YouTube or Instagram, which both have more than 20 % of direct NVIB formats. Twitter comments praise competitors using the form of endorsing, which accounts for the largest share 5 %. The dissuading form occurs in 2 % and the warning form in 0,5 %.

Dissuading posts on Twitter advise other people not to buy an iPhone. It can be expressed either by a direct prohibition like *don't buy* or by setting out the reasons in more detail. The #Chargegate problem and expensive price are the reasons why the phone is seen as a waste of money. Those planning to buy a phone are told that now is a bad time to make a purchase.

The iPhone and other phone brands are compared on Twitter by using an endorsing form. The conversations raise the issue of charging the iPhone, while other phones are seen to charge more reliably. The messages actively encourage to choose a competitor's phone instead of iPhone. People point out in the messages that they are users of other phone brands and give reasons for their choices.

Samsung has no Chargegate issue.

There is one comment on the Twitter data, that could be categorized as a warning. The warning was addressed directly to others using a word *beware*. This is used

to warn others about the #Chargegate phenomenon. The message only focuses on warning others, and not sharing their own experiences.

6.1.3 NVIB in Instagram

Instagram data consists of both an image post and a video post. 100 comments have been collected from both posts, for a total of 200 comments from Instagram altogether. Since the data had been compiled from both image and video post, it was decided to utilize both of them to calculate averages from them. This will give a more comprehensive picture of the discussion on Instagram. Table 7 summarizes the distributions of the different forms in the image and video posts. As the numbers show, there are no major differences between these posts in the use of different forms of NVIB.

TABLE 7. The number of NVIB forms on Instagram's image and video post.

NVIB	Picture		Video		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Indirect	74	74	74	74	148	74
Discrediting	50	50	51	51	101	50,5
Regretting	1	1	0	0	1	0,5
Deriding	8	8	5	5	13	6,5
Emotional expression	15	15	18	18	33	16,5
Sharing information	0	0	0	0	0	0
Direct	26	26	26	26	52	26
Dissuading	2	2	0	0	2	1
Endorsing	24	24	26	26	50	25
Warning	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	200	100

Indirect forms of NVIB

When looking at the Instagram photo and video posts together, there are a total of 74 % indirect NVIB forms out of all. Discrediting forms are the most common in the data (50,5 %). The second most common are forms of emotional expression (16,5 %). There are 6,5 % forms of deriding, while there is only 0,5 % of regretting forms in the data. The following format-specific review will focus on both Instagram's image and video posts together.

In posts of the discrediting category, people share their experiences, often stating that their device also has a charging issue. The comments can also describe in which situations the problem has occurred, what has helped, and speculate

whether it could be a hardware or software problem. People say they are disappointed and may even comment that they are not going to buy Apple products. Comments range from brief personal statements to longer analyzes which evaluate and criticize the Apple brand. Apple is blamed for repeated quality problems or by stating that the brand is no longer involved in the smartphone game. The expensive price of the phone and the problem with charging are highlighted. It is argued that the high price should guarantee functionality and quality.

This is a big problem. If you are spending \$ 1,000 on a premium device, it should charge properly.

The organization is suspected of being only interested in making a profit at the expense of customer satisfaction.

There is only one comment of the regretting category on Instagram. In the comment the author says he will not upgrade the phone, and that he made a bad mistake in purchasing a new iPhone. The solution to the problem is therefore to stick to an older smartphone model.

In posts of the deriding category, Apple is sarcastically praised for the charging issue. For example, the expensive price of the phone and the charging issue are mentioned first, followed by *thank you Apple*. The organization is seen as creating problems and selling solutions. The charging problem is sarcastically described as an innovative feature. The user would have to pay for the phone's charging feature or even to purchase a new phone.

No iPhone, no problems.

Emotions are vented in emotional expression posts on Instagram. Disappointment is expressed in swear words and criticism of Apple's actions. The Apple brand is considered overvalued, and the purchase of equipment is considered a waste of money. The word hate is also used to describe feelings for Apple. The comments are mostly short and informative, stating that the device is of poor quality.

Direct forms of NVIB

When looking at the Instagram photo and video posts together, the share of direct NVIB forms is 26 % in total. As with the other channels, endorsing is the most common form on Instagram (25 %). The second highest number is of dissuading forms in the data (1 %), while there are no warning forms.

There are two dissuading comments in the Instagram material, both of which address other people directly. These dissuading comments try to convince others not to deal with the Apple. This is expressed in a command phrase, which is a short and concise comment.

Choose Android.

Don't buy it.

Some messages defend the iPhone by referring to people who only find bugs in the phone. People are encouraged to look for faults on other phones instead.

On Instagram endorsing posts praise competing phone brands, giving them an attractive image. People tell what smartphone brands they use and prefer. The functionality of other smartphone brands is described in detail and in a positive tone. The messages use emotional words such as *love, happy, forever* and comparisons such as *best, better*. Detailed experiences are described in relation to how well the phones of other brands work compared to the iPhone. On the other hand, endorsing comments can only be one word or hashtags long, such as #samsunggang. The messages can tell stories of what made the user change the phone brand or just the argument or a threat.

That's why I chose Samsung.

If the next update does not fix the problem, I will switch to another branded phone.

More reasons to get a Samsung.

6.2 Overview of the coping strategies

Following the NVIB review, the results are examined from the perspective of coping categories to perceive the spillover effect. The review of the coping categories aims to find out how the spillover effect appears on social media channels and how the debate spreads from one social media channel to another. To outline the overview, the coping categories are first quantified for all social media channels combined. After that, the phenomenon is then examined by channel.

As shown in table 8, cognitive coping is the most prevalent in the entire data (51,5 %). In the subcategories of the cognitive coping format, the emphasis varies, with the majority being rational thinking (38,7 %), while the share of other forms is significantly lower (less than 10 %). The second most common forms are of emotional coping (32,5 %), of which the majority consists of emotional venting (31,7 %). There are some differences between different social media channels. Cognitive coping is the most common form on Twitter (61,5 %) and Instagram (57 %), while emotional coping occurs most on YouTube (48,5 %). On YouTube and Instagram, cognitive coping is the rarest form, while emotional coping is the least common on Twitter.

TABLE 8. The number of cognitive, conative, and emotional coping per channel.

	YouTube		Twitter		Instagram		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Cognitive coping	71	35,5	123	61,5	114	57	308	51,5
Rational thinking	53	26,5	103	51,5	76	38	232	38,7
Positive thinking	9	4,5	9	4,5	0	0	18	3
Avoidance	9	4,5	9	4,5	38	19	56	9,4
Denial	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	0
Conative coping	32	16	43	21,5	22	11	97	16
Action	23	11,5	26	13	18	9	67	11,2
Instrumental support	9	4,5	17	8,5	4	2	30	5
Emotional coping	97	48,5	34	17	64	32	195	32,5
Emotional support	5	2,5	0	0	0	0	5	1
Emotional venting	92	46	34	17	64	32	190	31,7
Total	200	100	200	100	200	100	600	100

6.2.1 Coping in YouTube

The most common top category on YouTube is emotional coping (48,5 %), the majority of which belong to emotional venting subcategory (46 %) and a small portion to emotional support subcategory (2,5 %). Emotional support messages ask questions from others (*who else thinks; who is watching*), prompts (*imagine your phone is not charging*), and express like requests (*like if Apple should*). Messages share feelings and seek support or confirmation from others. People are referred to or addressed directly, trying to get in touch. In emotional venting messages, people express the feelings caused by #Chargegate, such as anger, disappointment, and frustration. In messages, expressions of emotion range from direct to indirect: for example, people may say they have begun to hate Apple, or even say succinctly.

It's just Apple.

Apple is slandered as rubbish and the message can be reinforced with swear words. Aggressive amusement is caused by the fact that although the phone is expensive, it does not work properly. Apple is also compared to competing brands by praising others.

Samsung is the best.

Disappointment is also presented in the posts.

The iPhone is going in a worse direction day by day – what's next?

Isn't there a serious problem on all iPhones?

Cognitive coping is the second most common top category on YouTube (35,5 %). The most common subcategory is rational thinking (26,5 %), while positive thinking and avoidance occur equally in the data (4,5 %). Denial does not appear in YouTube data at all. Comments in the rational thinking category consist of objective statements related to #Chargegate. For example, people report that their device also has a charging problem. Apple devices are found to be overpriced, but without emotional outbursts. The problem is analyzed and there are also speculations that Apple expects users to buy a wireless charger next, or that Apple will respond to the problem by releasing a new phone. The comments in the positive thinking category emphasize the handling of the charging problem by means of humor. Thus, the problem is presented in a comic light instead of negative emotions. The humor manifests itself in various puns.

I would just buy a pound of apples.

Knock, knock – who is there? Not a charging smartphone.

In one comment, Apple is equated with mythical characters like unicorns and dragons. In another comment, positive thinking manifests itself as a sense of relief.

Good thing I bought a Samsung phone instead.

Comments in the avoidance category focus on other smartphone brands instead of #Chargegate. Avoid thinking about the charging problem and find pleasure in other things, in this case the products of competing brands, which are presented as better options.

Conative coping is the least used top category on YouTube data (16 %). The action subcategory (11,5 %) is used more often than the instrumental support (4,5 %). The comments in the action category highlight ways in which the problem could be solved and what could be done about the charging issue. A common solution suggested in the comments is to switch the phone to another brand, reflecting disappointment with Apple devices.

Get a Pixel, people! No problems there!

Others are also instructed and advised to take action.

Don't buy Apple devices.

The comments also state that Apple should resolve the issue immediately, which would lead to a satisfactory situation. Messages in the instrumental support category mainly share expert opinion or advice with others. The authors have an insight into where the charging problem is coming from and how it could be fixed. The comments also describe how the charging issue has occurred on the

devices and how attempts have been made to resolve it. Only one comment asks others for advice on which brand of phone to buy.

6.2.2 Coping in Twitter

The most common top category on Twitter is cognitive coping (61,5 %), most of which belong to the rational thinking subcategory (51,5 %). The positive thinking and avoidance subcategories have the same number of occurrences (4,5 %), while the denial form is rare (1%).

The comments in the rational thinking category discuss the #Chargegate phenomenon from different perspectives. People describe how devices have been affected by a charging issue. Others share information about the phenomenon, such as news headlines and links to news sites, or tell others what the charging problem is. Apple's actions are highlighted, for example, from the perspective that the company remains silent. Comments can also ask the reader if there has been a charging issue on your phone or have you heard about the #Chargegate scandal. All the comments are united by the fact that they are discussed in an objective, affirmative, and rational tone. People control their emotions and analyze the charging issue before reacting.

There are hope and joy in the category of positive thinking.

Hopefully it's a software problem and not a hardware problem.

I'm glad my video helped people with the charging issue.

I thought you might appreciate this fun video.

Humor is also included in this category, although it usually occurs in the form of sarcasm.

Chargegate is the best innovative smartphone feature of the year.

I'm waiting for Apple's statement that people are charging their phones wrong.

The aim is to alleviate the negative situation by highlighting the amusing features of the charging issue. The avoidance category seeks to avoid thinking about a problem by finding satisfaction in other things. In this case, people are focusing on praising other brands of smartphones at the expense of Apple.

My OnePlus phone can charge without any problems.

I have a Samsung Note – my first Samsung and I always stay with it.

The comments in avoidance category point out that phones of other brands charge reliably unlike Apple.

The next largest upper category is conative coping (21,5 %), where action forms occur in 13 % and instrumental support forms in 8,5 %. Comments in the action category focus on various activities, such as solving a problem, getting more information, or giving advice. The comments urge Apple to take action, such as fixing the charging problem or taking responsibility for it. People are also asked to watch a related video or to read an article, for example. The comments provide advice on how to avoid the #Chargegate issue and how to get the phone to charge. One comment simply advises that it is not worth buying an iPhone smartphone. Those considering purchasing a phone are advised to defer the purchase due to the charging issue. Comments in the instrumental support category ask for and share advice. For example, asking whether this is a hardware or software problem, and advising people to wake up the phone before charging. In addition, the comments analyze the technical causes of the charging issue. For example, it is thought to be a security feature of the smartphone.

Twitter has the fewest comments in the emotional coping top category. 17 % of the comments are in the emotional venting category, while there are no comments from the emotional support category in the data at all. People point out that #Chargegate affects their devices, but emotions are ventilated more restrainedly than in other social media channels. For example, swear words and exclamation marks are rarely used in the comments. The Apple brand is being criticized and laughed at in a mocking tone because of the charging issue. There are also sarcastic comments in the emotional venting category, but they differ from the sarcastic comments in the positive thinking category by their stronger negativity – the comments exude disappointment and frustration.

It's wonderful to wake up and notice that my phone isn't charged.

6.2.3 Coping in Instagram

Among the top categories, cognitive coping has the most occurrences (57 %) when looking at the entire Instagram data. The second highest number of comments is in the emotional coping top category (32 %) and the lowest in the conative coping top category (11 %). When looking at Instagram's image and video posts separately, the order is similar. The amounts in the different categories are also parallel between image and video posts, in that there is no significant difference between the posts (Table 9).

TABLE 9. The number of coping forms on Instagram's image and video posts.

	Picture		Video		Total	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Cognitive coping	60	60	54	54	114	57
Rational thinking	39	39	37	37	76	38
Positive thinking	0	0	0	0	0	0
Avoidance	21	21	17	17	38	19
Denial	0	0	0	0	0	0
Conative coping	12	12	10	10	22	11
Action	10	10	8	8	18	9
Instrumental support	2	2	2	2	4	2
Emotional coping	28	28	36	36	64	32
Emotional support	0	0	0	0	0	0
Emotional venting	28	28	36	36	64	32
Total	100	100	100	100	200	100

In Instagram, rational thinking is the most common category under the cognitive coping top category (the picture post 39 %, the video post 37 %, total 38 %). The form of avoidance is the second most common (picture post 21 %, video post 17 %, total 19 %). In contrast, the forms of denial and positive thinking do not occur on Instagram.

In comments of the rational thinking category, people often say that there is a charging problem on their phone as well and explain how it has occurred.

Same problem with my iPhone – had to restart the phone to start charging.

In messages of rational thinking, the problem is told objectively without emotional expressions. The problem can also be analyzed rationally, for example, by stating that an expensive phone should work properly and charge without problems.

Price goes up, but quality goes down.

How can they sell dysfunctional products.

The causes of the problem are also speculated.

It may be that Apple is pushing toward wireless charging.

Comments in the avoidance category pay attention to other things. Mostly people praise a phone brand that they use, other than the Apple. The comments focus on praising other brands of smartphones but sometimes also slandering at Apple devices.

That's why Samsung is better.

I don't have a charging problem ... with my Samsung.

Looks like Huawei needs to offer a charger to Apple users.

The second most common top category on the Instagram data is emotional coping, which only occurs in the form of emotional venting (the picture post 28 %, the video post 36 %, total 32 %). In contrast, the form of emotional support does not appear in the data at all. Comments in the emotional venting category focus on venting emotions and expressing disappointment. At the center is the bashing of Apple devices with swear words like *iPhone trash*, *Fcuk Apple*, and *Same junk in a new package*. The comments also talk about anger at Apple and how buying a dysfunctional, expensive device is a waste of money.

There are the fewest forms of the conative coping upper category on the Instagram data. There are more messages in the action category (the picture post 10 %, the video post 8 %, total 9 %), than in the instrumental support category (the picture post 2 %, the video post 2 %, total 2 %). Comments in the action category focus on an action to solve the problem.

I'm going to stick with the old iPhone and not upgrade the model to the new one.

I hope they fix this in the next update. If the problem persists, I'll change the phone brand.

It happened to my iPhone, but the phone started working when I restarted it.

Comments in the instrumental support category ask and tell more about the charging issue.

Is this the charging cable that came with the phone?

Looks like this is a software issue that will be fixed in the next update.

People either crave more information or act as an expert in analyzing the charging issue technically.

7 CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

First, the conclusion summarizes the main results briefly. The research questions are then answered, interpreted, and compared to previous research. Then the results from the perspective of practical use for communication professionals are presented and reflected on. Finally, the thesis is evaluated, the limitations of the research are described, and suggestions for further research are given.

7.1 Conclusions

This study focused on exploring the negative engagement with a brand on social media. The thesis examined how stakeholders engage in different forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior (NVIB), and how the discussion spills over between channels. The objective was to describe different forms of NVIB and the spread of discussion from one channel to another. The aim was to study the different ways that consumers cope with stress as well as negative emotions and intensity levels of NVIB to understand how customers say things negatively.

There were various forms of negative engagement on social media. NVIB formats occurred in all three observed social media channels, but their emphases varied. What all channels had in common was that users preferred indirect NVIB formats over direct formats. This means that negative experiences were most often shared without trying to advise others. The most common of the indirect forms was the discrediting form, in which negative experiences were shared in detail without emotional expressions. The difference between the channels was that Twitter focused on sharing information in a neutral tone instead of outbursts of emotion or interpersonal relationships. Instead, emotions were vented on YouTube and Instagram, where emotional expressions were common.

The spillover effect was used to examine the spread of conversation about the channel through coping categories. Overall, on social media channels, mostly cognitive coping strategies were used to address the problem. The distinguishing factor between the channels was that the emotional coping strategies were used the most on YouTube and the least on Twitter, which is a parallel response to the answer of the first research question. Twitter highlighted a large proportion of cognitive coping strategies instead. Although negative engagement effectively spilled over from one channel to another, it did not manifest itself in the same way in all channels but adapted and changed shape according to the style of the channel.

7.1.1 Theoretical implications

The first research question of the study concerned the different forms of NVIB. First, different forms were sought using the theoretical model of NVIB, after which the model was supplemented with new categories which emerged from data.

RQ1. What forms of negatively valenced influencing behavior are used on social media channels?

Classifying negative valence directly and indirectly provides a clearer picture of how customers may try to influence others. However, indirect NVIB formats were used the most on each social media channel. This means that people contributed resources such as knowledge, skills, time, or experience to discredit a brand based on their experience without directly addressing others not to transact with a particular brand (Azer & Alexander, 2018, p. 477). Although direct usage of NVIB was low, NVIB expressions may also affect others indirectly, because negative engagement can have a contagious effect on other online users' engagement behaviors (Kowalski, 1996). The conversation surrounding the charging issue spread dissatisfaction as people became enthusiastic about sharing their negative experiences about Apple and received support from other dissatisfied customers as described by Einwiller and Steilen (2015). Also, it is common to read online discussions before making a purchase decision and to use reviews as a source of information, so customers have a significant influencing role (Azer & Alexander, 2018).

People shared their own thoughts, feelings, and opinions indirectly by using discrediting form, which was most widely used on YouTube, Twitter, and Instagram. Users engaged in discrediting behavior by sharing their negative experiences without explicitly advising others not to transact with the Apple brand. Negative experiences were shared literally without emotional expressions in discrediting category. For example, people described their charging problems or analyzed the causes of the issue.

Service failure, overpricing, disappointment, and insecurity are triggers for NVIB, according to Azer and Alexander (2018, p. 480). All these factors also appeared in the research data. The charging issue with the smartphone was such that there was no clear solution to it until Apple fixed the problem. In times of uncertainty, people focused on sharing their own experiences through indirect forms of NVIB. In contrast, advising others through direct NVIB forms was done less. This may be because it was difficult to give direct and clear advice in an uncertain situation. It was easier for most to talk indirectly about their own problem, hoping that someone could help and know a solution to the charging issue.

It should be noted that Azer and Alexander (2018) developed their theory based on a site specializing in online reviews, TripAdvisor. Discussions on other social

media channels, YouTube, Instagram, and Twitter, are somewhat different in content from TripAdvisor. Ultimate purpose of YouTube, Instagram and Twitter is not to evaluate a service or product, but to comment on posts and interact with others. Perhaps because of this, the theory of Azer and Alexander was not fully adaptable to the context of this study but was supplemented based on the data.

As a result, the theoretical framework of Azer and Alexander (2018, 2020) was supplemented by two new indirect forms, emotional expression and sharing information, which emerged from the data. These forms highlighted the differentiating factor between Twitter and other channels: emotional expressions were common on YouTube and Instagram, while they were rarely used on Twitter. On YouTube and Instagram, people vented their frustration and disappointment through emotional expressions. Instead, on Twitter the focus was on sharing information in a neutral tone without emotion, knowledge being the priority. This supports the previous view that information is at the heart of Twitter and the focus is on sharing information instead of interpersonal relationships (Virolainen & Luoma-aho, 2018, p. 154). However, there was no actual disengagement on Twitter where people would lose interest or leave the organization (Van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 254; Rissanen & Luoma-aho, 2016, p. 509; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). Although there was a lack of passion and emotion (Rissanen & Luoma-aho, 2016, p. 509; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014), people were still actively involved in the conversation, but in a different tone than on the other channels.

Differences in the tone of the conversation may have been due to channel-specific differences. Each social media channel has its own discussion style, purpose, and audience which also influences the structure and content of the conversation. Where Twitter is a microblog, Instagram and YouTube are platforms that focus on content sharing (Laaksonen et al. 2013, p. 15). Each channel has its own etiquette and social mechanisms that define people's behavior. YouTube offers community features like the ability to link with other users as friends (Burgess & Green 2009, p. 9), while Instagram focuses on how audience interacts with content. Instead, Twitter is used as a news source, to follow certain topics, and as an arena for following the social debate (Isotaulus et al., 2018, pp. 9-12).

The preference for indirect NVIB formats can be explained by the fact that on public social media channels, the audience is perceived as a faceless crowd. Instead of collectivity, a culture that emphasizes individuality prevails in public social media discussion channels. As with online brand communities, a single social media publication does not have specialized group function based on a structured set of social relationships (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 412). Nor is it an engagement platform between consumers and brands (Breibach et al., 2014) or an interactive platform for like-minded consumers' communication (Hsu et al., 2012).

Although a single social media post is not an online brand community, features of consumer engagement can be found on posts of YouTube, Twitter, and

Instagram, including engagement and value co-creation among other community participants (Brodie et al. 2013). Participants in the discussion of social media posts are motivated by the same things as members of the brand community, such as brand influence and passion, connecting, helping, like-minded discussion, seeking assistance, self-expression, and up-to-date information (Baldus et al., 2015). In addition, it seems that participation and engagement in the discussion is motivated by, among other things, venting negative emotions, concern for other consumers, seeking advice, and economic benefits (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). Negativity towards the brand can be reinforced in anti-brand communities so that it also affects consumer attitudes and actions (Bowden et al., 2017). This could also be seen in the conversations on YouTube, Instagram, and Twitter, where people shared their negative experiences through various forms of NVIB. It reinforced influencing behavior on others and negative engagement towards the Apple brand.

Next, the second research question concerned the spillover effect and its manifestations on social media. Different forms were sought using theoretical model of coping strategies as a representative of the spillover effect. The research question is as follows:

RQ2. How does the spillover effect appear on social media channels?

The charging issue was discussed actively on all three channels. The conversation effectively spread from one channel to another on social media. The signs of a spillover effect are met when negative engagement spills over from one object to another (Bowden et al., 2017), as the #Chargegate conversation spread from one channel to another. Social media discussions used both task-centered and emotion-centered coping techniques to manage the stress of the situation and to understand the crisis. When the spillover effect was examined in more detail through coping strategies, there were differences in the spread of the conversation across the different social media channels. These differences emerged in how the various coping strategies were used in each channel.

On Twitter and Instagram, rational thinking in the cognitive coping category was the most used strategy. This means that the charging issue was analyzed before a response was made, and the situation was looked at objectively. Emotions were kept under control and restraint avoided hasty behavior. (Duhachek, 2005, p. 44; Jin, 2010, p. 549.) The comments contained objective statements about the #Chargegate phenomenon. For example, people shared their own experiences of a charging issue or criticized the brand, but without emotional outbursts. In contrast, emotional venting in the emotional coping category was the most widely used strategy on YouTube and the second most used strategy on Instagram. Emotional venting coping is a channel for self-expression and expression of emotions (Duhachek, 2005, p. 46; Jin, 2010, p. 546). In connection with the charging problem, ventilating the emotions was used to let out disappointment, frustration, and

anger caused by the situation. The messages were reinforced with swear words and speech about the anger towards the brand.

The reason for favoring the emotional coping strategies on YouTube and Instagram may be that the charging issue was seen as an unpredictable and uncontrollable crisis until the organization resolved the problem. Negative emotions like anger tend to intensify when an organization is seen as responsible (Jin, 2010, pp. 545–546). Thus, seeing Apple as responsible for the charging problem could also reinforce the negative emotions on social media. Although the crisis was seen as unpredictable and uncontrollable, conative coping strategies were not used as much as cognitive or emotional coping strategies. This result differs from the research of Jin (2010), which states that conative and emotional copings are preferred in crises seen as unpredictable and uncontrollable.

On Twitter, emotional coping was less used than on the other channels. In contrast, rational thinking in the cognitive coping category was used more on Twitter compared to the other channels. Rational thinking coping appeared on Twitter when people described their experiences of a charging issue or shared information about the phenomenon, such as links to news sites. The results were thus in line with the first research question: emotional expressions of NVIB formats were rare on Twitter, which instead focused on objective information sharing. Based on the results, Twitter appears to be a news source where people share information instead of emotionally subjective experiences. This supports previous views of Twitter as a social media channel. Twitter has been seen to be based on information sharing and focuses on information rather than interpersonal relationships (Virolainen & Luoma-aho, 2018, p. 154).

The debate on social media, as well as the use of coping strategies, is spreading from one channel to another through negative electronic word-of-mouth, neWOM. The spread of neWOM can be seen as driven by both consumers' desire for social interaction and concerns about other consumers (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004, p. 39). Anger and frustration are shared in social interaction along with sharing information and personal experiences with others. In the research material, the cause of customer complaints was a charger failure, which was the motive of neWOM. On social media, product-harm crisis is newsworthy and generates neWOM, when customers feel violated and lose trust (Cleeren et al., 2017). Expressions of anger, frustration, and irritation were particularly prevalent in the emotional venting category. Negative eWOM has been found to have a stronger effect on customer brand ratings than positive eWOM (Oliver, 1997, as cited in Do et al., 2019), which may contribute to the spillover effect in research data as well. Negative eWOM is more advocacy-based (Brodie et al., 2013), when people spontaneously share their personal experiences, which increases neWOM influence.

Negative experiences can cause deep anger towards the brand, which is detrimental to the organization's operations and reputation. Especially when an

organization is assumed to be blamed for a failure, negative emotions cause negative engagement. Hateholders share negative emotions in public, for example, by venting emotions or a revenge. (Luoma-aho, 2015, pp. 11–12.) In social media, negative eWOM spreads rapidly, as research data shows. Negative experiences of the brand inspired people to share them on all channels and to vent emotions, especially on YouTube and Instagram. Negative customer engagement with strong emotions contributes to the spillover effect onto other customers (Bowden et al., 2017, pp. 879, 892), which was also reflected in the research material. Negatively valenced engagement may result in a decrease in brand engagement (Bowden et al., 2017), manifested as negatively valenced engagement expressions, such as negative commentary on social media channels.

Information about the charging issue spread on social media through a third party, in this case a popular video blogger. Coombs and Holladay (2005) state that publics' emotions such as disgust, contempt, and anger are exacerbated if the information is disseminated by a third party and the origin of the crisis is internal. Also, in the case of Apple, the negative feelings associated with the charging issue may have been stronger because of this. Joining others to the complaint (Pfeffer et al., 2014) also promoted a spillover effect of negative engagement from one channel to another. It has been found that the issues could become viral if there is a substantial novelty factor involved, such as celebrities. Pre-existing negative views from stakeholders also increased the likelihood that the online accusations would be shared and escalate. (Pang et al., 2014.) Some participants in the #Chargegate discussions seemed to have a negative perception of the brand already, which was confirmed by the negative experiences of others. In addition to the celebrity factor, the #Chargegate conversation also meets conventional news values, such as novelty and massive customer dissatisfaction (Pang et al., 2014), which contributed to the spread of the issue from social media to mainstream media as well.

The audience actively discussed and sought answers to their questions on social media channels, which in this case are issue arenas. The organization had no control over the content of the conversation, which was shaped by the situation and the interest of the audience (Luoma-aho & Vos, 2010). In the #Chargegate discussions, the audience was particularly interested in the negative experiences of others. The organization had an opportunity to participate in and influence the discussion on social media. However, Apple did not participate in the discussions regarding #Chargegate and remained silent during the crisis until the problem was resolved. In the absence of a corporate perspective, stakeholder opinions quickly began to dominate the arena (Luoma-aho & Vos, 2010). Also, in the #Chargegate discussions, the silence of the organization reinforced the negative engagement of the audience, the continuation of the conversation, and the spillover from one channel to another. The silence of the organization evoked negative emotions in the audience, which were dealt with by the means of emotional coping, such as emotional venting but also by means of cognitive coping such as rational thinking.

Participants in the #Chargegate discussions can also be seen as crisis communicators. According to the rhetorical arena model, crisis communicators can be defined as all actors who talk about the crisis and respond to talk about the crisis (Frandsen & Johansen, 2007, 2010a, 2010b). In social media, the crisis is discussed in sub-arenas, which mean several rhetorical arenas (Coombs & Holladay, 2014). The different roles of crisis communicators could also be identified from the #Chargegate discussions: providers of information based on their own experiences, critics of the organization, and supporters of the organization. These roles can also be viewed through the coping strategy framework. The role of information providers was particularly emphasized in the categories of rational thinking and instrumental support, while critics could be found especially in the category of emotional venting.

7.1.2 Managerial implications

From a practical point of view, this study has examined different intensity levels in negative engagement and the spillover of discussion on social media. Instead of focusing on what people are saying about the organization, what is interesting is how they say it. Such an approach allows communication professionals to get a more nuanced overview of negative engagement when the heterogeneity of the conversation is considered. Communication professionals are recommended to detect different intensity levels of NVIB, because NVIB has detrimental implications for brands and organizations (Azer & Alexander, 2018). It has also been observed that customers' choices and opinions influence others (Dholakia et al., 2004) and people rely in each other to get authoritative information (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). Customers engage in influencing behavior by warning and recommending others (Alexander & Jaakkola, 2016), for instance, which is also realized in the #Chargegate discussions. Particularly in the absence of official information, people seek information from each other and share their own experiences of the issue.

This study utilized a cognitive appraisal approach (Jin, 2010) in crisis communication to better understand public's emotions and other crisis responses. Instead of the traditional organizational and situational perspective, communication professionals should more often consider the public's perspective in crises, which could help to improve corporate crisis communication. Identifying the coping strategies used by the audience could increase mutual understanding and bridge the gap between the organization's responses and the public's coping strategies. Once the emotional needs of the public and the preferences of the coping strategies are understood and identified, organizations will be able to choose more appropriate and effective strategies. (Jin, 2010, pp. 547–548.)

People used different coping strategies to cope with a stressful crisis related to the #Chargegate discussions on social media channels. The audience is not just a

passive recipient but is actively engaging in a variety of coping strategies that will adjust their way of thinking, make the crisis understandable, and reduce stress (Jin, 2010). Expressions of certain categories were used the most in the research data, as reviewed in the previous chapter. In this thesis, an individual case study was examined, which is why the results cannot be generalized. Instead, it is recommended that communication professionals work to identify different ways of influencing and coping in social media discussions and to adapt the organization's reactions and responses accordingly. This thesis shows that organizations should take advantage of an audience-centered perspective to better match the needs of the customers. The coping and NVIB strategies used by the audience in a crisis help to identify the emotional needs of the customers when the perspective is in the participants of the discussion instead of the organization.

Influencing behavior often occurs through e-WOM and online reviews (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). Like negative e-WOM, NVIB is contagious and viral in nature in the online environment. It can cause short- or long-term harm to the brands and organizations economy and reputation. (Bowden et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2016.) The #Chargegate posts on YouTube, Twitter, and Instagram were published in 2018, but three years later they are still available. Negative WOM can remain online long after publication (Coombs & Holladay, 2007). Where a personal WOM may be likely forgotten, reviews on social media posts tend to stay readable for a long period of time (Van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 255).

The spill of discussion on social media is influenced by certain mechanisms that communication professionals should consider. In negative engagement spillover effect can weaken consumer brand engagement, while in positive engagement spillover effect would strengthen it (Bowden et al., 2017, pp. 879, 892). Online chatter amplifies the negative impact of spillover effect, which also affects sales and stock market performance (Borah & Tellis, 2016). Previous research has also shown that the attitudes of other customers determine the attitudes of customers towards a product or service specially in the absence of their own experience (Oliver, 1980). The #Chargegate conversation gained a great deal of media attention, reaching out to those who had personal experiences but also to those who did not have their own experiences. That is when the attitudes of others can play a crucial role.

Typically, brands with strong equity motivate people to engage more strongly. A sudden failure can lead to higher customer engagement behavior, especially if the brand has relatively high brand equity like Apple. Blows to the reputation of a reputable brand can be more disappointing than a brand with lower reputation. In such cases, customers might proactively engage in a negative WOM to warn other customers. Customers who are engaged with a brand are more likely to participate in brand discussions to get information from other users and to learn about the brand, as well as to share their own knowledge and experiences. Negative experiences can lead to affective states from anger to remorse towards the brand and customer engagement behavior. (Van Doorn et al., 2010, pp. 257–258.)

In this case, with the smartphone charging issue, even satisfied customers can engage to a strong negative WOM and become the company's hateholders.

Product-harm crisis is newsworthy, which is why they may generate negative WOM on social media (Cleeren et al., 2017). Also, in the #Chargegate discussions, customers felt violated and lost trust, which is detrimental to the brand's reputation. Even if a product-harm crisis is in one category, it can spread to all categories with a particular name and tarnish the overall image of the brand, creating a spillover effect (Cleeren et al., 2017). The #Chargegate discussions also talked about the Apple brand, even though the product failure affected only a few device models. Consumer's trust in the brand is supported by a good reputation and a positive attitude of others. In contrast, a brand's bad reputation increases consumer suspicion and can lead to sensitivity for potential brand flaws, making it difficult to trust the brand (Lau & Lee, 1999). Negative experiences can promote negative engagement, as brand experience and brand trust have been found to have a significant impact on brand engagement (Hidayanti et al., 2018).

The smartphone charging problem is a paracrisis, where negative information spread in public and damaged the organization's reputation before a crisis arises. It also required action from the organization. Social media has increased paracrises and thus the need for quick and appropriate actions from management and communication professionals. Due to its public nature, stakeholders can evaluate management's response to paracrises, which can affect the organization's reputation. (Coombs & Holladay, 2012.) According to the thematic arena theory, the focus is shifting to issues and discussions instead of the organization being at the center (Luoma-aho & Vos, 2010). This thesis shows how the organization should constantly monitor and actively listen to the discussion on social media. The organization is required to be active in finding key forums for audiences and strive to participate in the discussion with the aim of dialogue. Corporate communication should evolve from reactive to proactive, with the aim of preventing crises in advance. By active listening, weak change signals can be detected in time.

#Chargegate was an example of an issue in which an organization remained silent even when customers were longing for answers. Silence may have had an amplifying effect on NVIB and the spillover effect as public frustration and anger increased. Previous research suggests that issues can transit into mainstream media if accusations are not challenged online by providing a prompt, appropriate, or adequate response (Pang et al., 2014). This was also the case with Apple, when the #Chargegate phenomenon was covered on news sites. Reputation damage could have been mitigated by responding to the accusations quickly on the same social media channels. The continuation or death of a conversation depends on the response of the organization and the satisfaction of stakeholders with the response. (Pang et al., 2014.)

The results of the study show that it is important for communication professionals and PR practitioners to consider the effects of negative engagement. It can significantly affect an organization's intangible assets, such as trust, reputation, and legitimacy from a stakeholder perspective (Luoma-aho & Lievonon, 2017). Negative engagement and negative user-generated content on social media may affect, for example, consumers' purchase decisions-making process (Hutter et al., 2013) and, consequently, cause profit losses and negative stock returns to the brand (Tirunillai & Tellis, 2012). However, other communication activities, such as e-WOM, are important to distinguish from influencing behavior. Once communication professionals identify NVIB and understand how customers engage in NVIB, it is also possible to develop appropriate strategies for managing it.

7.2 Limitations and suggestions for future research

The reliability of a quantitative study is addressed through the concepts of validity and reliability. Validity means that what has been promised has been studied in the study, and reliability means that the study is reproducible. In the evaluation of qualitative research, validity and reliability have often been discarded and replaced by other concepts. Qualitative content analysis can be assessed by the concepts of credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability, for instance. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, pp. 160–163.)

Credibility means whether the conceptualization and interpretation made by the researcher correspond to the subjects' perceptions (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 162). The research considers that the interpretations made are based on the researcher's subjective views. The researcher has sought to critically examine her own prejudices and preconceptions, but they have still had an impact on all decisions. The data has been read carefully several times, with the aim of reaching the subjects' interpretation of the perceptions. Nevertheless, full certainty about the actual views of the subjects cannot be achieved. As the data is based on texts by unknown authors, their significance cannot be clarified, and the researcher depends on her own interpretation.

Transferability means the transferability of results to a similar context outside the research context (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 162). The small sample size and the nature of the qualitative study mean that no generalizations can be derived from the results. The subject of this case study was an individual case, the #Chargegate discussion, the features of which are unlikely to be repeated in the same way in all similar social media discussions. Confirmability means that the results of the study are evaluated by others (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 162). This research has been evaluated by others during the seminar and before the final approval of the thesis.

Dependability means that the researcher must consider the various factors that cause external variation. The research should be carried out in accordance with the general guidelines for conducting scientific research. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 162.) Good scientific practice has been followed in conducting this research. This includes care and accuracy in handling the data and presenting the results, as well as detail in the research reporting. The analysis of the data sought to utilize theories and methods suitable for the research. The research literature was based on high-quality, peer-reviewed academic publications. Timeliness, versatility, and relevance have been key criteria in the selection of research literature.

Pre-collected data has been used in this study, from which a sample of a suitable size was selected by the researcher. The study of social media data has considered ethical principles by ensuring the anonymity of the subjects by omitting direct quotations. On the other hand, the lack of direct quotes is challenging for the reader. The reader does not have the opportunity to see the basis on which the researcher presents interpretations and conclusions. Additionally, the duration of the study was quite long, during which changes have taken place in the field of research. However, the pre-collected and stored data ensured consistency and preservation during the investigation.

An individual research method may not provide a sufficiently comprehensive picture of the research subject. According to the theoretical triangulation, several theoretical perspectives have been used in this study to broaden the research perspective and to improve reliability (Tuomi & Sarajärvi, 2018, p. 168). In this thesis, qualitative content analysis has been supplemented with quantitative methods by quantifying the data, allowing both qualitative and quantitative results to be observed. In addition, two different main theories have been used as the framework for the analysis of the research data: NVIB (Azer & Alexander, 2018, 2020) and coping strategies (Duhachek, 2005; Jin, 2010). By combining different theories and methods, efforts have been made to deepen the information obtained from the research subject and to increase the attractiveness of the research.

Negative engagement on social media offers several interesting topics for further research. This thesis focused on the specific manifestation of negative engagement, NVIB, and the coping strategies through spillover effect, which need more research to understand them more comprehensively. Future research could explore different contexts, industries, and sectors to find out if the influencing behavior and coping strategies differ from the results presented in this thesis. The theories used in this study could be about other social media channels, discussion groups, or online review sites, for instance. It would also be possible to limit the study to a specific age group or user group, such as Z and X generation differences or members of a particular online brand community. Another organization or crisis on social media could be selected for research and their behavior and characteristics could be studied. The private sector, the public sector and the third

sector may deal with the issue differently, which in turn has an impact on the public response and the spillover of the issue.

Understanding the preferences of the public's coping strategies will help organizations to choose the most appropriate crisis management messages. It would be interesting to study how an organization's actions in a crisis, such as silence or active crisis communication strategies, affect customers' choice of coping strategies. Customers' influencing behavior has the potential to alter the attitudes and behavior of other actors on social media. Future research may examine the impact of each form of NVIB on other actors' attitudes toward the organization. Some messages may have a stronger negative impact than others, so potential detrimental impacts of NVIB and the spillover effect on the brand and the organization could be investigated. It is essential for communication professionals to understand how customers engage with NVIB formats and coping strategies and the impact of the spillover effect. Therefore, it could be explored how communication professionals manage each form of NVIB and coping as well as the spillover effect on social media.

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