The Medium Matters: Effects on What Consumers Talk about Regarding Movie Trailers

Research-in-Progress

Yi Shen
National University of Singapore 15 Computing Drive, Singapore 117418
shenyi@comp.nus.edu.sg

Hock Chuan Chan
National University of Singapore 15 Computing Drive, Singapore 117418
chanhc@comp.nus.edu.sg

Cheng Suang Heng
National University of Singapore
15 Computing Drive, Singapore 117418
hengcs@comp.nus.edu.sg

Abstract

Entertainment consumers are known to consult others' opinions to make consumption decisions via social media. However, little research has investigated whether various configurations of communication media design features affect what consumers talk about regarding movie trailers. To address the research question, we integrate past research on psychological drivers of interpersonal communication and computer-mediated communication to propose that different commentary presentation of social media would affect the relative importance of communication motivations, which in turn shapes the specific messages communicated (i.e., valence, informational content, and emotional content). We propose two studies to test our research model and hypotheses. We hope to contribute to the literature by empirically investigating the creation of specific types of messages, elucidating the role of configuration of social media design features in shaping the messages communicated, and highlighting the impacts of interface design on achieving interpersonal communication goals.

Keywords: Word-of-mouth, interpersonal communication, computer-mediated communication, social media, interface design, entertainment marketing

Introduction

In the entertainment industry, everyone seems to have an opinion (Lieberman and Esgate 2002)! Entertainment consumers actively share their "word-of-mouth" (WOM) through a variety of channels, including face-to-face, over the phone, and over social media. The advancement in social media has made WOM very easily shared and widely accessible (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Kimmel and Kitchen 2014; Kozinets et al. 2010). In the context of motion pictures, for example, consumers communicate frequently with one another via a plethora of movie listing and review sites, such as movie databases (e.g., IMDb.com), movie portals (e.g., Yahoo Movies), review sections of online trailers (e.g., Youtube.com), movie recommendation sites (e.g., Moviefine.com), and social networking sites (e.g., Twitter).

The advancement in social media has also introduced dramatic changes to the presentation of WOM. Noteworthy, a new trending form of WOM is the real-time commentary presentation called *danmaku*, which enables consumers to communicate their opinions regarding videos (e.g., movie trailers) in novel ways. The core feature of *danmaku* commentary presentation is the scrolling marquee comments, which are overlaid directly onto the video and synchronized to a specific playback time. Unlike traditional WOM communication media whereby WOM are hosted in a separate space outside the video (e.g., the separate review sections on Youtube.com), *danmaku* allows comments on a video to be simultaneously broadcasted to all viewers in real (video) time. Hence, popular video sites such as nicovideo.jp and bilibili.com have pioneered its introduction. As social media become integrated into everyday activities, it provides a timely and interesting context to study how digitally mediated everyday experience (e.g., interpersonal communication) is shaped and evolve over time (Yoo 2010).

Classic communication theory conjectures that each new form of communication media shapes messages communicated differently (McLuhan 1964). Thus, the emergence of *danmaku*, as a novel configuration of social media design features and a new conduit for interpersonal communication, motivates our research question: Whether different configurations of social media design features (e.g., *danmaku* vs separate commentary presentation) will affect what consumers talk about (i.e., valence, informational content, and emotional content)?

Answers to this question are timely and important for both researchers and practitioners. Although prior literature on interpersonal communication has examined some behavioral drivers of WOM (Berger 2011; Berger 2014; Berger and Milkman 2012; Berger and Schwartz 2011; Cheema and Kaikati 2010; Dubois et al. 2011), research on the "creation of WOM content" still lags. A paucity of research has attempted to posit what people talk. For example, Berger and Iyengar (2013) compare oral and written communication, and demonstrate that written communication leads consumers to mention more intersting products and brands. Yet, empirical evidence on the generation of specific WOM content is sparse. Furthermore, despite the fact that social media as vehicles for interpersonal communication have ecinced significant changes in the ways entertainment consumers interact and influence one another, very limited research has examined the role of communication media itself in deterterming its usage and effects. In essence, the need for additional inquiries into this area is underscored by ongoing developments in communication technology. As everyday artifacts (e.g., vehicles for interpersonal communication) are increasingly digitalized, it becomes vital to understand the desirable configurations of these artifacts and the ways in which interpersonal communication could be shaped by these artifacts (Yoo 2010; Yoo et al. 2010).

Our current research investigates how different configurations of the communication media may shape the WOM communicated in the context of entertainment marketing. The entertainment (more specifically, the motion picture) marketing represents a perfect context for the following reasons: First, WOM is found to be a major springboard driving box office revenues (Dellarocas et al. 2007; Liu 2006). Second, to captivate consumers' attention and promote movies, the industry heavily relies on movie trailers and teasers (as a form of advertisements) which are commonly shared via video sharing websites. Third, social media represent an effective vehicle for electronic WOM (eWOM) because consumers frequently read, post, and share their comments on video clips (e.g., movie trailers and teasers). Last, the findings might be generalized to other entertainment contexts such as gaming and television, and hence enhance our understanding of the interface between technology and experiential media products in the digital age. In sum, understanding the usage and effects of *danmaku* is critical in elucidating the role of communication technology in shaping messages communicated.

Literature Review

Word-of-Mouth and Interpersonal Communication

Word-of-mouth (WOM) and interpersonal communication impact consumer decision and behavior. WOM refers to oral, informal, interpersonal communication between perceived noncommercial communicators and receivers regarding a brand, an organization, a product, or a service (Higie et al. 1987). It is a process of conveying information from person to person and plays a major role in consumer purchase decisions (Richins and Root-Shaffer 1988). Most research has focused on its consequences or how it influences choice, diffusion, and sales (Chevalier and Mayzlin 2003; De Bruyn and Lilien 2008; Lee et al. 2009). Specifically, WOM can create awareness, stimulate belief updating, and generate normative pressures (Van den Bulte and Wuyts 2009). The emergence of Internet-based media has facilitated the development of electronic WOM (eWOM), which is accessible to people via online channels (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004). Moreover, eWOM enables consumers to socially interact with one another, exchange attitudes or opinions about products or services, and make informed purchase decisions via computer-mediated conversations (Blazevic et al. 2013; Hoffman and Novak 1996; King et al. 2014).

Extant research has explored the psychological drivers of WOM (Berger 2014; Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sundaram et al. 1998). In particular, WOM is goal-driven and serves five key functions, namely, impression management, emotion regulation, information acquisition, social bonding, and persuasion (Berger 2014). As Berger (2014) rationalizes, these drivers are predominantly self- (rather than other-) serving. Table 1 summarizes the key drivers of WOM.

Table 1. Drivers of Word-of-Mouth Communication (Summarized from Berger 2014)		
Driver	Components	Description
Impression Management	Self-Enhancement	A preference for positive over negative self-views (Sedikides and Gregg 2008).
	Identity-Signaling	To signal certain characteristics, knowledge, tastes, or experiences (Berger and Heath 2007; Chung and Darke 2006; Packard and Wooten 2013).
	Filling Conversation Space	The instinct to converse with others (Adams 2011).
Emotion Regulation	Generating Social Support	To buffer negative feelings and boost well-being by talking to others (Berger and Buechel 2012).
	Venting	To deal with negative consumption experiences and provide catharsis that helps reduce the emotional impact (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sundaram et al. 1998).
	Facilitating Sense Making	To attain a better sense of what is happening and why (Rimé 2009).
	Reducing Dissonance	To reduce cognitive dissonance or help bolster the decision (Engel et al. 1995).
	Taking Vengeance	To punish a business for a negative consumption experience (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sundaram et al. 1998).
	Encouraging Rehearsal	To rehearse and relive positive emotional experience (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Rimé 2009).
Information Acquisition	Seeking Advice	To acquire relevant information through observational learning (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Rimé 2009).
	Resolving Problems	To get advice on how to deal with and fix the problem (Sundaram et al. 1998).
Social Bonding	Reinforcing Shared Views	To reinforce shared views and group membership, and to connect with similar others (Berger and Heath 2007; DiMaggio 1987).
	Reducing Loneliness and Social Exclusion	A desire for social connection (Lakin et al. 2008; Maner et al. 2007).
Persuasion	Persuading Others	To influence others' attitudes and consumption choices (Roskos-Ewoldsen 1997).

Two drivers are particularly important in the context of entertainment marketing. The first one is "impression management". WOM as a form of social interaction presents an opportunity for consumers to present themselves in particular ways to achieve desired impressions (Berger 2014). Often, WOM facilitate impression management through self-enhancement. The need to self-enhance, or bolster the self-concept, is a fundamental human motivation (Fiske 2001). It is generally acknowledged that people tend to present positive self-views rather than negative ones (Sedikides and Gregg 2008). What people talk about and share might influence how others view them and how they view themselves. In addition, consumers' tastes, such as the movies they watch, can act as signals of identity, communicating useful information regarding their self-concepts. Negative content (as compared with positive ones) is less likely to be disseminated to others as it reflects negatively on the sender (Berger and Milkman 2012). Similarly, consumers are more willing to share their opinions on novel, unique, or surprising products because doing so promotes a positive and favorable self-view (Berger and Schwartz 2011). Therefore, the goal of impression management is particularly relevant in the context of entertainment marketing because sharing WOM about entertaining products (e.g., movies) makes them seem interesting and in-the-know (Ritson and Elliott 1999).

The second one is "social bonding". Interpersonal communication helps fulfill individuals' desire for social relationships (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004). Consumers engage in brand communities because they wish to connect with like-minded others (Muniz Jr and O'guinn 2001). Talking to someone about a movie they both like would reinforce the fact that both have common interests and good tastes. Talking about a popular movie gives individuals social currency that allows them to fit in with their community.

Although the relative importance of different drivers[1] is determined by the context of communication (e.g., Berger 2014), whether such relative importance could be triggered by the design (e.g., presentation of WOM) and use of communication technology remains unanswered.

Computer-Mediated Communication

Prior literature on the classic models of communication has identified a few key components of communication, including source, audience, message, channel, and effects (Berlo 1960). Noteworthy, McLuhan (1964) posits that the communication media, independent of the content they carry, mediates communication. Consequently, each new form of communication media shapes messages (e.g., WOM) differently. Echoing McLuhan (1964) dictum "the medium is the message", the social media platform itself has the potential to directly determine its usage and effects. Depending on the medium, individuals will make sense of the environment differently and consequently use the medium differently.

Social media differ from traditional media in a few notable ways. Two critical ones worthy of mention result from the increased distance between the source of communication and the audience in digital environments. First, such distance implies (a)synchronicity of communication. Synchronicity refers to a state in which communication parties exhibit a shared pattern of coordinated synchronous behavior with a common focus (Harrison et al. 2003; McGrath and Kelly 1986). Unlike face-to-face oral communication with little break in between conversational turns, communication via computer-mediated platforms may be relatively asynchronous (depending on media) and respond may be minutes, hours, or even days later (Dennis et al. 2008; Dennis and Valacich 1999). Second, the varying distance between communication source and audience affects the difference in whether the audience is salient during communication. Unlike offline face-to-face discussion, the audience is often less salient in online communication due to the lack of physical presence and hence social presence (the degree to which a medium facilitates the establishment of interpersonal connection between communication parties) (Short et al. 1976). Social presence represents the capabilities of a media, such as a video sharing website, to allow consumers to experience other individuals as being psychologically present (Fulk et al. 1987). Research on computer-mediated communication has shown that website design features can manifest social presence through imaginary interactions facilitated by the website (Hassanein and Head 2006). This implies that although

---

[1] The other three drivers are less important in the current context. Specifically, the goal of emotion regulation is largely determined by the content of the movie trailer rather than the context (e.g., commentary presentation). Furthermore, consumers seek fun and enjoyment rather than helpful information in entertainment context. In addition, the goal of persuasion occurs more frequently in a sales context.

video sharing websites generally do not support direct interpersonal communication among users, the feelings of social presence might be conveyed through simulating a sense of interacting with others.

The literature on classic models of communication and computer-mediated communication has important implications for studying how eWOM might be shaped by the communication media. First, social media platform itself might shape the content of eWOM. Different configurations of the social media design features might influence consumers' perception of the environment differently (e.g., to form different goals or motivations when making sense of the environment), and thus shapes the messages communicated differently. One possible configuration of social media (e.g., commentary presentation) concerns the different levels of synchronicity and audience salience enabled. Second, the sense of synchronicity and audience salience supported by the media might influence the relative salience of WOM communication motivations. In essence, our study aims to investigate how different configurations of social media design features would affect the relative importance of divers of WOM, and in turn shape the WOM content encoded and transmitted via the media.

Research Model and Hypotheses

Synthesizing the theorizing and findings from studies on word-of-mouth and computer-mediated communication, we propose our research model (depicted in Figure 1). We focus on the configuration of social media in terms of how user-generated comments are presented along with the video content. Specifically, we examine two types of commentary presentation (i.e., *danmaku* and separate commentary presentation). We argue that different commentary presentations influence the relative importance of various word-of-mouth motivations (i.e., impression management vs. social bonding), and thus shape the messages created in terms of the valence of WOM (positive vs. negative), informational content of WOM, and emotional content of WOM. Furthermore, these effects would be moderated by audience size.

Figure 1. Research Model
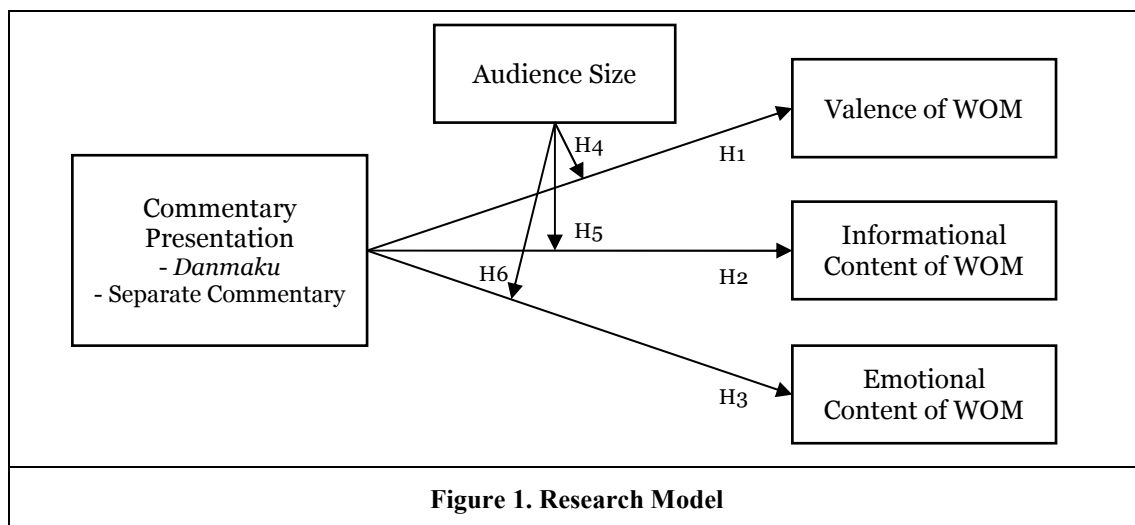
Media Configuration

Although communication via *danmaku* and via traditional separate review section differs in a number of ways, two key dimensions are noteworthy: (1) synchronicity and (2) audience salience.

Synchronicity, which stems from "when" WOM is displayed, can be a double edged sword. On the one hand, synchronicity is advantageous because it allows consumers to view others' comments in sync with a specific scene of the trailer (in *danmaku*) and also in real (video) time. This is not the case for communication via separate commentary presentation which is less synchronous due to the lack of shared focus on specific scene or a common ground for discussion. In essence, synchronicity enhances "social bonding" by facilitating a shared focus (Berger 2014). On the other hand, synchronicity may be disadvantageous because consumers often have to say whatever comes to their mind (i.e., speaking off the cuff) in *danmaku* to ensure that their comments are synchronized to a specific playback time. They hence do not experience the advantage offered by communication via separate commentary presentation – that

is, having ample time to carefully craft and refine their WOM until it is polished. As Toma et al. (2008) rationalize, asynchronicity enables consumers to formulate their opinions into more composed and thoughtful messages, leading to greater opportunities to plan, create, and edit their self-presentation. In essence, asynchrony facilitates "impression management" (Berger 2014).

Audience salience can be affected by "where" comments are displayed. *Danmaku* allows WOM to be displayed as streams of moving subtitles overlaid onto the video playback screen, whereas WOM is displayed in a separate review section in traditional video sharing websites. With *danmaku*, once a user send a comment, the comment immediately appears on the video, usually moving from right to left on the screen. This allows individuals' opinions to be immediately read (heard) by others and thus increases the interactivity of the video watching experience, leading to a higher degree of "social presence" (Hassanein and Head 2006). Consequently, "social bonding" would be more salient in communication via *danmaku* as it facilitates an interactive video watching experience and provides a novel way to connect with others for social support (Berger 2014).

In sum, we argue that different configurations of commentary presentation (with varying degrees of synchronicity and audience salience) affect how consumers make sense of the environment, triggering different motivations of word-of-mouth communication. Specifically, the motivation of impression management is supported by separate commentary presentation while the goal of social bonding is enabled by *danmaku*.

How the Media Shapes the Messages (WOM)

Aforementioned, "impression management" motivation plays a major role when communicating with others via separate commentary presentation. Desired impressions could be manifested in positive WOM (Chung and Darke 2006; Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Rimé 2009; Sundaram et al. 1998). Hence, impression management may help explain why positive WOM tends to be more common than negative WOM across various consumption domains (Chevalier and Mayzlin 2006; East et al. 2007). Indeed, consumers may share positive WOM to avoid coming across as a negative person. Furthermore, the association between positive WOM and desired impression is stronger in contexts whereby the item or experience being discussed signals something about the sender (Berger 2014). Consumers may spread positive WOM to show that they make wise choices. For example, talking about positive movie watching experiences reflects one's tastes (e.g., "the movie I chose was great") (Wojnicki and Godes 2008). Hence, consumers might be reluctant to share negative WOM as it might signal one lacks expertise in making wise choices (picking good movies) or one has poor taste. Thus, when communication is driven by impression management, consumers are more likely to share positive WOM. In contrast, aforementioned, communication driven by social bonding (in *danmaku*) tends to elicit spontaneous WOM which may contain both positive and negative WOM. In sum, we posit that:

H1: WOM communication via separate commentary presentation (compared with that via danmaku) leads consumers to mention more positive WOM.

Impression management also encourages useful information to be shared because it makes the sharer seem smart and helpful (Berger and Milkman 2012). Thus, when communication is driven by impression management, such as that via separate commentary presentation, consumers are more likely to craft informational content (e.g., to share relevant background information of the movie) which might reflect their knowledge and expertise in the domain. Hence, we posit that:

H2: WOM communication via separate commentary presentation (compared with that via danmaku) leads consumers to mention more informational content of WOM.

When "social bonding" plays a greater role in communication, such as in communication via *danmaku*, more emotional comments will be posted. This is because sharing emotional experience or narrative increases the chance that others will feel similarly. This emotional similarity enhances group cohesiveness and help consumers achieve common attention and coordinated actions (Barsade and Gibson 2007). In the current entertainment context, talking about emotional states induced by watching the movie trailer helps establish the common ground for discussion among viewers who share the same feelings. Similarly, expressing likings toward the actors in the movie trailer might reinforce common interests and shared views among the fans of the actors. Thus, we hypothesize that:

H3: WOM communication via danmaku (compared with that via separate commentary presentation) leads consumers to mention more emotional content of WOM.

The Moderating Effect of Audience Size

To verify our assumption that different motivations induced by commentary presentations drive what consumers share, we examine the interaction effect of commentary presentation and audience size. Communication may involve talking to one person (i.e., narrowcasting) or talking to multiple people simultaneously (i.e., broadcasting). One fundamental difference between narrowcasting and broadcasting is the different focus of attention triggered (Barasch and Berger 2014). Individuals' attention is limited such that there exists a direct tradeoff between attention directed toward the self and directed toward others (Gilovich et al. 2000; Trommsdorff and John 1992). When consumers are self-focused, they are less likely to consider others' interests or concerns and it becomes more difficult for them to embrace others' perspectives (Chiou and Lee 2013; Fenigstein and Abrams 1993). Although consumers have a natural tendency to be self-focused, communication with just one person (narrowcasting) promotes other-focus because it makes the other party more salient and concrete (Alicke and Govorun 2005). Broadcasting, in contrast, cannot trigger the movement from self-focus to other-focus due to the increased effort to take into account many others' perspectives (Zhang and Epley 2012). In addition, one's image is now judged by a lot more people in broadcasting (as opposed to one person in narrowcasting). Therefore, we argue that audience size might influence the relative importance of impression management and social bonding motivations by shifting consumers' attentional focus. Specifically, the goal of impression management becomes more salient (than that of social bonding) in broadcasting because broadcasting facilitates self-focus and self-concept. Furthermore, broadcasting might hinder social bonding because the larger the audience, the less likely everyone shares the same view. Separate commentary presentation is congruent with the motivation of impression management, and thus it encourages more positive and informational content being shared in broadcasting. *Danmaku*, on the other hand, is congruent with the motivation of social bonding, and thus it encourages more emotional content being shared during narrowcasting. In sum, we hypothesize that:

H4: Audience size will moderate the effect of commentary presentation on the valence of WOM. Specifically, with a bigger audience size, the separate commentary presentation will lead to even more positive WOM.

H5: Audience size will moderate the effect of commentary presentation on the informational content of WOM. Specifically, with a bigger audience size, the separate commentary presentation will lead to even more informational content of WOM.

H6: Audience size will moderate the effect of commentary presentation on the emotional content of WOM. Specifically, with a smaller audience size, the danmaku commentary presentation will lead to even more emotional content of WOM.

Methodology

Study One: Laboratory Experiment

Task and Manipulations. In our proposed Study One, to investigate our research model, we adopt a laboratory experiment to directly manipulate commentary presentation and audience size, and measure the underlying motivations of communication. Participants will be randomly assigned to one of four conditions of a 2 (commentary presentation: *danmaku* vs. separate commentary) × 2 (audience size: broadcasting vs. narrowcasting) between-subjects design. Two video sharing websites will be developed: one implementing the *danmaku* commentary presentation, and the other resembling a video sharing website with separate commentary presentation. Audience size is manipulated by showing one (narrowcasting) or many (broadcasting, e.g., >100) other viewers watching the same movie trailer on the video sharing website. The stimulus used in the experiment would be a new movie trailer, which will be carefully selected to avoid "noise" or confoundment in case some participants have seen the trailer before but some have not.

Subjects. A total of 120 participants (with 30 randomly assigned to each manipulation) will be recruited. Participants will watch the movie trailer and post comments at their own pace. Finally, participants will

complete a survey with items measuring impression management, social bonding, and control variables (see next paragraph). To verify the effectiveness of the manipulation of audience size and the attention focus resulting from audience size, participants will be asked to rate the extent to which they are thinking about the self or the others when sharing WOM (Barasch and Berger 2014).

Measurement. The dependent variables will be analyzed with Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC), which employs a set of built-in dictionaries to identify and classify textual comments into its valence (i.e., positive vs. negative), informational, and emotional (Pennebaker et al. 2007). Also, we will adapt the measurement items for impression management and social bonding motivations from prior studies on the psychological drivers of WOM (Berger 2014; Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sundaram et al. 1998). In addition, participants' attitude toward the movie trailer, movie content and genre preference, and the perceived complexity of the video websites (adapted from Nadkarni and Gupta 2007) will be controlled. All the measurement items will be administered using seven-point Likert scales. Other control variables such as participants' age, gender, ethnicity, education, and other demographic data will be obtained.

Study Two: Field Data (from Two Video Sharing Websites)

Although laboratory experiment offers us better causality (Dooley 2001), we are also keen to test our research model in a real-world setting. To do so, we have liaised with two video sharing websites: one *danmaku* video sharing website and one traditional video sharing website with a separate commentary section. We will construct the WOM dataset from these two sites, such as user-generated text comments on the movie trailers and user demographics. Commentary presentation is an indicator variable that is set to "1" for WOM shared on the *danmaku* video sharing website, and set to "0" otherwise. The number of views of a movie trailer when the WOM is generated will be used as a proxy for audience size. Measurements of WOM content (valence, informational content, and emotional content) will be analyzed with Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (Pennebaker et al. 2007). Furthermore, a series of relevant control variables (e.g., trailer length, the number of likes, movie genre, movie rating, movie popularity, etc.) will be taken into account in our analysis.

Potential Contributions and Conclusion

This study has critical potential theoretical and practical contributions. First, although research on WOM has tried explaining "why" people share (e.g., Berger 2014; Berger and Schwartz 2011; Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004), extant works are less insightful in addressing "what" people share. Prior research has found that "what" people share, such as the valence (positive vs. negative) and content (informational and emotional) of WOM, is important in influencing consumers' attitude toward the content and the social transmission of it (e.g., Berger and Milkman 2012). Yet, the "creation" of such diverse messages (WOM) is seldom investigated. Only by understanding the "creation", we can further evaluate the design and usage of eWOM platforms in achieving desired communication outcomes. This study hence represents an important exploration to elucidate the generation of specific types of WOM content. Second, it underscores the design and configuration of social media and the impacts on interpersonal communication. Although classic models of communication conjecture that the medium itself has the potential to directly determine its usage and impacts, it remains unknown how emerging forms of social media would shape the messages differently. We aim to fill this gap and contribute to the literature on communication by empirically investigating two commentary presentations and their effects on the specific content of WOM generated via the media. Third, this research will complement the conventional approach in studying the drivers of WOM by highlight the impacts of interface design (i.e., commentary presentation) on interpersonal communication goals. Fourth, it adds to a growing body of research on the nature and consequences of the digital mediation of everyday experiences (Kallinikos et al. 2013; Yoo 2010; Yoo et al. 2010). In particular, this research explores the impacts of different configuration of digital artifacts (e.g., commentary presentation) and shared use of digital artifacts (e.g., audience size) in a novel context.

Furthermore, this research has potential important implications for the design and use of social media design features. Entertainment marketing practitioners have long been concerned about the design issues of marketing/advertising platforms. Social media with review systems represent a powerful means by which consumers may obtain valuable information about entertainment, such as movies. Despite the commercial interests in various social media platforms as new conduit for movie advertising, the question

of how to better leverage the capabilities of such new media to achieve effective communication objectives is still not clear. Upon completion, this research would greatly benefit practitioners in identifying and implementing effective configurations of commentary presentation.

References

Adams, P. 2011. *Grouped: How Small Groups of Friends Are the Key to Influence on the Social Web.* Berkeley, CA: New Riders.

Alicke, M.D., and Govorun, O. 2005. "The Better-Than-Average Effect," in *The Self in Social Judgment,* M.D. Alicke, D.A. Dunning and J.I. Krueger. (eds.). New York: Psychology Press, pp. 85-106.

Barasch, A., and Berger, J. 2014. "Broadcasting and Narrowcasting: How Audience Size Affects What People Share," *Journal of Marketing Research* (51:3), pp. 286-299.

Barsade, S.G., and Gibson, D.E. 2007. "Why Does Affect Matter in Organizations?," *The Academy of Management Perspectives* (21:1), pp. 36-59.

Berger, J. 2011. "Arousal Increases Social Transmission of Information," *Psychological Science* (22:7), pp. 891-893.

Berger, J. 2014. "Word of Mouth and Interpersonal Communication: A Review and Directions for Future Research," *Journal of Consumer Psychology* (24:4), pp. 586-607.

Berger, J., and Heath, C. 2007. "Where Consumers Diverge from Others: Identity Signaling and Product Domains," *Journal of Consumer Research* (34:2), pp. 121-134.

Berger, J., and Iyengar, R. 2013. "Communication Channels and Word of Mouth: How the Medium Shapes the Message," *Journal of Consumer Research* (40:3), pp. 567-579.

Berger, J., and Milkman, K.L. 2012. "What Makes Online Content Viral?," *Journal of Marketing Research* (49:2), pp. 192-205.

Berger, J., and Schwartz, E.M. 2011. "What Drives Immediate and Ongoing Word of Mouth?," *Journal of Marketing Research* (48:5), pp. 869-880.

Berger, J.A., and Buechel, E. 2012. "Facebook Therapy? Why Do People Share Self-Relevant Content Online?," in: *University of Miami Working Paper.*

Berlo, D.K. 1960. *The Process of Communication.* New York: Holt.

Blazevic, V., Hammedi, W., Garnefeld, I., Rust, R.T., Keiningham, T., Andreassen, T.W., Donthu, N., and Carl, W. 2013. "Beyond Traditional Word-of-Mouth: An Expanded Model of Customer-Driven Influence," *Journal of Service Management* (24:3), pp. 294-313.

Cheema, A., and Kaikati, A.M. 2010. "The Effect of Need for Uniqueness on Word of Mouth," *Journal of Marketing Research* (47:3), pp. 553-563.

Chevalier, J.A., and Mayzlin, D. 2003. "The Effect of Word of Mouth on Sales: Online Book Reviews," National Bureau of Economic Research.

Chevalier, J.A., and Mayzlin, D. 2006. "The Effect of Word of Mouth on Sales: Online Book Reviews," *Journal of Marketing Research* (43:3), pp. 345-354.

Chiou, W.-B., and Lee, C.-C. 2013. "Enactment of One-to-Many Communication May Induce Self-Focused Attention That Leads to Diminished Perspective Taking: The Case of Facebook," *Judgment and Decision Making* (8:3), p. 372.

Chung, C.M., and Darke, P.R. 2006. "The Consumer as Advocate: Self-Relevance, Culture, and Word-of-Mouth," *Marketing Letters* (17:4), pp. 269-279.

De Bruyn, A., and Lilien, G.L. 2008. "A Multi-Stage Model of Word-of-Mouth Influence through Viral Marketing," *International Journal of Research in Marketing* (25:3), pp. 151-163.

Dellarocas, C., Zhang, X.M., and Awad, N.F. 2007. "Exploring the Value of Online Product Reviews in Forecasting Sales: The Case of Motion Pictures," *Journal of Interactive Marketing* (21:4), pp. 23-45.

Dennis, A.R., Fuller, R.M., and Valacich, J.S. 2008. "Media, Tasks, and Communication Processes: A Theory of Media Synchronicity," *MIS Quarterly* (32:3), pp. 575-600.

Dennis, A.R., and Valacich, J.S. 1999. "Rethinking Media Richness: Towards a Theory of Media Synchronicity," *HICSS-32. Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Hawaii International Conference on Systems Sciences, 1999.* , Maui, HI, USA: IEEE.

DiMaggio, P. 1987. "Classification in Art," *American Sociological Review* (52:4), pp. 440-455.

Dooley, K. 2001. *Social Research Methods*, (4 ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Citeseer.

Dubois, D., Rucker, D.D., and Tormala, Z.L. 2011. "From Rumors to Facts, and Facts to Rumors: The Role of Certainty Decay in Consumer Communications," *Journal of Marketing Research* (48:6), pp. 1020-1032.

East, R., Hammond, K., and Wright, M. 2007. "The Relative Incidence of Positive and Negative Word of Mouth: A Multi-Category Study," *International Journal of Research in Marketing* (24:2), pp. 175-184.

Engel, J.F., Blackwell, R.D., and Miniard, P.W. 1995. *Consumer Behavior*, (8 ed.). Fort Worth: Dryden Press.

Fenigstein, A., and Abrams, D. 1993. "Self-Attention and the Egocentric Assumption of Shared Perspectives," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (29:4), pp. 287-303.

Fiske, S.T. 2001. "Social and Societal Pragmatism: Commentary on Augustinos, Gaskell, and Lorenzi-Cioldi. ," in *Representations of the Social: Bridging Research Traditions,* K. Deaux and G. Philogene (eds.). New York, NY: Blackwell.

Fulk, J., Steinfield, C.W., Schmitz, J., and Power, J.G. 1987. "A Social Information Processing Model of Media Use in Organizations," *Communication Research* (14:5), pp. 529-552.

Gilovich, T., Medvec, V.H., and Savitsky, K. 2000. "The Spotlight Effect in Social Judgment: An Egocentric Bias in Estimates of the Salience of One's Own Actions and Appearance," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (78:2), p. 211.

Harrison, D.A., Mohammed, S., McGrath, J.E., Florey, A.T., and Vanderstoep, S.W. 2003. "Time Matters in Team Performance: Effects of Member Familiarity, Entrainment, and Task Discontinuity on Speed and Quality," *Personnel Psychology* (56:3), pp. 633-669.

Hassanein, K., and Head, M. 2006. "The Impact of Infusing Social Presence in the Web Interface: An Investigation across Product Types," *International Journal of Electronic Commerce* (10:2), pp. 31-55.

Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K.P., Walsh, G., and Gremler, D.D. 2004. "Electronic Word-of-Mouth Via Consumer-Opinion Platforms: What Motivates Consumers to Articulate Themselves on the Internet?," *Journal of Interactive Marketing* (18:1), pp. 38-52.

Higie, R.A., Feick, L.F., and Price, L.L. 1987. "Types and Amount of Word-of-Mouth Communications About Retailers," *Journal of Retailing* (63:3), pp. 260-278.

Hoffman, D.L., and Novak, T.P. 1996. "Marketing in Hypermedia Computer-Mediated Environments: Conceptual Foundations," *The Journal of Marketing* (60:3), pp. 50-68.

Kallinikos, J., Aaltonen, A., and Marton, A. 2013. "The Ambivalent Ontology of Digital Artifacts," *MIS Quarterly* (37:2), pp. 357-370.

Kimmel, A.J., and Kitchen, P.J. 2014. "Word of Mouth and Social Media," *Journal of Marketing Communications* (20:1-2), pp. 2-4.

King, R.A., Racherla, P., and Bush, V.D. 2014. "What We Know and Don't Know About Online Word-of-Mouth: A Review and Synthesis of the Literature," *Journal of Interactive Marketing* (28:3), pp. 167-183.

Kozinets, R.V., De Valck, K., Wojnicki, A.C., and Wilner, S.J. 2010. "Networked Narratives: Understanding Word-of-Mouth Marketing in Online Communities," *Journal of Marketing* (74:2), pp. 71-89.

Lakin, J.L., Chartrand, T.L., and Arkin, R.M. 2008. "I Am Too Just Like You Nonconscious Mimicry as an Automatic Behavioral Response to Social Exclusion," *Psychological Science* (19:8), pp. 816-822.

Lee, M., Rodgers, S., and Kim, M. 2009. "Effects of Valence and Extremity of Ewom on Attitude toward the Brand and Website," *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising* (31:2), pp. 1-11.

Lieberman, A., and Esgate, P. 2002. *The Entertainment Marketing Revolution: Bringing the Moguls, the Media, and the Magic to the World*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: FT Press.

Liu, Y. 2006. "Word of Mouth for Movies: Its Dynamics and Impact on Box Office Revenue," *Journal of marketing* (70:3), pp. 74-89.

Maner, J.K., DeWall, C.N., Baumeister, R.F., and Schaller, M. 2007. "Does Social Exclusion Motivate Interpersonal Reconnection? Resolving the Porcupine Problem," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (92:1), pp. 42-55.

McGrath, J.E., and Kelly, J.R. 1986. *Time and Human Interaction: Toward a Social Psychology of Time*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

McLuhan, M. 1964. *Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man*. New York: New American Library.

Muniz Jr, A.M., and O'guinn, T.C. 2001. "Brand Community," *Journal of Consumer Research* (27:4), pp. 412-432.

Nadkarni, S., and Gupta, R. 2007. "A Task-Based Model of Perceived Website Complexity," *MIS Quarterly* (31:3), pp. 501-524.

Packard, G.M., and Wooten, D.B. 2013. "Compensatory Knowledge Signaling in Consumer Word-of-Mouth," *Journal of Consumer Psychology* (23:4), pp. 434–450.

Pennebaker, J.W., Booth, R.J., and Francis, M.E. 2007. "Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (Liwc2007)." Austin, TX: LIWC (http://www.liwc.net).

Richins, M.L., and Root-Shaffer, T. 1988. "The Role of Evolvement and Opinion Leadership in Consumer Word-of-Mouth: An Implicit Model Made Explicit," *Advances in Consumer Research* (15:1), pp. 32-36.

Rimé, B. 2009. "Emotion Elicits the Social Sharing of Emotion: Theory and Empirical Review," *Emotion Review* (1:1), pp. 60-85.

Ritson, M., and Elliott, R. 1999. "The Social Uses of Advertising: An Ethnographic Study of Adolescent Advertising Audiences," *Journal of Consumer Research* (26:3), pp. 260-277.

Roskos-Ewoldsen, D.R. 1997. "Implicit Theories of Persuasion," *Human Communication Research* (24:1), pp. 31-63.

Sedikides, C., and Gregg, A.P. 2008. "Self-Enhancement: Food for Thought," *Perspectives on Psychological science* (3:2), pp. 102-116.

Short, J., Williams, E., and Christie, B. 1976. *The Social Psychology of Telecommunications*. London: Wiley.

Sundaram, D.S., Mitra, K., and Webster, C. 1998. "Word-of-Mouth Communications: A Motivational Analysis," *Advances in Consumer Research* (25:1), pp. 527-531.

Toma, C.L., Hancock, J.T., and Ellison, N.B. 2008. "Separating Fact from Fiction: An Examination of Deceptive Self-Presentation in Online Dating Profiles," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* (34:8), pp. 1023-1036.

Trommsdorff, G., and John, H. 1992. "Decoding Affective Communication in Intimate Relationships," *European Journal of Social Psychology* (22:1), pp. 41-54.

Van den Bulte, C., and Wuyts, S. 2009. "Leveraging Customer Networks," in *The Network Challenge: Strategy, Profit, and Risk in an Interlinked World,* P.R. Kleindorfer, Y.J.R. Wind and R.E. Gunther (eds.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Wharton School Publication, pp. 243-258.

Wojnicki, A.C., and Godes, D. 2008. "Word-of-Mouth as Self-Enhancement," in: *HBS marketing research paper*.

Yoo, Y. 2010. "Computing in Everyday Life: A Call for Research on Experiential Computing," *MIS Quarterly* (34:2), pp. 213-231.

Yoo, Y., Henfridsson, O., and Lyytinen, K. 2010. "The New Organizing Logic of Digital Innovation: An Agenda for Information Systems Research," *Information Systems Research* (21:4), pp. 724-735.

Zhang, Y., and Epley, N. 2012. "Exaggerated, Mispredicted, and Misplaced: When "It's the Thought That Counts" in Gift Exchanges," *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General* (141:4), p. 667.