

**CONSUMER ENGAGEMENT IN FIRM-HOSTED
ONLINE BRAND COMMUNITIES –

EXPLORING PERSONALITY TRAITS AS
ANTECEDENTS OF CONSUMER ENGAGEMENT
AND VALUE, WITH THE MODERATING ROLE OF
PERSONAL VALUES**

A thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

by

Julia Marbach

Department of Marketing & Reputation
Henley Business School
University of Reading

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“We lived on farms, then we lived in cities, and now we’re
going to live on the Internet!”

Sean Parker in “The Social Network” (2010), *Film by David Fincher*

Abbreviations

AGFI – Adjusted Goodness of Fit

ANOVA – Analysis of Variance

AVE – Average Variance Extracted

Big Five – Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Openness to experiences

B2B – Business to Business

B2C – Business to Consumer

Cattell's 16 PF – Cattell's 16 Personality Factors

CBE – Consumer Brand Engagement

CE – Consumer Engagement

CFA – Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI – Comparative Fit Index

CPI – California Psychological Inventory

CR – Composite Reliability

C.R. – Critical Ratio

DF – Degrees of Freedom

EFA – Exploratory Factor Analysis

EVS – Experiential Value Scale

Eysenck's PEN – Eysenck's Psychoticism, Extraversion, Neuroticism

FHOBC – Firm-hosted Online Brand Community

FHOBCs – Firm-hosted Online Brand Communities

GFI – Goodness of Fit Index

GLOBE – Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness

HOG – Harley-Davidson Motorcycles' Harley Owners Group

HPI – Hogan Personality Inventory

IC – Inter-Construct Correlations

IFI – Incremental Fit Index

IPIP – International Personality Item Pool

MANOVA – Multivariate Analysis of Variance

MI – Modification Indices

NEO – Personality Inventory Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experiences

NEO-FFI – NEO Five Factor Inventory

NEO-PI-R – NEO Revised Personality Inventory

NFI – Normed Fit Index
OBC – Online Brand Community
OBCCSS – Firm-hosted Online Brand Community for Customer Service Support
OBCs – Online Brand Communities
OCE – Online Consumer Engagement
OPQ – Occupational Personality Questionnaire
PCLOSE – Closeness to Fit
PERVAL Scale – Perceived Value Scale
PVQ – Portrait Value Questionnaire
RFI – Recurrence Free Interval
RMSEA – Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM – Structural Equation Modeling
SERV-PERVAL Scale – Service Perceived Value Scale
SIC – Squared Inter-Construct Correlations
SIMP – 5-item Single Measure for Big Five Inventory
Short EPQ-R – Eysenck’s Personality Questionnaire Revised
SRMR – Standardised Root Mean Residual
SRW – Standardised Regression Weights
SSVS – Short Schwartz Value Survey
SVS – Schwartz Value Survey
TIPI – 10-item Short Scale of the Big Five Inventory
TLI – Tucker Lewis Index
WVS – World Value Survey
 χ^2 – Chi-square

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Julia

March, 2017

Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Abstract

As consumers increasingly adopt online rather than offline as their preferred communication channel, understanding the nature of online consumer engagement has become a priority for many firms (Kim, Juin-Sun, & Kim, 2008b). However, despite increasing recognition of the importance of consumer engagement with new technologies, there remains a gap in terms of antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. This thesis addresses this gap by exploring the relationship between personality traits (Big Five and four additional traits namely need for activity, need for learning, need for arousal and altruism) and online consumer engagement, as well as the relationship between online consumer engagement and six consumer-perceived value types (social value, play, excellence, efficiency, aesthetic value and altruistic value).

A conceptual framework of online consumer engagement is developed, anchored in the extant literature and twenty-eight semi-structured interviews with members of firm-hosted online brand communities. The framework is tested in a study involving 559 users of two distinct firm-hosted online brand communities (FHOBs) namely the FHOB of a leading German telecommunications provider and the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook. The findings suggest that certain personality traits, including extraversion, openness to experiences, and altruism are linked to online consumer engagement. Additionally, online consumer engagement has an impact on social value and aesthetic value. Finally, the personal value conservation and the personal value self-enhancement are seen to moderate the relationship between all three personality traits and online consumer engagement.

This study's contribution to the consumer engagement literature is threefold. Firstly, the study brings new insights regarding personality traits as antecedents of online consumer engagement. Secondly, the conservation and self-enhancement of personal values moderate the relationship. And thirdly, the study brings new insights in terms of specific consumer-perceived value types that emerge as a consequence of online consumer engagement. Understanding what personality traits drive consumers to engage online and what value consumers believe they gain in this digital age can help managers to better segment and evaluate their online consumers. In consequence of these insights, FHOBs can be improved and augmented accordingly.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

With consumers spending most of their time online (Edelman, 2010), managers are increasingly considering how to better engage consumers with their brands in an online environment. Consumer engagement plays a key role in developing a memorable consumer experience as it goes even further than satisfaction and loyalty (Kumar et al., 2010a). The rise of social technologies and the status of always being connected makes consumers more powerful and puts them in control of their own consumer experience. In this fast-changing environment, brands have the opportunity to engage with consumers like never before, a situation which can lead to a real competitive advantage for the company (Rose et al., 2012; Vivek, Beatty, & Morgan, 2012). Therefore, a better understanding of consumers' online engagement is crucial as it can help managers to develop stronger emotional bonds with those online consumers who for many companies are their lifeblood (Vivek et al., 2012).

In recent years, the rapidly-changing environment has led to an extensive exploration of the online consumer engagement concept (e.g. Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). Yet, despite profound development in the practitioner literature, academic research on the concept of consumer engagement remains in its infancy (Brodie et al., 2013). Furthermore, limited attention has been given to the area of consumer engagement in online brand communities (OBCs) even though these communities represent valuable marketing, consumer relationship management, and innovation tools (Brodie et al., 2013; McAlexander, Schouten, & Koenig, 2002). In particular, limited knowledge exists about the factors that have an impact on online consumer engagement (Bolton, 2011; Brodie et al., 2013; Wirtz et al., 2013). Investigating these factors might lead to a better understanding of the users of online brand communities, and of the concept of online consumer engagement in general. It is true that general antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement have been included in theoretical models (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz, & Krafft, 2010). But they have not been examined in any great detail to date (Hollebeek, Glynn, & Brodie, 2014). Therefore, it is argued that calls for further research in the area of online consumer engagement have not been sufficiently addressed in terms of possible antecedents and consequences of the concept (Hollebeek et al., 2014).

Wirtz et al. (2013) mention personality characteristics, personal backgrounds, and differences as considerable research areas for online consumer engagement. This echoes the views expressed by McAlexander et al. (2002), who state that it is worthwhile to explore what personality characteristics lead consumers to value brand communities and participate in communal activities. Moreover, consumer-perceived value has been proposed as a possible consequence of online consumer engagement but not yet been investigated (Hollebeek, 2013; Vivek et al., 2012).

There is no consensus amongst researchers concerning whether the concept should be called consumer or customer engagement. Indeed, prior to 2005, very few articles used the terms consumer engagement, customer engagement or brand engagement, thereby indicating both that the concept is a relatively new research topic and that the terms are closely related, if not identical (Brodie et al., 2011). This thesis will refer to the concept as (online) consumer engagement, as it is a broader term that includes both paying and non-paying customers. This is due to the fact that individuals in firm-hosted online brand communities are not necessarily paying customers of a brand. Moreover, there is also no consensus about the elements comprising such engagement. Several authors refer to the concept as a three-dimensional entity, namely cognitive, emotional, and behavioural (e.g. Algesheimer, Dholakia, & Hermann, 2005; Brodie et al., 2013; Vivek et al., 2012), whereas others consider it to be only emotional (e.g. Catteeuw, Flynn, & Vonderhorst, 2007; Roberts & Davenport, 2002) or cognitive (Guthrie & Cox, 2001) in nature. However, the dominant stance refers to the concept as behavioural (e.g. Kumar, Petersen, & Leone, 2010b; Sawhney, Verona, & Prandelli, 2005; Verhoef, Franses, & Hoekstra, 2002). Hollebeek et al. (2016b, p. 12) revise the concept of consumer engagement from a service-dominant logic perspective. A social dimension is added that is important for service-based, collective or institutional consumer engagement settings like brand communities.

The working definition of online consumer engagement (OCE) for the underlying study is based on Brodie et al. (2013, p. 3) who are amongst the leading researchers in the area, and who state:

“Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or between consumers. It is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange”.

One can distinguish between consumer engagement in a firm-hosted online brand community (FHOB) and non-firm hosted online brand community. The working definition of a FHOB for the underlying study is:

A firm-hosted online brand community (FHOB) can be referred to as a non-geographically bound community formed in cyberspace based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a focal brand, a shared consumption practice, a common interest, experience, emotion or passion (Muñiz & O’Guinn, 2001; Wirtz et al., 2013). It is a social entity that not only connects the brand to consumers or users but also consumers to consumers or users to users (Muñiz & O’Guinn, 2001; Wirtz et al., 2013). The community is set up by the company (B2C) but is sustained by the engagement of its consumers or users (Fournier & Lee, 2009; Muñiz & O’Guinn, 2001; Wirtz & De Ruyter, 2007). Content that is central to consumers’ or users’ interests is constantly and collectively co-created and consumed and peer-to-peer problem solving is enabled (Harwood & Garry, 2010; McAlexander et al., 2002; Wirtz & De Ruyter, 2007).

This study addresses these calls for greater understanding of the online consumer engagement concept and its antecedents and consequences by investigating online consumer engagement, consumer personality traits as its antecedents, and consumer-perceived value as its consequence. Additionally, the moderating effect of personal values on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is explored. The proposed conceptual framework of personality traits as antecedents and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement is based on the consumer engagement literature and interviews conducted with twenty-eight FHOB users. The conceptual framework with its underlying relationships is tested in two firm-hosted online brand communities: in the firm-hosted social media brand community ‘Facebook’, and in a FHOB for customer service support, the firm involved being a leading German telecommunications provider.

1.2 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to shed more light on the concept of online consumer engagement. Hence, it investigates personality traits as antecedents and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement.

Based on an extensive, systematic literature review, a number of research questions and objectives have been identified.

The underpinning research questions are:

1. Do personality traits drive consumer engagement in FHOBCs, and if so, which traits are these?
2. Do personal values moderate the relationship between personality traits and consumer engagement in FHOBCs?
3. Do consumers perceive value as a result of engaging in FHOBCs, and if so what type of value do they perceive?
4. How can these constructs be measured?

Based on the four main research questions several more specific research objectives derive.

The research objectives are:

1. To review the literature on online consumer engagement and online brand communities to identify the gaps within it.
2. To develop a conceptual framework to identify the relationships among personality traits (as antecedents) and consumer-perceived value (as a consequence) of consumer engagement in FHOBCs.
3. To review the literature on personality traits.
4. To review the literature on personal values and their moderating impact on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement.
5. To review the literature on consumer-perceived value.
6. To develop appropriate research instruments for online consumer engagement, personality traits, personal values and consumer-perceived value.
7. To empirically test the framework and its underlying relationships (developed in 2. above) in the context of two FHOBCs.

8. To contribute to the online consumer engagement literature by investigating possible antecedents, a moderator and consequences of the concept.
9. To provide brand managers with insights into the online engagement behaviour, personality traits, personal values and perceived value of their consumers, such that their FHOBCs can be improved.

Research objectives one and two are linked to research questions one, two and three.

Research objective three is linked to research question one, research objective four is linked to research question two whereas research objective five is linked to research question three. Furthermore, research objectives six and seven are linked to research question four. Finally, research objectives eight and nine are linked to all four research questions.

1.3 Contribution of the Study

This study tests the relationships between personality traits and online consumer engagement, and online consumer engagement and consumer-perceived value in the context of FHOBCs. Additionally, personal values are investigated as a moderating variable in the association between personality traits and online consumer engagement within the context of FHOBCs. To the best of the author's knowledge, none of these relationships have been previously tested in the general context of FHOBC (firm-hosted social media brand community and FHOBC for customer service support) and, therefore, important insights will be gained in terms of the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. The additional personality traits that have been added to the Big Five personality traits (altruism, need for arousal, need for learning and need for activity), and consumer-perceived value have neither been tested in the context of online consumer engagement in FHOBCs nor in the general context. In testing the conceptual framework and its proposed relationships, the thesis will be able to close the gaps identified in the online consumer engagement literature relating to personality traits as antecedents, consumer-perceived value types as consequences of online consumer engagement, and personal values as a moderating variable of the personality traits and online consumer engagement relationship.

This research contributes to theory development and testing. The theory development aspect includes an improved conceptual definition of the four constructs, namely consumer engagement in a FHOBC, personality traits, personal values, and consumer-perceived value.

The testing aspect includes the testing of instruments to measure these concepts. The study proposes a conceptual framework that draws on literature from four different areas: (1) consumer engagement and online brand communities, (2) personality traits/psychology, (3) consumer-perceived value, and (4) culture/cultural and personal values. Theoretical linkages in terms of research hypotheses are built based on qualitative insights and existing literature, and are empirically tested using a survey as the research instrument.

The study also develops and tests a measurement scale for consumer-perceived value in the context of FHOBCs. Previous measurement scales in the area of consumer-perceived value can only be used for the context of a product. The study is also the first one to measure consumer engagement in the broader and more general context of FHOBCs, as previous efforts have concentrated only on firm-hosted social media brand communities. The consumer brand engagement scale recently developed by Hollebeek et al. (2014) is retested for a firm-hosted social media brand community setting. Additionally, it is tested in the broader context of a FHOBC. During the exploratory interview stage, two items were added to the cognitive and behavioural dimensions respectively, and one further item was added to the emotional scale. The overall scale has been tested.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis consists of eleven chapters. This chapter provides an introduction to the research, explaining its purpose and nature.

Chapter 2 comprises a systematic literature review of the concept of online brand communities and consumer engagement, and possible antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. It identifies the gap upon which the motivation for the literature reviewed in the following chapters is built.

Chapter 3 presents a review of the literature on the concept of personality traits in the belief that these may serve as possible antecedents of online consumer engagement and its measurement.

Chapter 4 explores the concept of culture, cultural and personal values, in the belief that these may function as possible moderators of the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement and its measurement.

Chapter 5 summarises the literature on consumer-perceived value in the belief that it may serve as a possible consequence of online consumer engagement and its measurement.

Chapter 6 introduces the conceptual framework and ten hypotheses.

Chapter 7 discusses the research philosophy, research design, and the research questionnaire. It also describes the two preliminary qualitative studies. This section places the conceptual framework in the context of two FHOBs.

Chapter 8 presents the findings of the preliminary qualitative study to support the conceptual framework.

Chapter 9 presents the findings of the data analysis of the main quantitative study. The profile of the sample, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) results are discussed.

Chapter 10 discusses the research findings in general, and specifically with regard to the ten hypotheses.

Chapter 11 concludes the thesis and discusses the research findings in terms of their theoretical and managerial implications. The limitations of the study, and directions for future research are also discussed.

1.5 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the thesis. The background to, and the importance of the research topic has been explained, the aim and objectives identified, and the study's contribution discussed. Finally, the structure of the thesis has been presented. The next chapter introduces the extant literature on online consumer engagement and online brand communities, and highlights gaps within it.

CHAPTER 2: ONLINE BRAND COMMUNITIES AND ONLINE CONSUMER ENGAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this study is to shed more light on the concept of online consumer engagement. Hence, this chapter reviews the literature on online brand communities and online consumer engagement in order to identify the shortcomings within it. Sections 2.2 – 2.3 summarise the literature on communities, brand communities, and online brand communities. Section 2.4 differentiates online brand communities from related constructs such as sub-culture, sub-culture of consumption, and consumer tribes. Section 2.5 presents the working definition of a FHOBC used in this study. Section 2.6 describes the foundations of online consumer engagement, and Section 2.7 deals with the different views on the conceptualisation of online consumer engagement. The working definition of online consumer engagement as used in the study is given in Section 2.8. Section 2.9 differentiates online consumer engagement from related concepts such as participation and involvement, and Section 2.10 summarises the different dimensions and the measurement attempts in respect of online consumer engagement as mentioned in the extant literature. Finally, Section 2.11 summarises the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement and illustrates the gap in the literature. The chapter is concluded in Section 2.12.

2.2 The Concept of a Community and a Brand Community

The following review sets the scene for the study. A brand community is defined in an offline and online context, and the concept of a community is differentiated from similar concepts such as consumer tribes or sub-cultures of consumption. Different kinds of communities are discussed. In particular, there is a differentiation between communities that are firm-hosted (or firm-owned), and those that are non-firm hosted (or consumer-generated). Firm-hosted brand communities are established and run by the company, whereas non-firm hosted brand communities are set up and run by individual consumers.

The concept of a brand community was first introduced within the academic literature by Muñiz and O’Guinn (2001, p. 412) who define brand community as “a specialised, non-

geographically bound community based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a focal brand". Several studies in the area use the same definition and build their studies on it (e.g. Brodie et al., 2013; Marzocchi, Morandin, & Bergami, 2013; Woisetschläger, Hartleb, & Blut, 2008).

Bruhn, Schnebelen, and Schäfer (2013) add to the definition that a brand community is specialised because it focuses on goods or services. The shared use of products and services strengthens interpersonal connections amongst like-minded individuals and differentiates them from non-users of focal brands (Schau, Muñiz, & Arnould, 2009). Kim, Choi, and Qualls (2008a) highlight the shared feeling of belonging, the development of common language in the brand community and the arousal of a feeling of commitment or a sense of moral responsibility towards other members. Therefore, a brand community can also be described as a social entity that not only connects the brand to consumers but also links consumers with other consumers (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001). According to Wiertz and De Ruyter (2007), the main purpose of a brand community is the celebration of the brand and the affiliation with other brand enthusiasts.

Brand communities are marked by three characteristics namely consciousness of kind, rituals and traditions, and moral responsibility (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001). Consciousness of kind represents the far-reaching boundaries of the large community, and the emergence of Web 2.0 makes it easier to connect people with the same interests all over the world. It highlights the sense of a common identity, which can be described as a feeling of we-ness (Cova & Pace, 2006; Marzocchi et al., 2013; McAlexander et al., 2002; Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001). Rituals and traditions are evident in a brand community if they reproduce the meaning of a brand community. Indeed, they may do this even beyond the community. The culture of a community is also reproduced via celebrations of the history of a brand, especially on its webpage. And another means of reproduction is through storytelling, which is based on experiences with the brand; these experiences are shared with other community members, who again assist in fostering a learning process concerned with the values held by the community (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001). Moral responsibility is the last characteristic to define a brand community, and is described as the sense of duty to the whole community, thereby contributing to group cohesion. A key concern in respect of moral responsibility is the need to help others to use the brand. Communal survival is another prime concern, which includes integrating new members and retaining existing ones (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001).

Muñiz and O'Guinn (2001) stress the importance of the role of legitimacy in brand communities as this process distinguishes between true members and those who fail to fully respect the community with all its rituals and symbols by not engaging entirely with the brand, and who therefore, do not really know it. A brand community may also describe itself in an opposition to competitor brands. A popular example may be Apple and Microsoft. The opposition plays a prominent role in creating a unity between community members. Examples of successful brand communities include the Harley-Davidson Motorcycles' Harley Owners Group (HOGs), and Apple Computers' Macintosh User Group (Schau et al., 2009).

Armstrong and Hagel (1996) differentiate among communities of transaction, communities of interest, communities of fantasy, and communities of relationships. Communities of transaction facilitate the purchase of a product whereas communities of interest are concerned with connecting people with the same interests. In communities of fantasy, participants can create new environments and personalities. Communities of relationships give people the possibility of exchanging their difficult life experiences, for example those associated with addiction or severe illness. Not surprisingly, participants of such communities often like to remain anonymous (Armstrong & Hagel, 1996).

2.3 The Concept of an Online Brand Community

An online brand community is often referred to as a virtual brand community, online community or virtual community. This type of community is heterogeneous in nature, being comprised of people with common interests, experiences and preferences, who share a dedication to a brand and interact regularly in an organised way via the internet. In an online community people are dedicated to a common interest, emotion or passion, which is not necessarily linked to a focal brand (Casaló, Flavián, & Guinalú, 2008; Chang, Hsieh, & Lin, 2013). They may or may not meet one another face-to-face (Sung et al., 2010), but they form a web of personal relationships in cyberspace where content that is central to their interest is constantly and collectively co-created and consumed (McAlexander et al., 2002; Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2007). Online brand communities are free from physical location constraints, are volitional rather than arbitrary, and are easy to enter and exit (Sung et al., 2010). Ren et al. (2012) distinguish between online communities in which members share a common purpose as for example, Starbucks, and those that foster interpersonal ties, as for instance, girlfriendcircles.com. Wiertz et al. (2013) argue that although online communities may be

centred on a brand, this is not a necessity, whereas conversely, De Burgh-Woodman and Brace-Govan (2007) highlight that a brand is a definite requirement for the inception of an online brand community. Ouwersloot and Odekerken-Schröder (2008) and Chang et al. (2013) emphasise that one should distinguish between brand communities and online brand communities. Brand communities are in general, broader in concept, and encompass everyone who feels connected to the brand, online or offline. The characteristics of online brand communities can significantly shape the community. For example, brand orientation means that the core focus can be on the brand itself or on a related consumption experience (Wirtz et al., 2013). Another characteristic can be the funding of the online brand community. This may come entirely from the brand or from the brand community (Wirtz et al., 2013).

It is also possible to distinguish between consumer-generated online brand communities and FHOBCs that are initiated and funded by marketers or the firm, in order to build relationships with current and potential customers. An example of a FHOBC is the Lonely Planet Travel forum. Consumer-generated brand communities are set up by empowered consumers to provide peer consumers with information, e.g. fordforum.com or brand fan pages that are set up by consumers on social networking sites such as Facebook (Cova & White, 2010). Ouwersloot and Odekerken-Schröder (2008) call these two different types of communities: company-moderated communities and non-company-moderated communities. One of the most common types of firm-hosted commercial online communities is the community for customer service support (Wirtz & De Ruyter, 2007).

Gruner, Homburg, and Lukas (2014) mention different types of FHOBCs, namely open online brand communities, discerning online brand communities, and restricted online brand communities. An open online brand community is characterised by high community access, low activity control, low member engagement, and the feature that members in general do not create bonds (Gruner et al., 2014). Discerning online brand communities are characterised by moderate community access as they need to sign up for the community, moderate activity control, and high host integration (Gruner et al., 2014). Restricted online brand communities are characterised by low community access and high activity control. Low community access means that membership of this community must be earned, e.g. one must have purchased a product before becoming a member (Gruner et al., 2014). Low community access could also mean that one may have to pay a fee for access to the community (Gruner et al., 2014). High activity control represents the extent to which content might be restricted, controlled or

delayed (Gruner et al., 2014). Members of these marketer-generated online brand communities form loose bonds only, in contrast to consumer-generated online brand communities, where members generally form stronger relationships (Ren et al., 2012).

Cova and White (2010) distinguish between the counter brand community, and the alter brand community. The former refers to the type of forum created by brand supporters who feel that the company is not valuing their co-creation activities, and hence feel exploited. They thus become brand competitors. Counter brand communities can be seen as concerned with not-for-profit projects. Alter brand communities provide an open perspective to branding wherein ‘prosumers’ create the physical offering, author the text, generate the experience, and evolve the brand meaning (e.g. Coachsuring) (Cova & White, 2010). Mathwick, Wiertz, and De Ruyter (2008) distinguish between online peer-to-peer problem-solving communities and brand communities. Both communities are based on consumption. However, one can find differences in experiential consequences and focus. The dialogue in brand communities focuses on brand-related narrative (Cova & Cova, 2001; Leigh, Peters, & Shelton, 2006; Mathwick et al., 2008), whereas online peer-to-peer problem-solving communities evolve from more pragmatic origins that do not necessarily relate to a specific brand association (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Nelson & Otnes, 2005; Wasko & Faraj, 2005). Hence, a brand-specific focus is not a precondition of the formation of a peer-to-peer problem-solving community. The primary reason for peer-to-peer problem-solving is related to consumption experiences (Mathwick et al., 2008). The next section differentiates the concept of a(n) (online) brand community from similar concepts such as subculture, subculture of consumption, and consumer tribes.

2.4 Differentiation of (Online) Brand Communities from other Concepts

2.4.1 Subculture and Subculture of Consumption

In order to be able to better understand the concept of online brand communities, one should differentiate between it, and the concepts of subculture, and subculture of consumption. Subculture means that members share common beliefs and experiences differentiating them from others (De Burgh-Woodman & Brace-Govan, 2007). Every consumer belongs to many subcultures. These memberships may be based on similarities in age, race or a strong identification with an activity (De Burgh-Woodman & Brace-Govan, 2007). Thus,

subcultures require a higher degree of commitment and physical movement than brand communities or online brand communities. A subculture of consumption is a unique subgroup of the society that self-selects on the basis of a shared commitment to, and strong interpersonal bonds with a particular product, brand or consumption activity (De Burgh-Woodman & Brace-Govan, 2007). A subculture of consumption does not require a brand for its inception in contrast to a brand community or online brand community, but it does clearly focus on a consumption practice, which is not necessarily the case in an online community. Examples of online communities focusing on a consumption practice are communities based on the latest fashion trends. These communities are linked to consumption practice as people may subsequently buy the products or clothes they have seen or been talking about in the online community. Examples of online communities not focusing on consumption practice, are those concerned with relationships. Armstrong and Hagel (1996) observe that these concentrate on people dealing with blows of fortune, and who want to get to know peers with similar issues (Cova & White, 2010; De Burgh-Woodman & Brace-Govan, 2007; Goulding, Shankar, & Canniford, 2013; Woisetschläger et al., 2008). Online Business to Business (B2B) brand communities represent a group of interrelated business people who gather together online to interact voluntarily, based on brand-related economic interests that they have in common (Bruhn et al., 2013). The next section describes the concept of consumer tribes.

2.4.2 Consumer Tribes

The differentiation between the concepts of online brand community, and consumer tribes is a controversial in the academic literature (Cova & Cova, 2002). Consumer tribes can be described as groups of heterogeneous people in terms of age, gender and income, who feel an emotional connection to each other because of similar consumption values and usage or a shared passion or emotion. This connection promotes their bonding together in loosely interconnected groups or tribes to express their identity. They share deep interpersonal connections, which are built through shared experiences, rituals, traditions and consumption behaviour (Cova & Cova, 2002; Fournier & Lee, 2009; Goulding et al., 2013; Harwood & Garry, 2010; Mitchell & Imrie, 2011). The concept of 'tribal marketing' scrutinises the way in which tribes consume and also co-create products for their own uses (Mitchell & Imrie, 2011). This definition seems very close to the definition of a brand community, which explains why some authors use the term 'tribe' interchangeably with the term community

(Harwood & Garry, 2010). Cova and Pace (2006) claim that Anglo-American authors in particular, do not feel the need to differentiate between both concepts.

On the other hand, some authors do attempt to differentiate between them. Cova and White (2010) and Cova and Cova (2002) for example, argue that the tribal marketing approach is not centred on the notion of a cult brand, in comparison to a brand community which is. Muñiz and O'Guinn (2001) perceive brand communities as being commercial and liberated whereas neo-tribes are conceived of as interpersonal and local. Tribes are multiple and playful, which means that they do not dominate consumers' lives; rather, they illustrate an escape from everyday life (Cova, Kozinets, & Shankar, 2007). Consumers can be members of multiple tribes. Another characteristic is that tribes are transient, which means they emerge and disappear and this can happen unpredictably (Cova et al., 2007). Brand tribes are moreover, entrepreneurial, signalling that brands are customised or that market offerings are produced because of brand tribes (Cova et al., 2007; Goulding & Shankar, 2011). Cova and Cova (2002) differentiate between the individualistic approach and the tribal approach. While the latter concentrates on the consumer-consumer relationship, the former focuses on the consumer-brand relationship. Therefore, the individualistic approach positions the company at the heart of the relationship, whereas the tribal approach perceives the company as well as its products, services or members as merely a support. Hence, the collective social action can be facilitated through brands. Unlike Cova and White (2010), Ouwensloot and Odekerken-Schröder (2008) mention that online communities may well be centred around a brand, but this is not necessarily the case. Moreover, Schau et al. (2009) highlight that members of brand communities talk about other things than the brand itself. Hence, this definition diminishes the argument that the point of differentiation is the focus on a particular brand. Cova and Cova (2002) mention that members of a tribe are not just consumers, but also brand advocates. However, this is also the case in a brand community. Mitchell and Imrie (2011) see a point of differentiation in the fact that tribes place themselves in opposition to mainstream consumers and are able to diminish brand equity. Richardson (2013) highlights that one cannot strictly differentiate between both concepts as some tribes have evolved into brand communities over time as they are exclusively devoted to one focal brand. Brand communities may have stricter rules and have more formal social structures whereas tribes are less brand-focused and more activity- or subject-focused. However, this may change very quickly and, therefore, the differentiation between the concept of brand community and consumer tribes remains blurred (Richardson, 2013). Based on the review of these concepts

the next section provides a working definition for the concept of a FHOBC as used in this study.

2.5 Working Definition of a Firm-hosted Online Brand Community

The previous literature review shows many different forms and definitions of an online brand community, which is confusing. Hence, there is the need for a working definition that can function effectively for this study, the focus of which is the FHOBC, which can be defined as follows:

A firm-hosted online brand community (FHOBC) can be referred to as a non-geographically bound community formed in cyberspace based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a focal brand, a shared consumption practice, a common interest, experience, emotion or passion (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001; Wirtz et al., 2013). It is a social entity that not only connects the brand to consumers or users but also consumers to consumers or users to users (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001; Wirtz et al., 2013). The community is set up by the company (B2C) but is sustained by the engagement of its consumers or users (Fournier & Lee, 2009; Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001; Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2007). Content that is central to consumers' or users' interests is constantly and collectively co-created and consumed and peer-to-peer problem solving is enabled (Harwood & Garry, 2010; McAlexander et al., 2002; Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2007).

2.6 The Foundations of Online Consumer Engagement

The following section will shed some light on the foundations of online consumer engagement, drawing on relationship marketing theory and interactive service experience. The Nordic school (Grönroos, 2010; Gummesson, 1994) was the first to explore these foundations, and of the scholars involved, Grönroos (2010) demonstrates that the service perspective is multidimensional and enables value creation. Moreover, service plays the role of a mediating factor in the whole process. Hence, the adoption of a service perspective or logic will involve a focus on engaging with consumers. Vargo and Lusch (2008) use the term service-dominant logic, which comprises ten foundations representing marketing relationships that are characterised by interactive and co-creative experiences with firms, consumers or other stakeholders. The service-dominant logic has been recently updated by Vargo and Lusch (2016) to eleven foundations. The eleventh foundational premise focuses on the role of institutions and institutional arrangements in systems of value co-creation which are described as service ecosystems. These service ecosystems coordinate value cocreation.

Four of these premises are especially noteworthy for the foundations of consumer engagement, namely premises six, eight, nine, and ten (Brodie et al., 2011). The sixth foundation states that: “the consumer is always a co-creator of value”, the eighth states that: “value is always uniquely and phenomenological determined by the beneficiary” whereas the ninth states that: “a service centred view is inherently consumer-oriented and relational” and the tenth foundation states that: “all social and economic actors are resource integrators” (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p. 7). Brodie et al. (2011), conducting a content analysis, found fifty articles, which use the term ‘engagement’ in discussions about the service-dominant logic, but even though the term is often used, there is little attention given to its conceptualisation. Therefore, Section 2.7 deals with the conceptual analysis of online consumer engagement, and Section 2.8 differentiates the concept from related concepts such as participation and involvement.

2.7 The Conceptualisation of Online Consumer Engagement

“Engagement is like love - everyone agrees it’s a good thing, but everyone has a different definition of what it is” – Jeffrey Graham, former Executive Director, The New York Times (Porter et al., 2011).

The topic of consumer engagement is controversial as some authors distinguish it from customer engagement or brand engagement, and others treat it as the same concept. Therefore it is necessary to arrive at a working definition to be used in this study.

Consumer engagement can be seen as part of the broad relationship marketing domain, and described as a central concept within marketing systems. The focus of consumer engagement is on interactive consumer experiences (Vivek et al., 2012), which is an important new development in customer management that goes beyond mere transactions (Verhoef et al., 2010). Prior to 2005, very few articles used the terms consumer engagement, customer engagement or brand engagement, thus indicating that the concept is relatively new as a research topic, and that the terms used are closely related, if not identical (Brodie et al., 2011).

Achterberg et al. (2003) writing in the field of social psychology, define social engagement as a sense of initiative, an adequate response to social stimuli, and participation in participating in social activities or interaction with other community members. Engagement is defined by Goulding et al. (2013, p. 6) as “the central component of any consumption community, developing over time into community rituals and traditions”. Hollebeek (2011a, p. 1)

highlights the state of mind in the definition of consumer brand engagement, which is defined as follows “the level of a consumer’s motivational, brand-related and context-dependent state of mind characterised by specific levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity in brand interactions”. Many authors use the terms customer engagement and consumer engagement interchangeably (e.g. Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek, 2011a). However, Vivek et al. (2012) try to differentiate between the concepts implied, suggesting that customer engagement can be seen as the level of a customer’s physical, emotional and cognitive presence in his/her relationship with a service organisation, whilst consumer engagement is rather defined as the intensity of an individual’s participation and connection with the organisation’s offerings and activities, initiated by either the customer or the organisation. Consumer and customer engagement can also be differentiated in terms of the driving force to engage. In the context of customer engagement, it is the offering of a specific brand or product that propels customers in this respect, whereas in the context of consumer engagement, it may only be the engagement in the activity that represents the motivation to become involved in collaborative knowledge exchange processes between consumers (Vivek et al., 2012). However, most researchers use the terms interchangeably.

Hollebeek (2011a) highlights the brand-related aspect of customer engagement in contrast to the situation with consumer engagement, which is not necessarily associated with a specific brand, according to Vivek et al. (2012). Rather, it is linked to a shared consumption practice or interest (Vivek et al., 2012). Bowden (2009) views consumer engagement as a psychological process comprising cognitive aspects as well as emotional ones. In engaging with communities of practice, people learn and begin to display the competencies that are required by the community. In fact, the community knowledge is continually being developed (Goulding et al., 2013). Additionally, Harwood and Garry (2010) highlight that engagement with the community pursues a feeling of self-fulfilment within members. According to Hollebeek (2011a), the consumer engagement construct comprises three dimensions, namely the cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions, which are discussed further in Section 2.10.

Schau et al., (2009) found that there are twelve common practices across brand communities which are organised by four thematic aggregates. Consumer engagement can be categorised as one of these four thematic aggregates through which consumers can realise value beyond that which is created by the firm itself (Schau et al., 2009). The three thematic aggregates

besides community engagement are social networking, impression management, and brand use (Schau et al., 2009). Social networking comprises welcoming new members, empathising which means to lend emotional and/or physical support to other members and governing, which is articulating the behavioural expectations within the brand community (Schau et al., 2009, p. 43). Impression management comprises evangelising, and justifying. Evangelising means sharing good news about the brand and inspiring others to use the products or services of the brand. Justifying means deploying rationales for devoting time and effort to the brand. (Schau et al., 2009, p. 43). Community engagement comprises staking, milestoneing and badging. Staking means recognising variance within the brand community membership and to mark intragroup similarities and distinctions. Milestoneing refers to the practice of noting seminal events in brand ownership and consumption whereas badging is the practice of translating milestones into symbols. Documenting means detailing the brand relationship journey in a narrative way (Schau et al., 2009, p. 44). Brand use comprises grooming, customising and commoditising. Grooming means caring for the brand (e.g. washing your Mini) whereas customising stands for modifying the brand to suit needs whether on group or individual level. Commoditising stands for distancing from or approaching the marketplace, which may be directed to other customers or the firm itself (Schau et al., 2009, p. 45).

In the context of consumer engagement, Hollebeek (2011a) distinguishes between cognitive brand-related activity, which includes individuals' level of concentration or engrossment in the brand, and emotional brand related activity, which can be defined as the level of energy used by a consumer during the process of interacting with the focal brand.

Brodie et al. (2013) describe consumer engagement as an interactive process emerging at different intensity levels, and as a multidimensional concept including cognitive, emotional, and behavioural dimensions in line with the view of Hollebeek (2011a). However, the definition of engagement should also be context-specific (Hollebeek, 2011a). Table 2.1 summarises the definitions of consumer engagement in chronological order.

Table 2.1: Summary of Definitions of Online Consumer Engagement

Reference	Definition of Online Consumer or Customer Engagement
Algesheimer et al. (2005)	Positive influences of identifying with the brand community through the consumer's intrinsic motivation to interact/co-operate with community members.
Sawhney et al. (2005)	Customer engagement in virtual environments is a customer-centric, active, two-way communication, which is continuous and therefore enables back and forth dialogue, and focuses on social and experiential knowledge. The interactions are direct and mediated by potential customers (behavioural and social dimension).
Patterson, Yu, and De Ruyter (2006) Sourced from: Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, (2002) in the context of Work engagement	Customer engagement describes the level of a customer's various 'presences' in his/her relationship with the organisation. The presences include physical presence, emotional presence, and cognitive presence. Customer engagement is conceived as a higher-order construct, which consists of four components, namely, vigour, dedication, absorption, and interaction. Vigour is defined as the level of energy a customer has in interacting and interaction is described as the two-way interaction between engagement subject and object (behavioural). Dedication reflects a customer's sense of belonging to an organisation or to a brand (emotional). Absorption is defined as the level of concentration the customer faces on an engagement object (cognitive).
O'Brien and Toms (2008)	Engagement is a quality of user experiences with technology that is characterised by challenge, aesthetic and sensory appeal, feedback, novelty, interactivity, perceived control and time, awareness, motivation, interest, and affect. Engagement is a process comprised of four distinct stages: point of engagement, period of sustained engagement, disengagement, and re-engagement.
Bowden (2009)	Engagement is defined as a psychological process that models the underlying mechanisms by which customer loyalty forms in respect of 'new customers' of a service brand, as well as the mechanisms by which loyalty may be maintained for 'repeat purchase customers' of a service brand.
Calder, Malthouse, and Schaedel (2009)	Experiences are first-order constructs while engagement is a second-order construct. The term experience is used to refer to a specific set of consumer beliefs about a vehicle such as utilitarian or intrinsic enjoyment, and the term engagement is used to refer to the overall experiences of a vehicle.
Higgins and Scholer (2009)	Engagement is a state of being involved, occupied, fully absorbed, or engrossed in something – sustained attention.
Sprott, Czellar, and Spangenberg (2009)	An individual difference representing consumers' propensity to include important brands as part of how they view themselves. This conceptualisation builds on self-schemas to investigate the role of brands in the self-concept.
Kumar et al. (2010a)	Firms are now recognising the imminent need to focus on building personal two-way relationships that foster interactions with customers. Such active interactions between a customer and a firm, with prospects and with other customers, whether they are transactional or non-transactional in nature, can be defined as "customer engagement".

Reference	Definition of Online Consumer or Customer Engagement
Mollen and Wilson (2010)	Online engagement is a cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with the brand as personified by the website or other computer-mediated entities designed to communicate brand value. It is characterised by the dimensions of dynamic and sustained cognitive processing. Online customer engagement has to incorporate the satisfying of instrumental value (utility and relevance) and experiential value (emotional congruence with the narrative schema encountered in computer-mediated entities).
Roberts and Alpert (2010)	Degrees of customer engagement: Level 1 – Customer purchases your product/service. Level 2 – Customer is loyal to your product/service and either continues to repurchase (product) or continues to use (service). Level 3 – Customer readily buys your other product/service lines. Level 4 – Customer recommends your product/service to others if presented with the opportunity. Level 5 – Customer is an advocate and promotes your product/service at every opportunity. Our definition of an engaged customer is one that is loyal to your brand and actively recommends your products and services to others.
Van Doorn et al. (2010) Used by Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki (2014)	Customer engagement behaviours go beyond transactions, and may be specifically defined as a customer’s behavioural manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers. The behavioural manifestations, other than purchases, can be both positive (i.e. posting a positive brand message on a blog) and negative (i.e. organising public actions against a firm).
Brodie et al. (2011) Used by Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)	Customer engagement (CE) is a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/object (e.g. a brand) in focal service relationships. 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 co-create value. CE plays a central role in a 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 behavioural dimensions.
Hollebeek (2011a)	Engagement is the level of perceived cognitive, emotional and behavioural investment in, and ensuring perceived returns extracted from, a customer’s interactive brand experience. Engagement dimensions: Immersion (cognitive), passion (emotional), and activation (behavioural).
Hollebeek (2011b)	Customer brand engagement is the level of an individual customer’s motivational, brand-related, and context-dependent state of mind characterised by specific levels of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural activity in direct brand interactions. The concept of direct brand interactions refers to customers’ direct, physical contact-based interactions with a focal brand, as opposed to indirect brand interactions that may occur, for example, by observing a brand through mass communications.
Lee, Kim, and Kim (2011)	Brand community engagement operationalised as: (a) providing new information about the brand to other people; (b) actively participating in the online brand community’s activities; (c) supporting other members of the online brand community; (d) saying positive things about the online brand community to other people; (e) recommending the online brand community to anyone who sought their advice about the brand; (f) encouraging other people to use the brand in future; and (g) not hesitating to refer other people to the brand.

Reference	Definition of Online Consumer or Customer Engagement
Porter et al. (2011)	Engagement is defined as a class of behaviours that is able to reflect community members' willingness to co-operate and participate in such a way that it creates value for others or for themselves.
Gummerus et al. (2012)	Engagement is defined as a behavioural manifestation toward the brand or firm that goes beyond transactions.
Brodie et al. (2013)	Consumer engagement in a virtual brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand, and/or other members of the community. Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange where other relational concepts are engagement antecedents and/or consequences in iterative engagement processes within the brand community.
Cambra-Fierro, Melero-Polo, and Vázquez-Carrasco (2013)	Engagement is defined as a set of customer behaviours vis-à-vis the firm – both transactional (loyalty, repurchase intention) and non-transactional (commitment, word-of-mouth, referrals, blogging, etc.) in nature – which guarantee future sales volumes, generate positive publicity, and bolster brand reputation. Engagement is conceptualised as commitment, loyalty, and word-of-mouth.
Goulding et al. (2013)	Engagement is the central component of any consumption community, developing over time into community rituals and traditions.
Wirtz et al. (2013)	OBC engagement refers to the positive influence of consumers identifying with an OBC. This is defined as the consumer's intrinsic motivation to interact and co-operate with community members (Algesheimer et al., 2005). OBC engagement suggests that members are interested in helping other members, keen to participate in joint activities, they act volitionally in ways that the community endorses, and in ways that enhance the OBC's value for themselves and others.
Hollebeck and Chen (2014)	A consumer's positively valenced brand-related cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity during or related to focal consumer/brand interactions. Three dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and behavioural.
Ksiazek, Peer, and Lessard (2014)	Engagement is a broad phenomenon that describes all sorts of user attention and involvement with media. At its most basic level, it begins with exposure, but most perceive engagement as constituted of both psychological and behavioural experiences, and it can be a property of the users, the medium, or both.
Calder, Isaac, and Malthouse (2016a)	Engagement is a multilevel construct that emerges from the thoughts and feelings about one or more rich experiences involved in reaching a personal goal.
Hollebeck, Srivastava, and Chen (2016b)	Customer engagement (CE) reflects a customer's motivationally driven, volitional investment of specific operant and operand resources into brand interactions in service systems. The CE benefits of customer individual and interpersonal operant resource development and co-creation result from CE within service systems. The CE foundational processes of customer resource integration, knowledge sharing and learning represent either necessary (i.e. for customer resource integration), or conducive (i.e. for customer knowledge sharing/learning) factors for the development of CE in service systems. CE reflects a customer's investment of focal cognitive, emotional, behavioural, and social resources during, or related to, specific brand interactions in service systems. CE is contingent on focal context-specific characteristics in service systems. Customer manifestations (including intensity, valence) of CE, the CE foundational processes and CE benefits may thus vary across contextual contingencies.

Algesheimer et al. (2005) and Sawhney et al. (2005) are among the first authors to define consumer engagement. Algesheimer et al. (2005) define consumer engagement as positive influences to identify with the brand community. This can be done through the consumer's intrinsic motivation to interact or co-operate with other community members. Sawhney et al. (2005) consider consumer engagement as a consumer-centric and active two-way communication. Brodie et al. (2013, p. 3) introduced the following definition of consumer engagement within the online brand community context: "Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or other members of the community. Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange where other relational concepts are engagement antecedents and/or interactive engagement processes within the brand community".

Hollebeek et al. (2016b, p. 12) revise the concept of consumer engagement from a service-dominant logic perspective. The second column of Table 2.1 shows the fundamental propositions. A social dimension is added that is important for service-based, collective or institutional consumer engagement settings like brand communities. Moreover, that dimension distinguishes positively valenced consumer engagement and negatively valenced consumer engagement, which has been largely overlooked until the present date.

The different terms used for the concept are indicated in the first column of Table 2.2 which appears later in this section, and which summarises the different dimensions of consumer engagement that exist in literature.

For this study, the concepts of consumer engagement, online consumer/customer engagement, customer engagement, brand engagement, and engagement in online brand communities are considered as one and the same concept. This decision is made in order to ensure that the whole literature in the field is covered, and in recognition of the fact that many authors refer to the same concept even though they use a different term to describe it. For consistency, the concept is referred to as (online) consumer engagement throughout the literature review, as this is seen as the broader term. Individuals engaging in FHOBCs are not necessarily paying customers and this broader term includes paying customers as well as non-paying consumers.

This chapter continues with the working definition of consumer engagement in online brand communities for this study.

2.8 Working Definition of Online Consumer Engagement for this Study

The review of the extant literature on the concept of online consumer engagement leads to the conclusion that this study builds on the multidimensional concept of online consumer engagement, and thus follows the definition of Brodie et al. (2013, p. 108) and the operationalisation of Hollebeek et al. (2014), which is discussed in detail in Section 2.10. The working definition of online consumer engagement is therefore:

“Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or other members of the community. Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange where other relational concepts are engagement antecedents and/or interactive engagement processes within the brand community.”

The differences between consumer engagement and related concepts such as participation and involvement are highlighted in Section 2.9.

2.9 How the Concept of Engagement Differs from the Concept of Participation, the Concept of Involvement and the Relationship to other related Marketing Concepts

For the process of understanding the concept of consumer engagement it is necessary to distinguish between related concepts such as those of participation and involvement.

Involvement is defined by Mittal (1995) and Zaichkowsky (1985) as an individual’s level of interest and personal relevance in relation to an object in terms of his or her own values, self-concept or goals, whilst participation is the degree to which consumers produce as well as deliver services (Bolton & Saxena-Iyer, 2009).

Brodie et al. (2011) argue that consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept, which reflects a psychological state occurring by virtue of interactive consumer experiences with focal objects within service relationships. Consumer engagement occurs within an iterative and dynamic process of these service relationships which co-create value. This differentiates consumer engagement from involvement and participation as these fail to reflect interactive, co-creative consumer experiences (Brodie et al., 2013). Mollen and Wilson (2010) support this view by highlighting that consumer engagement goes beyond mere involvement. Engagement encompasses an interactive relationship with the engagement object, and the emergence of an individual's perceived experiential value is required, in addition to the instrumental value obtained from specific brand interactions (Mollen & Wilson, 2010). One of the main differences between the concepts of consumer engagement and participation or involvement is the firm focus of consumer engagement. Consumer engagement comprises voluntary consumer contributions and extra-role behaviours (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005). Thus, consumer engagement refers to voluntary and discretionary consumer behaviours towards a company (Verleye, Gemmel, & Rangarajan, 2013), and the consumers are driven by their own unique purposes or intentions that can either be beneficial or not for a company (Brodie et al., 2013; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014).

Participation in an online brand community can be divided into two types: posting behaviour and lurking behaviour, with lurking behaviour denoting passive participation (Chang et al., 2013). Shang, Chen, and Liao (2006) believe that lurking contributes more to brand loyalty than does posting. The primary motive for lurking is to search for information on product function or performance, rather than satisfying consumers' affective needs (Shang et al., 2006). The participation of members in an online brand community is crucial to guarantee the survival of the community. Higher participation means higher involvement and consequently the value of the community increases if more members identify with the community (Casaló et al., 2008; Schau et al., 2009).

Nielsen (2006) states that user participation generally follows a 90-9-1 rule which basically means that 90% are lurkers (describing non-interactive behaviour), 9% contribute from time to time, having other priorities most of the time, and only 1% of users contribute a lot, thereby actively interacting. Madupu and Cooley (2010) found that lurkers take something from the community and pass it on using other channels, which increases word-of-mouth and, therefore, their importance should not be underestimated.

Thus, the main difference between consumer engagement and these two concepts is that involvement and participation do not reflect interactive, co-creative experiences. Moreover, the emergence of an individual's perceived experiential value is required, in addition to the instrumental value obtained from specific brand interactions usually associated with involvement (Mollen & Wilson, 2010).

OCE is related but also distinct from other marketing concepts. For example, commitment can be defined as valuing an on-going relationship with a specific other party so as to warrant maximum effort at maintaining it, that is, a desire to maintain the relationship (Hollebeek, 2011a, p. 794). It is different from OCE as it might be a potential consequence for new and/or existing customers and an antecedent of OCE for existing customers (e.g. Vivek et al., 2012; Wirtz, et al., 2013). Thus, it might be related to OCE but it is distinct from OCE as OCE has a two-way nature in comparison to commitment. Brand loyalty is defined as repeated purchases (behavioural loyalty) prompted by a strong internal disposition (attitudinal loyalty) over a period of time (Hollebeek, 2011a, p. 794). It is not only seen as a potential consequence of OCE it has also been empirically confirmed lately (Leckie et al., 2016; O'Brien et al., 2015; Thakur, 2016). Another concept that is related to OCE is brand experience, which is defined as a subjective, internal consumer response (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) and behavioural response evoked by brand-related stimuli (e.g. packaging) (Hollebeek, 2011a, p. 793). It is also seen as a potential consequence and therefore different from OCE as it does not presume a motivational state (Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello, 2009). OCE allows for the emergence of more proactive customer endeavours whereas brand experience is more reactive/responsive in nature (Hollebeek, 2011a). Furthermore, the concepts of value co-creation, co-production and co-created value surround the construct of OCE and are seen to be related to OCE as possible consequences. Co-created value is defined as the level of perceived value created in the customer's mind arising from interactive, joint and/or personalised activities for and with stakeholders (Hollebeek, 2011a, p.793). Value co-creation refers to the process of the development of customer-perceived value. Co-production is similar to co-creation whereas co-creation focuses more on the knowledge input, co-production focuses on the customer participation in new service and/or product development (Hollebeek, 2011a). The next section summarises the controversial views on the dimensions of online consumer engagement and introduces measurement scales for the concept.

2.10 Dimensions of Consumer Engagement and their Measurement

The term consumer engagement has evolved within the marketing literature in the last ten years. Essentially, the studies are exploratory, and lie in the broad area of consumer engagement but in general, academic marketing literature on consumer engagement is scarce (Brodie et al., 2013). Studies on consumer engagement are reviewed to establish the definitions offered, the dimensionality of the construct, and possible measurement scales for these dimensions or other appropriate measurement scales.

In fact, the term consumer engagement is still embryonic, no consensus has yet been reached concerning its dimensionality (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). However, it is perceived as an important development in the literature focusing on consumer management (Verhoef et al., 2002). Kumar et al. (2010a), for example, try to capture total consumer engagement value in order to avoid undervaluation or overvaluation of consumers, and propose four components, these being: consumer lifetime value, consumer referral value, consumer influencer value, and consumer knowledge value. Relationships regarding the four components are proposed and a comprehensive framework is provided which leads to more efficient marketing strategies. The research of Kumar et al. (2010a) classifies engagement as behavioural, and states that it is an active interaction between the consumer and the company or the consumer and other prospective consumers of the brand or a product. It does not matter whether these interactions are transactional or non-transactional in nature.

Bowden's (2009) conception of engagement is in alignment with that of Kumar et al. (2010a), who perceive it as behavioural. In developing a conceptual framework to allow for the segmentation of consumer brand relationships, Bowden (2009) includes consumers as new or repeat purchasers of a brand, as a means of attempting to provide a deeper understanding of the process by which engagement is developed. Engagement is defined as a psychological process that models the mechanisms by which loyalty is maintained in regard to established consumers or formed in regard to new consumers. However, this research is in line with other studies that only highlight the behavioural dimension, rather than trying to measure it (e.g. Erat et al., 2006; Porter et al., 2011; Verhoef et al., 2002; Wagner & Majchrzak, 2007). Scott and Craig-Lees (2010) describe online consumer engagement as unidimensional but rather emotional in nature. Table 2.2 shows a summary of the consumer engagement literature discussed in terms of dimensions. The table starts with literature that does not mention any

dimensions, and proceeds to indicate literature that describes the concept as unidimensional (behavioural or emotional) in nature.

Table 2.2: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part I

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions
Customer engagement Ashwin and Sharma (2004)	No dimensions mentioned
Engagement Whelan and Wohlfeil (2006)	No dimensions mentioned
Customer engagement Verhoef et al. (2002) Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004) Erat et al. (2006) Wagner and Majchrzak (2007) Bowden (2009) Kumar et al. (2010a) Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)	Unidimensional: Behavioural
Consumer engagement Higgins and Scholer (2009) Wallace, Buil, and De Chernatony (2014)	Unidimensional: Behavioural
Engagement in virtual communities Porter et al. (2011)	Unidimensional: Behavioural (acknowledge Cognitive and Emotional)
Brand community engagement Kuo and Feng (2013) Habibi, Laroche, and Richards (2014)	Unidimensional: Behavioural
Audience engagement Scott and Craig-Lees (2010)	Unidimensional: Emotional

Porter et al. (2011) describe the concept of online consumer engagement as behavioural in nature. However, they acknowledge that such actions are motivated by emotional and cognitive forces, and define engagement as a class of behaviours able to reflect community members' willingness to co-operate and participate. Such co-operation and participation should create value for others or for themselves (Porter et al., 2011). This view is similar to that expressed by Vivek et al. (2012) who perceive consumer engagement as predominantly behavioural. However, they use the word connection, which implies that the concept may also have cognitive, emotional, and social dimensions. The cognitive and emotional dimensions

comprise the experiences and feelings of consumers, whereas the social and behavioural ones are captured by the participation of consumers (Vivek et al., 2012). Sawhney et al. (2005) consider both the behavioural and social dimensions in consumer engagement, whereas Gambetti, Graffigna, and Biraghi (2012) highlight the experiential and social ones.

Van Doorn et al. (2010) propose five different dimensions that are not measured, namely valence, form of modality, scope, consumer goals, and nature of impact. Valence refers to the valence of the content created by the consumer, which can be positively or negatively considered from the company's viewpoint. The form of modality stands for the different ways something can be expressed by the consumer, which at a basic level, might refer to time vs. money. The scope of online consumer engagement can be temporal and geographic. The consumer's goal or purpose should also be regarded in terms of direction of the engagement, the extent to which the engagement is planned, and the degree to which the consumer's goals are in line with the company's goals (Van Doorn et al., 2010). Patterson et al. (2006) also propose four components of consumer engagement, these being: absorption, dedication, vigour, and interaction. However, they link the four components to the three dimensions (cognitive, emotional, behavioural). The four components can be defined as follows: Absorption is the level of concentration faced by the consumer on an engagement object, and thus, reflects the cognitive aspect of the construct. Dedication refers to a consumer's sense of belonging to an organisation or to a brand, which stands for the emotional dimension. Vigour and interaction are part of the behavioural dimension. Vigour is defined as the level of energy a consumer has in interacting, and interaction is described as a two-way interaction between the engagement subject and the object (Patterson et al., 2006). The four components are sourced from Schaufeli et al. (2002) who introduced them in the context of work engagement.

Other research highlights the three-dimensionality of the concept (cognitive, emotional, and behavioural) (e.g. Algesheimer et al., 2005; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek, 2011a; Mollen & Wilson, 2010). Moreover, Hollebeek (2011a) states that consumer engagement might also have a motivational basis. Recently, Hollebeek et al. (2016b) add a social dimension to the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural conceptualisation when revising the construct from a service-dominant logic perspective. Table 2.3 summarises the studies that regard consumer engagement as a multidimensional concept, but none of those studies uses measurement scales to measure the concepts.

Table 2.3: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part II

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions
Customer engagement Vivek et al. (2012)	Predominantly Behavioural but also Emotional, Cognitive, and Social
Customer engagement Sawhney et al. (2005)	Multidimensional: Behavioural and Social
Customer engagement Patterson et al. (2006)	Multidimensional: Absorption (Cognitive), Dedication (Emotional), Vigour, and Interaction (Behavioural)
Customer engagement Van Doorn et al. (2010)	Multidimensional: Valence, Form of modality, Scope, Customer goals, and Nature of its impact.
Engagement Mollen and Wilson (2010)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Consumer-brand engagement Gambetti et al. (2012)	Multidimensional: Experiential and Social
Customer engagement Sarkar and Sreejesh (2014)	Multidimensional: Behavioural and Cognitive
Customer engagement with advertising Phillips and McQuarrie (2010)	Multidimensional: Behavioural, Emotional, Immersive, Transporting, Identification
Customer engagement Hollebeek (2011a)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural, and may have a Motivational basis
Customer engagement Brodie et al. (2011) Consumer engagement Brodie et al. (2013)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Consumer-brand engagement Gambetti et al. (2012)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Customer engagement Wirtz et al. (2013)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Brand engagement Hollebeek and Chen (2014)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Online brand community engagement Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki (2014)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Consumer-brand engagement Hollebeek et al. (2014)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Customer engagement Kaltcheva et al. (2014)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Brand engagement Franzak, Makarem, and Jae (2014)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Consumer engagement Dessart, Veloutsou, and Morgan-Thomas (2015)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural
Customer engagement Hollebeek et al. (2016b)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural, and Social

Algesheimer et al. (2005) develop a 4-item multidimensional (cognitive, emotional, behavioural), in contrast to Gummerus et al. (2012) who produce a 3-item scale and regard the concept as behavioural in nature. Hammedi et al. (2015) use the scale of Algesheimer et al. (2005) to measure participation in the core brand community. However, neither the 4-item measurement scale of Algesheimer et al. (2005), nor the 3-item measurement scale of Gummerus et al. (2012) seems extensive enough for this study, as engagement is the main focus of the research. Even though Algesheimer et al. (2005) mention the multidimensionality of consumer engagement, their proposed scale does not reflect this, as it focuses on motivations instead of considering the other dimensions.

Furthermore, Verleye et al. (2013) only measure different forms of consumer engagement behaviour rather than the concept of consumer engagement itself. This is similar to the approach of Lee et al. (2011) who measure community engagement intention instead of consumer engagement, and the direction taken by Koh and Kim (2004) and Zheng et al. (2015) (Table 2.6), who measure consumer participation instead of consumer engagement. The authors of the scales do not differentiate between participation and engagement, which they perceive as one and the same construct, whereas this study clearly differentiates between the two concepts. Another attempt to measure consumer engagement with a multidimensional scale is shown in a conference paper by Cheung, Lee, and Jin (2011), who describe engagement as a psychological state, which they measure via three dimensions, namely vigour, absorption, and dedication. That scale has also been used in another conference paper by Dovaliene, Masiulyte, and Piligrimiene (2015).

Sprott et al. (2009) perceive consumer engagement as being emotional in nature, and develop an 8-item measurement scale for 'brand engagement in self-concept'. However, the scale is indeed only emotional in nature, and the brand focuses on the self-concept; hence, it is not appropriate for this study as it does not portray the rich scope of the concept. Baldus, Voorhees, and Calantone (2015) develop a multidimensional scale, but this is based on motivations and is also, therefore, inappropriate for this study. The motivations are namely: brand influence, brand passion, connecting, helping, like-minded discussion, rewards (hedonic and utilitarian), seeking assistance, self-expression, up-to-date information, and validation.

Another attempt to measure consumer engagement is made by Greve (2014), who monitors the number of visits, comments, posts, and likes on the Facebook fan page. This, however, only highlights the behavioural dimension of consumer engagement. And a yet more recent effort comes from Fernandes and Remelhe (2016), who use a 3-item scale, but only to measure willingness to engage. Wong and Merrilees (2015), on the other hand, have developed a scale to measure brand engagement based on multiple dimensions (emotion, passion, and activation), but this is underpinned by a brand perspective, rather than a consumer perspective, and is therefore, not suitable for this study. Moreover, that scale is only based on eight in-depth interviews and has not yet been validated in multiple contexts. Again, very recently (in 2016), Schivinski, Christodoulides, and Dabrowski (2016) developed a scale for consumer engagement, but this is only behavioural in nature, focusing on the measurement of consumption, contribution, and creation. And also, recently, Yang et al. (2016) develop a multidimensional scale for brand engagement on social media including affiliation, conservation, and responsiveness. However, unlike Hollebeek et al. (2014), these authors do not state that the scale can be used in the broad context of an online brand community.

It is clear, therefore, that none of the described scales, which are summarised in chronological order in Table 2.4, seems appropriate to measure the concept.

Table 2.4: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part III

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
<p>Customer participation Koh and Kim (2004)</p>	<p>Unidimensional: Behavioural</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I take an active part in our virtual community participation. 2. I do my best to stimulate our virtual community. 3. I often provide useful information/contents for our virtual community members. 4. I eagerly reply to postings by the help-seeker of our virtual community. 5. I take care about our virtual community members. 6. I often help our virtual community members who seek support from other members.
<p>Online brand community engagement Algesheimer et al. (2005) Hammedi et al. (2015)</p>	<p>Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I benefit from following the brand community's rules. 2. I am motivated to participate in the brand community's activities because I feel better afterwards. 3. I am motivated to participate in the brand community's activities because I am able to support other members. 4. I am motivated to participate in the brand community's activities because I am able to reach a personal goal.
<p>Brand engagement in self-concept Sprrott et al. (2009)</p>	<p>Unidimensional: Emotional</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I have a special bond with the brands that I like. 2. I consider my favourite brands to be a part of myself. 3. I often feel a personal connection between my brands and me. 4. Part of me is defined by important brands in my life. 5. I feel as if I have a close personal connection with the brands I most prefer. 6. I can identify with important brands in my life. 7. There are links between the brands that I prefer and how I view myself. 8. My favourite brands are an important indication of who I am.
<p>Customer engagement Cheung et al. (2011) Scale also used by: Dovaliene et al. (2015) (Conference Papers)</p>	<p>Multidimensional: Vigour, Absorption, Dedication</p>	<p><u>Vigour (6 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I can continue using this online social platform for very long periods at a time.</p> <p><u>Absorption (6 items)</u> Sample item: 1. Time flies when I am using this online social platform.</p> <p><u>Dedication (6 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I am enthusiastic in this online social platform.</p>

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
Customer engagement intention Lee et al. (2011)	Unidimensional: Behavioural	How likely or unlikely is it that you would participate in the following online brand community activities: a) Providing new information about the brand to other people. b) Actively participating in the online brand community activities. c) Supporting other members of the online brand community. d) Saying positive things about the online brand community to other people. e) Recommending the online brand community to anyone who sought their advice about the brand. f) Encouraging other people to use the brand in future. g) Not hesitating to refer other people to the brand.
Consumer engagement Gummerus et al. (2012)	Unidimensional: Behavioural	1. Reads game club messages. 2. Likes messages. 3. Writes comments.
Customer engagement Verleye et al. (2013)	Unidimensional: Behavioural	Measures different forms of customer engagement behaviour: <u>Compliance (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I fulfil my responsibilities to the organisation. <u>Co-operation (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I do things to make the personnel's job easier. <u>Feedback (3 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I let this nursing house know of ways to better serve my needs. <u>Helping customers (3 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I help other customers if necessary. <u>Positive Word-of-Mouth (3 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I recommend this nursing house to family and friends.
Customer engagement Greve (2014)	Unidimensional: Behavioural	Engagement activity - Monitoring of number of visits, comments, posts, and likes on the fan page.

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
<p>Online brand community engagement Baldus et al. (2015)</p>	<p>Multidimensional: but based on Motivations</p> <p>Brand influence, Brand passion, Connecting, Helping, Like-minded discussion, Rewards (hedonic), Rewards (utilitarian), Seeking assistance, Self-expression, Up-to-date information, Validation</p>	<p><u>Brand influence (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I am motivated to participate in this brand community because I can help improve the brand and its products.</p> <p><u>Brand passion (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I am motivated to participate in this brand community because I am passionate about the brand.</p> <p><u>Connecting (3 items)</u> Sample item: 1. Increasing the strength of the connection I have with this brand community makes me want to participate more in the community.</p> <p><u>Helping (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I like participating in the brand community because I can use my experience to help other people.</p> <p><u>Like-minded discussion (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I look forward to discussing my opinions about the brand with others who share the same interest as me.</p> <p><u>Rewards (Hedonic) (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I like participating in this brand community because it is entertaining.</p> <p><u>Rewards (Utilitarian) (3 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I am motivated to participate in this brand community because I can earn money.</p> <p><u>Seeking assistance (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I am motivated to participate in this brand community because I can receive help from other community members.</p> <p><u>Self-expression (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I feel that I can freely share my interests in the brand community.</p> <p><u>Up-to-date information (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. This brand community is my critical connection for new and important information about the brand and its products.</p> <p><u>Validation (4 items)</u> Sample item: 1. Receiving more affirmation of the value of my comments, makes me want to participate more in the brand community.</p>
<p>Customer participation Zheng et al. (2015) modified from Koh and Kim (2004)</p>	<p>Unidimensional: Behavioural</p>	<p>1. I leave messages on the wall of the Facebook page. 2. I post my comments on the Facebook fan page. 3. I help other people by providing them with information about the product/brand on the Facebook fan page. 4. I join events organised through the Facebook Fan page.</p>

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
Customer engagement Fernandes and Remelhe (2016)	Multidimensional: Behavioural and Cognitive	<u>Willingness to engage</u> 1. In the future I intend to continue to participate in NPD. 2. I plan to make future contributions to these projects. 3. I continue believing these projects are important to me.
Customer engagement Kumar and Pansari (2016)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional and Behavioural	<u>Customer engagement (16 items)</u> Sample items: 1. I will continue buying the product/services of this brand in the near future. 2. My purchases of this brand make me content.
Consumer engagement Schivinski et al. (2016)	Unidimensional: Behavioural	<u>Consumption (5 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I read posts related to Brand X on social media. <u>Contribution (6 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I comment on videos related to brand X. <u>Creation (6 items)</u> Sample item: 1. I initiate posts related to brand X on blogs.
Brand engagement on social media Yang et al. (2016)	Multidimensional: Affiliation, Conservation, Responsiveness	<u>Affiliation (1 item)</u> 1. I like to become a fan of the (apparel brand) for the official brand page on Facebook. <u>Conversation (1 item)</u> 1. I like to initially talk about the (apparel brand) on my own Facebook page, such as posting content related to (the apparel brand), sharing Facebook posts related to the (apparel brand) and tagging photos related to (the apparel brand) on my own Facebook page. <u>Responsiveness (1 item)</u> 1. I like to respond to the content posted by (the apparel brand) on the brand's Facebook brand page such as liking, commenting and sharing the content.

The majority of studies in the marketing field refer to the behavioural aspect of consumer engagement. Moreover, measurement scales are rare and there is little agreement on what engagement is or how to employ engagement as a marketing metric (Calder, Isaac, & Malthouse, 2013). Kumar and Pansari (2016) very recently developed a scale of online consumer engagement, but as it was published after the data collection phase, it could not be considered for this study. That scale includes 16-items to measure consumer engagement. However, given its recent publication, it has not been tested in other contexts and research

projects, whereas those scales described in the following sections have. In this respect, two measurement scales, namely those developed by Calder et al. in 2009 – 2013, and Hollebeek et al. in 2014 are worthy of consideration for this study, and consequently, these are now described, compared and contrasted.

Calder et al. (2009) and Calder et al. (2013) talk about experiences in relation to engagement, and Vivek et al. (2012) mention experiences as representing the cognitive and behavioural dimensions of online consumer engagement. Engagement is seen as a highly motivational and personal state, arising out of consumer experiences with a service or product. It reflects the qualitative experience of what the product means to the person (Calder et al., 2013). This view of engagement is largely consistent with the conceptualisation of Brodie et al. (2011). However, Calder et al. (2013) clearly highlight that engagement is based on experiences, which makes it a different kind of psychological state from the one Brodie et al. (2013) define, and therefore, it should be studied jointly with experiences. Notwithstanding, Malthouse and Calder (2011) criticise the fact that Brodie et al. (2011) define engagement as having cognitive, emotional, and behavioural dimensions on the grounds that it might be perceived as too broad by combining all relevant behaviours with emotions and cognitions. Moreover, simply stating that engagement is a multidimensional construct with a behavioural dimension is likely to obscure the role of measurement. Hence, Calder et al. (2013) combine emotions, cognitions, and behaviours in one measurement model that reflects the experience of the brand, for example, in consumers' lives. The concept of experiences, similar to the concept of online consumer engagement, remains in its infancy (Calder et al., 2013). Calder et al. (2013) agree with Brodie et al. (2013) in terms of the differentiation between engagement and other constructs such as involvement, but they are of the opinion that engagement does not necessarily require active behaviour as it can also arise from simply being transported into a narrative. Experience is defined as something that the consumer is conscious of happening in his or her life. It is a sense of movement (Calder et al., 2009). The experience literature claims that experiences are qualitative, subjective, memorable, and often emotional (Meyer & Schwager, 2007; Nelson, 1970). Calder et al. (2013) adopt the conceptualisation proposed by Higgins (2006), that experiences are motivational, and provide some movement toward a goal. Calder et al. (2013) employ a direct measure in their study unlike in a previous study of Brakus, et al. (2009), which is rather descriptive and indirect in terms of dimensions. Notwithstanding, they employ the same hierarchical logic. Hence, Calder et al. (2013) perceive the engagement concept as a higher order factor that arises out of specific

experiences. The experience is the remembered experience, which is measured after the immediate experience. Thus, the engagement measures are based on beliefs about experiences and are direct and context-specific (Calder et al., 2013). Engagement is linked to a number of first-order experience factors, and is therefore, a second-order factor in the measurement model reflecting the experience factors. The experience factors developed by Calder et al. (2013) for the experience of reading a newspaper, and three experiences for artistic events, are summarised in Table 2.5, which also provides details of the Cronbach's alphas and sample items. It should be noted that these scales are very context-specific.

Table 2.5: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part IV

Type of engagement/ Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
Consumer engagement with a product or service Calder et al. (2013) Calder et al. (2009) Malthouse and Calder (2011)	Multidimensional: Social, Intrinsic enjoyment, Utilitarian, Identity, Civic Engagement = Higher order factor that arises from experiences. Emotions, Cognitions and Behaviours are combined in one measurement model that reflects the experience of the brand.	Experience factors for reading a newspaper <u>Social</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.81$: 4 items) 1. I show things in this newspaper to others in my family. <u>Intrinsic enjoyment</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.85$: 6 items) 1. It's a treat for me. <u>Utilitarian enjoyment</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.80$: 4 items) 1. It shows me how other people live their lives. <u>Identity</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.85$: 3 items) 1. Reading this newspaper is a little like belonging to a group. <u>Civic</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.74$: 3 items) 1. Reading this newspaper makes me a better citizen. Experience factors for artistic events <u>Social</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.76$: 3 items) 1. I enjoyed talking with someone else about it. <u>Discovery</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.82$: 3 items) 1. It gave me a broader, richer perspective. <u>Transportation</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.46$: 2 items) 1. I liked to imagine myself being on stage.

Another study by Calder et al. (2009) selected scales to measure online experiences and provide indicators of engagement to evaluate advertising effectiveness. That study is more similar to this one in context. The set of eight media experiences used was introduced by Malthouse, Calder, and Tamhane (2007). Personal engagement and social-interactive engagement are measured. Personal engagement comprises stimulation and inspiration, social facilitation, temporal, and self-esteem and civic mindness. Social-interactive engagement comprises intrinsic enjoyment, utilitarian, participation and socialising, and community. Table 2.6 summarises the full measurement scales and Cronbach's alphas.

Table 2.6: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part V

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
<p>Customer engagement Calder et al. (2009)</p>	<p>Multidimensional:</p> <p>Personal engagement:</p> <p>Stimulation and Inspiration, Social Facilitation, Temporal, Self-Esteem and Civic Mindedness,</p> <p>Social-Interactive engagement:</p> <p>Intrinsic Enjoyment, Utilitarian, Participation and Socialising, Community</p>	<p>Personal engagement</p> <p><u>Stimulation and Inspiration</u> ($\alpha = 0.88$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It inspires me in my own life. 2. This site makes me think of things in new ways. 3. This site stimulates my thinking about lots of different topics. 4. This site makes me a more interesting person. 5. Some stories on this site touch me deep down. <p><u>Social Facilitation</u> ($\alpha = 0.88$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This site often gives me something to talk about. 2. I use things from this site in discussions or arguments with people I know. <p><u>Temporal</u> ($\alpha = 0.90$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is part of my routine. 2. This is one of the sites I always go to anytime I am surfing the web. 3. I use it as a big part of getting my news for the day. 4. It helps me to get my day started in the morning. <p><u>Self-Esteem and Civic Mindedness</u> ($\alpha = 0.91$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Using this site makes me feel like a better citizen. 2. Using this site makes a difference in my life. 3. This site reflects my values. 4. It makes me more a part of my community. 5. I am a better person after using this site. <p>Social-Interactive engagement</p> <p><u>Intrinsic Enjoyment</u> ($\alpha = 0.87$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It's a treat for me. 2. Going to this site improves my mood, makes me happier. 3. I like to kick back and wind down with it. 4. I like to go to this site when I am eating or taking a break. 5. While I am on this site, I don't think about other sites I might go to. <p><u>Utilitarian</u> ($\alpha = 0.88$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This site helps me make good purchase decisions. 2. You learn how to improve yourself from this site. 3. This site provides information that helps me make important decisions. 4. This site helps me better manage my money. 5. I give advice and tips to people I know based on things I've read on this site. <p><u>Participation and Socialising</u> ($\alpha = 0.88$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I do quite a bit of socialising on this site. 2. I contribute to the conversation on this site. 3. I often feel guilty about the amount of time I spend on this site socialising. 4. I should probably cut back on the amount of time I spend on this site socialising. <p><u>Community</u> ($\alpha = 0.88$)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I'm as interested in input from other users as I am in the regular content on this site. 2. A big reason I like this site is what I get from other users. 3. This site does a good job of getting its visitors to contribute or provide feedback. 4. I'd like to meet other people who regularly visit this site. 5. I've gotten interested in things I otherwise wouldn't have because of others on this site. 6. Overall, the visitors to this site are pretty knowledgeable about the topics it covers so you can learn from them.

The scale for consumer engagement was further developed in a recent article (Calder et al., 2016a) for the context of a Jazz Festival, newspaper, and TV programme. However, only the scale developed by Calder et al. (2009) in the context of consumer engagement and advertising effectiveness in an online context will be considered for further discussion because of the different contexts (offline consumer engagement) of the other scales (Calder et al., 2016a; Calder et al., 2013). Recently, Thakur (2016) developed and validated a scale that perceives consumer engagement similarly to Calder et al. (2009), as a second order construct arising out of six experiences namely: social-facilitation, self-connect, intrinsic enjoyment, time-filler, utilitarian, and monetary evaluation experiences. Table 2.7 summarises both scales.

Table 2.7: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part VI

Type of engagement/ Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
<p>Customer engagement Calder et al. (2016a)</p>	<p>Multidimensional:</p> <p>Interaction (to connect with others),</p> <p>Discovery (to gain insight, knowledge, or skills),</p> <p>Transportation (to escape or become diverted),</p> <p>Identity (to affirm or express one's identity),</p> <p>Civic Orientation (to contribute to society)</p>	<p>Jazz Festival</p> <p><u>Interaction</u> ($\alpha = 0.71$) 1. It made me feel more connected to other people and the community. 2. I enjoyed talking with someone else about it. 3. I enjoyed going to it with family and friends. 4. I felt personally involved with it.</p> <p><u>Discovery</u> ($\alpha = 0.81$) 1. It motivated me to listen to more jazz and learn more about it. 2. It gave me a broader, richer perspective. 3. I learned about what kind of jazz I like best.</p> <p><u>Transportation</u> ($\alpha = 0.83$) 1. I liked to imagine myself being on the stage. 2. It made me think of actually playing an instrument or singing myself.</p> <p>Newspaper</p> <p><u>Interaction</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.81$: 4 items) 1. I bring up things I've read in this newspaper in conversations with others.</p> <p><u>Transportation</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.85$: 6 items) 1. It's a treat for me.</p> <p><u>Civic orientation</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.74$: 4 items) 1. Reading the newspaper makes me a better citizen.</p> <p><u>Discovery</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.80$: 5 items) 1. This newspaper has columns that give good advice.</p> <p><u>Identity</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.85$: 3 items) 1. A big reason I read it is to make myself more interesting to other people.</p> <p>TV programme</p> <p><u>Interaction</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.93$: 4 items) 1. I love to discuss this programme with my friends and family.</p> <p><u>Discovery</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.97$: 3 items) 1. This programme gives me good tips and advice.</p> <p><u>Transportation</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.94$: 4 items) 1. I look forward to watching as a special treat.</p>
<p>Customer engagement Thakur (2016)</p>	<p>Multidimensional:</p> <p>Monetary experience,</p> <p>Social facilitation,</p> <p>Intrinsic enjoyment,</p> <p>Utilitarian,</p> <p>Self-connect,</p> <p>Time filler</p>	<p>Mobile shopping applications</p> <p><u>Monetary evaluation</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.78$: 3 items) 1. Mobile shopping applications help me save money.</p> <p><u>Social facilitation</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.69$: 3 items) 1. I bring up things I have seen on this application in conversations with other people.</p> <p><u>Intrinsic enjoyment</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.71$: 3 items) Browsing a mobile shopping application is like a treat for me.</p> <p><u>Utilitarian</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.87$: 3 items) Mobile shopping applications give me good product information.</p> <p><u>Self-connect</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.82$: 3 items) Browsing a mobile application is a personal shopping trip.</p> <p><u>Time filler</u> Sample item: ($\alpha = 0.83$: 4 items) I like to browse the mobile device when I am eating or taking a break.</p>

Hollebeek et al. (2014) highlight that engagement studies have been mainly exploratory in nature, a fact which clearly results in a lack of data. Thus, Hollebeek et al. (2014) developed and validated a consumer engagement behaviour scale for online brand communities in social media settings to address this research gap. Consumer engagement is seen as a multidimensional construct (emotional, cognitive, behavioural) in line with the definition of Brodie et al. (2013). The scale by Hollebeek et al. (2014) is a valid 10-item instrument designed to measure consumer engagement, through the use of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Cronbach's alphas in respect of the items are shown in Table 2.8. It was also emphasised by the developers that the scale might be used for online brand communities in general, thereby making it extremely relevant for the context of this study.

Table 2.8: Summary of Consumer Engagement Dimensions Part VII

Type of engagement/Authors	Dimensions	Measurement scales
Customer engagement Hollebeek et al. (2014)	Multidimensional: Cognitive, Emotional, and Behavioural	<u>Cognitive</u> ($\alpha = 0.825$) 1. Using [OBC] gets me to think about [brand]. 2. I think about [brand] a lot when I'm using it. 3. Using [OBC] stimulates my interest to learn more about [brand]. <u>Emotional</u> ($\alpha = 0.907$) 1. I feel very positive when I use [OBC]. 2. Using [OBC] makes me happy. 3. I feel good when I use [OBC]. 4. I'm proud to use [OBC]. <u>Behavioural</u> ($\alpha = 0.894$) 1. I spend a lot of time using [OBC] compared to other [category] OBC. 2. Whenever I'm using [category], I usually use [OBC]. 3. [OBC] is one of the brands I usually use when I use [category] OBC.

Recently, Hollebeek et al. (2016b) added a social dimension to the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural conceptualisation when revising the construct from a service-dominant logic perspective. However, no measurement scale has been developed so far.

The work of Calder et al. (2009) differs conceptually from that of Hollebeek et al. (2014) and Brodie et al. (2013) in three ways. The first point of differentiation is that the model of Hollebeek et al. (2014) reflects consumer engagement with a specific brand, and secondly it pervades the three dimensions proposed by Brodie et al. (2013), whereas Calder et al. (2009) use the independent concept experience in their model. The third point of differentiation is the fact that Hollebeek et al. (2014) use a more parsimonious measurement scale which only comprises 10 items (settled into three dimensions), whereas Calder et al. (2009) use eight dimensions comprising 37 items in total. The measurement scale of Hollebeek et al. (2014) focuses on engagement with particular brands but one should keep in mind that many online brand communities have become brands on their own nowadays. Hence, Hollebeek et al. (2014) also refer to facebook.com and twitter.com as brands in their own right. Moreover, Hollebeek et al. (2014) adopt a holistic perspective of the brand that covers consumers' perceived utilitarian as well as the more hedonic or symbolic aspects of brands.

Hollebeek et al. (2014, p. 154) conceptualise consumer engagement behaviour as “a consumer's positively valenced brand-related cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity during or related to focal consumer/brand interactions”. Three dimensions are proposed: cognitive, emotional, and behavioural. Cognitive processing is defined as “a consumer's level of brand-related thought processing and elaboration in a particular consumer/brand interaction” (cognitive dimension). Affection refers to a “consumer's degree of positive brand-related affect in a particular consumer/brand interaction” (emotional dimension); and activation is defined as a “consumer's level of energy, effort and time spent on a brand in a particular consumer/brand interaction” (behavioural dimension) (Hollebeek et al., 2014, p. 154).

Based on the literature review of consumer engagement dimensions and possible measurement scales, there are only two options in terms of measurement scales for the construct, namely those presented by Hollebeek et al. (2014) and Calder et al. (2009). Considering both carefully, it is decided to employ the measurement scale developed by Hollebeek et al. (2014), as that designed by Calder et al. (2009) is less appropriate in terms of

context, and very extensive (37 items), keeping in mind that personality traits, personal values, and consumer-perceived value also have to be tested for this study. Moreover, Hollebeek et al. (2014) are among the leading pioneers, experts and most cited academics in the area of online consumer engagement, and the scale formulated by them is more appropriate in terms of length when investigating the concept of online consumer engagement together with its antecedents and consequences. The measurement scales used by Calder et al. (2009) primarily measure experience and not engagement, as experiences are seen to be indicators of engagement rather than engagement itself.

In general, the unidimensional concepts described in this section clearly possess the merit of simplicity but one of the downsides is that they do not reflect the rich conceptual scope and that no appropriate measurement scale exists. The multidimensional concept better reflects the rich scope of the concept, and the measurement scale by Hollebeek et al. (2014) is the most appropriate one for this study.

Recent studies by Nguyen et al. (2016), Islam, Rahman, and Hollebeek (2017a), Islam, Rahman, and Hollebeek (2017b) and Leckie, Nyadzayo, and Johnson (2016) use the scale. Leckie et al. (2016) conducted their study in the context of an Australian mobile phone provider. However, the participants were not members of an online brand community established by the company; rather, the only criterion for participation in the study was to use the services offered by a mobile phone provider. In the case of Nguyen et al. (2016), the study context was an Australian consumer panel, the criterion for inclusion being a visit to an online brand community to share travel experiences or seek travel information in the last 12 months. In the case of Islam et al. (2017a) and Islam et al. (2017b) participants had to be members of at least one Facebook-based online brand community. Thus, membership in a specific community was not explicitly mentioned. Leckie, Nyadzayo, and Johnson (2016) find support for the three-dimensional scale whereas Nguyen et al. (2016), Islam et al. (2017a) and Islam et al. (2017b) rather find support for integrating the suggested items into a unidimensional scale.

Section 2.11 now summarises the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement, and highlights the gap in the literature.

2.11 Antecedents and Consequences of Online Consumer Engagement

The investigation of antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement has been greatly overlooked in the literature to date (Brodie et al., 2013). Therefore, this research summarises the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement, and related concepts such as participation. The antecedents and consequences of participation are also included as participation is perceived to be a related and similar concept to consumer engagement. However, the concept of participation differs slightly from the concept of engagement as engagement is an iterative and dynamic process, which co-creates value and is interactive in comparison to participation and involvement (Brodie et al., 2013; Mollen & Wilson, 2010).

Participation and involvement as antecedents of consumer engagement, have been investigated by Vivek et al. (2012). The high similarity between these concepts might lead to the conclusion that possible antecedents and consequences of consumer participation will also be antecedents and consequences of consumer engagement as many authors do not differentiate between both concepts. Indeed, the majority of research to date only mentions possible antecedents or consequences, with some scholars confirming these roles via qualitative research (e.g. Dessart et al., 2015; Hollebeek, 2013) and others by quantitative studies (e.g. Calder et al., 2016a; Calder et al., 2009; Gummerus et al., 2012; Verleye et al., 2013). Researchers do discuss both antecedents and consequences, and build theoretical frameworks based on the extant literature, yet the conceptual models produced so far, have not yet been empirically tested. For example, Van Doorn et al. (2010) developed a theoretical framework of antecedents and consequences of offline consumer engagement behaviours, which they divide into consumer, firm, and societal-based categories. And Wirtz et al. (2013) investigate the emergence and implications of online brand communities from both company and consumer perspectives. Four key dimensions for OBCs are identified, namely: brand orientation, internet-use, governance, and funding, as well as three antecedents namely: social, brand-related, and functional antecedents. Drivers of engagement are classified as brand-related drivers, functional drivers and social drivers, none of which integrate personality traits. Outcomes are categorised into online brand community outcomes, brand outcomes, brand commitment and engagement, and brand satisfaction and loyalty (Wirtz et al., 2013). Vivek et al. (2012) build a framework of consumer engagement based on in-depth interviews. In this, value is integrated as a consequence of consumer engagement in online

brand communities. Moreover, the model uses involvement and consumer participation as antecedents (Vivek et al., 2012).

Madupu and Cooley (2010) propose a theoretical framework including antecedents (self-discovery, information, social enhancement, social integration, and entertainment) and consequences of online brand community participation. They distinguish between community consequences and brand consequences.

Table 2.9 summarises the antecedents of online consumer engagement in the wider context of (online) consumer engagement. It highlights the main theme in the first column, and summarises the authors who mention this antecedent in the second column.

Table 2.9: Antecedents of Online Consumer Engagement

Antecedents	References
Desire <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Attitude - Emotion (negative/positive) - Subjective norms 	Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) Harwood and Garry (2010) Kumar et al. (2010a)
Community value Information/Quality of information Entertainment Networking Monetary incentives Quest for specific value/Expected customer value <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Information - Development of community - Enjoyment/Entertainment - Self-improvement - Reassurance - Joint consumption - Encouragement - Incentive (e.g. monetary) - Functional benefit 	Dessart et al. (2015)* Cova and White (2010) Fournier and Lee (2009) Hollebeek (2013) Ouwersloot and Odekerken-Schröder (2008) Van Doorn (2011) Wirtz and De Ruyter (2007) Wirtz et al. (2013) Roberts and Alpert (2010)
Social capital/Social benefits <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reciprocity norm - Voluntarism - Social trust 	Libai et al. (2010) Mathwick et al. (2008) Muñoz and O'Guinn (2001) Wirtz and De Ruyter (2007) Wirtz et al. (2013)
Involvement and interactivity	Leckie et al. (2016)* Hollebeek et al. (2014) Hollebeek (2011a) Ouwersloot and Odekerken-Schröder (2008) Cheung et al. (2011) Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki (2014) Vivek et al. (2012) Hollebeek et al. (2014) Brodie et al. (2011) Wirtz et al. (2013) Cui and Wu (2016)**
Participation	Leckie et al. (2016)** Brodie et al. (2011) Vivek et al. (2012) Cui and Wu (2016)
Attachment Identification/Social identity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cognitive - Affective - Evaluative Customer community identification Brand identification OBC identification	Hamilton and Hewer (2010) Ren et al. (2012) Wirtz et al. (2013) Woisetschläger et al. (2008) Lee et al. (2011) Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) Muñoz and O'Guinn (2001) Van Doorn (2011) Hammedi et al. (2015)* Dessart et al. (2015)*
Trust <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Honesty - Benevolence - Competence Brand trust	Chang et al. (2013) Hair, Clark, and Shapiro (2010) Hollebeek (2011b) Van Doorn (2011) Wirtz et al. (2013) Rossmann, Ranjan, and Sugathan (2016) Woisetschläger et al. (2008) Brodie et al. (2011) Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) Dessart et al. (2015)*
Overcoming personal resistance	Higgins and Scholer (2009)
Involvement willingness	Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki (2014)*
Need to solve a specific problem	Brodie et al. (2013)

Antecedents	References
Customer satisfaction	Casaló et al. (2008) Cambra-Fierro et al. (2013) Brodie et al. (2011) Brodie et al. (2013) Sleep, Bharadwaj, and Lam (2015)** Bowden (2009) Hollebeek (2011a)
Brand satisfaction	Dessart et al. (2015)* Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki (2014)
Brand actions	Joshi et al. (2013)* (Working Paper) Maslowska, Malthouse, and Collinger (2016)
Brand orientation	Wong and Merrilees (2015)*
Perceived costs	Zheng et al. (2015)**
Perceived benefits	Zheng et al. (2015)*
Social media content	Dolan et al. (2016)
Flow	Brodie et al. (2011)
Satisfy a want	Brodie et al. (2013)
Need satisfaction	Higgins and Scholer (2009)
Self-expressive brand	Leckie et al. (2016)**
Support	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Personality traits	Chang et al. (2013) McAlexander et al. (2002) Sung et al. (2010) Wirtz et al. (2013) Islam et al. (2017a)* Marbach, Lages, and Nunan (2016)*
Context based factors - Competitive Factors - P.E.S.T	Van Doorn (2011)
Regulatory fit	Higgins and Scholer (2009)
Brand's symbolic function	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Brand characteristics	Van Doorn et al. (2010)
Firm reputation	Van Doorn et al. (2010) Groeger, Moroko, and Hollebeek (2016)** Szöcs et al. (2016)**
Firm size/diversification	Van Doorn et al. (2010)
Industry	Van Doorn et al. (2010)
Access	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Loyalty	Brodie et al. (2013) Wirtz et al. (2013)
Likelihood	Higgins and Scholer (2009)
Verve, Ardour	Hollebeek (2011b)
Immersion	Hollebeek (2011b)
Social interaction	Cheung et al. (2011)
Commitment to community	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Relationship	Hair et al. (2010)
Rapport	Brodie et al. (2011)
Online environmental stimuli	Claffey and Brady (2014)
Sense of ownership	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Need for improvement	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Online brand community type	Lee et al. (2011)
Intrinsic motives of Altruism	Lee et al. (2011)
Telepresence	Mollen and Wilson (2010)
Customer experience	Roberts and Alpert (2010)
Uncertainty avoidance	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Customer knowledge sharing	Hollebeek et al. (2016b)
Customer learning	Hollebeek et al. (2016b)
Customer resource integration	Hollebeek et al. (2016b)
Customer emotions	Dolan et al. (2016)
Employee engagement	Auh et al. (2016)** Kumar and Pansari (2016)**
Experience (prior usage experience)	Rossmann et al. (2016)**
User-generated content	Van Dijk (2009)
Competition	Kumar and Pansari (2016)**

* = Confirmed; ** = Tested but not confirmed (for all online consumer engagement dimensions when applicable)

Table 2.9 provides an overview of the mentioned antecedents in the context of online consumer engagement. In addition to the consequences already mentioned in the frameworks discussed, some other studies mention possible consequences of online consumer engagement. For example, Brodie et al. (2013) mention customer loyalty, customer empowerment, connection, emotional bonding, trust and commitment to a community as possible consequences of online consumer engagement. Woisetschläger et al. (2008) investigate the impact of consumer participation on brand image perception, community loyalty, and word-of-mouth. Table 2.10 provides an overview of the identified consequences of online consumer engagement.

Table 2.10: Consequences of Online Consumer Engagement

Consequences	References
Customer experience	Hsu and Tsou (2011)
Brand experience	Hollebeek (2011a)
Brand usage intent	Hollebeek et al. (2014)
Self brand connection	Hollebeek et al. (2014)
Brand performance Firm performance	Wong and Merrilees (2015)* Kumar (2013) Bijmolt et al. (2010)
Loyalty Customer loyalty Brand loyalty Loyalty with the community	Maslowska et al. (2016) Brodie et al. (2013) EIU (2007) Fournier and Lee (2009) Fung So et al. (2014) Hollebeek (2011b) Madupu and Cooley (2010) Sung et al. (2010) Vivek et al. (2012) Wirtz et al. (2013) Woisetschläger et al. (2008) Dessart et al. (2015)* Leckie et al. (2016)** Brodie et al. (2011) Bowden (2009) Gummerus et al. (2012) Roberts and Alpert (2010) O'Brien, Jarvis, and Soutar (2015)** Thakur (2016)**
Customer satisfaction - Diversity of discussions - Frequency of interactions - Quality of interactions - Level of personal understanding	Maslowska et al. (2016) Brodie et al. (2013) Hair et al. (2010) Hollebeek (2011a) Wirtz et al. (2013) Brodie et al. (2011) Bowden (2009) Gummerus et al. (2012) Patterson et al. (2006) Thakur (2016)**
Affective commitment - Diversity of discussion - Frequency of interactions - Quality of interactions - Level of personal understanding Online brand community commitment	Brodie et al. (2013) Brodie et al. (2011) Casaló et al. (2008) Hair et al. (2010) Hollebeek (2011b) Vivek et al. (2012) Wiertz and De Ruyter (2007) Wirtz et al. (2013) Zheng et al. (2015)*
Trust - Honesty - Benevolence - Competence	Brodie et al. (2013) Brodie et al. (2011) Hollebeek (2011a) Vivek et al. (2012) Wirtz et al. (2013) Roberts and Alpert (2010)
Perceived price fairness	Nguyen et al. (2016)*
Connection Connection to other related brand communities	Hammedi et al. (2015)**
Rapport	Brodie et al. (2011)

Consequences	References
Relationship <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relationship quality - Level of complementarity - Level of reciprocity - Level of self-disclosure - Self-brand connection 	Hair et al. (2010) Sung et al. (2010)
Commitment	Vivek et al. (2012) Wirtz et al. (2013) Wiertz and De Ruyter (2007) Schau et al. (2009) Brodie et al. (2013) Casaló et al. (2008) Chang et al. (2013)
Actual purchase behaviour	Malthouse et al. (2016)* Viswanathan et al. (2017)*
Customer advocacy	Schau et al. (2009) Wirtz et al. (2013)
Customer value Value creation Actual customer value Value for the company Co-created value Customer lifetime value <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Informational - Living fantasies - Trading - Enhances use of product/Idea generation for company - Empowerment 	Brodie et al. (2013) Casaló et al. (2008) Chang et al. (2013) Cova and White (2010) Hollebeek (2013)* Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) Schau et al. (2009) Sung et al. (2010) Vivek et al. (2012) Wiertz and De Ruyter (2007) Wirtz et al. (2013) Hollebeek (2011a) Kumar et al. (2010a) Maslowska et al. (2016) Hollebeek et al. (2016b)
Perceived benefits Practical benefits Social benefits Social enhancement Entertainment benefits Economic benefits	Gummerus et al. (2012)*
Word-of-mouth	Madupu and Cooley (2010) Vivek et al. (2012) Patterson et al. (2006)
Emotional brand attachment Emotional bond	Brodie et al. (2011) Brodie et al. (2013)
Empowerment	Brodie et al. (2013)
Performance	Cambra-Fierro et al. (2013)
Motivational force intensity	Higgins and Scholer (2009)
Gratification	Hollebeek (2011b)
Erudition	Hollebeek (2011b)
Customer recognition	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Improved social climate	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Improved facilities	Jaakkola and Alexander (2014)
Knowledge	Kumar et al. (2010a)
Optimal consumer attitudes and behaviours	Mollen and Wilson (2010)
Decrease in costs	Roberts and Alpert (2010)
Recommendation behaviour Referral behaviour Influencer behaviour	Roberts and Alpert (2010) Kumar et al. (2010a)
Growth	Roberts and Alpert (2010)
Customer attitudes	Van Doorn et al. (2010)

Consequences	References
Firm reputation	Van Doorn et al. (2010)
Identification	Van Doorn et al. (2010)
Idea generation for improved products	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Greater customisation of products or services	EIU (2007)
Brand equity	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Brand image	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Sales	Joshi et al. (2013)* (Working paper)
Customer purchasing behaviour	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Increasing repurchase intentions	Kumar et al. (2010a) Van Doorn et al. (2010) EIU (2007) Islam et al. (2017a)*
Increased revenue	EIU (2007)
Increased profits	EIU (2007)
Bigger market share	EIU (2007)
Advertisement performance	Yang et al. (2016)*
Click-through rate	
Conservation rate	
Advertising effectiveness	Calder et al. (2016a)* Calder et al. (2009)*
Strengthening the brand	Fournier and Lee (2009)
Enhancement of the brand	Sung et al. (2010) Wiertz and De Ruyter (2007) Woisetschläger et al. (2008)
Customer interpersonal operant resource development	Hollebeek et al. (2016b)
Customer individual operant resource development	Hollebeek et al. (2016b)
Buying decisions	Naidoo and Hollebeek (2016)**

* = Confirmed; ** = Tested but not confirmed (for all online consumer engagement dimensions when applicable)

Table 2.11 shows the moderators used in the context of online consumer engagement, and studies that adopt the concept of online consumer engagement as a moderator.

Table 2.11: Online Consumer Engagement as a Moderator

Moderators in the context of Engagement	References
Product factors - Product involvement - Product complexity	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Customer factors - Customer expertise - Membership duration	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Situational factors - Size of OBC - Governance of OBC - Valence of information of OBC	Wirtz et al. (2013)
Length of membership	Madupu and Cooley (2010)
Engagement as a Moderator	References
Engagement	Henderson, Steinhoff, and Palmatier (2014)* Greve (2014)*

* = Confirmed; ** = Tested but not confirmed (for all online consumer engagement dimensions when applicable)

Wirtz et al. (2013) chose product factors (product involvement and product complexity), situational factors (size, governance and valence of information of online brand community), and customer factors (customer expertise, membership duration), as moderators of the relationship between the driver and online consumer engagement. Madupu and Cooley (2010) use length of membership as a moderator in their proposed framework of antecedents and consequences of online brand community participation. Henderson et al. (2014) integrated engagement itself as a moderator when researching how consumer engagement alters the effects of habit-, dependence- and relationship-based intrinsic loyalty in a field experiment. Finally, Greve (2014) investigates the moderating effect of consumer engagement on the relationship between brand image and brand loyalty by monitoring engagement activity.

Tables 2.9 – 2.11 show that several authors mention particular antecedents and consequences, which underlines the need for, and importance of, further evaluation of this research gap, which relates to the empirical investigation of the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. Especially, there is a lack of research in terms of personality traits as antecedents of consumer engagement in FHOBs. An article by Chang et al. (2013) deals with personality traits and information sending and receiving online as consequences, which is different from online consumer engagement. Other research deals with the relationship between personality traits and social media usage (Correa, Willard, & Zúniga, 2010b; Lee, Ahn, & Kim, 2014; Marshall, Lefringhausen, & Ferenczi, 2015; Seidman, 2013). Wirtz et al. (2013) and Bolton (2011) mention that it is important to know what drives engagement. Wirtz et al. (2013) even mention personality characteristics, personal backgrounds, and differences as considerable research areas for online consumer engagement. This is interesting as a decade earlier, McAlexander et al. (2002) stated that it would be worthwhile to determine what personality characteristics lead consumers to value brand communities and participate in communal activities. Clearly, this has not been sufficiently addressed to date. Very recent articles by Marbach et al. (2016) (article based on the preliminary qualitative study of this thesis) and Islam et al. (2017a) show the first attempts in researching the role of personality traits as an antecedent of online consumer engagement. However, both studies are based on the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook and not on the more general context of FHOBs. The investigation of Islam et al. (2017a) is only based on the Big Five personality traits in comparison to this study, which additionally investigates four additional traits. And Van Doorn (2011) highlight that in general, there has been little attention given so

far to online consumer engagement as a construct, which leaves much room for the concept to be explored further.

Wirtz et al. (2013), Sung et al. (2010), and Hollebeek (2011a) mention culture or cross-research in relation to online consumer engagement as a considerable research area that has not received much attention so far. Moreover, research that integrates moderators in the context of online consumer engagement is scarce. Cultural and personal values are an interesting moderator for the proposed study due to the missing aspect of culture in online consumer engagement research (Wirtz et al., 2013). Personality traits as antecedents of online consumer engagement, and personal values as a possible moderator of the relationship will further elucidate the nature of the construct of online consumer engagement and will fill a gap in the literature. Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, (2006) encourage researchers to use concepts concepts that are linked to cultural distance as a moderator rather than only a main effect. This study is the first study to use Schwartz personal values as a moderator.

Moreover, consumer-perceived value as a possible consequence of online consumer engagement has not been investigated in much detail thus far. The broader concept of consumer value has been mentioned as a possible consequence of online consumer engagement by a considerable number of researchers (Brodie et al., 2013; Casaló et al., 2008; Chang et al., 2013; Cova & White, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011a; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; Maslowska et al., 2016; Schau et al., 2009; Sung et al., 2010). Consumer value can include the value that is perceived by the consumer as well as the value that is created for the firm. This study is the first to empirically test the relationship between online consumer engagement and specific consumer-perceived value types. Higgins & Scholer, (2009) and Hollebeek (2013) were the first who found support for a possible relationship between OCE and consumer value. Hollebeek (2013) calls for future research to validate this relationship in a large-scale quantitative investigation with specific brands. This study addresses this call as it tests the relationship between OCE and consumer-perceived value in a large-scale quantitative study with two specific FHOBCs. Moreover, it focuses not only on the general relationship but on specific consumer-perceived value types. Table 2.10 shows that many researchers (>10) have mentioned three consequences in particular, namely loyalty, customer satisfaction, and customer value. Loyalty has been tested very recently in quantitative studies (e.g. Dessart et al., 2015; Leckie et al., 2016; Thakur, 2016). Moreover, the connection to other related brand communities (Hammedi et al., 2015) and the

relationship to customer satisfaction (Thakur, 2016) have also been the subjects of investigation. However, no research thus far investigates quantitatively, consumer-perceived value (types) as a consequence of consumer engagement in online brand communities (Hollebeek, 2013). Continuous research in terms of personality traits up to the present date highlights the importance of this topic for research. Moreover, the combination of personality traits as antecedents and consumer-perceived value as a consequence is one that is interesting to companies and may encourage them to participate in this research project. The research thus investigates who actually engages in FHOBs and what values those individuals believe they will gain by engaging online.

This study therefore measures online consumer engagement and concepts (personality traits, consumer-perceived value, and personal values) that might be related to it, and sheds more light on the under-researched but emergent concept of online consumer engagement in the academic literature, which to date, is primarily dominated by qualitative research.

2.12 Conclusion

To sum up, consumer engagement is addressed in studies but there is no consensus about its composition. Several authors (e.g. Algesheimer et al., 2005; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie et al., 2013; Macy & Schneider, 2008; Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Patterson et al., 2006) acknowledge that the consumer engagement concept has three dimensions, namely cognitive, emotional, and behavioural, and many others (e.g. Gambetti et al., 2012; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Sawhney et al., 2005) directly or in most cases indirectly, state the existence of one or more of these dimensions in their research. In addition, Hollebeek (2011a) is of the opinion that consumer engagement might also have a motivational basis. Nevertheless, the dominant stance in the literature (Achterberg et al., 2003; Balsano, 2005; Bowden, 2009; Downer, Rimm-Kaufmann, & Pianta, 2007; Grudens-Schuck, 2000; Kumar et al., 2010a; Noland & Phillips, 2010; Pomerantz, 2006; Saczynski et al., 2006; Sawhney et al., 2005; Verhoef et al., 2002) is that consumer engagement is a behavioural manifestation due to the fact that taking action is what really differentiates consumers who engage from those who do not engage. However, there are also studies that consider the concept to be an emotional one (Scott & Craig-Lees, 2010; Sprott et al., 2009). Recently, Hollebeek et al. (2016b) add a fourth dimension (social) when discussing the concept from a service-dominant logic perspective. The unidimensional concept clearly possesses the merit of simplicity but one of the

downsides is that it does not reflect the rich conceptual scope. The multidimensional concept does this (Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek, 2011a).

The most important point at this stage is that the concept of engagement, regardless of how many and which dimensions have been stated, has broadly been used across a wide range of disciplines but one can obviously find gaps in what engagement means to marketing and its stakeholders. With regard of measurement scales, Hollebeek (2011a) calls for the development of a consumer engagement scale, a sentiment also expressed by Vivek et al. (2012) who highlight the need for future research to focus on this matter, and to test the applicability of the developed scale in different contexts. Thus far, researchers have tried to provide a comprehensive understanding of the construct of consumer engagement, as it is still rather new as a research area. Hence, the studies to explore the concept to date, have been mostly qualitative. In 2014, a measurement scale comprising three dimensions (cognitive, emotional and, behavioural) was developed by Hollebeek et al. (2014), and this scale, together with the definition of Brodie et al. (2013) are chosen for this study, on the grounds that the various other scale options, definitions and dimensions that have been discussed extensively, have been shown to be inappropriate for different reasons relating to the context, length or validation.

The review of the existing literature, models, and frameworks about consumer engagement and related concepts has led to an exploration of the gap within the literature in terms of the antecedents and consequences of the concept. Hence, based on the findings of the literature, a conceptual framework is established in which personality traits are integrated as antecedents of online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement. Personal values are employed as a possible moderator of the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. The following chapters summarise the literature on these concepts and compare and contrast possible measurement scales for them. Chapter 3 reviews the literature on the concept of personality traits.

CHAPTER 3: PERSONALITY TRAITS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the available literature on the concept of personality traits, which is a very important field in psychology. There are several theories relating to personality (Feist & Feist, 2008), but the most commonly used one in the marketing field is the personality trait theory, and hence, this review focuses on that. In Section 3.2, personality traits are defined and distinguished between primary and secondary traits. Personality trait theory, and measures of primary and secondary traits are reviewed, compared and contrasted in Sections 3.3 and 3.4, and finally, Section 3.5 concludes the chapter.

3.2 Definition of Personality Traits

The personality trait theory believes that individuals behave in a certain way because of the traits they possess (Feist & Feist, 2008). A trait can be defined as a cross-situational individual difference, which is temporally stable (Ajzen, 2005). Thus, the trait is expressed in the exact same way in different social settings. Traits describe response tendencies, for example, the tendency to be sociable or self-confident (Ajzen, 2005). Personality traits often reflect what people value, prefer, and what motivates them, and therefore their behaviour varies in comparison to that of other people (Harris & Lee, 2004). Hence, it is generally believed that traits directly influence behaviour (Chen, 2011; Matthews, Deary, & Whiteman, 2009). In everyday language one uses trait terms (e.g. he is extravert) to describe human behaviour (Matthews et al., 2009). One can refer to everyday conceptions of traits but such references do assume that traits are more or less stable over time, whereas it is possible for traits to vary from occasion to occasion over the years. Indeed, McCrae et al. (2000) found that traits do tend to change with age. Notwithstanding, there is a core consistency in respect of the definition of the true nature of an individual, and that core consistency is not able to change (Ajzen, 2005). The personality trait literature distinguishes between primary and secondary traits (Matthews et al., 2009), the former being narrower than secondary traits which are broader and include the primary traits (Cattell, 1947; Eysenck, 1991). Thus, well-known personality trait theories such as the Big Five personality trait theory with its five broad categories of personality traits are secondary traits, which emerge through research into

primary traits. Primary traits mark therefore the beginning of personality trait research as they focus on a huge number of narrower traits from which broader categories (secondary traits) are developed.

3.3 Primary Traits

It is important to start with an introduction to primary traits in order to understand the beginnings of personality trait theory research which precipitated the well-known personality trait theories such as the Big Five personality theory (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experiences), and Eysenck's PEN personality theory (psychoticism, extraversion, and neuroticism). Both theories focus on broad traits or dimensions (secondary traits) rather than primary traits. As already mentioned, primary traits are narrower than secondary ones. In the review, which follows, the first models to be introduced are those that include a large number of narrow traits. Thereafter broader personality theories and measurements are presented. The discussion of primary traits, starts with the most important theory, that being Cattell's (16PF) Personality Theory and the measurement scale to assess the sixteen personality factors. The two other measurement scales for primary traits - the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), and the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ) are then discussed.

3.3.1 Cattell's Personality Theory and the 16PF Questionnaire

Allport and Odbert (1936) are seen as the pioneers in personality trait research as they classified traits into three categories namely cardinal traits, central traits, and secondary traits. Cardinal traits dominate a person's life, e.g. Christ-like; central traits are general characteristics one uses to describe another individual, e.g. kind; and secondary traits only come out under certain conditions or circumstances. The personality theory of Cattell (1956) proposes that sixteen different trait dimensions (16PF) exist which partly determine human behaviour. Cattell (1956) displayed one of the most ambitious research projects undertaken in psychology, seeking to explain individual differences in every area of life (Matthews et al., 2009). Cattell (1947) compiled 18,000 trait terms from the research of Allport and Odbert (1936) who classified four selected columns of 300 representative words. From these 300 trait terms, Cattell (1947) produced just sixteen traits, through eliminating synonyms, and the use of factor analysis. A single trait can only be assigned to one dimension rather than several dimensions (Buss & Finn, 1987). This reductionist exercise led to the production of the 16PF

Inventory, comprised of the following traits: dominance, liveliness, warmth, emotional stability, reasoning, rule-consciousness, vigilance, sensitivity, social boldness, privateness, apprehension, perfectionism, tension, openness to change, self-reliance, and abstractness. These sixteen personality traits are perceived by Cattell, as the source of human personality. Indeed, Cattell's 16PF questionnaire became a standard measure for personality, although it did attract numerous criticisms (Matthews et al., 2009).

For example, Barrett and Kline (1982a) found that the internal consistency of the scales was low. Cattell addressed this criticism by updating the model to the 16PF5 version in 1993 (Rossier, Meyer de Stadelhofen, & Berthoud, 2004). Additionally, Barrett and Kline (1982a) carried out an extensive analysis around the 16PF model, reaching the conclusion that the sixteen factors did not emerge as expected whilst conducting their research. Hence, they were not able to recover the primary factors constructed by Cattell (1956). Furthermore, the sixteen factors were found not to be replicable when using different methods, gender or age, and factor analysis. Hence, research has failed to replicate the 16-factor model (e.g. Barrett & Kline, 1982b; Digman, 1990; Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981; Matthews, 1989; McKenzie, 1988), and opportunities arose for the development of alternative measures for assessing primary traits.

3.3.2 California Psychological Inventory (CPI)

One such measure is seen in the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) developed by Gough (1987), and which includes twenty traits (Watkins & Campbell, 2000). The CPI has been found to have moderately good reliability, and is in fact, the most popular in industry (Watkins & Campbell, 2000). Nonetheless, like other measures, it faces a range of criticisms, one of the most commonly mentioned being the absence of any kind of factor analysis. In the development of the CPI, criterion keying was used. This is a method that assigns items to groups, a criterion group of individuals that possess a particular trait, and a control group that do not possess that trait. The possibility is high that the scales do not correspond to those obtained when using factor analysis. Moreover, construct validity seems to be lacking (Butcher, 2009; Matthews et al., 2009).

3.3.3 The Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ)

Another measure is the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (OPQ) which is a self-report instrument based on factor analysis, and developed in Britain for selection and counselling in the context of jobs at managerial and professional level. Personality traits are regarded as important variables for success (Matthews & Stanton, 1994). The OPQ measures thirty-one traits, which are relevant in the recruitment of personnel and subsequent selection of their career development training (Saville et al., 1996). It measures personality at three different levels - the first level comprises six factors, the Big Five personality traits, and an achievement factor. The Big Five personality traits are discussed in the next section concerning measures of secondary factors. The second level comprises a 16-factor solution, and the third level comprises a concept model consisting of thirty scales. These have been designed to provide a more in-depth analysis of personality (Saville et al., 1996). The OPQ has been found to predict job success (Saville et al., 1996); and to provide the basis for a system of primary and secondary traits, which can be used in the occupational domain (Matthews & Stanton, 1994). However, it is questionable whether, the OPQ is appropriate in other domains. Moreover, factor analysis has indicated a 5-factor solution equivalent to the Big Five personality traits (Matthews & Stanton, 1994), which is further evaluated in the following section.

3.4 Secondary Traits

The beginnings of personality trait theory research having been discussed in the previous section, this one continues with research that focuses on secondary traits that comprise the previously described primary traits. Two main personality factor theories, Eysenck's PEN and the Big Five Personality Theory, are further evaluated, compared, and contrasted. Measurement scales are discussed.

3.4.1 Eysenck's PEN Personality Trait Theory

The personality theory developed by Eysenck (1990) comprises three dimensions, namely extraversion/intraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. Extraversion is a prominent factor and is defined as the tendency to experience positive emotional states (Judge et al., 1999). An extravert person is meant to be more impulsive, active and less self-preoccupied than

introverted individuals, and more socially-orientated, which means they are more outgoing and have a greater number of close friends (Betts & Paterson, 2012). Other characteristics displayed by an extravert person are dominance, ambition, assertiveness, and energy (Yiu & Lee, 2011). Extraverts are skilled in handling social situations, make friends easily, and know how to captivate people (Tsao, 2013).

Neuroticism is seen to be the most pervasive trait across all personality measures, referring in general to emotional stability and a lack of positive psychological adjustment (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). Neuroticism is described by Betts and Paterson (2012) as the tendency to experience negative emotional states. Costa and McCrae (1992a) break neuroticism into six facets namely anxiety, hostility, vulnerability, depression, impulsiveness, and self-consciousness. Hence, human beings scoring high on neuroticism are likely to experience problems, negative moods like anxiety or even depression, and physical symptoms. Such individuals are more likely to be affected by bad moods and events in comparison to human beings scoring low on neuroticism (Suls, Green, & Hillis, 1998).

Individuals high on psychoticism may be cold, hostile, aggressive, reckless, and unempathic, and they may have disregard for common sense (Eysenck, Eysenck, & Barrett, 1985). These qualities are commonly found among psychotics. Thus, individuals high on psychoticism are more susceptible to becoming psychotic.

These three broad personality traits are assessed with self-report questionnaires, which ask the participants to answer either yes or no to the questions posed. The questionnaire has been revised over time and a noteworthy update is the short EPQ-R, which stands for Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Revised. The EPQ-R includes a lie scale to filter out fake answers when completing the questionnaire (Barrett & Kline, 1982b; Eysenck, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1997).

3.4.2 The Big Five Personality Factor Theory

The taxonomy of traits had long been dominated by Eysenck's (1991) three-factor model, and the 16PF inventory by Cattell (1947) when the Big Five model emerged. Its origins are seen in the work of Fiske (1949), who rated 128 clinical trainees on twenty-two scales of surface behaviour during an extensive assessment, and the research of Norman (1963) that shows the

existence of five personality traits. Norman (1963) is, therefore, often referred to as the father of the Big Five.

Norman (1963) took the work of Cattell (1947) as a taxonomic basis for personality research, converting Cattell's sixteen traits into five higher order traits (or higher order dimensions) using factor analysis. The analysis yielded evidence of the existence of five orthogonal personality factors instead of three, namely extraversion/intraversion (or surgency), agreeableness/disagreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experiences. Depending on the research, openness to experiences is also called culture, intellect or imagination (Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981). Digman and Takemoto-Chock (1981) criticise the fact that openness is also referred to a culture, intellect or imagination, as these terms are not sufficiently close to be considered as synonyms. The research of Digman and Inouye (1986) also showcased five dimensions using factor analysis, namely intraversion/extraversion, agreeableness/disagreeableness, consciousness, intellect, and emotional stability. These dimensions are similar to those found by Norman (1963), as emotional stability is linked to neuroticism, and intellect is linked to openness to experiences. Two broader personality traits of the Big Five are in line with Eysenck's PEN, namely extraversion/intraversion and neuroticism. Behaviour is determined by these five traits, which means that these characteristics predispose an individual to act in a certain way (Norman, 1963). The three additional traits are now defined.

Consciousness comprises three facets, these being dependability, achievement, and orderliness (Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). Dependability refers to an individual's tendency to be careful and responsible, achievement denotes a hardworking and persistent individual, and orderliness refers to an individual who is organised (Betts & Paterson, 2012; Costa et al., 1991).

Openness to experiences is described by two facets, namely intellect and unconventionality, testifying to individuals' tendencies to be autonomous, imaginative, and non-conforming (Judge et al., 1999). Such people have abundant imagination, and are highly creative (Tsao, 2013). Individuals high on openness to experiences have more curiosity, more imagination, and are more flexible in their thinking (Madjar, 2008; McCrae & Costa, 1991). They seek novelty (McCrae & Costa, 1987), are more changeable, less prone to prejudices (McCrae &

Costa, 1991), imaginative, independent minded, and have a high intellectual curiosity (Yiu & Lee, 2011).

An agreeable individual is described as likeable, cheerful, gentle, and co-operative, denoting a caring person who has trust in others (Judge et al., 1999). Agreeableness is the tendency to get along well with other individuals. Individuals scoring high on agreeableness are good-natured, co-operative and trusting (Betts & Paterson, 2012; Yiu & Lee, 2011).

In all five- and three-factor models, neuroticism and extraversion/intraversion are present. That said, there is less agreement on the other traits. Zuckerman et al. (1993) for example, build an alternative model comprising impulsive and unsocialised sensation-seeking, aggression-hostility, activity, sociability, and neuroticism-anxiety. The literature shows that empirical dimensions differ both in number and generic names. However, the personality traits defined above are the most cited in the personality trait literature. The term Big Five emerged as a result of the agreement on a model to measure personality using five traits, but interestingly, there is no agreement on one set of identical dimensions. Indeed, these dimensions and their measurement instruments vary from one research study to another. Thus, most of the research conducted leads back to a five-factor solution (De Raad, 1992).

3.4.3 Eysenck's PEN vs. The Big Five

This section compares and contrasts the three-factor solution provided by Eysenck's PEN, and the five-factor solution offered by the Big Five. In fact, the Big Five solution has become one of the most popular personality instruments in psychology, and it has been argued that it is the best measure of personality structure (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). The model relates the five factors directly to outcome variables, thereby possessing high explanatory power (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Digman, 1990). However, there is no taxonomic paradigm in personality trait research (Eysenck, 1991), as the Big Five Personality Traits framework has met with criticism. Consequently, there is no one paradigm in personality research, the area being characterised by several theories with extremely different views.

Eysenck (1992), especially criticises the five-factor model, claiming that the factors of agreeableness, aggression, conscientiousness, impulsivity, activity, and sensation-seeking are either components of extraversion, neuroticism or psychoticism, or even combinations of two of these factors. Consequently, Eysenck's PEN, which includes these three dimensions is able to

account for the most important dimensions assessing secondary traits. Conversely, Costa and McCrae (1992a) validate the importance of the Big Five model in their article entitled *Four ways five factors are basic*. The five factors are supposed to represent basic dimensions of a personality, which is founded on four lines of argument. Longitudinal and observational studies have demonstrated that the five factors are present in a variety of personality systems as well as in the natural language of a description of a trait. Moreover, the factors are found and expressed in groups speaking different languages, of different races and age groups, and among both genders. They might be expressed differently in different cultures and might have some biological basis in terms of heritability (McCrae & Costa, 1991), but they are, nonetheless, in evidence. Despite the validation of the Big Five model, Costa and McCrae (1992a) highlight four major criticisms it encounters. The first is that three out of the five factors are actually primary factors linked closely to psychoticism, which is the third factor of Eysenck's PEN besides neuroticism and extraversion. The second is that evidence gained by a meta-analysis of factorial studies showed that only three (instead of five) factors emerged at the highest level. Moreover, it is argued that there is a lack of theoretical underpinning for the five factors (Eysenck, 1992). And the fourth criticism is directed at the argument that a personality dimension can only be taken into account if it is supported by theories that are linked to biological mechanisms. In the case of the Big Five model, there is no such support, there being no biological link between genetic causation and behavioural organisation (Eysenck, 1992).

However, for Eysenck's PEN to properly respond to the Big Five framework, it needs to be real, universal, pervasive, and biological, as psychoticism is a combination of low agreeableness and low conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1992c). But in fact, Eysenck's PEN is not comprehensive as it does not include traits related to openness to experiences, which again shows evidence that at least one factor is missing in that model (Costa & McCrae, 1992c). The reason is that none of the analyses of personality traits includes a psychoticism factor, defined as low agreeableness and low conscientiousness. Thus, a three-factor solution is not replicable and the five-factor model should not be seen as a competing model but more as the result of normal science within the descriptive paradigm of Eysenck's PEN (Costa & McCrae, 1992c).

Moreover, many studies have been able to replicate the Big Five (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1976, 1992a, 1992c; Costa et al., 1991; Costa, McCrae, & Holland, 1984; Digman, 1990; Digman &

Inouye, 1986; Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1983, 1986; McCrae & Costa, 1991) even cross-culturally (e.g. Paunonen et al., 1992; Stumpf, 1993). Hofstede (2007) found a sixth factor whilst conducting research into Asian countries, namely dependence on others, which would make the Big Five less universal. The Big Five as a model, has provided the framework for numerous studies aiming to demonstrate the validity of the traits as predictors of human behaviour. Much research has focused on whether or not it is possible to predict job performance by the use of the Big Five personality model. A study by Barrick and Mount (1993) investigated the relationship between the Big Five factors with three job performance criteria, namely personal data, job proficiency, and training proficiency. The results demonstrated that conscientiousness is the best predictor of job performance, showing consistent relations with all job performance criteria. Other research has also found that personality traits are able to predict performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Harris & Lee, 2004; Jolson & Comer, 1997; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991), and more recent studies in organisations have shown the ability to be more occupation specific. Examples of such occupation-specific studies are those that deal with job and life satisfaction (George, Helson, & John, 2011). One is that by Hirschfeld et al. (2008) who used the Big Five model to explain the emergence and the selection of leaders, and another is the study by Ciavarella et al. (2004) who used the same model to attempt to unveil the personalities of successful entrepreneurs. Yiu and Lee (2011) also employed the Big Five model, finding that extraversion, openness to experiences, and conscientiousness can significantly moderate negotiating behaviours and outcomes; and much earlier, Judge et al. (1999) investigated the relationship between traits and outcomes using the Big Five, correlating general mental ability with career success. Conscientiousness has, furthermore, been found to be a predictor of the academic achievement of a person (Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981), whereas openness to experiences was seen to be predict vocational interests (Costa et al., 1984), and agreeableness and conscientiousness are known to correlate with the overall life satisfaction of human beings (McCrae & Costa, 1991). The continuous interest of scholars in this area up to the present date highlights the importance of this topic as one for research. At the same time, however, although the research area is well developed, there are still issues that are under-researched, and hence, there are holes in the literature. Recent publications investigate the Big Five personality traits in relation to overweight and obesity (Gerlach, Herpertz, & Loeber, 2015), and have found that neuroticism is a risk factor for overweight and obesity whereas conscientiousness has a protective function. Yan, Li, and Sui (2014) also found with a group

of college students, that personality traits are related to life stress. For example, neuroticism is found to be a potential predictor of internet addiction (Yan et al., 2014).

The Big Five were also recently investigated in the online context. For example, the relationship between self-presentation on Facebook and personality traits has been examined in terms of information displayed on the Facebook wall (e.g. Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Moore & McElroy, 2012), and in respect of behaviours on the newsfeed (Lee et al., 2014). Lee et al. (2014) for example, concentrating on college students, found that extraversion is a positive predictor of uploads, number of friends, and status updates on Facebook walls. And Seidman (2013), also focusing on college students, observed that extraversion is related to more frequent use of Facebook, and that more conscientious individuals are more cautious in their online self-presentation. Extraverts were found to update their social activities more frequently and individuals more open to experiences have been associated with updating their Facebook profiles with intellectual topics (Marshall et al., 2015).

Clearly, the Big Five personality dimensions have been used extensively in personality research as showcased above, and they are undoubtedly, prominent higher order dimensions. Moreover, they play an important role in understanding the variation of human behaviour (Paunonen & Ashton, 2001). Nevertheless, the Big Five have also been criticised as not providing sufficient dimensions to fully account for all human behaviour, and that is a criticism, which still remains.

3.4.4 Instruments to Assess the Big Five

One can find many measurement instruments to assess personality traits. As already mentioned, the 16PF inventory focuses on a large number of narrow primary traits. Cattell (1947) grouped English language trait names into synonyms and factored them, which was the first step in developing his 16-personality factor questionnaire. Costa and McCrae (1992b) factored these traits again, producing the short NEO Personality Inventory with the three broad categories of neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experiences. The NEO was later developed into the Revised Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R), which is the instrument to assess the traits of the Big Five factor model, and which can be described as the standard questionnaire measure of that model (Costa & McCrae, 1992b).

The NEO-PI-R comprises a 240-item scale self-report questionnaire and offers participants five response choices ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Each dimension comprises forty-eight items (Costa et al., 1991; Haigler & Widiger, 2001). The model by Costa and McCrae has been justified by a large amount of research (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1976, 1992a; Costa et al., 1991; Haigler & Widiger, 2001; McCrae & Costa, 1986, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 1991), and forms the basis of a measurement scale that is widely used and mentioned (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). Due to the fact that the NEO-PI-R is very comprehensive, Furnham et al. (2005) used a 60-item Neo-Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) in their cross- investigation into the relationships between work values and personality traits. Each factor is assessed using twelve items. Goldberg et al. (2006) use the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP), which was devised in 1996 and translated from English into twenty-five languages. This is available as a 100-item scale or a 50-item scale, and has the advantage of being free, being downloaded from the internet any time, and with scoring keys if required.

The Jackson Personality Inventory is even more comprehensive than the NEO-PI-R comprising a 320-item questionnaire that includes fifteen scales and one validity scale. Each of the scales contains twenty items (Paunonen & Jackson, 1996). Other measures are the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI), which is a contemporary measure of personality focusing on predicting job performance also based on the Big Five dimensions (Hogan & Holland, 2003). The HPI is not relevant for this study as it does not focus on personality in the context of job performance. There is the possibility of using shorter scales but this is only recommended if personality is not to be the main business of a study. In the past, researchers (e.g. Donnellan et al., 2006; Rammstedt & John, 2007) have used a total of twenty, ten or five items rather than the full 240 items of the NEO-PI-R scale. For example, Donnellan et al. (2006) used a 20-item shorter version of the 50-item International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) to measure the five-factor model, in which the 'mini IPIP' scales were comprised of four items for every dimension; Rammstedt and John (2007) abbreviated the Big Five Inventory including 44 items, to a 10-item scale. Likewise, a very short 10-item scale (TIPI) was used by Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swan Jr. (2003). Research by Ekinici and Dawes (2009) adapted this version using three items for all of the constructs except openness to experiences, which is measured using four items. Effect sizes have definitely been lower for shorter measures, but are found to still be sufficient for research with participants who have limited time available to complete the questionnaires. Woods and Hampson (2005) even employed a

five single-item measure (SIMP) using bipolar response scales. However, although these shorter scales offer an alternative, it must always be recognised that there is a need to balance the demands relating to reliability and validity, with the demand for brevity, and the characteristics of the scale. Credé and Harms (2012) highlight that researchers should not restrict themselves to only one or two items to measure personality traits. An alternative to the very short measures, and the overly extensive measures discussed thus far, is the scale developed by Mowen and Spears (1999) that comprises six items each for extraversion, disagreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experiences and seven items for neuroticism. This would seem to be a reasonable number of items to measure the constructs, and not one that is too time-consuming for the participants. Consequently, this scale is chosen for this study, as it offers a good alternative to the other scales mentioned. Clearly, this scale by Mowen and Spears (1999) balances the needs for reliability and validity with the demand for a questionnaire that is brief. Moreover, the characteristics of the scale are such that they are able to properly capture an individual's personality (Credé & Harms, 2012).

3.4.5 What is beyond the Big Five Personality Factor Theory?

All five- and three-factor theorists generally agree that sixteen basic factors are too many, as many investigators have failed to replicate them across gender or age (e.g. Barrett & Kline, 1982b; Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981; Matthews, 1989; McKenzie, 1988). However, in all the three- and five-factor models two factors are present, these being extraversion/intraversion and neuroticism. There is less agreement on the other factors as previously indicated. Furthermore, it is claimed that there is a need to introduce a sixth factor called honesty, integrity, truthfulness, trustworthiness or values (Ashton, Lee, & Son, 2000). Moreover, in re-evaluating the data, nine work clusters have been identified that do not fall within the Big Five dimensions. For example the cluster 'sly, deceptive and manipulative' is not encompassed within the traditional Big Five space, nor is the cluster 'honest, ethical and moral' (Paunonen & Jackson, 2000). The broad dimension honesty might comprise some of these missing nine dimensions (Paunonen & Jackson, 2000). Other research claims that there is a need to add the dimension of risk-taking behaviour (Zuckerman et al., 1993). Additionally, Hofstede (2007) argues that the Big Five should be expanded into the Big Six, with the sixth personality trait representing dependence on others, which was primarily found when conducting research in Asian countries. By adding dependence on others, which is especially present in Asian societies, one could make the model culturally universal

(Hofstede, 2007). Hence, there might be other variables that predict human behaviour beyond the Big Five (Paunonen & Ashton, 2001), although it has been argued that factors found beyond the Big Five are error factors (Digman & Inouye, 1986).

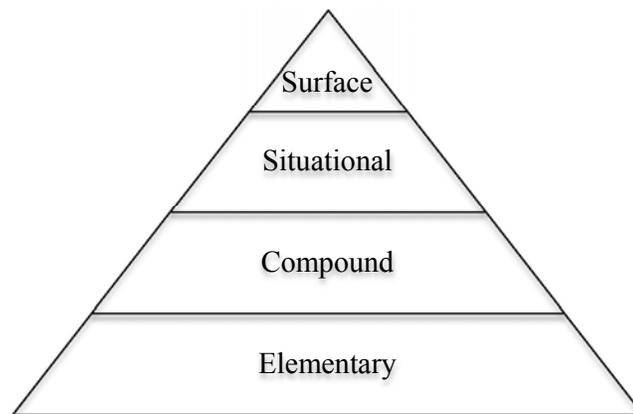
Researchers differ in their belief about whether personality traits should be explored through a hierarchical framework, and which personality traits belong to which hierarchy. In the study by Mowen and Spears (1999), the Big Five traits were used as cardinal traits, being defined as the basic traits that arise from genetics or early learning experiences. These basic (cardinal) traits result from the culture of the individual, and his/her learning history (Mowen & Spears, 1999). Central traits are narrower, and include the needs for arousal and for materialism, which actually emerge from the interplay of cardinal traits (Mowen & Spears, 1999). Materialism is defined as the desire to buy and own expensive and luxurious things (Mowen & Spears, 1999), while the need for arousal is defined as the desire for stimulation and excitement (Mowen, 2000). People have different levels of arousal and, therefore, seek different kinds of activity. The need for arousal is linked to excitement seeking (Mowen & Spears, 1999) and is found to be important in consumer settings (Raju, 1980; Zuckerman, 1979), as consumers buy products and services for the feelings that their ownership subsequently generates within them (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Harris, Mowen, and Brown (2005) used conscientiousness and openness to experiences, which are part of the Big Five, for their study, and add the needs for learning, competitiveness, and materialism in the context of examining the goal orientations of salespeople. All the traits are seen as basic traits. The need for learning is defined as the enjoyment of learning new things (Harris et al., 2005), and competitiveness is linked to the work environment through employees who like to outperform others. In the study by Brown et al. (2002), the Big Five are considered as basic traits, to which the need for activity is added. Brown et al. (2002) reflect the view expressed by Buss (1988), who proposes that variations in the activity level represent a primary or basic trait. This is also in line with another study that adds the needs for learning, activity, competitiveness, and materialism to the Big Five as basic traits (Coelho, Lages, & Sousa, 2016; Sousa, Coelho, & Lages, 2016). The need for activity can be described as follows: people who have the need for activity have the desire to keep busy all the time and stay active (Licata et al., 2003). Nevertheless, views differ as the need for activity is used as a compound trait in another study (Chang et al., 2013). Mowen and Sujan (2005) differentiate between elemental (basic) traits and compound

traits. The need for arousal is seen as an elemental trait whereas the need for learning, altruism, and the need for activity are seen as compound traits. Altruism can be defined as the general predisposition to selflessly seek to help others (Mowen & Sujan, 2005). The mentioned studies show that the Big Five might be enough for the psychology context but not for the marketing context as additional traits have been added for marketing contexts.

The 3M model of personality and motivation is the most extensive hierarchical approach used to measure personality traits (Mowen, 2000). This is a theoretical framework comprising four hierarchical levels namely elementary traits, compound traits, situational traits, and surface traits. Figure 3.1 illustrates the hierarchy of the 3M model.

Figure 3.1: The 3M Model of Personality and Motivation



Source: Chang et al. (2013)

The Big Five are integrated as elementary traits but in addition, more context-specific and narrower traits are investigated (Mowen, 2000). The model evaluates personality traits in relation to behavioural outcomes (Mowen, 2000). Extraversion and agreeableness count towards elemental traits stemming from genetics and the early learning experiences of a human being (Mowen, 2000). Compound traits are compounds of multiple elemental traits, and the effects of culture and subculture. They are, according to Mowen (2000), the needs for information, activity, and learning. Compound traits are characterised by a present time orientation and a drive from the early socialisation of the human being (Fang & Mowen, 2009; Mowen, 2000; Mowen & Carlson, 2003). Compound traits represent cross-situational dispositions, and one single trait has the power to explain several situational and surface traits (Chang et al., 2013; Mowen & Voss, 2008). Compound traits create situational traits.

Situational traits in former research using the 3M model, have been health motivation, fashion innovativeness, and/or shopping enjoyment. Consistent patterns of behaviour are expressed within a general situation, for example at the workplace (Chang et al., 2013; Harris & Lee, 2004). The last level of traits is that of surface traits, which are highly specific and concrete. Surface traits result from the influence of the other three trait levels, and are seen to have effect within a narrow context. Consequently, they have the power to predict behavioural outcomes well (Chang et al., 2013; Harris & Lee, 2004). Elemental traits, at the bottom-most abstract level of the personality hierarchy, have the power to directly predict surface traits residing at the top of the hierarchy (Mowen & Carlson, 2003). The 3M model shows evidence that personality affects more central elements of consumer behaviour. Additionally, it is a springboard to analyse questions about consumer behaviour, both reactive and proactive (Sujan, 2001). The 3M model has been used to investigate the areas of competitiveness and consumer behaviour consequences (Mowen, 2004), word-of-mouth (Mowen, Park, & Zablah, 2007), the trait of superstition (Mowen & Carlson, 2003), customer orientation of service workers and performance ratings (Brown et al., 2002), the traits of high-performing service personnel (Licata et al., 2003), and the motivations of members to send and receive information in online brand communities (Chang et al., 2013). In general, the 3M model faces the criticism that even if the model is called the 3M model of motivation and personality, motivation plays a subsidiary role in the analysis (Sujan, 2001). The 3M model might not be suitable for this study as personality traits will only be one of the concepts investigated, whereas the main focus is rather on online consumer engagement. However, the fact that personality traits could be reduced to only five factors is questioned (Brown et al., 2002), it being argued that the five factors provide only a limited account of an individual's personality (Block, 1995). Therefore, in determining what to use in the present study, previous research that did not only mention other traits in addition to the Big Five, but also provided valid and reliable measurement scales (Mowen & Spears, 1999), have been considered. Drawing on the work of Mowen and Sujan (2005), the need for learning and altruism have been chosen for inclusion, and the Big Five measurement scale and need for arousal have been taken from Mowen and Spears (1999). The need for activity has been taken from the study of Licata et al. (2003). These additional traits have been chosen due to the fact that they will provide a more comprehensive and detailed list of personality traits that might drive online consumer engagement. The traits are regarded as elemental or basic traits, like the Big Five, and will be analysed accordingly. This is in line with former research that considers these traits as basic traits (Brown et al., 2002; Harris et al., 2005; Sousa et al., 2016).

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has summarised the literature on personality trait theory. The personality trait concept has been defined with a differentiation made between primary and secondary traits, between the various personality trait theories. Cattell's 16PF Inventory (1974) has been highlighted as the main theory in terms of primary traits, and Eysenck's PEN, and the Big Five Personality Factor theory, as the main frameworks in respect of secondary traits. Assessment instruments that have been developed to measure these traits have been discussed. It has been shown that the Big Five personality traits represent the most reliable framework for measuring personality traits as they have been used in numerous studies to show the validity of the traits as predictors of human behaviour (Paunonen & Ashton, 2001). Nonetheless, it has also been indicated that there is still debate around the issue of whether these five dimensions are enough to describe all human behaviours. Therefore, a more comprehensive cluster of personality traits is chosen for this study (Brown et al., 2002), and in line with other studies (e.g. Brown et al., 2002; Harris et al., 2005; Mowen & Spears, 1999; Mowen & Sujana, 2005) four additional traits are added to the Big Five, namely the need for activity, need for arousal, the need for learning, and altruism as the literature review shows the relevance of these traits in the context of online consumer engagement. The intention is to analyse these four additional traits alongside the Big Five (Brown et al., 2002; Harris et al., 2005; Sousa et al., 2016). Chapter 4 continues with a review of the literature on culture, cultural and personal values.

CHAPTER 4: CULTURE, CULTURAL VALUES AND PERSONAL VALUES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the concept of culture, and proceeds to consider the values that arise from culture. Section 4.2 begins this exploration by defining culture, and Section 4.3 differentiates between certain constructs that capture cultural variation, namely cultural distance and psychic distance. In Section 4.4 the known measurement scales in respect of cultural distance are discussed, and in Section 4.5, a more in-depth evaluation of global norms and values is presented. Section 4.6 reports and analyses research studies that have used culture as a moderator of behaviour. Finally, Section 4.7 concludes the chapter.

4.2 Definition of Culture

Culture is a challenging concept since whilst many definitions appear in the literature, there is no universal agreement on it (Sousa & Bradley, 2008). This is due to the fact that culture influences many dimensions of human behaviour (Soares, Farhangmehr, & Shoham, 2007).

Benito and Gripsrud (1992) define culture as the social context within which humans live at any time; Hollensen (2010) focuses, however, on the fact that culture is learned, interrelated and shared. This idea concurs with that expressed by Kotabe and Helsen (2011), who state that culture is comprised of learned beliefs, values and customs. One of the most popular definitions is that provided by Hofstede (1984, p. 13) who explains culture as “the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group or category from those of another”. Culture is shared by individuals and is transmitted by various peer groups e.g. parents, social institutions, the church, etc. Most nations contain different subcultures (linguistic or religious). One of the earliest definitions apart from that by Hofstede (1984) was provided by Tylor in 1981 (McCort & Malhotra, 1993), who elaborated the concept of ‘collective programming’. Tylor (1981) expresses culture as the complex whole of knowledge, morals, beliefs, art and customs as well as any other habits or capabilities which have been acquired by a human being as a member of society (McCort & Malhotra, 1993); and Hofstede (1984) builds on this definition by offering more concrete examples.

Culture can be seen as having two dimensions, these being language and religion (Peng, 2009). Culture is transmitted via the language spoken within that culture, and language itself, as a communication medium, comprises two parts - spoken and silent language. Different languages provoke different modes of thought. The unspoken part of language includes body language, manners, and customs as well as proxemics, which relates to the spatial distance between individuals required by the culture (Peng, 2009). The second important dimension is religion (Peng, 2009), which assumes greater importance in some cultures than in others. Where it is of great importance, religion can be seen to have a huge influence on the lives of consumers, in terms of how they dress, how they see the world, what they eat, and how they do business (Peng, 2009).

Kotabe and Helsen (2011) reject Peng's conceptualisation of culture as two-dimensional however, highlighting the fact that several dimensions can be identified, namely: material life, social interactions, aesthetics, education and the value system, in addition to language and religion. Material life relates to some cultures' beliefs that material possessions may be more important than in others. Such differences in the material environment partly explain variations in the level and type of demand for many consumption goods (Kotabe & Helsen, 2011). Likewise, in terms of social interaction, there are different views on marriage, and husband and wife roles in different countries (Kotabe & Helsen, 2011). And a culture's perceptions of what is beautiful and represents good taste varies from one society to another, thereby suggesting the dimension of aesthetics. The dimension of education, which embraces ideas about the level and quality of education that is necessary for the growth of a nation, is also approached differently from one country to another, and the value system shapes peoples' norms and standards (Kotabe & Helsen, 2011).

Hofstede (1991) provides a theory that can help to develop an understanding of cultures in proposing that there are five dimensions upon which different cultures are differentiated. These are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, to which long-term orientation was later added. Hofstede's five dimensions of culture will be defined and further evaluated in Section 4.4.1. Moreover, different cultures can be differentiated in either high-context or low-context cultures (Hall, 1976). Low-context cultures (e.g. UK; Germany) are typically nations in the West, which rely on words to convey messages directly whereas high-context cultures (e.g. Japan; Arab

countries) have an indirect attitude within a conversation, which should be understood in relation to its environment (Hall & Hall, 1990).

4.3 Conceptualisations capturing Cultural Variation: Cultural Distance and Psychic Distance

Cultural distance and psychic distance are well known conceptualisations that are used in the literature relating to multinational corporations, to capture cultural variation among home country and host country (Avloniti & Filippaios, 2014). These concepts are now considered.

4.3.1 Cultural Distance

Kogut and Singh (1988) define national culture as the degree to which cultural norms are different in different countries. To assess differences in national cultures, the cultural distance concept has been used and is defined by Sousa and Bradley (2008) as the degree to which extant cultural values are different in different countries. Cultural distance can be referred to as symmetric as it assesses at the cultural level not at the individual level (Sousa & Bradley, 2008). Cultural distance is defined as the perceived socio-cultural distance from home country to foreign target country in terms of business practices, languages, legal as well as political systems and marketing infrastructure (Lee, 1998). This construct has received much attention in the international business literature, having been applied to a multitude of research questions ranging from foreign investment (Davidson, 1980; Dunning, 1988; Engwall & Mavondo, 1988; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975), through entry mode (Agarwal, 1994; Eramilli, 1991; Eramilli & Rao, 1993; Kogut & Singh, 1988; Padmanabhan & Cho, 1996) to affiliate performance (Gomez-Mejia & Palich, 1997; Li & Guisinger, 1991; Park & Ungson, 1997).

Hofstede's dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity (Section 4.4.1), have often been used to measure cultural distance. Consequently, there are many studies based on these (e.g. Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Eby et al., 2000; Kogut & Singh, 1988; Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998; Tinsley & Pillutla, 1998; Zaheer & Zaheer, 1997).

4.3.2 Psychic Distance

Psychic distance can be defined as the factors, which prevent or disturb information flows between company and market (Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975). Examples include differences in education, language, industrial development, and business practices. O'Grady and Lane (1996) define psychic distance as the company's degree of uncertainty about a foreign market resulting from cultural differences and other business difficulties, which present barriers to learning about the foreign market and the operation within it.

The term psychic is derived from the Greek word 'psychikos' which means mind or soul, and thus refers to something in the mind of an individual (Sousa & Bradley, 2005). This mental appreciation clearly depends on the worldview of the individual concerned. From this worldview, perceptions develop, and as Stöttinger and Schlegelmilch (1998) and Swift (1998) observed, perception is a major determinant of psychic distance. Thus, psychic distance can be defined as the perceived differences between individuals coming from one country and those coming from another. In business terms, Evans and Mavondo (2002) define the construct as the distance between home and foreign markets resulting from the perception of cultural and business differences.

Psychic distance is assessed on the individual level in contrast to cultural distance, which is in general assessed at the national (cultural) level, suggesting it applies to the whole country (Sousa & Bradley, 2005). Nevertheless, Schwartz (1999) developed measurements of cultural distance for the national and for the individual level (personal values). Particular attention should be given to the concept of the 'ten cultural values on the individual level' by Schwartz (1999) (referred to as personal values in the thesis) who suggests that certain basic values are present across all cultures, but that while people from the same country tend to have the same values, this is not necessarily the case as these people are still individuals in their own right (Schwartz, 1999). Hence, they may have different cultural values even though they share the same cultural background. The personal values by Schwartz (1999) are further evaluated in Section 4.4.3.

So far, in business terms, the psychic distance construct has been tied to three internationalisation outcomes, namely modes of control when entering foreign markets (Kogut & Singh, 1988), the way in which the entry is made to foreign markets (Dow, 2000; Ellis, 2008; Engwall & Mavondo, 1988; Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975; O'Grady &

Lane, 1996), and the performance of the firm in those markets (Evans & Mavondo, 2002; Stöttinger & Schlegelmilch, 1998). In arriving at their conclusions, most research studies have asked respondents for their indication of how different a foreign country is in comparison to their home country (Evans & Mavondo, 2002).

4.3.3 Cultural Distance vs. Psychic Distance

Many studies use cultural distance and psychic distance interchangeably (Eriksson, Majkgard, & Sharma, 2000; Fletcher & Bohn, 1998; Peng et al., 2000; Sethi et al., 2003; Shoham, 1999; Trabold, 2002), which indicates that both concepts are similar in many aspects (Kogut & Singh, 1988).

Conversely, some studies distinguish between both concepts (e.g. Avloniti & Filippaios, 2014; Håkanson & Ambos, 2010; Sousa & Bradley, 2005; Sousa & Bradley, 2006, 2008; Sousa & Lages, 2011) on the grounds that treating them as equals would lead to a considerable misperception (Sousa & Bradley, 2006). In fact, cultural distance is a poor substitute for psychic distance when the aim is to explain frequency of market selection in the early stages of the internationalisation process (Dow, 2000). Thus, the concepts should be seen as conceptually different, and therefore, one needs different measures to assess them (Sousa & Bradley, 2006).

Cultural distance results from a difference in cultural values, and should therefore be assessed on the national (cultural) level whereas psychic distance should be assessed on the individual level, as it is based on the perceptions of individuals and is consequently, highly subjective (Sousa & Bradley, 2006, 2008). Thus, the perception of psychic distance is different due to personal experiences (Sousa & Bradley, 2008). Clearly, cultural distance is outside the control of a company, whereas a company can take measures to reduce psychic distance (Sousa & Bradley, 2006). Of course, cultural distance can be an important element of psychic distance (Dow & Karunaratna, 2006), and higher levels of the former can lead to higher levels of the latter (Håkanson & Ambos, 2010). Notwithstanding, the main point of differentiation lies in the analysis of the concepts. Psychic distance can be seen as determined not only by cultural distance but also by individual values (Sousa & Bradley, 2008). Hence, cultural distance and psychic distance are distinct from each other, but clearly related. In this respect, Sousa and Lages (2011) find that psychic distance can be seen as a higher order construct composed of two dimensions, people and country distance. The assumption might be that cultural

differences between a home and foreign country create a distance, which will influence the activity of the company that operates internationally (Sousa & Bradley, 2008)

4.4 Measuring Cultural Distance

With regard to the differences between cultural distance and psychic distance, the following now defines measures to assess cultural distance (Sousa & Bradley, 2006).

4.4.1 Hofstede's Culture Framework

Hofstede (1984) measures five cultural dimensions, namely power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity and long-term orientation vs. short-term orientation. The fifth dimension long-term orientation was added in 1991 (Hofstede-Centre, 2014). Power distance expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1991). Uncertainty avoidance expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 1991). In the dimension of individualism, individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families only. Collectivism implies that individuals expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1991). Masculinity is defined as the preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material reward for success, whereas femininity stands for a preference for co-operation, modesty, caring for the weak, and quality of life (Hofstede, 1991). Long-term orientation can be interpreted as dealing with society's search for virtue whereas short-term orientation includes a greater concern for establishing the absolute truth, normative thinking, and having great respect for traditions (Hofstede, 1991). Differences in national culture do vary along these five dimensions (Hofstede, 1991).

Hofstede's framework is the most commonly-used model in business research (Baack & Singh, 2007), and perhaps the most influential in terms of cultural classifications (Kirkman, et al., 2006) as it is able to capture cross-country differences (Lynn & Gelb, 1996). It associates cultural values with outcomes in several domains, and as noted by various researchers, it has been used extensively in different areas such as change management (Eby et al., 2000), human resource management (Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998), leadership (Chan & Drasgow,

2001), negotiation behaviour (Tinsley & Pillutla, 1998), electronic networks (Zaheer & Zaheer, 1997), and entry modes (Kogut & Singh, 1988) to name a few. A first attempt to use Hofstede's five dimensions at the individual level (personal values) is made by Yoo, B. & Donthu, N. (2002) and Yoo, B., Donthu, N. & Lenartowicz, T. (2011). A scale is developed to measure Hofstede's five dimensions at the individual level. The scale is comprised of 26-items and was tested in four countries Poland, U.S, South Korea and Brazil with student and non-student samples.

One can distinguish between studies that use Hofstede's framework to determine cultural distance either as a main effect or as a moderator. However, most researchers concentrate on cultural distance as a main effect (Kirkman et al., 2006).

Of those that have adopted Hofstede's framework to shed light on culture as a moderator, the one by Diener, Diener, and Diener (1995) found that the individualism/collectivism dimension moderates the relationship between life satisfaction and friendship satisfaction, and between life satisfaction and satisfaction with oneself. The relationships are found to be stronger in individualistic countries rather than collectivistic countries. Robie et al. (1998) found that power distance moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job level. Encouragement for researchers to include cultural distance as a moderator comes from Kirkman et al. (2006), who reviewed fifty-four cultural distance studies finding that only one of these included it as a moderator.

However, Hofstede's research on national culture is not without its critics, and McSweeney (2002) questions the plausibility of systematically causal national cultures as there is no consistency in representatives of one country. In many countries the number of representatives was lower than 200. Likewise, Schwartz (1999) raises a similar criticism, namely that Hofstede's sample did not include the full spectrum of relevant countries. Schwartz (1999) further states that by adding these countries the consequences could be that different dimensions would emerge. Moreover, there is the debate around the age-based criticism. Hofstede's framework is aging as his data were collected between 1967 and 1973, and consequently may be considered to be out of date (Kim & Gray, 2009). And yet further criticism relates to the fact that the study only concentrates on one firm IBM, which suggests that it may not be possible to generalise the findings to other companies (Chow, Yijitaka Kato, & Shields, 1994; Kim & Gray, 2009; McSweeney, 2002; Schwartz, 1999). And even though

Hofstede's dimensions are found to be stable over time, more than thirty years of socio-political change may have had some impact on the culture of many nations (Evans & Mavondo, 2002). Alternative measures to assess cultural distance are further evaluated in the following section.

4.4.2 The Kogut and Singh Index

Kogut and Singh (1988) generated a composite index, which is based on Hofstede's four primary dimensions. Cultural distance is defined as the level of diversity between the cultural norms of a subsidiary and the cultural norms of a parent company (Kogut & Singh, 1988). The Kogut and Singh (1988) index is used in different contexts, for example in cross-border acquisition performance (Morosini, Shane, & Singh, 1998), foreign direct investment (Benito & Gripsrud, 1992; Thomas & Grosseb, 2001), the choice of joint ventures (Agarwal, 1994) and ownership strategy for a foreign affiliate (Padmanabhan & Cho, 1996). Ng, Lee, and Soutar (2007) calculated cultural distance scores for twenty-three countries based on the framework of Schwartz (1999) (see Section 4.4.3) following the Kogut and Singh (1988) index. Several authors state that they used the Kogut and Singh (1988) index as it is based on Hofstede's work, which again shows extensive evidence of validity and reliability (Morosini et al., 1998; Ng et al., 2007; Thomas & Grosseb, 2001). The fact that the index is derived from Hofstede's dimensions implies that its limitations are shared (Shenkar, 2001).

4.4.3 Schwartz's Cultural and Personal Values Framework

Schwartz (1999) distinguishes between cultural-level dimensions and individual-level value dimensions (personal values). The unit of analysis is therefore, a cultural group or society in comparison to the individual-level value dimension where the unit of analysis is the individual person. Values describe what is fundamentally important to a person, his/her beliefs, goals and guiding standards (Schwartz, 1999). They are cognitive representations of desirable and abstract trans-situational goals (referring to general goals which are relevant across contexts) that act as a guidance for people's lives (Vecchione et al., 2012). Values motivate actions (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010). They are found to be stable and influenced by culture as one can find different value priorities among individuals from different cultures (Inglehart & Beker, 2000).

Cultural-level dimensions

Schwartz (1999) proposes an alternative framework in terms of culture in attempting to address the points that are not addressed in detail in Hofstede's work. This proposal involves seven country-level cultural value dimensions (harmony, egalitarianism, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, mastery, hierarchy, and conservatism), which are structured along three polar dimensions: conservatism vs. intellectual/affective autonomy, hierarchy vs. egalitarianism, and mastery vs. harmony. These are believed to explain the variations in culture (Schwartz, 1999).

Conservatism conceptualises the importance of group relations in a society comprising security, tradition, and conformity (Baack & Singh, 2007). Intellectual autonomy values the curiosity of an individual, his/her self-direction and broad-mindedness; and affective autonomy values more individual goals instead of group goals (Baack & Singh, 2007). Egalitarianism values the commitment to equality, freedom, responsibility, and social justice (Baack & Singh, 2007). Harmony values peace, beauty, and the protection of the environment (Baack & Singh, 2007). Mastery relates to efforts to modify one's environment through ambition or self-assertion, and hierarchy stands for status, social power, and hierarchy consciousness (Baack & Singh, 2007). One can find conceptual connections between Hofstede's dimensions and Schwartz's dimensions even though the dimensions are distinct (Kim & Gray, 2009). For example, Hofstede's individualism dimension and Schwartz's autonomy dimension are close as both are linked to optimistic pleasure and behaviour. Notwithstanding, Schwartz (1999) sees his dimensions as an improvement as they are clearer in terms of conception and more empirically valid. Baack and Singh (2007) perceive the need to integrate multiple cultural frameworks in order to provide evidence for marketing communications. They argue that a combination of both Hofstede's and Schwartz's frameworks would conceptualise culture's influence on marketing communications the best.

According to Steenkamp (2001), the dimensions advanced by Schwartz are designed to extend beyond the workplace whereas those proposed by Hofstede were derived from workplace studies and hence could be argued as being workplace-specific. Moreover, the method is different and a more recent sample is used (Steenkamp, 2001). Notwithstanding, the framework has not received wide coverage. Thus, it has not been extensively used in a marketing context. And the ease of use and the applicability of the framework are questioned (Kim & Gray, 2009; Steenkamp, 2001). It is also found that the nature of the dimensions

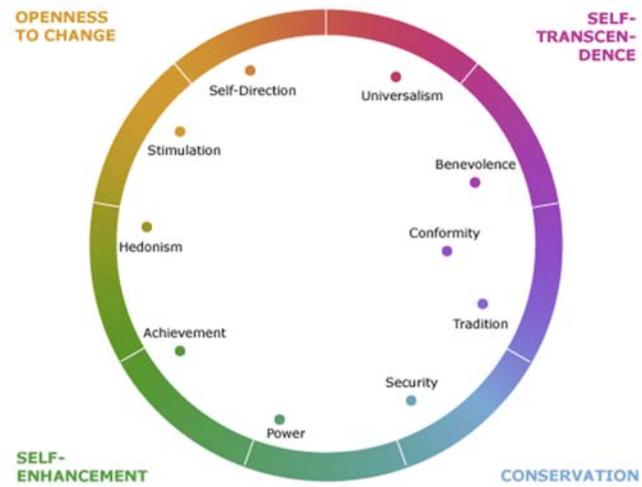
results in difficulties when using multivariate statistical methods (Kim & Gray, 2009; Steenkamp, 2001). One of the exceptions is the study by Watson and Wright (2000), who investigated the relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer ethnocentrism towards foreign manufactured products, by using the Schwartz classification of culture for establishing cultural similarity. Drogendijk and Slangen (2006) highlight that it would be premature to dismiss Hofstede's dimensions in favour of Schwartz's framework. And Ng et al. (2007) compared both Hofstede's and Schwartz's value frameworks, finding that the two are not congruent. Schwartz's country level dimensions may be superior at least in the context of trade. Researchers should, therefore, carefully evaluate which framework to use (Ng et al., 2007).

Individual-level dimensions (Personal Values)

Values are concepts that guide behaviour, and that transcend specific situations and actions. Moreover, values are less numerous and more central to personality than attitudes (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987).

The most commonly-used method in value research is Schwartz's Value Survey (SVS) (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005), which is based on Schwartz's Value Theory. That theory states that fifty-seven items (which appear in the survey) represent ten motivational values that are theoretically derived from the general requirements of human life. Hence, one can find ten basic human values (Schwartz, 1992). These ten personal values are: power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, and security (Schwartz, 1992). Figure 4.1 shows the values and Table 4.1 further defines the terms.

Figure 4.1: Circular Structure of Schwartz's Ten Personal Values



Source: Schwartz and Boehnke (2004) by German-Israeli-Research-Consortium (2014)

Table 4.1: Definitions of Schwartz's Ten Personal Values

Schwartz's Ten Personal Values	Description
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (authority, social power, wealth, preserving my public image).
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (ambitious, successful, capable, influential).
Hedonism	Pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life, self-indulgent).
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty and challenge in life (daring, a varied life, self-indulgent).
Self-Direction	Independent thought and action, choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, independent, choosing own goals, curious).
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of all people and of the nature (equality, social justice, wisdom, broad-minded, protecting the environment, unity with nature, a world of beauty).
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of the people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, responsible).
Tradition	Respect, commitment and acceptance of customs and ideas that are provided by traditional culture or religion (devout, respect for tradition, humble, moderate).
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations and impulses that are likely to upset or harm others and that violate social expectations or norms (self-discipline, politeness, honouring parents and elders, obedience).
Security	Safety, harmony and stability of the society, of relationships and of self (family security, national security, social order, clean, reciprocation of favours).

Source: Schwartz and Boehnke (2004, p. 239)

Figure 4.1 illustrates that the ten values belong to two major dimensions, namely self-enhancement (achievement, power) versus self-transcendence (universalism, benevolence), and openness to change (self-direction, stimulation) versus conservation (tradition, conformity, security). Hedonism shares elements of openness and self-enhancement (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

Self-enhancement values stand for individuals who are motivated to pursue social status and prestige. Such individuals want to control and dominate others, and to be seen as successful and competent according to social norms (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010). Self-transcendence stands for individuals who are caring for others and tolerate others regardless of their status. They are motivated to seek social justice, are loyal and helpful in their interactions (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010). Conservation values express the motivation of an individual to avoid instability and uncertainty in contrast to openness to change values, which stand for independent action and readiness for new experience (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010). Individuals are more likely to make independent judgements that are based on their own experience rather than on prevailing social norms (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010).

The survey measures individual and cultural differences in certain abstract ideals (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). Each of the ten values is named after its central goal and has a quasi-circumplex structure. Hence, they are spaced on a circle but not equally so. This again represents those values, which are compatible, incompatible or not related at all (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). The closer the directions, the more similar they are supposed to be (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

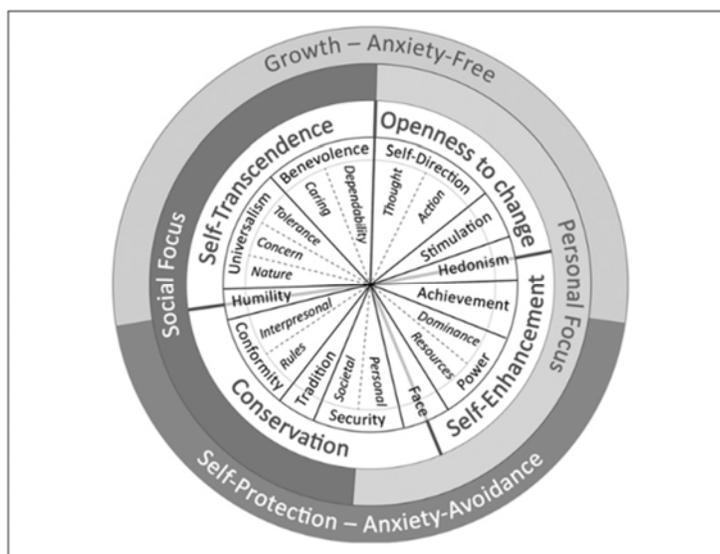
Research in more than seventy countries and using more than 270 samples, has supported the validity of the survey and shows evidence that the framework summarises all basic values across cultures. However, cultures may differ in their value priorities (Schwartz, 1992). Research by Schwartz and Boehnke (2004) further strengthens the theory by using new data from two sets of twenty-three samples from twenty-seven different countries. Schwartz and Boehnke (2004) found support for the quasi-circumplex structure and the claim that there are ten values. These ten values are found to form a motivational continuum, which is important for relating value priorities to other variables (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

In the original Schwartz Value Survey, respondents must rate fifty-seven items in terms of their importance to them. Ten value scales are used (Schwartz, 1992). Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) only use the forty-five items that show inter-cultural stability, and include these in the ten scales. Thus, Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) use a short version of the Schwartz Value Survey. In the short version, respondents are presented the value, for example the importance of achievement that is capability, success, ambition, and the influence on people; they are then asked to rate the ten life-guiding values on a 9-point scale, which ranges from 0 (opposed to my principles), 1 (not important), 4 (important) to 8 (of supreme importance) (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) test their short version (SSVS) in four studies, finding the new scale to have good reliability and validity using four different samples. The 10-item scale provides a practical alternative to the original 57-item scale and is perceived to be more appropriate for the present study as personal values are seen as a moderator, and a combination with other instruments is necessary in order to address the research question. Hence, the 10-item questionnaire provides a brief screening of what people value in their lives. Another short version similar to the SSVS is the version used in the World Value Survey (WVS) (Held et al., 2009). Example items are: “It is important to this person to think up new ideas and be creative; to do things one’s own way” or “It is important to this person to be rich; to have money and expensive things”. However, as no reliability or validity issues arise with the SSVS, it is considered to be a more reliable and valid option.

Schwartz (2012) developed another measure called the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ), in order to be able to measure the ten values in samples of children aged eleven to fourteen, and in individuals who have not been educated in Western schools, elderly people, and individuals with less abstract thinking ability. The 40-item value questionnaire has been used by authors such as Krystallis et al. (2008), although Verkasalo et al. (2009) developed a shorter version of it containing twenty-one items. However, the PVQ is not relevant for this study because the great detail it yields is not necessary when employing personal values as a moderator. Moreover, violations in terms of measurement invariance have been reported (Cieciuch et al., 2014). In order to improve the measurement invariance across countries, another measurement scale was developed in line with a refined personal values theory (Schwartz et al., 2012). Nineteen narrower values derived from the ten broad values were identified. For example, two subtypes of security are identified, these being personal and

societal (Schwartz et al., 2012). Figure 4.2 shows the circular motivational continuum of nineteen values.

Figure 4.2: Circular Motivational Continuum of Nineteen Values



Source: Cieciuch et al. (2014)

The four higher order dimensions openness to change vs. self-enhancement, and conservation vs. self-transcendence, and the ten basic personal values remain, and to these, more narrowly-defined values are added (Cieciuch et al., 2014). In line with the refined values, a new instrument was developed, the PVQ-5X, to measure these newly-defined narrower values (Cieciuch et al., 2014). However, this measurement scale is also inappropriate for this study, due to the fact that personal values are used as a moderator for the study and therefore, only a short scale is required, as already mentioned. Under these circumstances, the short version scale of Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005) provides the most suitable approach as it has also shown good reliability and validity.

The ten values are found to have high predictive validity for behaviours such as religiosity (Schwartz & Huisman, 1995), subjective well-being (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000), national identification (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010), work orientation (Lan et al., 2013), political orientation (Caprara, Vecchione, & Schwartz, 2009), environmental attitudes (Grunert & Juhl, 1995), group related attitudes (Roccas et al., 2002), social interaction (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995) and gender relations (Feather, 2004; Struch, Schwartz, & Van der Kloot, 2002). Hence,

numerous systematic and predictable relations are found. Roccas et al. (2002) and Vecchione et al. (2011) related the Big Five to basic values in their studies examining the relationships between personal values and personality traits. Roccas et al. (2002), Vecchione et al. (2011), Olver and Mooradian (2003), and Yik and Tang (1996) all confirmed relations between the Big Five personality traits and personal values. Vecchione et al. (2012) used the five-factor model to determine whether personal values mediate the relationships between traits and perceptions of immigration. They argue that values and attitudes emerge from, and are shaped by, the interaction of personality traits.

With the recent refugee crisis in Europe, and sizeable immigration inflows in the last decade, discussions on the topic of cultural and personal values are flaming up again in the news. Davidov et al. (2014) have recently investigated this issue in twenty-four countries, proposing that cultural values are a determinant of negative attitudes towards immigration, and seeking to explain variations across countries by reference to such values. Based on Schwartz (1992) cultural value theory, it was found that universalism is conducive to positive attitudes toward immigration. Conformity-tradition, however, reinforces anti-immigration sentiments.

Held et al. (2009) highlight that the World Value Surveys include three value concepts, namely that of postmaterialism suggested by Inglehart (1977), that of self-expression and secular-rational values advanced by Inglehart and Welzel (2005), and the Schwartz (1992) personal values circle. These alternatives to the personal values of Schwartz (1992) are now discussed.

4.4.4 The Postmaterialism Approach to Culture

Postmaterialism is defined as the value change towards more appreciation of equality and human choice (Held et al., 2009). Inglehart (1977) suggests that following Maslow's hierarchy of needs, value orientations are organised hierarchically on a unidimensional continuum ranging from material to postmaterial values.

Materialists stress psychological and economic security, have psychological needs, and emphasise the importance of maintaining order. They try to fight rising prices whereas postmaterialists stress the aesthetic and the intellectual, strive for self-actualisation, cherish the belonging and esteem, and emphasise freedom of speech and giving people more to say

(Inglehart, 1977). One can distinguish between two mixed items, materialist postmaterialists and postmaterialist materialists. Materialist postmaterialists show a preference for a postmaterialist item over a materialist one, and postmaterialist materialists show a preference for a materialist item over a postmaterialist item (Inglehart, 1977).

It is more likely that the younger generation manifest postmaterialist values more than do the older generation. Moreover, financially-secure individuals will be more likely to manifest postmaterialist values (Inglehart & Abramson, 1999). It is noted that a change from materialistic values to postmaterialistic values is taking place in Western countries (Inglehart, 2008). The research of Inglehart (1977) on postmaterialism is very well established within the field of political science (e.g. Inglehart, 1977, 1992, 2000; Inglehart, 2008; Inglehart & Abramson, 1999; Inglehart & Beker, 2000; Inglehart & Welzel, 2005), yet it is less complex than the values concept as expressed by Schwartz (1992), and therefore, with its multidimensionality, Schwartz's concept provides better insight into the cultural mindset of individuals than does Inglehart (1977).

4.4.5 Concept of Secular-rational and Self-expression Values

Inglehart and Welzel (2005) suggest a two-dimensional value space incorporating the dimension of self-expression/survival orientation, and the dimension of traditional value orientation/secular-rational. The concept is well established due to its integration in the World Value Survey. Modern societies with industry-dominated economies tend to be characterised by secular-rational beliefs rather than traditional ones. In postmodern societies the service sector becomes more important as the people in them demonstrate high scores on the self-expression dimension as opposed to the survival-oriented one (Inglehart & Welzel, 2005). The two dimensions are measured with five single items for every dimension as can be seen in Table 4.2 (Inglehart & Welzel, 2005).

Table 4.2: Concept of Secular-rational and Self-expression Values

Measurement Scales	
<p>Self-expression/Survival-oriented</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Liberty aspirations. - Justification of homosexuality. - Willingness to sign a petition. - Perceived choice over one's life. - Interpersonal trust. <p>→ low or negative scores reflect survival-oriented mindset.</p>	<p>Traditional value orientation/Secular-rational</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Religiousness. - Feelings of national pride. - Greater respect for authority. - Rejection of divorce. - Focus on values of obedience rather than independence in the raising of children. <p>→ low or negative scores indicate secular-rational mindset.</p>

Source: Inglehart and Welzel (2005)

Concluding, one needs ten items to measure the concept of Inglehart and Welzel (2005), which is comparable with the short version of the personal values offered by Schwartz (1992). Notwithstanding, the personal values by Schwartz (1992) are more well-known and cross-culturally tested. Hence, the concept of Inglehart and Welzel (2005) is not found to be an alternative.

4.4.6 Klages' and Gensicke's (2005) Concept of Values

Klages (1993), and Klages and Gensicke (2005) also propose a multidimensional concept integrating two dimensions, these being: obligation/convention and self-actualisation. A third dimension was added in 2005, namely hedonism/materialism. The work of Klages and Gensicke (2005) also states four value types which are - conservative conventionalist, active realist, the disadvantaged and disillusioned, and the nonconformist idealist. This work can be described as the German counterpart to the Schwartz value circle (Held et al., 2009). Nevertheless, the advantage of the value concept by Schwartz (1992) is that it has been widely validated in cross-cultural research, which makes the concept superior to that expressed by Klages and Gensicke (2005). Held et al. (2009) relate the mentioned concepts to one another, since major similarities have been found in the value structure of the concepts, for example the concept of Schwartz (1992) and the concept of Klages and Gensicke (2005) overlap with the unidimensional construct of Inglehart (1977), which is materialism/postmaterialism.

4.4.7 The GLOBE Concept

The abbreviation GLOBE stands for global leadership and organisational behaviour effectiveness, and relates to a research project conducted by House et al. (2004), including 17,370 managers in the food, finance, and telecommunications industry, incorporating 951 organisations in sixty-two countries. This is actually the largest international business research project developed so far (Leung et al., 2005). GLOBE includes nine dimensions that make it possible to capture differences or similarities in values, norms, beliefs, and practices among societies. The dimensions are named power distance, uncertainty avoidance, human orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, assertiveness, and gender egalitarianism. The dimensions are gathered and defined in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: GLOBE Dimensions

Dimensions GLOBE	Definition
Power Distance	The degree to which members of a collective expect that power is distributed equally.
Uncertainty Avoidance	The extent to which a society, organisation, or group relies on social norms, rules, and procedures to mitigate unpredictability of future events.
Human Orientation	The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.
Collectivism I (Institutional)	The degree to which organisational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action.
Collectivism II (In-Group)	The degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organisations or families.
Gender Egalitarianism	The degree to which a collective minimises gender inequality.
Future Orientation	The extent to which individuals engage in future-orientated behaviours such as planning and investing in the future.
Performance Orientation	The degree to which a collective encourages and rewards members of groups to improve their performance and excellence.
Assertiveness	The degree to which individuals are assertive, aggressive and confrontational in their relationships with other individuals.

Source: House et al. (2004)

The considerable difference to the research of Hofstede (1991) is that the work of Hofstede (1991) is only based on the assumption that practices are driven by values but House et al. (2004) incorporated in their research the aspect that people can only claim that they value something. However, this claim can be different from what they actually practice. Hence, values and practices have been separated. Brewer and Venaik (2012) criticise GLOBE in emphasising that the dimensions refer to the individual level but are, nonetheless, integrated at a national level as dimensions are constructed by nationally-agreed item scores instead of individual level scores. Thus, GLOBE is not found to be an alternative to Schwartz (1992).

The literature summarising possible measurement scales for psychic distance was excluded at this stage. This is due to the fact that the concept of psychic distance is not perceived to be relevant for this study, and summarising the literature on measurement scales of psychic distance would be out of the scope of this research project. Even though psychic distance may be one of the most-cited constructs, thus far it has only been vaguely measured (Dow & Karunaratna, 2006). To date, measures for psychic distance are provided by Håkanson and Ambos (2010), Dow and Karunaratna (2006), and Sousa and Lages (2011). The next section focuses on a discussion about global norms and values that might arise due to the pervasion of the internet, and might dilute the effect of cultural and psychic distance.

4.5 Global Norms and Values

The internet has opened many pathways for marketers and consumers as its speed and scope make information directly available at low cost to a global audience (Yamin & Sinkovics, 2006). Hence, the question arises as to whether consumer preferences and values will convey to a global norm.

Levitt (1983) argued over three decades ago, that consumer tastes and preferences would convey to a global norm even if they lived in different countries, thereby implying that the effect of psychic and cultural distance would progressively dilute, especially with the emergence of the internet and an associated faster information flow. Conversely, Hofstede (2001) states that values will not change, they will be stable over time, and that only superficial appearances of culture will change. Barkema and Vermeulen (1997) support this view, as they found that cultural distance did not decrease over time when testing the time period between 1966 and 1994. Martínez-López, Sousa, and Gazquez-Abad (2011) highlight the fact that the increase of internet usage may bring shared values closer due to the

interactions amongst individuals from different countries and cultures. The technology may increase the homogenisation of consumer needs and wants from different countries and cultures. One can find a growing number of people who consider themselves as global citizens, which highlights that their self-identity will be different from national-oriented individuals. Therefore, a new, shared culture is likely to emerge within the electronic context (Martínez-López et al., 2011). Notwithstanding, Martínez-López et al. (2011) suggest avoiding a complete standardisation approach even though there has been a rapprochement of the markets due to technology. The reason for the underlying recommendation is based on research findings stating that cultural diversity will not disappear despite the transmission of values acquired by the internet (Martínez-López et al., 2011). Thus, the opinion of Martínez-López et al. (2011) is in accordance with the opinions and findings of Hofstede (2001), and Barkema and Vermeulen (1997).

4.6 Culture as a Moderator

The idea that culture moderates the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is appealing, and therefore, the following literature summarises studies, which have integrated culture as a moderator in various forms.

A moderator is a qualitative variable (e.g. gender, class, race) or quantitative variable (e.g. level of rewards) that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between a predictor or independent variable (e.g. personality trait), and a criterion or dependent variable (e.g. online consumer engagement) (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

A moderator variable is able to strengthen the relationship between two variables and can indicate when and under what conditions, a particular effect may be expected. A moderator can increase, decrease or change the strength or direction of a relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Ellis (2008) found that psychic distance moderates the market size entry sequence relationship. In the context of cultural distance, Diener et al. (1995) found that individualism/collectivism (Hofstede's dimensions) moderates the relationship between life satisfaction and friendship satisfaction, and between life satisfaction and satisfaction with oneself. Robie et al. (1998) came to the conclusion that power distance (Hofstede's dimension) moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job level.

Farh, Hackett, and Liang (2007) examined the moderating effect of Hofstede's power distance and Chinese traditionality on relationships between work outcomes and perceived organisational support; and Probst and Lawler (2006) found that cultural values (Hofstede's individualism and collectivism) moderate employee reactions to job insecurity. Farh et al. (2007) use a short scale of traditionality comprising five items, which was adopted from Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997), and is described in Table 4.4, and a six item measure for traditionality, which was developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988) for use in Taiwan.

Table 4.4: Moderator Cultural Value: Traditionality and Power Distance

Measurement scales	
Cultural value: Traditionality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When people are in dispute they should ask the most senior person to decide who is right. - Children should respect those people who are respected by their parents. - The best way to avoid mistakes is to follow the instructions of senior persons. - Before marriage, a woman should subordinate herself to her father, after marriage to her husband. - The chief government official is like the head of a household; the citizen should obey his decisions on all state matters.
Cultural value: Power distance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates. - It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates. - Managers should seldom ask for opinions of employees. - Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees. - Employees should not disagree with management decisions. - Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.

Source: Farh et al. (2007)

Bartikowski, Walsh, and Beatty (2011) investigated culture (Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance and time orientation) and a number of relationship ages as moderators in the relationship between customer loyalty and customer-based corporate reputation. Instead of providing a measurement scale for the cultural values uncertainty avoidance and time orientation, Bartikowski et al. (2011) use three different countries that clearly differ in terms of these dimensions. Waxin (2004) uses culture of origin as a moderator variable in his research about expatriates' interaction and adjustment.

Mallard, Lance, and Michalos (1997) explored the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between overall life satisfaction and life facet satisfaction. Countries with cultural similarities between overall life satisfaction and life facet satisfaction were placed into clusters. Mallard et al. (1997) recruited research participants from forty-four countries all over the world. However, the clustering of countries with cultural similarities is not perceived as appropriate for this study. All studies found in the literature used two of Hofstede's dimensions in order to test culture as a moderator of a specific relationship. Nevertheless, Hofstede's five dimensions have been widely criticised and, therefore, this study integrates a more recent and less-criticised construct like the Schwartz personal values.

4.7 Conclusion

Culture is found to have a significant impact on decision-making and choice of consumers. Its influence should, therefore, not be underestimated (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007). The literature explored the concept of culture, from which two separate constructs were identified, these being cultural distance and psychic distance. However, psychic distance is not perceived as relevant for this study whereas cultural distance is considered to be highly relevant, and consequently that is used as a moderator for the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. Several concepts with their underlying measurement scales have been evaluated for cultural distance, the most well-known being Hofstede's five dimensions (Hofstede, 1984), which despite their popularity, have actually been widely criticised (Chow et al., 1994; Evans & Mavondo, 2002; Kim & Gray, 2009; McSweeney, 2002; Schwartz, 1999). The Kogut and Singh (1988) concept was found not to be relevant for this study as it builds on Hofstede's work and, therefore, faces similar criticisms. Moreover, the GLOBE concept (House et al., 2004) was also perceived as not appropriate for the context of online consumer engagement as it is linked more to global leadership and organisational

behaviour effectiveness than to the online consumer engagement environment. All the concepts mentioned have their basis at the cultural level (implicitly at the national level), yet a construct focusing on the individual (personal values) would be the most appropriate for this study as the unit of analysis is the individual consumer, and it is anticipated that over the years since ideas of national culture were generated, a degree of cultural drift has occurred through the globalisation phenomenon. Hofstede and McCrae (2004) highlight how cultural values impact upon the behaviour of individuals, finding that personality scores across thirty countries have been differing along their cultural dimensions. Hence, even though individuals share the same culture, they remain as individuals and can differ from others who grew up within the same culture and thus share the same cultural background. The chapter has shown that Schwartz (1999) has also considered this issue, resulting in the development of two measurements - one for the cultural level and one for the individual level (personal values). The measurement at the individual level (ten personal values) is highly relevant for this study and is used as a possible moderator between the relationship of personality traits and online consumer engagement. The Schwartz Short Value Survey (SSVS), which has been tested in terms of validity and reliability, is chosen for the present study, as the underlying ideas it contains are seen as appropriate for use as a moderator in this study, and not as a main effect. Alternative concepts and measurements of personal values have also been reviewed but the Schwartz version is found to be widely validated in cross-cultural research, which makes the concept superior to others, such as those by Klages and Gensicke (2005), Inglehart (1977), or Inglehart and Welzel (2005). The scale developed by Yoo, et al., (2011) to measure Hofstede's five dimensions at the individual level is found to be too extensive with 26-items for this study. Moreover, the Schwartz value survey is the most-commonly used method in value research and is cross-culturally tested. The next chapter reviews the literature on the proposed consequence of online consumer engagement, that being consumer-perceived value.

CHAPTER 5: CONSUMER-PERCEIVED VALUE

5.1 Introduction

The creation of value has certainly become a strategic imperative for companies in order to build and sustain competitive advantage (Wang et al., 2004). More and more informed consumers call for the creation of consumer value, which makes it a key factor in strategic management (Wang et al., 2004). Consumers have become more and more value-driven and, therefore, managers need to understand what consumer-perceived value is, and where they should focus their attention in order to be able to compete with, or even outperform, competitors (Woodruff, 1997). The aim of this chapter is to find answers to the following questions: 1) how is consumer-perceived value defined, 2) which different types of value are perceived, and 3) how can consumer-perceived value be measured? The study concentrates on consumer-perceived value rather than value for the company. Section 5.2 summarises the different definitions of the concept of consumer-perceived value, Section 5.3 further evaluates the construct as unidimensional in nature, and Section 5.4 summarises the multidimensional views and measurement approaches. Section 5.5 explains the approach of Woodall (2003), who proposes a more complex model in combining unidimensional and multidimensional perspectives. Section 5.6 summarises the regulatory engagement theory (RET), which combines consumer-perceived value and online consumer engagement. Finally, Section 5.7 concludes the chapter.

5.2 Definition of Consumer-perceived Value

The consumer value construct can be seen as one of the cornerstones of the marketing discipline (Mustak, 2014), being used (interchangeably with consumer value) to portray two perspectives, the first relating to what is derived by the consumer/customer from the supplier, and the second to what is derived by the supplier from the consumer/customer. The latter is often referred to as customer lifetime value or value for the company (Bonacchi & Perego, 2012; Borle & Singh, 2008; Kumar et al., 2008; Venkatesan & Kumar, 2004), whereas the former is referred to as consumer-perceived value or value for the consumer (Woodall, 2003). Consumer-perceived value represents all the demand-side notions of value and has become more and more interesting for marketers, academics, and practitioners (Woodall, 2003). Since

the 1990s the concept of consumer value has become widespread in the literature (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Woodruff, 1997), and a growing interest within marketing research can be found in the topic (Jensen, 2001). Additionally, some contextual and theoretical applications have been developed.

Whilst the concept of consumer-perceived value is referred to as customer value or consumer value as already mentioned, for consistency, the term consumer-perceived value is used throughout this literature review. However, it should be noted that there is no consensus in the literature generally regarding how the concept should be referred to, as is the case with the terms consumer/customer engagement.

Monroe (1979) provides one of the first definitions of consumer-perceived value, which is rooted in pricing theories. In this explanation, value is defined as the ratio of perceived benefits to perceived sacrifices (Monroe, 1979). The most universally-accepted definition which is at the same time broader than that of Monroe (1979), is the one provided by Zeithaml (1988). Zeithaml (1988, p. 14) defines the concept as “a cognitive trade-off between sacrifices and benefits which are associated with consumption practices” or in other words “the consumer’s overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given”. The definition is in line with that advanced by Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991) and can be regarded as a value-for-money conceptualisation (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Thus, consumer-perceived value can be seen as the trade-off between the benefits the consumer is realising versus the sacrifices that are required to obtain these benefits, for example, monetary resources, time, and stress. Zeithaml (1988) refers to a unidimensional construct. Other definitions consider consumer-perceived value as multidimensional. However, they also limit the construct to a purchase or use of a product as they include a trade-off between what the consumer gives and receives in return. This view is similar to that of Zeithaml (1988). For example, Gale (1994) defines consumer-perceived value as the market-perceived quality adjusted for the relative price of a company’s product. Butz and Goodstein (1996) define consumer-perceived value as the emotional bond established between a producer and a consumer after the consumer has used a product or service produced by that supplier and found that the product provided an added value. Woodall (2003, p. 2) found that consumer-perceived value is a key driver of loyalty and satisfaction, defining the concept as “any demand-side, personal perception of an advantage arising out of a consumer’s association with the offering of an organisation”. It can occur as a

reduction in sacrifice, the presence of benefit, the result of any combination of sacrifice and benefit or an aggregation over time of all of these or any of these.

The definition by Zeithaml (1988) that refers to a unidimensional construct clearly offers simplicity in terms of operationalisation. Holbrook (1999, p. 5), however, defines consumer-perceived value as an interactive, relativistic preference experience, and therefore, sees the concept as rather multidimensional in nature and emerging from experiences. This view is in line with the service-dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), which indicates that consumers are always co-creators of value. Therefore, consumer-perceived value is also seen as a multidimensional construct by Vargo and Lusch (2004). This, however, stands in opposition to the fact that value must always be embedded in tangible goods as Zeithaml (1988) indicates. Hence, new views have emerged, which consider the concept as rather multidimensional in nature. This is also due to the fact that the unidimensional value measures only offer limited actionable insights into the rather complex nature of the construct (Ruiz et al., 2008).

In the following paragraph the definition of Holbrook (1999, p. 5), which is “consumer-perceived value is an interactive, relativistic preference experience” is further described and supporting authors are highlighted. With regard to consumer-perceived value being interactive, that interaction comes about by virtue of the relationship between a subject (consumer) and an object (product) (Holbrook, 1999). This interaction is relativistic in three senses, these being: comparative, situational, and personal. It involves a comparison among objects, it varies from one person to another, and it depends on the situation when the evaluation occurs. There needs to be an interaction between a subject (consumer) and an object (product, store or service). This is in line with the view of other researchers (e.g. Woodruff, 1997; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). With regard to consumer-perceived value being relativistic, Holbrook (1999) states that relativistic means comparative, personal, and situational. The view that consumer-perceived value is personal and situational is supported by several researchers (e.g. Khalifa, 2004; Woodall, 2003; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996), who agree that every consumer perceives a different value due to his or her different knowledge skills, needs, desires or experiences. Moreover, the perceived value is dependent on circumstances, location, and available time frames. Some consumers might prefer high quality whereas others place a higher value on convenience or quantity (Holbrook, 1999; Woodall, 2003; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). Consumer-perceived value implies that for the consumer,

the goods or services of a supplier are not of value per se. It relates more to the benefits they obtain through the use of the offering, namely social status, convenience or satisfaction, which is important and creates value (Mustak, 2014). Thus, it is a dynamic concept that evolves over time (Khalifa, 2004). With regard to consumer-perceived value being preferential, consumer-perceived value embodies a preference judgement, which is a general focus on preference (Holbrook, 1999). The general concept of preferences embraces a variety of value-related terms from various disciplines such as affect (pleasing vs. displeasing), attitude (like vs. dislike), opinion (pro vs. con), evaluation (good vs. bad), valence (positive vs. negative), response tendency (approach vs. avoid) and predisposition (favourable vs. unfavourable). All these expressions of value have something in common. They represent a unidimensional index of preference order. With regard to consumer-perceived value being an experience, this is seen as experiential (Holbrook, 1999) as it derives from experiences rather than from the purchased product. This is in line with the view of several authors (e.g. Macdonald et al., 2011; Ruiz et al., 2008; Vargo & Lusch, 2004) who refer to the value as value-in-use, and define value-in-use as a consumer's outcome, objective or purpose, which is achieved through service. Authors such as Helkkula, Kelleher, and Philström (2012) refer to the concept as value in the experience, which includes lived and imaginary experiences. It is characterised as an on-going, iterative circular process of collective and individual consumer sense-making (Helkkula et al., 2012).

Apart from the definition that was described in detail, a typology of value is proposed, which is based on three dichotomies, namely extrinsic values vs. intrinsic values, self-oriented vs. other-oriented, and active vs. reactive (Holbrook, 1999). Eight values occur, these being: efficiency, excellence, play, aesthetics, status, esteem, ethics, and spirituality. These values are compresent, indicating the tendency for them to occur together in a consumption experience (Holbrook, 1999). The three dichotomies and the eight values will be further described in Section 5.4.5.

Moreover, Lemmick, De Ruyter, and Wetzels (1998), Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991) and Woodall (2003) propose a typology for consumer-perceived value. Lemmick et al. (1998) identify practical value, emotional value, and logic value, whereas Sheth et al. (1991) suggest functional value, conditional value, social value, epistemic value, and emotional value and try to explain why consumers choose to buy or not to buy a product. Woodall (2003) proposes five typologies of value, namely marketing value, net value, derived value, sale value, and

rational value. According to Woodall (2003), value is perceived, derived or experienced by a consumer. Therefore, a much more complex but theoretical model of consumer value combining both unidimensional and multidimensional views is proposed (Woodall, 2003). Hence, marketing and derived value are associated with achievement of benefits whereas sale value and rational value are associated with reduction of sacrifices. Net value results from the trade-off by the consumer of benefits and sacrifices (Woodall, 2003).

Some common dimensions between the different approaches have been identified. For example, functional value (Sheth et al., 1991), efficiency and excellence (Holbrook, 1999), and practical value (Lemmick et al., 1998) are all utilitarian in nature. Notwithstanding, one can find more differences between the dimensions, for example, in terms of their depth of analysis. This leads to the conclusion that there is disagreement among scholars in terms of dimensions of consumer-perceived value. Obviously, this is a consequence of its nebulous nature, which is described as complex (Lapierre, 2000), dynamic (Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000; Woodruff, 1997) subjective (Zeithaml, 1988) and multifaceted (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994). These views are in line with those expressed by Howden and Pressey (2008) who state that an appropriate conceptualisation of consumer-perceived value is quite challenging. Notwithstanding, many attempts of scholars to describe or define the construct mention characteristics, in common with the nature of consumer-perceived value as defined by Holbrook (1999). Additionally, the typology of Holbrook (1999) also provides the greatest level of detail and defines the three key dimensions upon which it is built, namely extrinsic vs. intrinsic, self-oriented vs. other-oriented and active vs. reactive value, further defined in Section 5.4.5.

Nevertheless, approaches that comprise typologies can also have limitations. These limitations are overcome with the definition provided by Woodruff (1997) which is free of any categorisation or typology and considers consumer-perceived value as being goal-driven. It is defined as “a consumer’s perceived preference for and evaluation of the product attributes, attribute performance and consequences arising from the use that facilitates (or blocks) achieving consumer’s goals” (Woodruff, 1997, p. 142). Goals vary and continually evolve, and hence, value is acknowledged as being very diverse (Woodruff, 1997). Moreover, goals are highly personal, as indicated by Holbrook (1999). The value proposition of Woodruff (1997) lacks empirical derivation as it is only theoretical, in contrast to the Holbrook (1999) typology, which has been operationalised. Apart from definitions and

typologies, the views on unidimensionality and multidimensionality have to be summarised. The research area of consumer-perceived value is still developing (Smith & Colgate, 2007), and many definitions and proposed typologies of the concept have emerged. However, many researchers still cite the need for a suitable measurement scale for consumer-perceived value (e.g. Lapierre, 2000; Liu, Leach, & Bernhardt, 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). So far, two approaches are available in the literature. One approach considers consumer-perceived value as a unidimensional construct, which can be measured by a self-reported item or set of items that reflect consumers' utilitarian and cognitive perceptions of value (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Dodds et al., 1991; Gale, 1994; Monroe, 1979; Zeithaml, 1988). The other, more recent approach, defines consumer-perceived value as a multidimensional construct that comprises several inter-related attributes or dimensions, which form a holistic representation of a rather complex phenomenon (e.g. Butz & Goodstein, 1996; Holbrook, 1999; Lemmick et al., 1998; Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2001; Petrick, 2002; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Woodruff, 1997; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). Specific approaches to the operationalisation of these methods will be discussed in Sections 5.3 and 5.4 respectively. Table 5.1 provides a summary of the variety of definitions, characteristics, and typologies mentioned in the literature for consumer-perceived value, and highlights whether the definitions consider the concept to be unidimensional or multidimensional in nature. The table starts with the concept of consumer value and moves on to consumer value in chronological order.

Table 5.1: Summary of Definitions of Consumer-perceived Value

Customer or Consumer Value/ Authors	Definitions and Characteristics described in the Literature	Unidimensional vs. Multidimensional
<p>Consumer value Holbrook (1999)</p>	<p>Consumer value can be defined as an interactive, relativistic preference experience.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consumer value is interactive. - Consumer value is relativistic. - Consumer value is preferential. - Consumer value is an experience. <p>Typology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Efficiency • Excellence • Status • Esteem • Fun • Aesthetics • Ethics • Spirituality 	<p>Multidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Monroe (1979)</p>	<p>Value is the ratio of perceived benefits to perceived sacrifices.</p>	<p>Unidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Zeithaml (1988)</p>	<p>Customer value is a cognitive trade-off between sacrifices and benefits, which are associated with consumption practices.</p>	<p>Unidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Dodds et al. (1991)</p>	<p>Customer value is defined as a cognitive trade-off between sacrifice and perceived quality.</p>	<p>Unidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Sheth et al. (1991)</p>	<p>Typology</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Functional value • Social value • Emotional value • Epistemic value • Conditional value 	<p>Multidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Gale (1994)</p>	<p>Customer value is the market perceived quality adjusted for the relative price of a company's product.</p>	<p>Multidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Butz and Goodstein (1996)</p>	<p>Customer value is the emotional bond established between a producer and a customer after the customer has used a product or service produced by that supplier and found that the product provided an added value.</p>	<p>Multidimensional</p>
<p>Customer value Woodruff and Gardial (1996)</p>	<p>Customer value is personal; involves interaction between subject and object.</p>	<p>Multidimensional</p>

Customer or Consumer Value/ Authors	Definitions and Characteristics described in the Literature	Unidimensional vs. Multidimensional
Customer value Woodruff (1997)	Customer value is a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of the product attributes, attribute performance and consequences arising from use that facilitates (or blocks) achieving customer's goals.	Multidimensional
Customer value Lemmick et al. (1998)	Typology <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practical value • Emotional value • Logic value 	Multidimensional
Customer value Woodall (2003)	Customer value is any demand-side, personal perception of advantage arising out of a customer's association with an organisation's offering, and can occur as reduction in sacrifice; presence of benefit (perceived as either attributes or outcomes); the result of any weighed combination of sacrifice and benefit (determined and expressed either rationally or intuitively); or an aggregation, over time of any all of these. Typology <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marketing value • Derived value → Associated with achievement of benefits • Sale value • Rational value → Associated with reduction of sacrifices • Net value → Results from the trade-off by the customer of benefits and sacrifices 	Combination of Multidimensional and Unidimensional
Customer value Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007)	Interaction between the consumer and a company's product has to be implied and value is found to be relative by virtue of its perceptual, cognitive-affective, and preferential in nature.	Multidimensional

The concept of consumer-perceived value has been linked so far to concepts such as revisit intent (Kim, Juin-Sun, & Kim, 2008; Oh, 1999; Petrick, 2004), brand loyalty (Chen & Hu, 2009; Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002) and commitment (Pura, 2005). Moreover, the concept has been related to the relationship marketing literature (McCroll-Kennedy et al., 2008; Tzokas & Saren, 1999), and the S-D logic literature (Gummesson, 2008; Woodruff, 1997; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). The next section summarises the literature concerning the concept of consumer-perceived value as a unidimensional construct.

5.3 Consumer-perceived Value as a Unidimensional Construct (Zeithaml, 1988)

Zeithaml (1988) developed a conceptual model in an exploratory study, which relates perceived quality, price, and perceived value, and defines consumer-perceived value as “a cognitive trade-off between sacrifices and benefits, which are associated with consumption practices” (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14). The value that is received may vary among consumers as some want high quality whereas others want convenience or high volume. The definition can be regarded as a value for money conceptualisation (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Hence, consumer-perceived value is measured by asking the respondents to rate the value of a consumption practice. Most research builds on Zeithaml’s definition and uses Dodd’s measurement approach (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal, Monroe, & Krishman, 1998; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Yang & Peterson, 2004). Consumer-perceived value is seen as unidimensional and different product attributes are used, which are related to behavioural intentions (Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Yang & Peterson, 2004).

5.3.1 Dodds et al. (1991)

Dodd’s measurement approach is, according to Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), a commonly-used empirical assessment of Zeithaml’s theoretical model. Dodds et al. (1991) define consumer-perceived value in line with Zeithaml’s definition as a cognitive trade-off between sacrifice and perceived benefits. Respondents are asked five summary questions about the overall value of a product or a service. The list of items used is shown in Table 5.2, from which it is seen that this particular measurement focuses simply on the price-quality relationship (Dodds et al., 1991).

Table 5.2: Dodd’s Measurement Approach

Measurement scale
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- This product is a very good value for the money.- At the price shown this product is very economical.- This is a good buy.- The price shown for this product is unacceptable.- This product appears to be a bargain.

Source: Dodds et al. (1991)

5.4 Consumer-perceived Value as a Multidimensional Construct

This section summarises consumer-perceived value as a multidimensional construct. It further distinguishes and explains five main approaches, namely those of Zeithaml (1988), Sheth et al. (1991), Woodruff and Gardial (1996), Gale (1994), and Holbrook (1999).

5.4.1 Zeithaml (1988)

Table 5.3 shows studies that use Zeithaml's approach but state that the concept is multidimensional. Hence, consumer-perceived value consists of different benefits and several sacrifices, in answer to the several authors who criticise the unidimensional approach as being too simplistic for consumption experiences (e.g. Grewal et al., 1998; Heinonen, 2006; Lam, Erramilli, & Murthy, 2004; Lapierre, 2000; Lin, Sher, & Shih, 2005; Liu et al., 2005; Mathwick et al., 2001; Petrick, 2002; Pura, 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Wang et al., 2004).

**Table 5.3: Summary of Studies using Zeithaml's Benefit Sacrifice Approach
(Multidimensional)**

Authors	Components and Measurement Scale Items	Context
Grewal et al. (1998)	Benefit component: Perceived acquisition value (9) Sacrifice component: Perceived transaction value (3) Type of components: Reflective	Bicycles
Lapierre (2000)	Benefit components: Alternative solutions (3) Product quality (4) Product customisation (3) Responsiveness (3) Flexibility (4) Reliability (5) Technical competence (5) Supplier's image (2) Trust (5) Solidarity (4) Sacrifice components: Price (5) Time/effort/energy (5) Conflict (3) Type of components: Reflective	Information, communication, entertainment, distribution, finance services (industrial)
Mathwick et al. (2001)	Benefit components: Aesthetics (6) Playfulness (5) Service excellence (2) Customer ROI (6) Sacrifice component: / Type of components: Reflective	Internet and catalogue shopping
Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	Benefit components: Emotional value (5) Social value (4) Performance/quality (6) Sacrifice component: Price (4) Type of components: Reflective	Durable goods
Petrick (2002)	Benefit components: Quality (4) Emotional response (5) Reputation (5) Sacrifice components: Monetary price (6) Behavioural price (5) Type of components: Reflective	Fast food restaurant

Authors	Components and Measurement Scale Items	Context
Lam et al. (2004)	Benefit component: Service quality Sacrifice component: Price competitiveness Type of components: Reflective	Courier services (B2B)
Wang et al. (2004)	Benefit components: Functional value (4) Emotional value (3) Social value (5) Sacrifice component: Perceived sacrifice (6) Type of components: Reflective	Security firms
Lin et al. (2005)	Benefit components: Web site design (5) Fulfillment/Reliability (3) Sacrifice component: Monetary sacrifice (2) Type of components: Reflective and formative	Web services
Liu et al. (2005)	Benefit components: Core service (3) Support service (4) Sacrifice component: Economic value (3) Type of components: Reflective	Financial staffing services
Pura (2005)	Benefit components: Social value (3) Emotional value (2) Epistemic value (3) Conditional value (2) Sacrifice components: Monetary value (3) Convenience value (4) Type of components: Reflective	Directory service
Heinonen (2006)	Benefit components: Technical value (1) Functional value (1) Temporal value (1) Spatial value (1) Sacrifice components: Technical value (1) Functional value (1) Temporal value (1) Spatial value (1) Type of components: Reflective	Online bill payment service

5.4.2 Sheth et al. (1991)

Sheth et al. (1991) see consumer-perceived value as comprising five dimensions namely, social, epistemic, functional, conditional, and emotional. These are said to influence consumer choice behaviour. The theory of Sheth et al. (1991) has three underlying propositions: 1) consumer choice is a function of multiple consumption values, 2) these consumption values are independent, and 3) they make differential contributions in any given choice situation.

Holbrook (1999) states that Sheth et al. (1991) make a huge contribution to the concept of consumer-perceived value, but that they do not consider ethics and spirituality (aesthetic value) as a source of value. Sheth et al. (1991) claim that their work is applicable to a wide range of product types, yet fail to provide any evidence. The PERVAL (perceived-value) scale (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) can be linked to the typology of Sheth et al. (1991) but at the same time it can also be linked to the benefits and sacrifice approach of Zeithaml (1988) as indicated in Table 5.3. Moreover, some dimensions like social value also overlap with the Holbrook (1999) typology, which will be discussed in Section 5.4.5. Hence, this provides evidence that there are relations between the different concepts and overlaps. Studies such as that by De Ruyter et al. (1997) follow the approach of Sheth et al. (1991).

5.4.3 Woodruff and Gardial (1996)

Another multidimensional approach is introduced by Woodruff and Gardial (1996) who argue that value is the result of a trade-off between the negative and positive consequences of the product usage perceived by the consumer. Woodruff and Gardial (1996) distinguish between attributes (quality attributes; price attributes) and consequences (benefits; sacrifices). The items have to be revealed with the help of laddering interviews and studies such as those by Flint, Woodruff, and Gardial (2002), and Overby, Gardial, and Woodruff (2004) follow this approach.

5.4.4 Gale (1994)

Gale (1994, p. xiv) uses a multidimensional approach and defines consumer-perceived value as the “market perceived quality-adjusted for the relative price of a product”. The consumer-perceived value analysis by Gale (1994) is based on a process, which generates the market-perceived quality score and the market perceived price score. Based on these scores, the value

of products can be evaluated. In order to evaluate the items, in-depth interviews are necessary. The process begins with a list of product attributes that customers and competitors customers find important. These attributes are elicited from in-depth interviews or focus groups, and as noted by Gale (1994), the attributes should cover all relevant aspects of perceived quality. The second step in the process establishes the importance of these attributes in the consumer's decision-making, by asking consumers about this (Gale, 1994). In the third step, consumers are asked to rate the performance of the product and its competing products on each of the attributes (Gale, 1994). The fourth step involves a multiplication of the performance score on each attribute by the weight of that particular attribute. The results are then totalled to obtain the market perceived quality score (Gale, 1994).

5.4.5 Holbrook (1999)

Unlike the views described earlier (Sheth et al., 1991; Woodruff, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988), Holbrook (1999) is of the opinion that value does not only serve as a purchase decision, but also results from a consumption experience.

The typology of value is based on three dichotomies, namely extrinsic vs. intrinsic values, self-oriented vs. other-oriented values, and active vs. reactive values. Figure 5.1 further defines the three dichotomies, which create eight types of value when combined (Holbrook, 2006).

Figure 5.1: Typology of Consumer-perceived Value

		<i>Extrinsic</i>		<i>Intrinsic</i>	
<i>Self-orientated</i>	<i>Active</i>	ECONOMIC VALUE	EFFICIENCY (output/input, convenience)	HEDONIC VALUE	PLAY (fun)
	<i>Reactive</i>		EXCELLENCE (quality)		AESTHETICS (beauty)
<i>Other-orientated</i>	<i>Active</i>	SOCIAL VALUE	STATUS (success, impression management)	ALTRUISTIC VALUE	ETHICS (virtue, justice, morality)
	<i>Reactive</i>		ESTEEM (reputation, materialism, possessions)		SPIRITUALITY (faith, ecstasy, rapture, sacredness, magic)

Source: Holbrook (1999)

Consumers' motivations to engage depend on the values they hold about the experience of engaging (Holbrook, 2006). Values can be either intrinsic or extrinsic (Holbrook, 2006), the intrinsic dimension representing the situation where a consumption experience is appreciated for its own sake, and the extrinsic dimension being in evidence when a product or consumption serves purely as a means to an end (Holbrook, 2006). Whilst the focus of the self-oriented value dimension is on the individual, the focus of the other-oriented value is on others, and how they respond to the consumption experience, and also the type of effect it has on them (Holbrook, 2006). Value can be active when it involves things, which are done by a consumer to a product or with a product as part of a consumption experience (Holbrook, 1999). Value can be reactive when it results from responding to an object, for example appreciating an object (Holbrook, 1999). Eight value types occur, which can be subsumed in four categories, namely economic value (efficiency, excellence), social value (status, esteem), hedonic value (play, aesthetics) and altruistic value (ethics, spirituality).

Economic value occurs when consumption or product experiences serve as a means to helping the individual achieve his/her own objectives linked to efficiency or excellence (Holbrook, 2006). Social value might occur when one's own consumption behaviour shapes the responses of others (Holbrook, 2006). Hedonic value arises from an individual's own pleasure in consumption experiences (Holbrook, 2006). And altruistic value can be defined as how the consumption practices of one individual affect other individuals. This experience is viewed as an end-in-itself justification (Holbrook, 2006). Efficiency (output/input, convenience) involves value that results from the active use of a certain product or consumption experience. It is used as a means of achieving a self-oriented purpose, e.g. having a Kleenex in the bag to blow one's nose (Holbrook, 1999). Excellence (quality) involves a reactive appreciation to an object or an experience that has the potential ability to be able to serve as an extrinsic means to a personal self-oriented end. Hence, the object is admired in order to accomplish a goal (Holbrook, 1999). Status (success, impression management) names the active manipulation of an individual's own consumption behaviour as an extrinsic means towards the goal of achieving a positive response from someone else. In other words, someone might seek status by adjusting his or her consumption in such a manner that it affects someone else whom s/he wishes to influence (Holbrook, 1999). Esteem (materialism, reputation, possessions) tends to result from a passive ownership of possessions that is appreciated as a means of building relationships with other individuals. Hence, an individual's own consumption or lifestyle is

reactively appreciated in a passive way and used as an extrinsic means of enhancing the public image, which is other-oriented (Holbrook, 1999).

Whilst the four value types just mentioned are extrinsic in nature, the following four value types are intrinsic in character (Holbrook, 1999). Play (fun) as a self-oriented experience involves fun and characterises the intrinsically-oriented side (Holbrook, 1999). Aesthetics (beauty) refers to a consumption experience that is valued intrinsically as a self-oriented end in itself, e.g. the experience of beauty. Aesthetics is located on the reactive side of play (Holbrook, 1999). Ethics (virtue, justice, morality) involves doing something for the sake of others and it includes the concern of how others will react or how they will be affected. These consumption experiences are valued for their own sake (Holbrook, 1999). Spirituality (magic, ecstasy, faith, sacredness) represents the reactive counterpart to ethics and comprises an intrinsically-motivated acceptance, admiration, adoption or even adoration of another power, some mystical entity (Holbrook, 1999).

Like every approach, that of Holbrook (1999) has led to discussions about its limitations. Richins (1994), for instance, finds that it is difficult to distinguish between active and reactive sources of value, and Leclerc and Schmitt (1999) suggest that time can be seen as an active as well as reactive source of value. Moreover, Solomon (1999) points out that the distinction between esteem and status is rather vague and all but one category refer to benefits (Sánchez-Fernández, Iniesta-Bonillo, & Holbrook, 2009).

Thus, the conceptualisation of Holbrook (1999) also has its limitations and it is rather difficult to operationalise due to its complex structure (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). Notwithstanding, it is found to be the most referenced and used approach of consumer-perceived value (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009).

To facilitate the operationalisation of the approach of Holbrook (1999), Sweeney and Soutar (2001), Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009), Bourdeau, Chebat, and Counturier (2002) and Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) combine the two typologies of status and esteem and entitle this social value. Social value arises when a consumer's consumption behaviour serves as a means to influence the responses given by others. Ethics and spirituality have been combined by Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) to produce altruistic value, which shows how a consumer's

own consumption behaviour might affect others. In the following section, studies that operationalise Holbrook's approach are discussed.

5.4.6 Operationalisation of Holbrook (1999): Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007)

Given that the concept is seen as a rather complex phenomenon, some authors (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007) favour the multidimensional typology of Holbrook (1999), which is based on a structured analysis of several approaches. One of the main reasons is that the conceptualisation captures several aspects of consumption experiences, which are seen as cognitive and affective in nature, categorising them in hedonic, social, economic, and altruistic value.

Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) came to the conclusion that the approach of Holbrook (1999) comprises more potential sources of value than other conceptualisations do after empirically testing four different approaches discussed earlier on in the chapter, namely those adopted by Dodds et al. (1991) (unidimensional), Holbrook (1999), Woodruff and Gardial (1996), and Gale (1994) (all multidimensional).

Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007) state that both unidimensional and multidimensional conceptualisations play a role in understanding perceived value. However, unidimensional models present a more simplified view than do multidimensional models, which offer a more complex perspective. Notwithstanding, Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007) are of the opinion that the nature of perceived value is in itself complex and multidimensional. Moreover, they found an implicit interaction between a consumer and a company's product. Value is found to be relative by virtue of its perceptual, cognitive-affective characteristics, and its preferential nature. Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007) present a systematic review of several unidimensional (e.g. Monroe, 1979; Zeithaml, 1988) and multidimensional perspectives and approaches (e.g. Holbrook, 1999; Sheth et al., 1991; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996). That taken by Holbrook (1999) was found to show the best insights into the nature of the concept of consumer-perceived value as it defines more sources of value in comparison to other studies (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Therefore, a model is proposed considering the conceptualisation of Holbrook (1999) (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). Consumer-perceived value is widely recognised as a key factor in marketing strategy, organisational management, and consumer behaviour (Sánchez-

Fernández et al., 2009). The key focus of the underlying study is consumer behaviour. However, no single measurement or conceptualisation of the construct has been widely accepted. Hence, Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) developed a measurement scale for consumer-perceived value in a service context and see this construct as possessing a multidimensional structure based on Holbrook's approach.

In this operationalisation, higher-level categories have been combined to make the model less complex. Specifically, social value comprises status and esteem, and altruistic value comprises ethics and spirituality. Moreover, the focus is on post-purchase aspects (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). Table 5.4 shows the developed measurement scale comprised of twenty-four items. However, it should be noted that this measurement scale was very context-specific (a vegan restaurant), and consequently, only the altruistic value scale was taken from this study. The other scales were taken from Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) whose measurements were more appropriate as they are less context-specific. These are discussed in Section 5.4.7.

Table 5.4: Measurement Scale of Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009)

Consumer-perceived Value	Items
Efficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The time you have waited to be seated and to order has not been excessive. - You have promptly received your cheque and paid. - In general, you are happy with the prices of this restaurant. - The prices are good considering what you have received from the restaurant. - The effort, time and money spent in the restaurant are right.
Quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The service provided by the staff was up to standard. - Members of the staff are competent, accessible and polite. - The relationship with the staff has been adequate. - The quality of the food served is good.
Social Value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The people and the environment of this restaurant are in accordance with its social level and status. - You feel close to the environment and the people in this vegetarian restaurant. - In general, your experience in the restaurant is important for your social relationships, your self-esteem and your status.
Play	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The environment of the restaurant (music, customers, etc.) has helped you to enjoy your stay. - Going to this restaurant has served as a way of temporary escape for you. - The staff have contributed to making your stay more amusing and entertaining. - You have enjoyed your visit to this restaurant.
Aesthetics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - You like the arrangement of the table and the food. - You find the restaurant's design and decoration attractive. - The appearance of the staff is appropriate. - In your opinion the restaurant's taste is fine.
Altruistic Value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Going to this restaurant has an ethical and moral interest for you, as you consider that the products have been ecologically produced. - The environmental preservation of the restaurant is coherent with your ethical and moral values. - You feel attracted by the spiritual atmosphere of this restaurant. - Going to this restaurant has had an ethical and spiritual value for you.

Source: Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009)

5.4.7 Operationalisation of Holbrook (1999): Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)

Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) use existing scales from different authors to measure the consumer-perceived value concept proposed by Holbrook (1999). Social value is taken from Sweeney and Soutar (2001), play from Petrick (2002), excellence from Oliver (1999), and efficiency from Ruiz et al. (2008). The items for aesthetic value have been generated through laddering interviews as no existing scale was available in the literature. Altruistic value was not mentioned in the interviews of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), and therefore, it was not taken into consideration in their empirical study. The scales are listed below and formulated on a more neutral basis focusing on products such as toothpaste, day cream, and DVDs in comparison to those of Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) who concentrate on a service experience in a restaurant. The scales chosen by Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) are more suitable due to their more neutral formulation. Table 5.5 summarises the measurement scales.

Table 5.5: Measurement Scale of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)

Consumer-perceived Value	Items
Social Value Adapted from: Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helps me feel acceptable. - Improves the way I am perceived. - Makes a good impression on others. - Gives me social approval.
Play Adapted from: Petrick (2002)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Makes me feel good. - Gives me pleasure. - Gives me a sense of joy. - Makes me feel delighted. - Gives me happiness.
Excellence Adapted from: Oliver (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The quality is excellent. - One of the best regarding quality. - High quality product. - Superior compared to competing products.
Efficiency Adapted from: Ruiz et al. (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The price is high. (R) - The effort I expend to receive X is high. (R) - This TP/DC/DVD is easy to use. - Starting up the DVD player requires a lot of time. (i.e. the time between turning on the DVD player and the moment the DVD starts) (R)
Aesthetic Value (based on laddering interviews)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I think I look good by using this TP//DC/SD. - I think my teeth/skin is beautiful using this TP/DC. - I think I have a fresh breath by using this toothpaste. - I think I have a nice figure by drinking this soft drink. - I think this DVD player is beautiful. - This DVD player looks good in my interior. - This DVD player has a beautiful design. - This DVD player has a beautiful colour.

Note: TP = Toothpaste; DC= Day cream
 Source: Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)

The findings of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) support the choice of measurement scale and the approach of Holbrook (1999). Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) compared four commonly-used consumer-perceived value measurements, namely the approaches of Dodds et al. (1991), Gale (1994), Holbrook (1999), and Woodruff and Gardial (1996) in terms of their psychometric properties, predictive ability, practicality, and actionability. The four measurement models have been tested using three outcome variables namely, word of mouth, satisfaction, and repurchase intention.

The findings of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) are in line with those of Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007), as both find that as a general rule, multidimensional approaches are the better measurement choice. In addition, the type of setting is important as every method performs differently in different contexts. For example, Holbrook (1999) has the highest predictive ability for low involvement “think offerings” whereas Woodruff and Gardial (1996) provide the better approach for high involvement “think products” (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). If a company wants to have a look beyond product attributes, the approaches of Woodruff and Gardial (1996), and Holbrook (1999) are superior as they consider the consequences whereas Gale (1994) only focuses on product attributes.

An advantage of Holbrook (1999) approach is its classification of different value types and the existence of measurement scales for most of these types. Value scales have to be adapted to the context of a FHOBC in exploratory interviews for scale development purposes. This is due to the fact that the scales are only based on products. The approach of Woodruff and Gardial (1996) requires interviews in the first place to generate items, which makes the method not very practical. Hence, findings show that the approach of Holbrook (1999) is superior, which is in line with the findings of Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007). Figure 5.2 explains the findings in detail and compares all mentioned approaches in terms of their psychometric properties, predictive ability, practicality, and actionability.

Figure 5.2: Comparison between Measurement Scales

	Think		Feel	
	Low Involvement	High Involvement	Low Involvement	High Involvement
1. Measurement model: Psychometric properties	Unfavorable psychometric properties for Dodds et al.'s method. All other methods have favorable psychometric properties.		All methods have favorable psychometric properties.	
2. Structural model: Predictive ability	Holbrook's method has the best predictive ability	Woodruff and Gardial's method has the best predictive ability	Woodruff and Gardial's and Holbrook's method perform equally well.	
3. Practicality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gale's method <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Ease of use: Fairly simple if attributes are known ◦ Questionnaire length: Many items required • Woodruff and Gardial's method <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Ease of use: No existing scales; interviews required to generate items ◦ Questionnaire length: Many items required • Holbrook's method <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Ease of use: existing scales for some value types; others need interviews to generate items ◦ Questionnaire length: Many items required 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dodds et al.'s method: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Ease of use: Simple and straightforward; Minor adjustments required ◦ Questionnaire length: Only five existing items 	
4. Actionability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gale's method: Directions for improvement based on attributes • Woodruff and Gardial's method: Directions for improvement based on consequences • Holbrook's method: Directions for improvement based on value types 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dodds et al.'s method: No specific directions of improvement 	

Source: Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)

Based on the recent and credible findings of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), which are supported by the findings of Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007), this study adopts Holbrook's approach. In comparison to other authors (e.g. Sheth et al., 1991; Woodruff, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988), Holbrook (1999) is of the opinion that value does not only serve as a mean for a purchase decision, but it also the result of a consumption experience. Moreover, Holbrook (1999) provides a typology of a broad range of values and focuses on consequences and not only on attributes. Another positive fact is that it is easier to operationalise due to existing measurement scales for some of the values. The following study therefore builds on the work of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) and Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009), taking the measurement scales from Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) for social value and play as they are quite generic, and adapt the measurement scales for excellence, efficiency and aesthetic value from Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) to the underlying context. The measurement scale of Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) for altruistic value is adapted to the context as Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) do not integrate the item altruistic value based on the results of their laddering interviews. In the following section this choice is further evaluated.

5.4.8 Measurement Scales Further Evaluated

In the following section, a further evaluation is provided of studies that provided Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) with the measurement scales. Moreover, alternative measurement scales are discussed, which can also be linked to Holbrook's study due to similarities and overlaps between approaches.

1) Sweeney and Soutar (Social value)

Sweeney and Soutar (2001) developed a scale called PERVAL, which stands for perceived value (19-item measurement scale), to assess the perceived value of consumer durable goods. It measures the first order dimensions of emotional value, social value, functional value in terms of quality, and functional value in terms of price. The scale can be categorised under the give versus get domain, which links it to the Zeithaml (1988) benefit versus sacrifice approach. Thus, price is a sacrifice component whereas the other three are components of benefit. Notwithstanding, due to an overlap of these approaches, the PERVAL scale can also be linked to the typology of Holbrook (1999), and the social value scale especially, refers to the same value and has therefore, been adapted by Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014). The scale is found to be reliable and valid in both a purchase, and post-purchase situation.

2) Petrick (Play)

Petrick (2002) developed a multidimensional measurement scale including five dimensions and a total of twenty-five items for the value of services named SERV-PERVAL. SERV-PERVAL measures the first order dimensions of quality (four items), emotional response (five items), reputation (five items), monetary price (six items), and behavioural price (five items). The dimension play is taken from Petrick (2002), who calls it emotional response.

3) Ruiz (Efficiency)

Ruiz et al. (2008) argue that service represents a higher-order construct, which includes benefits and sacrifices components. The measurement scale of Ruiz et al. (2008) was taken and adapted by Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) for the scale of efficiency.

4) Oliver (Excellence)

Oliver (1997) describes in his book, the meaning, causes, and consequences of customer satisfaction. Oliver's (1997) detailed model comprises consumption processing and a satisfaction measurement scale, which incorporates among others, the excellence scale that has been adapted by Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014).

5) Mathwick et al. (2001) Alternative Scale for Play (Petrick) and Aesthetics (Leroi)

Mathwick et al. (2001) develop an experiential value scale (EVS), which is derived from perceptions of aesthetics, customer return on investment, playfulness, and service excellence. The context was internet and catalogue shopping and the research is based on the self-oriented dimension of Holbrook (1999). The study concentrates on the consumption experience itself. Experiential value offers both intrinsic and extrinsic benefits. Therefore, Mathwick et al. (2001) differentiate between active sources of extrinsic value, and reactive sources of intrinsic value.

An active source of extrinsic value is for example, consumer return on investment, whereas a reactive source of extrinsic value is service excellence. Furthermore, reactive resources of intrinsic value are identified as aesthetics whereas active sources of intrinsic value are identified as playfulness. Table 5.6 shows the measurement scales used, which have been tested in terms of validity and reliability. The six first order dimensions employed are visual appeal, entertainment, escapism, enjoyment, efficiency, and economic value (Mathwick et al., 2001). The dimension of interest for the underlying study is aesthetics, which comprises visual appeal and entertainment and also playfulness, which comprises escapism and enjoyment (in bold). The proposed scales could be an alternative to the scales play and aesthetics used by Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), as they are more linked to the context of online brand communities. However, these measurement scales are criticised on the grounds that they are more appropriate to measure motivation than value. Moreover, the scale of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) is a more recent and reliable scale, and it provides a shorter version.

Table 5.6: Alternative Measurement Scales of Mathwick et al. (2001)

Measurement scales	
Visual appeal (Aesthetics)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The way X displays its products is attractive. - X's Internet site is aesthetically appealing. - I like the way X's Internet site looks.
Entertainment (Aesthetics)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I think X's Internet site is very entertaining. - The enthusiasm of X's Internet site is catching, it picks me up. - X doesn't just sell products-it entertains me.
Escapism (Play)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shopping from X's Internet site "gets me away from it all". - Shopping from X makes me feel like I am in another world. - I get so involved when I shop from X that I forget everything else.
Intrinsic enjoyment (Play)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I enjoy shopping from X's Internet site for its own sake, not just for the items I may have purchased. - I shop from X's Internet site for the pure enjoyment of it.
Efficiency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shopping from X is an efficient way to manage my time. - Shopping from X's Internet site makes my life easier. - Shopping from X's Internet site fits with my schedule.
Economic value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - X products are a good economic value. - Overall, I am happy with X's prices. - The prices of the product(s) I purchased from X's Internet site are too high, given the quality of the merchandise.
Excellence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When I think of X, I think of excellence. - I think of X as an expert in the merchandise it offers.
Retail Preference	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - X's Internet site is the best place to shop. - When it comes to shopping X is my first preference.
Future Patronage Intent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I intend to shop from X's Internet site in the future. - In the future, X's Internet site is one of the first places I will look when I need to find certain kinds of merchandise.

Note: Dimensions in bold are of interest for this study
Source: Mathwick et al. (2001)

5.5 A more Complex Model of Consumer Value (Woodall, 2003): A Combination of the Unidimensional and Multidimensional Approach

Woodall (2003) identifies five forms of consumer value, namely marketing value, derived value, sale value, rational value, and net value. Marketing value is the perceived attributes associated with a product or service, whereas derived value is defined as the perceived outcome from the actual usage of a product or service. Rational value can be seen as the achievement of a difference, which is acceptable between actual price paid, and perceived objective price. Sale value is the achievement of a low price or even a reduction in non-monetary sacrifices, and net value can be defined as utilitarian balancing of benefits and sacrifices. Hence, sale and rational value are associated with sacrifices and marketing. Derived value is associated with benefits and is, therefore, ancillary to net value. The approach of Woodall (2003) is a much more complex model, which combines the unidimensional and multidimensional perspectives of consumer value but as the model is neither empirically tested nor derived, it cannot provide valuable insights for this study.

5.6 Consumer-perceived Value and Online Consumer Engagement: The Regulatory Engagement Theory (RET)

Section 5.4.5 describes the typology of the consumer value theory of Holbrook (1999) in detail. Holbrook (1999) is of the opinion that value does not only serve as a means for a purchase decision, but is also a result of a consumption experience. The consumption experience for this particular example is the engagement of the consumer in the FHOBC. Thus, value can be seen as a jointly created phenomenon emerging through engagement (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). The regulatory engagement theory (RET) does not only link consumer engagement to consumer value, it also proposes that the strength of the engagement contributes to the experienced value or value intensity (Higgins, 2006). Hence, the more engaged an individual is in approaching a target (e.g. brand), the more value can be subtracted from it. Value can result from engaging online as consumers' motivations to engage depend on the values they expect to receive from the experience to engage (Hollebeek, 2013). However, the most important link for this study is that consumer-perceived value is seen as a consequence of consumer engagement in line with Hollebeek (2013). In the RET context, being engaged is described as being involved, occupied and interested in something (e.g. in the FHOBC), and strong engagement means to concentrate on something or to be fully absorbed by something (Higgins & Scholer, 2009). RET was developed by Higgins & Scholer

(2009) who see value as an experience, as does Holbrook (1999, p. 5), who states that consumer-perceived value is “an interactive, relativistic preference experience”. Value experiences have most often been associated with hedonic experiences. If an individual experiences something (e.g. the engagement in the FHOBC) as being of positive value it corresponds to experiencing attraction towards it. Experiencing something as being of negative value corresponds to experiencing repulsion from something (Higgins et al., 2008).

This study is in line with Holbrook (1999) who argues that different kinds of values exist. For example, if an individual shapes the responses of others due to his or her online engagement this might be perceived as social value. Altruistic value can occur if the purpose of individuals engaging online is to help peers. It involves doing something for the sake of others and it includes the concern of how others will react or how they will be affected. Efficiency can involve value that results from the active use of an online brand community (Holbrook, 1999).

According to the RET, the strength of the engagement contributes to the intensity of the value experience. Moreover, engagement is strengthened when the goal is pursued in the right way. Thus, the journey itself is also worthwhile as it has an impact on the intensity of the perceived value, and stronger engagement can intensify an individual’s positive or negative reactions. Consequently, an individual who is more strongly engaged in goal pursuit will experience a positive target more positively and a negative target more negatively.

This section has summarised the RET theory which conceptualises value as a force of attraction or repulsion from something (e.g. FHOBC). Moreover, the intensity of the experience also plays an important role in shaping consumer-perceived value (Pham & Avnet, 2009). The next section concludes the literature review of the concept of consumer-perceived value.

5.7 Conclusion

Many definitions of the value construct and the two main research approaches for the concept of consumer-perceived value have been discussed. The definition section of this chapter and Table 5.1, which shows a summary of the different definitions of consumer-perceived value and mentions characteristics and typologies, shows that there is no consensus about the construct of consumer-perceived value and its dimensions (Chen & Quester, 2006). Many authors (Helkkula et al., 2012; Khalifa, 2004; Macdonald et al., 2011; Ruiz et al., 2008; Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Woodall, 2003; Woodruff, 1997; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996) state characteristics, which are linked to the overall typology and definition of the approach of Holbrook (1999). Holbrook (1999, p. 5) defines consumer-perceived value as “an interactive, relativistic preference experience”. Eight value types occur, these being: efficiency, excellence, social value (status, esteem), play, aesthetic value, and altruistic value (ethics and spirituality). This study builds on the approach and definition of Holbrook (1999), and the operationalisation of Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) for social value, play, efficiency, excellence, and aesthetic value, and on the operationalisation of Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) for altruistic value. Given that the concept is seen as complex, some authors (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007) favour the multidimensional typology of Holbrook (1999) as the conceptualisation captures several aspects of consumption experiences, which are seen as cognitive and affective in nature. Moreover, the approach of Holbrook (1999) categorises values as hedonic, social, economic, and altruistic. According to Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), this comprises more potential sources of value in comparison to other conceptualisations. In addition, one can find measurement scales (Mathwick et al., 2001; Petrick, 2002; Ruiz et al., 2008; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) for most of the proposed values that can be linked to Holbrook’s (1999) conceptualisation. Despite the attractive simplicity of the unidimensional approaches, they do not reflect the complex nature of consumer-perceived value as they fail to take into account intangible factors, intrinsic factors, and emotional factors (Holbrook, 1999; Ruiz et al., 2008). Hence, they define consumer-perceived value as the trade-off between benefit and sacrifice, which is described by Mathwick et al. (2001) and Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson (1999) as being too narrow.

Moreover, Holbrook’s (1999) approach provides the greatest level of detail and measurement scales for most of the values (Mathwick et al., 2001; Oliver, 1997; Petrick, 2002; Ruiz et al., 2008; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Woodall’s (2003) model has a higher level of richness in

comparison to Holbrook's (1999) as it combines the unidimensional and multidimensional views but the concept is neither empirically derived nor tested. The last section of the chapter links consumer-perceived value to online consumer engagement and thus explains the regulatory engagement theory. A key assumption of the RET is that perceived value is a consequence of online consumer engagement. Chapter 6 deals with the conceptual framework and its underlying hypotheses.

CHAPTER 6: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

6.1 Introduction

This chapter unites the previously discussed concepts of online consumer engagement, personality traits, personal values, and consumer-perceived value into a conceptual framework, which is used to investigate personality traits as antecedents of online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement. Additionally, the moderating effect of personal values on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is investigated.

Hence, this research draws on the literature on online consumer engagement, online brand communities, personality traits, personal values, and consumer-perceived value. Section 6.2 summarises the key concepts and Section 6.3 presents the conceptual framework. Section 6.4 discusses the overarching theories that underlie the conceptual framework, and Section 6.5 presents the research hypotheses. Finally, Section 6.6 concludes the chapter.

6.2 Key Concepts of the Study

This chapter briefly summarises the key concepts of the study.

6.2.1 Personality Traits

The psychology literature distinguishes between primary traits and secondary traits. Primary traits are narrower than secondary traits which are much broader, and which themselves include the primary traits (Cattell, 1947; Eysenck, 1991). The taxonomy of secondary traits was long been dominated by the three-factor model developed by Eysenck (1991), and the 16PF inventory formulated by Cattell (1947) until the Big Five model emerged. Since then, the Big Five has become one of the most popular personality instruments in psychology, and multiple sources find that it is the best paradigm for personality structure (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Digman, 1990). The Big Five includes the dimensions of extraversion/intraversion, agreeableness/disagreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experiences, and neuroticism.

In order to provide a more comprehensive and detailed list of personality traits that drive online consumer engagement, additional traits have been added to the Big Five. These additions are: the need for learning and altruism based on the work of Mowen and Sujan (2005), need for arousal based on Mowen and Spears (1999), and need for activity based on Licata et al. (2003). They are added into the mix because the belief is that the five factors only provide a limited account of an individual's personality (Block, 1995; Brown et al., 2002), thereby questioning the Big Five in terms of its comprehensiveness (Brown et al., 2002). The personality trait need for arousal is not shown in the conceptual framework for the main quantitative study as it was not ultimately included based on the results of the qualitative study which found no support for the relationship between need for arousal and online consumer engagement. Thus, these findings, and the request from the FHOBC for consumer service support for a shorter version of a survey led to the exclusion of the personality trait need for arousal.

6.2.2 Personal Values

The study adopts the personal value definition of Schwartz (1992) as this is the most commonly used in value research (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). According to Schwartz (1992), one can find ten basic human values, which are identified at the individual level as being: power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, and security (Schwartz, 1992). The ten personal values are part of two major dimensions. Dimension one is self-enhancement versus self-transcendence. Self-enhancement includes achievement and power, and self-transcendence includes universalism and benevolence. Dimension two is openness to change versus conservation. Openness to change includes self-direction and stimulation whereas conservation includes tradition, conformity and security.

6.2.3 Online Consumer Engagement

Research so far has tried to provide a comprehensive understanding of the construct of consumer engagement as it is a relatively new research area. Consumer engagement is addressed in research studies but there is no consensus regarding whether it is a unidimensional or multidimensional concept. Several authors highlight that the consumer engagement concept consists of three dimensions namely cognitive, behavioural (active), and

emotional (affective), (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Brodie et al., 2011; Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeck, 2011b; Macy & Schneider, 2008; Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Patterson et al., 2006; Vivek et al., 2012), yet many others directly, or in most cases indirectly, state the existence of one or two of these dimensions in their research of engagement across all academic disciplines (Bejerholm & Eklund, 2007; Hu, 2010; Huo, Binning, & Moline, 2009; Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006; Marks, 2000; Matthews et al., 2010; Norris, Pignal, & Lipps, 2003). The unidimensional concept clearly possesses the merit of simplicity but one of the disadvantages is that it does not reflect the rich conceptual scope of the idea (Hollebeck, 2011a). Brodie et al. (2013), who are the leading researchers in the field describe consumer engagement as an interactive process emerging at different intensity levels, and refer to it as a multidimensional concept including cognitive, emotional as well as behavioural dimensions. They define consumer engagement in online brand communities as follows (ibid, p. 107):

“Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or other members of the community. Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange where other relational concepts are engagement antecedents and/or interactive engagement processes within the brand community.”

This is the working definition for this study.

6.2.4 Consumer-perceived Value

There are two main research approaches for the consumer-perceived value construct. Firstly, it is seen as unidimensional in nature (Dodds et al., 1991; Monroe, 1979; Zeithaml, 1988), but more recently it has come to be considered as a multidimensional construct (Holbrook, 1999; Ruiz et al., 2008). The literature focusing on the multidimensional construct is mainly dominated by the work of Holbrook (1999) and Sheth et al. (1991).

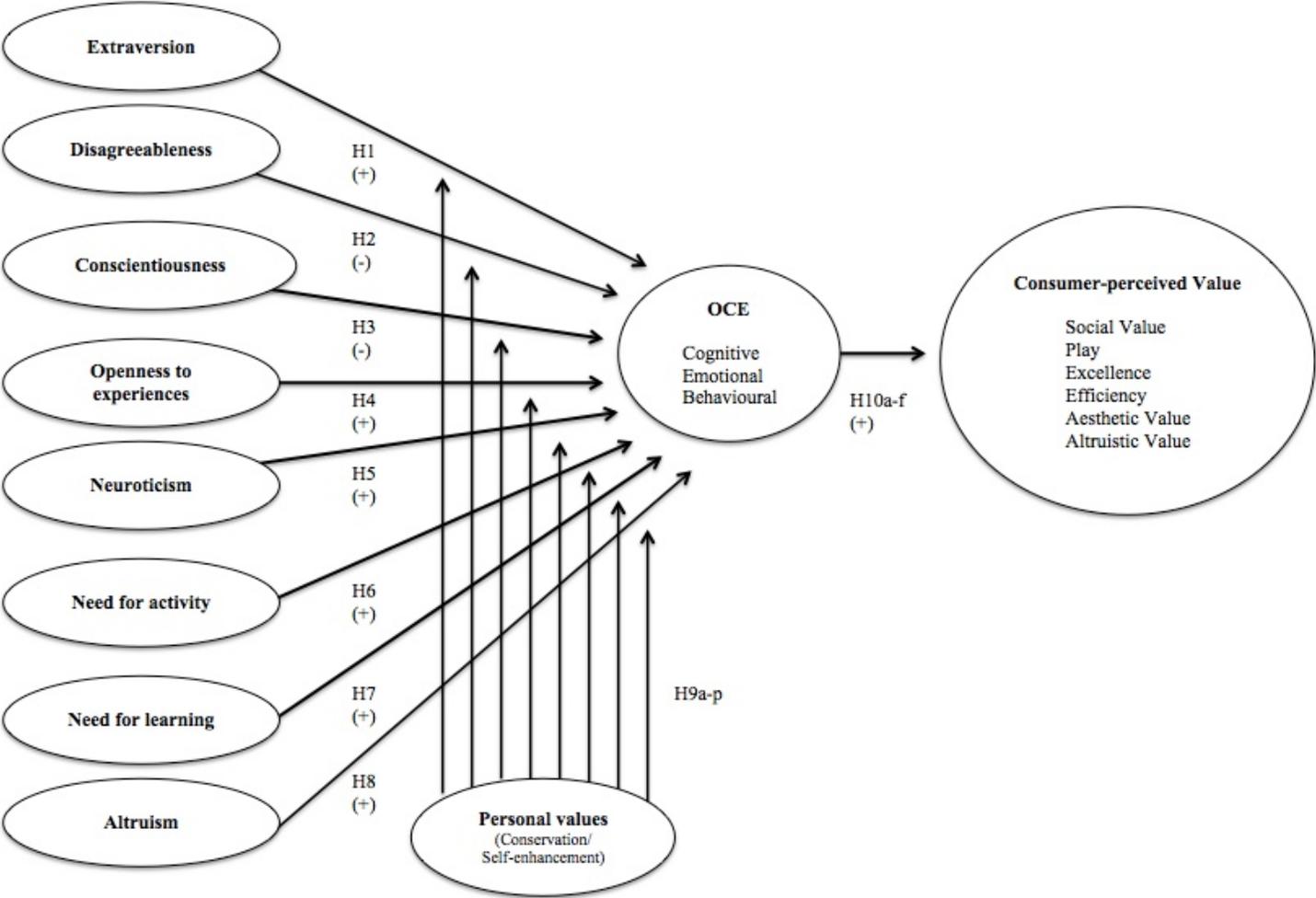
Holbrook (1999, p. 5) defines consumer-perceived value as “an interactive, relativistic preference experience”. Many authors support parts of this definition. Some mention that it is interactive, others consider it to be relativistic or an experience (Khalifa, 2004; Macdonald et al., 2011; Mustak, 2014; Ruiz et al., 2008; Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Woodall, 2003; Woodruff,

1997; Woodruff & Gardial, 1996; Zeithaml, 1988). Moreover, Holbrook (1999) proposes a typology of value, which is based on three dichotomies, namely: 1) extrinsic values vs. intrinsic values, 2) self-oriented vs. other-oriented, and 3) active vs. reactive values. Eight value types occur within these three dichotomies, which can be subsumed under four categories, these being economic value (efficiency, excellence), social value (status, esteem), hedonic value (play, aesthetics), and altruistic value (ethics, spirituality). The next section combines these four different concepts into a conceptual framework.

6.3 Conceptual Framework

The following section shows the conceptual framework. The framework analyses personality traits as possible antecedents of online consumer engagement and consumer-perceived value as a possible consequence of online consumer engagement. Furthermore, the moderating role played by personal values in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is investigated. Figure 6.1 shows the conceptual framework and the links between the concepts.

Figure 6.1: Conceptual Framework



Hypotheses 1-8 deal with personality traits as antecedents of online consumer engagement. Extraversion, openness to experiences, neuroticism, need for activity, need for learning, and altruism are positively related to online consumer engagement. Disagreeableness and conscientiousness are negatively related to online consumer engagement. Hypotheses 9a-p investigate the moderating effect of personal values (Conservation/Self-enhancement) on the relationship between the eight mentioned personality traits and online consumer engagement. Hypotheses H10a-f propose that online consumer engagement is positively related to six consumer-perceived value types, namely social value, play, excellence, efficiency, aesthetic, and altruistic value. The next section deals with the overarching theories of the framework.

6.4 Overarching Theories underlying the Conceptual Framework

The proposed conceptual framework is based primarily on the Big Five personality factor theory (Norman, 1963), and the consumer value theory of Holbrook (1999). The former theory was discussed in Chapter 3, and the latter in Chapter 5. According to the Big Five personality factor theory, there are five personality factors that distinguish individuals from another, and that form human personality. These five broad categories of personality are found to be universal in nature (Matthews et al., 2009). Behaviour is determined by these traits, which means that these traits lead an individual to act or behave in a certain way (Norman, 1963). Consumer behaviour can be defined as the activities people undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products and services (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001). Consumer engagement behaviour falls under the umbrella of consumer behaviour. It involves specific interactive experiences between consumers or customers and the brand and/or other members of the community. “Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state, characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic and iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange” (Brodie et al., 2013, p. 3). The Big Five personality factor theory accounts for the first part of the model, which sees personality traits as an antecedent of online consumer engagement behaviour.

Personality traits → Online Consumer Engagement Behaviour

The second part of the conceptual framework can be explained with the help of the consumer value theory of Holbrook (1999). Holbrook (1999) states that consumer value (consumer-perceived value) which includes five different types of value is a result of a consumption experience (Holbrook, 1999). The consumption experience for this particular example is the engagement of the consumer in the FHOBC. Value is a jointly created phenomenon emerging through engagement and, therefore, consumer-perceived value is seen as a consequence of online consumer engagement (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Another theory, which is worth mentioning in this context is the regulatory engagement theory (RET), which was explained in Section 5.6 of Chapter 5. The RET was developed by Higgins and Scholer (2009) who argue that the more engaged consumers approach or repel a target (brand), the more value is added or subtracted from it. The RET views actual perceived value as a consequence of consumer engagement but focuses on the intensity of the relationship (Hollebeek, 2013). Higgins (2006) sees value as an experience, which is in line with the definition of Holbrook (1999) on which this study is based.

Online Consumer Engagement Behaviour → Consumer-perceived Value

The choice to introduce personal values as a moderator in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is based on contingency theory, which is a behavioural theory embracing the notion that there are specific situational factors which can affect the direct relationships between an independent variable (personality traits), and a dependent variable (online consumer engagement) (Zeithaml, Varadarajan, & Zeithaml, 1988). The contingency theory originates from the management literature but its value for the marketing literature has been demonstrated (Zeithaml et al., 1988).

6.5 Research Hypotheses

The following section provides a discussion of the hypotheses summarised in the overall conceptual framework.

6.5.1 Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

Extraversion/Intraversion

The personality trait extraversion describes the degree to which a person is sociable and outgoing (Mottram & Fleming, 2009). Extraverts are regarded as chatty and lively (Mottram & Fleming, 2009), assertive, sociable, energetic, optimistic, enthusiastic (Raja & John, 2010) and self-confident (McCrae & John, 1992). Intraverts find more pleasure in solitary activities, they like to hide their feelings, tend to be less open-minded, less close to others and more suspicious (Evans, 1941; Eysenck, 1991).

Extraversion was found to be linked to social media usage (Correa et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2014; Marshall et al., 2015; Seidman, 2013), one potential reason being that extraverts like to be known by others in comparison to intraverts who view recognition as less important (Ross et al., 2009). Consequently, extraverts also have more friends and higher quality friendships than intraverts (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998). Thus, intraverted people might engage less online as they are not as sociable as extraverts (Mottram & Fleming, 2009; Raja & John, 2010). Indeed, extraversion has been associated with greater Facebook use (Gosling & Augustine, 2011), and there is evidence to show that extraverts are members of more groups on Facebook as they prefer to be in social situations rather than being alone (Ross et al., 2009). Therefore, it can be expected that extraversion has a positive impact on online consumer engagement, and it is hypothesised that:

H1: Extraversion is positively related to online consumer engagement.

Agreeableness/Disagreeableness

Agreeableness refers to the general warmth of feelings towards others (Brown et al., 2002), and can be seen as a measure of how friendly an individual is (Costa & McCrae, 1992b). Agreeable individuals can be seen as more authentic and consistent versions of themselves in comparison to disagreeable individuals (Leary & Allen, 2011). Agreeable individuals are kind, warm, sympathetic (Costa & McCrae, 1992b), flexible, co-operative, generous and good-natured (Goldberg, 1990).

Disagreeableness can be defined as the opposite of agreeableness. These individuals tend to be unfriendly, uncooperative, suspicious, sceptical, and their self-interest is their first priority (Eysenck, 1991). Usually, disagreeable individuals do not care about the well-being of other people and thus, are less likely to share experiences online or engage with peers in FHOBCs. The characteristics of trust and tender-mindedness (Taggar, 2002) of agreeable individuals enhance interpersonal skills, which are required to appreciate the contributions of others. Hence, disagreeable individuals might also not appreciate other individuals' contributions in FHOBCs. Some studies have found agreeableness to be unrelated to social media usage (Correa et al., 2010; Ross et al., 2009). However, for the broader FHOBC' context, this effect is expected to be different. Hence, for the underlying context, it is argued that individuals who are less agreeable engage less in FHOBCs as they do not appreciate comments and contributions from peers, and they also do not like to share experiences to help peers (Schnell & Becker, 2006). The following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Disagreeableness is negatively related to online consumer engagement.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness represents the degree of orderliness, organisation, and precision (Brown et al., 2002) demonstrated by an individual, but it also refers to work ethics and thoroughness (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). Hence, a higher degree of conscientiousness produces a more organised and cautious person. Interpersonal relationships are less important for such individuals (Tsao, 2013), who are more inclined to focus on meeting deadlines and discharge their obligations (Ross et al., 2009). Therefore, this study argues that conscientious individuals use the internet more for the improvement of work skills rather than for building

relationships with peers in a FHOBC (Tsao, 2013). The internet may appeal more to less conscientious individuals as rules and policies seem to be absent from it (Kiesler, Siegal, & McGuire, 1984; King, 1999; Landers & Lounsbury, 2006). Conscientious individuals may choose to meet belonging needs offline as they tend to be more cautious of the internet due to privacy issues. Moreover, conscientious individuals may perceive the act of engaging in a FHOBC as a distraction from more important tasks (Butt & Phillips, 2008). This argument is in line with past studies in similar contexts that have found evidence of a negative correlation between the personality trait conscientiousness, and the amount of time spent on Facebook (Amichai-Hamburger & Ben-Artzi, 2000; Ryan & Xenos, 2011; Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010). Thus, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H3: Conscientiousness is negatively related to online consumer engagement.

Openness to experiences

Human beings who are open-minded about experiences have more curiosity as well as imagination, and are more flexible in their thinking (Madjar, 2008; McCrae & Costa, 1991). Moreover, they seek novelty (McCrae & Costa, 1987), are more changeable, and less prone to prejudices (McCrae & Costa, 1991). Individuals who have higher levels of openness to experiences are more likely to have a broader range of interests and, therefore, also pursue those interests through a much wider variety of means (Butt & Phillips, 2008). Additionally, individuals scoring high on openness to experiences tend to seek more information (McElroy et al., 2007). The more open a person is to experiences the more broad-minded and tolerant s/he is to various views. Hence, such a person will seek more opportunities to learn something new (McCrae & Costa, 1991), and will thus be more motivated to engage online. It has also been revealed in previous studies, that individuals who are more open to experiences have a greater tendency to be sociable via Facebook, and to use other social media more readily than individuals who are less open (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Correa, et al., 2010; Ross et al., 2009). Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

H4: Openness to experiences is positively related to online consumer engagement.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism refers to the extent to which the emotions of an individual vary (Brown et al., 2002). If a person has a high level of neuroticism he or she is less able to deal with stress (McCrae & Costa, 1991). Neurotic people seem easily frustrated and hopeless (McCrae & Costa, 1991). Anxiety is present when the person is not in his or her familiar surroundings and they are more likely to experience depression or irritability (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Suls et al., 1998).

Individuals that have a high level of neuroticism easily feel ridiculed by others (interpersonal relationship-wise). Hence, this is often linked to an inferiority complex (McCrae & Costa, 1991). Individuals with a high level of neuroticism are more likely to control the information they share online (Butt & Phillips, 2008). Therefore, it could be argued that individuals with high levels of neuroticism will not engage as much in FHOBCs as they are less open to sharing information about themselves and their personal situations (Butt & Phillips, 2008). Moreover, individuals high in neuroticism might be more likely to avoid the internet (Tuten & Bosnjak, 2001). That said, there is no empirical evidence to support such arguments.

Interestingly, a new stream of research has been evolving that leads to the argument that neuroticism could be positively related to online consumer engagement. The new theory is referred to as the Loneliness Theory, and it argues that individuals scoring high on neuroticism use the internet on a frequent basis in order to avoid loneliness. This theory is supported by various research findings (Amichai-Hamburger & Ben-Artzi, 2003; Butt & Phillips, 2008; Correa et al., 2010; Hughes, Rowe, & Lee, 2012; Ryan & Xenos, 2011). Hence, this study argues that individuals scoring high on neuroticism engage in more FHOBCs than do individuals scoring low on neuroticism. This is due to an appreciation of the community and a decrease in feeling of loneliness (Malone, Pillow, & Osman, 2012). Individuals high in neuroticism may search for acceptance and social contact through FHOBCs (Malone et al., 2012), as these present opportunities to connect with others, and find support for circumstances which they do not want to discuss with others in an offline environment, possibly because they feel they would burden those people (Judge et al., 2011). In this study, because of the reasons outlined it is proposed that:

H5: Neuroticism is positively related to online consumer engagement.

Need for activity

Need for activity is the enduring motive to be doing something on a continuous basis (Mowen & Sujan, 2005). Individuals who have a high need for activity have the desire to keep busy all the time and stay active (Licata et al., 2003). One can argue that a consumer who is highly engaged in interactive experiences that go beyond transactions (Brodie et al., 2011; Verhoef et al., 2010; Vivek et al., 2012) might also be continually very active and busy. Hence, in the underlying research it is argued that need for activity may also predict online consumer engagement as people with a higher need for activity may be more motivated to engage online even after a long working day in order to satisfy their needs for activity. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: Need for activity is positively related to online consumer engagement.

Need for learning

Need for learning can be defined as a motivating factor, which leads individuals to obtain information and be engaged in a high-level information process (Mowen, 2000). Through this need, a deep understanding of the entire environment can be developed (Mowen, 2000), as it has the power to inspire individuals to increase their knowledge and thus experience the enjoyment of learning new things (Harris et al., 2005). Need for learning is important for this study as many consumers may join a FHOBC to obtain information (new knowledge) from peers (see Harris et al., 2005). Additionally, consumers like to obtain information from a company itself about its latest products and/or services. Individuals with this need always want to be up to date. Hence, based on the previous arguments, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H7: Need for learning is positively related to online consumer engagement.

Altruism

Altruism may be regarded as a personality trait (Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981) and is defined as the general predisposition to selflessly seek to help others (Mowen & Sujan, 2005). Some individuals are simply more generous, more helpful, and more kind than others, and several studies have demonstrated that these people are perceived as more altruistic in nature (Dlugokinski & Firestone, 1973; Rutherford & Mussen, 1968). Consumer engagement behaviour can include the willingness to help other consumers, for example in terms of word-of-mouth or through feedback (Verleye et al., 2013). Hence, this study proposes that individuals engage online because they enjoy helping others, which consequently means that altruism can be related to online consumer engagement. Therefore, it is proposed that:

H8: Altruism is positively related to online consumer engagement.

6.5.2 Personal Values as a Moderator of the Relationship between Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

Several studies have integrated culture as a moderator in different forms and contexts. Researchers have used culture moderators such as psychic distance (e.g. Ellis, 2008), cultural values namely individualism/collectivism (e.g. Diener et al., 1995; Probst & Lawler, 2006), power distance (e.g. Farh et al., 2007; Robie et al., 1998), traditionality (e.g. Farh et al., 2007), uncertainty avoidance and time orientation (e.g. Bartikowski et al., 2011), and culture of origin (e.g. Waxin, 2004). Based on the literature review, the present study is the first one employing the short version of Schwartz's personal values as a moderator. Most of the studies reviewed used one or two of Hofstede's dimensions as moderators for their research. This one includes Schwartz' personal values as a moderator since Hofstede's five dimensions have been widely criticised (Chow et al., 1994; Evans & Mavondo, 2002; Evans, Treadgold, & Mavondo, 2000; Kim & Gray, 2009; McSweeney, 2002; Schwartz, 1999) and therefore, a more current and less criticised construct is employed (Ng et al., 2007; Steenkamp, 2001). Moreover, for this study it is important to be able to measure these values on an individual basis, which is only possible using Schwartz's personal values version. This is due to the fact that other constructs refer to national cultural values. Hence, the 10-item short version

questionnaire, which was tested in terms of reliability and validity, provides a brief, reliable and valid measure of what people value in their lives (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005).

The idea that personal values moderate the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is appealing as values are concepts that guide behaviour (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Roccas et al., 2002; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Clearly, there may be individuals who possess a specific personality trait that is positively related to online consumer engagement, but equally, the orientation towards online consumer engagement might result from personal values, thereby implying that the strength of the relationship between the two variables (personality traits and online consumer engagement) might be dependent on a third variable - personal values. And obviously, there is room for variation in this respect as individuals born in different countries may have learned different customs, traditions or rules all of which are embedded in their religious or family beliefs, and these may influence their online engagement. That said, even within the same country (same cultural context), there can be substantial variation among individuals in the intensity with which they adhere to such rules and customs. Hence, individual differences brought about by culture and subculture, might particularly affect the strength of the suggested relationship. This view echoes that proposed by recent researchers (Bolton, 2011; Wirtz et al., 2013), who believe it is important to support investigations into personality characteristics and cultural differences as antecedents of online consumer engagement (Hollebeek, 2011a; Sung et al., 2010; Wirtz et al., 2013). Furthermore, previous studies have confirmed a correlation between cultural values and the Big Five personality traits (Olver & Mooradian, 2003; Roccas et al., 2002; Vecchione et al., 2012), and cultural values and consumer behaviour (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kim et al., 2002; Vinson, Scott, & Lamont, 1977).

The following argument and supporting studies indicate the important role of personal values and justify their use as a moderator in this study. Hence, the central proposition of the study is that personal values moderate the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement behaviour, as expressed in the following hypothesis:

H9a-p: Personal values (Conservation/Self-enhancement) moderate the relationship between personality traits (extraversion, disagreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experiences, neuroticism, need for activity, need for learning, altruism) and online consumer engagement.

6.5.3 Online Consumer Engagement and Consumer-perceived Value

Many individuals experience the online world as an alternative to real life in terms of communication, social, and transactional activities (Seraj, 2012). Research has showcased that people spend more than 20% of their time nowadays visiting social networking sites (Seraj, 2012). The number of online communities has mushroomed and many organisations have realised the power of online interactive communities (Porter, Devaraj, & Sun, 2013). Some online communities may have more visitors than others or might be more successful, and others are eventually abandoned. Hence, engagement might be linked to a value perception held by the consumer, which makes the difference between successful and failing online brand communities (Hollebeek, 2013; Seraj, 2012).

Value can be seen as a jointly-created phenomenon emerging through interaction (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). If an individual is highly engaged, s/he will derive intrinsic and extrinsic value from her/his focus on the engagement (Vivek et al., 2012). Value can result from engaging online as consumers' motivations to engage depend on the values they expect to receive (Hollebeek, 2013). The FHOBC serves as a value creation configuration. This study argues that different types of value exist whilst engaging online. For example, if an individual shapes the responses of others due to her/his engagement online, this might be perceived as social value. Altruistic value can occur if the purpose of individuals engaging online is to help peers, since this involves doing something for the sake of others, and is underpinned by a concern about how others will react or how they will be affected (Holbrook, 1999). Efficiency involves value that results from the active use of a FHOBC platform. Members may feel that the relevance of the content of the FHOBC is high or that it is easy to use. Excellence (quality) involves a reactive appreciation of the experience of engaging online that has the potential ability to be able to serve as an extrinsic mean. Value can be generated, for example, through high quality discussion in the community (Holbrook, 1999). A hedonic value like play arises from an individual's own pleasure of engaging online; it may make members feel happy or delighted and gives them pleasure (Holbrook, 2006). Play may involve fun and characterises the intrinsically-oriented side like the value aesthetics (Holbrook, 1999). Aesthetic value can occur when aesthetic aspects of the FHOBC lead to value creation, examples being easy-to-use layout or an attractive design. Moreover, value can occur when the self-confidence or the appearance of an individual increases because of being a member of a FHOBC.

Previous studies have theoretically hypothesised a relationship between online brand community practices and consumer value (Misra, Mukherjee, & Peterson, 2008; Porter et al., 2013; Schau et al., 2009; Seraj, 2012). The former argument is further supported by theoretical propositions stating that online consumer engagement might be related to value creation (Higgins & Scholer, 2009; Hollebeek, 2013; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010a). Notwithstanding, no empirical research has investigated these hypothesised relationships (Hollebeek, 2013). This study hypothesises that positively valenced online consumer engagement, comprised of three dimensions (cognitive, emotional, and behavioural) is positively related to consumer-perceived value, comprised of six types of value (social value, play, excellence, efficiency, aesthetic value, and altruistic value).

H10a-f: Positively valenced online consumer engagement is positively related to consumer-perceived value (Social Value, Play, Excellence, Efficiency, Aesthetic Value and Altruistic Value).

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the conceptual framework employed within the study, and shown how this is based on the literature reviewed in the previous chapters. The hypotheses have been developed according to that literature and their construction has been shown to derive logically from that. Hypotheses 1 to 8 refer to personality traits as antecedents of online consumer engagement, hypotheses 9a-p investigate the moderating role played by personal values in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement, and hypotheses 10a-f concern the relationship between the different types of consumer-perceived value and online consumer engagement.

The theoretical underpinning of these hypotheses is anchored in the following bodies of literature: personality traits, online consumer engagement, culture/cultural and personal values and consumer-perceived value. The theories that underlie the framework are the Big Five personality factor theory, consumer value theory, and contingency theory. Based on the synergy of the mentioned bodies of literature, the hypotheses have been developed. Hypotheses 1-5 have been theoretically proposed and empirically tested in similar contexts such as social media usage or information seeking, but not for consumer engagement in online brand communities. The additional personality traits described in hypotheses 6-8 have

not been proposed nor been empirically investigated thus far. Hypotheses 9a-p have not been theoretically proposed nor empirically tested, whereas hypotheses 10a-f have only been very generally theoretically proposed. Notwithstanding, the concepts of online consumer engagement and consumer-perceived value have not been specified or defined in terms of construct or dimensions in these propositions. Table 6.1 shows a summary of the proposed hypotheses and the next chapter embeds the study into a context and deals with the methodological approach adopted to operationalise it.

Table 6.1: Summary of Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses	
H1 (New in FHOBC context)	Extraversion is <u>positively</u> related to OCE .
H2 (New in FHOBC context)	Disagreeableness is <u>negatively</u> related to OCE .
H3 (New in FHOBC context)	Conscientiousness is <u>negatively</u> related to OCE .
H4 (New in FHOBC context)	Openness to experiences is <u>positively</u> related to OCE .
H5 (New in FHOBC context)	Neuroticism is <u>positively</u> related to OCE .
H6 (New)	Need for activity is <u>positively</u> related to OCE .
H7 (New)	Need for learning is <u>positively</u> related to OCE .
H8 (New)	Altruism is <u>positively</u> related to OCE .
H9a-p (New)	Personal values (Conservation/Self-enhancement) <u>moderate</u> the relationship between Personality traits (Extraversion, Disagreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness to experiences, Neuroticism, Need for activity, Need for learning, Altruism) and OCE .
H10a-f (New)	Positively valenced OCE is <u>positively</u> related to Consumer-perceived value (Social value, Play, Excellence, Efficiency, Aesthetic Value and Altruistic Value).

CHAPTER 7: METHODOLOGY

7.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the methodology used in order to test the conceptual framework introduced in Chapter 6. Section 7.2 explains the underlying research philosophy, and Section 7.3 describes the research design including the research setting and the unit of analysis within the study. The research setting is FHOBCs and the unit of analysis is consumer engagement within these. Section 7.4 describes the development of the survey instrument. Section 7.5 deals with the two preliminary exploratory studies that have been conducted, and Section 7.6 deals with the pre-test of the survey instrument. In Section 7.7 details of how the survey was administered are presented, and in Section 7.8, the data analysis process is described. Finally, in Section 7.9, a brief summary of the chapter is offered.

7.2 Research Philosophy

Every research project is guided by a research paradigm, which is a framework that is used as a guideline when conducting a research project (Collis & Hussey, 2009). This paradigm represents a fundamental belief of how the world operates, and as noted by Soley and Smith (2008), it leads to the use of specific methods within the research project. One can differentiate between two main research paradigms, these being: positivism and interpretivism. Positivism is based on realism whereas interpretivism is founded on idealism (Collis & Hussey, 2009). It is extremely important for a researcher to have a view as to how the world operates, and hence, how reality is constructed, and this view (referred to as ontology) differentiates the two paradigms just mentioned into objective and subjective ways of perceiving the world/reality. Positivism is seen as presenting an objective approach, whereas interpretivism is assumed to be subjective (Weber, 2004). Having decided what the 'reality' of any particular situation is, the researcher must then consider what interaction s/he might have with that reality, and this is known as epistemology (i.e. how one finds what the reality is). The chosen methodology is, therefore, the avenue to that interaction (Gill & Johnson, 2010). In terms of epistemology the researcher is independent when adopting a positivist approach, and works under the assumption that an objective reality exists beyond

the human mind of an individual (Weber, 2004). In the interpretivist approach the researcher is subjective, interacting with research participants to determine how their knowledge of the world is constituted through their lived experiences. One of these two different stances is chosen intentionally by the researcher (Collis & Hussey, 2009). The process of the positivist approach is deductive, the research is context-free and the design is static. In contrast, the process for the interpretivist approach is inductive, the research is context-bound and the design is emerging. In the positivist approach, statistical testing of theory leads to confirmations and greater understandings as the results are considered to be reliable and accurate in terms of validity and reliability. Conversely, in the interpretivist approach patterns are developed from the data and from these an understanding is developed, which is verified through measures employed to ensure validity and reliability of the findings (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

The positivist researcher is concerned with the reliability of his/her observations and the replicability of the research undertaken, as well as with the generalisability of the findings (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The main purpose of the positivist approach is that of hypothesis generation, which is linked to the hypothetico deductive approach. This method was first articulated by Karl Popper (Lee & Lings, 2008), and begins with a theory from which hypotheses are derived. Hence, a study starts with generally-established principles and assumptions and then proceeds to develop into statements about how the world actually works or what it looks like, a process which is referred to as deductive reasoning. The hypotheses derived are tested by collecting sufficient data to either reject or support, and hence verify or reject the theory (Lee & McIntyre, 1994). A positivist approach thus has the advantage of its results being generalisable as indicated before (Saunders et al., 2009). Interpretivists, however, do not pursue the goal of objectivity. Rather, they try to understand what individuals have in their minds when making sense of the world, and this obviously involves subjectivity that is missing in the positivist approach. In between these two major research paradigms, one can find other research philosophies such as pragmatism and critical realism. Pragmatists believe that both objective and subjective research can promote useful insights and knowledge, and that it really depends upon the nature of the research question which avenue to take (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Pragmatists believe the truth as it stands at the moment is just that, it is tentative as they see it as being purely provisional. Critical realism accepts the notion that there are phenomena that cannot be observed and measured directly, that there is

therefore a need to interpret these phenomena. This method often uses triangulation (multiple methods) to counteract flawed methods and researcher bias (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

The research paradigm guides the researcher in choosing the best way to secure the information to answer the research question, and thus it is based on the researcher's own argument (Weber, 2004). This implies that the researcher should ignore the rhetoric attached to the two major research paradigms of interpretivism and positivism, and take the main objective of the research, which is to improve knowledge, as the steer – choosing the approach which will best provide the answers to the questions.

Based on these thoughts, the present study is underpinned by a positivist approach, as several theories (e.g. Big Five personality factor theory, consumer value theory) were used to develop the research model, and the qualitative studies were used simply to support the model and its underlying hypotheses. The coding and the analysis of the qualitative study were also built on concepts and measurement scales in the literature, thus being guided by theory. Moreover, a second preliminary exploratory study was necessary in order to adapt the measurement items of consumer-perceived value to the context of a FHOBC. Based on these reasons and on the fact that the main study is quantitative in nature, a positivist stance making use of deduction are selected (Collis & Hussey, 2009). The study follows the research design adopted by Bart et al. (2005), who used an initial exploratory analysis followed by a survey as the main study, and then tested the research hypotheses using a mixed-methods research design in order to assure objectivity, precision, and rigour of the study. The next section of the chapter further defines the design of the main quantitative study.

7.3 Research Design

This section describes the design of the main quantitative study. The two preliminary exploratory studies are further explained in Section 7.5.

7.3.1 Research Setting

The study is conducted in two FHOBCs, one being concerned with the customer service support of a major German telecommunications provider, and the other a leading social media brand community (Statistica, 2015). The German FHOBC for customer support currently has

492,051 members, and the leading firm-hosted social media brand community 'Facebook' currently has 1.71 billion members.

Both communities can be summarised under the umbrella term of FHOBC, which is defined as follows:

A firm-hosted online brand community (FHOBC) can be referred to as a non-geographically bound community formed in cyberspace based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a focal brand, a shared consumption practice, a common interest, experience, emotion or passion (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001; Wirtz et al., 2013). It is a social entity that not only connects the brand to consumers or users but also consumers to consumers or users to users (Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001; Wirtz et al., 2013). The community is set up by the company (B2C) but is sustained by the engagement of its consumers or users (Fournier & Lee, 2009; Muñiz & O'Guinn, 2001; Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2007). Content that is central to consumers' or users' interests is constantly and collectively co-created and consumed and peer-to-peer problem solving is enabled (Harwood & Garry, 2010; McAlexander et al., 2002; Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2007).

The FHOBC for customer-service support of a German telecommunications provider is a well-established community focusing on customer service support. However, it is much more than a question and answer community where community managers respond to users questions. The community is known for engaged members that are heavily involved in creating content and helping others in relation to product specific questions. Thus, the engagement within the community is not only based on a brand manager – consumer/user basis but also on a consumer – consumer basis as individuals with the same interests connect in the community. Not every company is aware of the huge potential these communities have. Therefore, a German telecommunications company was chosen, as it is important for this study to focus on a company that is aware of the potential of online brand communities. The chosen company has realised that FHOBCs are not, as they are often perceived, only a marketing or customer support objective, but a business strategy that is demanding authenticity as a pre-requisite. In establishing a FHOBC, a brand can look to grow and evolve with the expectations and perceived-value of its most valuable customers or users (Chan & Li, 2010; Woisetschläger et al., 2008). Technology companies have been the first companies to actually implement FHOBCs (DiMauro, 2014) and are, therefore, a good choice as they are already well-established rather than still being in their early stages of such development.

Moreover, the leading firm-hosted social media brand community ‘Facebook’ is chosen as the focus for studying consumer engagement as this platform engages billions of users on a daily basis and has been doing so for more than 10 years already. Facebook might not be seen as a classic FHOBC. However, it hosts several brand related online brand communities or brand pages set up by different companies. These Facebook-based online brand communities have been the focus of the preliminary qualitative study. Moreover, Facebook itself has developed to a brand on its own and can therefore be considered as a firm-hosted online brand community. Facebook as a FHOBC on its own has been selected for the main quantitative study, which focuses on two distinct FHOBCs. The focus on two distinct FHOBCs distinguishes this study from other recent studies that test the newly developed OCE scale as these studies give participants the opportunity to choose any Facebook-based online brand community (Islam et al, 2017a; Islam et al., 2017b). The firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook has indeed become a significant part of daily life for 1.71 billion people worldwide and is therefore a powerful research tool as it allows easy access to large and diverse samples. The accessibility in combination with the other strengths mentioned earlier makes it a reasonable choice. This is also based on the statistic background of the study as according to Hair et al. (2009) this study needs at least 475 usable questionnaires (5-10 observations per each item in the questionnaire) to allow reliable, valid and accurate results. These sample size requirements are discussed in Chapter 7.7.1.

Both communities are FHOBCs and both provide a rich environment for studying consumer engagement, as members are heavily involved in co-creating content and keeping the community alive. Both communities are used by members to stay connected with friends, family or people with similar interests, and to discover the latest news about products or the world. Moreover, users share and express what matters to them and specific issues they might experience are solved within the community (Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2007).

7.3.2 Unit of Analysis and Sampling Frame

The unit of analysis for this study is the individual user who is a member of at least one of the selected FHOBCs. The choice of the individual user as the unit of analysis is in line with research that claims that the individual is the most frequent unit of analysis in social studies (Corbetta, 2003). The only criterion for participating in this research project is, therefore, membership of at least one of the FHOBCs selected.

The conceptual framework and the research topic to some extent dictate the choice of the user as the unit of analysis of the study. The sampling frame comprises FHOBs, which can be differentiated from non-FHOBs. The latter are established by the consumers/users rather than the firm itself (Ouwensloot & Odekerken-Schröder, 2008). Both of the communities chosen are established by the firms and sustained by the engagement of the users. The next section deals with the development of the survey instrument for this study.

7.4 Development of the Survey Instrument

7.4.1 Literature Review and Measurement Scales

The measurement scales for this study's concepts are based on an extensive review of instruments that have been used in previous research that has focused on four main areas: personality traits, culture, cultural and personal values, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value. For three of the four concepts, scales drawn from the extant literature can be used. Parts of the consumer-perceived value scale had to be adapted and validated for the present context in exploratory interviews.

Short item scales are employed when available in order to balance high quality data with the need to employ a short questionnaire in order to encourage sufficient participation in the study (Singh, Goolsby, & Rhoades, 1994). For all constructs 7-point scales are employed. The respondents show the extent of their agreement with the items of personality traits, on a 7-point scale anchored in "never" (1) to "always" (7) (Licata et al., 2003). The items for personal values are measured using a 7-point scale ranging from "very unimportant" (1) to "very important" (7). The items for online consumer engagement are assessed using a 7-point scale anchored in "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). The consumer-perceived value construct is measured following Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) and Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), using a 7-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). The choice of 7-point scales to measure the constructs in the current study is made as such a scale overcomes the issue of participants being reluctant to choose extremes, and being too neutral in their responses. Additionally, the use of 7-point scales optimises reliability (Alwin, 1997; Field, 2013).

In the following section the four concepts are defined and their operationalisation is presented.

7.4.1.1 Personality Traits

The Big Five personality traits, and additionally the need for learning, altruism, and need for activity, provide an appropriate account of an individual's personality for the present context. The additional traits are chosen due to the fact that they offer a more comprehensive and detailed list of personality traits (Brown et al., 2002; Mowen & Sujan, 2005). The consumers rate how they see themselves on a 7-point scale anchored in "never" (7) to "always" (1). The question is "how often do you act this way?". A sample item is: "I prefer to be alone rather than in a large group". Another question is: "How often do you feel this way?". A sample item is: "I feel more self-conscious than others". The Big Five have provided the framework for numerous studies to show the validity of the traits as predictors of human behaviour (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990). One can also find evidence of cross-cultural replicability and generalisability of the Big Five (Paunonen et al., 1992; Stumpf, 1993).

There are many measurement instruments for assessing the traits of the Big Five factor model. They start with the Personality Inventory NEO (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experiences) that was later developed into the Revised Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R), which can be described as the standard questionnaire measure of the five-factor model (Cattell, 1956). The NEO-PI-R comprises a 240-item scale self-report questionnaire and offers participants five response choices ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Each of the five dimensions comprises forty-eight items (Costa et al., 1991; Haigler & Widiger, 2001). The model by Costa and McCrae has been justified by a large amount of research (Costa & McCrae, 1976, 1992a; Costa et al., 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1986, 1987, 1991), and in addition it forms the basis of a measurement scale that is widely used and mentioned (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). Due to the fact that the NEO-PI-R is very comprehensive, Furnham et al. (2005) used a 60-item NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) in which each factor is assessed with twelve items. There is the possibility of using shorter scales but this is only recommendable if personality is not the main focus of the research. One can find research using a total of five, ten or twenty items instead of the 240 items in the full NEO-PI-R scale. Donnellan et al. (2006) use a 20-item short scale of the 50-item International

Personality Item Pool (IPIP) to measure the Five Factor Model. The mini IPIP scale comprises four items for every dimension. Rammstedt and John (2007) abbreviated the Big Five Inventory including forty-four items, to a 10-item scale. Effect sizes have surely been lower but have been proven to be still sufficient for research with limited time constraints.

In this study, the scales chosen have forty-four items in total including not only the measurement scales for the Big Five, but also scales for the additional traits mentioned earlier. The scales chosen offer a good alternative to the scales mentioned, as they balance the demands of reliability and validity with the demand for questionnaire brevity, and the characteristics of the scale still capture an individual's personality well (Credé & Harms, 2012). The Big Five measurement scale is taken from Mowen and Spears (1999), need for learning and altruism from Mowen and Sujan (2005), and need for activity from Licata et al. (2003).

The coefficient-alphas (Cronbach, 1951) for the reduced scale taken from Mowen and Spears (1999) all exceed the 0.80 mark except for intraversion which shows an acceptable reliability of 0.78. Neuroticism has an excellent reliability with 0.90. Disagreeableness has a good reliability of 0.80 as does conscientiousness with a reliability of 0.82, and openness to experiences with a reliability of 0.82. The need for learning scale shows excellent reliability (0.91) and the altruism scale a thoroughly good reliability (0.82). Both scales are taken from Mowen and Sujan (2005). Need for activity is taken from Licata et al. (2003) and also shows a good reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. The scales for disagreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experiences each have six items, intraversion and neuroticism have seven items, and need for learning, need for activity, and altruism have four items respectively.

7.4.1.2 Personal Values

Values describe what is fundamentally important to a person, their beliefs, goals and guiding standards (Vecchione et al., 2012). According to Schwartz (1999), one has to distinguish between cultural level value dimensions and individual level value dimensions. Hence, the unit of analysis is a cultural group or society in contrast to the individual level value dimension where the unit of analysis is the individual person. For the present study the unit of analysis is the individual person. Consequently, the personal values construct of Schwartz (1999) is chosen as it is the most commonly used method in recent value research (Lindeman

& Verkasalo, 2005). Schwartz's value survey (SVS) is based on Schwartz's value theory, which states that fifty-seven items of the survey stand for ten motivational values that are theoretically derived from the general requirements of human life. Hence, one can find ten basic human values (Schwartz, 1992). These ten personal values are power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, conformity, tradition, and security (Schwartz, 1992). Research in more than seventy countries and more than 270 samples has supported this survey's validity and showed evidence that it summarises all basic values across cultures (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004) .

In the original SVS, respondents have to rate fifty-seven items in terms of how important these are to them. The respondent's life-guiding principles are rated on a 9-point rating scale ranging from 0 "opposed to my principles" to 1 "not important" to 4 "important" to 8 "of supreme importance" (Schwartz, 1992). One can find two versions of an even shorter 10-item version namely the Schwartz World Value Survey version (WVS) and the short Schwartz value survey (SSVS). The Schwartz WVS version is a 10-item version that was first included in the World Value Survey in 2005-2007. The items for the WVS are measured using a 6-point scale ranging from 1 "not at all like me" to 6 "very much like me" but no reliability figures are reported for the WVS scale. The other option is the short Schwartz Value Survey (SSVS) used by Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005). An examination of four studies demonstrated the reliability and validity of the short scale, with ten items. The 10-item scale provides a practical alternative to the original 57-item scale and is more appropriate for this study as personal values are referred to as a moderator and a combination with other instruments is necessary in order to address the research question. Hence, the 10-item measure provides a brief summary of what people value in their lives. The ten different values are presented to respondents, in the following format: "the importance of achievement that is capability, success, ambition and the influence on people" (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005, p. 172). They are asked to rate the ten values as life-guiding principles on a 9-point scale, which ranges from 0 "opposed to my principles", to 1 "not important", to 4 "important" to 8 "of supreme importance" (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). Notwithstanding, this study uses a 7-point scale for all four constructs in order to maintain consistency ranging from 1 "very unimportant" to 7 "very important". One item is used for each of the ten values. The scores of the ten values load on two dimensions: self-transcendence vs. self-enhancement, and conservation vs. openness to change. The general reliability coefficient (GRC) is a statistical method to assess reliability of composite scales (Tarkkonen & Vehkalahti, 2003). While

Cronbach's alpha and GRC have the same reliability definition, GRC applies a more general framework and modeling definition and is thus considered more reliable than a pure Cronbach's alpha approach (Tarkkonen & Vehkalahti, 2003). The GRC for conservation is 0.78 and the GRC for self-transcendence is 0.72 whereas the Cronbach's alpha is 0.60 and 0.58. The advantage of the GRC is that it reports exact internal consistency and it does not assume equal correlations and variances. Moreover, a coefficient of congruence of 0.96 shows a very high similarity between the SSVS and the original SVS, which shows that the Cronbach's alpha might underestimate the true reliability of the SVS measurement scale (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005).

7.4.1.3 Online Consumer Engagement

The majority of research into the concept of online consumer engagement is exploratory in nature. One can find two options worthy of consideration in respect of measuring online consumer engagement in the literature. The measurement scale developed by Calder et al. (2009), and that of Hollebeek et al. (2014), which differ conceptually from each other. The model of Hollebeek et al. (2014) reflects online consumer engagement with a specific brand and comprises the three dimensions (cognitive, emotional, behavioural) proposed by Brodie et al. (2013). Keeping in mind that many once unknown online communities have become brands in their own right over time, Hollebeek et al. (2014) use a more parsimonious measurement scale which only comprises ten items (embracing three dimensions) whereas Calder et al. (2009) use eight dimensions comprising thirty-seven items in total. Online consumer engagement is only seen as a second order construct in the measurement scale of Calder et al. (2009) whereas it is a first order construct in the study of Hollebeek et al. (2014), which is also in line with the definition of online consumer engagement for the present study. These facts lead to the conclusion that Hollebeek et al. (2014) developed a short but reliable and valid 10-item scale to measure consumer engagement as a first order construct employing exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

The consumer brand engagement (CBE) scale was developed and validated for specific social media settings (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn), but Hollebeek et al. (2014) clearly state that the scale was developed with the view in mind of it having applicability across a range of settings and brands. Future research should, therefore, validate the consumer brand engagement scale across a range of other online contexts. This study follows that suggestion

and uses the scale for a firm-hosted social media brand community setting as well as a FHOBC for customer service support.

The overall reliability of the Hollebeek et al. (2014) scale is excellent, showing a Cronbach's alpha of 0.933. The reliability for the individual scales, namely cognitive (0.825), emotional (0.907), and behavioural (0.894) all exceed the 0.80 mark. These mentioned findings also suggest convergent validity for the scale. Moreover, an examination of the average variance extracted statistics shows that two of the three online consumer engagement dimensions show discriminant validity. Based on the recommendation of Bagozzi and Phillips (1982), the scale was re-estimated using a two-factor model as well as an alternative two-factor model (cognitive combined with emotional and cognitive combined with behavioural). However, this alternative model presented a worse fit than the three-factor solution, suggesting the three-factor scale to be a valid, reliable and stable measurement instrument. The cognitive and behavioural dimensions comprise three items respectively, and the emotional dimension four items. Two items have been added to the cognitive and behavioural dimension respectively whereas one additional item was added to the emotional scale in the exploratory interviews, which is explained in Section 7.5.

7.4.1.4 Consumer-perceived Value

Holbrook (1999, p. 5) defines consumer value as “an interactive, relativistic preference experience”. Eight value types occur which can be summarised into four categories namely economic value (efficiency, excellence), social value (status, esteem), hedonic value (play, aesthetics), and altruistic value (ethics, spirituality).

According to Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) and Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009), the approach of Holbrook (1999) is the most comprehensive as it captures more sources, and also measurement scales exist for most of these values (e.g. Mathwick et al., 2001; Petrick, 2002; Ruiz et al., 2008; Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

Based on these findings, the measurement scales for the present study will be adapted from Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) and Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009). Social value and play are taken from Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014). Excellence, efficiency, and aesthetic value are adapted from Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014), and validated using exploratory interviews.

Altruistic value is adapted from Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) due to the fact that Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) dropped the dimension after their validation process and thus did not measure it.

Cronbach's alphas range from 0.93 to 0.96 across four different samples for the social value scale, from 0.88 to 0.95 across four different samples for the play scale, and from 0.89 to 0.93 for the excellence scale (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). The altruistic measurement scale adapted from Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009) has a good reliability of 0.87. Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) adapted the efficiency scale from Ruiz et al. (2008) which has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.93. The Cronbach's alpha for aesthetic value ranges from 0.88 to 0.95 across three samples. The measurement scales for social value and altruistic value comprise four items, five items for play, excellence, and efficiency, and three items for aesthetic value after adaptation in the exploratory interviews. Table 7.1 summarises the original scales before adaptation, including sources and reliability of the scales of the Big Five personality traits.

Table 7.1: Big Five Measurement Scales

References	Items	Cronbach's alpha
<p>Big Five</p> <p>Mowen and Spears (1999)</p>	<p>How often do you feel/act this way?</p> <p>Intraversion = find pleasure in solitary activities, like to hide their feelings, tend to be less open-minded, less close to others and more suspicious (Evans, 1941; Eysenck, 1991).</p> <p>PTINTRO1: Feel uncomfortable in a group of people. PTINTRO2: Prefer to be alone rather than in a large group. PTINTRO3: Feel bashful more than others. PTINTRO4: Shy. PTINTRO5: Quiet when with people. PTINTRO6: Talkative when with others. (R) PTINTRO7: Withdrawn from others.</p>	<p>n = 304</p> <p>0.78</p>
	<p>Disagreeableness = unfriendly, unco-operative, suspicious, sceptical, and self-interest is first priority, don't care about well-being of other individuals (Eysenck, 1991).</p> <p>PTDIS1: Rude with others. PTDIS2: Harsh when others make a mistake. PTDIS3: Tender-hearted with others. (R) PTDIS4: Sympathic. (R) PTDIS5: Cold to others. PTDIS6: Kind to others. (R)</p>	<p>n = 304</p> <p>0.80</p>
	<p>Conscientiousness = is the degree of orderliness, organisation and precision (Brown et al., 2002) but it also refers to work ethics and thoroughness (Costa & McCrae, 1992a).</p> <p>PTCON1: Careless. PTCON2: Precise. PTCON3: Efficient. PTCON4: Organised. PTCON5: Sloppy. (R) PTCON6: Orderly.</p>	<p>n = 304</p> <p>0.82</p>
	<p>Openness to experiences = more curiosity, more imagination and more flexible in thinking (Madjar, 2008; McCrae & Costa, 1991), seek novelty (McCrae & Costa, 1987), more changeable and less prone to prejudices (McCrae & Costa, 1991).</p> <p>PTOPEN1: Frequently feel highly creative. PTOpen2: Imaginative. PTOpen3: Appreciate art. PTOpen4: Find novel solutions. PTOpen5: More original than others. PTOpen6: Enjoy beauty more than others.</p>	<p>n = 304</p> <p>0.82</p>
	<p>Neuroticism = the extent to which the emotions of an individual vary (Brown et al., 2002), less able to deal with stress (McCrae & Costa, 1991) easily frustrated and hopeless (McCrae & Costa, 1991).</p> <p>PTNEURO1: Moody more than others. PTNEURO2: Temperamental. PTNEURO3: Touchy. PTNEURO4: Envious. PTNEURO5: Emotions go way up and down. PTNEURO6: Testy more than others. PTNEURO7: Jealous.</p>	<p>n = 304</p> <p>0.90</p>

(R) = Reversed item

Table 7.2 shows the measurement scales of the additional personality traits.

Table 7.2: Additional Personality Traits Measurement Scales

References	Items	Cronbach's alpha
<p>Need for learning Mowen and Sujana (2005)</p>	<p>How often do you feel/act this way?</p> <p>Need for learning = a motivating factor, which is leading individuals to obtain information and be engaged in a high-level information process (Mowen, 2000).</p> <p>PTLEARN1: Enjoy learning new things more than others. PTLEARN2: Enjoy working on new ideas. PTLEARN3: Information is my most important resource. PTLEARN4: People consider me as intellectual.</p>	<p>n = 354 0.91</p>
<p>Need for activity Mowen and Sujana (2005)</p>	<p>Need for activity = the enduring motive to be doing something on a continuous basis (Mowen & Sujana, 2005).</p> <p>PTACTIV1: Keep really busy doing things. PTACTIV2: Try to cram as much as possible into a day. PTACTIV3: Extremely active in my daily life. PTACTIV4: Always like to be doing something.</p>	<p>n = 354 0.86</p>
<p>Altruism Mowen and Sujana (2005)</p>	<p>Altruism = the general predisposition to selflessly seek to help others (Mowen & Sujana, 2005).</p> <p>PTALT1: Altruistic. PTALT2: Giving to others. PTALT3: Sacrifice my goals to help others. PTALT4: Selfless in giving time to others.</p>	<p>n = 354 0.82</p>

Table 7.3 shows the measurement scales of the personal values.

Table 7.3: Personal Values Measurement Scales

References	Items	Cronbach's alpha/GRC
<p>Personal values 10-item short version Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005)</p>	<p>SSVS = Ten basic human values: Power, Achievement, Hedonism, Stimulation, Self-direction, Universalism, Benevolence, Tradition, Conformity, and Security.</p> <p>The ten values load on two dimensions: Self-transcendence vs. Self-enhancement, and Conservation vs. Openness to change (Schwartz, 1999).</p> <p>Please rate the importance of the following values in your life:</p> <p>ICVUNIV1: Universalism (broad-mindedness, beauty of nature and arts, social justice, a world at peace, equality, wisdom, unity with nature, environmental protection).</p> <p>ICVBENEV2: Benevolence (helpfulness, honesty, forgiveness, loyalty, responsibility).</p> <p>ICVTRAD3: Tradition (respect for tradition, humbleness, accepting one's position in life, devotion, modesty).</p> <p>ICVCONF4: Conformity (obedience, honouring parents and elders, self-discipline, politeness).</p> <p>ICVSEC5: Security (national security, family security, social order, cleanliness, reciprocation of favours).</p> <p>ICVPOWER6: Power (social power, authority, wealth).</p> <p>ICVACHIEVE7: Achievement (success, capability, ambition, influence on people and events).</p> <p>ICVHEDO8: Hedonism (gratification of desires, enjoyment in life, self-indulgence).</p> <p>ICVSTIMU9: Stimulation (daring, a varied and challenging life, an exciting life).</p> <p>ICVSELFD10: Self-Direction (creativity, freedom, curiosity, independence, choosing one's own goals).</p>	<p>n = 670</p> <p>GRC for Conservation/ Openness to change: 0.78</p> <p>GRC for Self-transcendence/ Self-enhancement: 0.72</p> <p>Cronbach's alpha: 0.60</p> <p>0.58</p>

Table 7.4 summarises the measurement scales for online consumer engagement.

Table 7.4: Online Consumer Engagement Measurement Scales

References	Items	Cronbach's alpha
OCE Hollebeek et al. (2014)	OCE = Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or other members of the community. Costumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional, and/or behavioural dimensions, and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange where other relational concepts are engagement antecedents and/or interactive engagement processes within the brand community (Brodie et al., 2013, p. 107).	Overall CBE scale: 0.933
	Cognitive COG1: Using [FHOBC] gets me to think about [brand]. COG2: I think about [brand] a lot when I'm using it. COG3: Using [FHOBC] stimulates my interest to learn more about [brand].	n = 556 0.825
	Emotional EMO1: I feel very positive when I use [FHOBC]. EMO2: Using [FHOBC] makes me happy. EMO3: I feel good when I use [FHOBC]. EMO4: I'm proud to use [FHOBC].	n = 556 0.907
	Behavioural BEH1: I spend a lot of time using [FHOBC] compared to other [category] FHOBC. BEH2: Whenever I'm using [category], I usually use [FHOBC]. BEH3: [FHOBC] is one of the brands I usually use when I use [category] FHOBC.	n = 556 0.894

Finally, Tables 7.5 and 7.6 summarise the measurement scales of consumer-perceived value.

Table 7.5: Original Consumer-perceived Value Measurement Scales Part I

References	Items	Cronbach's alpha
	Consumer-perceived value = an interactive, relativistic preference experience. It is multidimensional and comprises social value, play, excellence, efficiency, aesthetic value and altruistic value (Holbrook, 1999, p. 5).	
Social Value Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)	Social Value (1. Status: success, impression, management; 2. esteem: reputation, materialism, possessions) This firm-hosted online brand community... SOCIAL1: ...helps me feel accepted. SOCIAL2: ...improves the way I am perceived. SOCIAL3: ...makes a good impression on others. SOCIAL4: ...gives me social approval.	n = 840 Used for 4 products 0.95, Toothpaste 0.96, Soft drink 0.96, DVD 0.93, Day cream
Play Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)	Play (Fun) This firm-hosted online brand community... PLAY1: ...makes me feel good. PLAY2: ...gives me pleasure. PLAY3: ...gives me a sense of joy. PLAY4: ...makes me feel delighted. PLAY5: ...gives me happiness.	n = 840 0.94, Toothpaste 0.95, Soft drink 0.88, DVD 0.95, Day cream

Table 7.6: Original Consumer-perceived Value Measurement Scales Part II

References	Items	Cronbach's alpha
Excellence Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)	Excellence (Quality) EXC1: The quality is excellent. EXC2: One of the best regarding quality. EXC3: High quality product. EXC4: Superior compared to competing products.	n = 840 0.92, Toothpaste 0.93, Soft drink 0.89, DVD 0.91, Day cream
Efficiency Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)	Efficiency (Output/input, convenience) (TP = toothpaste; DC = day cream; SD = soft drink; DVD = DVD player) EFF1: The price is high. (R) EFF2: The effort I to receive X is high. (R) EFF3: This TP/DC/DVD is easy to use. EFF4: Starting up the DVD player requires a lot of time. (R)	n = 800 0.93
Aesthetic value Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014)	Aesthetic value (Beauty) based on laddering interviews: (TP = toothpaste; DC = day cream; SD = soft drink; DVD = DVD player) AEST1: I think I look good by using this TP/DC/SD. AEST2: I think my teeth/skin is beautiful by using this TP/DC. AEST3: I think I have a fresh breath by using this toothpaste. AEST4: I think I have a nice figure by drinking this soft drink. AEST5: I think this DVD player is beautiful. AEST6: This DVD player looks good in my interior. AEST7: This DVD player has a beautiful design. AEST8: This DVD player has a beautiful colour.	n = 800 0.88 Soft drink 0.90 DVD 0.95 Day cream
Altruistic value Sánchez-Fernández et al. (2009)	Altruistic value (1. Ethics: virtue, justice, morality 2. Spirituality: faith, ecstasy, rapture, sacredness, magic) ALT1: Going to this restaurant has an ethical and moral interest for you, as you consider that the products have been ecologically produced. ALT2: The environmental preservation of the restaurant is coherent with your ethical and moral values. ALT3: You feel attracted by the spiritual atmosphere of this restaurant. ALT4: Going to this restaurant has had an ethical and spiritual value for you.	n = 306 0.87

(R) = Reversed item

The next section further evaluates the two preliminary studies conducted.

7.5 Preliminary Exploratory Studies

Two preliminary studies were conducted prior to the main quantitative study. In the first, seventeen exploratory interviews were conducted for the purposes of scale refinement and context adaptation (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). Additionally, the interviewees were asked whether and how they perceived the constructs of personality traits, personal values, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value to be related. In the second preliminary study, twenty-eight exploratory interviews were undertaken to gain a more in-depth understanding of how each of the different measures might relate to online consumer engagement. The results of the two studies yielded support for the proposed conceptual framework and the suggested underlying relationships.

In respect of the first study's intention to refine the scales, the development approach was that of Churchill (1979). Four of the six scales for consumer-perceived value underwent minor modifications for the present context prior to the exploratory interviews. The scales for excellence, efficiency, and aesthetic value (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014) were modified due to different contexts as also was the scale for altruistic value (Sánchez-Fernández et al., 2009). The scales for aesthetic value were modified in a second step due to a request from the telecommunications community. The remaining scales for personality traits, personal values, and online consumer engagement did not require any adaptation for this study but were checked to ensure their comprehensibility.

The exploratory interviews were held with individuals who were capable of understanding the nature of the concepts being measured, that is to say, academics and doctoral researchers in the field of marketing and management. In addition, some members of online brand communities (the actual unit of analysis) were also interviewed. All scales were checked for clarity of meaning, word choice, sentence structure, and comprehensibility of the items used. Moreover, the representativeness of each item in respect of the final construct was also checked (Matsuno, Mentzer, & Rentz, 2000), and each participant was asked about the quality of the construct measurements. Interviewees were invited to read the definition of every construct and the items belonging to it, and were subsequently asked whether the items used were representative of the construct concerned. Additionally, they were asked to point out any item that was unclear or similar in meaning to another item, or difficult to answer. They were, furthermore, asked to add or delete any item they perceived not to be relevant for the present study. The interviews lasted between thirty-five to forty-five minutes and seventeen

interviews were conducted before data saturation was reached (Bertaux, 1981; Morse, 1995). Moreover, the exploratory interviews were also used to ask respondents how they regard the relationship between the constructs of personality traits, personal values, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value; and whether the definitions chosen for the constructs were understandable (Churchill, 1979). The results supported the proposed direction of the relationships. Every single participant perceived the constructs to be somehow related. As a result, clearer and easier-to-understand definitions of, and measurement scales for the constructs emerged. Patterns in participants' responses were identified, and these led to the minor adaptations and context modifications summarised in Appendix 1 for personality traits, and in Appendix 2 for consumer-perceived value. In addition, some items were added (Table 7.7) as patterns in interviewees' comments were found suggesting that certain items had been mentioned several times by different participants. Another question was added in the background section to measure more generic engagement: "How often do you use this firm-hosted online brand community?" This was implemented with a 6-point scale ranging from 'daily' to 'less than once a month'.

Table 7.7: Additional Items

Concept	Items added
Online consumer engagement: Emotional	E5: Using the [FHOBC "X"] makes me feel supported.
Online consumer engagement: Behavioural	B4: I use the [FHOBC "X"] to learn about other consumers' experiences. B5: I use the [FHOBC "X"] to get to know other users.
Consumer-perceived value: Excellence	EXC5: ...is well run.
Consumer-perceived value: Efficiency	EFF5: The information is always up to date.

The online consumer engagement scale changed from three items for the cognitive dimensions to five items. The emotional dimension scale changed from four items to five items. The behavioural dimension scale increased from three items to five items. The development procedure for the consumer-perceived value scale resulted in five items for efficiency, five items for excellence, four items for altruistic value, and another three items for aesthetic value for the final scale. The number of items for the personality traits and personal value did not change. The final set of items was then assessed for content validity and face validity by two academics with extensive knowledge of the relevant literature and scale development. The researcher revised the scales and definitions in accordance with their

comments. Moreover, the exploratory interviews yielded some support for the conceptual framework and the proposed direction of causality for the relationships among the constructs. Table 7.8 shows the revised definitions of the constructs of this study.

Table 7.8: Revised Definitions of the Constructs

Revised Definitions
ONLINE CONSUMER ENGAGEMENT
Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or between consumers. Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange (Brodie et al., 2013, p. 3).
BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS
A trait can be defined as a cross-situational individual difference, which is temporally stable (Ajzen, 2005). Personality traits often reflect what people value, prefer and what motivates them (Harris & Lee, 2004).
The five factor model of personality (Big Five) comprises five core traits namely extraversion/intraversion, agreeableness/disagreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experiences, and neuroticism. These five traits are found to be higher order factors that form human personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990).
PERSONAL VALUES
Values describe what is fundamentally important to a person, their beliefs, goals and guiding standards (Schwartz, 2012). The ten basic personal human values are power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security (Schwartz, 1992). The ten traits are found to be universal (Lindeman and Verkasalo, 2005).
CONSUMER-PERCEIVED VALUE
Consumer-perceived value is an interactive, relativistic preference experience (Holbrook, 1999, p. 8). Eight value types exist which can be subsumed in four categories: economic value (efficiency, excellence), social value (status, esteem), hedonic value (play, aesthetics), and altruistic value (ethics, spirituality) (Holbrook, 1999).

The measurement scales had to be translated into German as the users of one of the FHOBCs are German speaking. The method of back-translation is used as most research is designed for English speaking participants and if it is simply translated into another language, it is highly

likely that measurement error can occur (Liamputtong, 2010). Measurement error can lead to inappropriate translation procedures, insensitivity of items or inappropriate content (Hunt & Bhopal, 2004). The back-translation method is the most common approach to deal with these potential measurement issues (Brislin, 1970). The original English version is translated into German by one set of bilingual persons independently, the doctoral researcher herself and another researcher in the area of Marketing, both native German speakers. When minor inconsistencies or ambiguity in the meaning of the translation of the survey items emerged, these issues were discussed and a conclusion was reached (Brislin, 1970; Vinokurov, Geller, & Martin, 2007). The translation was double checked by one academic and one doctoral researcher in the area of marketing who were capable of understanding the nature of the concept being measured, and whose mother tongue was German. This was done in order to question some words or expressions and suggest alternatives. All suggestions were discussed with the researcher and a solution reached. Discrepancies were discussed until a satisfactory version emerged. The translated version was then back-translated into the original language by another set of bilinguals both of them native English speakers, and almost native German speakers. The researchers were independent and had no knowledge of the questionnaire (Brislin, 1970). Moreover, the survey was pre-tested on the target population of ten participants. A final version emerged resulting from all the iterations explained.

Given the scarcity of research on this study's relationships, the second exploratory study anchored in exploratory qualitative interviews was conducted to provide more support for the conceptual framework and to gain insights into the nature of the proposed relationships and how each of the proposed measures might relate to online consumer engagement. Twenty-eight semi-structured in-depth face-to-face interviews were undertaken with members and non-members of different brand pages of the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook. Respondents were asked to name a Facebook brand page they were a member of and to answer a number of questions relating to that page. The interview process is explained in detail in Section 8.3 of Chapter 8.

7.6 Pre-test of the Survey Instrument

The questionnaire was constructed after an in-depth systematic literature review, and exploratory interviews aimed at securing scale refinement and successful adaptation. After conducting the exploratory interviews, the questionnaire was pre-tested as follows: in the first stage two academics provided feedback on the first draft of the questionnaire. Based on these comments the questionnaire was refined. The second stage comprised a pre-test where five academics with knowledge of the subject area, and five FHOBC members were asked to complete the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher. This pre-test was performed in addition to the exploratory interviews for scale refinement purposes in order to double-check the readability, clarity, and comprehensibility of the final questionnaire (Matsuno et al., 2000). The time to complete the questionnaire was monitored and the data was analysed in order to check for unusual results. The final survey comprises four sections:

Section 1: PART A: YOUR INTERACTION WITH FHOBC

Section 1: PART B: FHOBC

Section 1: PART C: FHOBC

Section 2: PART A: ABOUT YOURSELF

Section 2: PART B: ABOUT YOURSELF

Section 3: BRAND XY TRADITIONAL ADVERTISING (Marker variable)

Section 4: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The German version of the online survey is shown in Appendix 3 and the English version in Appendix 4.

7.7 Administration of the Survey

This section deals with the administration of the questionnaire: the sample size, the data collection procedure, and ethical issues for consideration.

7.7.1 Sample Size

Hair et al. (2009) state that in the ideal case one needs five to ten observations per each item that is included in the conceptual framework. For the personality trait part forty-four items were identified, ten items were identified for personal values, fifteen for online consumer engagement, and twenty-six for the consumer-perceived value. Assuming a total of ninety-five items for the study, there is the need to collect at least 475 usable questionnaires (Hair et al., 2009). However, more observations than this figure may improve accuracy of the study. Both communities were considered as part of the same population.

7.7.2 Data Collection Procedure

The questionnaire was created using the web survey company SurveyMonkey. Once finalised, the questionnaire was uploaded onto the FHOBCs' websites together with an announcement that informed potential users about the research project and its purpose. Members were asked for their co-operation in completing the questionnaire. Additionally, the co-operation of the FHOBC for customer service support was crucial in securing the success of this study, as the company promoted the research in its news feed section situated on the welcome page of the FHOBC. The data collection phase lasted from 9th September 2015 until 22nd January 2016. In total, 391 questionnaires were collected from the firm-hosted social media brand community, and 296 questionnaires from the FHOBC for customer service support. This gave an overall total of 687 online questionnaires.

7.7.3 Ethical Issues

One has to acknowledge the importance and necessity of any ethical concerns that a project may involve. Therefore, the request form for ethical approval by the University of Reading was submitted, and approval was gained before the start of the data collection phase.

Participation in the research project was voluntary, and all participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time, and that their anonymity and privacy was totally assured. In fact, participants were not asked to provide their name or other personal details apart from those that directly related to the study. Hence, it was not possible to draw a conclusion about any participant's identity. But as an extra precaution, the IP address tracking of the online survey was disabled to ensure absolute anonymity. To ensure the responsible

treatment of data, all data is stored on a computer locked with a password to maintain confidentiality. Essentially, the study complied with the criteria for ethical research, they being that all activities involving human participants be conducted with respect to rights, dignity, and welfare of the participants (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

7.8 Data Analysis: The First Steps in Examining the Data

This section summarises the first steps taken to examine the data. It deals with the type of variables, data, and measurement scales, and the data screening. It also provides an overview of multivariate statistical analysis, especially Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Furthermore, the measurement theory, the type of relationships, and the type of constructs are described.

7.8.1 Type of Variables, Type of Data, and Type of Measurement Scales

The model comprises several independent variables (personality traits), a mediating variable (independent and dependent at the same time) (online consumer engagement), a dependent variable (consumer-perceived value), and a moderator (personal values). The moderator might have an effect on the strength on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. A moderator can increase, decrease or change the strength or direction of a relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986). For all the constructs, 7-point likert scales are used as mentioned before. These likert scales are interval measurement scales as they measure opinions and attitudes (Field, 2013). The type of data is metric data (Field, 2013). The control variables age, gender and education are employed as these might potentially influence the dependent variable but are not the main element of analysis (Hair et al., 2007).

7.8.2 Data Screening: An Overview

Once collected, the data were examined using suitable diagrams and univariate descriptive statistics, which show the accuracy of the input like plausible means and standard deviations, out-of-range values, and univariate outliers (Field, 2013). Next, the amount as well as the distribution of missing data were evaluated and outliers identified; where needed these were dealt with and reported. Skewness, kurtosis and probability plots were checked in order to

identify whether the data were normally distributed. Moreover, linearity between variables can be checked using scatterplots (Hair & Black, 2013). Linearity and normally distributed data allow for the use of parametric statistics and metric scales, which are more powerful than non-parametric statistics (Field, 2013). The statistical software package AMOS 21.0 was used based on the findings from the screening (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011a).

7.8.2.1 Missing Data and Incomplete Responses, Speeders, Straight liners, and Outliers

Data can be checked for missing data using Excel (Hair et al., 2009). The deletion of cases is reasonable if the pattern is at random, only a few cases have missing data and these cases have missing data on different variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). There are several imputation techniques for missing data. Techniques for calculating replacement values are, for example, mean substitution and regression imputation. One can also use model-based methods for non-random and random missing data. The mean substitution is very easy to implement and is a good method if there are low levels of missing data. Therefore, for this study this method is chosen as levels of missing data were low and missing data was found to be at random (Hair et al., 2009).

During the data cleaning process one can identify speeders. Speeders can be defined as respondents who took the online survey in an unrealistically short period of time (Clow & James, 2014). A common formula to check for speeders is less than 1/3 of median time of completion. However, outliers in terms of time spent have to be considered and removed before calculating the median. Straight-liners are participants who give similar or identical values to blocks of questions in the questionnaire (Clow & James, 2014). Clicking the same answer for each item is referred to as perfect straight lining. However, it is possible that due to lack of care another option is chosen at least once by accident. Thus, straight-liners can be defined as those who answer in a near-straight line (Clow & James, 2014). Straight-liners can be tested using the standard deviation as the chosen questions of this study vary in terms of positive and negative statements. Thus, varying options are expected. Cases with a standard deviation of 0 can be removed at this stage.

Outliers are observations that include a unique combination that is rather different from other observations, providing values that are well below or above other scores and that can, therefore, distort results (Pallant, 2013). Box-plots can be examined to detect univariate

outliers whereas multivariate outliers can be detected by the Mahalanobis distance measure (Hair et al., 2009). Box-plots show the median, quartiles, and outlying cases of a variable. The default criteria used by SPSS are variables with values of more than three inter-quartile ranges that can be found on the upper or lower edge of the box-plot and can hence be defined as outlying cases. This is in line with the literature that identifies cases with a standard score of three, four or more as outliers for a sample of at least eighty observations (Hair et al., 2009). In a next step, multivariate outliers have to be detected as the literature highlights not to name too many observations as outliers (Hair et al., 2009). Multivariate detection of possible outliers requires a multivariate assessment of each observation. Thus, the Mahalanobis distance measure was used as it gives less weight to variables that have large variances and less weight to groups of variances, which are highly inter-correlated (Hair et al., 2009). In general, it is recommended to use a conservative level such as 0.001 for the threshold value in order to designate outliers (Hair et al., 2009).

7.8.2.2 Normal Distribution

It is important to assume normality for a multivariate analysis. Thus, all variables in the model were assessed in terms of normal distribution. Normality can be assessed using a graphical analysis and two tests of normality. The graphical analysis comprises a visual inspection of the histogram (the shape of the distribution), the normal probability plot, and the detrended normal probability plot, which is good to see variations from normality in terms of kurtosis and skewness. In a second step two tests of normality can be conducted, namely the test of skewness and kurtosis (z-values), and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. Inspecting the graphical analysis is of high importance as the evaluation of skewness and kurtosis might be too sensitive with large samples (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The skewness value provides an indication of the symmetry of the distribution whereas kurtosis provides information about the peakedness of the distribution. A skewness and kurtosis value of 0 indicate that the distribution is normally distributed (Pallant, 2013). However, it is unusual to find perfect normal distribution in real life. Thus, skewness and kurtosis values in the interval of -1 and +1 still indicate univariate normality (Marcoulides & Saunders, 2006). There are remedies to transform non-normal data, for example square root, if the data is negatively skewed, or logarithms if the data is positively skewed or inverse. If no transformation helps and the departure from normality is severe one can try to dichotomise the variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). However, if a scale is meaningful or widely used, the transformation might

hinder its interpretation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Moreover, if all the variables are skewed to about the same extent, the improvements that can be made in terms of transformations are often marginal (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Another option is to leave the data non-normal and use parametric instead of metric tests. However, as indicated before, metric tests are more powerful than non-parametric ones (Field, 2013). Another option is to delete the highly skewed items in order to achieve normal distribution if the sample size and number of items of each scale is large enough (Hair & Black, 2013). The next section gives an overview of the multivariate statistical analysis.

7.8.3 Multivariate Statistical Analysis: An Overview

Multivariate statistical analysis is a simultaneous analysis of multiple variables that is used for measurement as it reduces error by improving reliability, validity, explanation, prediction, and hypotheses testing (Hair et al., 2009). One can distinguish between two broad types of multivariate methods namely dependence and interdependence. Whereas dependence stands for an analysis of dependent and independent variables simultaneously, interdependence stands for a separate analysis of dependent and independent variables. For the multivariate method dependence multiple regression, discriminant analysis and logistic regression, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) can be used. For the multivariate method, interdependence exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and cluster analysis can be used. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) can be used as a method for both directions, dependence and interdependence (Hair et al., 2009). Due to the fact that the model of the present study is rather complex because of multiple moderators and a mediator, it is more linked to interdependence instead of dependence. CFA and SEM are used to analyse the model and are explained in the following section.

7.8.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM): An Overview

One can distinguish between two different kinds of factor analysis, namely exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA is linked to theory development whereas CFA is linked to theory testing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). EFA analyses the structure of the inter-relationships among a larger number of underlying variables in order to

determine a set of common dimensions or factors (Hair et al., 2009). SEM can estimate multiple, inter-related dependence relationships. These are based on two components: the measurement model and the structural model. CFA is used for the measurement model and SEM is used for the structural model. Hence, CFA is used as a first step to confirm the measurement model. It determines the reliability and validity of the model's constructs and moreover evaluates the fit between the observed and estimated covariance matrices (Hair et al., 2009). The process of analysis is explained in detail in Section 7.8.5. SEM determines whether the hypothesised relationships exist between the constructs. It enables the researcher to either accept or reject the theory proposed (Hair et al., 2009).

This study employs CFA to test the measurement model and SEM to test a priori hypotheses of relationships between constructs. These methods are used to test whether the correlations among the variables are consistent with the factor structure that was hypothesised (Hair et al., 2009). Due to the fact that the measures of personality traits, personal values, online consumer engagement, and parts of the consumer-perceived value have been empirically tested before, the primary aim of the study is to confirm or reject the theory, which was predetermined. EFA has been used extensively already in the context of personality traits in order to categorise personality traits in sixteen, five or three overall factors, that have common underlying patterns (Cattell, 1947; Digman & Inouye, 1986; Eysenck, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1991). Hence, the present research draws upon theory and findings not only in personality trait literature but in all other three remaining literature areas, and has evaluated the best measurement scales and items in an extensive literature review. Thus, the factor structure is already based on a 'good' theory.

7.8.4.1 Measurement Theory: Reflective vs. Formative

Two measurement theories for CFA and SEM can be distinguished, namely reflective measurement theory and formative measurement theory (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). In the reflective measurement theory arrows are drawn from the latent constructs to the measurement indicators and, therefore, it is assumed that the latent constructs cause these measured indicator variables. The error appears as the latent construct is unable to fully explain the indicators (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). The formative measurement theory indicates arrows that are drawn from the measured indicators to the construct; formative constructs are not considered as latent in contrast to reflective constructs. Therefore, the

formative measurement theory sees the error as a result of the inability of measured indicators to fully explain the construct (Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2006). The present study uses reflective measures as the constructs are seen to cause the measured indicator variables.

7.8.4.2 Recursive, Non-recursive, and Correlational Relationships

In terms of relationships one can distinguish between recursive, non-recursive, and correlational relationships (Hair et al., 2009). In recursive relationships the arrow is single-headed indicating a cause-and-effect type relationship, whereas in non-recursive relationships the arrows are two-headed. Correlational indicates an arrow that is curved and has points on both ends (Hair et al., 2009). All relationships in the present conceptual model are recursive.

7.8.4.3 Exogenous vs. Endogenous Constructs

The constructs can be either exogenous or endogenous (Hair et al., 2009). Exogenous indicates a variable that acts as a predictor for other constructs in the model. An endogenous construct is the outcome variable in at least one causal relationship (Hair et al., 2009). The personality traits constructs and personal values are considered as exogenous constructs as they only have arrows leading out of the construct and not into it. The constructs online consumer engagement and consumer-perceived value can be described as endogenous as they have at least one arrow leading into the construct (Hair et al., 2009).

7.8.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM): The Process

7.8.5.1 Software IBM AMOS 21.0

The CFA and SEM are analysed using IBM AMOS 21.0 software as it allows building attitudinal and behavioural models that reflect complex relationships (Hair et al., 2009). Another option could be SmartPLS or LISREL (Haenlein, 2004; Hair et al., 2011b). However, SmartPLS is primarily used for causal-predictive analysis for high complexity situations where low theoretical information is present or for non-normal distributed data sets. Due to the fact that the model is grounded on an extensive literature review, the model is more theory-based and, therefore, it is more appropriate to use AMOS (Jöreskog & Wold, 1982).

Notwithstanding, SmartPLS has experienced increasing dissemination in many fields due to non-normal data, formative indicators or small sample sizes (Hair et al., 2014b). Hence, SmartPLS is the better choice when using a formative model, if the data are non-normally distributed and if the sample size tends to be rather small as software such as AMOS cannot deal with this kind of data. Moreover, the SmartPLS software can be used if one has non-ratio measures (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). The present study uses a reflective model, interval scales, and assumes normal distribution and a rather large sample size. Therefore, AMOS is the better choice. Moreover, the main interest is not prediction (SmartPLS) it is rather theory testing (AMOS) and the present research is also not in its early stages, and is exploratory in nature, which are also indicators of the use of SmartPLS (Hair, Gabriel, & Patel, 2014a). Some researchers still question the use of SmartPLS (Marcoulides & Saunders, 2006; Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso, 2009) whereas others clearly advocate using the software (Hair et al., 2011a; Henseler et al., 2009). AMOS is a user-friendly statistical package in comparison to LISREL that uses a computing code approach. LISREL also assumes knowledge of certain Greek notations. AMOS helps to focus on the research problem rather than the learning of complex software (Hair et al., 2014a). Notwithstanding, LISREL remains the first choice amongst researchers but the use of AMOS is indeed increasing due to the fact that it is now sold by IBM as one package with SPSS. As one cannot find a golden rule regarding which software to apply, the choice of software is based on availability and the positive aspect of the user friendliness of AMOS (Hair et al., 2014a).

7.8.5.2 Validity and Reliability: Construct Validity

To assess the construct validity, convergent, discriminant, nomological and face validity must be examined. Construct validity is referred to as the extent to which measured variables actually represent the theoretical latent constructs they are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2009, p. 631). Construct validity consists of convergent validity, discriminant validity, nomological validity, and face validity. In addition, composite reliability and factor loadings have to be examined. Composite reliability is a measure of internal consistency reliability and is based on the square of the total factor loading for a specific construct (Hair et al., 2009, p. 631). A factor loading is a correlation between the original variable and the factors and, therefore, the key for understanding the nature of a particular factor (Hair et al., 2009, p. 90). Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair et al., 2009, p. 633). Nomological validity is tested by examining whether the correlations between the constructs make sense (taking into consideration the covariance

matrix) (Hair et al., 2009, p. 633). Face validity refers to the extent to which the content of the items is consistent with the definition of the construct. It is based on the researcher's judgement (Hair et al., 2009, p. 633). Moreover, unidimensionality is an important condition for construct validity, theory testing, and reliability (Steenkamp & Van Trijp, 1991). Unidimensionality implies that the measured variables only load on one construct (Hair et al., 2009). The different forms of validity are now further explained:

7.8.5.2.1 Convergent Validity: Loadings and Composite Reliability (CR)

Loadings are significant if the factor is at least 0.5 or preferably 0.7 whereas variance extracted should be ≥ 0.5 (Hair et al., 2009, p. 808). In addition, average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct and composite reliabilities (CR) should be taken into consideration. The AMOS software does not provide these measures. Therefore, they have to be calculated using EXCEL. The squared loading (squared multiple correlations) are calculated by squaring the loadings, and represent the item reliability. The AVE is defined as the sum of the squared loadings for a construct, which is divided by the number of indicator variables. AVE is computed for each latent construct in the present measurement model (Hair et al., 2009, p. 632). If the AVE is 0.5 or higher the construct can be regarded as having an adequate convergent validity. CR is computed from the squared sum of all factor loadings, divided by the sum of the squared sum of all factor loadings plus the sum of the error variance indicators.

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + (\sum \lambda_\epsilon)}$$

$(\sum \lambda_i)^2$: Sum of the squared factor loadings, $(\sum \lambda_\epsilon)$: Sum of the error variance indicators

A value of 0.7 or higher stands for a good reliability. A reliability between 0.6 and 0.7 can still be acceptable if other indices of the model's validity are satisfactory. A very high composite reliability is not considered to be very good as the measures seem to measure the same thing (Hair et al., 2009). Cronbach's alpha assumes that all indicators are equally weighted whereas the CR uses the item loadings estimated in the model. Therefore, CR can be considered as superior to Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2009). Both CR and Cronbach's alpha are reported for the scales in the findings chapter.

7.8.5.2.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is another subcategory of validity (Pallant, 2013). Discriminant validity is established if concepts and measures that are not supposed to be related are, in fact, unrelated and distinct (Hair & Black, 2013). Thus, discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair et al., 2009, p. 633). In order to establish discriminant validity, one needs to show that measures that should not be related are in reality not related. This means that items that should reflect one construct should not reflect another construct and the relationship between measures from different constructs should be very low. In order to check if discriminant validity is established one needs to compare the AVE estimates for each factor with the Squared Inter-Construct Correlations (SIC) that are associated with that factor. When AVE estimates are larger than the SIC estimates the model demonstrates discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2009). Thus, it is achieved if the AVE is greater than 0.50 and greater than the SIC for every measure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

7.8.5.2.3 Nomological Validity

Nomological validity can be tested by examining whether correlations between constructs in the present measurement model make sense taking into consideration the construct correlations. Nomological validity is achieved if all constructs are positively related (Hair et al., 2009).

7.8.5.2.4 Face Validity

Face validity is the extent to which the content of the items is consistent with the definition of the construct. This decision is solely based on the judgement of the researcher (Hair et al., 2009). After checking for face validity SEM and CFA, loadings should be compared in order to make sure that they have not changed a lot.

7.8.5.3 The Overall Fit: Absolute and Incremental Fit Indices

The Chi-square (χ^2) statistic is the traditional measurement for the evaluation of overall fit (Byrne, 2001; Hair et al., 2009; Pallant, 2013) in covariance structure models. The present model is a covariance-based structure model rather than a correlation-based structure model as the arrows are single-headed and a theory is going to be tested. For a structural equation model analysis one has to choose between either covariance matrix (standardised) or correlation matrix. The minimum discrepancy/degrees of freedom (CMIN/DF) is normed Chi-Square (χ^2). It determines the discrepancy between the unrestricted sample covariance matrix and the restricted (estimated) covariance matrix. A value < 2 is preferred whereas a value between 2 and 5 is acceptable as an indicator of good fit (Hair et al., 2009). In addition, to Chi-Square (χ^2) it is important to consult other fit indices in order to check the fit of the model. It is important to check if the p value is significant. The p value is significant using a type error rate of 0.05 if the observed covariance matches the estimated covariance matrix within sampling variance. The p value is very sensitive to sample size, which means that the value is high if the sample size exceeds 200 observations. Hence, one should rely on at least one absolute fit index and one incremental fit index in addition to the Chi-square (χ^2) and p value results (Hair et al., 2009). The Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) are absolute fit indices. The Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) are incremental fit indices. The guideline for both indices indicates that the value should be ≥ 0.9 . RMSEA should be ≤ 0.08 for a model of twenty-one variables and a sample size of 400 (Hair & Black, 2013). Other indices worth considering are the Normed Fit Index (NFI), Recurrence Free Interval (RFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Closeness to Fit (PCLOSE), and Standardised Root Mean Residual (SRMR). SRMR values should ideally be below 0.1 to indicate good fit (Hair & Black, 2013). NFI should be > 0.9 whereas for the RFI, TLI and IFI larger numbers are better (0.90-1.0). PCLOSE should be > 0.5 (Hair & Black, 2013). This study reports the most widely employed Goodness of Fit Indexes namely χ^2 , GFI, NFI, RMSEA and SRMR. The χ^2 is reported in this study; however, this statistic nearly always dismisses the model due to large sample sizes and is therefore, not closely considered for the evaluation of good fit (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).

7.8.5.4 Modifying the SEM Model

In addition to the evaluation of the mentioned Goodness of Fit Statistics, unidimensionality, validity, and reliability, one should check two diagnostic measures for SEM, namely standardised residuals and modification indices (MI) (Hair et al., 2009). There might be the possibility that they may suggest a way to further improve the model. Residuals are referred to as the individual differences between observed covariance terms and the (estimated) covariance terms. The better the fit the smaller are the residuals (Hair et al., 2009, p. 621). Standardised residuals are calculated by dividing the raw residual by the standard error of the residual. Whereas standardised residuals less than $|2.5|$ do not suggest an issue, standardised residuals between $|2.5|$ and $|4.0|$ deserve some attention and standardised residuals greater than $|4.0|$ at a significance level of 0.001 may suggest an unacceptable degree of error (Hair et al., 2009). MI indicates the amount of the overall χ^2 value that would be reduced by freeing any single particular path that is not currently estimated. The output is checked for higher numbers (MI >10) (Hair et al., 2009). Based on these diagnostic measures the model can be examined and if necessary improved. Every adjustment made is reported in the analysis chapter.

7.9 Summary

This chapter has described the research design, which comprises the research setting and the unit of analysis of the study. It has shown the research setting to be a FHOBC for customer service support of a German telecommunications provider, and a firm-hosted social media brand community; additionally, the unit of analysis has been reported as the individual user/consumer of the FHOBC who has membership of at least one of the two FHOBCs. An explanation has been given of the development of the survey instrument, and of the two preliminary exploratory studies that were conducted in a qualitative manner. The first set of seventeen exploratory interviews was discussed, and indicated as having been performed for scale refinement purposes (DeVellis, 2012). Consequent upon this exploration, the scales were refined and adapted to the context of a FHOBC. The second preliminary study, which comprises twenty-eight exploratory interviews was shown to be aimed at obtaining a more in-depth understanding of how each of the measures of personality traits and perceived-consumer value relates to online consumer engagement. Hence, the second preliminary study was seen not only to yield support for the proposed framework and the proposed direction of causality among the constructs, but also to provide more in-depth insights into how the specific measures of the constructs might relate to online consumer engagement. Moreover, they helped to fine-tune the actual survey instrument in terms of relevant personality traits.

Finally, the administration of the survey (sample size and data collection procedure) and the procedures followed in the analysis of responses (CFA and SEM) have been described. The AMOS 21.0 software package was also described as this tool was used for analysis. Chapter 8 summarises the findings of the preliminary exploratory study, and Chapter 9 summarises the findings of the main quantitative study.

CHAPTER 8: THE QUALITATIVE STUDY FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

This preliminary qualitative study was conducted in order to gain a more in-depth understanding of the possible antecedents of online consumer engagement (personality traits) and a possible consequence of online consumer engagement (consumer-perceived value). The moderator personal values, was excluded from the qualitative study. The results yield support for the proposed conceptual framework and the proposed underlying relationships. Section 8.2 further evaluates the sample distribution, Section 8.3 describes the interview process, and Section 8.4 the data analysis. Finally, Section 8.5 presents the findings of the preliminary qualitative study.

8.2 Sample Distribution

Twenty-eight semi-structured in-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted with members and non-members of different Facebook brand communities (brand pages). Twenty-three different Facebook brand communities were mentioned by participants and four participants stated that they did not interact with any brand on Facebook. Table 8.1 shows an overview of the Facebook brand communities mentioned. Fifteen interviewees were female, and thirteen male, and they ranged in age between nineteen and forty years old.

Table 8.1: Facebook Brand Communities Mentioned

Theme	Brand
Travel	Expedia
	Australia.com
Sport, Lifestyle & Healthy Eating	Equinox
	Weight Watchers
	Holland & Barrett
	Soulfood Low Carberia
Cosmetic	Clinique
	Lancôme
	MAC
	Lush
	Dior
Luxury brands	Louis Vuitton
	Rolex
Fashion	TheBlondeSalad
	Victoria Secret
News	Financial Times (2x)
	Tagesschau
	Newslaundry
TV show	XFactor
Automotive	Mercedes Benz
	VW
Technology/Telecommunications provider	Vodafone
	Samsung

8.3 The Interview Process

Interviews were conducted over a period of five weeks and each interview lasted between forty to sixty minutes. Interviews were held face-to-face by a single interviewer and behind closed doors for privacy and the confidentiality of participants. Interviewees were asked to suggest other individuals who might be relevant for the research project. Details of the semi-structured interview guide are shown in Appendix 5. Respondents were asked to name a Facebook brand page of which they were a member, and answer a number of questions relating to that page. The aim of the interviews was to gain insights into the nature of online consumer engagement as well as its antecedents and consequences. Accordingly, respondents explained in their own words what engagement with a brand on Facebook means to them by answering questions such as ‘How do you engage/interact with the brand?’ and ‘What are the main reasons you engage/interact with this brand or other consumers on Facebook?’. Following these questions, each interviewee was shown the definition of online consumer engagement (Brodie et al., 2013) in order to ensure a shared understanding of the concept. Respondents were then asked to think about the nine different personality traits and their underlying definitions and measurement items. Interviewees were requested to indicate whether, as far as they saw themselves, the description of each trait fitted their personality or not. The definitions and measurement items of personality traits have been derived from the existing literature (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Eysenck, 1991; Licata et al., 2003; Mowen & Spears, 1999; Mowen & Sujan, 2005). It was quite important not only to integrate a short definition of the construct but also of the measurement items to guarantee an accurate self-selection of personality traits. This study is in line with previous studies that focused on self-reported measures of personality (e.g. Coelho, 2010). After expressing some opinions about their personality, respondents were asked if they thought specific personality traits influenced their online engagement with a brand or other individuals on Facebook. If they indicated an influence, they were asked to illustrate with an example. Participants were also asked to describe why they engage online and whether they perceive value in engaging with the brand and other members on the Facebook brand page. Interviews continued until data saturation was reached.

8.4 Data Analysis

This study followed the six recommended steps to analyse the qualitative data as a guideline (Miles & Huberman, 2013), namely: (1) categorisation; (2) unitising data; (3) recognising relationships and developing categories; (4) creating data displays for examining the data; (5) developing propositions; and (6) drawing conclusions. Selective coding was used, which was based on existing literature in the area of personality trait concepts (e.g. Licata et al., 2003; Mowen & Spears, 1999; Mowen & Sujan, 2005) and consumer-perceived value (e.g. Holbrook, 1999). The interviews were, therefore, theory-driven based on a priori themes, which emerged from the literature review and were subsumed into the conceptual framework shown in Chapter 6. These themes formed the interview questions and guided the analysis in terms of coding.

Two independent judges, the researcher herself and another doctoral researcher in the field of marketing, compared emergent themes and interpreted each interview to increase the study's internal validity and reliability. A memo was completed that reflected each judge's interpretation. No major disagreement occurred regarding the emergent themes. When minor disagreements emerged, the judges compared the memos, discussed the issues and reached agreement (Holloway & Beatty, 2003). The intercoder reliability was 94.3%, indicating a high level of reliability (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2003). Two major themes emerged, namely: a link between personality traits and online consumer engagement, and a link between the latter and consumer-perceived value. As a result of the exploratory interviews, the research propositions emerged and the conceptual framework was supported, which is now anchored in both the existing consumer engagement literature and the interview findings.

8.5 Findings

8.5.1 Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

Extraversion/Intraversion

Extraversion describes the degree to which a person is sociable and outgoing (Mottram & Fleming, 2009). Intraverts, on the other hand, find more pleasure in solitary activities, like to keep their feelings to themselves, tend to be less open-minded, less close to others and more suspicious (Evans, 1941; Eysenck, 1991). Extraversion has been linked to social media usage (Correa et al., 2010) and extraverts have been found to be members of more groups on Facebook as they prefer to be in social situations rather than alone (Ross et al., 2009). On the other extreme, intraverted people might engage less online as they are not as sociable as extraverts (Mottram & Fleming, 2009; Raja & John, 2010) and tend to have fewer friends (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998). The following respondents' statements provide further support for the suggestion that intraverts engage less online:

I am not a member of a Facebook brand page. [...] Maybe if some of my closest friends would recommend a certain product I might try it but I will not go online to read about it as I don't know these people so why should I trust them? (Male, 37)

Well, I think I do not enjoy communicating with the unknown. Thus, I am basically not very comfortable with online activities, particularly on Facebook, which is widely open to un-specified individuals. (Male, 30)

Whereas respondents that described themselves as extravert and outgoing show a high level of engagement by stating:

When I watch this show [*The X Factor*] it is great fun to interact with other viewers of this television programme [online]. There is always something to talk about if it's someone's great voice or horrible cloth[es]. It's always good to hear the latest gossip and stay up to date. (Female, 19)

Another respondent stated:

I love the Australia.com Facebook brand page as it connects me to people from all over the world who have the same passion for the country. I did one year work and travel there and I met so many amazing people. Thanks to the page I got to know people who were also planning to go there even before I actually went there in person.
(Female, 24)

Therefore, it is proposed that:

RPI: Intraversion is negatively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

In total, 18 out of 28 participants either stated that extraversion might drive their online engagement or described themselves as rather introvert and thus unlikely to engage online.

Agreeableness/disagreeableness

Agreeableness refers to the general warmth of feelings towards others (Brown et al., 2002), and reflects how friendly an individual is (Costa & McCrae, 1992b). Disagreeableness is the opposite of agreeableness and these individuals tend to be unfriendly, uncooperative, suspicious, sceptic and their self-interest is their first priority (Eysenck, 1991). Usually disagreeable individuals don't care about the well-being of others and might not appreciate other individuals' contributions in FHOBCs and thus are less likely to share experiences online or engage with peers in FHOBCs. The following statements suggest that disagreeableness might be negatively related to consumer engagement in FHOBCs by highlighting that individuals that described themselves as rather disagreeable might not appreciate other consumers' comments or experiences and also do not want to share their experiences with strangers. They are more self-focused and like to rely on themselves and therefore see engaging online as a waste of their precious time.

In general, I am not sharing my product experiences with other people. I mean when I speak to some friends and they say, 'oh I like this product' and I have tried it too I will comment on it but I will not waste my time in sharing my experience of it with others online. (Female, 34)

I am quite busy with my job so I don't want to spend the whole evening in front of my laptop too. I like to do sports or something that benefits myself after work. If I see a new product I just buy it and try it. I mean every person is different some like it whilst others might not like it. I definitely prefer to make my own experiences instead of reading and listening to other people's opinions online. (Male, 29)

The following proposition is suggested and supported by thirteen out of twenty-eight interviewees:

RP2: Disagreeableness is negatively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is the degree of orderliness, organisation and precision (Brown et al., 2002) but it also refers to work ethics and thoroughness (Costa & McCrae, 1992a). Interpersonal relationships are less important for conscientious individuals (Tsao, 2013) and they have more of a tendency to meet deadlines and be responsible with their obligations (Ross et al., 2009). Therefore, this study argues that conscientious individuals use the internet more for the improvement of work skills rather than building relationships with peers in a FHOBC (Tsao, 2013), and thus they may see engaging in a FHOBC as a distraction from more important tasks (Butt & Phillips, 2008). This argument is in line with past studies that found a negative correlation between conscientiousness and the amount of time spent on Facebook (Amichai-Hamburger & Ben-Artzi, 2000; Ryan & Xenos, 2011; Wilson et al., 2010). The following supporting comments were given by conscientious respondents and show that engagement levels of individuals high on conscientiousness are rather low; they only use the community to find relevant information but don't engage with peers because they aim to be efficient and prefer to focus on issues they perceive as really important. Hence, they

might use the Facebook brand page for information but they do not actively engage with the brand page or other users.

I am quite busy. I have a lot on my plate. I don't have a lot of time to engage online. When I need something I look it up quickly. I don't have time to read 100 customer reviews. I try to be focused on stuff I really need. (Female, 35)

I like the Mercedes-Benz Facebook page, as I need it for my job as an automobile sales manager. It's good to check new posts daily to be up to date. In my job I have to communicate with people the whole day so I don't really enjoy engaging with other Mercedes-Benz enthusiasts or drivers online. (Male, 36)

Thus, the following research proposition is suggested, which is supported by seven out of twenty-eight interviewees:

RP3: Conscientiousness is negatively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

Openness to experiences

People who are open-minded to experiences have more curiosity as well as imagination and are more flexible in their thinking (Madjar, 2008; McCrae & Costa, 1991). Individuals who are more open to experiences are more likely to have a broader range of interests and therefore also pursue those interests through a wider variety of means (Butt & Phillips, 2008). Additionally, they tend to seek more information (McElroy et al., 2007) and are broader-minded and tolerant to different perspectives. Hence, they also seek more opportunities to learn something new (McCrae & Costa, 1991) and will be more likely to engage online. Past studies suggest that individuals who are more open to experiences tend to be more sociable via Facebook and have a greater tendency to use social media in general (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Correa et al., 2010; Ross et al., 2009). Respondents (sixteen out of twenty-eight) described a positive relationship between openness to experiences and consumer engagement in FHOBCs in the following comments:

I like to engage with the Equinox Facebook page as they regularly organise events with all the members of the club. It's a great experience to get to know new people and the Facebook page keeps everyone connected. (Male, 25)

Another respondent mentioned:

My dad has been a VW driver all of his life. When I was eighteen, I got my first VW and started sharing his passion for the brand. I am part of several VW communities online; one of them is their Facebook community. There are meetings every few months where VW fans meet and show off their cars. Every time I go, I meet new people and I get a lot of ideas and information. The online brand communities are perfect to get and keep in touch with other enthusiasts. (Male, 23)

These statements show that respondents with a high need for new experiences tend to engage with Facebook brand pages and its users at a higher level. They use these brand pages to get to know other individuals that might share the same interests. Accordingly, the following research proposition emerges:

RP4: Openness to experiences is positively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism refers to the extent to which the emotions of an individual vary (Brown et al., 2002). If a person has a high level of neuroticism they are less able to deal with stress (McCrae & Costa, 1991). A new stream of research anchored in the loneliness theory indicates that individuals high in neuroticism use the internet on a frequent basis in order to avoid loneliness (Amichai-Hamburger & Ben-Artzi, 2003; Butt & Phillips, 2008; Correa et al., 2010; Hughes et al., 2012; Ryan & Xenos, 2011). For this reason, individuals high in neuroticism also appreciate the community (Malone et al., 2012) and may pursue acceptance and social contact through social networking sites (Malone et al., 2012). For instance, they can find opportunities online to connect and bond with others and get support for situations they feel would burden others in an offline environment (Judge et al., 2011). Although, no support was found in the interviews, it is proposed that:

RP5: Neuroticism is positively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

Need for activity

Need for activity is the enduring motive to be doing something on a continuous basis (Mowen & Sujan, 2005). Individuals who have a high need for activity have the desire to keep being busy all the time and stay active (Licata et al., 2003). One can argue that a consumer who is highly engaged in interactive experiences that go beyond transactions (Brodie et al., 2011; Verhoef et al., 2010; Vivek et al., 2012) might be so because they are very active and like to keep busy all the time. Hence, this research argues that need for activity may also predict consumer engagement in FHOBCs – people who have a higher need for activity may be more motivated to engage online, even after a long working day. The following quotes support this assumption by showing that individuals with a high need for activity are highly engaged online to keep themselves busy. In total, nine out of twenty-eight interviewees stated that need for activity drives their engagement with Facebook brand pages:

I engage in several Facebook pages, I try to keep myself busy. I am just not the type of person who can relax for several days. Even when I am on holiday I like to check my phone and interact on Facebook. (Male, 28)

Another respondent mentioned:

I follow TheBlondeSalad on Facebook, Twitter and on her Blog. Every evening I check out the latest posts and fashion tips whilst watching TV. (Female, 27)

Therefore, the following research proposition emerges:

RP6: Need for activity is positively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

Need for learning

Need for learning is a motivating factor that leads individuals to obtain information and be engaged in high-level information processing, and to seek a deep understanding of the entire environment (Mowen, 2000). A need for learning has the power to inspire individuals to increase their knowledge and thus feel an enjoyment in learning new things (Harris et al., 2005). It is therefore important for the underlying study as many consumers may join a FHOB to obtain information from peers and keep up to date and informed with the latest products and services (Harris et al., 2005). One respondent mentions:

I engage with the Dior Facebook page three times per week and sometimes daily to check their offers and new product releases because I always want to be up to date with the recent products and prices. I like to watch their make-up tutorials too. (Female, 25)

Another respondent says:

I follow the BMW Facebook page as it provides interesting information to car-obsessed people like me. (Male, 24)

Finally, another interviewee mentions:

I engage daily with the Tagesschau [German news programme] Facebook page as I like to be up to date with the latest news and things that are happening around the world. (Male, 29)

Hence, the following research proposition is suggested:

RP7: Need for learning is positively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

In total, twenty-five out of twenty-eight participants stated that need for learning drives their engagement with Facebook brand pages, which shows the importance of investigating the four traits additional to the Big Five.

Altruism

Altruism as a personality trait (Rushton et al., 1981) may be defined as the general predisposition to selflessly seek to help others (Mowen & Sujan, 2005). Some individuals are just more generous, more helpful and kind to others and hence are perceived as more altruistic in nature (Dlugokinski & Firestone, 1973; Rutherford & Mussen, 1968). Consumer engagement behaviour comprises helping other consumers, for example, in terms of word-of-mouth or through feedback (Verleye et al., 2013). Accordingly, altruistic respondents mentioned:

I engage with the Lush Facebook page. When I experience a good product I immediately recommend it to others, as I like to help others. Once I tried a mask for absorbing oils and reducing acne or blemishes on the face and it was terrific. I immediately recommended it to a friend with skin problems. I even shared it on my own Facebook profile page and wrote about my experience on the Lush Facebook page to help others that are not sure which product to choose. (Female, 36)

Another respondent highlighted:

I became part of the Weight Watchers Facebook group when I started to lose weight. It's always good to talk to people that are in the same situation and I feel so much healthier now that I lost weight. I regularly interact there as I want to motivate others that might struggle with losing weight to show them that it's possible and give them some strength to keep up and fight for their goals. (Female, 25)

The quotes show that individuals high on altruism tend to engage a lot online as they like to help other individuals, whether friends or strangers, in different types of situations. They like to recommend products they just used or share all kinds of experiences, whether positive or negative. In total, thirteen out of twenty-eight interviewees stated that the personality trait of altruism drives their online engagement. Hence, the following research proposition is proposed:

RP8: Altruism is positively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

Need for arousal

Need for arousal is defined as the desire for stimulation and excitement (Mowen, 2000; Mowen & Spears, 1999) and has been found to be important in consumer settings as consumers buy products and services for the feelings that they provide (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Raju, 1980; Zuckerman, 1979). Moreover, as people have different levels of arousal, they seek different kinds of activities (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) linked to excitement-seeking (Mowen & Spears, 1999). This study argues that people with high levels of arousal seek more thrilling activities (Mowen & Spears, 1999), of which individuals feel the need to share with peers in their social networks or online communities (Hardey, 2011). Therefore, a positive relationship between need for arousal and online consumer engagement is proposed, although no support was found in the interviews.

Additional RP: Need for arousal is positively related to the a) cognitive processing dimension of OCE, b) emotional dimension of OCE and c) behavioural dimension of OCE.

No support was found in the qualitative study for this additional trait. Therefore, the research proposition is not numbered but referred to as additional research proposition. This is done in order to ensure a unique identifier for each hypothesis across the qualitative and quantitative study.

8.5.2 Online Consumer Engagement and Consumer-perceived Value

Past studies have not only hypothesised a relationship between online brand community practices and consumer value (Misra et al., 2008; Porter et al., 2013; Schau et al., 2009; Seraj, 2012), they have also suggested that online consumer engagement might be related to value creation (Higgins & Scholer, 2009; Hollebeek, 2013; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010a).

Engagement might explain why some online communities may have more visitors than others. Hence, this study proposes that engagement is linked to a value perception by consumers, which explains the difference between successful and failing online communities (Hollebeek, 2013; Seraj, 2012). Value can be seen as a jointly created phenomenon emerging through interaction (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). If an individual is highly engaged he/she will

derive intrinsic and extrinsic value from this focus on the engagement (Vivek et al., 2012) and thus the strength of engagement contributes to the strength of value. Accordingly, the more engaged an individual is in approaching a target (e.g. brand), the more value can be obtained (Hollebeek, 2013). This study further argues that different types of value emerge as a result of engaging online. These different types are namely: social value, play, efficiency, excellence, aesthetic value and altruistic value (Holbrook, 1999).

Social value

A relationship between consumer engagement in FHOBCs and social value is expressed in the following statements:

I engage with the Louis Vuitton Facebook page, as I want to stay up to date. I like to be the first one who knows about new bags so I am the first to tell my friends about it. (Female, 24)

Another respondent argues:

I engage with the Rolex Facebook page, as the social events are great to meet people who share the same passion for world-class luxurious watches. (Male, 37)

Another respondent mentions:

I recently joined a gym and I am also a member of its Facebook community. The brand Equinox stands for the really fit people. Even though I am not that fit and well shaped yet the interaction with the brand on Facebook and Twitter reminds me daily of my promise to myself. It shows others that I am committed to my goals and makes a good impression on others. (Male, 25)

These quotes show that the individuals engage online because this engagement improves the way they are perceived by others as well as by themselves. They can therefore make a good impression in being the first to know about new releases or having general knowledge of products that are important for their peers. The quotes show that the engagement with the

brand delivers social value to the respondents. In total, seven out of twenty-eight interviewees stated that they perceive social value after engaging with a Facebook brand community.

Play

Play is a hedonic value and arises from an individual's own pleasure in engaging online. It may make members feel happy or delighted and gives them pleasure (Holbrook, 2006). This type of value was expressed by ten interviewees as shown, for example, in the following statements:

I engage with the Instyle Facebook brand page as I love fashion. It's so much fun to check out the latest fashion trends every day. It makes my day. (Female, 23)

Another respondent states:

I love make up and it gives me great joy to browse for new make up fashion releases on the Mac Facebook page. I share most of its products with my friends also on my own Facebook page. I also contact the admin of the page to check upcoming releases, prices and delivery. (Female, 36)

Efficiency

Efficiency involves value that results from the active use of a FHOBC platform (Holbrook, 2006). Members may feel that the relevance of content on the FHOBC is high or that it is easy to use. In total, eight interviewees stated that they perceive the value efficiency after engaging with a Facebook brand page. Evidence for the value of efficiency is expressed in the following statements:

I engage with the Financial Times Facebook page, as the content is very relevant to me. I like to be always up to date and to know what is going on in the world. I also like that it's that easy to comment and tell others your opinion on specific articles that they upload. Sometimes it's a hassle if you want to quickly comment on a newspaper article on another website you have to register first. That is quite annoying. (Male, 27)

Another respondent mentioned:

I engage with the Vodafone Facebook page as they are very interactive with their consumers and reply very quickly if I have a specific question. Their page is very effective in terms of consumer care. (Female, 34)

Another respondent said:

I follow the Soulfood Low Carberia Facebook page. They upload new recipes regularly, which make my life much easier. Especially when I am on diet the interaction with others in the same situation is necessary to keep on going. Reading about others' experiences and health suggestions keeps me motivated. (Female, 22)

Excellence

Excellence, in comparison to efficiency, is seen as reactive as it results from appreciating, admiring or responding to some object (Holbrook, 1999). With regards to a FHOBC, excellence as a value can be perceived, for example, due to high-quality discussions in the community (Holbrook, 2006). The following quotes show examples of participants who perceived the value of excellence when engaging online. In total, eleven participants mentioned to perceive the value of excellence when engaging with Facebook brand pages.

The [Samsung] Facebook page shows me if the customers benefit from the products or not. Honest customer reviews and opinions are quite important for me. For example, I needed to know about the features of Samsung S6 and S6edge and Note6 and what kind of value I would get if I would buy one of the products. Therefore I checked the other customers' experiences with the software and the hardware on their Facebook page. Customers are very supportive there. (Male, 25)

Another respondent said:

I love to engage with the Mac Facebook page as they are very innovative, the website is very well run. The information is very adequate and they provide detailed information that the customer really needs. In comparison to other make-up brands this one is my absolute favourite. (Female, 36)

Aesthetic value

Aesthetic value can occur when aesthetic aspects of the FHOBC lead to value creation like an easy to use layout or an attractive design as discussed by the following respondents:

I engage with the Vodafone Facebook page as their display of the page is easy and you can access information very quickly. They even have an 'ask a question button' where you can ask a specific question to a community manager. Their advertisements posted are always very attractive and eye-catching. (Female, 34)

Another respondent mentioned:

The Victoria Secret Facebook page is one of my favourites. It's extremely interesting and I check it five times per week especially in summer to check new swim suits releases and the new beach stuff and lingerie. The images posted are very colourful and just inspiring to look at and I also love the videos they upload on the page. (Female, 21)

In total, seven interviewees mentioned that they perceive aesthetic value when engaging with a Facebook brand page.

Altruistic value

Altruistic value occurs if the purpose of individuals engaging online is to help peers. It involves doing something for the sake of others and it includes the concern of how others will react or how they will be affected (Holbrook, 1999). The relationship between altruistic value and online consumer engagement was discussed by eleven out of twenty-eight respondents for example they noted that:

I engage with the Holland & Barrett Facebook page because I want to share my experiences with people. I live a healthy lifestyle and I am obsessed with the vitamins and skincare products. Therefore, I visit the Holland & Barrett Facebook page to check their offers and read other customer reviews. (Female, 26)

Another respondent argues:

I engage with the Lancôme Facebook page as I feel like I have to share my experiences with the products with other users. I feel like sharing my experience really makes a difference to some people and I also rely on others' recommendations too. It's a give and take. (Female, 32)

Another respondent mentions:

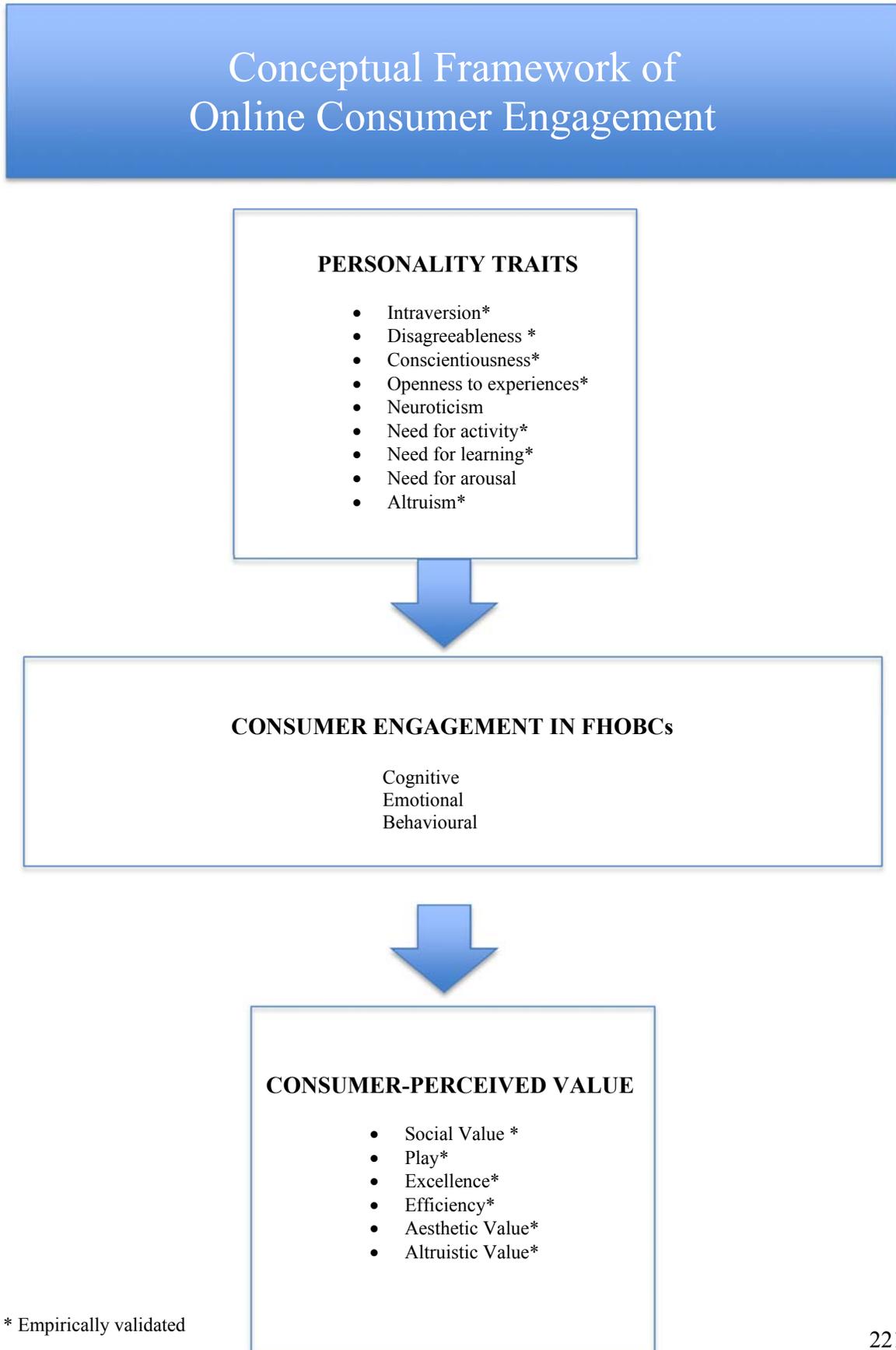
I engage with many skincare Facebook pages. One of the most frequently used is the Clinique Facebook page. I like to try new products and change my moisturiser regularly because I might find a better one. If I don't share my experiences, good or bad in nature, others might do the same mistake and buy the same overpriced product. I feel like I have to protect others from making the same mistakes I made. (Female, 28)

Most of the statements about the engagement or interaction between the consumer and the brand reflect at least one of the three dimensions (cognitive, emotional and behavioural) of which consumer engagement is comprised. Many reflected all of the dimensions, and all have been seen to be positively related to the different types of consumer-perceived value. The findings of the exploratory interviews also suggest that consumer-perceived value is seen as a consequence of consumer engagement in FHOBs. Many of the above statements indicate that the value is perceived after the engagement with the brand. Therefore, based on the findings from the interviews, it is proposed that:

RP10a-f: Positively valenced OCE (cognitive, emotional and behavioural) is positively related to consumer-perceived value (social value, play, excellence, efficiency, aesthetic value and altruistic value).

The conceptual framework (Figure 8.1) summarises the research propositions previously developed.

Figure 8.1: Conceptual Framework summarising Research Propositions



The personality traits and consumer-perceived value types marked with an asterisk have been empirically found to be related to online consumer engagement. Intraversion, disagreeableness and conscientiousness, all part of the Big Five personality traits have been found to be negatively related to engagement with Facebook brand pages. There was no support for neuroticism to drive online engagement whereas openness to experiences has been found to be positively related to online engagement. Four additional traits have been investigated and empirical support was found for three of these traits driving online engagement, namely: need for activity, need for learning and altruism. Six different forms of value have been perceived by individuals engaging with various Facebook brand pages, namely: social value, play, efficiency, excellence, aesthetic value and altruistic value.

8.6 Conclusion

This preliminary qualitative study yields not only support for the proposed framework and the proposed direction of causality among the constructs but in addition provides more in-depth insights on how the specific measures of the constructs might be related to online consumer engagement. The exploratory interview findings support the majority of hypotheses underlying the proposed framework. Seven out of the nine personality traits chosen for the study are found to be related to online consumer engagement, namely: intraversion/extraversion, (dis)agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experiences, need for activity, need for learning and altruism. As a result of the preliminary study one of the four additional personality traits namely need for arousal is dropped for the main study as it has not been found to be a driver of online consumer engagement. Neuroticism is not found to be related to online consumer engagement. Notwithstanding, it will be further investigated in the main study as it is one of the Big Five personality traits. Moreover, findings suggest that consumers engaging in Facebook brand communities perceive six different forms of consumer value, namely: social value, play, efficiency, excellence, aesthetic and altruistic value. The conceptual framework of this study is thus anchored in the existing consumer engagement literature and exploratory interview findings. To conclude, this study yields support for nine out of eleven proposed hypotheses for the main quantitative study. Moreover, it helped to fine-tune the actual survey instrument in terms of relevant personality traits. Chapter 9 shows the quantitative study findings.

CHAPTER 9: THE QUANTITATIVE STUDY FINDINGS

9.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the findings resulting from the online survey. Data were screened in order to confirm the parametric test assumptions (i.e. normality, linearity etc.) prior to the model and hypotheses testing. The software packages used for the data analysis are SPSS 21.0 and AMOS 21.0. Excel and SPSS 21.0 were used for the data screening and reliability analysis whereas AMOS 21.0 was used for the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and for structural equation modeling (SEM).

This chapter is organised as follows: Section 9.2 gives an overview of the demographics of the study. Section 9.3 comprises the validity and reliability analysis of the scales and summarises CFA results, and Section 9.4 presents the validity analysis of the entire research model, summarises SEM results and tests the model for differences between gender, age, and FHOBs. Section 9.5 tests the moderation effect of personal values in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. Finally, Section 9.6 concludes with a summary of the findings.

9.2 Demographic Profile of the Sample

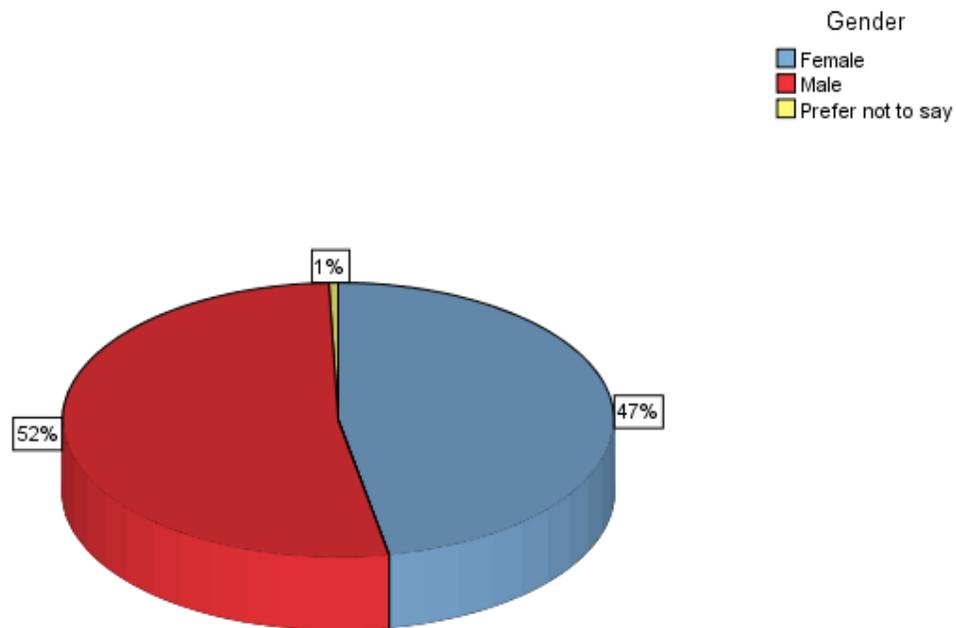
In total, 687 online surveys were collected. Prior to multivariate data analysis, the data were subjected to a thorough data screening and cleaning process (Hair & Black, 2013). Following the data cleaning process, 559 surveys were retained, these having been deemed reliable for further data analysis.

The mean value method was used to replace a total of fifty-six cases that contained some missing data (less than 10% of the total sample). A wide spread of age groups and educational backgrounds, was indicated in the demographic profile of the sample, as shown in the next sections.

9.2.1 Gender

Figure 9.1 summarises the gender distribution of the participants.

Figure 9.1: Gender (n = 559)

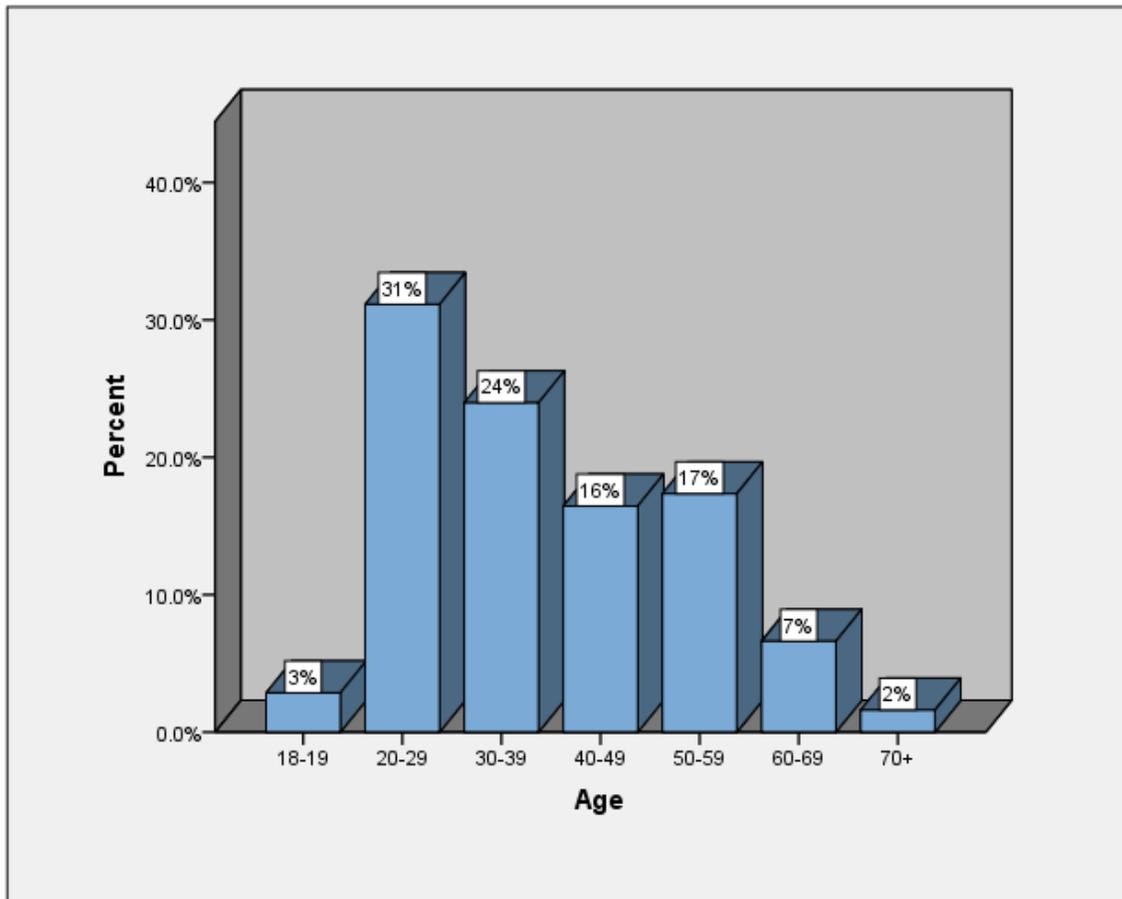


In total, 47% of participants were female, 52% male, and the remaining 1% preferred not to reveal their gender identity.

9.2.2 Age

Figure 9.2 shows the distribution of the participants by age group.

Figure 9.2: Age (n = 559)

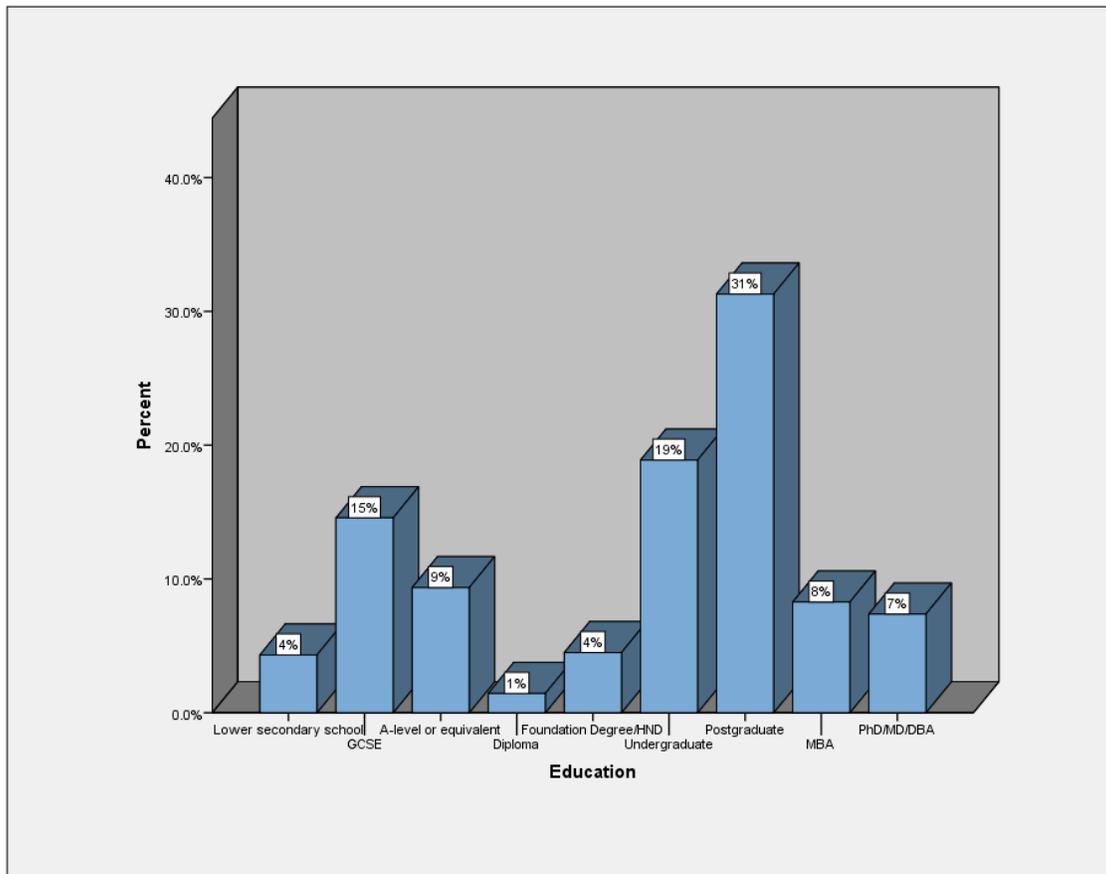


The distribution of age of participants is as follows: 3% fall in the 18-19 age group, 31% in the 20-29 age group, 24% in the 30-39 age group, 16% in the 40-49 age group, 17% in the 50-59 age group, 7% in the 60-69 age group, and 2% in the 70+ age group.

9.2.3 Education

Figure 9.3 shows an overview of the education level of participants.

Figure 9.3: Education (n = 559)

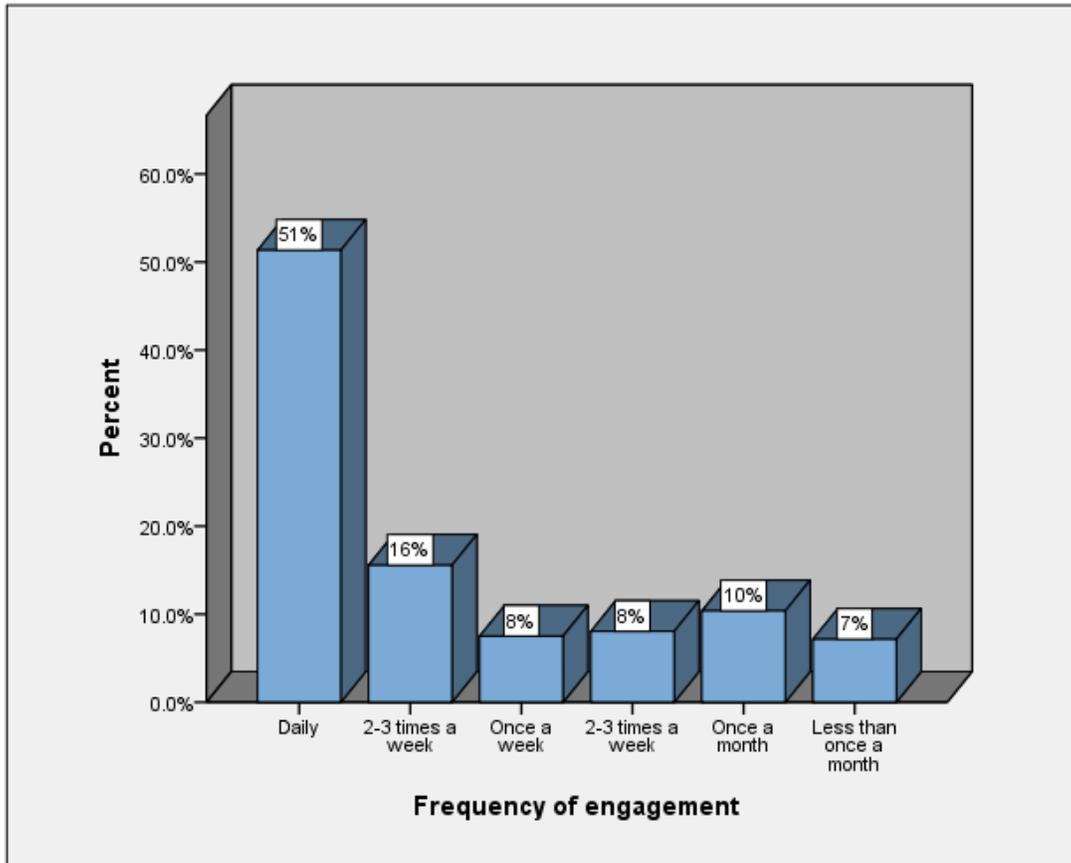


A total of 4% of the research population indicate their highest qualification to be lower than secondary school, 14% had completed GCSE, 9% A-level or equivalent, 1% held a diploma, and 4% possessed a foundation degree/higher national diploma. Another 19% had completed an undergraduate degree, 31% a postgraduate degree, 8% an MBA, and 7% a PhD, MD or DBA.

9.2.4 Frequency of Engagement

Figure 9.4 shows the frequency of engagement of participants with the FHOBC.

Figure 9.4: Frequency of Engagement (n = 559)



The frequency of engagement of participants is as follows: 51% used the FHOBC daily, 16% 2-3 times a week, 8% once a week, 10% once a month, and 7% less than once a month. The next section deals with the reliability and validity analysis of the scales used for the study.

9.3 Validity and Reliability of Measurements

Before testing the validity of the measurement model, all measures were assessed to determine whether they met the normal distribution assumption. Normality was assessed using (1) the values of skewness and kurtosis, and (2) graphical analysis.

Thus, firstly a test of normality was conducted by inspecting the values of skewness and kurtosis. The skewness value provides an indication of the symmetry of the distribution whereas kurtosis provides information about the peakedness of the distribution. A skewness and kurtosis value of 0 indicates that the distribution is normal (Pallant, 2013). However, it is unusual to find perfect normal distribution in real life. Thus, skewness and kurtosis values in the interval of -1 and +1 still indicate univariate normality (Marcoulides & Saunders, 2006). As a result of data cleaning, some items were deleted in order to achieve normal distribution given that the sample size was large enough as discussed in the methodology chapter (Hair & Black, 2013). The values for skewness and kurtosis for the main concepts (i.e. personality traits, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value) can be found in Appendix 6-8. Secondly, a graphical analysis was conducted. This analysis comprised a visual inspection of the histogram (the shape of the distribution) and the normal probability plot, which enabled the researcher to see variations from normality in terms of kurtosis and skewness (Hair & Black, 2013). The graphical analysis is of high importance as the evaluation of skewness and kurtosis might be too sensitive with large samples (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

In the next step, it was established that the scales were reliable and valid on the basis of several tests. Reliability and validity are ways to assess the quality of the measurement scales (Hair & Black, 2013). Reliability shows how stable or constant the variables are. A measure has good reliability if it produces similar results under consistent conditions. Reliability was assessed with Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR). A measure has good reliability if the α and CR scores are above 0.70 (Hair & Black, 2013). Validity refers to how well the concept is defined by the measure (Pallant, 2013). Convergent and discriminant validity are both subcategories of construct validity. Convergent validity is established if measures that should be related are actually related (Hair & Black, 2013). Convergent validity is reached when the factor loading of each item is high and statistically significant (Malhotra, 2010). Thus, factor loadings should be 0.5 or higher (Hair & Black, 2013). Moreover, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) score should be 0.5 or higher to achieve adequate

convergent validity (Hair & Black, 2013). Discriminant validity is established if measures are distinct (Hair & Black, 2013). It is achieved if the AVE is greater than 0.50 and greater than the Squared Inter-Construct Correlations (SIC) for every measure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The values for reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity are discussed in Section 9.3.1 for the personality traits, in Section 9.3.2 for consumer engagement, in Section 9.3.3 for consumer-perceived value, and in Section 9.3.4 for personal values.

Online consumer engagement, personality traits, and consumer-perceived value were assessed using CFA. An item is representative of the construct if the factor loading exceeds the 0.50 mark. The descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and the AVEs, are used to assess convergent and discriminant validity of personality traits, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value. Table 9.1 shows a summary of the criteria used to ensure reliable and valid scales.

Table 9.1: Criteria Reliability and Validity

Criteria
Reliability
$\alpha > 0.70$ CR > 0.70
Convergent validity
Factor loadings > 0.50 AVE > 0.50
Discriminant validity
SIC < AVE

Note: AVE = Average Variance Extracted, SIC = Squared Inter-Construct Correlations

9.3.1 Validity and Reliability of the Personality Traits Scale

The factor loadings of the initially proposed personality traits scale, including all proposed traits such as intraversion, disagreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experiences, conscientiousness, need for learning, need for activity and altruism are shown in Appendix 8. Table 9.2 shows the factor loadings of each item used for the revised personality scale.

Table 9.2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Convergent Validity of the Personality Traits Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
	Extraversion*	
1	I feel uncomfortable in a group of people. (R)	0.76
2	I prefer to be alone rather than in a large group. (R)	0.83
3	I am shy. (R)	0.68
4	I am quiet when with others. (R)	0.76
5	I am talkative when with others.	0.64
6	I am withdrawn. (R)	0.69
	Openness to Experiences	
1	I frequently feel highly creative.	0.70
2	I am imaginative.	0.69
3	I am innovative.	0.68
4	I am more original than others.	0.86
5	I enjoy beauty more than others.	0.73
	Altruism	
1	I am altruistic.	0.58
2	I am giving to others.	0.73
3	I sacrifice my goals to help others.	0.69
4	I am selfless in giving time to others.	0.76

* Intraversion scale was reverse coded into extraversion in SPSS

Table 9.2 shows that all three remaining constructs (extraversion, openness to experiences, altruism) of the revised scale are found to be representative as all factor loadings exceed the 0.50 mark. The extraversion item “I feel more self-conscious than others” and the openness to experiences item “I appreciate art” were excluded as they were not found to be representative of the constructs they were supposed to measure (Appendix 9).

Table 9.3 displays the descriptive statistics namely Mean and Standard Deviation (SD), the results of the reliability tests α and CR, the validity test namely Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Inter-Construct Correlations (IC), and Squared Inter-Construct Correlations (SIC) of the revised personality scale.

Table 9.3: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations and Average Variance Extracted of the Personality Traits Scale

Personality Traits	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3
1. Extraversion	5.48	1.08	0.87	0.87	0.53	0.53	0.34
2. Openness	5.43	0.96	0.81	0.75	0.73*	0.54	0.42
3. Altruism	5.21	0.94	0.78	0.79	0.58*	0.65*	0.48

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

Table 9.3 shows that the remaining constructs are found to be reliable as both Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability (CR) exceed the 0.70 mark. Convergent validity is achieved for extraversion and openness to experiences as AVE scores exceed the 0.50 mark. The AVE for altruism is slightly below the 0.50 mark (0.48). However, the trait was not excluded as it is close to the 0.50 mark other than the AVE of the excluded scales. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), an AVE of 0.4 is still acceptable if the CR of the construct is higher than 0.6. Thus, convergent validity is still adequate as the CR score for altruism is 0.79. Moreover, discriminant validity is reached for the altruism scale as none of the Squared Inter-Construct Correlations (SIC) scores are above the AVE score.

Disagreeableness and need for learning have been excluded from the study due to low Cronbach’s alphas and CR scores. Moreover, the scales did not present convergent validity. Neuroticism and conscientiousness have been excluded, as they did not present convergent validity. Need for activity did not present discriminant validity (Appendix 9).

The revised three-dimensional scale of personality traits was tested with CFA and led to good fit indices. Indices used to determine Goodness of Fit of a model are: Goodness of Fit-Index (GFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Standardised Root Mean Residual (SRMR). Values for GFI are supposed to be greater than 0.90, values for RMSEA are supposed to be in-between 0.03 and 0.08 (Hair & Black, 2013). NFI values should be greater than 0.90 and CFI values are supposed to be above 0.90. SRMR values should ideally be below 0.1 to indicate good fit (Hair & Black, 2013). The Chi-Square (χ^2) value assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices. The χ^2 is reported in this study, however this statistic nearly always dismisses the model due to large sample sizes and is, therefore, not closely considered for the evaluation of good fit (Hooper et al., 2008).

The following Goodness of Fit measures are produced for the personality scale:
 $\chi^2_{(87)} = 278.29$; GFI = 0.93; NFI= 0.93; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.06; SRMR = 0.05. The results indicate good measurement validity for the revised personality scale that comprises three personality traits.

9.3.2 Validity and Reliability of the Online Consumer Engagement Scale

The initially proposed online consumer engagement scale was comprised of three dimensions - behavioural, emotional, and cognitive. Whereas reliability and convergent validity were achieved for the three-dimensional scale, discriminant validity was not. This indicates that the construct might not consist of three different dimensions but should be rather seen as a unidimensional construct (Appendix 12; Appendix 13).

Table 9.4 shows the factor loadings for the revised online consumer engagement scale.

Table 9.4: Convergent Validity of the Online Consumer Engagement Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
	Online consumer engagement	
1	I think about Facebook a lot when I'm using it.	0.81
2	Using Facebook makes me think about using one of their services.*	0.76
3	I feel very positive when I use Facebook.	0.88
4	Using Facebook makes me happy.	0.89
5	I'm proud to use Facebook.	0.86
6	I spend a lot of time using Facebook compared to other social networking pages.	0.59
7	I use Facebook to learn about other users' experiences.*	0.67

* Item has been added to the original scale following exploratory interviews

All factor loadings are found to be representative for the online consumer engagement construct as all factor loadings exceed the 0.50 mark. Table 9.5 shows the descriptive statistics and AVE for the revised online consumer engagement construct.

Table 9.5: Descriptive Statistics and Average Variance Extracted of the OCE Scale

Online consumer engagement	Mean	SD	α	CR	AVE
1. OCE	4.95	1.35	0.92	0.86	0.62

Note: AVE = Average Variance Extracted

The measurement items for online consumer engagement are reliable for measuring the construct as both Cronbach's alpha and the CR score exceed the 0.70 mark. Moreover, convergent validity is achieved as the AVE score exceeds 0.50.

After integrating the measurement items into a unidimensional construct, the measurement model was revised and items were eliminated one by one on the basis of modification indices and factor loadings. The items shown in Table 9.4 remained and produced the following Goodness of Fit indices: $X^2_{(14)} = 53.86$; GFI = 0.97; NFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.07; SRMR = 0.03. The indices indicate a good fit.

9.3.3 Validity and Reliability of the Consumer-perceived Value Scale

Table 9.6 shows the standardised loadings for the revised consumer-perceived value construct comprising of social value, play, and aesthetic value. Efficiency was excluded, as reliability, convergent and discriminant validity were not achieved. Altruistic value was excluded, as reliability and discriminant validity were not achieved, and excellence was excluded, as discriminant validity was not achieved (Appendix 14; Appendix 15).

Table 9.6: Convergent Validity of the Consumer-perceived Value Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
	Social value	
	Facebook	
1	... helps me feel accepted.	0.85
2	... improves the way I am perceived.	0.87
3	... gives me social approval.	0.89
	Play	
	Facebook	
1	... gives me pleasure.	0.88
2	... gives me a sense of joy.	0.92
3	... makes me feel delighted.	0.92
4	... gives me happiness.	0.89
	Aesthetic value	
	Thinking about Facebook	
1	The layout of the page is attractive.	0.92
2	The design of the page is visually appealing.	0.92
3	The overall appearance of the page is visually appealing.	0.89

All remaining factor loadings exceed 0.50 and are, therefore, representative of the consumer-perceived value scale. Table 9.7 displays the descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and AVE of the revised consumer-perceived value scale.

Table 9.7: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations and Average Variance Extracted of the Consumer-perceived Value Scale

Consumer-perceived value	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3
1. Social value	4.50	1.65	0.90	0.91	0.76	0.64	0.32
2. Play	4.88	1.56	0.95	0.95	0.80*	0.81	0.48
3. Aesthetic value	5.40	1.25	0.93	0.93	0.56*	0.69*	0.83

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

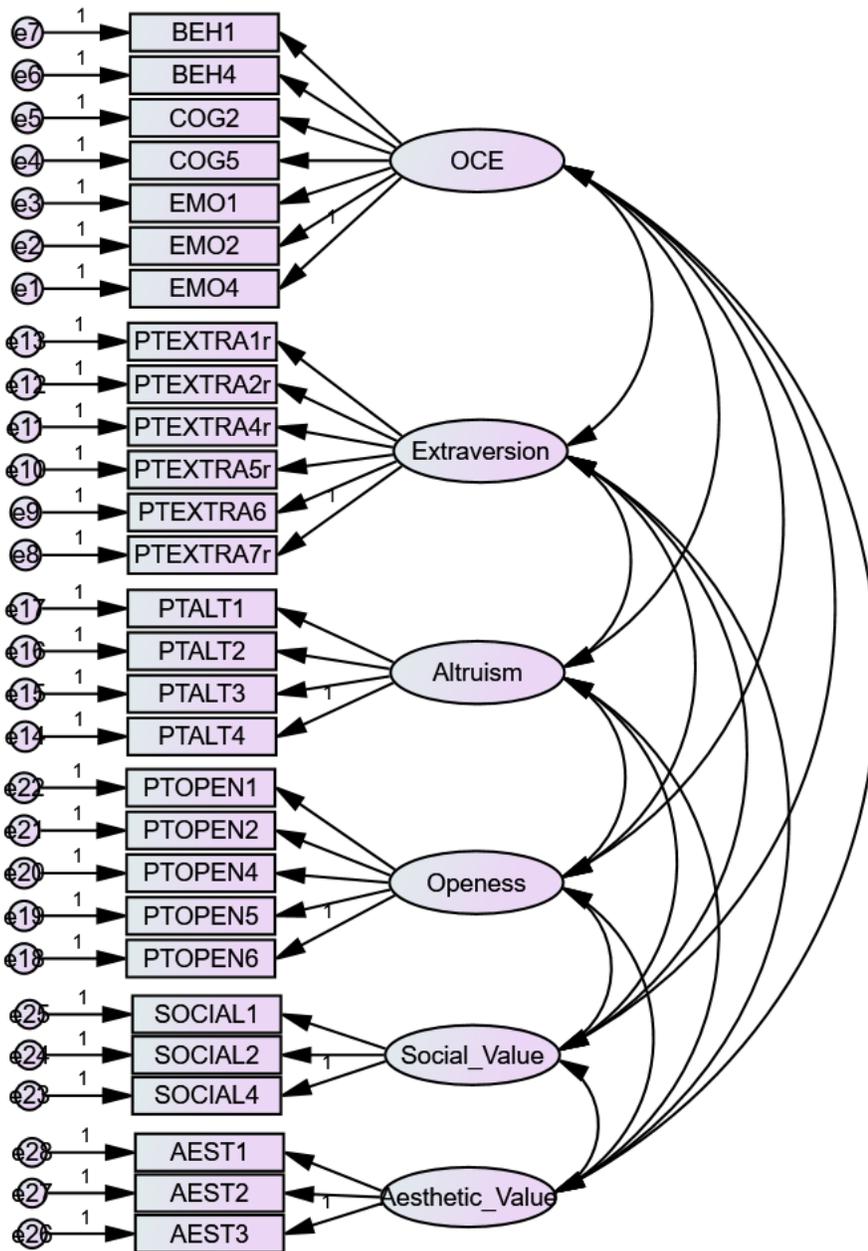
Reliability is reached for all remaining constructs as Cronbach's alpha and CR are above 0.70. Convergent validity is reached as all AVE scores exceed the 0.50 mark and discriminant validity was reached as SIC scores are below AVE scores.

A CFA was conducted to test the model with three remaining consumer-perceived value types (social value, play, aesthetic value) and the following fit indices indicate that the model has a good fit: $X^2_{(32)} = 113.66$; GFI = 0.96; NFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.07; SRMR = 0.03. The next section deals with the validity analysis of the entire measurement model.

9.3.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Validity of the Measurement Model

Another CFA was conducted for the entire measurement model in order to ensure the validity of the revised personality, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value scales. Play was excluded in order to achieve discriminant validity for all remaining constructs (Appendix 16). Figure 9.5 shows the revised measurement model after confirming reliability and validity of each scale.

Figure 9.5: The Measurement Model



$\chi^2_{(335)} = 833.05$; GFI = 0.90; NFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.05.

The CFA for the model resulted in the following fit indices: $\chi^2_{(335)} = 833.05$; GFI = 0.90; NFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.05. The results indicate good fit.

Table 9.8 shows the descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations and AVE of the revised model, which excludes play. Play was excluded in order to achieve discriminant validity.

Table 9.8: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations, and Average Variance Extracted of the Measurement Model

	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Extraversion	5.48	1.08	0.87	0.87	0.53	0.53	0.34	0.36	0.10	0.26
2. Openness	5.43	0.96	0.81	0.75	0.73*	0.54	0.42	0.48	0.17	0.35
3. Altruism	5.21	0.94	0.78	0.79	0.58*	0.65*	0.48	0.31	0.16	0.22
4. OCE	4.95	1.35	0.92	0.86	0.60*	0.69*	0.56*	0.62	0.49	0.49
5. Social value	4.50	1.65	0.90	0.91	0.31*	0.41*	0.40*	0.70*	0.76	0.31
6. Aesthetic value	5.40	1.25	0.93	0.93	0.51*	0.59*	0.47*	0.70*	0.56*	0.83

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

As can be seen from Table 9.8, reliability and convergent validity of the scales was achieved for all constructs except altruism, as all AVE scores exceed 0.50. The AVE score for altruism is below 0.50 with 0.48 but still deemed to be acceptable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Moreover, discriminant validity was achieved for all constructs. The next section deals with the validity and reliability of the moderator variable.

9.3.5 Validity and Reliability of the Schwartz' Short Personal Values Scale (SSVS)

Schwartz' short personal values scale is a two-dimensional scale (Verkasalo et al., 2009). Ten personal values belong to two major dimensions: self-enhancement (achievement, power, hedonism) versus self-transcendence (universalism, benevolence), and openness to change (self-direction, stimulation, hedonism) versus conservation (tradition, conformity, security). Hedonism shares elements of openness to change and self-enhancement (Roccas & Schwartz, 2010; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Universalism and benevolence were excluded from the study at the data cleaning stage as they were skewed (Hair & Black, 2013). Achievement is also slightly skewed, but the item contributes to a good reliability of the scale and is, therefore, not excluded. This left the dimension self-enhancement vs. self-transcendence with three values namely power, hedonism, and achievement which all belong to the self-

enhancement scale. Thus, the self-transcendence scale was excluded from the study. The scale for self-enhancement shows a good Cronbach's alpha of 0.79 and describes whether individuals are motivated to enhance their own personal interests rather than to promote the welfare of others (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). The openness to change scale was also excluded from the study due to a low Cronbach's alpha score of 0.41. Thus, for the openness to change vs. conservation scale, only conservation remains with three values namely tradition, conformity, and security and a good Cronbach's alpha of 0.79 (Appendix 9). Conservation refers to whether individuals resist change and emphasises self-restriction and order. Thus, individuals high in conservation attitudes are not ready for new experiences, new actions or thoughts (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005). A CFA was conducted to assess the remaining items of the scale. Table 9.9 shows the factor loadings of the revised personal values scale.

Table 9.9: Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Convergent Validity of the Personal Values Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
	Self-enhancement	
1	The importance of POWER - that is social power, authority and wealth.	0.90
2	The importance of HEDONISM - that is gratification of desires, enjoyment in life and self-indulgence.	0.61
3	The importance of ACHIEVEMENT - that is success, capability, ambition and influence on people and events.	0.77
	Conservation	
1	The importance of TRADITION - that is respect for tradition, humbleness, accepting one's position in life, devotion, and modesty.	0.83
2	The importance of CONFORMITY - that is obedience, honouring parents and elders, self-discipline and politeness.	0.81
3	The importance of SECURITY - that is national security, family security, social order, cleanliness, and return of favours.	0.71

Table 9.9 shows that all remaining factor loadings exceed the 0.50 mark and are, therefore, representative of the constructs. Table 9.10 displays the descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and AVE of the personal values scale.

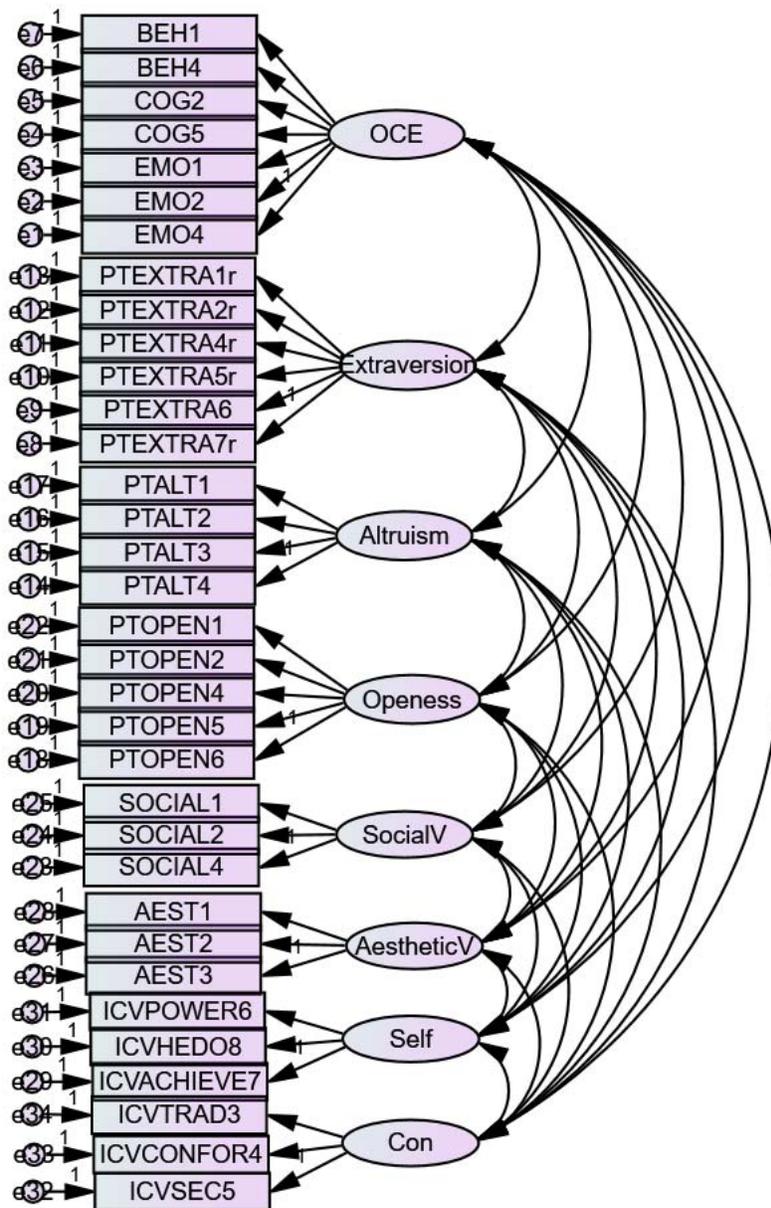
Table 9.10: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations, and Average Variance Extracted for the Measurement Model

Personal values	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2
1. Self-enhancement	5.37	1.22	0.79	0.81	0.59	0.53
2. Conservation	4.28	1.30	0.82	0.83	-0.23*	0.62

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

The results show that reliability is achieved for the scale as both Cronbach's alpha and CR are above 0.70. Convergent validity is achieved as both AVE scores exceed 0.50, and discriminant validity is achieved as the Squared Inter-Construct Correlation is below the AVE scores. Figure 9.6 shows the final measurement model including the moderator.

Figure 9.6: Measurement Model with Personal Values Conservation and Self-enhancement



$\chi^2_{(499)} = 1257.24$; GFI = 0.88; NFI = 0.90; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.06.

The CFA for the model including the moderator resulted in the following fit indices:

$\chi^2_{(499)} = 1257.24$; GFI = 0.88; NFI = 0.90; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.06.

Although the GFI is below 0.90 the results still indicate good measurement model validity. According to Baumgartner and Homburg (1996), and Doll, Xia, and Torkzadeh (1994), the value is still acceptable if the GFI is above 0.80. Table 9.11 shows a summary of the reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity analysis for the overall measurement model including the moderator.

Table 9.11: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations, and Average Variance Extracted for the Overall Model

	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Extraversion	5.48	1.08	0.87	0.87	0.53	0.53	0.34	0.36	0.1	0.26	0.35	0.26
2. Openness to experiences	5.43	0.96	0.81	0.75	0.73*	0.54	0.42	0.48	0.17	0.35	0.41	0.18
3. Altruism	5.21	0.94	0.78	0.79	0.58*	0.65*	0.48	0.31	0.16	0.22	0.16	0.05
4. OCE	4.95	1.35	0.92	0.86	0.60*	0.69*	0.56*	0.62	0.49	0.49	0.31	0.14
5. Social value	4.50	1.65	0.9	0.91	0.31*	0.41*	0.40*	0.70*	0.76	0.31	0.24	0.03
6. Aesthetic value	5.40	1.25	0.93	0.93	0.51*	0.59*	0.47*	0.70*	0.56*	0.83	0.28	0.07
7. Self-enhancement	5.37	1.22	0.79	0.81	0.59*	0.64*	0.40*	0.56*	0.49*	0.53*	0.59	0.05
8. Conservation	4.28	1.30	0.82	0.83	-0.51*	-0.42*	-0.23*	-0.37*	-0.16**	-0.27*	-0.23*	0.62

Note: OCE = Online consumer engagement; Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$; ** = $p < 0.01$

Table 9.11 shows that reliability was achieved as all Cronbach's alpha and CR scores are above the 0.70 mark. Convergent validity was achieved for all constructs. An AVE figure of 0.48 for altruism is still acceptable as the CR of the construct is above 0.60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Moreover, the Squared Inter-Construct Correlations are below the AVE scores. Discriminant validity was present for all constructs as all Squared Inter-Construct Correlations are below the AVE scores. The next section analyses the validity of the research model.

9.4 Validity of the Research Model

9.4.1 Common Method Bias

Before the hypotheses were tested, common method bias was checked as research studies on antecedents and consequences usually use similar types of response scales, e.g. 7-point Likert scales. Thus, by testing for common-method bias, one can make sure that the results are not influenced (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2007). In line with previous research (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003), the following tests were used to test for common method bias: 1) Harman's single-factor test, and 2) marker variable test.

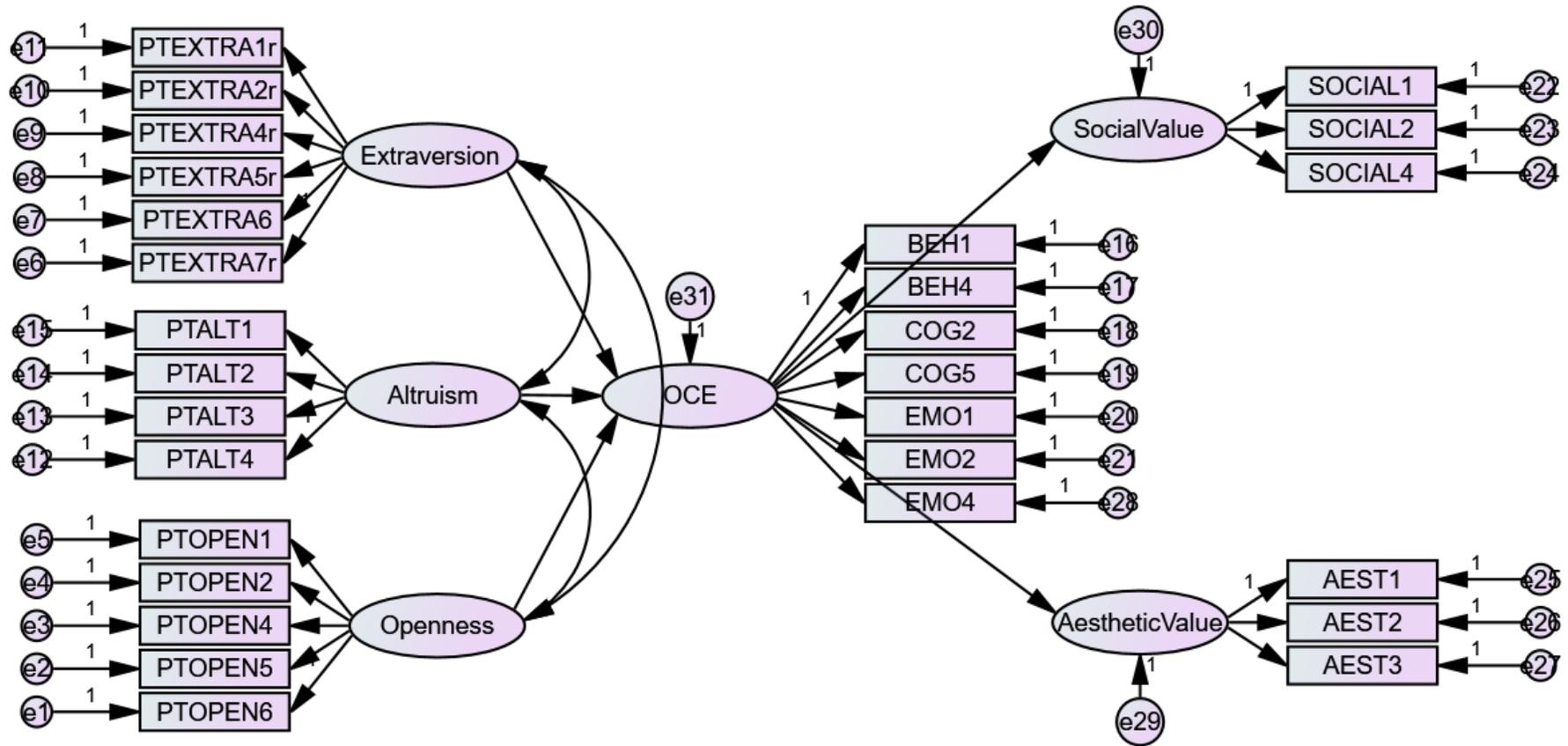
In Harman's single-factor test, common method bias poses a threat if: 1) one single unrotated factor appears when conducting exploratory factor analysis in SPSS, or 2) if the majority of the variance (more than 50%) is accounted for by one general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The unrotated factor solution showed five factors with Eigen values greater than 1. The result accounts for 67.82% of the total variance, and the first factor accounts for 41.37% of the total variance (Appendix 17). Even though a great deal of the variance is explained by one single factor, that amount is not the majority. Thus, common method bias does not seem to be an issue in this study.

In order to support that contention, a marker variable was employed. A marker variable is a theoretically unrelated construct. The marker variable used in the survey was traditional advertising. Any high correlations between the marker variable and any of the items' principal constructs can be an indication of common method bias. In this respect, all correlations were below the 0.30 threshold, which indicates that common method bias is not an issue for the study (Appendix 18) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991; Lages & Piercy, 2012; Lindell & Whitney, 2001).

9.4.2 The Research Model

After evaluating the measurement model, a structural model was built in order to investigate antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. Some of the proposed antecedents and consequences were dropped during the analysis of the measurement model. Entire concepts that were dropped are the personality traits disagreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness, need for activity, and need for learning. Possible consequences concepts that were dropped were the consumer-perceived value types efficiency, altruistic value, play, and excellence. Moreover, some of the dimensions within the concepts were dropped. In line with previous research (e.g. Chen & Dibb, 2010; Rodgers, Negash, & Suk, 2005), the model was first tested without the moderating variable. The research model is shown in Figure 9.7.

Figure 9.7: The Research Model I: Full Mediation



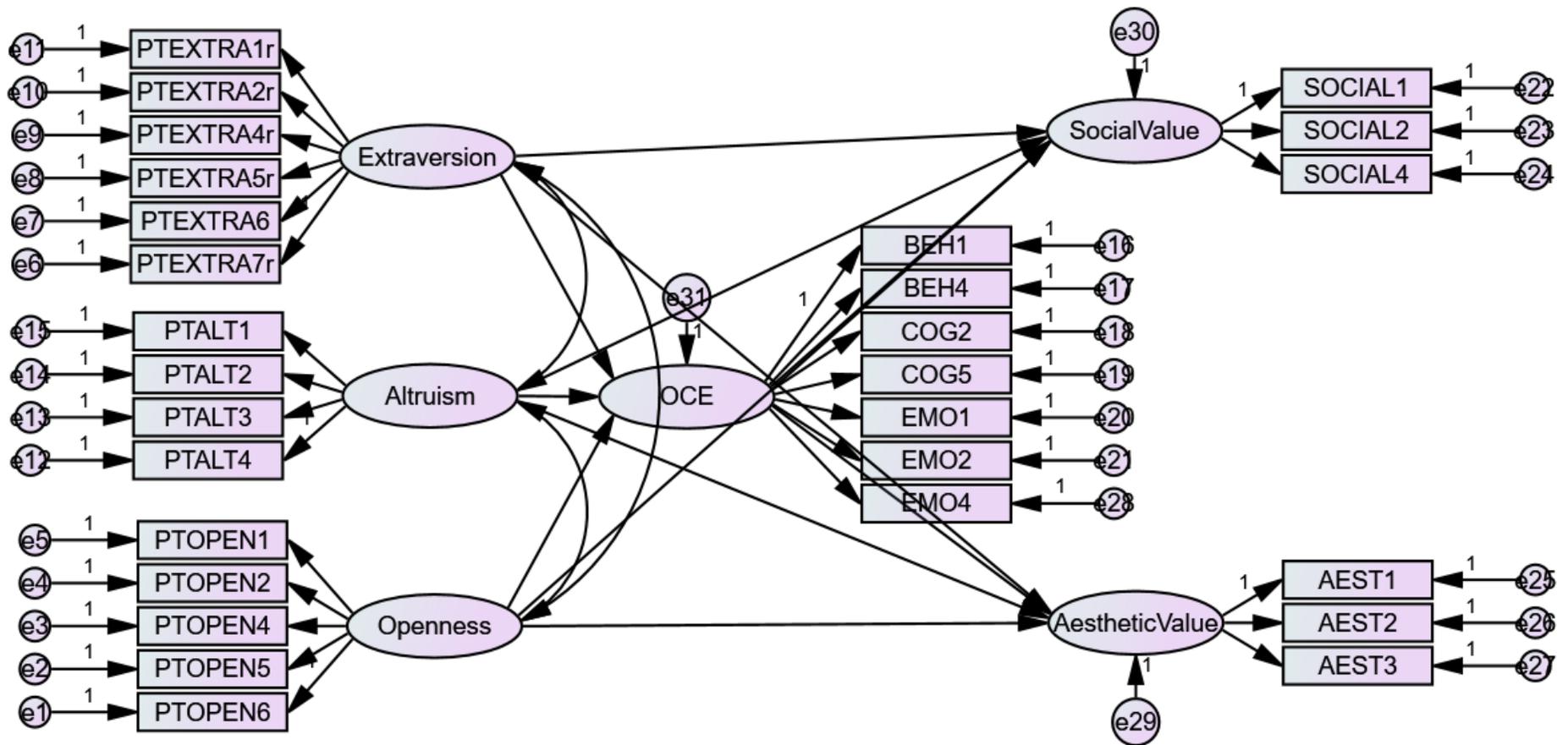
$X^2_{(342)} = 879.99$; GFI = 0.90; NFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.06.

The full mediation model includes extraversion, altruism, and openness to experiences as independent variables. Online consumer engagement is the mediating variable, and at the same time a dependent variable. Social value and aesthetic value act as the dependent variables for the study.

The full mediation model produced the following Goodness of Fit measures: $\chi^2_{(342)} = 879.99$; GFI = 0.90; NFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.06. Thus, the research model has a good fit.

Hair and Black (2013) suggest testing a competing model that represents different but plausible hypothesised relationships. An alternative partial mediation model is tested against the initially proposed full mediation model in order to make sure that the proposed model represents the best way to explain these relationships. The partial mediation model is shown in Figure 9.8.

Figure 9.8: The Research Model II: Partial Mediation



$X^2_{(336)} = 845.19$; GFI = 0.90; NFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.05

Figure 9.8 additionally shows direct relationships between the personality traits extraversion, openness to experiences, and altruism, and the dependent variables social value and aesthetic value, which are types of consumer-perceived value. In a first step, the Goodness of Fit was assessed.

The Goodness of Fit measures for the partial mediation model are as follows:

$\chi^2_{(336)} = 845.19$; GFI = 0.90; NFI = 0.92; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.05.

Hence, the model indicates a good model fit, like the full mediation model.

In a second step, Structural Equation Analysis for full and partial mediation was conducted.

The results are summarised in Table 9.12.

Table 9.12: Results of the Structural Equation Analysis: The Full and Partial Mediation Model

Relationships	Full Mediation		Partial Mediation	
	SRW	C.R.	SRW	C.R.
H ₁ Extraversion → OCE	0.17	2.79**	0.17	2.91**
H ₄ Openness → OCE	0.46	6.33***	0.46	6.25***
H ₈ Altruism → OCE	0.17	3.11**	0.16	2.94**
H _{10a} OCE → Social value	0.70	12.26***	0.80	10.79***
H _{10e} OCE → Aesthetic value	0.71	13.02***	0.56	9.19***
H ₁₁ Extraversion → Social value			-0.17	-2.84**
H ₁₂ Extraversion → Aesthetic value			0.03	0.60
H ₁₃ Openness → Social value			-0.08	2.19
H ₁₄ Openness → Aesthetic value			0.15	-1.10*
H ₁₅ Altruism → Social value			0.11	1.84
H ₁₆ Altruism → Aesthetic value			0.04	0.69

Model Fit Statistics

X ²	879.99	845.19
df	342	336
RMSEA	0.05	0.05
SRMR	0.06	0.05
GFI	0.90	0.90
NFI	0.92	0.92
CFI	0.95	0.95

Squared Multiple Correlation (R²)

Online consumer engagement	0.52	0.51
Aesthetic value	0.51	0.52
Social value	0.48	0.52

Note: SRW = Standardised Regression Weights; C.R. = Critical Ratio; OCE = Online consumer engagement; df = Degrees of Freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardised Root Mean Residual; GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; *** = p < 0.001; ** = p < 0.01; * = p < 0.05

Table 9.13 shows a comparison of the model fit indices of both models.

Table 9.13: Model Fit - Full Mediation Model and Partial Mediation Model

Model Fit Indices	Full Mediation Model	Partial Mediation Model
Chi-square (X^2)	879.99	845.19
Degrees of freedom	342	336
GFI	0.90	0.90
NFI	0.92	0.92
CFI	0.95	0.95
RMSEA	0.05	0.05
SRMR	0.06	0.05

Note: GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardised Root Residual

A X^2 difference test was conducted to compare the full and partial mediation models, and the result shows that the partial mediation model provides a better fit for the data collected ($\Delta X^2_{(6)} = 34.8$; $p < 0.01$) (Brown et al., 2002). Moreover, Table 9.13 shows that the SRMR value is slightly better for the partial mediation model. Therefore, the partial mediation model was chosen.

9.4.3 Hypotheses Testing

Hierarchical regression tests were conducted to show the importance of the mediation of online consumer engagement. It was found that the mediation of online consumer engagement explains a greater proportion of variance in social value and aesthetic value than the direct effects of the independent variables on their own. The improvement in R^2 when online consumer engagement was included was statistically significant (Social value: $\Delta R^2 = 0.25$, $\Delta F_{1,554} = 242.7$, $p < 0.01$; Aesthetic value: $\Delta R^2 = 0.15$, $\Delta F_{1,554} = 157.93$, $p < 0.01$) (Appendix 19; 21). Hence, the inclusion of online consumer engagement is highly relevant for the study.

For the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach the following conditions must hold for mediation analysis: independent variable must affect (1) the mediator, and (2) the dependent variable. Moreover, (3) the mediator must affect the dependent variable. In this study, the independent variable affects the mediator, and the mediator affects the dependent variable. However, the

majority of the direct relationships between the independent and the dependent variables are not significant as displayed in Table 9.12.

According to Zhao, Lynch Jr, and Chen (2010), there is no need for a significant direct effect between the independent and dependent variable to establish mediation. To establish mediation all that matters are the indirect effects (Zhao et al., 2010). Following the approach of Baron and Kenny, it is easy to fail to observe a mediation, especially if the signs of the direct and indirect effects are opposite (Zhao et al., 2010). Thus, only a bootstrap test is necessary to test mediation in comparison to the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach, which tests the three mentioned relationships first, and then suggests performing bootstrapping or alternatively a Sobel test to test for indirect effects. Table 9.14 shows the two approaches to test for mediation.

Table 9.14: Mediation Analysis

Hypotheses	Direct effect without Mediator (OCE)	Direct effect with Mediator (OCE)	Baron & Kenny's Approach	Indirect effects	Zhao's Approach
H11: Extraversion → Social value	-0.06	-0.17**	Full Mediation	0.14**	Indirect-only Mediation
H12: Extraversion → Aesthetic value	0.10	0.03	No Mediation	0.10**	Indirect-only Mediation
H13: Openness → Social value	0.32***	-0.08	Full Mediation	0.37**	Competitive Mediation
H14: Openness → Aesthetic value	0.44***	0.15*	Partial Mediation	0.26**	Complementary Mediation
H15: Altruism → Social value	0.24***	0.11	Full Mediation	0.13*	Complementary Mediation
H16: Altruism → Aesthetic value	0.14*	0.04	Full Mediation	0.09*	Complementary Mediation

Note: *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05; OCE = Online consumer engagement

The results of the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach show the results for the direct effect tested without the mediator, and for the direct effect tested with the mediator. Following the Baron and Kenny approach, the analysis stops after exploring the direct effects for hypotheses six and seven, as neither of them are significant. Also following the Baron and Kenny approach, the results show full mediation for the relationship between extraversion and social value, altruism and social value, altruism and aesthetic value, and openness to experiences and social value. The relationship between openness to experiences and aesthetic value is partially mediated and the relationship between extraversion and aesthetic value is not mediated.

In the approach of Zhao et al. (2010), the indirect relationship is tested first by bootstrapping with a 95% confidence interval and a bootstrap sample of 5,000. The results show that all six proposed indirect effects are significant. In a second step, the direct relationships are checked for significance and the different forms of mediation are assigned accordingly. Zhao et al. (2010) in comparison to Baron and Kenny (1986), use slightly different terminology in distinguishing between complete mediation, competitive mediation, indirect only mediation, direct only mediation, and no effect (no mediation). Indirect only mediation exists when there is only a mediated effect (not a direct effect). Indirect only mediation is found for the relationship between extraversion and social value, and for the relationship between extraversion and aesthetic value. Complementary mediation means that the mediated effect and the direct effect both exist and point in the same direction. Complementary mediation was found for the relationship between altruism and social value, altruism and aesthetic value, and openness to experiences and aesthetic value. Competitive mediation is present when the mediated and the direct effect exist and point in opposite directions. Competitive mediation is found for the relationship between openness to experiences and social value. The relationship between extraversion and aesthetic value has indirect only mediation according to the approach of Zhao et al. (2010), in comparison to no mediation in the approach of Baron and Kenny (1986).

In the following section the hypotheses underlying the partial mediation model are discussed as that model was found to provide a better fit for the data in comparison to the full mediation model.

The findings of the hypotheses tests in Table 9.12 show support for Hypothesis 1 predicting that extraversion is positively related to online consumer engagement (SRW = 0.17, C.R. = 2.91, $p < 0.01$). Thus, greater extraversion leads to more online consumer engagement.

Hypothesis 4 is also supported by the following results (SRW = 0.46, C.R. = 6.25, $p < 0.001$). The more open individuals are to experiences the stronger is online consumer engagement.

Hypothesis 8 states that altruism is positively related to online consumer engagement and the results support the hypothesis (SRW = 0.16, C.R. = 2.94, $p < 0.01$).

Hypotheses 10a and 10e state that online consumer engagement is positively related to social value and aesthetic value, respectively. The results indicate that both social value (SRW = 0.80, C.R. = 10.79, $p < 0.001$) and aesthetic value (SRW = 0.56, C.R. = 9.19, $p < 0.001$) are positively related to online consumer engagement.

The direct relationship between the personality trait extraversion and social value proposed in Hypothesis 11 is supported (SRW = -0.17, C.R. = -2.84, $p < 0.01$). The relationship is negative in nature. Extraverts are very outgoing individuals who like to be surrounded by many people. They are not shy or afraid of strangers and have self-confidence. Therefore, in a non-online setting they might not care much about the social approval of others, how they are perceived by others or what others in general think about them as they have an abundance of self-confidence. Therefore, the relationship is negative in nature. However, if we add in online consumer engagement as a mediator, the relationship becomes positive as H1 - the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is positive, and H10a - the relationship between online consumer engagement and social value is also positively related. This might be the case because in an online setting, extraverts can present and reinvent themselves or even show off their knowledge, activities or lifestyle to a large group of people all at once. Thus, social approval becomes relevant in a non-face to face context due to a huge audience. The social approval which is shown by the FHOBC itself, the brand, its employees and users in any form, might be important for an extravert FHOBC member who likes to engage online as his/her knowledge, lifestyle etc. is being valued by a large group of people. Thus, social approval becomes relevant for extraverts in an online environment. This change of direction can happen if the mediator acts as a suppressor variable.

Hypothesis 12 is not supported (SRW = 0.03, C.R. = 0.60, $p > 0.05$). Thus, extraversion is not directly related to aesthetic value.

Openness to experiences is not related to social value (SRW = -0.08, C.R. = -1.10, $p > 0.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 13 is not supported. Hypothesis 14 stating that openness to experiences is related to aesthetic value is supported (SRW = 0.15, C.R. = 2.19, $p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 15 (SRW = 0.11, C.R. = 1.84, $p > 0.05$) and Hypothesis 16 (SRW = 0.04, C.R. = 0.69, $p > 0.05$) are also not supported.

The partial mediation model was checked for differences by introducing three covariates in order to achieve rigour. The three covariates are gender, age, and FHOBC. The following sections describe the differences found.

9.4.3.1 Validity of the Research Model by Gender

The model fit for the covariate gender shows the following for males: $X^2_{(336)} = 638.21$; GFI = 0.87; NFI = 0.89; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.06 and SRMR = 0.06 and the following for females: $X^2_{(336)} = 617.69$; GFI = 0.85; NFI = 0.88, CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.06 and SRMR = 0.06. For both models the GFI and NFI is slightly below 0.90. However, a value of 0.80 for the GFI is still acceptable (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Doll et al., 1994) and both GFIs are above the 0.80 cut-off point. Moreover, also for the NFI value, some researchers choose a more liberal cut-off point of 0.80 (Garson, 1998). Both NFI values are above 0.80 with 0.89 for the male model and 0.88 for the female model. Additionally, one should compare the model fit to previous models and for the overall partial mediation model (combining female and male) the GFI and NFI values are not below the 0.90 cut-off point (Bollen, 1989).

Table 9.15 shows the differences in the Squared Multiple Correlations, and hence, the differences in variance explained between the two groups. Only female and male cases have been selected for this analysis. The small number of cases (four) where participants did not want to reveal their gender are not included.

Table 9.15: Results of Squared Multiple Correlations (R^2) by Gender Groups

	Male	Female
Social value	0.52	0.53
Aesthetic value	0.53	0.49
Online consumer engagement	0.42	0.66

There is nearly no difference in predictive power towards the variables social value and aesthetic value. The male group model explains 52% of the variance whereas the female group model explains 53% of the variance in social value. The male group model explains 53% of the variance in aesthetic value whereas the female group explains 49% of the variance in aesthetic value. However, the predictive power of online consumer engagement is much higher for the female sample. In total 66% of the variance in online consumer engagement is

explained in the female group in comparison to 42% in the male group. Table 9.16 shows the results of the structural equation analysis by gender for the partial mediation model.

Table 9.16: Results of Structural Equation Analysis by Gender Groups

Relationships	Male		Female	
	SRW	C.R.	SRW	C.R.
H ₁ Extraversion → OCE	0.12	1.18	0.21	2.88**
H ₄ Openness → OCE	0.24	2.24*	0.66	5.98***
H ₈ Altruism → OCE	0.36	3.82***	-0.01	-0.17
H _{10a} OCE → Social value	0.72	7.89***	0.91	6.79***
H _{10e} OCE → Aesthetic value	0.59	7.52***	0.52	4.89***
H ₁₁ Extraversion → Social value	-0.12	-1.32	-0.25	-2.95**
H ₁₂ Extraversion → Aesthetic value	0.13	1.47	-0.03	-0.33
H ₁₃ Openness → Social value	-0.18	-1.76	-0.04	-0.30
H ₁₄ Openness → Aesthetic value	0.09	0.96	0.22	1.93*
H ₁₅ Altruism → Social value	0.24	2.68**	-0.03	-0.40
H ₁₆ Altruism → Aesthetic value	-0.02	-0.24	0.01	0.13

Note: SRW = Standardised Regression Weights; C.R. = Critical Ratio; OCE = Online consumer engagement; *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

Differences between gender groups were found in five relationships. The relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement was significant for the female group, but not for the male group. The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement was highly significant for the male group but not for the female group. The relationship between extraversion and social value was significant for the female group but not for the male group. The relationship between altruism and social value was significant for the male group but not for the female group. And finally, the relationship between openness to experiences and aesthetic value was significant for the female group but not for the male group. The next section tests the model by different age groups.

9.4.3.2 Validity of the Research Model by Age Groups

In order to test the research model by different age groups, the data was split into two categories namely (1) age group 18-39, and (2) age group 40-70+. This was done in order to ensure a large enough sample size to conduct SEM in Amos. The model fit for the age group 18-39 is: $X^2_{(336)} = 702.49$; GFI = 0.86; NFI = 0.89; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.06 and SRMR = 0.06 whereas the model fit for the age group 40-70+ is: $X^2_{(336)} = 572.74$; GFI = 0.85; NFI = 0.88; CFI = 0.95; RMSEA = 0.05 and SRMR = 0.06. Results show that both models have a good fit as a value of 0.80 for the GFI is still acceptable (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Doll et al., 1994) and both GFIs are above the 0.80 cut-off point. Moreover, both NFI values are above the more liberal 0.80 cut-off point (Garson, 1998).

Table 9.17 highlights the differences in the results of squared multiple correlations (R^2) between the two age categories.

Table 9.17: Results of Squared Multiple Correlations (R^2) by Age Groups

	18-39	40-70+
Social value	0.50	0.55
Aesthetic value	0.50	0.59
Online consumer engagement	0.63	0.41

The results show that there is not a big difference in terms of predictive power towards explaining variance in social value and aesthetic value. The results reveal that 50% of the variance in social value is explained in the age group 18-39, and 55% in the age group of 40-70+. The predictive power in respect of aesthetic value was 50% in the age group of 18-39, and 59% in aesthetic value in the age group 40-70+. There is a big difference in predictive power towards explaining the variance in online consumer engagement. In total 63% of variance in online consumer engagement is explained in the 18-39 age group, whereas 41% is explained in the 40-70+ age group. Table 9.18 shows the results of the SEM Analysis.

Table 9.18: Results of Structural Equation Analysis by Age Groups

Relationships	18-39		40-70+	
	SRW	C.R.	SRW	C.R.
H ₁ Extraversion → OCE	0.11	1.55	0.27	2.82**
H ₄ Openness → OCE	0.63	6.23***	0.16	1.46
H ₈ Altruism → OCE	0.11	1.52	0.30	3.30***
H _{10a} OCE → Social value	0.82	7.17***	0.78	7.74***
H _{10e} OCE → Aesthetic value	0.50	5.31***	0.63	7.64***
H ₁₁ Extraversion → Social value	-0.17	-2.02*	-0.18	-2.00*
H ₁₂ Extraversion → Aesthetic value	0.00	-0.06	0.04	0.55
H ₁₃ Openness → Social value	-0.06	-0.51	-0.07	-0.69
H ₁₄ Openness → Aesthetic value	0.21	2.02*	0.20	2.11*
H ₁₅ Altruism → Social value	0.04	0.57	0.15	1.73
H ₁₆ Altruism → Aesthetic value	0.05	0.65	-0.05	-0.60

Note: SRW = Standardised Regression Weights; C.R. = Critical Ratio; OCE = Online consumer engagement; *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

Table 9.18 depicts three differences in relationships between the two age categories. The relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is significant for the 40-70+ age group but not for the 18-39 age group. The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement is only significant for the 40-70+ age group, whereas the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is only significant for the 18-39 age group. The next section tests the model in terms of the two FHOBs.

9.4.3.3 Validity of the Research Model by Firm-hosted Online Brand Communities

The data was collected in two distinct FHOBs, namely Facebook and a FHOB for customer service support of a German telecommunications provider (OBCCSS). The model fit for the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook is: $X^2_{(336)} = 698.74$; GFI = 0.86; NFI = 0.89; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.06 and SRMR = 0.06, whereas the model fit for the FHOB for customer service support is: $X^2_{(336)} = 615.15$; GFI = 0.85; NFI = 0.88; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.06 and SRMR = 0.06. Results indicate that both models have a good fit. Values of 0.86 and 0.85 for the GFIs (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Doll et al., 1994), and 0.89 and 0.88 for the NFIs are still acceptable (Garson, 1998).

Table 9.19 summarises the differences in the results of squared multiple correlations (R^2) between the two FHOBCs.

Table 9.19: Results of Squared Multiple Correlations (R^2) by Firm-hosted Online Brand Communities

	Facebook	OBCCSS
Social value	0.84	0.42
Aesthetic value	0.56	0.50
Online consumer engagement	0.69	0.39

OBCCSS = Firm-hosted online brand community for customer service support

There is a big difference in predictive power to explain variance in social value. In total, 84% of the variance in social value is explained in the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook in comparison to 42% of the variance in social value explained in the FHOBC for customer service support. There is not a big difference in the predictive power to explain aesthetic value. In total, 56% of the variance explained in aesthetic value is explained in the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook, and 50% is explained in the FHOBC for customer service support. However, a big difference in predictive power towards explaining online consumer engagement was found with 69% of the variance explained in online consumer engagement in the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook in comparison to 39% explained in the FHOBC for customer service support. Table 9.20 shows the results of the SEM Analysis.

Table 9.20: Results of Structural Equation Analysis by Firm-hosted Online Brand Communities

Relationships	Facebook		OBCCSS	
	SRW	C.R.	SRW	C.R.
H ₁ Extraversion → OCE	0.28	3.63***	0.10	1.02
H ₄ Openness → OCE	0.58	5.58***	0.21	1.62
H ₈ Altruism → OCE	0.04	0.74	0.37	3.57***
H _{10a} OCE → Social value	0.82	6.45***	0.66	7.25***
H _{10e} OCE → Aesthetic value	0.41	3.99***	0.55	7.38***
H ₁₁ Extraversion → Social value	-0.09	-1.46	-0.23	-2.16*
H ₁₂ Extraversion → Aesthetic value	0.09	1.12	0.08	0.82
H ₁₃ Openness → Social value	0.13	1.79	-0.19	-1.40
H ₁₄ Openness → Aesthetic value	0.32	3.26**	0.09	0.77
H ₁₅ Altruism → Social value	0.09	1.84	0.26	2.29*
H ₁₆ Altruism → Aesthetic value	-0.02	-0.29	0.08	0.84

Note: SRW = Standardised Regression Weights; C.R. = Critical Ratio; OCE = Online consumer engagement; OBCCSS = Firm-hosted online brand community for customer service support *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

Table 9.20 depicts six differences in relationships between the two FHOBCs. The relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is found to be not significant for the FHOBC for customer service support, whereas it is highly significant for the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook. The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement is highly significant for the FHOBC for customer service support but not significant for Facebook. The relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is highly significant for Facebook but not for the FHOBC for customer service support. The relationship between extraversion and social value and the relationship between altruism and social value is only significant for the FHOBC for customer service support. The relationship between openness to experiences and aesthetic value is only significant for Facebook.

In summary, based on the previous results one can find differences in the following six relationships for the partial mediation model when analysing the model in terms of differences in gender, age, and FHOBCs:

1. Extraversion and online consumer engagement.
2. Altruism and online consumer engagement.
3. Extraversion and social value.
4. Altruism and social value
5. Openness to experiences and aesthetic value.
6. Openness to experiences and online consumer engagement.

9.5 Testing the Moderation Effect of Personal Values on the Relationship between Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

This research proposed that personal values moderate the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. Figure 9.9 shows the theoretical model of the moderation effects.

Figure 9.9: The Theoretical Moderation Model

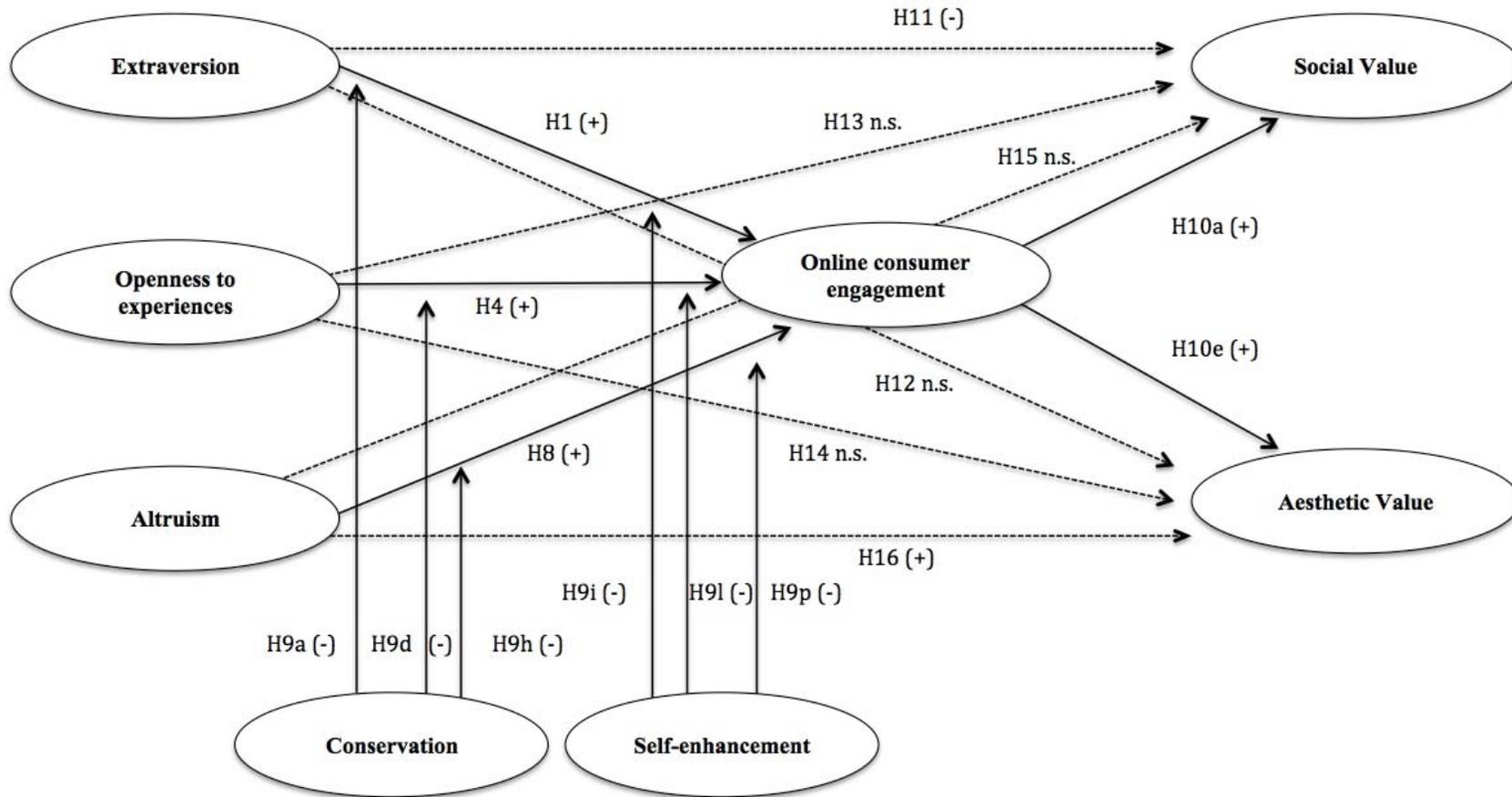


Figure 9.9 depicts that personal values moderate the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement, altruism and online consumer engagement, and between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement. After data cleaning and conducting a CFA as discussed in Section 9.3.5, two dimensions remained, namely: 1) conservation, and 2) self-enhancement. The next section shows the results of the moderation model.

9.6 The Results of the Moderation Model

In order to test the moderation effect, self-enhancement was split into low and high self-enhancement; and then conservation was split into low and high conservation based on the median score. Before dividing the sample based on the median, steps were taken to ensure that the division was equal, and large enough to run the analysis in Amos (Hair & Black, 2013). The moderation effect was tested and Table 9.21 summarises the overall model fit for the four different groups.

Table 9.21: Overall Model Fit Statistics

	N	X ²	df	GFI	NFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model with Low Self-enhancement	559	555.94	336	0.77	0.78	0.90	0.07	0.08
Model with High Self-enhancement	559	746.54	336	0.89	0.89	0.94	0.05	0.06
Model with Low Conservation	559	629.88	336	0.88	0.89	0.94	0.05	0.06
Model with High Conservation	559	597.48	336	0.84	0.86	0.93	0.06	0.07

Note: df = Degrees of Freedom; GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardised Root Residual

Results show a better model fit for the model with high self-enhancement than for the model with low self-enhancement. The GFI and NFI values for the model with high self-enhancement are just below the 0.90 threshold but still acceptable within the more liberal 0.80 cut-off point (Garson, 1998). The GFI and NFI values for the model with low self-enhancement are just below the 0.80 threshold. However, according to Bryne (2010), one should make a global assessment of several fit indices and then decide whether the model fits the data adequately or not. The other fit indices of the model are all within the threshold for good model fit.

The model fit for low conservation is slightly better than the model fit for high conservation. The GFI and NFI values for the model with low conservation and high conservation are within the acceptable threshold of 0.80 (Garson, 1998). Table 9.22 summarises the results of the moderation model analysis for conservation.

Table 9.22: Results of Moderation Model: Conservation

Relationships	Low Conservation		High Conservation	
	SRW	C.R.	SRW	C.R.
H _{9a} Extraversion → OCE	0.08	1.02	0.16	1.82
H _{9d} Openness → OCE	0.56	5.30***	0.33	3.44***
H _{9h} Altruism → OCE	0.20	2.52**	0.16	1.86

Squared Multiple Correlation (R²)

Online consumer engagement	0.60	0.29
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Note: SRW = Standardised Regression Weights; C.R. = Critical Ratio; OCE = Online consumer engagement; *** p < 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

Results show that the model with low conservation is better in explaining the variance of online consumer engagement. One can observe a gap of 31% between the two models in explaining this variance. In total 60% of the variance in online consumer engagement can be explained by the low conservation group in contrast to 29% by the high conservation group.

Hypotheses 9a, 9d and 9h propose that conservation moderates the relationship between the independent variables and online consumer engagement. The results of Table 9.21 show that the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is not significant for both groups (Low Conservation: SRW = 0.08, C.R. = 1.02, p > 0.05; High Conservation: SRW = 0.16, C.R. = 1.82, p > 0.05). However, the relationship between extraversion and

online consumer engagement is significant for the sample as a whole. The moderator conservation weakens the relationship, and thus moderates the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement.

The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement was significant for the low conservation group (SRW = 0.20, C.R. = 2.52, $p < 0.01$) but not for the high conservation group (SRW = 0.16, C.R. = 1.86, $p > 0.05$). Thus, conservation weakens the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement.

The relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is significant for both groups (Low Conservation: SRW = 0.56, C.R. = 5.30, $p < 0.001$; High Conservation: SRW = 0.33, C.R. = 3.44, $p < 0.001$). The results show that the standardised regression weight for the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is lower for the high conservation group with 0.33 in comparison to 0.56 for the low conservation group, and a critical ratio of 5.30 for the low conservation group in comparison to 3.44 for the high conservation group. This indicates that the relationship is moderated by conservation. Thus, conservation weakens the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement.

Table 9.23 summarises the findings for self-enhancement as a moderator.

Table 9.23: Results of Moderation Model: Self-enhancement

Relationships	Low Self-enhancement		High Self-enhancement	
	SRW	C.R.	SRW	C.R.
H _{9i} Extraversion → OCE	0.13	1.19	0.15	2.48**
H _{9l} Openness → OCE	-0.14	-1.16	0.70	7.29***
H _{9p} Altruism → OCE	0.42	3.36***	-0.03	-0.51
Squared Multiple Correlation (R²)				
Online consumer engagement		0.19		0.62

Note: SRW = Standardised Regression Weights; C.R. = Critical Ratio; OCE = Online consumer engagement; *** = $p < 0.001$; ** = $p < 0.01$; * = $p < 0.05$

The model for self-enhancement was better in explaining the variance in online consumer engagement. In total, 62% of the variance in online consumer engagement can be explained by the high self-enhancement group in contrast to only 19% that is explained by the low self-enhancement group. Thus, there is a gap of 43% between both models.

Hypotheses 9i, 9l and 9p propose that self-enhancement moderates the relationship between the independent variables and online consumer engagement. The results show that the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is significant for the high self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.15, C.R. = 2.48, $p < 0.01$) but not for the low self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.13, C.R. = 1.19, $p > 0.05$). Thus, self-enhancement strengthens the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement.

The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement is highly significant for the low self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.42, C.R. = 3.36, $p < 0.001$) whereas it is not significant for the high self-enhancement group (SRW = -0.03, C.R. = -0.51, $p > 0.05$). Hence, self-enhancement moderates the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement. Self-enhancement weakens the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement.

The relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is highly significant for the high self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.70, C.R. = 7.29, $p < 0.001$) but not for the low self-enhancement group (SRW = -0.14, C.R. = -1.16, $p > 0.05$). This leads to the conclusion that this relationship is also moderated by self-enhancement. Self-enhancement strengthens the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement. Table 9.24 summarises the findings of the hypotheses testing.

Table 9.24: Summary of the Results of the Hypotheses Testing

Relationships	Results
H ₁ Extraversion → OCE	Supported
H ₄ Openness → OCE	Supported
H ₈ Altruism → OCE	Supported
H _{10a} OCE → Social value	Supported
H _{10e} OCE → Aesthetic value	Supported
H ₁₁ Extraversion → Social Value	Supported
H ₁₂ Extraversion → Aesthetic Value	Not supported
H ₁₃ Openness → Social value	Not supported
H ₁₄ Openness → Aesthetic value	Supported
H ₁₅ Altruism → Social value	Not supported
H ₁₆ Altruism → Aesthetic value	Not supported
Moderation Analysis Conservation	Results
H _{9a} Extraversion → OCE	Supported
H _{9d} Altruism → OCE	Supported
H _{9h} Openness → OCE	Supported
Moderation Analysis Self-enhancement	Results
H _{9i} Extraversion → OCE	Supported
H _{9l} Altruism → OCE	Supported
H _{9p} Openness → OCE	Supported

Table 9.24 shows that the relationships between the three personality traits and online consumer engagement are supported in the partial mediation model. Moreover, the relationships between online consumer engagement and the two consumer-perceived value types are supported. Two of the direct relationships between the independent variables (personality traits) and dependent variables (consumer-perceived value types) are supported, namely those between extraversion and social value, and openness to experiences and aesthetic value. Conservation and self-enhancement were found to moderate the relationships between extraversion and online consumer engagement, altruism and online consumer engagement, and openness to experiences and online consumer engagement.

9.7 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the results of the online surveys obtained. It began with an overview, discussed the demographic profile of the sample in terms of age, gender, education, and frequency of online engagement, and proceeded to the validity and reliability testing of the single scales. The scales personality traits, online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value were tested in terms of reliability, and both convergent and discriminant validity using CFA. Thereafter, CFA was performed in respect of the moderators of conservation and self-enhancement in order to analyse the validity and reliability of the scales. Personal values consists of two major dimensions namely self-transcendence vs. self-enhancement and openness to change vs. conservation. After data cleaning due to skewness issues and CFA results (reliability, convergent and discriminant validity), six valid and reliable personal values remained. Three of these were subsumed under self-enhancement (power, hedonism, achievement), and three were placed under the conservation (tradition, conformity and security) construct.

CFA was then performed for the entire measurement model to ensure reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity not only for the single constructs, but also for the entire model. Three personality traits, namely extraversion, altruism, and openness to experiences, and two consumer-perceived value types, namely social value and aesthetic value were valid and reliable. Moreover, the online consumer engagement construct was found to be valid and reliable after subsuming the initially proposed three-dimensional construct into a unidimensional construct.

In a next step, the research model was tested in terms of validity. Firstly, it was tested for common method bias with two common tests: 1) Harman's single factor test, and 2) the marker variable test. Results show that common method bias is not an issue for this study. Furthermore, the validity of the research model was tested. The model fit indices and the results for the SEM were compared for the full and partial mediation models without the moderator. The results demonstrate that the partial mediation model had a slightly better fit to represent the data collected. Hierarchical regression tests, the Baron and Kenny approach, and Zhao's approach, were used to illustrate the statistical significance of online consumer engagement as a mediator for this study. The findings of the hypotheses testing show that all five relationships of the initially proposed full mediation model were found to be significant. Two of the additional six direct relationships tested in the partial mediation model were

significant, namely the direct relationship between extraversion and social value, and the direct relationship between openness to experiences and aesthetic value.

Differences in age, gender, and FHOBs were also tested for, and were found in the following relationships: 1) Extraversion and online consumer engagement, 2) Altruism and online consumer engagement, 3) Extraversion and social value, 4) Altruism and social value, 5) Openness to experiences and aesthetic value, and 6) Openness to experiences and online consumer engagement.

Finally, the moderation effect was tested, and the results show that conservation weakens the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement, altruism and online consumer engagement, and openness to experiences and online consumer engagement. Self-enhancement strengthens the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement and between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement. Self-enhancement weakens the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement.

Table 9.24 summarises the findings of the hypotheses testing. The next chapter discusses the findings of this study in more detail.

CHAPTER 10: DISCUSSION

10.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of this study that investigates antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement, and is structured as follows: Section 10.2 presents a general discussion of the research findings, and the following sections provide a discussion of the relationships that have been supported in both the qualitative and quantitative studies, and the additional direct relationships between personality traits and consumer-perceived value that have been added when testing an alternative partial mediation model. Thus, Section 10.3 addresses the relationships between the personality traits extraversion, altruism and openness to experiences, and online consumer engagement. Section 10.4 deals with the relationships between online consumer engagement and the two consumer-perceived value types social value and aesthetic value. In Section 10.5, the direct relationships between the personality traits and the consumer-perceived value types are discussed. Finally, Section 10.6 concerns itself with the moderating effect of personal values (conservation and self-enhancement) on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. Differences in gender and age are not discussed in detail as there were no unexpected findings or patterns. However, differences between FHOBCs are discussed due to considerable differences between the two FHOBCs involved. Section 10.7 summarises the chapter.

10.2 General Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate antecedents and consequences of the under-researched construct of online consumer engagement. The investigation began with a review of the extant literature on online consumer engagement in order to identify the gaps in the current knowledge, and from this, a conceptual framework was developed which highlighted personality traits as possible antecedents of online consumer engagement, and consumer-perceived value as a possible consequence of online consumer engagement. The conceptual framework was supported by a qualitative study that was undertaken to refine the above-mentioned conceptual framework. The main quantitative study further tested the proposed

framework with a large sample of 559 users of two FHOBCs, namely a firm-hosted social media brand community, and a FHOBC for customer service support.

Even though the qualitative study found support for a relationship between online consumer engagement and the five theoretically proposed consumer-perceived value dimensions suggested by Holbrook (1999), the findings did not hold in the quantitative study. Testing the proposed relationships quantitatively showcased that only two out of five consumer-perceived value dimensions are related to online consumer engagement. However, these findings could also be linked to the fact that concepts from different disciplines have been brought together for this study, and may have created issues when analysing the data in terms of discriminant validity. For example, the consumer-perceived value 'play' had to be eliminated from the study to achieve discriminant validity for the remaining constructs. The additional personality trait 'need for learning', which was added to the Big Five did not present reliable Cronbach's alpha and CR scores, whereas another added trait, namely 'need for activity' did not present discriminant validity and was, therefore, excluded from the study.

Two of the Big Five personality traits, namely neuroticism and conscientiousness, did not reach sufficient convergent validity when using this real life setting of two FHOBCs. Disagreeableness had to be excluded due to low reliability scores. This issue could be related to the translation of the scales to the German language. Even though, the scales have been translated, back-translated, and double-checked, the German version of the scales has not been tested and refined like its equivalent and well-established English version of the Big Five personality traits that was used for the firm-hosted social media brand community sample. Moreover, literature was checked for similar issues with reliability and validity when using any of the English versions of the Big Five. However, no problems in terms of reliability and validity were detected when using only the well-established and tested English version of the scale.

Moreover, the newly-developed three-dimensional online consumer engagement scale of Hollebeek et al. (2014), which was tested in three firm-hosted social media brand communities namely Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn did not hold for this broader real-life setting of a FHOBC. This study used not only a firm-hosted social media brand community, but also a FHOBC for customer service support. The findings show that online consumer engagement is rather unidimensional when using the data provided by the firm-hosted social media brand community and the FHOBC for customer service support users. One of the

reasons why the three-dimensional scale did not hold for this study might be that the scale was only tested in the context of a firm-hosted social media brand community (Hollebeek et al., 2014). Thus, the multidimensionality of the scale might be context dependent as suggested by Brodie et al. (2011) who state in their definition (Table 2.1 on page p. 41) that the multidimensionality of the concept is subject to a context/-and stakeholder-specific expression of relevant cognitive, emotional and/or behavioural dimensions. This argument is supported by the findings of the following studies which tested the newly develop OCE scale (Islam et al., 2017a; Islam et al, 2017b; Leckie et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2016). Leckie et al. (2016) support the multidimensionality of the scale whereas the other three studies (Islam et al., 2017a; Islam et al, 2017b; Nguyen et al., 2016) do not support the multidimensionality of the scale. These studies are further explained. The study of Leckie et al. (2016) supports the three-dimensional scale of OCE in testing it for the usage of any Australian mobile phone provider (Leckie et al., 2016). However, it focuses on the use of any mobile phone provider and not on FHOBCs. This study focused on two specific FHOBCs, and the criteria of membership in at least one of the two FHOBCs. Nguyen et al. (2016) retested the scale with an Australian consumer panel, and taking as its criterion for participation, a visit in any FHOBC to share travel experiences or seek travel information in the last twelve months. Thus, this study focuses on any FHOBC for travel experiences, which is more similar to the context of this study. The study of Nguyen et al. (2016) does not support the three-dimensionality of the OCE scale. The participants of the study of Islam et al. (2017a) and Islam et al. (2017b) had to be members of any Facebook-based online brand community. Membership in a specific community was not explicitly mentioned in these studies (Islam et al. 2017a; Islam et al. 2017b; Leckie et al., 2016; Nguyen et al. 2016) in comparison to the present study. Both of Islam's (2017) studies do not support the multidimensionality of the scale although their focus is on firm-hosted social media brand communities only.

Another reason why the multidimensionality of the scale did not hold for this study could be the fact that this study focuses on German and UK citizens. Thus, the majority of this study's participants are European. The sample distribution of Hollebeek et al. (2014) for the first study (scale development) is 44.3% European, for the second (scale confirmation) 74% European, and for the third (scale confirmation) 74% European. The findings of this study might be context-dependent and could be different if the study were to be conducted with other FHOBCs or nationalities as shown in the studies of Hollebeek et al. (2014). There is also a difference in age distribution. The sample of Hollebeek et al. (2014) comprises 194

undergraduate business students for the first study, 90.7% of whom were under the age of 25. This is a very different age sample from that in this study, since 66% of the participants in the current study were aged 30 or older. A second validation study was conducted by Hollebeek et al. (2014) using a different brand (Twitter.com), and 554 consumers of an independent marketing fieldwork organisation. However, only 16% of the sample group were aged 30-34, and 13% aged 50+ which shows another, rather young sample group in comparison to that in this study. Notwithstanding, the third study includes the brand LinkedIn with 556 consumers and an older and more similar sample group, namely 15% between 30-34 years old, 17% between 45-49 years old, and 22% being 50 years or older. Hollebeek et al. (2014) did also discover some discriminant validity issues in their third study when using an age group more similar to this study. Only two of the three dimensions reached discriminant validity. In the next section the tested relationships are discussed.

10.3 The Relationship between Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

The results of this study show empirical support for the suggestion of Wirtz et al. (2013), and McAlexander et al. (2002) of the need to research personality traits in relation to online consumer engagement. Whereas the qualitative study found support for a relationship between eight out of the nine proposed personality traits and online consumer engagement, the quantitative study only shows support for a relationship between three of the personality traits and online consumer engagement. The personality trait need for arousal was excluded from the quantitative study based on the results of the qualitative study, and in response to a request for a shorter survey by the co-operating FHOBC for customer service support. In the quantitative study there was no relationship found for the personality traits disagreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, need for activity, and need for learning and online consumer engagement, as the measurement scales did not present sufficient reliability and validity based on the data collected. The findings concerning the three relationships that were supported in both studies are summarised and discussed in the following section.

H1: Extraversion and Online Consumer Engagement

The study supports H1 and suggests a positive relationship (SRW = 0.17, C.R. = 2.91, $p < 0.01$) between extraversion and online consumer engagement. Individuals who are very extravert in nature engage more in FHOBCs as they are more sociable and outgoing and, therefore, are more likely to approach other individuals online or get to know new individuals who have similar interests. For example, a twenty four year old female stated during the interviews that she liked to use a particular Facebook brand page to connect with people who have the same travel experiences or who are also planning to take a gap year. Thus, Facebook brand pages can also help to become acquainted with other individuals with similar interests. For example, prior to a work and travel gap year, individuals like to meet others who are about to have similar experiences or who have already had a similar experience and are willing to give some helpful advice. FHOBCs are a good platform for these chatty and lively individuals to share and discuss their experience with each other. Moreover, extraverts like to be known by others, and engaging online is a fast and easy way to make oneself known to a large group of people all at once. Recognition is important for extraverts and, therefore, engaging online helps them to be seen and heard. Additionally, extraverts tend to have a large pool of friends and engaging online can help them to stay in touch with their friends with rather low effort involved.

The hypothesis is only significant for female users and the firm-hosted social media brand community and not for the FHOBC for customer service support. This is in line with previous research that found women to be more likely to use social networking sites compared to men (Hargittai, 2008). Moreover, women are more likely to engage in behaviour like relationship maintenance than are men, who prefer to be involved in more task-focused activities online like reading the news (e.g. Guadagno, Muscanell, & Okdie, 2011; Weiser, 2001; Williams, Consalvo, & Yee, 2009). Facebook is often used for relationship maintenance rather than task- focused activities, which could be more linked to the FHOBC for customer service support, in which the majority of participants are male.

H4: Openness to experiences and Online Consumer Engagement

The study results support H4 (SRW = 0.46, C.R. = 6.25, $p < 0.001$) and show that the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is positive. In other words, individuals who are more open to experiences engage more in FHOBCs. This relationship is only significant for the firm-hosted social media brand community as individuals who score highly on openness to experiences tend to be more curious. Thus, engaging online in the firm-hosted social media brand community Facebook can satisfy this curiosity as they can follow their friends' lives or their favourite brand news 24/7. Individuals high on openness to experiences also seek novelty, and by engaging online they are able to come into contact with new people with similar interests, for example other VW enthusiasts as mentioned in the exploratory interviews. Individuals high on openness to experiences tend to search for more information, which can be easily and quickly accessed through engaging with Facebook brand pages, like for example, news pages. Engaging online can also fulfil those individuals' need to constantly seek opportunities to learn something new, whether that be the latest information about a product they intend to buy or the most recent experiences of their friends on Facebook. The open-minded individual likes to be up to date and informed, and Facebook is the optimal platform for achieving this aim.

H8: Altruism and Online Consumer Engagement

H8 is supported by the findings (SRW = 0.16, C.R. = 2.94, $p < 0.01$) that show a positive relationship between the two constructs altruism and online consumer engagement. Findings show that the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement only plays a role for individuals engaging in a FHOBC for customer service support, and not for a firm-hosted social media brand community. A possible explanation might be that individuals engaging in a FHOBC for customer service support like to share their experiences and help others to solve their problems, while people engaging in a firm-hosted social media brand community prefer to socialise and get to know individuals with the same interests. Thus, based on the results of this study, being altruistic in nature and therefore kind, generous, and helpful is the main driver of the online engagement of individuals of FHOBCs for customer service support. When asking participants in the qualitative study about specific Facebook brand pages, pages where people like to interact and motivate others with similar goals, like the Weight Watchers page were mentioned. However, for the quantitative study, the general

context of Facebook rather than specific brand pages, was used, and this might explain the difference in findings.

10.4 The Relationship between Online Consumer Engagement and Consumer-perceived Value

This study provides empirical support for the theoretical arguments that online consumer engagement might be related to value creation in general (Higgins & Scholer, 2009; Hollebeek, 2013; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010a) or more specifically, to consumer value (Hollebeek, 2013; Vivek et al., 2012). Online consumer engagement is related to two consumer-perceived value types, namely social value and aesthetic value.

H10a: Online Consumer Engagement and Social Value

The findings of the study show support for H10a (SRW = 0.80, C.R. = 10.79, $p < 0.001$). Online consumer engagement is positively related to social value, which is linked to status and esteem (Holbrook, 1999). Thus, individuals perceive social approval through engaging online. Social approval can be shown by the FHOBC itself, the brand, its employees or users in any form. For example, an individual's knowledge, lifestyle etc., can be valued in the FHOBC or that individual may feel accepted by a large group of people immediately. Any form of recognition is important for those individuals, and such recognition could be a specific status awarded in the community or just an appreciation for something they have achieved or have helped with. Participants stated that they liked to make a good impression on others by interacting with a specific brand or having general knowledge about particular products. Social value can also occur if an individual shapes the responses of others in a FHOBC.

H10e: Online Consumer Engagement and Aesthetic Value

Research findings support H10e (SRW = 0.56, C.R. = 9.19, $p < 0.001$) and thus reveal that online consumer engagement and aesthetic value are positively related. Aesthetic value can occur when aesthetic aspects of the FHOBC lead to value creation, as for example, through an attractive design or overall appearance of the FHOBC website. An attractive font, easy to use layout or appropriate colours can also contribute to perceived aesthetic value when engaging

in a FHOBC. Participants, for instance, mentioned that they valued easy and quick access to information or eye catching and colourful pictures.

10.5 The Relationship between Personality Traits and Consumer-perceived Value

The direct relationship between personality traits and consumer-perceived value was initially not proposed in this study focusing on the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. Testing an alternative partial mediation model in addition to the proposed full mediation model led to the following findings that show support for two of the six direct relationships, which are between extraversion and social value, and between openness to experiences and aesthetic value.

H11: Extraversion and Social Value

The direct relationship between the personality trait extraversion and social value proposed in Hypothesis 11 is supported (SRW = -0.17, C.R. = -2.84, $p < 0.01$) and is negative in nature. Users of FHOBCs who are extraverts are very outgoing individuals as they strive to secure the company of others, and like to be constantly surrounded by people, irrespective of how well or little they actually know them. However, being concerned to obtain the social approval of every single person the extravert meets virtually or non-virtually during a day or a week is very time-consuming, and not sustainable from a psychological perspective over a prolonged period of time. Thus, extraverts in general try not to let the opinions of others affect them and also not to worry much whether they have the social approval of others, as they are prepared to strike up a conversation with almost everyone. They are not shy or afraid of strangers and have self-confidence, a large part of which is the feeling of being comfortable with themselves. In general, it is more important to extraverts to please themselves rather than others.

However, if we add in online consumer engagement as a mediator, this relationship becomes positive as H1 - the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is positive, and H10a - the relationship between online consumer engagement and social value is also positive. This change of direction can happen if the mediator acts as a suppressor variable; such models are known as inconsistent mediation models (MacKinnon, Krull, & Lockwood, 2000).

The change of direction is an interesting observation and a possible reason for this direction change might be that in general, users of FHOBCs who are extraverts in nature might not care about social approval for the reasons discussed earlier. However, if these individuals engage and interact online with the brand or other users or consumers, they express their opinion and share their experiences. Thus, they expect some recognition for sacrificing their time and engaging with other individuals online. These individuals engage because they want to achieve something from that interaction, they want their opinion to be valued or to experience some other form of appreciation for the sacrifice of their time in sharing their experiences or providing help to peers with other issues. Usually, it is human nature to want to be liked and accepted by others and even though extravert users of FHOBCs might not care too much about social approval, this might become more relevant to them once they actually engage as that approval is more linked to rewards in this context. Basically, they give up their time to be of help to others, and in this situation, social approval takes on a relevance for them. Another explanation could be that extraverts strive for large social circles, and by engaging online with a larger group of people all at the same time, they could earn much respect depending on the way they interact within this large group with everyone simultaneously. Thus, while they might not care about the social approval they receive from each individual they meet online or offline, they may well do so when engaging in the FHOBC as the approval comes from a large group of people in a very compressed space of time, so the reward is large and instant.

The direct negative relationship between extraversion and social value is only significant for the users of the FHOBC for customer service support and not for the firm-hosted social media brand community users. One possible explanation might be the difference in type of FHOBC as firm-hosted social media brand communities are, in general, more linked with the showcasing of individuals' lifestyles and accomplishments, and thus encouraging the social approval of others, in contrast to FHOBC designed to provide customer service support.

H12: Extraversion and Aesthetic Value

Another direct relationship that was added when testing the alternative partial mediation model was that between extraversion and aesthetic value. This relationship is not supported (SRW = 0.03, C.R. = 0.60, $p > 0.05$), thereby showing that extraversion is not directly related to aesthetic value. Intraversion is linked to a richer inner life and fantasy proneness, and thus introverts might value aesthetics more than extraverts. Introverts are highly sensitive human

beings which makes them care more about aesthetics and beauty, whereas individuals scoring highly on extraversion are more assertive, more flexible in their thinking and optimistic, and might not place the same degree of value on aesthetics.

H13: Openness to experiences and Social Value

Openness to experiences is not related to social value (SRW = -0.08, C.R. = -1.10, $p > 0.05$) and thus, H13 is not supported. A possible explanation for the non-significant relationship is that open-minded individuals are less prone to prejudices and more flexible in their thinking. Therefore, they do not care what others think about them, and tend to be tolerant of others, accepting all people for being who they are, even though they might be very different from themselves or from people they are used to spending time with. Open-minded individuals therefore do not even think about the fact that others might not approve of them as they themselves do not engage in the social approval of others. This is a natural consequence of believing that others are like themselves in their thinking, i.e., that nobody is judging anybody else. Consequently, open-minded individuals do not need others' social approval and nor do they pass judgement on others.

H14: Openness to experiences and Aesthetic Value

Hypothesis 14, stating that openness to experiences is related to aesthetic value is supported (SRW = 0.15, C.R. = 2.19, $p < 0.05$). A possible explanation why aesthetic value is important for individuals who are open to experiences is that they have more imagination and curiosity that might lead them to value aesthetics. The fact that this hypothesis is only supported for the female group and the firm-hosted social media brand community may be justified by the fact that females often value aesthetics more than males (Mencken, 1922). In general, beauty is more important for women; they strive to achieve this in their surroundings more than men do (Mencken, 1922). The firm-hosted social media brand community sample has a higher number of female participants than the FHOBC for customer service support, and the aesthetics of the content of a firm-hosted social media brand community might be more valued than the aesthetics of a functional FHOBC for customer service support.

H15: Altruism and Social Value

The relationship between altruism and social value is not supported H15 (SRW = 0.11, C.R. = 1.84, $p > 0.05$). However, when testing the research model for different groups, this hypothesis is significant for the FHOBC for customer service support but not for the firm-hosted social media brand community. Indeed, the main driver of online consumer engagement in the FHOBC for customer service support is the personality trait altruism. Thus, the members of this community are altruistic in nature and might, therefore, care about how they are perceived by others, and implicitly whether they gain approval for sacrificing their time to help others. Indeed, despite altruistic individuals being predisposed to giving of their time to assist those in need, they do nonetheless appreciate some reward for sharing their knowledge on the platform, and this can be secured simply by gratitude coming from other users. The FHOBC for customer service support integrated a ranking system on its website so that users and brand community facilitators could register their appreciation of individuals' contributions to the FHOBC. This system categorises users according to the quantity and quality of their posts. Thus, badges are dependent on how much members interact or post, and the quality of their posts (the quality being determined by the ranking achieved from other users based on the effectiveness of the solutions they have posted).

The community facilitators or members can award badges in this process, with examples being given for contributing to the FHOBC in the role of informant, community guide, problem- solver, thinker, mentor, advisor or chat partner. Other forms of appreciation or recognition could be branded gifts, opportunities to participate and voice their opinions, and ideas in meetings about the FHOBC etc.

H16: Altruism and Aesthetic Value

Hypothesis 16 is not supported by the research findings (SRW = 0.04, C.R. = 0.69, $p > 0.05$) and thus, altruism is not related to aesthetic value. Individuals who are more altruistic in nature and therefore more generous, helpful and kind to others, might not appreciate aesthetics too much as they may perceive such considerations as superficial. Altruistic individuals are selfless in nature and the welfare of others is their main concern. Thus, whether something is aesthetically pleasing or not is not of great importance to them as there are more pressing considerations to direct their attention towards.

10.6 Personal Values (Conservation/Self-enhancement) Moderate the Relationship between Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

Hollebeek (2011a), Sung et al. (2010) and Wirtz et al. (2013) mention the missing aspect of culture or cross-cultural research in relation to online consumer engagement. The idea that personal values moderate the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement is appealing as values are concepts that guide behaviour (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Roccas et al., 2002; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). This study empirically supports the decision to choose personal values as a moderator as findings show that conservation and self-enhancement moderate the relationships between all three personality traits and online consumer engagement. These relationships are now further discussed.

H9a: Conservation Moderates the Relationship between Extraversion and Online Consumer Engagement

The results show that the direct relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is not significant for either group (Low Conservation: $SRW = 0.08$, $C.R. = 1.02$, $p > 0.05$; High Conservation: $SRW = 0.16$, $C.R. = 1.82$, $p > 0.05$). Nevertheless, the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is overall significant when testing for the full and partial mediation models. Thus, the moderator conservation weakens the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement, and therefore, the relationship is moderated by conservation.

H9d: Conservation Moderates the Relationship between Openness to Experiences and Online Consumer Engagement

The relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is significant for both groups (Low Conservation: $SRW = 0.56$, $C.R. = 5.30$, $p < 0.001$; High Conservation: $SRW = 0.33$, $C.R. = 3.44$, $p < 0.001$). The relationship is stronger for the low conservation group with a standardised regression weight of 0.56 and a critical ratio (t-value) of 5.30 in comparison to a standardised regression weight of 0.33 and a critical ratio of 3.44 for the high conservation group. This indicates that the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is moderated by conservation. The relationship is stronger for individuals low on conservation. An open-minded individual will engage more online if he or she is not restricted by the predisposition to follow certain rules embedded in

traditions or religious beliefs. Thus, if the individual is low on conservation this will facilitate his/her online engagement.

H9h: Conservation Moderates the Relationship between Altruism and Online Consumer Engagement

The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement is significant for the low conservation group (SRW = 0.20, C.R. = 2.52, $p < 0.01$) but not for the high conservation group (SRW = 0.16, C.R. = 1.86, $p > 0.05$). Thus, conservation moderates the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement.

Altruistic individuals like to engage online as they enjoy helping others and are happy to dedicate their time to such activity as they are essentially selfless in character. If these individuals are low on conservation, the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement will be strengthened, as they will not be restrained by traditions, customs or rules that are embedded in their religious beliefs and which might deter online engagement. Individuals scoring highly on conservation like to restrict themselves, as they are rule-governed, following regulations that they have either set for themselves or been imposed by other family members or their religious beliefs. These individuals are not ready for new experiences or modes of thinking, and this lack of readiness may well prevent them from engaging and meeting exciting new people in FHOBCs even though they themselves are altruistic in nature and keen to offer help to others. Individuals low on conservation do not operate within such restrictions and consequently, nothing holds them back from engaging online as they are open to new experiences, new ideas, and new interaction with new and different types of people.

H9i: Self-enhancement Moderates the Relationship between Extraversion and Online Consumer Engagement

H9i is supported as results show that the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is significant for the high self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.15, C.R. = 2.48, $p < 0.01$), yet not for the low self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.13, C.R. = 1.19, $p > 0.05$). Thus, self-enhancement moderates the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement.

Extraverts are very outgoing individuals who seek more attention than intraverts, and if they also score highly on self-enhancement, being motivated to enhance their personal goals, their online engagement will increase. Individuals high on self-enhancement are more selfish or self-focused, and by engaging online they can have an avenue to seek the attention they desire, and simultaneously showcase their achievements. Their lives are more focused on enjoyment and their own personal interests, and this is what they like to show to others via engaging in FHOBCs.

H9l: Self-enhancement Moderates the Relationship between Openness to Experiences and Online Consumer Engagement

The relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement is highly significant for the high self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.70, C.R. = 7.29, $p < 0.001$) but not for the low self-enhancement group (SRW = -0.14, C.R. = -1.16, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, this relationship is moderated by self-enhancement. Individuals who are more open to experiences engage more in FHOBCs as they tend to seek more information, which is easily and rapidly accessed through online engagement. The holding of values such as power, achievement, and hedonism facilitates the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement. The drive for more information, their curiosity, and their ambition for success and social power stimulates their online engagement, which ensures that they are well informed, and can show their expertise or share their experiences and successes (thereby increasing their prestige). Another explanation is that open-minded individuals who are open to new experiences, also have a zest for life and make the effort to fulfil their dreams and desires, thus seeing a value in connecting with others online to find like-minded individuals possibly with similar plans in mind.

H9p: Self-enhancement Moderates the Relationship between Altruism and Online Consumer Engagement

The relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement is highly significant for the low self-enhancement group (SRW = 0.42, C.R. = 3.36, $p < 0.001$), but not for the high self-enhancement group (SRW = -0.03, C.R. = -0.51, $p > 0.05$). Hence, self-enhancement moderates the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement.

Individuals who are altruistic in nature are very helpful to others, and this can be a strong reason to engage in FHOBCs, as these provide a forum where they can show their care for

others' happiness. Altruistic individuals are generous human beings, who dedicate their time to helping others whereas individuals high on self-enhancement are not very interested in others' needs. Thus, the personality trait altruism, and the personal value low self-enhancement complement each other well and, therefore, individuals who possess both an altruistic personality and are low on self-enhancement engage more online as they are not only more generous and kind, but they are also very interested in other users and their lives, and the challenges they may be facing. These individuals are selfless human beings who are happy to dedicate their time to helping others where necessary and feel a sense of accomplishment through such a predisposition. Consequently, making others happy or satisfied is their ultimate goal, as the feeling they experience through such achievement is one of personal satisfaction, and this means more to them than enhancing their own personal goals.

10.7 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the research findings, starting by considering the research findings in general, and progressing to a discussion of the various relationships that have been supported in both the preliminary qualitative study, and the main quantitative study. The results of both studies were seen to show support for the contention that personality traits extraversion, altruism, and openness to experiences function as antecedents of online consumer engagement. Furthermore, two dimensions of consumer-perceived value, namely altruistic value and social value were found to be consequences of online consumer engagement.

Additionally, the direct relationships between personality traits and consumer-perceived value were tested in the alternative partial mediation model, which revealed two of these relationships to be supported, these being that between extraversion and social value, and that between openness to experiences and aesthetic value. Conservation and self-enhancement were shown to moderate the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement, openness to experiences and online consumer engagement, and the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement.

These findings are in line with that part of the engagement literature that identifies online consumer engagement as a unidimensional rather than multidimensional concept as proposed by Hollebeek et al. (2014). This could be a result of the concept being tested in the more general context of a FHOBC rather than only in a firm-hosted social media brand community. Moreover, this study is more European-based than those conducted by Hollebeek et al. (2014), and involves different age demographics from those in two out of three Hollebeek et al. (2014) studies. Two out of five consumer-perceived value dimensions (social value and aesthetic value) and two out of the five Big Five dimensions (extraversion and openness to experiences) were found to be reliable and valid after conducting CFA, an outcome that might be related to the study context or to the translation of the scale into German.

The next chapter concludes this research project by presenting its contribution to knowledge, specifically through its contribution to theory, method, and empirical context. The managerial implications, limitations, and opportunities for future research are also discussed.

CHAPTER 11: CONCLUSION

11.1 Introduction

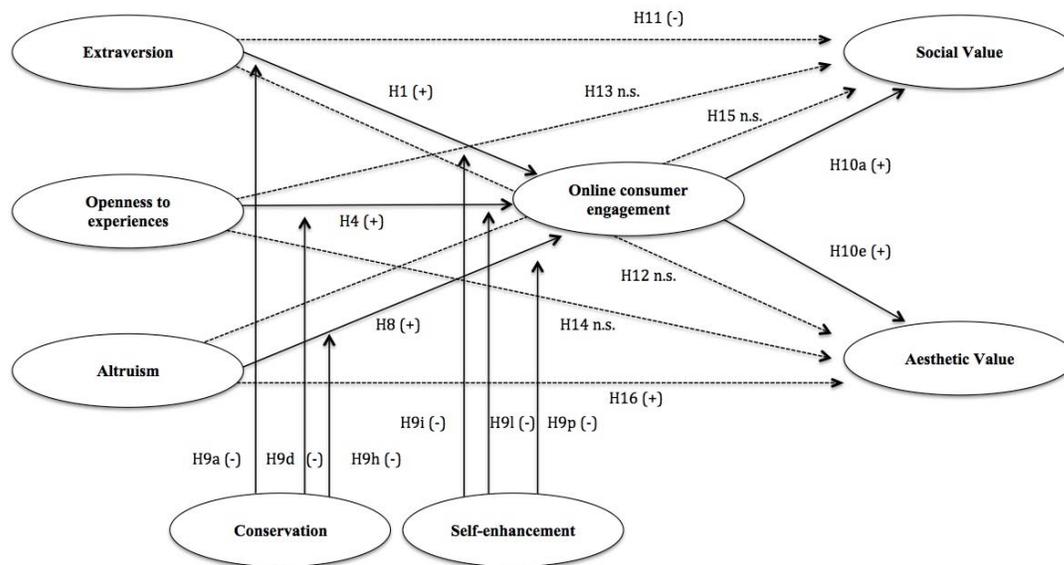
This chapter provides a short summary of the main research findings in Section 11.2 and shows the final validated conceptual framework. Section 11.3 deals with the contribution to knowledge resulting from the study, considering this in terms of its contribution to theory, method and empirical context. Section 11.4 discusses the managerial implications arising from the study's results, and Section 11.5 summarises the limitations of the study, from which suggestions for future research in the area of online consumer engagement arise. Section 11.6 concludes the chapter and the thesis.

11.2 Summary of the Research Findings

This thesis has examined the role of personality traits as antecedents and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement, and the moderating role of personal values on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement.

Figure 11.1 shows the final validated conceptual framework with its significant and nonsignificant relationships.

Figure 11.1: Final Validated Conceptual Framework



Personality Traits as Antecedents of Online Consumer Engagement

In terms of antecedents of online consumer engagement, three results emerged. Extraversion is positively related to online consumer engagement, altruism is positively related to online consumer engagement, and openness to experiences is positively related to online consumer engagement.

Consumer-perceived Value as a Consequence of Online Consumer Engagement

In terms of consequences of online consumer engagement, two results emerged. Online consumer engagement is positively related to social value, and positively related to aesthetic value, respectively.

Personal Values as Moderators of the Relationship between Personality Traits and Online Consumer Engagement

The relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is overall significant but when splitting the sample into low and high conservation, the relationship loses its significance. Thus, the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement is moderated by conservation. Moreover, conservation moderates the relationship between

altruism and online consumer engagement, and between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement.

Self-enhancement moderates the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement. Moreover, self-enhancement also moderates the relationship between altruism and online consumer engagement, and the relationship between openness to experiences and online consumer engagement.

Direct Relationships between Independent and Dependent Variable

Whilst testing a partial mediation model in addition to the full mediation model, two direct relationships between the independent (personality traits) and dependent variables (consumer-perceived value types) were revealed. Extraversion is negatively related to social value whereas openness to experiences is positively related to aesthetic value.

11.3 Contribution to Knowledge

This section summarises the contribution to knowledge made by this thesis. A number of research gaps have been addressed in this work as thus far, there has been only limited research directed towards the possible antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement. This study responds to the call to investigate personality traits as antecedents and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement in the context of FHOBs. Contributions can be classified in three categories, namely those to theory, to method, and to empirical context (Summers, 2001). Section 11.3.1 summarises the contribution to theory, Section 11.3.2 addresses the contribution to method, and Section 11.3.3 discusses the contribution to empirical context.

11.3.1 Contribution to Theory

In terms of contribution to theory, the outcome of this study contributes to theory building and theory testing. It makes a conceptual contribution in bringing together literature from different disciplines, namely psychology, and marketing literature. In respect of the latter, it delivers particularly into the dimensions of marketing knowledge relating to culture, personal values, consumer-perceived value, and online consumer engagement. From these different areas, the

study generates a conceptual framework, which provides a better understanding of the constructs and the measurement items in the context of a FHOBC.

The theory building aspect includes an improved conceptual definition of the four constructs namely CE in FHOBCs, personality traits, personal values, and consumer-perceived value as well as the testing of instruments to measure these concepts. Moreover, this study conducts the research in two languages, and therefore, translates the selected measurement scale items into German. The study builds theoretical linkages in terms of research hypotheses between the mentioned constructs, which are based on existing literature and qualitative insights, and tests these linkages.

Furthermore, this research develops and tests a measurement scale for consumer-perceived value that can be used in the context of FHOBCs. Previous measurement scales in the area of consumer-perceived value can only be used in the context of a product and not in a service context. The measurement scale for consumer-perceived value, which was developed in exploratory interviews, needs further exploration in the context of other FHOBCs and requires refinement, as some scales did not reach validity and reliability in the CFA with the sample for this study. The efficiency scale was excluded, as reliability, convergent and discriminant validity were not achieved. The altruistic value scale was excluded, as reliability and discriminant validity were not achieved, and the excellence scale was excluded, as discriminant validity was not achieved. The scale for play, which was not adapted for the context as it was rather general, reached reliability and convergent validity, but was however, subsequently excluded in order to achieve discriminant validity for all remaining constructs. Thus, only social value and aesthetic value reached reliability, convergent and discriminant validity after CFA.

Moreover, the study finds support for the idea that personality traits cannot be reduced to only five factors (Brown et al., 2002), and hence, other research efforts that have incorporated additional personality traits to the Big Five, have been considered (Mowen & Spears, 1999). Drawing on previous research, the constructs need for learning, altruism (Mowen & Sujana, 2005), need for arousal (Mowen & Spears, 1999) and need for activity (Licata et al., 2003) have been included to provide a more comprehensive list of personality traits. The results of this study show support for the integration of these additional traits as surprisingly, only two out of five well-established personality traits scales reached reliability and validity with the

collected data. Disagreeableness was excluded from the study because of low reliability scores, and the fact that the scales did not reach convergent validity. Neuroticism and conscientiousness were also excluded on the grounds that they did not achieve convergent validity.

11.3.2 Contribution to Method

The contribution to method includes advancing knowledge by finding, for example, improved ways for approaching a study in terms of design and the analytical techniques applied (Summers, 2001). The online consumer engagement scale had been tested by Hollebeek et al. (2014) for the context of a firm-hosted social media brand community, and was more recently retested by Nguyen et al. (2016) and Leckie et al. (2016), although in different contexts. In the case of Nguyen et al. (2016), an Australian consumer panel provided the context, the criterion for participation being a visit to any online brand community to share travel experiences or seek travel information in the last twelve months. Membership of any community was not explicitly mentioned, whereas in the current study, this was a definite criterion. In the case of Leckie et al. (2016), the context was that of an Australian mobile phone provider. Participants were not members of an online brand community set up by the company, and the only condition for participation in the study was the usage of a mobile phone provider. The study of Leckie et al. (2016) supports the proposed three-dimensional scale whereas the study of Nguyen et al. (2016) does not support the scale. Very recently Islam et al. (2017a) and Islam et al. (2017b) retested this scale for Facebook-based online brand communities and findings do not support the multidimensionality of the scale but rather show a unidimensional scale.

Hence, this study retests the scale in the situation of a firm-hosted social media brand community, and also in the situation of a FHOBC for customer service support. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this scale has not been previously tested within the broader context of FHOBCs where the criterion for participation in the study was that of membership of a specific FHOBC. This marks a difference between the present study, and the study by Nguyen et al. (2016) who test the scale in any online travel brand community, and do not require membership. It is also different to the study by Islam et al. (2017a) and Islam et al. (2017b) in which participants should be members of at least one (no specific) Facebook-based online brand community. Leckie et al. (2016) do not focus on a FHOBC but rather on the use of any mobile phone provider.

This study brings new and interesting research findings in respect of the newly-developed scale to measure online consumer engagement, as it demonstrates that it has applicability in the context of a FHOBC for customer service support. Thus, the study's findings (obtained from the data provided by members of two FHOBCs, namely a social media brand community, and a customer service support community) showcase that the proposed three-dimensional measurement scale of Hollebeek et al. (2014), was not supported for the broader context of a FHOBC. Rather, the findings offer support for a unidimensional measurement scale integrating cognitive, emotional, and behavioural items. These results confirm the ambiguity in respect of the conceptualisation of online consumer engagement that still exists, as academics have not been able to reach any consensus concerning whether to refer to online consumer engagement as a unidimensional or multidimensional construct. The best measurement scale for this study shows a mix of two behavioural items, four emotional and two cognitive items subsumed into a unidimensional construct. In exploratory interviews, items were added to the online consumer engagement scales. Two items were incorporated within the cognitive and behavioural dimensions respectively, and another one item was added to the emotional dimension. Two additional items were found to be reliable and, therefore, representative of the online consumer engagement scale, these being: "Using 'FHOBC' makes me think about using one of their services" and "I use 'FHOBC' to learn about other users' experiences".

The Big Five measurement scales and the measurement scales of the four additional traits were retested in this study. Existing research has used culture moderators such as psychic distance (Ellis, 2008), cultural values namely individualism/collectivism (Diener et al., 1995; Probst & Lawler, 2006), power distance (Farh et al., 2007; Robie et al., 1998), traditionality (Farh et al., 2007), uncertainty avoidance and time orientation (Bartikowski et al., 2011), and culture of origin (Waxin, 2004). Thus, most of the studies reviewed used one or two of Hofstede's dimensions as a moderator for their studies. However, this is the first study using Schwartz's short scale of personal values on the individual level as a moderator. The 10-item short version was adopted and tested in terms of reliability and validity, finding that six out of ten values were both reliable and valid. Hence, this study supports the findings of Lindeman and Verkasalo (2005), who found that the Schwartz personal values scale provides a brief, reliable, and valid screening of what people value in their lives, and thus offers a more current and less criticised alternative (Ng et al., 2007; Steenkamp, 2001) to the widely debated

version of Hofstede (Chow et al., 1994; Evans & Mavondo, 2002; Evans et al., 2000; Kim & Gray, 2009; McSweeney, 2002; Schwartz, 1999).

Moreover, this study demonstrates empirical support for the approach of Zhao et al. (2010) in respect of mediation analysis. They state that indirect effects should be tested first, and that this testing should be followed by a test of the direct effects in order to avoid the dismissal of important research projects on the basis of the approach of Baron and Kenny (1986). Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest stopping the analysis after finding no support for the direct relationships between two constructs that are tested first in their approach. The current study adds further support for the approach of Zhao et al. (2010).

11.3.3 Contribution to the Empirical Context

The contribution to the empirical context includes the test of newly-hypothesised theoretical linkages including moderating and mediating relationships (Summers, 2001). This study tests newly-hypothesised relationships, none of which have been previously tested in the FHOB context. The relationships between the Big Five personality traits and online consumer engagement have been tested very recently in a social media context (Islam et al., 2017a; Marbach et. al, 2016). Marbach et. al (2016) test the relationships between the four additional personality traits and online consumer engagement qualitatively (research article based on the preliminary study of this thesis), which is followed by the quantitative empirical testing described in this thesis. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study is the first to investigate the moderating role of personal values in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. Moreover, the relationship between online consumer engagement and specific consumer-perceived value types has not been previously tested.

Consequently, it provides empirical support for the hypothesised relationships between personality traits and online consumer engagement, and online consumer engagement and consumer-perceived value. Moreover, it reveals important insights in respect of the moderating role played by personal values in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. In total, the analysis provided in this thesis supports thirteen hypothesised relationships.

1. Extraversion and OCE (+).
2. Altruism and OCE (+).
3. Openness to experiences and OCE (+).
4. OCE and Social value (+).
5. OCE and Aesthetic value (+).
6. Conservation moderates the relationship between Extraversion and OCE.
7. Conservation moderates the relationship between Altruism and OCE.
8. Conservation moderates the relationship between Openness to experiences and OCE.
9. Self-enhancement moderates the relationship between Extraversion and OCE.
10. Self-enhancement moderates the relationship between Altruism and OCE.
11. Self-enhancement moderates the relationship between Openness to experiences and OCE.
12. Extraversion and Social value (-).
13. Openness to experiences and Aesthetic value (+).

In testing the conceptual framework and its proposed relationships, this thesis is able to close the mentioned gaps in the consumer engagement literature in terms of personality traits as antecedents, and consumer-perceived value as a consequence of online consumer engagement. Moreover, this study is the first to investigate the moderating effect of personal values on the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. Findings show support for the idea of including personal values as a moderating variable. Table 11.1 summarises the contributions of this study.

Table 11.1: Summary of the Contributions of this Study

Contributions	
Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adds to the OCE literature by investigating antecedents and consequences of OCE. • Connects the psychology literature to the marketing literature. • Contributes to a better understanding of the concepts of personality traits, personal values, consumer-perceived value and OCE in the context of FHOBCs. • Improved conceptual definition of consumer engagement in FHOBCs, personality traits, personal values, and consumer-perceived value. • Tests instruments that measure OCE, personality traits, personal values and consumer-perceived value in English, and in German. • Tests the linkages between the concepts qualitatively (preliminary study) and quantitatively (main-study). • Adapts a measurement scale for consumer-perceived value in a FHOBC (service) context. • Shows support for integrating additional personality traits within the Big Five model (Brown et al., 2002; Mowen & Spears, 1999).
Method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retests the OCE scale for the context of a firm-hosted social media brand community, and additionally tests for a FHOBC for customer-service support → tests the scale for the broader context of a FHOBC. • Exploratory interviews revealed two additional reliable and valid items to measure OCE. • First study to use Schwartz’s personal values as a moderator → Findings show that it offers a brief, reliable, and valid screening of what people value. • Study shows support for the mediation approach of Zhao et al. (2010).
Empirical context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Test of newly-hypothesised theoretical linkages including moderating and mediating relationships: personality traits and OCE (new for FHOBC context); OCE and consumer-perceived value types (neither been tested in the FHOBC context nor in the general OCE context); moderator impact of personal values (Conservation/Self-enhancement) on the relationship between personality traits and OCE (neither been tested in the FHOBC context nor in the general OCE context). • The thesis shows support for thirteen relationships.

11.4 Managerial Implications

Firm-hosted online brand communities represent powerful tools for marketers to use when attempting to cultivate consumer relationships as they can help companies to build brand loyalty, penetrate the market, and create positive word-of-mouth (Chang et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2008a). Moreover, they are an important resource in as much as they generate creative ideas that can lead to improvements in products, service, and brand image. Accordingly, FHOBCs can increase sales and be supportive in promoting a company's culture (Wirtz et al., 2013). The probability of purchasing new products can increase through FHOBCs, and resistance to rival brands can grow. Thus, FHOBCs can create substantial value for a firm (Kim et al., 2008a). The main purpose of a FHOBC is the direct communication between the brand and the consumer. Brand communities are the most powerful way to connect with consumers in the digital age (Vivek et al., 2012). Nowadays, consumers expect a different kind of relationship with a company and if brands make it possible, and create ways to engage with their consumers, companies will quickly realise the reward. Brands want to remain current in their appreciation of what their consumers really want. Aligned with all these ideas and facts, this study's purpose was to identify 'Which individuals engage in FHOBCs?', 'What types of personalities do these individuals have?', 'Are these personality traits the same for different types of FHOBC or do individuals with different personality traits engage in different communities?' and 'What value do these individuals perceive they receive from engaging online?'

Vivek et al. (2012) have called for research in order to improve organisations' understanding of their consumers who engage online. This research project does not only provide insights into the personality traits of individuals engaging in two FHOBCs but it also highlights the value these individuals believe they receive from engaging online. For FHOBC managers, it is essential to know their members and what is important for them as this information creates the foundation on which to further develop the community and become more successful in engaging these individuals. Of course, there are many more skills needed to build a successful FHOBC, but the insight provided by this study can facilitate the entire process. FHOBC managers must attract new members to the community whilst simultaneously stimulating older members to continue their engagement. Hence, the main requirement would seem to keep the FHOBC relevant to members and their needs. Understanding engagement and its drivers and outcomes offers valuable insights for brand community managers. The results of

this thesis provide such managers with insights and practical guidelines for improving their FHOBCs as understanding why consumers engage online and what value they believe they receive from their online engagement is critical knowledge in any attempt to implementing and grow successful FHOBCs.

Implications of this study's findings for FHOBC managers are now discussed.

11.4.1 Personality Traits and Personal Values

FHOBC managers need to be aware that individuals with different personality traits engage in different kinds of FHOBCs. Findings show that a one-fits-all approach is not appropriate for FHOBCs as differences are found in members according to the personality orientation. Individuals high on extraversion and openness to experiences were seen to engage with the firm-hosted social media brand community, whereas individuals high on altruism engaged in the FHOBC for customer service support.

FHOBC managers cannot change the personality traits of their users but being aware of the kind of personality their users have will facilitate their efforts to engage them more and to sustain that engagement. For example, the main personality trait driving engagement in the FHOBC for customer service support is altruism. Altruistic individuals like to share their experiences and help others solving their problems, as they are kind and generous. This fact leads to the suggestion that FHOBC managers should act as facilitators only, thereby facilitating answers instead of simply replying to questions. If they know their brand advocates well, they might be aware of who could reply to a specific question, and be able to refer one member to that person in the event that no other user replied within a short period of time. The FHOBC facilitator could say: "I am sure 'community member XY' can help you with this request, as it's his area of expertise". Brand advocates will feel valued as they keep the community alive and interaction is seen as not only being based on a question and answer session between the consumer and the FHOBC representative.

The personality traits that drive engagement in firm-hosted social media brand communities are extraversion and openness to experiences. Individuals who are very extravert in nature are sociable and outgoing, and therefore, are more likely to approach other individuals online on Facebook or Facebook brand pages in order to get to know individuals with similar interests. It is advisable that firm-hosted social media brand community managers implement specific

groups related to the products, services or experiences to facilitate conversations on the Facebook brand pages. Moreover, Facebook could in general, create a search function to enable other users who are open to meeting new people and friends, as extraverts are very sociable and outgoing and are therefore, interested in getting to know other users. The open-minded individual likes to be up to date, informed, and seeks novelty; consequently, firm-hosted social media brand community managers should ensure that the brand community pages are always current. It is recommended to FHOBC managers that they should constantly search for new features and improvement opportunities in order not to lose these demanding users to competitor communities. Another option for FHOBC managers who would like to grow their communities is to recruit users with these personality traits for their specific FHOBC to act as brand advocates, and engage other users in the implementation and growth period of their community.

Findings of this study also highlight that personal values moderate the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. FHOBC managers cannot change the fact that individuals will grow up with specific values that might or might not facilitate their engagement. However, this study shows the impact these values have on consumer engagement. Thus, FHOBC managers should be aware of the power of personal values on individuals' online behaviour.

11.4.2 Social Value

The findings also show that a community is collaborative. Thus, no community can be one-sided because consumers expect something in return when engaging online. This research suggests that individuals engaging in both FHOBCs perceive themselves to be acquiring social value by engaging online. Therefore, FHOBC managers can augment their communities in regard to perceived value. It was important for individuals engaging in both FHOBCs to perceive social approval through engaging online. They wanted to make a good impression on others and shape other users' responses. Social approval can be shown by the FHOBC itself, the brand, its employees and users in any form. Thus, it is essential for FHOBC managers to value consumer engagement whatever form it might take, and to reward community members' contribution properly, in a crucial demonstration of their appreciation of the efforts which users make to engage. The main aim is to promote interaction between users such that they are able to exchange experience and help to solve any problems, which

they encounter. Thus, it is important to reward members, and this can be done through different forms of incentive. A simple appreciation of the contribution made by the consumer from the FHOBC manager will foster contribution. A sign of appreciation could be an online badge of recognition as already implemented by the FHOBC for customer service support. These simple things are good ways of showing appreciation of users' efforts. A plaque, certificate or ribbon is another option that can be used to express thanks to a user who has made a certain number of valuable or helpful posts; and yet another possibility is to promote brand advocates. For example, the FHOBC could feature interviews with top FHOBC advocates in a company article or on the company or community website. The inclusion of a picture would make the appreciation even stronger. Running special events for the brand advocates or providing them with discounted offerings could be yet another form of recognition. Another suggestion is to introduce the key brand advocate of the month and give this member the opportunity to take the lead in a specific community discussion board for a day. FHOBC managers should also make sure that they help users to make connections to other key users. Users primarily come for the content but they only remain in a forum if there is a sense of community. The key is to create this atmosphere by reaching out to members and inviting them into discussions, as this strategy provides a direct way to increase engagement. It is also recommended to hold regular FHOBC events and give key brand advocates the opportunity to speak at these. If the FHOBC manager reserves special seats for the highly engaged ones it will make them feel special, appreciated, and strengthen the bond between the FHOBC and the FHOBC member. These individuals could be selected based on the simple badge of recognition system. A list of the highly-engaged individuals who are the most helpful and valuable should be posted on the community page as this is able to provide long-term recognition and visibility.

An occasional small reward, for example with branded company items e.g. t-shirt or mug with the newly-acquired engagement status, will also acknowledge user engagement. Champion of the year awards in terms of quantity and quality of content contributed to the community, and invitations to write articles for the community are other means of recognition. By integrating brand advocates in key team meetings, the FHOBC manager can make sure the content they are sharing is of real value. Indeed, it is helpful for brand managers to invite brand advocates to share their expertise, and at the same time brand advocates will appreciate being valued and recognised by the company. Brand advocates can be selected by the FHOBC manager, on the basis of their unique knowledge. It is recommended that FHOBC managers discuss all these

ideas with brand advocates. If the FHOBC takes note of popular ideas and follows through in one visible way or any, users will believe they are taken seriously and the community is worthwhile. Indeed, asking members for their opinions about key topics and the community, generates a sense of importance among them, promoting their desire to show to others what they contribute to the FHOBC. This is the route to those users becoming brand ambassadors even in offline environments where they will raise awareness of the community's existence, and the fact that it values consumers' input. Such approaches will serve to blend online and offline engagement to the advantage of the FHOBC. Moreover, content created by consumers is more candid, trustworthy and credible in the eyes of other consumers in comparison to the content published by the company itself (Gruen, Osmonbekov, & Czaplewski, 2006). In order to foster recognition between consumers it is essential to give members the possibility to connect with each other in order to build a community around the brand. A people choice award for the most helpful or most engaged community member can be determined in addition to the company recognition. This can be done by a simple poll that highlights those members who have engaged the most in terms of quantity and quality, and that gives other users the possibility of choosing their favourite contributor to the community. To sum up, in terms of social value, the key is to make giving thanks a daily practice.

11.4.3 Aesthetic Value

Users of both FHOBCs perceive aesthetic value in addition to social value. This again highlights the importance of good website design, overall appearance, and easy-to-use layout to facilitate consumers' search time for a specific query, and reduce the time needed to navigate when visiting the FHOBC website for the first time. The first impression is linked to aesthetics and this should not be underestimated. A well-designed FHOBC (in visual terms) enhances the content posted in the community, and helps to build trust in it. Colour theory is worth mentioning which highlights how various colour choices might impact on consumers (Hynes, 2009). The main goal of aesthetics should be to enhance the consumers' experience. Hence, a well-designed welcome page that invites and encourages users to join the community is crucial. FHOBC managers should reach out to new community members, introduce themselves and the purpose of the community. By explaining how to get started, how to navigate, and complete a profile, the brand community will seem much more user-friendly. Enabling members to access important documents via the community, for example through a frequently asked questions page (FAQ) will also contribute to an attractive overall

layout. FHOBC managers should be able to present a clear identity and community to members in an easy-to-understand way. Other suggestions in relation to aesthetic value are that the FHOBC manager should ensure that the content and dialogue is kept honest and easy to follow so that the FHOBC shows important insights, which are genuine and plentiful, but that do not become overwhelmed by too much information, a signal which also links in with the aesthetic aspects of the brand community itself. This aim can be achieved by monitoring the quality of consumer comments and directing consumers to previous posts that have relevance to current questions. In this connection, it is recommended that FHOBC managers check whether the same issue is continually arising since this would indicate a problem, which the manager should deal with. Such a response gives an impression of openness and flexibility which boosts the credibility of the brand, and makes the website more user friendly. FHOBC managers must ensure that consumers can find solutions to problems quickly on the FHOBC website. Once a user appreciates where to find instant solutions s/he will turn to that location in the future when experiencing another issue. Clearly, ease of navigation is crucial. The findings highlight the importance of visual aspects for community users, and any sign of disorganisation (for example, boxes that pop up and do not align with each other or too many options for the user to choose from) is likely to overwhelm the user who may decide not to return to page. The aesthetics of the FHOBC should also match the overall brand image. FHOBC managers should ask their brand advocates if they feel that the colours, layout, font, etc., are appropriate for the target audience. It is recommended to consider the proportion of the elements on the brand community website and state the vision statement of the community. Thus, members know what to expect. Managers should avoid an overwhelming design and use similarity to help users to become familiar with the interface quicker (Garrett, 2011). By creating an interactive site that is tailored to consumers' needs the brand's image is better communicated and even more consumers will engage, thereby driving brand loyalty. Given the fact that aesthetics plays such an important role for FHOBC members it is advisable to ask brand advocates for their opinion before launching a new brand community interface. Hence, FHOBC managers should invest their time in meeting their key members. They will help to make important improvements to the community and consequently the consumers' experience will be enhanced. This will result in a more attractive FHOBC that targets potential users, and satisfies existing ones, more effectively.

11.5 Limitations of the Study and Opportunities for Future Research

As with any piece of research this study faces some limitations. The first limitation is linked to a possibility of common method variance as the data were collected from a single source, that being FHOBC members. However, several actions were taken to overcome this limitation. Respondents were not told the specific constructs of the research. For example, the word engagement was not mentioned in the survey, but was rather described as interaction with the FHOBC. Construct items were mixed for the quantitative study in line with MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) to make sure that respondents were not able to associate particular items with any specific constructs. Moreover, common method bias tests were conducted to remove the possibility of results being influenced (Du et al., 2007). In line with previous research (Lages & Piercy, 2012; Lindell & Whitney, 2001; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2003), two tests for common method bias were conducted: 1) Harman's single-factor test, and 2) the marker variable test, and both confirmed that common method bias was not an issue for the study.

A second research limitation is the study's use of self-reported measures. This is a commonly-used method of acquiring the personality traits of participants (e.g. Coelho et al., 2016; Ekinci & Dawes, 2009), but it carries the potential for social desirability bias as respondents may want to present themselves in a favourable light (Furnham, 1986). However, the use of in-depth interviews as a second data source revealed that social desirability is not a significant issue in this study. Indeed, individuals seemed to be completely honest during the interviews, with some readily describing themselves as disagreeable based on the definition and measurement scales shown to them. Measurement scales for this particular construct included for example: 'I am reserved with others' and 'I am harsh when others make a mistake'. This personality trait is perceived as rather negative, and where the social desirability theory holds, individuals do not admit to such predispositions, yet they did. It was obviously important to integrate a short definition of the concept and to include measurement items in the interviews to guarantee an accurate self-selection of personality traits. Allied to the social desirability issue, is the possibility that individuals might prefer to describe their ideal self rather than their ought self, or actual self. Their actual self is who they really are, whereas the ideal self is what they desire to be, and the ought self is what they think they should be according to the judgement of others (Cheung et al., 2011; Hillenbrand & Money, 2015). Hillenbrand and Money (2015) consider the self of a human being as comprised of a number of layers, namely the core self, learned self, lived self, and perceived self. Thus, whether individuals who use

self-reported measures actually describe their core self or actual self remains questionable and therefore counts as a limitation of this, and other studies that adopt this commonly-used method (e.g. Coelho et al., 2016; Ekinici & Dawes, 2009).

The third limitation of the study is the fact that it has a limited sample size in as much as the type of community is concerned, and consequently, future investigations are encouraged to widen the nature of the sample by involving FHOBCs in different industries and countries. This strategy would allow for the exploration of differences in FHOBCs and further test the dimensionality of online consumer engagement in different contexts. This study does, for instance, reveal considerable variation between firm-hosted social media brand community users and FHOBC users when the context is customer service support. Engagement levels might be higher in consumer-generated online brand communities as members might be more devoted to the community (Ouwensloot & Odekerken-Schröder, 2008). Future research is, therefore, encouraged to test whether the framework holds for other types of online brand communities, and could further evaluate these differences and the reasons why they might occur.

The fourth research limitation is linked to the cross-sectional design of the study as the data were collected at a specific point in time. FHOBCs grow steadily and therefore, if the research were undertaken at another point in time, the results might be different. A longitudinal study could reveal whether consumer-perceived value changes over a timeframe of several years in consequence of the adoption of new technology and/or new media. It could also show whether personality traits of users that are generally believed to be stable over time (Ajzen, 2005) might actually change over the years.

The measurement scales developed in the in-depth interviews for the context of consumer-perceived value in FHOBCs need further exploration and validation in order to achieve sufficient reliability and validity. Additionally, efforts should be made to develop more scales for consumer-perceived value in service contexts. Moreover, the consumer value for the firm is another interesting research area that has not received much attention in relation to FHOBCs and consumer engagement. So far, research has focused on consumer engagement from the consumers' perspective, ignoring that of the firm. Moreover, that research talks about consumer/customer engagement value (e.g. Kaltcheva et al., 2014; Kumar et al., 2010a) which includes customer lifetime value, customer referral value, customer influencer value,

and customer knowledge value, all of which are constructs that require a longitudinal approach for their measurement. Hence, researchers are encouraged to develop more appropriate measurements for this area of work. It is also important to acknowledge that the contribution of consumer engagement to marketing performance is a key research issue (Hollebeek et al., 2016b).

The fifth research limitation is linked to the preliminary qualitative study. As with every piece of qualitative research the process of coding data is a subjective process. However, this study keeps the subjectivity to an absolute minimum as it uses theory-driven, a priori themes and selective coding which reduces researcher bias. The use of non-probability sampling techniques is another research limitation linked to subjectivity of the researcher as it might raise concerns about the representativeness of the study.

In the summary of the antecedents and consequences of online consumer engagement that appears in Chapter 2, many gaps in the literature are indicated. These thus become areas for further research. For example, other antecedents and consequences apart from those considered in this study, should be explored. That said, scholars should also move beyond investigations of antecedents and measurement issues to consider broader theoretical and practical implications. For example Calder, Malthouse, and Maslowska (2016b) highlight that researchers should develop and test theoretical models of the psychological process of engagement to understand how engagement can be created and how it might be harmed. Other suggestions for future research include the identification of when and how brands might affect happiness as no efforts relating engagement to happiness have yet been reported (Calder et al., 2016b). The summary tables provided in Chapter 2 focus on positively valenced consumer engagement; research on negatively valenced engagement would be welcome. Thus, negatively valenced online consumer engagement and its consequences for companies should also be considered (Hollebeek et al., 2016b). Another option for further research is the continuing theoretical development of service-dominant, informed consumer engagement, and a longitudinal study into the role of the different consumer engagement dimensions (Hollebeek et al., 2016b). For example, Hollebeek et al. (2016b) recently added a social dimension to the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural dimension when revising the construct from a service-dominant logic. Further exploration in this area could contribute by providing a suitable measurement scale for this additional dimension.

Moreover, interdisciplinary research is growing in importance. For example, engagement with mobile health applications, education, politics, personal financial responsibility or employee well-being are some examples of fields of consumer engagement to which scholars could contribute (Calder et al., 2016b). Research across a broad range of online and offline contexts is important to understand the cultural, social and political contexts of engagement. Additionally, research into B2B settings is lacking as most efforts are targeted at B2C settings (Hollebeek et al., 2016a).

Broader research in terms of engagement that needs further exploration is the investigation of focal engagement stakeholder group roles, activities, practices and responsibilities (e.g. Pervan & Bove, 2011; Schau et al., 2009). Other research topics are the interface between engagement and big data as little is known about the ways in which big data can be used to inform marketing-based engagement research (Hollebeek et al., 2016a).

Despite the limitations highlighted in this section, this study serves to extend the consumer engagement literature through providing valuable insights on how personality traits and consumer-perceived value are related to online consumer engagement and the moderating role personal values play in the relationship between personality traits and online consumer engagement. The findings of this research project therefore close several gaps in the literature relating to online consumer engagement. Since the domain of online consumer engagement is critical to the success of many firms, continued research into the many factors surrounding this key concept remains an imperative and is essential for the development of this interesting new research area.

11.6 Summary

This chapter concludes the research project. Relationships between three personality traits (extraversion, altruism, and openness to experiences) and online consumer engagement have been shown to be present. Moreover, the relationships between online consumer engagement and two consumer-perceived value types are supported (social value and aesthetic value). Two of the direct relationships between the independent variables (personality traits) and dependent variables (consumer-perceived value types) are supported, namely the relationship between extraversion and social value and the relationship between openness to experiences and aesthetic value. The personal values conservation and self-enhancement moderate the relationship between extraversion and online consumer engagement, altruism and online consumer engagement, and openness to experiences and online consumer engagement. Various contributions to theory, method, and the empirical context are forthcoming from the study and have been discussed in detail. Likewise, there are several managerial implications arising from the findings, and these too have been highlighted as recommendations for improved operation of FHOBCs through the encouragement of greater engagement. Some limitations evident in the research project have been identified, and rationalised, and where appropriate, these are shown to provide the foundations for future research in the area of online consumer engagement.

Having aimed to provide comprehensive insights into antecedents and consequences of consumer engagement in FHOBCs, the study has identified who engages in FHOBCs and the value these individuals perceive they can realise from engaging in these communities. This knowledge gives FHOBC managers the opportunity to tailor their communities to these individuals' predispositions and needs. If FHOBCs are improved accordingly, peer-to-peer support might improve and questions may be entirely answered without any employee involvement. Consequently, members will be more satisfied with the community, customer service agents will decline in importance, and companies may be able to reduce their costs (Andersen, 2005). The results of this study offer practical guidelines, which FHOBC managers can follow as a means of facilitating and increasing consumer engagement in their FHOBCs. With constant improvement in its FHOBC, a brand can grow and evolve with the expectations of its most valuable customers and consumers (Chan & Li, 2010; Woisetschläger et al., 2008). Thus, online consumer engagement remains an interesting and emerging research area with much potential for exciting research projects.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Original vs. Revised Personality Traits Scale

Original scale	Revised scale	Reason for revision
Intraversion: Feel bashful more than others.	I feel self-conscious more than others.	Comprehension issues.
Disagreeableness: Rude with others. Cold to others. Tender-hearted with others. (R)	I am impolite with others. I am reserved with others. I am warm-hearted with others.	Expressions perceived as too strong. Comprehension issues.
Conscientiousness: Sloppy.	I am messy.	Comprehension issues.
Openness to experiences: Find novel solutions.	I am innovative.	Comprehension issues.
Neuroticism: Testy more than others.	I am more irritable than others.	Comprehension issues.

APPENDIX 2: Original vs. Revised Customer-perceived Value Scale

Original scale	Revised scale	Reason for revision
<p>Excellence:</p> <p>...is a high quality community. ...is better than other communities/social media pages.</p>	<p>...has high quality discussions. ...is better than other (category) communities/social media pages.</p>	Request to make it more precise.
<p>Efficiency:</p> <p>The effort I expend to find relevant information is high. (R)</p>	<p>Finding information takes a lot of effort. (R)</p>	Comprehension issues.
<p>Aesthetic value:</p> <p>I think I look good by using this TP/DC/SD.</p> <p>I think my teeth/skin is beautiful by using this TP/DC.</p> <p>I think I have a fresh breath by using this toothpaste.</p> <p>I think I have a nice figure by drinking this soft drink.</p> <p>I think this DVD player is beautiful.</p> <p>This DVD player looks good in my interior.</p> <p>This DVD player has a beautiful design.</p> <p>This DVD player has a beautiful colour.</p>	<p>The layout of the page is attractive.</p> <p>The colours of the [FHOBC “X”] website are visually appealing to me.</p> <p>→ The design of the page is visually appealing.*</p> <p>[The font used in the page is visually appealing to me.]</p> <p>The images used in the [FHOBC “X”] website are visually appealing to me.</p> <p>→The overall appearance of the page is visually appealing.*</p>	<p>Different context→ have been changed in a second step due to a request of the telecommunications provider to make it more general.</p> <p>* Items in bold show the final version of the adapted scale.</p> <p>TP = Toothpaste DC = Day cream SD = Soft drink</p>
<p>Altruistic value:</p> <p>Going to this restaurant has an ethical and moral interest for you, as you consider that the products have been ecologically produced.</p> <p>The environmental preservation of the restaurant is coherent with your ethical and moral values.</p> <p>You feel attracted by the spiritual atmosphere of this restaurant.</p> <p>Going to this restaurant has had an ethical and spiritual value for you.</p>	<p>I feel that sharing my experiences can help others.</p> <p>I feel satisfied when others value my opinion.</p> <p>I feel attracted by the supportive atmosphere.</p> <p>Participating shows that I care about the well-being of others.</p>	Different context.

APPENDIX 3: Survey in German

WILLKOMMEN

BEFRAGUNG ZUR TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY

Dieses Forschungsprojekt wird von der Henley Business School (University of Reading, Großbritannien) durchgeführt.

Ziel der Befragung ist es ein besseres Kundenverständnis unserer User im digitalen Zeitalter zu erlangen und unsere Community so zu verbessern, dass wir Ihren Erwartungen voll und ganz gerecht werden können.

Ihre Meinung ist uns wichtig und Ihre Kooperation ist unentbehrlich für dieses Forschungsprojekt!

Die Informationen werden streng vertraulich behandelt. Ihre Antworten sind anonym, können nicht auf Sie zurückverfolgt werden und werden unter keinen Umständen an Dritte weiter gegeben. Mit der Beantwortung der Fragen bestätigen Sie, dass Sie volljährig sind und geben Ihre Zustimmung für die Verwendung Ihrer Antworten zum Zwecke dieses Forschungsprojektes.

VIELEN DANK FÜR IHRE KOOPERATION!

Julia Marbach
BA in Business Studies, MA in Marketing
Doktorandin an der Henley Business School

ANLEITUNG FÜR DAS KORREKTE AUSFÜLLEN DES FRAGEBOGENS

1. Auf den folgenden Seiten finden Sie Aussagen über die Telekom hilft Community und über Ihre Verhaltensweisen und Gewohnheiten als User der Community.
2. Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Aussagen, wie es für Sie persönlich am ehesten zutrifft.
3. Manche Formulierungen werden Ihnen inhaltlich ähnlich erscheinen. Bitte lassen Sie sich davon nicht irritieren.
4. Es gibt keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten.
5. Der Zeitaufwand für diese Befragung beträgt circa 10 Minuten.

Falls Sie Fragen haben oder Hilfe bei der Beantwortung dieses Fragebogens benötigen bitte kontaktieren Sie:

Julia Marbach in dem dazugehörigen Threat der Telekom hilft Community.

VIELEN DANK FÜR IHRE KOOPERATION!

TEIL 1: ABSCHNITT A – INTERAKTION MIT DER TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY

* 1. DIE FOLGENDEN AUSSAGEN BEZIEHEN SICH AUF IHRE INTERAKTION MIT DER TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY.

LESEN SIE JEDE AUSSAGE AUFMERKSAM DURCH UND STUFEN SIE DIE AUSSAGE SO EIN, WIE ES FÜR SIE PERSÖNLICH AM EHESTEN ZUTRIFFT.

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Weder - noch	Stimme eher zu	Stimme zu	Stimme voll und ganz zu
Die 'Telekom hilft Community' ist eine der Seiten, die ich normalerweise nutze, wenn ich eine Community Seite eines Telekommunikationsanbieters nutze.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich denke oft über die 'Telekom hilft Community' nach, während ich die Seite nutze.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wenn ich die 'Telekom hilft Community' nutze, möchte ich gerne noch mehr über die Seite erfahren.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich habe ein gutes Gefühl, während ich die 'Telekom hilft Community' nutze.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich verbringe viel Zeit in der 'Telekom hilft Community' im Vergleich zu Communities anderer Telekommunikationsanbieter.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich bin stolzer Nutzer der 'Telekom hilft Community'.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich nutze die 'Telekom hilft Community', um andere Nutzer kennen zu lernen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wenn ich die 'Telekom hilft Community' nutze, denke ich über die Community nach.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 2. IHRE INTERAKTION MIT DER TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Weder - noch	Stimme eher zu	Stimme zu	Stimme voll und ganz zu
Ich fühle mich gut wenn ich die 'Telekom hilft Community' nutze.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wenn ich Communities von Telekommunikationsanbietern nutze, nutze ich im Regelfall die 'Telekom hilft Community'.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Die 'Telekom hilft Community' gibt mir ein Gefühl von Zufriedenheit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Die Nutzung der 'Telekom hilft Community' bewegt mich dazu, über andere Nutzer nachzudenken.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich fühle mich in der 'Telekom hilft Community' unterstützt.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Die Nutzung der 'Telekom hilft Community' lässt mich darüber nachdenken die Produkte und Services der Deutschen Telekom in Anspruch zu nehmen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ich nutze die 'Telekom hilft Community', um mich über die Erfahrungen anderer Kunden zu informieren.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TEIL 1: ABSCHNITT B – DIE TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY

* 3. DIE 'TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY'...

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Weder - noch	Stimme eher zu	Stimme zu	Stimme voll und ganz zu
gibt mir ein gutes Gefühl.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
hilft mir besser von anderen wahrgenommen zu werden.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
macht mir Spaß.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gibt mir soziales Ansehen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
macht einen guten Eindruck auf andere Kunden.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ist besser als Communities anderer Telekommunikationsanbieter.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
begeistert mich.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gibt mir das Gefühl, akzeptiert zu werden.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
bietet Diskussionen von hoher Qualität.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gibt mir ein Gefühl von Zufriedenheit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
bietet einen vergleichsweise hohen Informationsgehalt.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
hat eine Atmosphäre, die von Unterstützung geprägt ist.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gibt mir ein Gefühl von Freude.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ist gut geführt.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TEIL 1: ABSCHNITT C – DIE TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY

* 4. WENN ICH ÜBER DIE 'TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY' NACHDENKE DANN...

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Weder - noch	Stimme eher zu	Stimme zu	Stimme voll und ganz zu
ist der Inhalt der Seite relevant für mich.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
benötigt es viel Aufwand, um eine Antwort zu einer gestellten Frage zu erhalten.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
sind die Informationen immer auf dem neusten Stand.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ist das Layout der Seite ansprechend.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
bin ich zufrieden, wenn andere meine Meinung wertschätzen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ist das Design der Seite ansprechend.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
habe ich den Eindruck, dass meine Erfahrungen anderen helfen können.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
fühle ich mich von der hilfsbereiten Atmosphäre ermutigt.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ist die Gesamterscheinung der Seite ansprechend.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
zeige ich durch meine Interaktion, dass ich mich um andere Menschen Sorge.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
benötige ich viel Zeit, um die benötigten Informationen zu finden.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfinde ich die Community als benutzerfreundlich.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TEIL 2: ABSCHNITT A – FRAGEN ZU IHRER PERSON

BITTE GEBEN SIE UNS DIE MÖGLICHKEIT SIE ALS PERSON BESSER KENNENZULERNEN UND ZU ERFAHREN, WAS IHNEN WICHTIG IST. NUR SO KÖNNEN WIR IHNEN IN DER ZUKUNFT DEN BESTMÖGLICHEN SERVICE BIETEN, DER VOLL UND GANZ IHREN ERWARTUNGEN ENTSPRICHT.

* 5. WIE OFT VERHALTEN SIE SICH DEMENTSPRECHEND?

	Nie	Sehr selten	Selten	Manchmal	Oft	Sehr oft	Immer
Ich bin schroff, wenn andere einen Fehler machen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin gesprächig.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich beschäftige mich viel mit Kunst, Musik und Literatur.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin launischer im Vergleich zu anderen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich habe einen sehr aktiven Tagesablauf.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin innovativ.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich gebe selbstlos meine Zeit für andere auf.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin sympathisch.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin verschlossen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin warmherzig zu anderen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich versuche so viel wie möglich in einen Tag zu packen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Es gefällt mir an neuen Ideen zu arbeiten.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin selbstlos.	<input type="radio"/>						

* 6. WIE OFT VERHALTEN SIE SICH DEMENTSPRECHEND?

	Nie	Sehr selten	Selten	Manchmal	Oft	Sehr oft	Immer
Ich weiß Ästhetik mehr zu schätzen als andere.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin neidisch.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin viel beschäftigt.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin empfindlich.	<input type="radio"/>						
Mir ist besonders wichtig immer auf dem neusten Stand zu sein.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin eifersüchtig.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin origineller als andere.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin organisiert.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin temperamentvoll.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin großzügig zu anderen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin gewissenhaft.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin einfallsreich.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin effizient.	<input type="radio"/>						

* 7. WIE OFT VERHALTEN SIE SICH DEMENTSPRECHEND?

	Nie	Sehr selten	Selten	Manchmal	Oft	Sehr oft	Immer
Es macht mir mehr Spaß als anderen neue Dinge zu erlernen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin unfreundlich zu anderen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin zurückhaltend wenn mit anderen.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin leichtsinnig.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin ordentlich.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin leichter zu verunsichern als andere.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich mag es immer beschäftigt zu sein.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich stecke zurück, um anderen helfen zu können.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin unordentlich.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin reserviert anderen gegenüber.	<input type="radio"/>						
Andere bezeichnen mich als intellektuell.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin freundlich zu anderen.	<input type="radio"/>						

* 8. WIE OFT FÜHLEN SIE SICH DEMENTSPRECHEND?

	Nie	Sehr selten	Selten	Manchmal	Oft	Sehr oft	Immer
Ich fühle mich unwohl in einer Gruppe von Leuten.	<input type="radio"/>						
Meine Emotionen schwanken.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin lieber alleine, als in einer großen Gruppe.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin selbstbewusster als andere.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich fühle mich häufig sehr kreativ.	<input type="radio"/>						
Ich bin schüchtern.	<input type="radio"/>						

TEIL 2: ABSCHNITT B – FRAGEN ZU IHRER PERSON

* 9. BITTE BEWERTEN SIE DIE FOLGENDEN WERTE IN IHREM LEBEN.

	Sehr unwichtig	Unwichtig	Eher unwichtig	Weder wichtig noch unwichtig	Eher wichtig	Wichtig	Sehr wichtig
WELTOFFENHEIT – bedeutet Toleranz, die Schönheit der Natur und der Kunst, soziale Gerechtigkeit, Weltfrieden, Gleichberechtigung, Weisheit, Einklang mit der Natur und Umweltschutz.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
WOHLWOLLEN – bedeutet Hilfsbereitschaft, Aufrichtigkeit, Bereitschaft zu vergeben, Treue und Verantwortung.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
TRADITION – bedeutet Respekt für Tradition, Demut, seinen Platz im Leben gefunden zu haben, Hingabe und Bescheidenheit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
KONFORMITÄT – bedeutet Gehorsam, das Ehren von Eltern und Älteren, Selbstdisziplin und Höflichkeit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
SICHERHEIT – bedeutet nationale Sicherheit, familiäre Sicherheit, Sozialordnung, Sauberkeit und Hilfsbereitschaft.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 10. BITTE BEWERTEN SIE DIE FOLGENDEN WERTE IN IHREM LEBEN.

	Sehr unwichtig	Unwichtig	Eher unwichtig	Weder wichtig noch unwichtig	Eher wichtig	Wichtig	Sehr wichtig
MACHT – bedeutet gesellschaftlicher Einfluss, Autorität und Reichtum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ERFOLG – bedeutet Triumph, Leistungsfähigkeit, Ehrgeiz und Einfluss.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
HEDONISMUS – bedeutet Befriedigung von Sehnsüchten, Vergnügen und Hemmungslosigkeit.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
STIMULATION – bedeutet ein gewagtes, abwechslungsreiches, herausforderndes und aufregendes Leben zu führen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
SELBSTENTFALTUNG – bedeutet Kreativität, Freiheit, Neugierde, Unabhängigkeit und sich seine eigenen Ziele zu setzen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TEIL 3: FRAGEN ZUR DEUTSCHEN TELEKOM

* 11. WIE ERFOLGREICH IST DIE DEUTSCHE TELEKOM MIT...

	Äußerst Unerfolgreich	Sehr Unerfolgreich	Unerfolgreich	Weder erfolgreich noch unerfolgreich	Erfolgreich	Sehr Erfolgreich	Äußerst Erfolgreich	N/A
Zeitungswerbung	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Broschüren	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Postwurfsendungen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

TEIL 4: HINTERGRUNDINFORMATION FÜR STATISTISCHE ZWECKE

* 12. GESCHLECHT

- Weiblich
- Männlich
- Transgender
- Keine Angabe

* 13. WIE OFT NUTZEN SIE DIE TELEKOM HILFT COMMUNITY?

- Täglich
- Einmal in der Woche
- 2-3 mal in der Woche
- 2-3 mal im Monat
- Einmal im Monat
- Weniger als einmal im Monat

* 14. HÖCHSTER ERREICHTER ABSCHLUSS

- Keine Qualifikation
- Hauptschule
- Mittlere Reife
- Abitur
- HND
- Bachelor
- Diplom, Magister, Master
- MBA
- Dr. / PhD

* 15. ALTER AN IHREM LETZTEN GEBURTSTAG

- 18-19
- 20-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60-69
- 70+

VIELEN DANK FÜR IHRE KOOPERATION UND MITHILFE AN DIESEM PROJEKT!

**NUR DURCH HILFSBEREITE UND ENGAGIERTE USER WIE SIE KÖNNEN WIR
UNSERE COMMUNITY NOCH BESSER GESTALTEN.**

APPENDIX 4: Survey in English

WELCOME

SURVEY ON FACEBOOK AND ITS USERS

The following research is carried out by the Henley Business School at the University of Reading.

It will help us to understand you as a user of Facebook.

YOUR OPINION MATTERS AND YOUR COOPERATION IS HIGHLY APPRECIATED!

The success of this investigation depends entirely on the data contributed by users of Facebook like you!

CONFIDENTIALITY

- The information you provide will be kept strictly confidential
- Your identity will not be divulged to a third party.
- Your responses will only be seen by an independent researcher.
- Individual responses will not be identifiable.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Julia Marbach
BA in Business Studies, MA in Marketing
Doctoral Researcher at Henley Business School

HOW TO FILL IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. On the following pages you will find questions about Facebook and about your characteristics and values as a user of the page.
2. Please answer each question by clicking the option that best represents your opinion.
3. Although some statements appear similar, please answer all questions.
4. There are no right or wrong answers.
5. This questionnaire is structured so that its completion will be as quick as possible. It should take about 10 minutes to complete.
6. By completing these questions you confirm that you are over 18 and give your permission for your response to be used in the research project.

If you require assistance in completing the questionnaire, please contact:

Julia Marbach, Doctoral Researcher, Henley Business School

Email: j.marbach@pgr.reading.ac.uk

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

SECTION 1: PART A – INTERACTION WITH FACEBOOK

* 1. PLEASE COMMENT ON YOUR INTERACTION WITH FACEBOOK.

PLEASE INDICATE TO WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH STATEMENT.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Facebook is one of the pages I usually use when I use social networking pages.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think about Facebook a lot when I'm using it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using Facebook stimulates my interest to learn more about it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very positive when I use Facebook.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I spend a lot of time using Facebook compared to other social networking pages.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud to use Facebook.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use Facebook to get to know other users.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using Facebook gets me to think about it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 2. YOUR INTERACTION WITH FACEBOOK.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel good when I use Facebook.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Whenever I am using social networking pages, I usually use Facebook.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using Facebook makes me happy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using Facebook gets me to think about other users.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using Facebook makes me feel supported.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using Facebook makes me think about using one of their services.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use Facebook to learn about other users' experiences.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SECTION 1: PART B – FACEBOOK

* 3. FACEBOOK...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
makes me feel good.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
improves the way I am perceived.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gives me pleasure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gives me social approval.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
makes a good impression on others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is better than other social networking pages.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
makes me feel delighted.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
helps me feel accepted.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
has high quality discussions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gives me happiness.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is one of the best for high quality information.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
has a supportive atmosphere.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gives me a sense of joy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
is well run.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SECTION 1: PART C – FACEBOOK

* 4. THINKING ABOUT FACEBOOK.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The content is relevant to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Getting a reply when I ask a question takes a lot of time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The information is always up to date.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The layout of the page is attractive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel satisfied when others value my opinion.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The design of the page is visually appealing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that sharing my experiences can help others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel attracted by the supportive atmosphere.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The overall appearance of the page is visually appealing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participating shows that I care about the well-being of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Finding information takes a lot of effort.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy to use.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SECTION 2: PART A – ABOUT YOURSELF

PLEASE ALLOW US TO GET TO KNOW YOU BETTER AS A PERSON AND LET US KNOW WHAT IS IMPORTANT TO YOU. THIS SECTION IS ABOUT HOW YOU WOULD DESCRIBE YOURSELF.

* 5. FOR EACH STATEMENT PLEASE ASK YOURSELF: "HOW OFTEN DO I ACT THIS WAY?"

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always	Always
I am harsh when others make a mistake.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am talkative when with others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I appreciate art.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am more moody than others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am extremely active in my daily life.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am innovative.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am selfless in giving time to others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am sympathetic.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am withdrawn.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am warm-hearted with others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I try to cram as much as possible into a day.	<input type="radio"/>						
I enjoy working on new ideas.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am altruistic.	<input type="radio"/>						

* 6. FOR EACH STATEMENT PLEASE ASK YOURSELF: "HOW OFTEN DO I ACT THIS WAY?"

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always	Always
I enjoy beauty more than others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am envious.	<input type="radio"/>						
I keep really busy doing things.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am touchy.	<input type="radio"/>						
Information is my most important resource.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am jealous.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am more original than others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am organised.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am temperamental.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am giving to others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am precise.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am imaginative.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am efficient.	<input type="radio"/>						

* 7. FOR EACH STATEMENT PLEASE ASK YOURSELF: "HOW OFTEN DO I ACT THIS WAY?"

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always	Always
I enjoy learning new things more than others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am impolite with others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am quiet when with others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am careless.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am orderly.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am more irritable than others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I always like to be doing something.	<input type="radio"/>						
I sacrifice my goals to help others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am messy.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am reserved to others.	<input type="radio"/>						
People consider me to be intellectual.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am kind to others.	<input type="radio"/>						

* 8. FOR EACH STATEMENT PLEASE ASK YOURSELF: "HOW OFTEN DO I FEEL THIS WAY?"

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always	Always
I feel uncomfortable in a group of people.	<input type="radio"/>						
My emotions go up and down.	<input type="radio"/>						
I prefer to be alone rather than in a large group.	<input type="radio"/>						
I feel more self-conscious than others.	<input type="radio"/>						
I frequently feel highly creative.	<input type="radio"/>						
I am shy.	<input type="radio"/>						

SECTION 2: PART B – ABOUT YOURSELF

* 9. PLEASE RATE THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FOLLOWING VALUES IN YOUR LIFE.

	Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important
The importance of UNIVERSALISM – that is broad-mindedness, a world at peace, wisdom and environmental protection.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of BENEVOLENCE – that is honesty, forgiveness, loyalty, responsibility and helpfulness.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of TRADITION – that is humbleness, devotion, being modest and accepting one's portion in life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of CONFORMITY – that is obedience, honoring parents and elders, self-discipline and politeness.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of SECURITY – that is national and family security, social order, cleanliness and return of favours.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 10. PLEASE RATE THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FOLLOWING VALUES IN YOUR LIFE.

	Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Important	Very Important
The importance of POWER – that is social power, authority and wealth.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of ACHIEVEMENT – that is success, capability, ambition and influence of people and events.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of HEDONISM – that is gratification of desires, enjoyment in life and self-indulgence.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of STIMULATION – that is living a daring, varied, challenging and exciting life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The importance of SELF-DIRECTION – that is creativity, freedom, curiosity, independence and choosing your own goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SECTION 3: FACEBOOK'S TRADITIONAL ADVERTISING

* 11. HOW SUCCESSFUL IS FACEBOOK WITH...

	Very Unsuccessful	Unsuccessful	Somewhat Unsuccessful	Neither Successful nor Unsuccessful	Somewhat Successful	Successful	Very Successful	N/A
newspaper advertising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
leaflets	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
direct mail	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

SECTION 4: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

* 12. WHAT IS YOUR GENDER?

- Female
- Male
- Transgender
- Prefer not to say

* 13. HOW OFTEN DO YOU USE THE FACEBOOK PAGE?

- Daily
- 2-3 times a week
- Once a week
- 2-3 times a month
- Once a month
- Less than once a month

* 14. WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOU HAVE COMPLETED? (Please check one box only)

- No qualification
- Upper School
- City & Guilds
- Secondary School
- GCSE
- NVQ
- A-Level or equivalent
- Diploma
- Foundation Degree/HND
- Undergraduate
- Postgraduate
- MBA
- PhD/MD/DBA

* 15. WHAT WAS YOUR AGE ON YOUR LAST BIRTHDAY?

- 18-19
- 20-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60-69
- 70+

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

YOUR INPUT HAS BEEN EXTREMELY VALUABLE FOR THIS RESEARCH PROJECT.

APPENDIX 5: Interview guide

Age:

Gender:

1. Please name one Facebook brand page, you are a member of/you like on Facebook. Please refer to this page in your following statements.
2. Please describe in your own words what engagement/interaction with a brand on Facebook means to you.
3. Do you engage/interact on this page or you just read the news feed on Facebook?
4. How do you engage/interact with the brand?

→ Show participants definition of online consumer engagement for the present study

Consumer engagement in an online brand community involves specific interactive experiences between consumers and the brand and/or between consumers. Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterised by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement processes. Consumer engagement is a multidimensional concept comprising cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions and plays a central role in the process of relational exchange (Brodie et al., 2013, p. 3).

5. What are the main reasons why you interact/engage with this brand or other consumers on Facebook?
6. Please have a look at the following 9 different personality traits their definitions and statements.
 - a. Do you think this description fits your personality or is your personality rather different to these descriptions?
 - b. Do you think that this personality characteristic (or the opposed characteristic) has an influence on your online engagement or interaction with a brand or other individuals on Facebook? If yes can you give an example?

Intraversion is defined as finding pleasure in solitary activities, liking to hide their feelings, tending to be less open-minded, and less close to others and more suspicious (Evans, 1941; Eysenck, 1991).

I feel uncomfortable in a group of people.

I prefer to be alone rather than in a large group.

I feel self-conscious more than others.

I am shy.

I am quiet when with other people.

I am withdrawn.

Disagreeableness is defined as being unfriendly, uncooperative, suspicious, sceptic; self-interest is the first priority, not caring about the well-being of other individuals (Eysenck, 1991).

I am impolite with others.
I am harsh when others make a mistake.
I am reserved to others.

Conscientiousness is defined as the degree of orderliness, organisation and precision (Brown et al., 2002) but it also refers to work ethics and thoroughness (Costa & McCrae, 1992a).

I am precise.
I am efficient.
I am organised.
I am orderly.

Openness to experiences indicates more curiosity, more imagination and more flexible in thinking (Madjar, 2008; McCrae & Costa, 1991), one seeks novelty, (McCrae & Costa, 1987) and is more changeable and less prone to prejudices (McCrae & Costa, 1991).

I frequently feel highly creative.
I am imaginative.
I appreciate art.
I am innovative.
I am more original than others.
I enjoy beauty more than others.

Neuroticism is the extent to which the emotions of an individual vary (Brown et al., 2002), one is less able to deal with stress (McCrae & Costa, 1991), one becomes easily frustrated and hopeless (McCrae & Costa, 1991).

I am more moody than others.
I am temperamental.
I am touchy.
I am envious.
My emotions go up and down.
I am more irritable than others.
I am jealous.

Need for arousal is defined as the desire for stimulation and excitement (Mowen, 2000).

I really like surprises.
I am drawn to experiences that have an element of danger.
People view me as an impulsive, unpredictable person.
I get bored when I am continually around the same people and places.
I actively seek out new experiences.

Need for learning is a motivating factor, which is leading individuals to obtain information and be engaged in a high-level information process (Mowen, 2000).

I enjoy learning new things more than others.
I enjoy working on new ideas.
Information is my most important resource.
People consider me to be intellectual.

Need for activity is the enduring motive to be doing something on a continuous basis (Mowen & Sujan, 2005).

I keep really busy doing things.
I try to cram as much as possible into a day.
I am extremely active in my daily life.
I always like to be doing something.

Altruism is the general predisposition to selflessly seek for helping others (Mowen & Sujan, 2005).

I am altruistic.
I am giving to others.
I sacrifice my goals to help others.
I am selfless in giving time to others.

7. Why do you interact online/ with social media brand communities on Facebook?

8. Do you value engaging online in this community? What kind of value do you perceive? Please give an example.

APPENDIX 6: Skewness and Kurtosis of the Online Consumer Engagement Scale

No	Dimension	α	Skewness/ Kurtosis	Mean	SD
	Behavioural	0.764			
1	I spend a lot of time using Facebook compared to other social networking pages.		-1.572 1.807	5.61	1.608
4	I use Facebook to learn about other users' experiences.*		-1.596 2.309	5.45	1.464
5	I use Facebook to get to know other users.*		-0.816 -0.598	4.80	1.919
	Cognitive	0.911			
1	Using Facebook gets me to think about it.		-0.773 -0.611	4.84	1.896
2	I think about Facebook a lot when I'm using it.		-1.009 -0.091	5.10	1.724
3	Using Facebook stimulates my interest to learn more about it.		-0.900 -0.362	4.97	1.813
5	Using Facebook makes me think about using one of their services.*		-0.569 -0.587	4.57	1.720
	Emotional	0.937			
1	I feel very positive when I use Facebook.		-0.946 0.067	5.20	1.618
2	Using Facebook makes me happy.		-0.930 0.050	5.01	1.672
3	I feel good when I use Facebook.		-0.1.003 0.295	5.09	1.614
4	I'm proud to use Facebook.		-0.634 -0.359	4.67	1.734

Note: *Items have been added to the original scale following exploratory interviews

APPENDIX 7: Skewness and Kurtosis of the Consumer-perceived Value Scale

No	Dimension	α	Skewness/ Kurtosis	Mean	SD
	Social Value	0.901			
1	...helps me feel accepted.		-0.545 -0.604	4.63	1.737
2	...improves the way I am perceived.		-0.472 -0.785	4.47	1.841
4	...gives me social approval.		-0.406 -0.870	4.38	1.830
	Play	0.945			
2	...gives me pleasure.		-0.975 0.283	5.05	1.603
3	...gives me a sense of joy.		-0.862 0.134	4.85	1.707
4	...makes me feel delighted.		-0.932 -0.078	4.92	1.745
5	...gives me happiness.		-0.678 -0.334	4.69	1.687
	Excellence	0.907			
1	...has high quality discussions.		-1.000 0.110	5.06	1.718
2	...is one of the best for high quality information.		-0.918 -0.355	5.01	1.830
3	...has a supportive atmosphere.		-1.264 1.063	5.21	1.515
	Efficiency	0.730			
2	Finding information takes a lot of effort. (R)		-0.696 -0.630	5.04	1.802
4	Getting a reply when I ask a question takes a lot of time. (R)		-0.896 0.161	5.26	1.635
5	The information is always up to date.		-1.254 1.161	5.43	1.493
	Aesthetic value	0.934			
1	The layout of the page is attractive.		-1.228 1.568	5.42	1.328
2	The design of the page is visually appealing.		-1.299 1.757	5.41	1.339
3	The overall appearance of the page is visually appealing.		-1.299 1.989	5.38	1.315
	Altruistic value	0.690			
3	I feel attracted by the supportive atmosphere.		-1.093 0.632	5.25	1.534
4	Participating shows that I care about the well being of others.		-0.609 -0.203	4.62	1.581

APPENDIX 8: Skewness and Kurtosis of the Personality Scale

No	Dimension	α	Skewness/ Kurtosis	Mean	SD
	Intraversion*	0.852			
1	I feel uncomfortable in a group of people.		0.795 0.360	2.46	1.263
2	I prefer to be alone rather than in a large group.		0.734 -0.165	2.64	1.466
3	I feel more self-conscious than others. (R)		0.605 -0.035	2.99	1.387
4	I am shy.		0.799 0.345	2.60	1.305
5	I am quiet when with others.		0.826 -0.172	2.48	1.502
6	I am talkative when with others. (R)		0.754 0.103	2.54	1.299
7	I am withdrawn.		1.060 0.517	2.44	1.469
	Disagreeableness	0.693			
2	I am harsh when others make a mistake.		1.047 0.976	2.40	1.342
3	I am warm-hearted with others. (R)		1.120 1.624	2.19	1.070
5	I am reserved to others.		0.791 -0.353	2.49	1.475
6	I am kind to others. (R)		1.207 1.345	1.77	.935
	Conscientiousness	0.804			
1	I am careless. (R)		0.141 -0.721	4.13	1.495
2	I am precise.		-0.303 -0.322	4.82	1.277
3	I am efficient.		-0.021 -0.084	4.40	1.339
4	I am organised.		-0.079 -0.397	4.45	1.364
5	I am messy. (R)		0.064 -0.401	4.24	1.370
6	I am orderly.		0.132 -0.293	4.21	1.274

Note: * Intraversion was recoded into Extraversion at a later stage

No	Dimension	α	Skewness/ Kurtosis	Mean	SD
	Openness to Experiences	0.838			
1	I frequently feel highly creative.		-0.615 -0.151	5.26	1.354
2	I am imaginative.		-0.851 0.243	5.84	1.070
3	I appreciate art.		-0.627 0.277	5.23	1.325
4	I am innovative.		-0.892 0.857	5.50	1.231
5	I am more original than others.		-0.740 0.022	5.30	1.369
6	I enjoy beauty more than others.		-0.667 -0.020	5.30	1.417
	Neuroticism	.835			
1	I am more moody than others.		1.036 0.479	2.68	1.531
2	I am temperamental.		0.499 -0.051	3.51	1.450
3	I am touchy.		0.732 -0.147	3.06	1.481
4	I am envious.		0.791 0.157	2.30	1.141
5	My emotions go up and down.		0.865 0.433	2.59	1.403
6	I am more irritable than others.		0.937 0.065	2.66	1.508
7	I am jealous.		0.981 1.164	2.46	1.160
	Need for learning	.630			
1	I enjoy learning new things more than others.		-0.964 1.257	5.77	1.115
2	I enjoy working on new ideas.		-1.089 1.492	5.95	1.010
4	People consider me to be intellectual.		-0.721 0.220	5.39	1.296
	Need for activity	.769			
1	I keep really busy doing things.		-0.881 0.667	5.64	1.134
2	I try to cram as much as possible into a day.		-0.887 0.253	5.55	1.320
3	I am extremely active in my daily life.		-1.038 1.092	5.67	1.216

No	Dimension	α	Skewness/ Kurtosis	Mean	SD
	Altruism	.780			
1	I am altruistic.		-0.483 0.395	5.14	1.173
2	I am giving to others.		-0.7600.896	5.45	1.044
3	I sacrifice my goals to help others.		-0.618 0.391	5.09	1.268
4	I am selfless in giving time to others.		-0.944 0.984	5.17	1.311

APPENDIX 9: Skewness and Kurtosis of the Personal Values Scale

No	Dimension	α	Skewness/ Kurtosis	Mean	SD
	Self-transcendence	0.79			
1	The importance of UNIVERSALISM - that is broad-mindedness, beauty of nature and arts, social justice, a world at peace, equality, wisdom, unity with nature and environmental protection.		-1.597 2.906	5.96	1.231
2	The importance of BENEVOLENCE - that is helpfulness, honesty, forgiveness, loyalty and responsibility.		-1.916 5.402	6.09	1.059
	Conservation	0.82			
3	The importance of TRADITION - that is respect for tradition, humbleness, accepting one's portion in life, devotion and modesty.		0.059 -0.602	4.08	1.534
4	The importance of CONFORMITY - that is obedience, honouring parents and elders, self-discipline and politeness.		0.179 -0.821	3.93	1.643
5	The importance of SECURITY - that is national security, family security, social order, cleanliness and return of favours.		-0.177 -0.264	4.83	1.352
	Self-enhancement	0.79			
6	The importance of POWER - that is social power authority and wealth.		-0.813 -0.077	5.17	1.591
7	The importance of ACHIEVEMENT - that is success, capability, ambition and influence on people and events.		-1.314 1.764	5.62	1.271
8	The importance of HEDONISM - that is gratification of desires, enjoyment in life and self-indulgence.		-0.971 0.406	5.33	1.458
	Openness to change	0.41			
9	The importance of STIMULATION - that is living a daring, varied, challenging and exciting life.		-0.947 0.587	5.39	1.349
10	The importance of SELF-DIRECTION - that is creativity, freedom, curiosity, independence and choosing one's own goals.		-0.049 -0.467	5.05	1.249
11	The importance of HEDONISM - that is gratification of desires, enjoyment in life and self-indulgence.		-0.971 0.406	5.33	1.458

APPENDIX 10: Factor Loadings of the Personality Traits Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
Intraversion/ Extraversion		
1	I feel uncomfortable in a group of people.	0.75
2	I prefer to be alone rather than in a large group.	0.82
3	I feel more self-conscious than others. (R)	0.41
4	I am shy.	0.71
5	I am quiet when with others.	0.69
6	I am talkative when with others. (R)	0.69
7	I am withdrawn.	0.68
Disagreeableness		
2	I am harsh when others make a mistake.	0.47
3	I am warm-hearted with others. (R)	0.64
5	I am reserved to others.	0.67
6	I am kind to others. (R)	0.68
Neuroticism		
1	I am more moody than others.	0.65
2	I am temperamental.	0.53
3	I am touchy.	0.71
4	I am envious.	0.66
5	My emotions go up and down.	0.75
6	I am more irritable than others.	0.58
7	I am jealous.	0.65

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
Openness to experiences		
1	I frequently feel highly creative.	0.67
2	I am imaginative.	0.75
3	I appreciate art.	0.46
4	I am innovative.	0.71
5	I am more original than others.	0.84
6	I enjoy beauty more than others.	0.66
Conscientiousness		
1	I am careless. (R)	0.61
2	I am precise.	0.63
3	I am efficient.	0.79
4	I am organised.	0.58
5	I am messy. (R)	0.58
6	I am orderly.	0.64
Need for learning		
1	I enjoy learning new things more than others.	0.65
2	I enjoy working on new ideas.	0.59
4	People consider me to be intellectual.	0.58
Need for activity		
1	I keep really busy doing things.	0.75
2	I try to cram as much as possible into a day.	0.70
3	I am extremely active in my daily life.	0.72

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
Altruism		
1	I am altruistic.	0.66
2	I am giving to others.	0.76
3	I sacrifice my goals to help others.	0.66
4	I am selfless in giving time to others.	0.67

APPENDIX 11: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations and Average Variance Extracted of the Personality Traits Scale

Personality Traits	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Extraversion	4.69	0.93	0.87	0.78	0.53	0.77	0.44	0.56	0.30	0.46	0.58	0.34
2. Disagreeableness	2.21	0.90	0.69	0.71	-0.88*	0.39	0.49	0.72	0.34	0.66	0.62	0.77
3. Neuroticism	2.75	0.99	0.84	0.84	-0.66*	0.70*	0.42	0.26	0.17	0.18	0.26	0.09
4. Openness	4.52	0.80	0.81	0.75	0.75*	-0.85*	-0.51*	0.54	0.19	0.94	0.67	0.44
5. Conscientiousness	4.38	0.96	0.80	0.81	-0.55*	0.58*	0.41*	-0.44*	0.41	0.12	0.15	0.20
6. Need for learning	5.70	0.87	0.63	0.64	0.68*	-0.81*	-0.42*	0.97*	-0.34*	0.37	0.67	0.46
7. Need for activity	5.62	1.01	0.77	0.77	0.76*	-0.79*	-0.51*	0.82*	-0.39*	0.82*	0.52	0.42
8. Altruism	5.21	0.94	0.78	0.78	0.58*	-0.88*	-0.30*	0.66*	-0.45*	0.68*	0.65*	0.47

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

APPENDIX 12: Factor Loadings of the Online Consumer Engagement Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
Behavioural		
1	I spend a lot of time using Facebook compared to other social networking pages.	0.63
4	I use Facebook to learn about other users' experiences.*	0.71
5	I use Facebook to get to know other users.*	0.82
Cognitive		
1	Using Facebook gets me to think about it.	0.92
2	I think about Facebook a lot when I'm using it.	0.85
3	Using Facebook stimulates my interest to learn more about it.	0.89
5	Using Facebook makes me think about using one of their services.*	0.88
Emotional		
1	I feel very positive when I use Facebook.	0.89
2	Using Facebook makes me happy.	0.92
3	I feel good when I use Facebook.	0.92
4	I'm proud to use Facebook.	0.83

Note: * Items have been added to the original scale following exploratory interviews

APPENDIX 13: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations and Average Variance Extracted of the Online Consumer Engagement Scale

OCE	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3
1. Cognitive OCE	4.90	1.59	0.91	0.94	0.74	0.85	0.86
2. Emotional OCE	4.99	1.52	0.94	0.94	0.92*	0.80	0.81
3. Behavioural OCE	5.29	1.38	0.76	0.77	0.93*	0.90*	0.51

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

APPENDIX 14: Factor Loadings of the Consumer-perceived Value Scale

No	Dimension	Factor Loading
Social Value		
1	...helps me feel accepted.	0.84
2	...improves the way I am perceived.	0.86
4	...gives me social approval.	0.90
Play		
2	...gives me pleasure.	0.88
3	...gives me a sense of joy.	0.92
4	...makes me feel delighted.	0.92
5	...gives me happiness.	0.89
Excellence		
1	...has high quality discussions.	0.88
2	...is one of the best for high quality information.	0.89
3	...has a supportive atmosphere.	0.87
Efficiency		
2	Finding information takes a lot of effort. (R)	0.51
4	Getting a reply when I ask a question takes a lot of time. (R)	0.60
5	The information is always up to date.	0.83
Aesthetic value		
1	The layout of the page is attractive.	0.92
2	The design of the page is visually appealing.	0.93
3	The overall appearance of the page is visually appealing.	0.88
Altruistic value		
3	I feel attracted by the supportive atmosphere.	0.91
4	Participating shows that I care about the well-being of others.	0.58

APPENDIX 15: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations and Average Variance Extracted of the Consumer-perceived Value Scale

Consumer-perceived value	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Social value	4.50	1.65	0.90	0.91	0.76	0.64	0.41	0.35	0.32	0.48
2. Play	4.88	1.56	0.95	0.95	0.80*	0.81	0.83	0.64	0.48	0.79
3. Excellence	5.09	1.55	0.91	0.91	0.64*	0.91*	0.77	0.69	0.49	0.81
4. Efficiency	5.24	1.33	0.73	0.47	0.59*	0.80*	0.83*	0.21	0.61	0.55
5. Aesthetic value	5.40	1.25	0.93	0.93	0.56*	0.69*	0.70*	0.78*	0.83	0.50
6. Altruistic value	4.94	1.36	0.69	0.73	0.69*	0.89*	0.90*	0.74*	0.71*	0.58

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

APPENDIX 16: Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Correlations and Average Variance Extracted of the Measurement Model

	Mean	SD	α	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Extraversion	5.48	1.08	0.87	0.87	0.53	0.53	0.34	0.36	0.10	0.31	0.26
2. Openness	5.43	0.96	0.81	0.75	0.73*	0.54	0.42	0.48	0.17	0.44	0.35
3. Altruism	5.21	0.94	0.78	0.79	0.58*	0.65*	0.48	0.31	0.16	0.29	0.22
4. OCE	4.95	1.35	0.92	0.86	0.60*	0.69*	0.56*	0.62	0.49	0.88	0.49
5. Social value	4.50	1.65	0.90	0.91	0.31*	0.41*	0.40*	0.70*	0.76	0.64	0.31
6. Play	4.88	1.56	0.95	0.95	0.56*	0.66*	0.54*	0.94*	0.80*	0.81	0.48
7. Aesthetic value	5.40	1.25	0.93	0.93	0.51*	0.59*	0.47*	0.70*	0.56*	0.69*	0.83

Note: Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = diagonal values in bold; Inter-Construct Correlations (IC) = the scores in the lower diagonal, Squared IC (SIC) = the scores in the upper diagonal; * = $p < 0.001$

APPENDIX 17: Exploratory Factor Analysis to Assess Common-Method Variance

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.343	41.371	41.371	10.343	41.371	41.371	4.917	19.667	19.667
2	2.622	10.489	51.860	2.622	10.489	51.860	3.942	15.769	35.437
3	1.590	6.362	58.222	1.590	6.362	58.222	2.800	11.198	46.635
4	1.214	4.857	63.079	1.214	4.857	63.079	2.755	11.022	57.657
5	1.184	4.736	67.815	1.184	4.736	67.815	2.540	10.158	67.815
6	.979	3.918	71.732						
7	.641	2.564	74.297						
8	.618	2.472	76.768						
9	.584	2.335	79.103						
10	.533	2.134	81.237						
11	.509	2.036	83.273						
12	.459	1.837	85.111						
13	.439	1.757	86.868						
14	.429	1.717	88.585						
15	.393	1.571	90.156						
16	.375	1.502	91.658						
17	.345	1.380	93.038						
18	.324	1.297	94.334						
19	.274	1.098	95.432						
20	.248	.992	96.424						
21	.228	.910	97.335						
22	.195	.781	98.116						
23	.177	.710	98.826						
24	.161	.644	99.471						
25	.132	.529	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX 18: Correlations between Marker Variable and Constructs

Correlations	Estimate
Openness <- -> Marker	- 0.23
Introversion <- -> Marker	0.26
Altruism <- -> Marker	- 0.10
Social value <- -> Marker	- 0.28
Aesthetic value <- -> Marker	- 0.17
OCE <- -> Marker	- 0.21

APPENDIX 19: Hierarchical Regression – Social Value

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SOCIAL	4.50	1.648	559
PTEXTA	5.48	1.080	559
ALTR	5.21	.934	559
OPEN	5.44	1.027	559
OCE	5.09	1.347	559

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA ^b	.	Enter
2	OCE ^b	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.407 ^a	.166	.161	1.509	.166	36.774	3	555	.000	
2	.648 ^b	.420	.416	1.260	.254	242.700	1	554	.000	1.075

a. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA

b. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA, OCE

c. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	251.299	3	83.766	36.774	.000 ^b
	Residual	1264.220	555	2.278		
	Total	1515.519	558			
2	Regression	636.421	4	159.105	100.267	.000 ^c
	Residual	879.099	554	1.587		
	Total	1515.519	558			

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

b. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTRA

c. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTRA, OCE

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	.305	.416		.733	.464				
	PTEXTRA	.042	.077	.027	.540	.590	-.110	.193	.591	1.692
	ALTR	.337	.083	.191	4.071	.000	.174	.499	.685	1.461
	OPEN	.406	.084	.253	4.820	.000	.241	.572	.545	1.834
2	(Constant)	.542	.347		1.559	.119	-.141	1.224		
	PTEXTRA	-.157	.065	-.103	-2.403	.017	-.286	-.029	.568	1.759
	ALTR	.138	.070	.078	1.972	.049	.001	.276	.662	1.510
	OPEN	.001	.075	.000	.009	.993	-.147	.148	.480	2.085
	OCE	.804	.052	.657	15.579	.000	.703	.906	.588	1.700

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

Excluded Variables^a

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics			
					Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance	
1	OCE	.657 ^b	15.579	.000	.552	.588	1.700	.480

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTRA

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	PTEXTRA	ALTR	OPEN	OCE
1	1	3.950	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.021	13.840	.40	.42	.14	.10	
	3	.016	15.805	.58	.11	.66	.05	
	4	.013	17.345	.02	.46	.20	.84	
2	1	4.917	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.036	11.697	.16	.01	.03	.00	.74
	3	.019	16.035	.13	.65	.21	.05	.11
	4	.015	18.072	.71	.00	.68	.02	.09
	5	.013	19.605	.00	.35	.08	.93	.06

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	.85	6.44	4.50	1.068	559
Residual	-3.980	3.458	.000	1.255	559
Std. Predicted Value	-3.415	1.824	.000	1.000	559
Std. Residual	-3.159	2.745	.000	.996	559

a. Dependent Variable: SOCIAL

APPENDIX 20: Hierarchical Regression – Aesthetic Value

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AEST	5.40	1.248	559
PTEXTRA	5.48	1.080	559
ALTR	5.21	.934	559
OPEN	5.44	1.027	559
OCE	5.09	1.347	559

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTRA ^b	.	Enter
2	OCE ^b	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: AEST

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.556 ^a	.309	.306	1.040	.309	82.880	3	555	.000	
2	.680 ^b	.463	.459	.918	.153	157.932	1	554	.000	1.609

a. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA

b. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA, OCE

c. Dependent Variable: AEST

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	268.835	3	89.612	82.880	.000 ^b
	Residual	600.080	555	1.081		
	Total	868.916	558			
2	Regression	401.955	4	100.489	119.219	.000 ^c
	Residual	466.961	554	.843		
	Total	868.916	558			

a. Dependent Variable: AEST

b. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA

c. Predictors: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTA, OCE

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	1.110	.287		3.875	.000	.547	1.673		
	PTEXTRA	.209	.053	.181	3.941	.000	.105	.313	.591	1.692
	ALTR	.175	.057	.131	3.074	.002	.063	.287	.685	1.461
	OPEN	.411	.058	.338	7.085	.000	.297	.526	.545	1.834
2	(Constant)	1.249	.253		4.934	.000	.752	1.747		
	PTEXTRA	.092	.048	.080	1.927	.054	-.002	.186	.568	1.759
	ALTR	.059	.051	.044	1.146	.252	-.042	.159	.662	1.510
	OPEN	.173	.055	.142	3.165	.002	.066	.280	.480	2.085
	OCE	.473	.038	.510	12.567	.000	.399	.547	.588	1.700

a. Dependent Variable: AEST

Excluded Variables^a

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics			
					Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance	
1	OCE	.510 ^b	12.567	.000	.471	.588	1.700	.480

a. Dependent Variable: AEST

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), OPEN, ALTR, PTEXTRA

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	PTEXTA	ALTR	OPEN	OCE
1	1	3.950	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.021	13.840	.40	.42	.14	.10	
	3	.016	15.805	.58	.11	.66	.05	
	4	.013	17.345	.02	.46	.20	.84	
2	1	4.917	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.036	11.697	.16	.01	.03	.00	.74
	3	.019	16.035	.13	.65	.21	.05	.11
	4	.015	18.072	.71	.00	.68	.02	.09
	5	.013	19.605	.00	.35	.08	.93	.06

a. Dependent Variable: AEST

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.90	6.81	5.40	.849	559
Residual	-3.484	2.313	.000	.915	559
Std. Predicted Value	-2.947	1.655	.000	1.000	559
Std. Residual	-3.795	2.520	.000	.996	559

a. Dependent Variable: AEST