



Journal of Services Marketing

Customer brand engagement behavior in online brand communities

Taeshik Gong,

Article information:

To cite this document:

Taeshik Gong, (2017) "Customer brand engagement behavior in online brand communities", Journal of Services Marketing,

<https://doi.org/10.1108/JSM-08-2016-0293>

Permanent link to this document:

<https://doi.org/10.1108/JSM-08-2016-0293>

Downloaded on: 25 November 2017, At: 23:53 (PT)

References: this document contains references to 87 other documents.

To copy this document: permissions@emeraldinsight.com

The fulltext of this document has been downloaded 1 times since 2017*

Access to this document was granted through an Emerald subscription provided by emerald-srm:305060 []

For Authors

If you would like to write for this, or any other Emerald publication, then please use our Emerald for Authors service information about how to choose which publication to write for and submission guidelines are available for all. Please visit www.emeraldinsight.com/authors for more information.

About Emerald www.emeraldinsight.com

Emerald is a global publisher linking research and practice to the benefit of society. The company manages a portfolio of more than 290 journals and over 2,350 books and book series volumes, as well as providing an extensive range of online products and additional customer resources and services.

Emerald is both COUNTER 4 and TRANSFER compliant. The organization is a partner of the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE) and also works with Portico and the LOCKSS initiative for digital archive preservation.

*Related content and download information correct at time of download.

Customer brand engagement behavior in online brand communities

Taeshik Gong

College of Business and Economics, Hanyang University ERICA, Ansan, Republic of Korea

Abstract

Purpose – This study aims to investigate the moderating role of cultural value orientations on the relationship between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior through brand responsibility and self-enhancement.

Design/methodology/approach – Respondents came from firm-managed online smartphone brand communities in South Korea and the USA. Convenience sampling yielded 197 valid responses, with 98 coming from South Korea and 99 coming from the USA.

Findings – The study results provide empirical evidence that cultural value orientations influence customer brand engagement behavior. As expected, the findings indicate that individualism-collectivism and power distance significantly moderate the indirect effect of brand responsibility and self-enhancement on the relationship between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior.

Originality/value – Prior research has focused mainly on customer engagement behaviors that target the firm, employees and other customers, with little research examining customer engagement behavior that targeted the brand (customer brand engagement behavior). This exploration is important because customers could serve as brand missionaries, become less apt to switch brands and provide feedback, leading to a sustainable competitive advantage.

Keywords Self-enhancement, Brand ownership, Brand responsibility, Cultural value orientation, Customer brand engagement behaviour

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

According to the service-dominant logic (SDL) (Vargo and Lusch, 2004), customers are not passive respondents but are active value creators, acting as resource integrators and contributing to value creation by integrating physical, social and cultural resources. By engaging customers in value creation, service firms can create a sustainable competitive advantage (Xie *et al.*, 2008; Yi and Gong, 2013). Researchers have developed a framework that fully examines customer engagement behavior, which includes customer loyalty, word of mouth, recommendations and helping (van Doorn *et al.*, 2010). Prior work has also focused on multi-foci customer engagement behaviors that target the firm, employees, other customers (Guo *et al.*, 2013; Mende and van Doorn, 2015; Verleye *et al.*, 2014), and more recently, several researchers have further examined customer engagement behavior toward the brand (Baldus *et al.*, 2015; Merz *et al.*, 2009; Wirtz *et al.*, 2013). Exploration of customer brand engagement behavior is important because customers could serve as brand missionaries, become less likely to switch brands and provide feedback for brand management, creating a sustainable competitive advantage.

Given the dramatic technology-led changes in the marketplace (e.g. advances in the internet, social media and mobile technologies), researchers are interested in understanding the implications of online brand communities (OBCs) (Wirtz *et al.*,

2013). Compared to offline brand communities, OBCs enable customers to share their brand experiences with others more easily and frequently owing to the low cost of interaction with others (Shang *et al.*, 2006). Accordingly, customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs has been well documented (Algesheimer *et al.*, 2010; Steinmann *et al.*, 2015; Teichmann *et al.*, 2015; Wirtz *et al.*, 2013). For instance, prior studies have explored the key dimensions of customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs (Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). In addition, several researchers have proposed a conceptual framework that extends the understanding of OBCs and customer brand engagement behavior (Brodie *et al.*, 2013; Wirtz *et al.*, 2013), and academics have attempted to develop a reliable and valid measure of customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs (Baldus *et al.*, 2015; Hollebeek *et al.*, 2014). However, despite the growing scholarly interest in service marketing research addressing customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs, studies to date have been predominantly exploratory in nature, resulting in a lack of empirical research in this area. In particular, past work fails to capture the complexity of motivation driving customer engagement in the OBCs (Baldus *et al.*, 2015).

This study focuses on customer brand engagement behavior and explores its antecedents in a cross-cultural context. Customer brand engagement behavior is defined as customer

The current issue and full text archive of this journal is available on Emerald Insight at: www.emeraldinsight.com/0887-6045.htm

The author gratefully acknowledges the insightful comments made by Jin Nam Choi.



Journal of Services Marketing
© Emerald Publishing Limited [ISSN 0887-6045]
[DOI 10.1108/JSM-08-2016-0293]

Received 11 August 2016
Revised 21 December 2016
28 March 2017
20 August 2017
21 October 2017
Accepted 26 October 2017

behavior toward a brand that goes beyond mere purchase behavior (van Doorn *et al.*, 2010). More specifically, it consists of customer in-role behavior, such as brand loyalty, and customer extra-role behavior for the good of the brand, such as providing feedback for the firm's brand management and engaging in positive word of mouth about the firm's brand (Yi and Gong, 2013).

Drawing on the psychological ownership theory (Pierce *et al.*, 2001) and regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), this study examines the mechanisms by which customers' participative brand development and brand familiarity influence brand ownership, which leads to customer brand responsibility and customer self-enhancement, and ultimately to customer brand engagement behavior. In addition, because managerial practices do not transfer across cultural boundaries, and culture has far-reaching influences on brand positioning within a global culture (Chan *et al.*, 2010), this research also investigates the moderating role of cultural value orientations among these relationships. To be effective in managing culturally diverse customers, marketers need to understand how individually held cultural value orientations influence brand engagement behavior. Consequently, several important research questions become:

RQ1. Why and how customers show brand engagement behavior in OBCs?

RQ2. How customers' cultural value orientations influence customer brand engagement behavior?

Figure 1 depicts the conceptual framework.

Theoretical framework and hypotheses

Service-dominant logic

Vargo and Lusch (2004) propose that marketing has moved from a goods-dominant view to a service-dominant view. They justify their argument by discussing the change in perspective on two types of resources: operand and operant. Operand resources (e.g. raw materials and land) are those that wait until

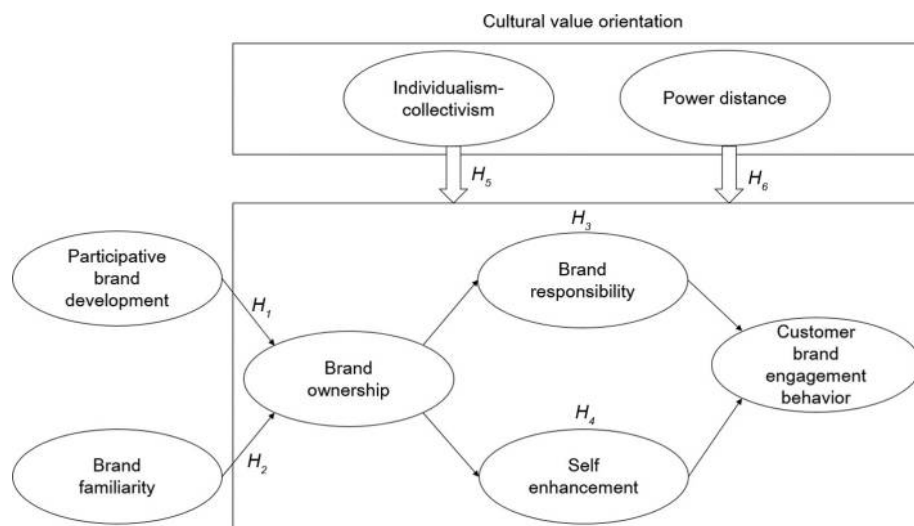
an act is performed on them to produce an effect, while operant resources (e.g. technologies, knowledge and skill) are those used to act on operand resources. Vargo and Lusch argue that a goods-centered-dominant logic considers operand resources as primary, but service-centered-dominant logic perceives operant resources as primary [1].

On the basis of this rationale, Vargo and Lusch suggest an SDL that is grounded in nine foundational premises (Lusch *et al.*, 2007). Vargo and Lusch (2008) argue that SDL is primarily about the customer's value co-creation, and they emphasize a process that includes customer behavior that contributes to value co-creation (Grönroos and Voima, 2013). In addition, SDL embraces the centrality of customers' perspective and participation in value co-creation because it focuses on value as phenomenological and contextual (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). With regard to value co-creation, Vargo *et al.* (2008) argue that SDL stresses that value is co-created through the interaction between employees and customers, but is always determined by the customer. The roles of employees in value creation are intermediary to the value co-creation process. As employees can only offer value propositions, they act as value facilitators.

Therefore, according to SDL, the customer is always a value co-creator (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). More recently, Akaka and Vargo (2015) have proposed the service ecosystem approach to extend the scope of service context. The service ecosystem perspective underscores the removal of the distinction between employees and customers and focuses on an actor-to-actor view of value creation: customers are always value co-creators by providing an alternative view that eradicates the employee-customer distinction. Importantly, Chandler and Lusch (2015) advance the concept of the value proposition by defining the value proposition as an invitation from employees to customers to engage in a service. These authors view customer engagement as a behavioral manifestation (van Doorn *et al.*, 2010) of a customer's affinity for a firm, such as customer brand engagement.

According to Merz *et al.* (2009), the primary driver of brand value is the customers, and they are a significant actor in the brand value creation process, and thus brand value is

Figure 1 Framework and constructs



determined through the customers' perceived value-in-use. Further, they argue that customers are active brand value co-creators and customers form affect-laden relationships with brands, which provides a means to self-expression, self-definition and self-enhancement. However, research has largely ignored customer brand engagement behavior within the context of SDL.

This research addresses this neglect by focusing on how customer value co-creation could be manifested through brand engagement behavior. More specifically, this study focuses on investigating the antecedents of customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs, where brand value is co-created through interactive social process between the firm and the members of brand community. Furthermore, drawing on the psychological ownership theory and regulatory focus theory, this research examines the mechanisms by which customers' participative brand development and brand familiarity influences brand ownership, which leads to customer brand responsibility and customer self-enhancement, and ultimately customer brand engagement behavior. In addition, this study investigates the moderating role of cultural value orientations among these relationships.

Brand community

Brand communities are:

[...] social entities that reflect the situated embeddedness of brands in the day-to-day lives of consumers and the ways in which brands connect the consumer to the brand, and consumer to consumer (Muniz and O'guinn, 2001, p. 418).

Brand communities have generated considerable interest among both researchers and marketers. Schouten and McAlexander (1995) demonstrate how Harley Davidson riders derive an important part of their understanding of the brand from the connection they share with one another. This understanding serves to create a kind of subculture that shares similarities with brand communities. Muniz and O'guinn (2001, p. 413) note that brand community is marked by shared consciousness, rituals and traditions and a sense of moral responsibility. Shared consciousness is the "intrinsic connection that members feel toward one another, and the collective sense of difference from others not in the community". Rituals and traditions contain the drift of meanings and social practices that seek to celebrate and inculcate certain behavioral norms and values. A sense of moral responsibility refers to "a felt sense of duty or obligation to the community as a whole, and to its individual members" (p. 413). McAlexander et al. (2002) identify four dimensions of brand community: geographical concentration, social context, temporality and identification. Algesheimer et al. (2005) find that identification with brand community leads to positive consequences, such as greater community engagement in the form of membership continuance, recommendation and loyalty to the brand, but also to negative consequences, such as normative community pressure and reactance.

In the past, brand communities were geographically bounded and existed in offline form. Over the past decade, however, the increasingly interactive nature of web pages has facilitated fast and easy communication among users, and many brand communities have been rapidly established on the internet (Madupu and Cooley, 2010). Given the profound

effect of OBCs, this study investigates customer brand engagement behavior in the context of OBCs.

SDL and customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs

Although literature on the SDL highlights that service is experienced by the customer, current service literature focuses mainly on the firm and the employees' dominant role for value creation (Grönroos and Voima, 2013). For instance, Morhart et al. (2009) argue that customers' perceptions of a service brand depend on the behavior of employees. They further argue that employees shape customers' perception of value in the service context and describe employees as brand ambassadors, champions and evangelists. However, consistent with SDL literature, customers could also be described as brand ambassadors, champions and evangelists because they are able to give suggestions for brand development and spread word of mouth or affect others' perceptions of the brand through online reviews about the brand (Verleye et al., 2014). Moreover, Grönroos and Voima (2013) assert that value creation is the customer's creation of value-in-use. They argue that customers are the core of value creation, control the value creation process and invite the firm to join this process as a co-creator of value. Additionally, van Doorn et al. (2010) posit that customer engagement behavior encompasses value creation by customers because behaviors such as making suggestions, helping employees and helping other customers to consume better are all aspects of value creation.

The majority of research on customer brand engagement in OBCs has adopted a psychologically based customer perspective (e.g. attitude) (Gummerus et al., 2012; Hollebeek, 2011b; Wirtz et al., 2013). For instance, Baldus et al. (2015) argue that customer brand engagement in OBCs is the intrinsic motivation to continue interacting with OBCs. Hollebeek (2011a) defines customer brand engagement as the level of a customer's physical, cognitive and emotional presence in direct interactions with the brand. Similarly, Brodie et al. (2013) conceptualize customer brand engagement in OBCs as a specific interactive experience among customers and the brand and other members of the community. However, this paper moves beyond the psychology of customer brand engagement and uses the most recently introduced concept of customer brand engagement as a behavioral manifestation (van Doorn et al., 2010). This concept is related to the emergence of new media such as OBCs and all new ways in which customers can interact with brands, including purchase behavior (e.g. brand loyalty) and non-purchase behavior (e.g. positive word of mouth and brand feedback) (Gummerus et al., 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013).

Psychological ownership theory

According to Pierce et al. (2003), participative decision-making exercised over an object eventually results in feelings of ownership of that object. The psychological ownership theory argues that the more control a person can exercise over certain objects through participative decision-making, the more the person will psychologically experience these objects as part of the self, which is a core feature of ownership (Pierce et al., 2001).

Participative decision-making is also likely to influence customer experiences of brand-related control. The presence of participative decision-making implies that customers can exercise discretion and freedom, thereby creating the opportunity for satisfaction of an important self-related need such as effectance motivation, or motivation resulting from doing a job well. Thus, this study proposes that participative decision-making leads to psychological ownership by operating through control exercised over the brand (Pierce *et al.*, 2009). As participative decision-making requires the firm to share control of the brand by involving customers in the decision-making process, it leads to the customer's feeling of ownership of the brand through the exercise of personal control over important brand-related aspects (Pierce *et al.*, 2004).

In addition, participative decision-making is likely to lead to customers' feelings of competence because it provides customers with more opportunities to see themselves as responsible for differences in outcomes. Participative decision-making can satisfy the customer's self-identity motive because it requires customers to invest more of themselves in the brand-related task, transforming their effort into an extension of themselves. As a result, customer identity becomes embedded in the brand-related task, thereby contributing to increased customer brand ownership (Brown *et al.*, 2014).

Furthermore, through participative decision-making, customers may have an opportunity to exercise control over matters that relate to their own work and work outcomes. In the literature, participation has been defined as "taking part" and contributing to something (Barki and Hartwick, 1994; Cotton *et al.*, 1988; Vroom and Jago, 1988). Importantly, participation can take a variety of forms. For instance, a direct form of participation is participation through personal behavior. In contrast, an indirect form of participation is participation through representation by firms. As this study is not able to capture customers' direct and actual participation in brand development, for this research, indirect and perceived forms of participation are adopted. Unlike employees, customers usually do not officially participate in new brand development, although through OBCs, they may provide the firm with ideas on brand development and later determine whether their opinions about brand development were taken into account. Therefore, this study measures customers' indirect and perceived participation through representation, by measuring customers' perception of the extent to which the firm considers their needs and wants during brand development (perceived control) instead of measuring direct and actual participation (actual control). If brand managers show that they consider customers' needs and wants when they are developing their brand, customers will experience a sense of control, which in turn enhances participative brand development, and ultimately strengthens customers' sense of brand ownership because it implies a sharing of authority (Liu *et al.*, 2012). In sum, when customers perceive that the firm considers their needs and wants during brand development – in other words, perceive that they indirectly engage in participative brand development – they are likely to believe that they have the responsibility to act in the best interest of the firm and are more likely to have an enhanced sense of brand ownership (O'Driscoll *et al.*, 2006)[2]. Hence:

H1. Participative brand development will have a positive effect on brand ownership.

The psychological ownership theory argues that the self fuses with the object through intimate knowledge of the object. That is, individuals can feel ownership of an object by acquiring information about the object and having direct and indirect experiences with it (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Kent and Allen, 1994). Therefore, the more information and knowledge individuals have about an object, the deeper the relationship between the self and the object, and thus, the stronger the feeling of ownership (Pierce *et al.*, 2001). More specifically, when an individual knows an object intimately, the object becomes part of the individual's self (Pierce *et al.*, 2003). Thus, by extension, when an individual knows a brand intimately as a result of active participation or association with it, the brand becomes part of the self.

In other words, through the process of association, individuals come to know the object and possess more information about the object, strengthening the connection and attachment between the individual and the object (Beggan and Brown, 1994). Ultimately they come to feel that an object is theirs – that is, they engage in psychological ownership (Pierce *et al.*, 2003). Through the marketing activities of the firm, customers have a number of opportunities to learn about their favorite brand, and over time, they learn, feel, see and hear about the brand as a result of their experiences (Keller, 2013). As a consequence of feeling that they know the brand better, they may develop psychological ownership of it. Hence:

H2. Brand familiarity will have a positive effect on brand ownership.

Regulatory focus theory

As noted earlier, the basis for examining two unique mechanisms that link customer brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior comes from the regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), which assumes that individuals have two self-regulation systems: promotion and prevention. Individuals who operate with a promotion focus are more concerned with striving for ideals through advancement and accomplishment, whereas those who operate with a prevention focus are more concerned with fulfilling duties through responsible behaviors (Avey *et al.*, 2009; Avnet and Higgins, 2006; Lanaj *et al.*, 2012).

Although researchers have investigated the role of regulatory focus in work organizations, few studies have examined its role in the customer brand engagement context. In light of their independent nature, the promotion and prevention foci do not surprisingly operate via different motivational processes. As a result, they have unique relationships with individual attitudes and behaviors. When applied to customer brand engagement behavior, the regulatory focus theory suggests that customers who have a more preventive focus tend to carefully monitor their responsibilities as owners of the brand because feelings of ownership trigger a sense of responsibility for the brand.

Furthermore, ownership causes customers to protect their ownership rights from other customers and to control access by other customers (van Dyne and Pierce, 2004). As a result, they might shy away from the weighty responsibility and

accountability associated with brand ownership. Moreover, brand ownership creates additional effort and responsibility in the form of stewardship and self-sacrifice, which are costly to customers and hamper customer performance as brand ambassadors (Avey *et al.*, 2009). This overload may deplete customers' capacity to show engagement behavior toward the brand (Chan and Lam, 2011). Hence:

H3. Brand responsibility will negatively mediate the relationship between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior.

Researchers have noted that individuals establish their self-identity through interactions with possessions such as brands (Avey *et al.*, 2009). Because people view psychologically experienced possessions as expressions of the self (van Dyne and Pierce, 2004), individuals feel that they have extended their self-concept through self-enhancement. They are motivated to build a positive self-concept and see their current self-concept as positively as possible (Leonardelli *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, under a self-regulation system, individuals strive for their ideal selves through advancement, ideals and accomplishment, prompting them to approach conditions that lead them to desired end states (Johnson *et al.*, 2010). They also tend to focus on their self-worth, have a self-enhancing orientation, pursue goals and pursue positive outcomes such as customer brand engagement behavior. A promotion focus will activate self-enhancement in association with achieving positive outcomes and seeking self-enhancing feedback (Leonardelli *et al.*, 2007). For this reason, a high promotion focus is likely to increase self-enhancing outcomes (Johnson *et al.*, 2010; Lanaj *et al.*, 2012; Wirtz and Lwin, 2009). Individuals with a high promotion focus will notice information related to positive outcomes and pursue opportunities to achieve aspirations in accordance with self-enhancement instead of maintaining their present self-identity. As a result, they are likely to exhibit both in-role and extra-role engagement behavior that leads to desired outcomes (Kark and Van Dijk, 2007; Neubert *et al.*, 2008; Vandewalle *et al.*, 1995). Brand ownership engenders customer self-enhancement, and in turn influences customers' willingness to exhibit behaviors that promote the welfare of the brand. Hence:

H4. Self-enhancement will positively mediate the relationship between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior.

Culture's effect on customer brand engagement behavior

The cultural aspects of a social context are expected to shape the consequences of brand ownership. According to Pierce *et al.* (2003), brand ownership is related to the concept of self, which is affected by culture and learned through culturally determined socialization practices. Thus, this study proposes that culture will influence the indirect effect of brand ownership on customer brand engagement behavior. Rather than attempting to address all dimensions of culture, this paper focuses on only two dimensions, individualism-collectivism and power distance, to more fully explore the nature of the relationships for the South Korean and North American

populations. Evaluation of other cultural dimensions is left for future research.

Collectivism refers to a condition in which the interests of the group or society prevail over the interests of the individual. In contrast, individualism is a condition in which the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group or society, with individualists emphasizing their own well-being rather than relationships with others (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, if brand ownership is translated into customer brand engagement behavior through brand responsibility, customers with a higher collectivist value orientation are more likely to act in accordance with social norms and established social relationships (Chan *et al.*, 2010). They are more likely to be attentive to their role as brand owner and their responsibility as owners of the brand, which negatively affects their customer brand engagement behavior because they want to behave in accordance with the social norm that emphasizes the social responsibility as an owner of the brand.

However, compared to customers with a high individualist value orientation, customers with a high collectivist value orientation tend to be less attentive to the benefits of brand ownership and less likely to seek rewards that are proportionate to their own contributions as brand owners (Chan *et al.*, 2010). More specifically, customers with a high collectivist value orientation do not have a natural desire for self-enhancement because social norms discourage them from boasting about their own accomplishments (Cullen *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, because they focus on areas that need to be improved rather than their own actual standing, they are less inclined to seek self-enhancement than customers with a high individualist value orientation (Heine and Renshaw, 2002). Hence:

H5. As a customer's collectivist value orientation increases, brand responsibility has a stronger negative mediating effect between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior and self-enhancement has a weaker positive mediating effect between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior.

Power distance is the extent to which less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). In high power distance cultures, individuals have their customary place in a social hierarchy and are expected to display status symbols and engage in entitlements. As a result, they accept their authority as owner of the brand and try to fulfill their responsibility. Customers with a high power distance value orientation view high-status customers (i.e. those who own the brand) and low-status customers (i.e. those who do not own the brand) as different types and emphasize hierarchical status differences as a way of maintaining social order. Further, high-status customers expect that they should receive more benefits than low-status customers and hold social control over those customers (Vogel *et al.*, 2015). As a result, high-status customers are more willing to maintain their high status by taking more responsibility as brand owners.

However, high-status customers are not willing to put forth extra effort toward self-enhancements that signify self-growth. Self-enhancement motivation is most likely to arise when customers see their consumption environment as enhancing their self-concept. More specifically, customers believe that

brand ownership will provide the opportunity to enhance their self-concept. They see themselves as entitled to attain goals that reflect a positive self-concept, and they hold a conviction that they are capable of attainment by their own efforts (Korman, 2001). However, customers from high power distance cultures prefer inequality among persons in different positions of formal power (customers who own the brand vs customers who do not own the brand). They view this disparity as a desirable aspect of the social order, and thus believe that they are naturally entitled to enhancement of their self-concept (Brockner *et al.*, 2001; Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Put differently, high-status customers are not interested in the opportunity that brand ownership offers, such as enhancing their self-concept, because they believe that self-enhancement is not a matter of their own efforts but instead flows from the power itself (de Mooij, 2011). Thus:

- H6. As a customer's power distance orientation increases, brand responsibility has a stronger negative mediating effect between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior and self-enhancement has a weaker positive mediating effect between brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior.

Method

The subjects of this study came from firm-managed online smartphone brand communities in South Korea and the USA. To increase their understanding of the smartphone, customers tend to participate in the brand's online brand community to share information with fellow customers, and thus are suitable subjects for this research. Furthermore, these type of OBCs offer members various interaction venues, such as discussion boards and chat rooms. The community administrator participates actively in many member activities, soliciting feedback for innovations and providing new product information.

This study relied on convenience sampling. With the consent of the administrator, an invitation was posted in the forum of the OBCs, providing an exclusive link that community members could click to access the online survey to participate. The survey period spanned four weeks, during which 228 responses were collected. However, as respondents were offered an incentive for participation, some of them may have tried to participate in the survey several times. Exclusion of multiple responses from the same IP address left 197 valid responses, with 98 coming from South Korea and 99 coming from the USA. To avoid the ecological fallacy of using national generalizations to explain customer behaviors, this study used the cultural values of individual respondents as the unit of analysis (Chan *et al.*, 2010).

The samples from South Korea and the USA were compared in terms of demographic characteristics, such as age, gender and education, and OBC characteristics, such as community usage time, number of posts, total experiences in the community and adoption of brand products. The results did not differ significantly between the two samples ($p > 0.05$). Multiple group analysis was also performed to compare the two subsamples. The significance of the difference between bootstrap loading estimates between the two samples was

examined by performing a Hotelling's T-square test. As the p -value was > 0.05 , we concluded that no significant difference existed between the two samples (Hair *et al.*, 2017), and we combined these samples for subsequent analysis. Respondents' mean age was 26.4 years, and 65 per cent were men. Most respondents were university- or college-educated (74 per cent). In addition, most (88 per cent) spent more than 5 h per week in the online community. The average number of posts per month was 7.43, and the average experience in using the brand community was 3.12 years. Finally, 97 per cent of participants owned at least one product of the brand to which their online community was dedicated.

Measurement

Whenever possible, existing measures of the constructs were used and adapted to the context of this study (Table I). Participative brand development was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Keller (2013). This scale measured the degree to which a maker of a focal brand considers the needs and wants of its customers when it develops its brand. Brand familiarity was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Kent and Allen (1994) and assessed the degree of awareness a customer has of a specific brand. Brand ownership was measured with three items adapted from van Dyne and Pierce (2004) and assessed customer psychological ownership for the focal brand. Participants were asked to indicate the degree to which they personally agreed or disagreed with the three brand ownership items.

Brand responsibility was assessed using three measures developed by Avey *et al.* (2009). Individuals were asked about the extent to which they engaged in stewardship and self-sacrifice when the brand was criticized and challenged (e.g. "I would defend the brand image when others criticize it"). Self-enhancement was measured using three items from Kitayama *et al.* (1997) to capture the degree to which brand users think more highly of themselves when they use the brand.

Customer brand engagement behavior was modeled as a second-order multi-dimensional construct where the second order represents the common variance between components (Law *et al.*, 1998). More specifically, customer brand engagement behavior was measured by averaging the responses to items regarding brand loyalty, brand-positive word of mouth and brand feedback. Brand loyalty was measured with four items adapted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001): "I will buy this brand whenever I can", "I intend to keep purchasing this brand", "I am committed to this brand" and "I would be willing to pay a higher price for this brand over other brands". Brand-positive word of mouth was measured using a three-item scale from Morhart *et al.* (2009). Brand feedback was measured by three items adapted from the extra-role brand-building scale (Morhart *et al.*, 2009). Finally, two dimensions of the cultural value scale – power distance and collectivism – were measured with items from Youngdahl *et al.* (2003) that capture cultural dimensions at the individual level.

PLS-SEM analyses

While CB-SEM (covariance-based structural equation modeling) is the more popular method, PLS-SEM (variance-based partial least squares structural equation modeling) has recently received considerable attention in a variety of

Table I Constructs and factor loading

Constructs and items	Factor loading
<i>Participative brand development</i>	
The maker of this brand understands my needs in brand development	0.85
The maker of this brand cares about my opinions in brand development	0.88
The maker of this brand cares about my opinions in brand development	0.87
<i>Brand familiarity</i>	
I am familiar with this brand	0.84
I am experienced with this brand	0.83
I am knowledgeable about this brand	0.81
<i>Brand ownership</i>	
I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this brand	0.86
I sense that this is MY brand	0.90
It is easy for me to think about this brand as MINE	0.82
<i>Brand responsibility</i>	
I would defend the brand image when others criticize it	0.88
When others criticize the brand, I will improve defects fundamentally	0.83
I would challenge anyone causing harm to this brand	0.82
<i>Self-enhancement</i>	
I feel elated when I use this brand	0.89
My self-esteem increases when I use this brand	0.82
I have more respect for myself if I use this brand	0.85
<i>Customer brand engagement behavior</i>	
<i>Brand loyalty</i>	
I will buy this brand whenever I can	0.89
I intend to keep purchasing this brand	
I am committed to this brand	
I would be willing to pay a higher price for this brand over other brands	
<i>Brand-positive word of mouth</i>	
I bring up this brand in a positive way in conversations I have with friends and acquaintances	0.88
I "talk up" this brand to people I know	
In social situations, I often speak favorably about this brand	
<i>Brand feedback</i>	
I let the maker of this brand know how to strengthen the brand image	0.76
I make constructive suggestions on how to improve customer brand experience	
I make constructive suggestions on how to improve customer brand experience	
<i>Power distance</i>	
People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions	0.82
People in higher positions should not frequently ask the opinions of people in lower positions	
People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions	
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions	
<i>Collectivism</i>	
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group (either at school or in the workplace)	0.90
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties	
Group welfare is more important than individual rewards	
Group success is more important than individual success	
Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group	
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer	

disciplines, including service marketing (Hair *et al.*, 2012). PLS-SEM uses a composite-based approach to structural equation modeling (SEM) that linearly combines indicators to form composite variables that serve as proxies for the concepts under investigation. This approach differs from common factor-based SEM (CB-SEM), which considers the constructs to be common factors that explain the covariation between their associated indicators (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2016).

Much of the increased use of PLS-SEM can be credited to greater flexibility regarding the distribution of data, handling of complex models, relatively unrestricted use of formative measurement models and robust results with small sample sizes. For instance, sample size can affect several aspects of SEM, including parameter estimates, model fit and statistical power. However, in contrast to CB-SEM, PLS-SEM can be used with much smaller sample sizes, even when models are highly complex. In these situations, PLS-SEM generally achieves higher levels of statistical power and demonstrates much better convergence behavior than CB-SEM, which justifies the use of PLS-SEM over CB-SEM in this study (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Sarstedt *et al.*, 2014).

Results

Measurement assessment

SmartPLS software (Ringle *et al.*, 2005) was used to validate the measurement model. While the two samples did not differ significantly on the means of key variables ($p > 0.05$), they offered variations in individualism-collectivism and power distance at the individual level for testing cultural effects hypotheses. More specifically, the mean level of collectivist value orientation in the South Korean customer sample was significantly higher than that in the US sample ($p < 0.05$), as was the mean level of power distance ($p < 0.05$). The descriptive statistics of the key constructs are offered in Table II.

The composite reliabilities for all variables exceeded the cutoff value of 0.70, demonstrating that each construct had acceptable psychometric properties. The convergent validity of the scales was supported, as all indicators loaded on their hypothesized factors significantly ($p < 0.05$) and substantially (>0.70). Furthermore, the square root of the average variance extracted for each construct exceeded the correlations of the construct with other constructs (see Table I), supporting the discriminant validity of the constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). To assess the effects of common method variance on the

results, a method factor was added, with all indicators for all latent variables loading on this factor and on their respective latent variables. Several indicators loaded significantly on the method factor, but the structural results were consistent with the results reported in the structural model (Williams and Anderson, 1994).

Hypotheses testing

A bootstrapping method with 1,000 re-samples was conducted to test the significance of the main and mediation effects. To test the moderated mediation hypotheses, Model 58 of the PROCESS application was used (Hayes, 2013). The percentages of explained variance (R^2) for brand ownership, brand responsibility, self-enhancement and customer brand engagement behavior were 0.40, 0.34, 0.32 and 0.65, respectively, indicating the acceptable explanatory power of the model (Hair *et al.*, 2017).

H1 predicts that participative brand development will have a positive effect on brand ownership, and the data confirmed this hypothesis ($\beta = 0.37, p < 0.001$). *H2*, which predicts that brand familiarity will have a positive effect on brand ownership, was also supported ($\beta = 0.34, p < 0.001$). Regarding the mediation effects, as expected, the effect of brand ownership on customer brand engagement behavior through brand responsibility was significant ($\beta = -0.27, p < 0.001$), supporting *H3*. The analysis also indicated that the effect of brand ownership on customer brand engagement behavior was mediated by self-enhancement ($\beta = 0.44, p < 0.001$) (Table III).

Individualism-collectivism significantly moderated the indirect effect of brand responsibility: at -1 SD from the mean

Table III Results of the structural model

Path	Coefficient (β)
<i>H1</i> . Participative brand development → brand ownership	0.37***
<i>H2</i> . Brand familiarity → brand ownership	0.34***
<i>H3</i> . Brand ownership → brand responsibility → customer brand engagement behavior	-0.27***
<i>H4</i> . Brand ownership → self-enhancement → customer brand engagement behavior	0.44***
Note: *** $p < 0.001$	

Table II Descriptive statistics of study variables in the combined South Korea and US sample

Variable	Mean	SD	CR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Participative brand development	5.51	1.02	0.90	0.86							
2. Brand familiarity	5.10	1.07	0.87	0.61	0.83						
3. Brand ownership	5.54	0.91	0.89	0.57	0.56	0.86					
4. Brand responsibility	5.89	0.73	0.88	0.44	0.46	0.60	0.85				
5. Self-enhancement	5.35	0.93	0.89	0.58	0.74	0.56	0.64	0.86			
6. Customer brand engagement behavior	5.62	0.82	0.83	0.48	0.56	0.57	-0.73	0.71	0.79		
7. Individualism-Collectivism	4.88	1.26	0.79	0.51	0.79	0.57	0.49	0.62	0.53	0.75	
8. Power distance	4.89	1.91	0.83	0.17	0.17	0.13	0.29	0.31	0.23	0.19	0.79

Notes: The diagonal is the square root of the average variance extracted; SD = standard deviation; CR = composite reliability

of the moderator, the 95 per cent bootstrap bias-corrected confidence interval (CI) included zero ($b = -0.05$, CI: -0.13 to 0.00); at the mean of the moderator, the CI did not contain zero ($b = -0.12$, CI: -0.20 to -0.06); at +1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the CI excluded zero ($b = -0.22$, CI: -0.35 to -0.14), supporting *H5a*. Individualism-collectivism also significantly moderated the indirect effect of self-enhancement: at -1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the 95 per cent bootstrap bias-corrected CI excluded zero ($b = 0.18$, CI: 0.06 to 0.33); at the mean of the moderator, the CI did not contain zero ($b = 0.11$, CI: 0.04 to 0.20); at +1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the CI included zero ($b = 0.05$, CI: -0.01 to 0.16), in support of *H5b*.

Power distance significantly moderated the indirect effect of brand responsibility. At -1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the 95 per cent bootstrap bias-corrected CI included zero ($b = -0.13$, CI: -0.25 to 0.04); at the mean of the moderator, the CI did not contain zero ($b = -0.15$, CI: -0.23 to -0.09); at +1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the CI excluded zero ($b = -0.17$, CI: -0.28 to -0.08), in support of *H6a*. Power distance also significantly moderated the indirect effect of self-enhancement: at -1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the 95 per cent bootstrap bias-corrected CI excluded zero ($b = 0.20$, CI: 0.08 to 0.37); at the mean of the moderator, the CI did not contain zero ($b = 0.11$, CI: 0.04 to 0.20), but at +1 SD from the mean of the moderator, the CI included zero ($b = 0.03$, CI: -0.04 to 0.11), in support of *H6b* (Table IV).

Discussion

This study collects data sets from two countries – South Korea and the USA – and makes primary contributions to the SDL literature by investigating the antecedents of customer brand engagement behavior, as well as by examining the moderating role of cultural differences. The theoretical and applied implications of these findings follow.

Theoretical implications

This study extends the prior research on customer engagement behavior toward the firm, employees and other customers by investigating another important target, brand. The exploration of customer brand engagement behavior in OBCs is especially important in light of advances in the internet, social media and mobile technologies. Brand research to date is rooted primarily in traditional goods-centered-dominant logic (Chaudhuri and

Holbrook, 2001), although Merz *et al.* (2009) recently argue that brand value is co-created between the firm and its customers, as well as emphasize that customers play the active role in the brand value creation process. Importantly, this article invokes insights from the emerging SDL perspectives (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2008) and proposes a conceptual framework for investigating the antecedents of customer brand engagement behavior. SDL emphasizes that customer behavior contributes to value co-creation and that employees invite customers to engage in value co-creation (Chandler and Lusch, 2015). This customer engagement is a behavioral manifestation of customer value co-creation (van Doorn *et al.*, 2010; Yi and Gong, 2013). More specifically, this study empirically tests a brand value co-creation (BVCC) model suggested by Merz *et al.* (2009). According to a BVCC model, brand value is co-created by constant interactions among brands, firms and customers in OBCs. Surprisingly, however, little research has investigated empirically how the BVCC occurs by investigating the complexity of motivation driving customer brand engagement behavior in the OBCs. The findings show that the brand value co-creation, which is conceptualized as customer brand engagement behavior, is driven by customer brand ownership and bounded by customers' cultural value orientation.

This research also provides empirical evidence that customers can enhance brand engagement behaviors. Previous research on brand management has mainly focused on employees' role in strengthening the firm's brand image (Baker *et al.*, 2014; Löhndorf and Diamantopoulos, 2014; Morhart *et al.*, 2009). Although researchers have recognized the importance of employees as brand promoters, few studies have explicitly addressed the role of customers as brand champions, brand missionaries, brand evangelists and brand ambassadors. Consistent with the limited prior research, this study draws on both the psychological ownership theory and regulatory focus theory to develop the theoretical framework and research hypotheses regarding the various mechanisms that lead to customer brand engagement behavior, which consists of in-role and extra-role behaviors such as brand loyalty, brand-positive word of mouth and brand feedback (van Doorn *et al.*, 2010).

By highlighting the relevance of brand ownership in the context of customer brand engagement behavior, the findings extend current knowledge (Brown *et al.*, 2014; Pierce *et al.*, 2001; van Dyne and Pierce, 2004). In particular, the results of this study suggest that participative brand development and brand familiarity help customers develop a sense of psychological ownership of the brand. This finding confirms the possibility that

Table IV Conditional indirect effects model predicting customer brand engagement behavior

Moderator value	Brand ownership → brand responsibility → customer brand engagement behavior		Brand ownership → self-enhancement → customer brand engagement behavior	
	Boot indirect effect	95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval	Boot indirect effect	95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval
Low individual collectivism (-1 SD)	-0.05	-0.13 to 0.00	0.18	0.06 to 0.33
Moderate individual collectivism	-0.12	-0.20 to -0.06	0.11	0.04 to 0.20
High individual collectivism (+1 SD)	-0.22	-0.35 to -0.14	0.05	-0.01 to 0.16
Low power distance (-1 SD)	-0.13	-0.25 to 0.04	0.20	0.08 to 0.37
Moderate power distance	-0.15	-0.23 to -0.09	0.11	0.04 to 0.20
High power distance (+1 SD)	-0.17	-0.28 to -0.08	0.03	-0.04 to 0.11

the psychological ownership theory (Pierce *et al.*, 2003) could be applied to the domain of customer brand management.

However, brand ownership may be a double-edged sword. While the literature contains substantial research related to understanding the desirable effects of brand engagement, the potential undesirable consequences have remained unexplored, and this investigation seems to be the first to consider brand ownership's counterbalancing effects on customer brand engagement behavior. More specifically, the study's findings show that brand ownership increases responsibility and reduces brand engagement behavior, but also increases self-enhancement and enhances brand engagement behavior. These results indicate that brand ownership produces positive effects only if it minimizes responsibility. This study suggests that investigations concerned with the consequences of brand ownership might fruitfully explore the roles of brand responsibility and self-enhancement simultaneously. This study further enriches the literature by applying regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998) to a new setting – customer brand ownership and customer brand engagement behavior.

As the results of this investigation show that brand engagement behavior depends on customers' cultural value orientations, the firm should be sensitive to these orientations, and marketers should consider how various cultural backgrounds could require different brand strategies. A number of well-known global brands reap much of their profit from international markets, and establishing a global profile is becoming a prerequisite for brand success (Keller, 2013). This study's results provide compelling reasons for understanding the cultural context of customer brand engagement behavior, as they clearly show that the indirect effect of brand ownership on customer brand engagement behavior through brand responsibility and self-enhancement depends significantly on interaction with customers' cultural value orientations. In other words, in the case of customers who have individualist and low power distance value orientations, brand ownership triggers a weaker negative effect and a stronger positive effect on brand engagement behavior than in customers who have collectivist and high power distance value orientations. Firms, therefore, have a better chance of exploiting the positive value of brand ownership – and alleviating the negative value – if they remain sensitive to individual customers' cultural value orientations.

Managerial implications

Brand ownership not only adds a new dynamic to the enhancement of brand engagement behavior, but also exerts a powerful force for turning customers into brand champions. The stronger customers' perceptions of the ownership of a brand, the greater their internal motivation to engage in behaviors that support the firm's brand-building efforts. These findings have important implications for managerial practice.

First, to ensure an effective brand engagement behavior process, firms need to provide customers with opportunities to engage in brand development and become familiar with the brand itself. Online brand communities are effective vehicles for allowing customers to communicate with the firm and other customers (Adjei *et al.*, 2010), and marketing managers can use brand communities to let customers know about their brand and learn from other customers (Algesheimer *et al.*, 2010, 2005). Firms may want to encourage and reward customers to

become more active within brand communities, perhaps by offering social, entertainment and economic benefits (Wirtz *et al.*, 2013). Firms might sponsor social networking practices to inspire further participation in brand development and to increase brand familiarity. Particularly important is giving customers multiple opportunities to modify products, along with greater diversity in practices (Schau *et al.*, 2009).

Second, firms might want to invest in training and communications to reduce the customer's burden of brand responsibility, which is a side effect of brand ownership. More specifically, managers might want to stress overall shared ownership rather than individual feelings of possession for a particular brand. In addition, managers need to prevent excessive brand ownership from emerging, and they need to pay attention to the conditions under which the positive effects such as self-enhancement become weaker and under which the negative effects such as brand responsibility become stronger. For that purpose, management needs to be philosophically committed to the brand ownership system, including the design and implementation of the system, and to emphasize the importance of customer ownership as a valuable asset to the firm. Through these actions, customers could avoid the potential negative effect of an extreme case of brand ownership (Pierce *et al.*, 2009, 2001, 1991; van Dyne and Pierce, 2004).

Finally, managers should understand customers' cultural value orientation and adjust their brand community operating strategies to accommodate specific customer needs and wants. Culturally matched dyads of customers and their brand ownership help maximize the manifestation of customer brand engagement behavior. Managers should, therefore, assess the cultural value orientation of customers and develop a customized brand ownership strategy. For example, they should avoid cultivating brand ownership with customers who have collectivist and high power distance value orientations because brand ownership triggers stronger indirect and negative effects on customer brand engagement behavior through brand responsibility and weaker indirect and positive effects on customer brand engagement behavior through self-enhancement. Instead, managers might want to build and sustain brand ownership with customers who have individualist and low power distance value orientations. Managers might want to screen their customers. They can aim to identify customers' cultural value orientations and motivate or demotivate customers to engage in OBCs depending on their characteristics.

Future research avenues

Drawing on the psychology of possession (Pierce *et al.*, 2004), future research should refine the conceptualization of the target of ownership. While this research focused on psychological ownership for the brand, feelings of ownership can form around multiple targets. Therefore, researchers might want to extend this research by including possessiveness toward specific targets such as the firm, employees and other customers.

Future research should also assess an expanded set of customer brand engagement behaviors. This study included only three constructs that represent customer brand engagement behavior. However, brand engagement may also be reflected in negative behavior, such as organizing public actions against a brand, decreasing brand consumption and

nonrenewal of a brand, as well as in positive behavior such as helping and coaching service providers and helping other customers to consume the brand (van Doorn *et al.*, 2010).

The generalizability of the findings should also be considered. As this research focuses on one type of online brand community, to establish the generalizability of the results further research might consider other product focuses of brand communities (e.g. related to automobiles, cosmetics, family entertainment, clothing, and airlines), as well as other types of brand community (e.g. customer-managed and offline brand communities). Depending on the characteristics of social media, the dynamics of the interactive customer/brand relationship will be varied (Hollebeek *et al.*, 2014).

Longitudinal studies with different time lags and waves would help confirm the causality of key variables. While the pattern of observed relationships supports this study's hypotheses, the cross-sectional design prohibits causal inferences, and reverse/reciprocal causality is likely. Future study is encouraged to examine these relationships and extend this study by using an experimental design that assesses and offers additional evidence of causality.

Additionally, the cultural value orientation construct may include other dimensions. For example, cultures with a longer term past-future orientation (e.g. Hong Kong and South Korea) will need more time for the emergence of brand ownership than cultures that are more focused on the present, such as the USA and the UK (Pierce *et al.*, 2003).

Although this study complies with the minimum sample size requirements for PLS-SEM, the required sample size should be determined by means of power analyses. Furthermore, true population values converge only when the number of indicators per construct and the sample size both increase to infinity. Thus, under the small-sample condition, PLS-SEM underestimates the parameters of the structural model and overestimates those of the measurement model. Future research should try to obtain larger samples and adopt probability sampling techniques (Hair *et al.*, 2017; Reinartz *et al.*, 2009).

Notes

- 1 Some scholars criticize SDL because it views the relationship between operand and operant resources as hierarchical and one-way. They argue that SDL underestimates operand resources, that the customer is not always operant in value co-creation, and that operand resources can also act on customers to co-create value (Campbell *et al.*, 2013).
- 2 In this study, participative brand development and customer brand engagement behavior differ conceptually. First, participative brand development is not behavior itself, whereas customer brand engagement *is* behavior (Dong *et al.*, 2008). Second, "participation" in participative brand development is defined as indirect and perceived participation (Barki and Hartwick, 1994). Lastly, participative brand development is an antecedent of customer brand ownership, which leads to customer brand engagement behavior via brand responsibility and self-enhancement (Pierce *et al.*, 2004).

References

- Adjei, M.T., Noble, S.M. and Noble, C.H. (2010), "The influence of C2C communications in online brand communities on customer purchase behavior", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 38 No. 5, pp. 634-653.
- Akaka, M.A. and Vargo, S.L. (2015), "Extending the context of service: from encounters to ecosystems", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 29 Nos 6/7, pp. 453-462.
- Alba, J.W. and Hutchinson, J.W. (1987), "Dimensions of consumer expertise", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 13 No. 4, pp. 411-454.
- Algesheimer, R., Borle, S., Dholakia, U.M. and Singh, S.S. (2010), "The impact of customer community participation on customer behaviors: an empirical investigation", *Marketing Science*, Vol. 29 No. 4, pp. 756-769.
- Algesheimer, R., Dholakia, U. and Hermann, A. (2005), "The social influence of brand community: evidence from European car clubs", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 69, pp. 19-34.
- Avey, J.B., Avolio, B.J., Crossley, C.D. and Luthans, F. (2009), "Psychological ownership: theoretical extensions, measurement and relation to work outcomes", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 30 No. 2, pp. 173-191.
- Avnet, T. and Higgins, E.T. (2006), "How regulatory fit affects value in consumer choices and opinions", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 43 No. 1, pp. 1-10.
- Baker, T.L., Rapp, A., Meyer, T. and Mullins, R. (2014), "The role of brand communications on front line service employee beliefs, behaviors, and performance", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 42 No. 6, pp. 642-657.
- Baldus, B.J., Voorhees, C. and Calantone, R. (2015), "Online brand community engagement: scale development and validation", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 68 No. 5, pp. 978-985.
- Barki, H. and Hartwick, J. (1994), "Measuring user participation, user involvement, and user attitude", *MIS Quarterly*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 59-82.
- Beggan, J.K. and Brown, E.M. (1994), "Association as a psychological justification for ownership", *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 128 No. 4, pp. 365-380.
- Brockner, J., Ackerman, G., Greenberg, J., Gelfand, M.J., Francesco, A.M., Chen, Z.X., Leung, K., Bierbrauer, G., Gomez, C. and Kirkman, B.L. (2001), "Culture and procedural justice: the influence of power distance on reactions to voice", *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 37 No. 4, pp. 300-315.
- Brodie, R.J., Ilic, A., Juric, B. and Hollebeek, L. (2013), "Consumer engagement in a virtual brand community: an exploratory analysis", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 66 No. 1, pp. 105-114.
- Brown, G., Pierce, J.L. and Crossley, C. (2014), "Toward an understanding of the development of ownership feelings", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 35 No. 3, pp. 318-338.
- Campbell, N., O'Driscoll, A. and Saren, M. (2013), "Reconceptualizing resources: a critique of service-dominant logic", *Journal of Macromarketing*, Vol. 33 No. 4, pp. 306-321.
- Chan, K.W. and Lam, W. (2011), "The trade-off of servicing empowerment on employees' service performance: examining the underlying motivation and workload

- mechanisms”, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 39 No. 4, pp. 609-628.
- Chan, K.W., Yim, C.K. and Lam, S.S.K. (2010), “Is customer participation in value creation a double-edged sword? Evidence from professional financial services across cultures”, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 74, pp. 48-64.
- Chandler, J.D. and Lusch, R.F. (2015), “Service system: a broadened framework and research agenda on value propositions, engagement, and service experience”, *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 6-22.
- Chaudhuri, A. and Holbrook, M.B. (2001), “The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: the role of brand loyalty”, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 65 No. 2, pp. 81-93.
- Cotton, J.L., Vollrath, D.A., Froggatt, K.L., Lengnick-Hall, M.L. and Jennings, K.R. (1988), “Employee participation: diverse forms and different outcomes”, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 13 No. 1, pp. 8-22.
- Cullen, K.L., Gentry, W.A. and Yammarino, F.J. (2015), “Biased self-perception tendencies: self-enhancement/self-diminishment and leader derailment in individualistic and collectivistic cultures”, *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, Vol. 64 No. 1, pp. 161-207.
- de Mooij, M. (2011), *Consumer Behavior and Culture: Consequences for Global Marketing and Advertising*, SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Dong, B., Evans, K.R. and Zou, S. (2008), “The effects of customer participation in co-created service recovery”, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 36 No. 1, pp. 123-137.
- Fornell, C. and Larcker, D.F. (1981), “Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error”, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 39-50.
- Grönroos, C. and Voima, P. (2013), “Critical service logic: making sense of value creation and co-creation”, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 41 No. 2, pp. 133-150.
- Gummerus, J., Liljander, V., Weman, E. and Pihlström, M. (2012), “Customer engagement in a facebook brand community”, *Management Research Review*, Vol. 35 No. 9, pp. 857-877.
- Guo, L., Arnould, E.J., Gruen, T.W. and Tang, C. (2013), “Socializing to co-produce: pathways to consumers’ financial well-being”, *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 16 No. 4, pp. 549-563.
- Hair, J.F., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle, C.M. and Sarstedt, M. (2017), *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*, 2nd ed., SAGE Publications, Los Angeles, CA.
- Hair, J.F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L. and Kuppelwieser, V.G. (2014), “Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM): an emerging tool in business research”, *European Business Review*, Vol. 26 No. 2, pp. 106-121.
- Hair, J.F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C.M. and Mena, J.A. (2012), “An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research”, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 40 No. 3, pp. 414-433.
- Hayes, A.F. (2013), *An Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis: A Regression-Based Approach*, Guilford Press, New York, NY.
- Heine, S.J. and Renshaw, K. (2002), “Interjudge agreement, self-enhancement, and liking: cross-cultural divergences”, *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 28 No. 5, pp. 578-587.
- Higgins, E.T. (1998), “Promotion and prevention: regulatory focus as a motivational principle”, in Zanna, M.P. (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 30, Academic Press, New York, NY, pp. 1-46.
- Hofstede, G.H., Hofstede, G.J. and Minkov, M. (2010), *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind: International Cooperation and Its Importance for Survival*, McGraw-Hill, New York, NY.
- Hollebeek, L.D. (2011a), “Demystifying customer brand engagement: exploring the loyalty nexus”, *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 27 Nos 7/8, pp. 785-807.
- Hollebeek, L.D. (2011b), “Exploring customer brand engagement: definition and themes”, *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, Vol. 19 No. 7, pp. 555-573.
- Hollebeek, L.D. and Chen, T. (2014), “Exploring positively-versus negatively-valenced brand engagement: a conceptual model”, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 23 No. 1, pp. 62-74.
- Hollebeek, L.D., Glynn, M.S. and Brodie, R.J. (2014), “Consumer brand engagement in social media: conceptualization, scale development and validation”, *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, Vol. 28 No. 2, pp. 149-165.
- Johnson, R.E., Chang, C.-H.D. and Yang, L.-Q. (2010), “Commitment and motivation at work: the relevance of employee identity and regulatory focus”, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 35 No. 2, pp. 226-245.
- Kark, R. and Van Dijk, D. (2007), “Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: the role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes”, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 32 No. 2, pp. 500-528.
- Keller, K.L. (2013), *Strategic Brand Management: Building, Measuring, and Managing Brand Equity*, 4th ed., Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Kent, R.J. and Allen, C.T. (1994), “Competitive interference effects in consumer memory for advertising: the role of brand familiarity”, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 58 No. 3, pp. 97-105.
- Kitayama, S., Markus, H.R., Matsumoto, H. and Norasakkunkit, V. (1997), “Individual and collective processes in the construction of the self: self-enhancement in the united states and self-criticism in Japan”, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 72 No. 6, pp. 1245-1267.
- Korman, A.K. (2001), “Self-enhancement and self-protection: toward a theory of work motivation”, in Erez, M., Kleinbeck, U. and Thierry, H. (Eds), *Work Motivation in the Context of a Globalizing Economy*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 121-130.
- Lanaj, K., Chang, C.-H. and Johnson, R.E. (2012), “Regulatory focus and work-related outcomes: a review and meta-analysis”, *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 138 No. 5, pp. 998-1034.
- Law, K.S., Wong, C.-S. and Mobley, W.H. (1998), “Toward a taxonomy of multidimensional constructs”, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 23 No. 4, pp. 741-755.
- Leonardelli, G.J., Lakin, J.L. and Arkin, R.M. (2007), “A regulatory focus model of self-evaluation”, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 43 No. 6, pp. 1002-1009.

- Liu, J., Wang, H., Hui, C. and Lee, C. (2012), "Psychological ownership: how having control matters", *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 49 No. 5, pp. 869-895.
- Löhndorf, B. and Diamantopoulos, A. (2014), "Internal branding: social identity and social exchange perspectives on turning employees into brand champions", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 17 No. 3, pp. 310-325.
- Lusch, R.F., Vargo, S.L. and O'Brien, M. (2007), "Competing through service: insights from service-dominant logic", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 83 No. 1, pp. 5-18.
- Madupu, V. and Cooley, D.O. (2010), "Antecedents and consequences of online brand community participation: a conceptual framework", *Journal of Internet Commerce*, Vol. 9 No. 2, pp. 127-147.
- McAlexander, J.H., Schouten, J.W. and Koenig, H.F. (2002), "Building brand community", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 66 No. 1, pp. 38-54.
- Mende, M. and van Doorn, J. (2015), "Coproduction of transformative services as a pathway to improved consumer well-being: findings from a longitudinal study on financial counseling", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 18 No. 3, pp. 351-368.
- Merz, M.A., He, Y. and Vargo, S.L. (2009), "The evolving brand logic: a service-dominant logic perspective", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 37 No. 3, pp. 328-344.
- Morhart, F.M., Herzog, W. and Tomczak, T. (2009), "Brand-specific leadership: turning employees into brand champions", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 73 No. 5, pp. 122-142.
- Muniz, A.M. and O'guinn, T.C. (2001), "Brand community", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 27 No. 4, pp. 412-432.
- Neubert, M.J., Kacmar, K.M., Carlson, D.S., Chonko, L.B. and Roberts, J.A. (2008), "Regulatory focus as a mediator of the influence of initiating structure and servant leadership on employee behavior", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 93 No. 6, pp. 1220-1233.
- O'Driscoll, M.P., Pierce, J.L. and Coghlan, A.-M. (2006), "The psychology of ownership work environment structure, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviors", *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 31 No. 3, pp. 388-416.
- Pierce, J.L., Jussila, I. and Cummings, A. (2009), "Psychological ownership within the job design context: revision of the job characteristics model", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 30 No. 4, pp. 477-496.
- Pierce, J.L., Kostova, T. and Dirks, K.T. (2001), "Toward a theory of psychological ownership in organizations", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 26 No. 2, pp. 298-310.
- Pierce, J.L., Kostova, T. and Dirks, K.T. (2003), "The state of psychological ownership: integrating and extending a century of research", *Review of General Psychology*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 84-107.
- Pierce, J.L., O'driscoll, M.P. and Coghlan, A.-M. (2004), "Work environment structure and psychological ownership: the mediating effects of control", *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 144 No. 5, pp. 507-534.
- Pierce, J.L., Rubenfeld, S.A. and Morgan, S. (1991), "Employee ownership: a conceptual model of process and effects", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 16 No. 1, pp. 121-144.

- Reinartz, W., Haenlein, M. and Henseler, J. (2009), "An empirical comparison of the efficacy of covariance-based and variance-based SEM", *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 332-344.
- Ringle, C.M., Wende, S. and Will, A. (2005), *SmartPLS version 2.0 m3*, available at: www.smartpls.de
- Sarstedt, M., Hair, J.F., Ringle, C.M., Thiele, K.O. and Gudergan, S.P. (2016), "Estimation issues with PLS and CBSEM: where the bias lies!", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69 No. 10, pp. 3998-4010.
- Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C.M. and Hair, J.F. (2014), "PLS-SEM: looking back and moving forward", *Long Range Planning*, Vol. 47 No. 3, pp. 132-137.
- Schau, H.J., Muñiz, A.M., Jr. and Arnould, E.J. (2009), "How brand community practices create value", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 73 No. 5, pp. 30-51.
- Schouten, J.W. and McAlexander, J.H. (1995), "Subcultures of consumption: an ethnography of the new bikers", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 43-61.
- Shang, R.-A., Chen, Y.-C. and Liao, H.-J. (2006), "The value of participation in virtual consumer communities on brand loyalty", *Internet Research*, Vol. 16 No. 4, pp. 398-418.
- Steinmann, S., Mau, G. and Schramm-Klein, H. (2015), "Brand communication success in online consumption communities: an experimental analysis of the effects of communication style and brand pictorial representation", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 356-371.
- Teichmann, K., Stokburger-Sauer, N.E., Plank, A. and Strobl, A. (2015), "Motivational drivers of content contribution to company-versus consumer-hosted online communities", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 341-355.
- van Doorn, J., Lemon, K.N., Mittal, V., Nass, S., Pick, D., Pirner, P. and Verhoef, P.C. (2010), "Customer engagement behavior: theoretical foundations and research directions", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 13 No. 3, pp. 253-266.
- van Dyne, L. and Pierce, J.L. (2004), "Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 25 No. 4, pp. 439-459.
- Vandewalle, D., Van Dyne, L. and Kostova, T. (1995), "Psychological ownership: an empirical examination of its consequences", *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 20 No. 2, pp. 210-226.
- Vargo, S.L. and Lusch, R.F. (2004), "Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 68, pp. 1-17.
- Vargo, S.L. and Lusch, R.F. (2008), "Service-dominant logic: continuing the evolution", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 36 No. 1, pp. 1-10.
- Vargo, S.L., Maglio, P.P. and Akaka, M.A. (2008), "On value and value co-creation: a service systems and service logic perspective", *European Management Journal*, Vol. 26 No. 3, pp. 145-152.
- Verleye, K., Gemmel, P. and Rangarajan, D. (2014), "Managing engagement behaviors in a network of customers and stakeholders evidence from the nursing home sector", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 17 No. 1, pp. 68-84.
- Vogel, R.M., Mitchell, M.S., Tepper, B.J., Restubog, S.L.D., Hu, C., Hua, W. and Huang, J.-C. (2015), "A cross-cultural

- examination of subordinates' perceptions of and reactions to abusive supervision", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 36 No. 5, pp. 720-745.
- Vroom, V.H. and Jago, A.G. (1988), *The New Leadership: Managing Participation in Organizations*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Williams, L.J. and Anderson, S.E. (1994), "An alternative approach to method effects by using latent-variable models: applications in organizational behavior research", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 79 No. 3, pp. 323-331.
- Wirtz, J., den Ambtman, A., Bloemer, J., Horváth, C., Ramaseshan, B., Van de Klundert, J., Canli, Z.G. and Kandampully, J. (2013), "Managing brands and customer engagement in online brand communities", *Journal of Service Management*, Vol. 24 No. 3, pp. 223-244.
- Wirtz, J. and Lwin, M.O. (2009), "Regulatory focus theory, trust, and privacy concern", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 12 No. 2, pp. 190-207.
- Xie, C., Bagozzi, R.P. and Troye, S.V. (2008), "Trying to presume: toward a theory of consumers as co-creators of value", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 36 No. 1, pp. 109-122.

- Yi, Y. and Gong, T. (2013), "Customer value co-creation behavior: scale development and validation", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 66 No. 9, pp. 1279-1284.
- Youngdahl, W.E., Kellogg, D.L., Nie, W. and Bowen, D.E. (2003), "Revisiting customer participation in service encounters: does culture matter?", *Journal of Operations Management*, Vol. 21 No. 1, pp. 109-120.

About the author

Taeshik Gong (PhD, Seoul National University) is an Assistant Professor of marketing at Hanyang University ERICA, Ansan, South Korea. He previously was a Lecturer in the Department of Marketing in Strathclyde Business School at University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK. His current research interests include customer value creation behavior and customer value destruction behavior. His research has been published in the *Journal of Service Research*, *Psychology & Marketing*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, *Journal of Business Research*, *European Journal of Marketing* and *Service Industries Journal*, among others. Taeshik Gong can be contacted at: gongts@hanyang.ac.kr