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**MOTIVATIONAL DRIVERS OF CUSTOMER BRAND  
ENGAGEMENT AND ITS EFFECT ON SHARE OF  
WALLET IN A SOCIAL MEDIA CONTEXT**

Master's Thesis, Marketing

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## ABSTRACT

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Title Motivational drivers of customer brand engagement and its effect on share of wallet in a social media context	
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<p>Abstract</p> <p>In recent years, many companies have used social media as part of their marketing and brand building activities. The rise of social media has strengthened the need for customer activation and engagement. Customer brand engagement offers companies multiple positive outcomes, such as satisfaction, trust, loyalty, and empowerment, which potentially facilitate successful business performance. The idea of engagement is relatively new in the marketing literature, and academic research has only minimally examined the potential for growth presented by engaging customers. However, numerous researchers have recognized the growing academic interest in customer brand engagement, as evidenced by the Marketing Science Institute's (MSI) highlighting of customer engagement as one of its key research priorities. Another issue of increasing importance in the marketing literature is share of wallet (SOW), which pertains to the share of a customer's expenses on a product that goes to the firm selling the product. The connection between engagement and SOW has been insufficiently examined, thereby preventing a thorough understanding of this relationship.</p> <p>This study presents four frequently found motivational drivers of customer brand engagement, community, information and enjoyment, identity and economics and examines the nature of the relationship between these drivers and engagement. This study also analyzes how perceived consumer innovativeness moderates the relationship between engagement and SOW.</p> <p>Results suggest that community exerts the strongest positive effect on customer brand engagement and that such engagement positively influences SOW. The findings also indicate that perceived consumer innovativeness positively affects the relationship between engagement and SOW. Furthermore, a positive relationship exists between frequency of visits and SOW.</p> <p>This study enhances the understanding of customer brand engagement by describing the nature of this strategy and combines engagement and SOW theories to develop a perspective on the association between the two.</p>	
Keywords Customer brand engagement, Share of wallet, brand, social media, motivational driver	
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# 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 The context of the study

In recent years, many companies have created brand communities on social media, such as Facebook, which currently has more than one billion active users on a monthly basis (Facebook Annual Report 2013). According to Kaplan and Haenlein (2010), companies have incorporated social media into their marketing and brand building activities. Discussion around brand communities focuses on the use of the terms “engage” and “engagement,” which describe the nature of the specific interactions and/or interactive experiences of participants. For example, Algesheimer et al. (2005) use “engage” and/or “engagement” more than 50 times in a pioneering article that addresses the social influence of brand community. This study is interesting because despite the increasing usage of the terms, relatively few marketing studies are directed toward the theoretical development of the engagement concept and “consumer engagement” in online brand communities (Brodie et al. 2013). The present study looks into customer brand engagement on Facebook.

Social media and technological development have been major drivers of the decision of companies to concentrate on consumer engagement (Libai 2011; Sashi 2012; Kumar et al. 2010). Numerous researchers have also recognized the growing academic interest in this strategy (e.g., Bowden 2009; Sashi 2012; Libai 2011). Bijmolt et al. (2010) indicate that consumer engagement has been one of the emerging measures for maximizing business value. The idea of engagement is relatively new in the marketing literature, and further empirical research should be devoted to it, especially in the context of online community environments (e.g., Cheung et al. 2011; Jahn and Kunz 2012). Brodie et al. (2013) emphasize that other objects of engagement should also be addressed. Consumers engage with different themes that relate to brands, products, organizations, industries, and virtual brand communities (Brodie et al. 2013).

In the engagement literature, a frequent proposition is that engagement arises from motivational drivers (van Doorn et al. 2010; Hollebeek 2011; Calder and Malthouse 2008; Brodie et al. 2011). McQuail’s (1983) classifies motivations

into four main components: information motivations, entertainment motivations and integration, personal identity motivations, and social interaction motivations. Economic benefits are also presented as motivational drivers of engagement (Gwinner et al. 1998; Muntinga et al. 2011; Tsai and Men 2012; Peterson 1995). Furthermore, marketing researchers have considered the effects of customer/consumer engagement, which may include satisfaction, trust, commitment, emotional connection/attachment, empowerment, consumer value, and loyalty (e.g., Bowden 2009; Brodie et al. 2011; van Doorn et al. 2010).

Another issue of increasing importance in the marketing literature is consumers' share of spending as a behavioral measure of loyalty (e.g. Keiningham et al. 2005). For example, Zeithaml (2000) reveals increased favor for the concept of share of wallet (SOW). Meyer-Waarden (2006) discusses SOW as having considerable significance for retailers because they need to know how shoppers divide their purchases among different products/services and how they can motivate consumers to allot more total grocery expenditures to their products.

Consumer innovativeness has been extensively examined in innovation studies (Hirschman 1980; Midgley and Dowling 1978). In the current work, perceived consumer innovativeness is introduced and used as a moderator of the relationship between consumer brand engagement and SOW. Cotte and Wood (2004) define consumer innovativeness as a tendency to willingly embrace change, try new things, and buy new products more often and more rapidly than others. Almost no marketing literature investigates customer innovativeness as a moderator. The present study examines perceived customer innovativeness as such to address this deficiency.

A good example of productive engagement on social media is Coca-Cola, which is one of the companies that has successfully capitalized on this strategy, especially on Facebook. Coca-Cola's objectives in actively participating in the social media community are to inspire moments of optimism and happiness and to build the Coca-Cola brand (The Coca-Cola Company press release 2014). Coca-Cola has nearly 80 million fans and more than 640 000 people talking about the company and its products on Facebook. Updates are regularly posted on its page and the company's posts receive thousands of "likes" and hundreds of comments. Coca-Cola works to build personal relationships with millions of people and strives to communicate as meaningfully as possible, whether by posting status updates that are relevant to their fans in the languages that they speak or by conducting the research necessary to provide the best possible answers to every question it is asked (The Coca-Cola Company press release 2012).

This study aims to increase awareness of the relationship between the motivational drivers of engagement and customer brand engagement. It also sheds light on the effects of customer brand engagement on customers' SOW.



## 1.2 Research problem and research questions

The purpose of this study is to examine which behavioral and experiential motives affect customer brand engagement in a social media context and how customer brand engagement affects SOW. This study describes the nature of the behavioral and experiential dimensions of consumer brand engagement and combines engagement and SOW theories to develop a perspective on the association between the aforementioned concepts. This exploration aligns with the current and future need for more empirical studies on the nature of customer engagement (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Brodie et al. 2011). Gummerus et al. (2012) highlight the necessity of examining different types of brand communities to identify similarities in engagement behaviors or engagement behavior dimensions. The Marketing Science Institute (MSI) has also identified customer engagement as a key research priority. Every two years, MSI arranges inquiries, during which they ask member companies to help select priorities that will drive future research initiatives. This process offers MSI trustees an opportunity to create new priorities that reflect the most pressing needs and interests of the member companies. "They serve as a crucial signal to the academic community as to the areas of most interest and importance to MSI member companies, influencing research programs and the activities of scholars all over the world" MSI Research Priorities (2014–2016). Example topics of interest are as follows: "How should engagement be conceptualized, defined, and measured? How do social media and other marketing activities create engagement?" (MSI Research Priorities 2014–2016). The current paper responds to the call for further research on brand engagement. The moderating influence of perceived customer innovativeness is also analyzed.

Research questions:

1. How do behavioral and experiential motives affect customer brand engagement in a social media context?
2. How does customer brand engagement affect SOW in such context?
3. How does perceived customer innovativeness affect the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW?

The quantitative approach was chosen for this study because it is best suited for research whose objective is to collect voluminous data and identify universal causes and effects (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009). The data collection for the empirical analysis in this work was carried out over the Facebook Finnish community site of a multinational conglomerate company. The questionnaire that measures the different concepts considered in the study was developed on the basis of previous research. The data were analyzed by using IBM SPSS Statistics 2.0 and SmartPLS2.0.

### **1.3 Structure of the study**

The research is divided into six chapters (Figure 1). Chapter 1 explains the motivation for the research and presents the research problems and research questions. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the main concepts and presents previous literature on brand engagement. Chapter 3 examines the motives and effects associated with brand engagement. Chapter 4 comprehensively discusses the research approach, methodology, and data collection and analysis. Chapter 5 presents the results, and Chapter 6 discusses theoretical and managerial conclusions, the evaluation of research, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

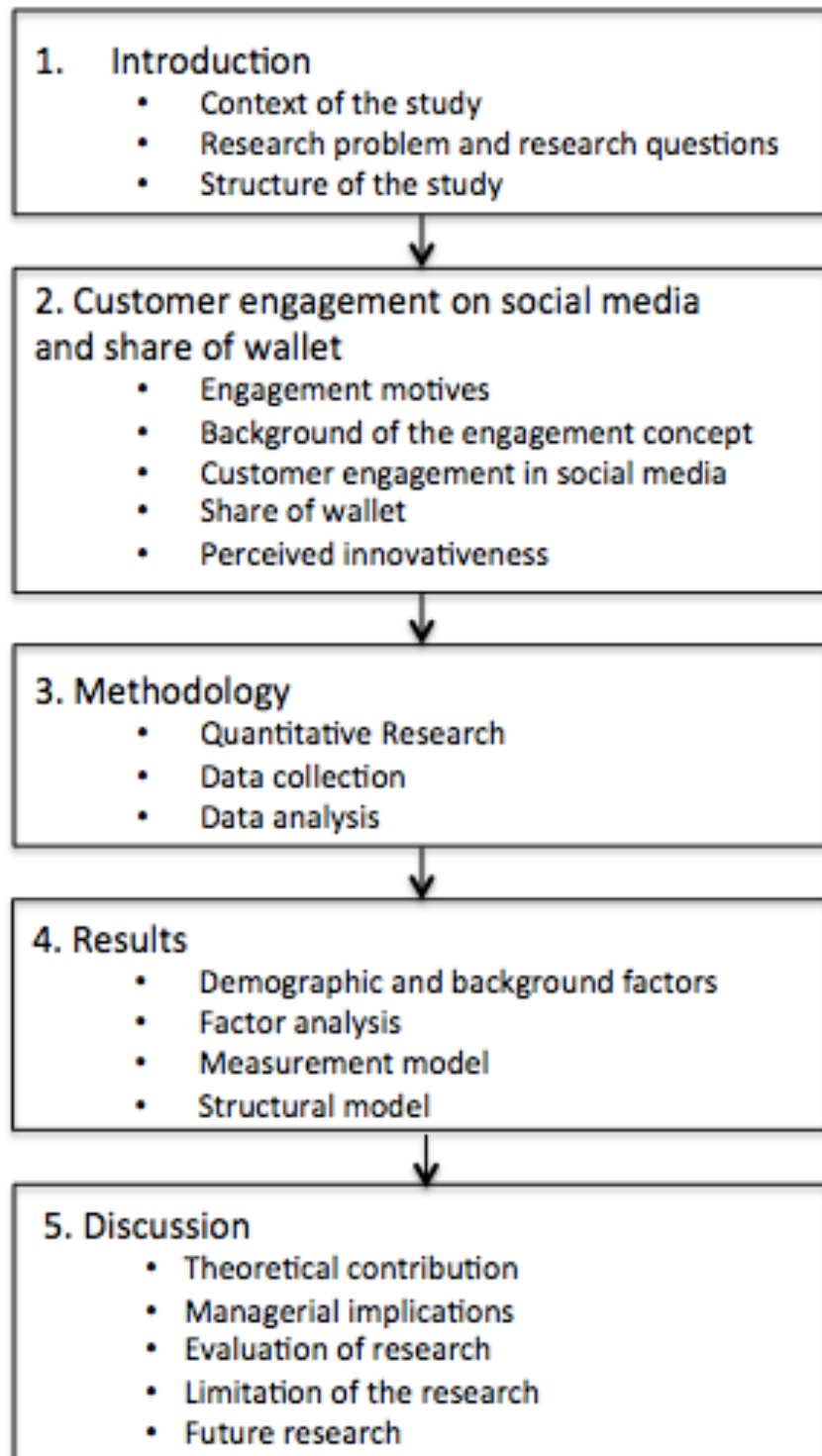


FIGURE 1 Structure of the study

## **2 CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT ON SOCIAL MEDIA AND SHARE OF WALLET**

### **2.1 Background of the engagement concept**

#### **2.1.1 Definitions of engagement**

The most exhaustive definitions that acknowledge the interplay of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions with customer engagement include the concepts provided by Patterson et al. (2006), Vivek et al. (2012), Hollebeek (2011), and Mollen and Wilson (2010). Vivek et al. (2012) state that the cognitive and affective elements of customer engagement include the experiences and feelings of customers, and that the behavioral element pertains to participation by current and potential customers. Bowden (2009) views customer engagement as a psychological process that involves cognitive and emotional factors. Sashi (2012) indicates that customer engagement builds emotional bonds in relational exchanges with customers. McEwen (2004) argues that engagement includes feelings of confidence, integrity, pride, and passion in a brand. Patterson et al. (2006) present four customer engagement components: (a) Absorption, which corresponds to the cognitive dimension, refers to the level of customer focus on a central engagement object (e.g., brand or organization). (b) Dedication, which reflects the emotional dimension, is a customer's feeling of belonging to a brand or organization. (c) Vigor pertains to a customer's level of energy and mental persistence in interacting with a focal engagement object, and (d) interaction is the two-way communication between a focal engagement subject and object. The last two dimensions (vigor and interaction) correspond to the behavioral dimension of engagement. Focusing on more specific actions and/or interactions, Vivek et al. (2010) view customer engagement from a primarily behavioral perspective.

Brodie et al. (2011) reveal that in the last decade, the term "engagement" has been investigated in divergent disciplines, such as sociology, political science, psychology, and organizational behavior. Javornik and Mandelli (2012) offer three different definitions of "engage." First, the authors state that "engage" places attention on the consumer and emphasizes his/her

perspective; this approach aligns with the customer-centric paradigm in marketing theory. Second, emphasis is placed on the behavioral dimension, which underlines the active role of consumers (Javornik and Mandelli 2012). Because the concept of passive consumption is outdated, powerful and influential buyers cast doubt on the wording “consumer”; they view the term as inapplicable to them owing to its connotation of passivity. Third, Javornik and Mandelli (2012) underscore the importance of recognizing that customer engagement activities are not restricted to decision making regarding eventual purchases, but extend also to other perspectives of consumption. Customer engagement covers both positive and negative behavioral manifestations, which go beyond purchases. Javornik and Mandelli (2012) also point out that customers are important not only because of their purchase intentions, but also because of the other activities in which they participate.

Brodie et al. (2011) draw attention to the fact that the terms “customer engagement” and “consumer engagement” are relatively new labels in the academic marketing and service literature. The authors identify five themes that define customer engagement. The first is the fundamental theme, which indicates that customer engagement includes the interactive experience between consumers and brands (Brodie et al. 2011). Van Doorn et al. (2010) argue that interactive experiences cover consumer-to-consumer interactions in brand-related chat rooms or blogs, and/or firm/consumer interactions through online feedback forms. Under the second theme, Brodie et al. (2011) define consumer engagement as a context-dependent motivational state characterized by a specific intensity level at a given point in time. For the third theme, Bowden (2009) indicates that transient engagement states occur within broader dynamic iterative engagement processes. The total sum of focal engagement states gives rise to broader processes that portray individual engagement with particular brands over time (Brodie et al. 2011). The fourth theme represents consumer engagement as a multidimensional concept that comprises cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions (Brodie et al. 2011). Patterson et al. (2011), for instance, define customer engagement in terms of the dimensions of cognitive absorption, emotional dedication, and behavioral vigor and interaction. The fifth theme recognizes that “consumer engagement plays a central role in the process of relational exchange, where other relational concepts (e.g., participation, involvement) act as engagement antecedents and/or consequences in dynamic engagement processes occurring within the brand community” (Brodie et al. 2013, p. 107). In accentuating the continual nature of the consumer engagement process, Hollebeek (2011) indicates that the specific relational consequences of engagement may serve as antecedents in subsequent engagement (sub)processes and/or cycles. Subprocesses are defined by Brodie et al. (2011) as involving actions such as sharing, learning, co-developing, advocating, and socializing. The authors also declare that customers engage with specific objects (e.g., brand and organizations) and/or other brand community members.

Other definitions of customer and online engagement have been presented (Vivek et al. 2012; Mollen and Wilson 2010; van Doorn et al. 2010; and Brodie et al. 2010). Vivek et al. (2012) define customer engagement as the intensity level

of an individual's participation and connection with organizational activities or an organization's offerings; such engagement is initiated by either the customer or the organization. These individuals may be current or potential customers (Vivek et al. 2012). Mollen and Wilson (2010, p. 919) define online engagement "as 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." Van Doorn et al. (2010) maintain that customer engagement pertains to behaviors that have a brand or firm focus and that go beyond transactions; it may be defined as a customer's behavioral manifestations that result from motivational drivers. As Brodie et al. (2013, p.105) reveal, "[t]he discourse portrays consumer engagement as a vehicle for creating, building and enhancing consumer relationships." The authors regard consumer engagement as the cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with a brand as personified by a website designed to communicate brand value. According to Bowden (2009), engagement is a continual process that commences with customer satisfaction and culminates in customer loyalty, in which the transitional pathway to customer loyalty encapsulates calculative and affective commitment, involvement, trust, and customer delight.

According to Sedley (2010), practitioners consider customer engagement from the viewpoint of an organization and define it as a set of activities that facilitate repeated interactions designed to strengthen customers' emotional, psychological, or physical investment in a brand. This perspective contrasts with that of information systems research, wherein customer engagement is regarded as the intensity of customer participation with both the representatives of an organization and other customers in a collaborative knowledge exchange process (Wagner and Majchrzak 2007). Bowden (2009) presents a more recent framework of customer engagement in marketing sectors; the framework evaluates the actions of existing customers on the basis of their transactional relationship with a brand. Bowden's (2009) conceptual framework of customer engagement focuses only on existing customers and suggests that customer-brand relationships and strategies for engaging customers may differ on the basis of whether customers are first-time or repeat purchasers. McEwen (2004) states that the advertising literature also discusses engagement and suggests that this process may be used as a proxy measure of the strength of a company's customer relationships; such strength is based on the extent to which customers have formed emotional and rational bonds with a brand. From a social science and management perspective, Hollebeek (2011) defines customer brand engagement as the level of a customer's motivational – that is, brand-related – and context-dependent state of mind. The author also reveals that the characteristics of customer engagement in brand interactions are specific levels of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral activity. Mollen and Wilson (2010) define online brand engagement as involving sustained cognitive processing, instrumental value (i.e., relevance and utility), and experiential value.

### 2.1.2 Participation and involvement as an antecedent of engagement

Vivek et al. (2012) argue that although participation is an integral part of customer engagement, it is also distinct from and precedes the latter. The behavioral dimension of customer engagement is widely recognized in the customer engagement literature and is used to estimate one of the most important dimensions of customer engagement (e.g., van Doorn et al. 2010; Brodie et al. 2011; Vivek et al. 2012). Participation is commonly used to describe this behavioral dimension of customer engagement (e.g., Vivek et al. 2012). Participation has also been outlined as involving activeness and interaction (e.g., Vivek et al. 2012; Brodie et al. 2013). Vivek et al. (2012, p. 127) define the behavioral aspect of engagement as the intensity of an individual's participation and indicate that frequency is a crucial aspect of engagement behavior. Cheung et al. (2011), on the other hand, regard participation as more of an outcome of the physical, emotional, and cognitive dimensions of customer engagement in an online social platform. The authors also identify social interaction as an antecedent of customer engagement. According to Vivek et al. (2012, p. 134), "customer participation, defined as the degree to which the customer is involved in producing or delivering the service, engages the customer in an interactive situation that is of common interest to the firm as well as the customer." This interaction can positively affect levels of enthusiasm and subsequently inspire greater engagement with an entity (Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006). Vivek et al. (2012) propose that a consumer's participation level is positively associated with the intensity of his/her focus on engagement. Brodie et al. (2013) treat interaction and participation as intertwined concepts, stating that consumer engagement with a virtual brand involves the behavioral dimensions of engagement and interactive experiences. Thus, behavior can be understood as the act of being present or actively participating; interactivity demands presence as its minimum requirement (Brodie et al. 2013).

Zaichkowsky (1985) argues that involvement is related to how a person perceives the relevance of an object, with such perception being based on inherent needs, values, and interests. Abdul-Ghani et al. (2010) define involvement as consumer interest in a product category, and Vivek et al. (2012) declare that involvement is commonly referred to as a connection with an object. Involvement is normally considered an antecedent itself, but Cheung et al. (2011) (for example) break down involvement into smaller components and build a definition of customer engagement from a personal engagement viewpoint. They suggest that emotional dedication represents the inspiration and enthusiasm stimulated by an object, as well as the significance of that object. The authors also imply that cognitive absorption is related to concentration and engrossment in an object. Involvement appears to be a cognitive, affective, or motivational construct that reflects state of mind (Smith and Godbey 1991) or perceived personal relevance, but it is not viewed as a behavior (e.g., Zaichkowsky 1985). Warrington and Shim (2000) indicate that involvement has been defined as related to an internal state of arousal (i.e., intensity, persistence, and direction of the arousal). Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2001) classify involvement as a motivator for customers to seek information that may

be used to manage and moderate any potential risk inherent in the decision-making process; such information search facilitates decisions on a particular option.

According to Bowden (2009), trust is strongly linked to involvement. The author also states that in the development of high levels of commitment toward a brand, trust and involvement are collaborative constructs, especially when purchase is moderately related to high involvement. Bowden (2009) argues that a high level of involvement with a service brand engenders a high level of trust, thereby positively influencing customer commitment. Vivek et al. (2012) find that if a customer perceives that he/she receives greater value from an activity or offering, this customer becomes more involved and more actively participates in an activity or offering. This process, in turn, produces a feedback loop. In reference to this finding, Vivek et al. (2012) propose that increased value perceptions and brand community involvement from an individual is positively associated with customer participation and involvement that focus on engagement.

### **2.1.3 Distinctions between engagement and participation and involvement**

Brodie et al. (2011) reveal that despite the increasing use of the term “customer engagement,” limited marketing research defines how the term differs from similar relational expressions (e.g., participation and involvement). Mollen and Wilson (2010) suggest three distinctions between engagement and involvement: (1) Consumer involvement demands a consumption object, which is normally defined as a product category (Goldsmith and Emmert 1991), whereas in customer engagement, the object is the (for example) brand. (2) Engagement goes beyond involvement in terms of comprehending an active relationship with a brand. (3) Engagement requires more than the exercise of cognition; it demands the satisfaction of experiential and instrumental values. Brodie et al. (2011), on the other hand, distinguish engagement from participation and involvement with two themes: (1) Customer engagement reflects a customer’s particular psychological state, which is motivated by the individual’s specific interactive experiences with a focused engagement object (e.g., brand). (2) The specific customer engagement stage occurs within broader dynamic processes typified by the concretization of value. Zaichkowsky (1985) and Abdul-Ghani et al. (2010) differentiate involvement from engagement by noting that the latter describes an active relationship, whereas the former may comprise only mental connections. They also reveal that the co-creation of value and interactive experiences can be used to separate engagement from involvement. Brodie et al. (2011) posit that customer engagement transcends “the mere exercise of cognition,” and “unlike involvement, requires the satisfying of experiential value, as well as instrumental value.”



## 2.2 Customer engagement on social media

An important consideration is how consumers engage with a company or brand (van Doorn et al. 2010). Bowden (2009) argues that engagement is crucial to advancing the understanding of service performance and customer outcomes. Brodie et al. (2011) suggest customer engagement as a strategic imperative for establishing and sustaining a competitive advantage and as a valuable predictor of future business performance. Voyles (2007) claims that consumer engagement enhances profitability. According to Brodie et al. (2011), engaged customers play a key role in viral marketing activities by providing referrals and/or recommendations on specific products, services, and/or brands to others. Nambisan and Nambisan (2008) point out that engaged customers are significant agents in new product/service development. Moreover, Sashi (2012) highlights the fact that building customer engagement in business and consumer markets necessitates adaptation of the marketing mix, which is a tool that promotes the understanding of and provision of service to customers. He also points out that the customer engagement concept is a customer-centric approach that accords preference to customers in determining the value required to satisfy their needs. Mollen and Wilson (2010) contend that engagement thrives when customers perceive the value and authority of an interactive experience as exceeding the perceived level of effort exerted in a particular interaction. Nolan et al. (2007) argue that an individual's perception of the "balance" between relevant cost/benefit factors that accumulate from a specific interaction may affect engagement intensity.

### 2.2.1 Engagement on social media

According to Muntinga et al.'s (2011) typology on consumers' online corporate-related activities, user interaction and involvement with corporate social networking sites (SNS) are characterized by three continuous engagement levels: (1) the lowest level of content consumption (e.g., reading product reviews and viewing videos and pictures.); (2) a moderate level of contributions to page content (e.g., rating companies or products, taking part in wall post conversations, and commenting on posted videos or pictures); and (3) the highest level of creation [e.g., creating and sharing user-generated content (UGC)]. Men and Tsai (2013) find that the engagement level of Chinese SNS users are at a medium level. In Chinese culture, message consumption activities, such as viewing pictures and reading wall posts, are more common than contribution activities, such as commenting, asking and responding to questions, or creating and uploading UGC (Men and Tsai 2013). This finding suggests that Chinese Internet users perceive corporate SNS pages as primary sources of product, promotional, and corporate information. Sashi (2012) discusses the levels of customer engagement and its cycle, which consists of seven stages: connection, interaction, satisfaction, retention, commitment, advocacy, and engagement. In this cycle, customers proceed from stage to stage

until engagement is achieved. Jahn and Kunz (2012) contend that fan page usage does not lead to fan page engagement. A person may regularly use a fan page (e.g., receives gratis coupons from the page) without becoming highly engaged with the page.

The marketing literature discusses customer/consumer engagement effects, which may include satisfaction (e.g., Bowden 2009; Brodie et al. 2011; van Doorn et al. 2010), trust (e.g., Hollebeek 2011; Brodie et al. 2011; van Doorn et al. 2010), commitment (e.g., Brodie et al. 2011; van Doorn et al. 2010), emotional connection/attachment (e.g., Chan and Li 2010), empowerment and consumer value (e.g., Gruen et al. 2006), and loyalty (e.g., Bowden 2009; Brodie et al. 2011; van Doorn et al. 2010). Furthermore, loyalty (e.g., Casalo 2007), commitment (e.g., Chan and Li 2010), and empowerment (e.g., Cova and Pace 2006) are examined in online brand community contexts. Sashi (2012) suggests that superior value builds trust and commitment in long-term relationships, thereby satisfying customers and building customer engagement.

Despite the progress made in research, a number of factors have been disregarded in engagement studies. For example, Brodie et al. (2011) asserts that the engagement literature concentrates mainly on the positive expression of engagement, yet negative expressions of concepts (e.g., dissociating from an object) may also exist. Vivek et al. (2012) find that few relationship marketing articles (published from 2006 to 2011 in 20 marketing journals) consider the role of potential customers in engagement. This deficiency is a clear indication that most researchers have disregarded the importance of potential customers in the engagement process (Vargo and Lusch 2004).

## **2.2.2 Engagement behaviors on social media**

Javornik and Mandelli (2012, p. 301) state that “[t]he aim of the consumer’s perspective is to understand the (psychological, socio-psychological and behavioral) drivers behind engaging (active and collaborative) activities, to investigate the types of engaging behaviors and to discover possible consequences that arise from it.” One of the most important dimensions of consumer engagement is the behavioral aspect (e.g., van Doorn et al. 2010; Brodie et al. 2011; Vivek et al. 2012), and this dimension is commonly regarded as pertaining to activities (e.g., Muntinga et al. 2011) or participation (e.g., Vivek et al. 2012). These activities and participation are classified into active and passive behaviors (e.g., Gummerus et al. 2012; Muntinga et al. 2011). Active behavior consists of high forms of engagement with actions such as contributing and creating content (e.g., Gummerus et al. 2012; Heinonen 2011). Passive behaviors include actions such as consuming (e.g., Heinonen 2011; Muntinga et al. 2011), lurking, or reading comments (e.g., Gummerus et al. 2012). Gummerus et al. (2012) emphasize that most customers engage in passive activities. The authors also mention that minimal information is available on the extension of customer engagement to different online behaviors or to the relationship between customer behavioral engagement and other proximal constructs.

According to Gummerus et al. (2012), customer engagement research currently recognizes that consumers perform numerous firm-related behaviors, many of which did not exist a decade ago and may have positive and negative consequences (e.g., positive versus negative reviews) for a firm. These behaviors include online discussions, commenting, information search, and opinion polls (Gummerus 2012). In particular, customer engagement covers all communication through brand communities, blogging, and other social media platforms (van Doorn et al. 2010). Men and Tsai (2013) suggest that heavy social media users are more likely to engage with companies in an SNS context. Gummerus et al. (2012) state that social media are one of the most popular forums where customers behaviorally engage with firms. In this regard, social media are defined as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0. Social media enable the creation and exchange of UGC (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010). Bielski (2008) avers that social media has the increased role of creating a need for the concept of customer engagement. Notwithstanding this claim, Schultz and Peltier (2013) find that most of the largest retailers use social media vehicles (e.g., Facebook and Twitter) only to generate sales opportunities.

### **2.3 Engagement motives**

The engagement literature proposes that engagement stems from motivational drivers (van Doorn et al. 2010; Hollebeek 2011; Calder and Malthouse 2008; Brodie et al. 2011). McQuail's (1983) classification of motivations is cited as a baseline of engagement motivation research (Mersey et al. 2010; Muntinga 2011; Heinonen 2011). As previously stated, this classification encompasses four main components: information motivations, entertainment motivations and integration, personal identity motivations, and social interaction motivations. Muntinga et al. (2011) declare that this classification also works in social media. Economic benefits are another type of motivational driver of engagement (Gwinner et al. 1998; Muntinga et al. 2011; Tsai and Men 2012; Peterson 1995). In their study in Americans SNS page users, Tsai and Men (2012) find that the most important motivation is remuneration, followed by information and entertainment. Nevertheless, Heinonen (2011) argues that the motivation to use social media differs, depending on the types of media accessed by users. The author investigates consumers' social media activities and motivations and analyzes narratives from 57 consumer diaries. She finds that information, entertainment, and social connection are the three major motivations of consumer activities. Jahn and Kunz (2012) reveal that hedonic and functional contents, community interaction value, and brand interaction value are the strongest drivers of brand fan page usage. When the authors measure participation in terms of engagement, however, identity and social interaction values (both in relation to brand and community) are the factors that highly affect fan page engagement. Stafford et al. (2004) indicate that consumers have

three main motives for using the Internet as a medium: information, entertainment, and social aspects. Men and Tsai (2013) identify six motivational factors that drive Chinese SNS usage: entertainment, information, remuneration, empowerment, personal identity, and social interaction. The authors find that information, entertainment, and social interaction are the strongest motives for engagement on SNS.

### 2.3.1 Community

Several studies have shown that brand communities constitute an important platform for customer engagement behavior (Brodie et al. 2011; Dholakia et al. 2004; Kane et al. 2009; McAlexander et al. 2002). According to Gummerus (2012), brand communities offer new ways for firms and customers to engage with each other. When fan pages are organized around a single brand, product, or company, they can be viewed as a certain kind of brand community (Jahn and Kunz 2012); since the last decade, brand communities have been considered highly stimulating topics in branding research (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001; Algesheimer et al. 2005; Adjei et al. 2010). The current interest of firms in brand communities has driven them to incorporate social media into marketing and brand building activities (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010); part of these companies' brand management strategies is fostering community (Arnone et al. 2012).

McQuail (1983) states that the idea of community has long held an important position in social theory. The author indicates that early social philosophies define community as a custom wherein a group of people share places, particular norms and identities, values, and cultural practices. Community usually pertains to populations that are sufficiently small to enable familiarity and interaction among members. Muniz and O'Guinn (2001, p. 412) define brand community as "a specialized non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a brand." Jahn and Kunz (2012) regard brand community as specialized because it is created around a good or service and is marked by shared consciousness, traditions and rituals, and a sense of moral responsibility. Cova and Pace (2006) define brand community as a collective of people who share interest in a specific brand, thereby creating a subculture around the brand; this subculture has its own values, myths, hierarchy, rituals, and vocabulary. The present study concentrates on virtual (online) communities, and one of the earliest definitions of virtual communities is presented by Rheingold (1994), who argues that such communities can be formed by any number of individuals via the Internet, as prompted by their own choice or in response to a stimulus. Simmons (2007) elucidates these communities as collectives of geographically distributed individuals, who have a common interest in exploiting Internet technology to enable communication. Shao (2009) states that in virtual communities, individuals can easily find others with whom they share common ground in terms of interests and goals and who voice opinions and concerns in a supportive environment. De Valck et al. (2009) contend that virtual brand

communities are specialized online communities with no geographic boundaries, as indicated by the social relationships and communications that occur among a brand's consumers. Brodie et al. (2011) emphasize that the nature of brand communities and their effects on consumer behavior are still unclear, but that such issues represent an important direction for marketing research. As previously stated, fan pages (which are organized around a single brand, product, or company) are currently viewed as a type of brand community; nevertheless, a crucial consideration is that differences exist between the fan pages on SNS and those on traditional online brand communities (Jahn and Kunz 2012). Jahn and Kunz (2012) direct attention to the fact that fan pages are embedded in an organically grown and nonbrand-related network of social ties. Fan page members are also connected within an SNS to so-called "friends" who may not be "fans" of a brand and are mostly real-world (offline) connections (Boyd and Ellison 2007).

De Valck et al. (2009) reveal that most of these communities have a code of conduct that specifies community standards. This code includes behavior, language, content, identity, and commercial use (De Valck et al. 2009). McQuail (1983) suggests that the typical conditions of a virtual community are minority status, physical dispersal of members, and a certain degree of interest. Porter (2004) classifies virtual communities into member- and organization-initiated communities. Member-initiated communities can be either socially or professionally oriented, whereas organization-sponsored communities are categorized into commercial, nonprofit, and government communities (Porter 2004). McAlexander et al. (2002) list four critical relationships in a brand community: the relationships between a customer and a brand, between a customer and a firm, between a customer and the product in use, and among fellow customers. De Valck et al. (2009) underscores the fact that people have specific reasons to participate in certain types of communities, but that social identity and group norms are positively related to we-intentions in both types of communities. The authors also indicate that consumers typically hold membership in several communities, and switching from one type of network to another is easy. Virtual communities normally present low entry and exit barriers, and if a member disagrees with group norms, he/she can easily leave the community and join another (De Valck et al. 2009). Nambisan and Baron (2009) suggest that regardless of community type, consumers engage in different behaviors, such as sharing experiences with other customers or helping them. De Valck et al. (2009) point out that the power of a virtual community as a reference group is closely related to the heterogeneity of its members. Furthermore, several studies suggest that virtual communities serve as important reference groups for their participants (Bikar and Schindler 2001; Constant et al. 1996; Kozinets 2002). Algesheimer et al. (2005) propose that community identification leads to positive and negative consequences. Some of the positive consequences are community engagement and community loyalty, whereas the negative effects include normative community pressure and reactance.

A corporate SNS page engages people by providing not only useful information, but also a communal environment where consumers can share

resources and provide support to one another (Men and Tsai 2013). De Valck et al. (2009) declare that virtual community users are usually unexposed to one another's offline behaviors but that the community generally revolves around the sharing of information on opinions and experiences. Shao (2009) states that consumers may feel a sense of communion and belonging, that is, a sentiment that members matter to one another and have shared faith. Customers who use social media websites engage in this activity mostly out of interest and the desire to maintain friendships, acquire information value, and receive entertainment (Khim-Yong et al. 2013). Khim-Yong et al. (2013) assert that if the activity level of a community is low and shared content is irrelevant to the community members, a company may lose focus on the brand community, which may defeat the purpose of establishing brand presence on social media. Shao (2009) argues that virtual communities are often built around UGC and that responding to this content is important for community development that encourages dynamic content creation. Men and Tsai (2013) note that a communal atmosphere encourages users to share UGC, such as photos, videos, and product reviews. Such sharing, in turn, consolidates group dynamics and public engagement. According to Zeng et al. (2009), community identification may stimulate group-oriented attitudes and behaviors, such as participation in group conversation and activities and consolidation of user community engagement. Heinonen (2011) uses the Harley Davidson online community as an example in highlighting the importance of encouraging users to share their thoughts and interact with one another. Without active commentators and "likers" in a community, users will have little reason to read or lurk in the community (Gummerus et al. 2009).

Gummerus et al. (2009) assert that customer engagement behaviors are crucial for the success of any community. The authors indicate that online communities consist of different types of users, which are determined on the basis of how strong their ties are to a brand and other community members. However, Libai (2011) cautions against attaching excessive importance to highly engaged customers, who generally form only a minority of brand community users. In brand community, users engage differently. Brandtzæg et al. (2011) point out that Internet users differ in what they typically do online and in their satisfaction with various online community behaviors (De Valck et al. 2009). Gummerus et al. (2009) claim that many consumers engage in non-interactive behaviors, such as reading others' comments or lurking. Shang et al. (2006) note that lurking improves customer loyalty even more than does commenting. Nolan et al. (2007) state that users are motivated to engage with an online community primarily when perceived utility value and interest exceed the level of perceived risk. Woisetschläger et al. (2008) identify community satisfaction and degree of consumer influence within a community as two drivers of consumer participation in a brand community. De Valck et al. (2009) explain that the amount of time spent during each visit in a virtual community and frequency of visits are likely to affect the extent of community influence.

### 2.3.2 Information and entertainment

Brodie et al. (2013) argue that the consumer engagement process in online communities is initiated largely by consumers' need for information. In a similar vein, De Valck et al. (2009) identify information and instrumental value as the main reasons for participation in network-based communities. In studying public engagement on SNS in China, Men and Tsai (2013) find that access to information is the key incentive for Chinese users to visit or follow corporate SNS pages. The authors also point out that Chinese users visit a company's SNS page to determine whether the product or company is well liked by other users, seek opinions and advice from other users, and determine whether the company is considerate and receptive (Men and Tsai 2013). In the literature on social media motivations, information is a commonly discussed motivation. Some of the frequently cited aspects of information seeking are seeking advice and opinions (Calder et al. 2009; Muntinga et al. 2009; Kaye 2007; Men and Tsai 2013), engaging in information exchange (Ridings and Gefen 2004; Men and Tsai 2013), searching for relevant events and conditions (Calder et al. 2009; Muntinga et al. 2009), desiring satisfaction and entertainment (Calder et al. 2009; Men and Tsai 2013), reducing risk (Muntinga et al. 2009; Calder et al. 2009; Brodie et al. 2011), and learning through self-education (Calder et al. 2009; Stafford 1998). Muntinga et al. (2009) identify these actions as submotivations.

Heinonen (2011) explores consumer activity on social media and reveals that one of the motivations for participation in social media activities is information processing. According to the author, the retrieval of product information or content is a major information processing activity. Consumers are looking for specific information, such as facts or explanations for phenomena (Heinonen 2011). Shao (2009) indicates that people seek information because of the desire to increase awareness and knowledge of one's self, others, and the world. This motivation can be regarded as one of the success factors of networking sites, such as Wikipedia, which offer information that cater to specific interests. De Valck et al. (2009) reveal that information-rich reservoirs, such as wikis and community databases, are highly contributory to the information search process, whereas forums and blogs are often powerful when it comes to forming and changing preferences. Shao (2009) notes that user-generated media (UGM), such as YouTube, MySpace, and Wikipedia, are typically known as sources of news and information. Moreover, UGM influence the concept of searching. Blackshaw and Nazzaro (2006) indicate that when users type product names on a search engine, such as Google, they have more of an equal chance to find a user-generated site about the product than a corporate site. According to the authors, users trust their fellow consumers more than they do advertisers and marketers. Bowman and Willis (2003) observe that people increasingly use social media sites, such as Facebook and MySpace, to learn how to make sense of things from their peers as they deliberate on different subjects. Stafford (1998) suggests that Internet site visits are motivated by content that is specific and site related, such as product or store information. Heinonen (2011) reveals that companies use different strategies related to consumption of information. One is to offer access to

different information and facts as a means of attracting users. Another strategy is to link a company and/or its offerings to real-time information and current events to increase interest in the company (Heinonen 2011).

Given the success of SNS, such as MySpace, YouTube, Facebook, and Wikipedia, Internet-based information exchange among consumers continues to grow, and spheres of interaction and influence have become more viral (De Valck et al. 2009). According to Stafford (1998), content motivations primarily involve learning and information on the Internet, and content serves consumers' learning goals. The author also indicates that rich information supports users' learning and knowledge goals. Brodie et al. (2011) discuss the need to reduce information search cost and perceived risk because such reduction may encourage users to join and/or participate in an online community. Perceived lack of information about organizational offerings may be a trigger for joining (Brodie et al. 2011). Men and Tsai (2013) conclude that consumers use corporate SNS pages as a platform from which to seek advice, search for products or promotional information, exchange information with other members, and experience fun and leisure.

The credibility of information, especially on corporate SNS pages, is critical to building trust, generating positive electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM), and enhancing engagement (Men and Tsai 2013). According to Heinonen (2011), users value information for several reasons: accessibility, real-time quality, variety of viewpoints covered, and exclusivity. In the marketing communication literature, credibility has been studied from three key perspectives: medium, source, and message credibility (Metzger et al. 2003). Men and Tsai (2013) discuss the cruciality of enabling the users of corporate SNS pages to candidly express their opinions and offer corrections. This strategy motivates users to regard corporate SNS pages as a credible source of information. SNS pages are good platforms for building credibility because corporate representatives can directly address questions and concerns, and other users can share advice and knowledge based on their experiences with a product and company (Men and Tsai 2013). A communicator's expertise or trustworthiness may influence credibility and individual use and sharing of the information posted on corporate SNS pages (Yang et al. 2010).

Entertainment has been discussed as a motivational factor in many social media studies (Muntinga et al. 2011). Shao (2009) finds that entertainment is a relevant motivation for consuming UGC. Sheldon (2008) also observes entertainment's important role as shared and consumed content on SNS pages. According to Gummerrus et al. (2012), entertainment is an experiential value that customers receive from using online services. Men and Tsai (2013) indicate that one of the motivations for using corporate SNS pages is the experience of fun and leisure. Sangwan (2005) and Park et al. (2009) reveal that participation in an SNS or virtual community is partly driven by entertainment. Altogether, the entertainment motivation covers several media-related gratifications, such as escape or diversion from problems or routines, relaxation, emotional release (Calder et al. 2009; Muntinga et al. 2011; Men and Tsai 2013; Shao 2009), intrinsic cultural or aesthetic enjoyment (Calder et al. 2009; Muntinga et al. 2011;



Kaye 2007; Shao 2009), passing time, and sexual arousal (Calder et al. 2009; Muntinga et al. 2011; Shao 2009).

McQuail (1983) says that the largest category of media content can be labeled as "entertainment" and that it is one of the main reasons why media are very popular. Ruggiero (2000) reveals that most people deem entertainment and mass media nearly synonymous. McQuail (1983) similarly points out the difficulty of defining the term "entertainment," but nonetheless argues that the essential ideas of the term are diversion and immersion in a story or spectacle. Entertainment can be attached to more specific effects, including amusement and emotional arousal to experience sadness, happiness, anger, relief, excitement, and fear (McQuail 1983). Shao (2009) uses YouTube as an example in discussing that most of the popular channels belong to entertainment-related categories, such as entertainment, sports, music, comedy, and film and animation. The author also indicates that YouTube's entertainment content is similar to "snack food": "it is light, bright and digestible" and suits people with limited time (Shao 2009, p. 11). Customers are more strongly attracted to sites that offer daily entertainment. Moreover, such visits likely increase their likelihood to read up on new products and other company information, as well as engage in other activities (Gummerus et al. 2012). Jahn and Kunz (2012) offer the term "hedonic value" and state that a high level of such value results in high-intensity fan page usage.

Entertainment is assumed more important in brand community than on electronic commerce sites. People often spend time browsing community pages and applications, such as games that can be incorporated into a Facebook site (Gummerus et al. 2012). According to Dholakia et al. (2004), entertainment benefits are derived from relaxation and fun and that these aspects can stimulate participation in a community. Similarly, Courtois et al. (2009) identify relaxation and escapism as important drivers of content uploading. Calder et al. (2009) classify narratives as tools for consumer relaxation and escape. Kaye (2007) finds that certain blog characteristics prompt people to engage with social media, and this occurrence can be regarded as an example of aesthetic enjoyment. Calder et al. (2009) argue that consumers obtain intrinsic enjoyment in using a social media site. The authors state that with socio-interactive engagement, all users experience, to a certain extent, the same reactions in terms of intrinsic enjoyment. These reactions may be perceiving utilitarian worth and valuing input from a larger community of users but in a way that links to a sense of socialization on the site and participation with others.

Gummerus et al. (2012) encourage companies to offer entertaining elements, such as comic strips, videos, or photos, to motivate repeat visits and put consumers in a good mood. For communication with Chinese users, Men and Tsai (2013) suggest that marketers incorporate a variety of entertaining and enjoyable content, such as riddles and jokes, music videos of celebrity endorsers, and human interest stories. Jahn and Kunz (2012) recommend that brand fan pages deliver interesting, entertaining, and innovative content to its users. Gummerus et al. (2012) argue that ensuring long-term engagement behaviors in the form of purchase behaviors and community action necessitates strategies that emphasize entertaining content and possibilities for socialization within

Facebook. Companies attempt to enhance the entertainment factor of their sites by adopting strategies related to consumption activities that are prompted by entertainment motives. The strategies primarily include games and online content. The games must be easy to use, preferably free of charge, and entertaining to appeal to different users (Muntinga et al. 2011). In discussing the consumption of entertaining messages, Shao (2009) contends that people can alter prevailing mood states and that the selection of a specific message for consumption often serves the regulation of mood states.

### 2.3.3 Identity

In the early literature, McQuail (1983) identifies personal identity as one of the reader experiences valued in consuming newspapers. Mersey et al. (2012) indicate that people use media to build their identities and that the media, in turn, reinforce such identities. According to Muntinga et al. (2011), media gratifications that are related to the self are classified under personal identity motivation. The authors identify submotivations, including gaining insight into one's self, reinforcing personal values, and identifying with and gaining recognition from peers. Additionally, the authors indicate that personal identity-related motivations are frequently discussed in the literature on social media motivations. For example, Boyd (2008) identifies impression management and identity expression as important motivators of SNS access. Papacharissi (2007) finds that writing a weblog is driven by a need for self-fulfillment, and Nov (2007) discovers that people who contribute to Wikipedia are motivated by opportunities for self-enhancement. Papacharissi (2007) states that personal identity addresses an individual's need for identity management, which involves self-fulfillment and self-expression. Jahn and Kunz (2012) discuss the term "self-presentation," which is related to a social context but also strongly advances self-assurance and personal identity. Tufekci (2008) notes that many activities on SNS can be defined as forms of self-presentation. Users express themselves by adjusting their profiles, linking to particular friends, displaying their "likes" and "dislikes," and joining groups (Tufekci 2008).

According to Men and Tsai (2013), users who perceive similarities and identify with other users who visit the same corporate SNS pages are more likely to exhibit a high level of engagement and actively partake in conversation or advocacy behaviors rather than merely consume the information on the SNS pages. Bagozzi and Dholakia (2002) reveal that consumers who share similar social identities based on membership in the same online community often adhere to group norms that animate group dynamics. This adherence, in turn, expands their engagement with the virtual community. Zeng et al. (2009) also indicate that community identification may stimulate group-oriented attitudes and behaviors (e.g., participation in group conversation and activities) and strengthen users' community engagement.

Jahn and Kunz (2012) regard Facebook fan pages as particularly interesting tools for companies and consider what it means to be a "fan" of a brand-related page. A "fan can be anything from a devotee to an enthusiast of a

particular object" (Jahn and Kunz 2012, p. 346). Kozinets et al. (2010) state that the typical characteristics of fans include self-identification as a fan, emotional engagement, auxiliary consumption, cultural competence, and co-production.

Because joining a fan page and liking a company's profile page are often visible to one's online connections, they can be seen as expressions and measures for managing users' social identities (Men and Tsai 2013). According to Jahn and Kunz (2012), individuals can use fan page membership to present their self(-concept) to their peer groups. The authors also argue that fan page memberships can be regarded as reflections of one's self-identity. Peluchette and Karl (2009) state that Facebook users consciously employ their posts to portray images about themselves.

### 2.3.4 Economics

Economic benefits are a motivational factor, in which people join brand communities to obtain discounts and time savings or participate in raffles and competitions (Gwinner et al. 1998). Muntinga et al. (2011) reveal that several studies on social media motivations identify remuneration as a driver, particularly of contribution to online communities. Remuneration pertains to engagement with social media out of an expectation of future rewards. These rewards can be economic incentives, such as money or prizes (Wang and Fesenmaier 2003; Tsai and Men 2012; Peterson 1995; Levy 2012), nonmonetary benefits (Gwinner et al. 1998), or job-related benefits (Nov 2007).

In their research on motivations and antecedents of public engagement on corporate SNS, Tsai and Men (2012) find that American users are strongly motivated to seek remuneration (e.g., awards, discounts, and sweepstakes). Remuneration comprises economic incentives that are generally shared and spread through social media (Wang and Fesenmaier 2003). Peterson (1995) argues that money saving is the primary motivation for engaging in relational exchanges. Petersons (1998) investigates relationship marketing in the aviation and hotel businesses, revealing that 81% of the individuals queried acknowledge the desire to obtain associated savings as the motivation for their decision to join companies' marketing relationship programs. Gwinner et al. (1998) indicate that consumers may receive economic benefits from developing relationships with businesses. These benefits normally include special pricing considerations (Gwinner et al. 1998). Levy (2012) argues that consumers are more likely to engage with a brand if they receive free goods or hard cash. Customers experience the nonmonetary economic benefits of staying in a business relationship especially when they need the learning costs associated with switching providers (Gwinner et al. 1998). In addition to special treatment, such as price breaks or fast service, time saving is also regarded as a nonmonetary benefit (Gwinner et al. 1998).

The business practice of using Facebook sites as platforms from which to attract new customers with economic benefits may not be productive in the long run. This observation indicates the lack of importance of economic benefits (Gummerus et al. 2012). Lotteries and competitions are not the best way to

attract Facebook fan page visitors. These Facebook fans are not necessarily loyal to a Facebook brand community provider in terms of purchase behaviors and may not even be loyal in terms of community engagement behaviors (Gummerus et al. 2012). Sashi (2012) contends that if relational exchange and emotional bonds are low, the customers retained by companies are of transactional types; that is, they have minimal personal relationships and no anticipation or obligation of future exchanges. The author also states that transactional customers are price sensitive and predisposed toward deals, indicating that such customers regard a product as a commodity and will buy from the seller that offers the lowest price. Companies should create interesting content that motivates repeat visits to Facebook sites and encourages engagement via transactional behaviors (Gummerus et al. 2012). Customer segments can be created by combining an examination of customers' interactive, transactional, and WOM behaviors with a customer profitability analysis. This segmentation helps companies determine which customer segment to focus on as it designs the strategy and content for its Facebook site (Gummerus et al. 2012).

TABLE 1 Overview from motivations driving online media usage

<b>Community benefits</b>	<b>Entertainment benefits</b>	<b>Information benefits</b>	<b>Identity benefits</b>	<b>Economic benefits</b>
<b>Communities</b> (Dholakia et al. 2004; Kane et al. 2009; McAlexander et al. 2002; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001; Algesheimer et al. 2005; Adjei et al. 2010; Cova and Pace 2006; Kaplan and Haenlein 2010; Brandtzaeg et al. 2011; Khim-Yong et al. 2013) <b>Virtual communities</b> (Rheingold 1994; Simmons 2007; Shao 2009; Bikar and Schindler 2001; Constant et al. 1996; Gummerus et al. 2012) <b>Socializing and discussing</b> (McQuail 1983; De Valck et al. 2009; Kozinets 2002; Jahn and Kunz 2012; Brodie et al. 2011) <b>Integration, social and community connection</b> (Heinonen 2011) <b>Sharing</b> (Nambisan and Baron 2009) <b>Group oriented-attitudes</b> (Zeng et al. 2009)	<b>Entertainment</b> (McQuail 1983; Muntinga et al. 2011; Shao 2009; Men and Tsai 2013; Dholakia et al. 2004; Gummerus et al. 2012) <b>Enjoyment</b> (Calder et al. 2009) <b>Gratification</b> (Sangwan 2005; Park 2009; Ruggiero 2000; Courtois et al. 2009) <b>Hedonic value</b> (Jahn and Kunz 2012) <b>Personal fulfillment</b> (Kaye 2007)	<b>Information</b> (McQuail 1983; de Valck et al. 2009; Heinonen 2011; Men and Tsai 2013; Muntinga et al. 2012; Shao 2009; Blackshaw and Nazzaro 2006) <b>Learning, decision making and advice seeking</b> (Brodie et al. 2013; Kaye 2010; Stafford and Stafford 1998) <b>Stimulation and inspiration</b> (Calder et al. 2009) <b>Information exchange</b> (Ridings and Gefen 2004; Yang et al. 2010)	<b>Personal identity</b> (McQuail 1983; Men and Tsai 2013; Mersey et al. 2012; Muntinga et al. 2011) <b>Self-presentation</b> (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Peluchette and Karl 2009; Nov 2007; Bagozzi and Dholakia 2002; Zeng et al. 2009; Tufekci 2008) <b>Self-fulfillment</b> (Papacharissi 2007) <b>Self-identification</b> (Kozinets et al. 2010)	<b>Economic</b> (Gwinner et al. 1998; Gummerus et al. 2012; Peterson 1995; Levy 2012) <b>Remuneration</b> (Muntinga et al. 2011; Wang and Fesenmaier 2003; Nov 2007; Sashi 2012; Tsai and Men 2012)

Five different motivational drivers can be attached to consumer brand engagement: community, entertainment, information, identity, and economics. The community dimension consists of items that refer to social relationships and we-intentions. It represents a communal environment where consumers feel a sense of communion, affinity, support, and shared faith. Entertainment pertains to experiencing feelings such as sadness, happiness, anger, relief, excitement, and fear. It is consumed because it provides fun and leisure, escape or diversion from problems or routines, relaxation, emotional release, and

opportunities to pass time. The information dimension represents consumers' need for information, as well as the desire to increase awareness and knowledge of one's self, others, and the world (Shao 2009). The identity dimension covers behaviors that revolve around gaining insight into one's self, reinforcing personal values, and identifying with and gaining recognition from peers. Economics pertain to motivation related to the monetary and nonmonetary rewards that people may receive through engagement.

McQuail's (1983) classification of motivations, which has been recognized as a baseline of engagement motivation research (Mersey et al. 2010; Muntinga 2011; Heinonen 2011), comprises four main components: information motivations, entertainment motivations and integration, personal identity motivations, and social interaction motivations. Economic benefits are also presented as a motivational driver of engagement (Gwinner et al. 1998; Muntinga et al. 2011; Tsai and Men 2012; Peterson 1995). The engagement literature highlights engagement as a result of motivational drivers (van Doorn et al. 2010; Hollebeek 2011; Calder and Malthouse 2008; Brodie et al. 2011). On these bases, we propose the following hypotheses:

*H1: Community experience is positively associated with customer brand engagement.*

*H2: Information and entertainment experiences are positively associated with customer brand engagement.*

*H3: Identify-related experience is positively associated with customer brand engagement.*

*H4: Economic-related experience is positively associated with customer brand engagement.*

## **2.4 Share of Wallet**

The marketing literature reflects the increasing interest of managers and researchers in consumers' share of spending as a behavioral dimension of consumer loyalty (e.g. Keiningham et al. 2005). For example, Zeithaml (2000) points to the increased favor for the SOW concept. Meyer-Waarden (2006) evaluates SOW as being of considerable significance to retailers given two goals that are important to business: determining the manner by which shoppers allocate their purchases across different products and formulating strategies to motivate consumers to allot an increased share of total grocery expenditures to the retailers' products. In early research on SOW, Jones and Sasser (1995) assert that the share of purchases in a category (i.e., SOW) is the ultimate measure of loyalty. Keiningham et al. (2007), however, regard this as an overstatement, arguing that SOW is not as innovative as other measures of loyalty (Oliver 1999). Researchers have therefore frequently used it to operationalize loyalty behavior (e.g., Bowman et al. 2000). Companies spend a substantial amount of time and money in improving customer loyalty by measuring and managing

metrics, such as satisfaction (Keiningham et al. 2011). Coolie et al. (2007) emphasize that improving satisfaction levels without an understanding of the relationship between satisfaction and customers' SOW allocations is an ineffective approach.

Despite the value of SOW research, scholars encounter problems such as the difficulty of collecting data on actual SOW (Keiningham et al. 2003). According to Zeithaml (2000), the term "share of wallet" requires both definition and metrics. Perkins-Munn et al. (2005) note the lack of empirical examination of the relationship among satisfaction, retention, and SOW. They point out that this lack is largely the result of the inherent difficulty in collecting authentic SOW information in most business categories. A few researchers have defined SOW. Keiningham et al. (2003) outline the term as the percentage of the volume of total business transaction between a firm and a client organization within a year. Vivek et al. (2012) identify SOW as an expected consequence of having highly engaged and positively disposed consumers. Keiningham et al. (2007, p. 365) state that in retail banking, SOW is "the stated percentage of total assets held at the bank being rated by the customer." For discount retailers, the term points to "the stated percentage of total purchases from discount retailers conducted at the retailer being rated by the customer." Hye-young and min-young (2010) define SOW as the share of a customer's business that is consumed for a particular retailer's products in a given product category. Furthermore, Hye-young and min-young (2010) present two variables that are used to measure SOW: (1) share of total category spending (SOW-spending) and (2) share of total category shopping trips (SOW-patronage). Keiningham et al. (2011) define the term as the percentage of a customer's spending within a certain category that is captured by a given firm, store, or brand. The authors also indicate that "[t]he rank that consumers assign to a brand relative to the other brands they use predicts share of wallet according to a simple, previously unknown formula, which we've named the Wallet Allocation Rule" (Keiningham et al. 2011, p. 3). Furthermore, the authors find a notable correlation between a brand's wallet allocation rule score and its SOW, with the average correlation being 0.9 out of a perfect allocation of 1.0 (Keiningham et al. 2011).

According to Perkins-Munn et al. (2005), a firm's efforts to manage customers' spending patterns tend to represent greater opportunities than does simply trying to maximize customer retention rates. Coyles and Gokey (2002) find that concentrating on both customers' spending patterns to improve customers' SOW and customer retention affords a company 10 times greater value than does concentrating on retention alone. Perkins-Munn et al. (2005) emphasize that the drivers of retention should not be assumed identical to the drivers of SOW. The authors reveal a strong relationship between repurchase intention and actual repurchase and find that actual repurchase and SOW are sufficiently similar for repurchase to be used as a proxy for SOW. The comparison within and across logistic models (for actual repurchase) and linear models (for SOW) for truck data indicate four strong predictors of both outcomes (i.e., actual repurchase and SOW): likelihood to purchase, overall satisfaction, brand image, and design scale. Keiningham et al. (2007, p. 366)

propose that “repurchase intention will be more strongly correlated to share-of-wallet than recommend intention, and customers’ perceptions of satisfaction, value, and expectations, and customers’ recommend intention.” Coolie et al. (2007) argue that retention and SOW are closely related but non-identical. The finding that consumers enter into serially polygamous or monogamous relationships with companies indicates a close link between retention/repurchase and share of category spending (SOW).

Marketing researchers argue that customer satisfaction exerts a measurable effect on purchase intentions (e.g., Bolton and Drew 1991), customer retention (e.g., Mittal and Kamakura 2001), and financial performance (e.g., Keiningham et al. 1999). Zeithaml (2000) identifies a model in which customer retention leads to firm profits in one of four ways: (1) lowering the costs incurred by service customers, (2) charging premium prices, (3) stimulating WOM advertising, and (4) increasing purchase volume (i.e., increased SOW). Reinartz and Kumar (2000) argue that customer retention does not lead to behavior wherein serving loyal customers would cost less, loyal customers would pay higher prices for the same bundle of services, or customers would market the company (WOM). This assertion suggests that under Zeithaml’s (2000) model, the primary path from retention to profitability is increased SOW. Keiningham et al. (2005) find a positive relationship between revenue and profitability; for unprofitable segments, the authors reveal that satisfaction influences SOW, which in turn, affects revenue. Moreover, the link between SOW and revenue/profits is untenable, and revenue and profitability are negatively related. In their study on the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer profitability in the banking industry, Ittner and Larcker (1998) find no relationship between customer satisfaction and return on sales (i.e., profit margins). Niraj et al. (2003) support this finding, stating that increased satisfaction does not necessarily translate to increased customer profitability. Customers may be very satisfied with a company’s brand and may likely recommend it to others, but if they are fond of rival brands to a similar extent, then a company loses sales (Keiningham et al. 2011). Keiningham et al. (2005) suggest that service experience plays a minor role in the spending allocation of unprofitable customers. The authors contend that such finding demonstrates that the path from satisfaction to profitability is not as simple as typically proposed.

Customer satisfaction positively influences SOW (e.g., Keiningham et al. 2003; Perkins-Munn et al. 2003; Coolie et al. 2007). Palmatier et al. (2009) find that gratitude-based reciprocal behaviors drive company performance outcomes, such as SOW. Coolie et al. (2007) emphasize that managers have focused on improving customers’ level of satisfaction to increase customers’ share of spending for a brand. The authors also indicate a positive relationship between a change in customer satisfaction and a contemporaneous change in current SOW. Rust (2002) states that customer satisfaction and delight exert enormous influence on customer retention and customer loyalty, thereby enabling companies to retain customers for longer periods and increase SOW. Chitturi et al. (2008) state that the literature supports the positive link between satisfaction and SOW, but the authors argue against the assertion that high



levels of customer satisfaction do not necessarily lead to high levels of loyalty behavior. Coolie et al. (2007) reveal that changes in satisfaction are positively and nonlinearly related to SOW and that customers allocate SOW to a certain service provider over time. Keiningham et al. (2005) study the relationship between satisfaction and actual SOW to determine the effects of different organizational buyer groups. Their findings show that the relationship between satisfaction and SOW considerably differ by buyer group and that this relationship is nonlinear.

Coolie et al. (2007) suggest that the relationship between satisfaction and SOW is moderated by situational and demographic customer characteristics. In their model, income and length of relationship are particularly remarkable predictors. Hye-young and min-young (2010) determine whether demographics (age, income, and education) and two situational characteristics (relationship duration and product type) affect the relationship between emotional loyalty and SOW. The authors suggest that emotional loyalty is positively related to SOW. Unlike Coolie et al. (2007), Hye-young and min-young (2010) find that income poses no effect on SOW but support the argument that the duration of a relationship affects emotional loyalty in relation to SOW. In this regard, Meyer-Waarden (2006) finds that loyalty programs have a positive effect on lifetime duration and customer SOW at the store level. Hye-young and min-young (2010) also indicate that characteristics such as education and product type moderate the effect of emotional loyalty, but not of conative loyalty, on SOW. Hye-young and min-young (2010) find that high-education customers shop and spend less than do low-education customers, and that grocery shoppers shop and spend more than do apparel shoppers. Coolie et al. (2007) reveal that young consumers are just as likely to switch stores or experiment with alternative stores as are old consumers. Hye-young and min-young (2010) support this finding, stating that age does not affect SOW. The authors also reveal that many customers buy most of their groceries from a store that is close to their home and may therefore be "loyal" because of such factors as convenience of location. In managerial contexts, Coolie et al. (2007) and Hye-young and min-young (2010) argue that the relevance of such a linkage is that changes in customers' levels of satisfaction are expected to affect changes in customers' SOW allocations. Coolie et al. (2007) observe that in delineating the relationship between satisfaction and SOW, researchers have disregarded temporal effects and relied almost solely on cross-sectional data. Over time, therefore, a sufficiently valid evaluation of the effect of changes in satisfaction on SOW is impossible.

A few studies have looked into the relationship between consumer engagement and SOW. For example, Vivek et al. (2012) find that engaging consumers can lead to successful marketing outcomes, such as SOW. Kumar et al. (2010) state that the customer influencer value is one of the components that drive customer engagement with a firm. This customer influencer value includes customers' behavior in influencing other customers (e.g., SOW). In accordance with these findings, we hypothesize that

*H5: Customer brand engagement has a positive effect on SOW.*

## 2.5 Perceived innovativeness

Consumer innovativeness exerts a major effect on the diffusion of innovation studies (Hirschman 1980; Midgley and Dowling 1978), thereby resulting in the accumulation of a rich literature base (Hirunyawipada and Paswan 2006). As previously mentioned, consumer innovativeness refers to a tendency to willingly embrace change, try new things, and buy new products more often and more rapidly than others (Cotte and Wood 2004). Similarly, Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) outline the term as the degree to which an individual adopts new ideas at an earlier period than does the average member of his/her social system. Steenkamp et al. (1999) present consumer innovativeness as the predisposition to buy new and different products and brands rather than remain with previous choices and consumption patterns. Midgley and Dowling (1978) argue that the concept of innovativeness covers communication independence, delineated by the degree to which a consumer's decision process is independent of others' personal influence in a social system. Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006) maintain that consumers with high cognitive innovativeness enjoy determining how products work, discovering facts about the products, evaluating information, and learning how such information works. Lu et al. (2005) reveal that in information technology, personal innovativeness pertains to the willingness of an individual to try out any new information innovations. Rogers (1983) extends the definition by classifying innovation adopters into five categories: innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, and laggards. In some studies (e.g., Steenkamp et al. 1999), consumer innovativeness has been argued to vary depending on whether a consumer is an early adopter or a general consumer. In research (e.g., Robertson et al. 1984), the treatment of innovativeness as a discriminator of early adopters from late adopters is somewhat inconsistent.

Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006) indicate that most consumer innovativeness studies employ a single trait approach, which according to Kassarian (1971), has been criticized as inconclusive and weak. Current literature defines consumer innovativeness as the desire to seek arousal and novelty from new products (Hirschman 1980; Midgley and Dowling 1978). Gatignon and Robertson (1991) state that most innovativeness studies revolve around common early adopter characteristics that can produce equifinal adoption results. Chau and Hui (1998) define consumer innovativeness as a precursor to the adoption of new products, and Mowen et al. (1998) classify it as a personality construct that enables the identification of new product adopters. Some empirical studies (e.g., Goldsmith et al. 2003; Im et al. 2003) have nonetheless reported a weak relationship between innovativeness as a construct and innovativeness as a behavior.

Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006) investigate consumer innovativeness from a hierarchical (trait) perspective in the context of consumer electronic

products and break down consumer innovativeness into three levels of abstraction: global (personal trait) innovativeness, domain-specific (narrowly defined traits in relation to product category) innovativeness, and innovative behavior. The typical assumption of global innovativeness is anchored in personality inventory that defines behavior, especially the adoption of new products (e.g., Leavitt and Walton 1975). Adopting this perspective of innovativeness as a latent trait, numerous studies have identified global innovativeness aspects, such as openness to information processing (Leavitt and Walton 1975), inherent novelty seeking (Manning et al. 1995), and willingness to explore opportunities (Hurt et al. 1977). These global innovativeness components stimulate the tendency to acquire new information and/or adopt new products. Midgley and Dowling (1993) explain that domain-specific innovativeness aims to expound on the fragile aspects of human behavior within a person's specific interest domain. Joseph and Vyas (1984) focus on cognitive global innovativeness, which includes an individual's intellectual, perceptual, and attitudinal characteristics. The authors hypothesize that this kind of innovativeness is a significant predictor of innovation adoption. Furthermore, Goldsmith et al. (1995) distinguish between global and domain-specific innovativeness. Domain-specific innovativeness provides additional predictive power and therefore plays an important role in the innovativeness hierarchy (Hirunyawipada and Paswan 2006). Goldsmith and Hotacker (1991) present the domain specific innovation scale as a Likert scale, claiming that it is a utilitarian predictor of consumers' adoption of innovations. Rogers (2003) elucidates that actualized innovativeness is the extent to which consumers are comparatively early in adopting new products than are others in a consumer's society. Im et al. (2003) note that a research stream focuses on new product adoption behavior or actualized innovativeness, which includes the actual acquisition of new information, ideas, and products (Hirschman 1980; Midgley and Dowling 1978). In this stream, studies define new product adoption behavior on the basis of the degree to which an individual adopts innovations at an earlier period than do others in his/her social system (Rogers and Shoemaker 1971). Hirunyawipada and Paswan (2006) divide global innovativeness into cognitive and sensory dimensions and categorize actualized innovativeness into actual adoption and the acquisition of novel information about new products. New product marketers should recognize the effects of cognitive, sensory, and domain-specific innovativeness on innovation adoption. Cognitive and domain-specific innovativeness account for the best possible combination of determinants of innovation adoption (Hirunyawipada and Paswan 2006).

Rogers (2003) states that in innovation diffusion theory, the dissemination of information through a social system is represented as the diffusion of an innovation. Many innovation diffusion studies recognize that highly innovative individuals actively seek information about new ideas (Lu et al. 2005). According to Rogers (1995), these people can cope with high levels of uncertainty and develop more positive intentions toward acceptance. Jackson et al. (2013) discuss two theoretical models that encompass social and personal control factors: the theory of planned behavior (TPB) and the unified theory of

acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT). In TPB, social factors are embodied by the subjective norm construct, whereas in UTAUT, such factors are represented by the social influence construct. TPB and UTAUT use perceived behavioral control and the facilitating conditions construct, respectively, to represent personal control factors. In TPB, a person's performance of a behavior is defined by his/her intention to perform the behavior, and intention is defined by the person's attitude, subjective norms, normative and behavioral beliefs, and perceived control of the behavior (e.g., Ajzen 1985). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) state that an individual positively or negatively evaluates the performance of a certain behavior with reference to behavioral beliefs and perceptions of the social pressure to perform or not perform the behavior in question. These beliefs and perceptions are referred to as normative beliefs. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) also note that the relative weights of behavioral beliefs and planned behaviors may vary from person to person. Ajzen's (1985) TPB provides a theoretical framework for understanding human behavior. UTAUT assumes that user acceptance and usage of information technology are influenced by four factors: effort expectancy, performance expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions (Venkatesh et al. 2003).

According to Ho and Wu (2011), highly innovative customers are characterized by (1) a willingness to apply changes in concepts and things; (2) competence to influence others to adopt innovative concepts and things; (3) helpfulness in decision making and problem solving in an organization or social system; and (4) the time and rate of adoption of the aforementioned changes in a functional relationship. Im et al. (2003) indicate that many studies have sought useful identification variables for classifying consumers into innovators and late adopters. Several studies suggest that consumers who typically have high levels of income and education tend to be young, have considerable social mobility and favorable attitudes toward risk, and exhibit frequent social participation and high opinion leadership (e.g., Gatignon and Robertson 1991). Among the considerable number of possible demographic information, household income, education, and age have been the most widely used in identifying innovators because these enable simplicity of data collection (e.g., Midgley and Dowling 1993). Im et al. (2003) find that income and age, in combination with innate consumer innovativeness, are linked to the ownership of new consumer electronic products. Rogers (2003) argues that early adopters tend to be less fatalistic and more self-confident than late adopters. One research stream concentrates on identifying consumer innovators on the basis of innate consumer innovativeness, a generalized unobservable predisposition that can be applied across product classes (Hirschman 1980; Midgley and Dowling 1978, 1993). With regard to innate consumer innovativeness and new product adoption behavior, disagreement exists as to whether such an innovative predisposition defines innovative adoption behavior (Manning et al. 1995; Midgley and Dowling 1993).

Consumer innovativeness is strongly related to the adoption and purchase of products, especially new products. Such innovativeness refers to the tendency to willingly embrace change, try new things, and buy new products more often and more rapidly than others (Cotte and Wood 2004). Steenkamp et

al. (1999) state that innovative consumers change consumption patterns and previous product choices rather than remain with old ones. To acquire elaborate information about the model, perceived innovativeness is examined as a moderator of the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. Under this model, when perceived innovativeness is high, customer brand engagement exerts a strong effect on SOW. Thus,

*H6: Perceived innovativeness moderates the positive relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW.*

Our hypothesized research model is shown in Figure 2. The model includes three control variables, namely, gender, age, and frequency of visits (Figure 2).

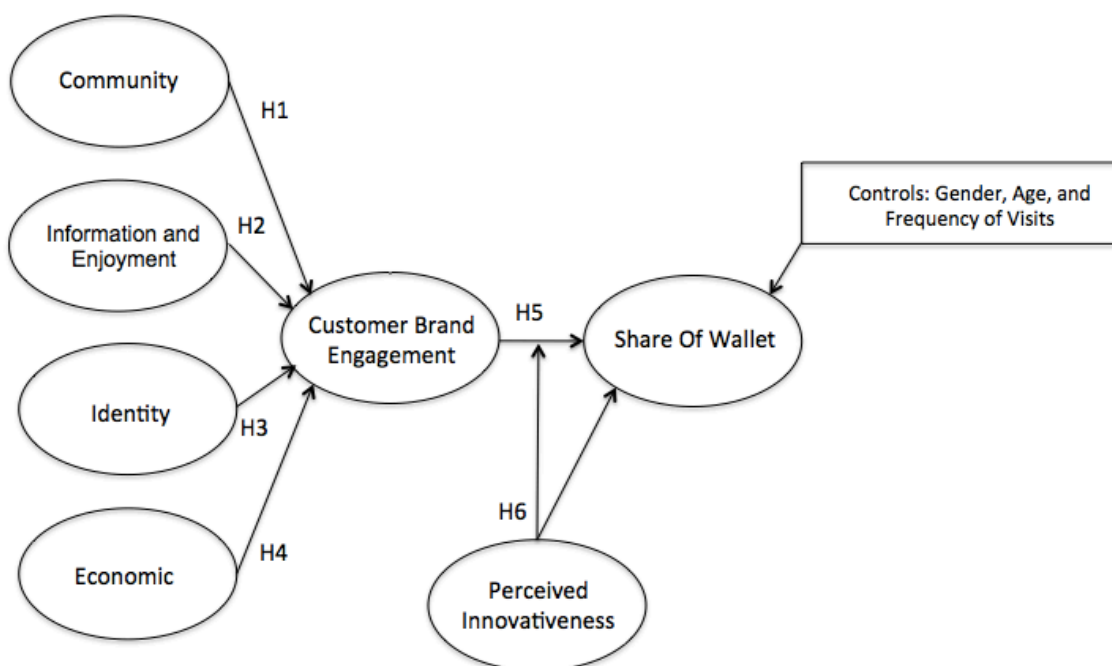


FIGURE 2 Hypothesized research model

Gender, age, and frequency of visits were used as control variables of this study. Mittal and Kamakura (2001) find that differentiating characteristics of various customer groups (e.g., age, sex, education) moderate the nature of the relationship between satisfaction and customer behavior (repurchase and

retention). The shared and differing characteristics of individuals in a group (such as gender) influence the total effects of interaction quality and merchandise quality on SOW (Babakus and Yavas 2008). Babakus and Yavas (2008) state that although interaction quality and merchandise quality have a prominent influence on SOW, the strengths of these effects vary within and between sexes. Hair et al. (2006) suggest that sex has a moderating effect on SOW. Age has also been discussed as a characteristic that affects SOW. For example, Baumann et al. (2005) reveal that in retail banking, age is positively associated with SOW. User activity refers to frequency of communication or how often community members are in touch with one another (Farace et al. 1977). It is a focal element of communication quality and collaborative communication (Mohr et al. 1996) behaviors, such as participation in the activities of online brand communities.

### 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the background of the quantitative method used in the study and explains the data collection and analysis processes. This study attempts to provide precise descriptions of persons, events, and situations, as well as document key features and interesting aspects of phenomena (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009). Survey research is a data collection method by which data are collected through instruments such as a questionnaire administered to more than one subject (Bryman and Bell 2007). To derive the most reliable results, collected data should be as comprehensive as possible; for this purpose, a quantitative research approach is appropriate (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009).

#### 3.1 Quantitative Research

Central to quantitative research is the relationship between theory and research, and in such an approach, the validation of theories is emphasized (Bryman and Bell 2007). According to Hirsjärvi et al. (2009), the idea that reality is built on objectively discovered facts creates the background of a quantitative study. Research objectives can be classified into four types: explorative, descriptive, explanatory, and predictive objectives (Hirsjärvi et al. 2003). Very often, the main objective in quantitative research is to acquire comprehensive comparative information from large target groups. A common task is examining diversity, and the special characteristics of a phenomenon under study must be sacrificed. Such treatment is motivated by the fact that in studies, respondents are asked to answer preformatted questions or are provided fixed alternatives from which to choose. Nevertheless, respondents may form complex thoughts, which are impossible to identify via a quantitative approach (Alkula et al. 1994). In the present study, exploratory approaches are used because they are deemed suitable methods of understanding causal relationships (Hirsjärvi et al. 2003).

The characteristic feature of a quantitative study is that conclusions are drawn from previous theories, early studies, hypothesis formation, data collection planning, suitability of observation data for quantitative measurement, and data and variables that are edited into statistically suitable forms; conclusions are also made on the basis of statistical analysis (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009).

Quantitative research is a worthwhile approach in many ways. Bryman and Bell (2007) indicate that using the quantitative method not only enables the examination of causal relationships, but also advances replicability. In a quantitative study, results can be generalized to an entire population in the context to which the study is directed (Bryman and Bell 2007). Despite these advantages, quantitative research has been criticized for its exclusive focus on addressing the static and inadequate state of respondents; because respondents are isolated from the surrounding world, quantitative research provides no guarantee that the respondents will understand and address claims and questions in the manner that a researcher intends (Bryman and Bell 2007).

## **3.2 Data collection**

Survey data are typically collected through a questionnaire or an interview of more than one subject, and in most cases, numerous subjects are sampled at a given time (Bryman and Bell 2007). In standard research, survey questions are formulated in exactly the same manner for each respondent. The primary advantage of surveys is that they can be used in large-scale data gathering seeing as these instruments lend themselves to administration to numerous respondents. Furthermore, numerous questions can be encompassed in a single questionnaire (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009).

The survey data for the current work were collected online because this is approach is appropriate for the target audience. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), an online questionnaire is a quick and cost-effective way to gather research data because a researcher can simultaneously administer the questionnaire to a large number of respondents. Questionnaires, which can be independently filled in, are practical tools because respondents can complete the instruments in accordance with their schedules. Moreover, bias that may stem from an interviewer's circumstances is minimized (Bryman and Bell 2007).

### **3.2.1 Questionnaire**

Questionnaires for independent completion should contain clear instructions and easily answerable questions. A questionnaire should be of moderate length so that the survey does not exhaust a respondent's energy. Nevertheless, survey respondents are willing to complete long questionnaires when the subject is related to their interests (Bryman and Bell 2007).



The questionnaire in this study was constructed using structured claims and, as suggested by Hirsjärvi et al. (2003), the easiest questions were presented first. At this stage, the questionnaire was not comprehensively tested because the items are based on validated scales (i.e., Calder et al. 2009; Mersey et al. 2012; Jahn and Kunz 2012). The questions were translated from English to Finnish, and some of the original words were modified to approximate a Finnish translation as closely as possible. The questionnaire was revised by two assistants and the case company investigated in this study. On this basis, wording was modified for appropriate expression and two additional questions were added to the questionnaire, as requested by the case company. The final number of questions is 41. The first three (Q1, Q2, Q3) are background questions, that is, inquiries regarding gender age, and frequency of visits to the case company's Facebook site. The next two questions (Q4, Q5) revolve around SOW and are based on De Wulf's et al. (2001) article. The sixth question (Q6) measures the respondents' perceived innovativeness. Perceived personal innovativeness was measured with four items based on Lu's et al. (2005) article. Questions Q7 and Q8 are related to engagement motivation factors, as well as customer fan page engagement and contribution. Engagement motivation factors, enjoyment, identity, community, information, and economics may exert an effect on consumer engagement behavior. Enjoyment was measured using five claims (Q7.1, Q7.3, Q7.7, Q7.10, Q7.13), and community was determined using four claims (Q8.3, Q8.4, Q8.8, Q8.11). These indicators were adapted from Calder et al. (2009) and Mersey et al. (2012). In addition, identity-related experiences were measured using three claims (Q7.2, Q7.9, Q7.12), and information was measured using five claims (Q7.4, Q7.6, Q7.8, Q7.14, Q7.15). These were adapted from Mersey et al. (2012). From Mersey et al.'s (2012) original enjoyment measure, one claim was removed ("I like to go to this site when I am eating or taking a break") because the question is inappropriate for the context of the present study. It was replaced by the claim (Q7.1) presented by Calder and Malthouse (2008). The economic factor was measured using two items (Q7.5, Q7.11). These indicators are based on Hennig-Thurau et al.'s (2004) article.

Customer fan page engagement factors were measured using four items (Q8.2, Q8.5, Q8.10, Q8.12). These indicators were adapted from Jahn and Kunz (2012). From the original customer fan page engagement measure, two items were removed ("I am an integrated member of this fan-page community" and "I am an interacting member of this fan-page community") because these questions are also inappropriate for the context of the current research. According to Gummerus et al. (2012), engagement behaviors can be classified as passive and active, and the frequency of these activities should be determined when measuring engagement behavior. On the basis of these assertions, contribution was measured in the present work by using four items (Q8.1, Q8.6, Q8.7, Q8.9) adapted from Muntinga et al. (2011). These items are related to the typology of three social media usage types, which Men and Tsai (2013) discuss in their article. The final two questions were provided by the case company and are unrelated to the context of the present study. The main questions (Q6, Q7, Q8) were measured with a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from "totally

disagree” to “totally agree.” For the Likert scale, the respondents were prohibited from writing “do not know” as a response because the questions are related to their experiences. According to Hirsjärvi et al. (2003), agree/disagree claims afford respondents the opportunity to choose the option that they deem most acceptable. For Q7 and Q8, the claims were randomly presented to ensure the reliability of the survey. A cover letter was provided and a raffle prize was offered to motivate the respondents to participate. The questionnaire and the motivation letter are provided in the Appendix.

### **3.2.2 Practical implementation**

The survey was administered in early March 2014 via the online survey program, Webropol 2.0. A direct link to the survey was posted on the case company’s Facebook page and Twitter feed. The survey was published once in the company’s Facebook fan page and twice in Twitter, and two weeks was allotted for response submission. The Facebook connections of the researchers, who are members of the case company’s Facebook fan page, were also used for data collection. The motivation letter was placed at the beginning of the questionnaire to inform the respondents about the background of the survey and their eligibility to join a lottery upon survey completion. During the two-week period, 818 completed questionnaires were obtained and analyzed. The total number of respondents to the questionnaire was 1,440, and the effective response rate was 57%. The issue being investigated was presented to the target respondents in an interesting manner to reduce loss of respondents.

### **3.3 Data analysis**

The collected data were transferred from the Webropol 2.0 software to the IBM SPSS statistics 22 program. The raw data were processed to identify insufficient answers and missing values. The missing data were replaced by the mean of the other responses to prevent data distortion due to missing values. According to Tabachnik and Fidell (2013), substitution minimally affects variance if only a moderate number of values are missing. Responding to all the questions in the questionnaire was mandatory; thus, the missing variables originated from errors during data transfer from Webropol to SPSS. Only a few missing values were detected. At this point, the variables were also labeled in correspondence to the factors based on the theory adopted in this study.

Factor analysis is primarily intended to categorize variables into small subgroups, wherein the variables exhibit a stronger correlation with themselves than with the other variables. These variables also show how indicators load to a certain factor. Metsämuuronen (2005) indicates that exploratory factor analysis is typically used to identify an explanatory model from responses, and that such analysis can be implemented to increase a hypothesized model’s

reliability. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state that confirmatory factor analysis is normally executed along with structural equation modeling, and that it aims to examine the hypothesized factor relationships that are aligned with variable correlations. In exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, sample size should exceed 300 and sufficient correlation between variables should be observed to enable the formulation of relevant and consistent factors (Metsämuuronen 2006). The sample in this study comprises 818 questionnaires; thus, the conditions required for factor analysis were fulfilled.

In this study, exploratory factor analysis was used only to pre-analyze the data, determine possible factor structures, and identify items that may be unsuitable for further analysis. Structural equation modeling under confirmatory factor analysis was subsequently implemented. Such modeling is related to causal modeling, causal analysis, simultaneous equation modeling, and analysis of covariance structures or path analysis. In this stage, model estimation, evaluation, and possible modification of the model are performed. Structural equation modeling is appropriate for analyzing the relationships between defined constructs and determining whether the relationships follow hypothesized and theorized patterns (Metsämuuronen 2006). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) indicate that structural equation modeling enables researchers to examine multidimensional and complex constructs and phenomena because the method allows the simultaneous testing of the relationships in the model.

## **4 RESULTS**

This chapter presents the results of the study. The demographic profiles are introduced and then the results derived by the research model are discussed, beginning from the findings of the factor analysis, followed by the measurement, structural modelling, and hypothesis testing.

### **4.1 Demographic and background factors**

Most of the respondents are male 547 (66.9%). This composition aligns with the profile of the visitors to the case company's Facebook fan page, where the female population accounts for approximately 40% of the community's population. The major age group falls between 26 and 35 years (25.3%). The next largest groups are those aged 36–45 (19.9%) and 18–25 (18.9%). Most of the respondents visit the fan page 1–3 times per week (30%) or 2–3 times per month (24.4%) (Table 2).

TABLE 2 Profile of the respondents

	N	%
<b>Gender</b>		
Female	259	31.7
Male	547	66.9
Total	806	98,6
<b>Age</b>		
Under 18	73	8.9
18-25	155	18.9
26-35	207	25.3
36-45	163	19.9
46-55	130	15.9
Over 55	83	10.1
Total	811	99.1
<b>Frequency of visiting</b>		
Daily	93	11.4
4-6 times per week	111	13.6
1-3 times per week	245	30.0
2-3 times per month	200	24.4
Once a month or more seldom	160	19.6
Total	818	98.9

## 4.2 Factor analysis

Before factor analysis is carried out, researchers should ensure that data satisfy preconditions. According to Tabachnik and Fidell (2013), sample size significantly affects the success of factor analysis and is considerably influenced by communalities. A sample size of 300 is generally good, and if communality levels are high, sample sizes under 100 are satisfactory. The sample size of this study provides a good basis for further analysis.

In this study, the data were pre-analyzed by exploratory factor analysis to determine whether the hypothesized factor model can be identified even without the existence of assumptions (Karjaluoto 2007). Kaiser-Meyer Olkin's (KMO) test provides a value that indicates whether good preconditions for further factor analysis exist. A KMO of 0.943 and one higher than 0.9 are excellent preconditions. Null hypotheses were tested using Bartlett's test, which determines whether sufficient correlation exists between variables. In Bartlett's

test, a significance value smaller than 0.01 indicates good preconditions to continue with factoring (Karjaluoto 2007). In this study, the Bartlett's test result was 0.000.

Communality measures the variable variance that can be explained with factors (Metsämuuronen 2006). A communality that exceeds 0.30 indicates sufficient correlation to form a relevant factor (Karjaluoto 2007). In this study, one item needed to be removed from further analysis because of low loading.

Factor analysis was conducted various times to ensure an optimal factor structure. Principal axis factoring method and varimax rotation were chosen. Varimax rotation maximizes variance or factor loadings by emphasizing high values and decreasing the possibility of low values (Tabachnik and Fidell 2007). Tabachnik and Fidell (2007) state that determining the number of factors can be based on a set eigenvalue or screen plot. An eigenvalue indicates how many factors explain total variance (Metsämuuronen 2006). Thus, a screen plot test and the determination of number of factors are based strictly on correlations (Tabachnik and Fidell 2007). In this study, the factor structure based on the eigenvalue and exploratory factor analysis in SPSS gives rise to six different factors. The factors explain 60.7% of the total variance. The observation of individual factors shows that the first factor, customer brand engagement (CBE), explains 20.1% of the total variance; the second (information and enjoyment, INF and ENJ), third (identity, IDE), fourth (perceived innovativeness, PI), fifth (SOW), and sixth (economics, ECO) factors explain 12.6%, 10.2%, 8.5%, 5.2%, 4.2% of the total variance, respectively. This factor structure creates the baseline for further confirmatory factor analysis.

### 4.3 Measurement model

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted by partial least squares structural equation modeling with SmartPLS 2.0 (Ringle, Wende, and Will 2005). The analysis was based on the explanatory factor analysis, and the factor structure was modified to enable good fit with the theory. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) indicate that confirmatory factor analysis is normally used to specify the proposed relationships between items and variables. This specification enables further inspection of the relationships between latent variables (i.e., constructs). A measurement model's reliability and validity should be determined to form a basis for structural model analysis (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). In this stage, two items were removed and some of the factor structures were modified. Information and enjoyment were attached to one factor because the items under these factors are closely related. The complete factor structure was constructed with SmartPLS 2.0. The final factor structure consists of information and enjoyment factors (ENJ1, ENJ4, ENJ5, INF1, INF4, INF5), community factors (COM3, COM4), economic factors (ECO1, ECO2), identity factors (IDE1, IDE2, IDE3), customer brand engagement factors (CON1, CON2, CON3, CON4, FPE1, FPE2, FPE3), and SOW factors (SOW1, SOW2).

A measurement model's reliability can be measured with factor loadings and Cronbach's alpha (Bagozzi and Yi 2012). A satisfactory factor loading should not fall below .60, and in this study, all the factor loadings exceed this level. T-values express the statistical significance of factor loadings, and values greater than 1.96 are considered statistically significant. In this study, the t-values satisfy this requirement. The results indicate good reliability of the measurement.

Cronbach's alpha is a widely used reliability instrument, whose high value indicates that a significant proportion of variance can be attributed to a factor (Cortina 1993). A good alpha value is one higher than .70 (Nunnally 1978). In this study, economics exhibits a value less than the standard (.652). However, the acceptable alpha value (.70) has been a debated issue. For example, Mestsämuuroinen (2006) reports that alpha values above .60 are acceptable. The factor loadings, Cronbach's alphas, and t-values in the present work are listed in Table 3.

TABLE 3 Factor loadings, Cronbach's alphas and t-values

FACTOR	CRONBACH'S ALPHA	ITEM	STANDARDIZED LOADINGS	T- VALUE
Customer Brand Engagement	0.924	CON1	.821	60.56
		CON2	.754	43.46
		CON3	.860	84.06
		CON4	.824	63.99
		FPE1	.823	64.98
		FPE2	.875	89.28
		FPE3	.846	71.57
Community	0.723	COM3	.781	47.80
		COM4	.806	54.10
Economic	0.652	ECO1	.937	133.17
		ECO2	.759	25.19
Identity	0.767	IDE1	.848	67.56
		IDE2	.776	45.82
		IDE3	.854	72.39
Information and enjoyment	0.867	ENJ1	.815	60.90
		ENJ4	.730	32.28
		ENJ5	.774	45.87
		INF1	.743	37.75
		INF4	.808	48.28
SOW	0.847	INF5	.776	42.29
		SOW1	.933	127.84
		SOW2	.930	142.60

Average variance extracted (AVE) is used to measure the convergent validity of a measurement model. AVE should be above .50, in which case less than half of the variance is caused by error. An AVE that is less than .50 indicates a failure to confirm the validity of individual indicators and constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981). In this study, all the AVE values are at an acceptable level. According to Fornell and Lacker (1981), the square root of AVE should exceed the value of correlation between factors to enable the determination of whether factors are independent from one another. All the squared AVE values in this study are at an acceptable level. On this basis, discriminant validity is achieved. The AVEs, factor correlation, square roots of the AVEs, and mean scores of the constructs and their standard deviations are displayed in Table 4.

TABLE 4 Average variance extracted (AVE), reliabilities, construct correlations, square root of AVEs (diagonal), means and standard deviations

	AVE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
CBE <sup>b</sup> (1)	0.689	<b>0.830</b>									
COM <sup>c</sup> (2)	0.644	0.735	<b>0.802</b>								
ECO <sup>d</sup> (3)	0.727	0.539	0.383	<b>0.853</b>							
IDE <sup>e</sup> (4)	0.683	0.686	0.626	0.443	<b>0.826</b>						
INF <sup>f</sup> (5)	0.601	0.646	0.612	0.370	0.662	<b>0.775</b>					
PI <sup>g</sup> (6)	0.777	0.220	0.137	0.157	0.177	0.290	<b>0.881</b>				
SOW <sup>h</sup> (7)	0.867	0.358	0.222	0.190	0.284	0.290	0.284	<b>0.931</b>			
FV <sup>i</sup> (8)	n/a	-0.451	-0.315	-0.240	-0.342	-0.408	0.556	-0.361	<b>n/a</b>		
Gender (9)	n/a	0.039	0.123	0.081	0.038	-0.083	-0.277	-0.054	0.103	<b>n/a</b>	
Age (10)	n/a	-0.016	-0.031	-0.041	-0.095	-0.026	-0.240	-0.073	0.065	0.142	<b>n/a</b>
Mean	-	2.75	3.00	3.29	2.67	3.43	4.08	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
s.d.	-	1.14	1.05	1.17	1.05	0.933	0.99	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
CR <sup>a</sup>		0.939	0.844	0.840	0.866	0.900	0.913	0.929	n/a	n/a	n/a

Notes: <sup>a</sup> CR = Composite reliability; <sup>b</sup> CBE – Customer brand engagement; <sup>c</sup> COM – Community; <sup>d</sup> ECO –Economic; <sup>e</sup> IDE – Identity; <sup>f</sup> INF = Information; <sup>g</sup> PI – Perceived innovativeness; <sup>h</sup> SOW – Share of wallet”; <sup>i</sup> FV – Frequency of visits; Not applicable. Construct measured through a single indicator; composite reliability and AVE cannot be computed



## 4.4 Structural model

### 4.4.1 Direct effect

The hypotheses listed in Section 2.6 were tested by structural model evaluation. The direct effects were first examined. In assessing the direct paths, a path-weighting scheme with a maximum iteration set to 300 and an abort criterion set to 1.0E-5 were employed. The significance of the paths was assessed by bootstrapping with 5,000 re-samples (Hair et al. 2013). Bootstrapping is a nonparametric approach that evaluates the accuracy of PLS estimates (Chin 1998). The results of the PLS estimation for the direct effects are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 5 Direct effects model

	$\beta$	$f^2$	$q^2$
H1: Community $\rightarrow$ Customer Brand Engagement	0.407***	0.278	0.114
H2: Information and entertainment $\rightarrow$ Customer Brand Engagement	0.166***	0.043	0.017
H3: Identity $\rightarrow$ Customer Brand Engagement	0.221***	0.069	0.029
H4: Economic $\rightarrow$ Customer Brand Engagement	0.222***	0.116	0.050
H5: Customer Brand Engagement $\rightarrow$ SOW	0.227***	n/a	n/a
H6: Perceived Innovativeness $\rightarrow$ SOW	0.174***	0.031	0.026
Gender $\rightarrow$ SOW	0.011 (ns)	0.000	0.001
Age $\rightarrow$ SOW	-0.006 (ns)	0.000	0.001
Frequency of visits $\rightarrow$ SOW	0.204***	0.047	0.039
	$R^2$	$Q^2$	
Customer Brand Engagement	0.6798	0.4644	
SOW	0.2101	0.1819	

Notes: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; ns - nonsignificant; n/a - not applicable

$R^2$  values indicate whether a certain independent latent variable has a fundamental effect on a given dependent latent variable (Chin 1998). Overall, the model explains more than 50% of the  $R^2$  of customer brand engagement. The  $Q^2$  values were larger than 0.15 for SOW and larger than 0.35 for customer brand engagement, indicating that the model's predictive relevance is medium to high for SOW and high for customer brand engagement.

As shown in Table 5, community is strongly positively associated with customer brand engagement ( $\beta = 0.407$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), thereby providing support for H1. Thus, the first hypothesis is accepted. The path coefficient (0.2) is the strongest and exceeds the suggested limit (Chin 1998), and the t-value is 13.09. With respect to H2, H3, and H4, all the relationships are supported by the data and all the hypotheses are accepted. After community, identity (H3) ( $\beta = 0.22$ , t-value 6.92) and economics (H4) ( $\beta = 0.22$ , t-value 9.82) exert the strongest effects

on customer brand engagement. Customer brand engagement (H5) ( $\beta = 0.23$  and 6.62) is also positively associated with SOW, indicating that the fifth hypothesis is accepted. Of the control variables, frequency of visits exhibits a positive association with SOW. The findings do not support the positive association between gender and SOW or age and SOW. In what follows, the hypotheses are individually discussed.

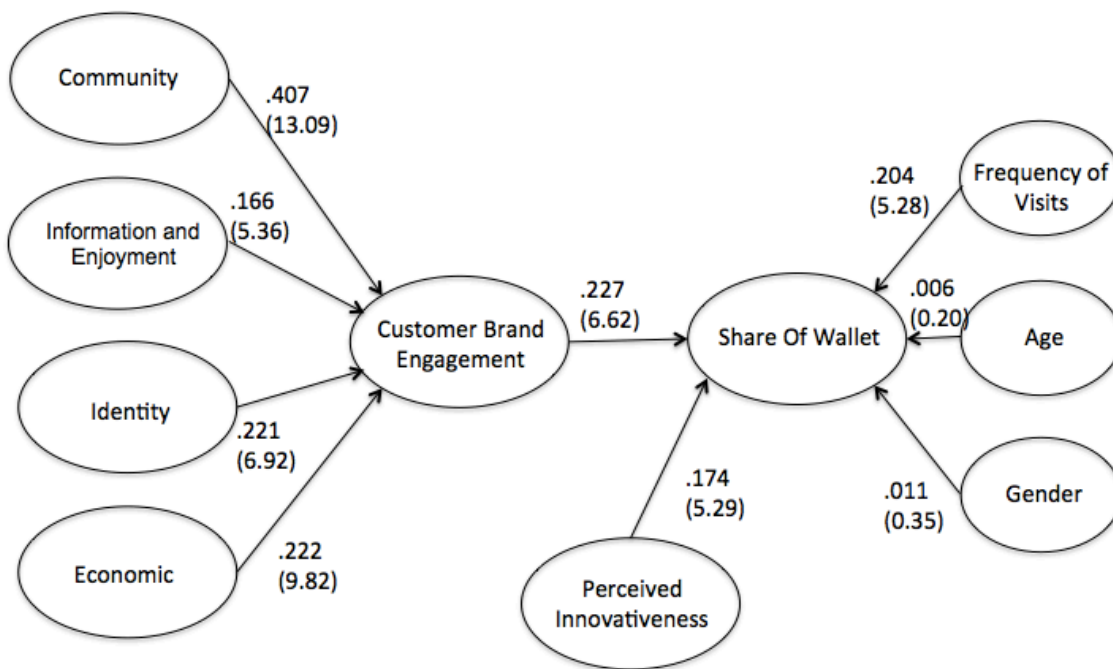


FIGURE 3 Empirical model (t-values in parentheses)

#### 4.4.2 Total effect

Total effect is the sum of the indirect effect and total effect and can reveal the effects of different constructs on a dependent variable (Hair et al. 2013). The results indicate that the largest total effect on SOW is exhibited by community (0.093), followed by economics (0.051) and identity (0.050). Of the four antecedents of engagement, therefore, community has the largest total effect on SOW (Table 6).

TABLE 6 Total effects

	SOW
Information	0.038 ***
Community	0.093 ***
Economic	0.051 ***
Identity	0.050 ***

Notes: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; ns - nonsignificant.

#### 4.4.3 Indirect effect

Moderation is an indirect effect that can be used to test concepts that explain the relationships between two constructs. A moderator variable may directly affect a relationship by strengthening or weakening the relationships between constructs (Hair et al. 2013). In this study, perceived innovativeness was used as a moderator. The results on moderating effect are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7 Moderation effect

	Moderating effect
Perceived innovativeness*CBE → SOW	0.096 **

Notes: \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*  $p < 0.05$ ; ns - nonsignificant.

The results of the test on moderating effect indicate that perceived innovativeness (H6) exerts a positive effect on the relationships between customer brand engagement and SOW, such that when perceived innovativeness is high, the link between customer brand engagement and SOW is strengthened. Without the moderating effect, the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW is 0.227; with the moderating effect, this relationship is 0.323. The moderator therefore significantly strengthens the relationship. That is, the more strongly a customer perceives himself/herself as innovative, the stronger the relationship between brand engagement and SOW. Thus, H6 is accepted.

## 5 DISCUSSION

The final chapter concludes the discussion of the empirical findings and elaborates the findings in relation to the theoretical background of the study. The research questions are also answered. On these bases, managerial implications are elucidated. The chapter also includes an evaluation of the study, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

### 5.1 Theoretical contributions

The importance of new engagement studies has been extensively emphasized in marketing research. For example, MSI recognizes customer engagement as a key research priority (MSI Research Priorities 2014–2016), and Brodie et al. (2011) point to the need for more empirical studies on the nature of customer engagement. The current research investigated the behavioral and experiential motivational drivers of customer brand engagement and its effects on SOW in the context of social media. Central to this study were the target organization's Facebook community and the community members' perceptions of engagement with the brand of the case company. This study also determined whether customer brand engagement and SOW are related. In addition, the research explored the moderating effect of perceived customer innovativeness on the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. From these perspectives, the following research questions were identified:

*How do behavioral and experiential motives affect customer brand engagement in a social media context?*

*How does customer brand engagement affect SOW in such context?*

*How does perceived customer innovativeness affect the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW?*

Four different motivational drivers—community, information and entertainment, identity (McWuail 1983), and economics (e.g., Gwinner et al. 1998)—were regarded as antecedents of engagement. The strongest perceived motivational driver, as identified by the case company's Facebook group members, is community, followed by economics- and identity-related drivers. The strongest and most significant path coefficient in the empirical model is that between community and customer brand engagement, indicating that members who are engaged with a brand consider community the most powerful motivational driver. Economics and identity are also evaluated as notable drivers of customer brand engagement. Information and enjoyment drivers are viewed with less importance, and they exhibit a slightly weaker path coefficient compared with those of the other drivers. Nevertheless, these two remain valid motivational drivers of customer brand engagement.

The results indicate that the Facebook group members who feel that they receive community-, economics-, and identity-related benefits from membership in the Facebook group are highly engaged with the brand. This finding is in line with early theory, which identifies the aforementioned motivations as drivers of brand engagement (e.g., Jahn and Kunz 2012; Muntinga et al. 2011; Tsai and Men 2012).

Almost no marketing study examines the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. Given this deficiency, one direction of interest was to investigate whether customer brand engagement and SOW are related. This study confirms the existence of a connection between the two concepts. We propose that customer engagement with a brand positively influences SOW. In other words, the percentage of the expenses that engaged customers allocate to a product and that goes to the firm selling the product is larger than those allocated by customers who are unengaged with a brand.

Another direction of interest was to investigate whether perceived customer innovativeness exerts a moderating effect on the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. This study proposes that perceived customer innovativeness has a slightly positive effect on the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. The number of studies that explore this connection is limited. This lack presents difficulties in establishing a link between engagement and SOW.

In this study, gender, age, and frequency of visits were used as control variables. Gender and age have no significant effect on SOW, whereas frequency of visits exerts a positive effect on SOW. These findings indicate that the more often a customer visits a community site, the larger the SOW. In other words, customers who are active users and frequent visitors of a community site allocate large amounts of their expenses to the products (in a given product category) of the firm that owns the site.

## 5.2 Managerial implications

In terms of management, this study aimed to enhance the knowledge of managers regarding customer brand engagement and SOW and to provide insight into the drivers that affect customer brand engagement. An important issue for consideration is the manner by which customers engage with companies (van Doorn et al. 2010) because such examination enhances profitability (Voyles 2007), advances the understanding of service performance and customer outcomes (Bowden 2009), and enables the delineation of the important roles that engaged customers play in new product/service development (Nambisan 2008). Customer engagement is also regarded as a strategic imperative for establishing and sustaining a competitive advantage and as a valuable predictor of future business performance (Brodie et al. 2011). These reasons clearly indicate why marketers should enhance their knowledge of customer brand engagement; such knowledge helps them secure and manage brand position.

Taking into account the engagement drivers in the manner by which Facebook group members perceive them affords managers an avenue from which to enhance customer engagement. This study's invocation results on engagement drivers provide an opportunity to create strong relationships between brands and customers.

If engagement drivers are meaningful for customers, a reasonable approach is to continue emphasizing the drivers that exert the strongest influence on customer brand engagement. If managers deem some engagement drivers inappropriate, they can steer engagement schemes toward a more appropriate direction with existing marketing activities. In this study, the strongest brand engagement drivers are community, economics, and identity. On the basis of the results, therefore, organizations should emphasize community-, economics-, and identity-related motivational drivers in their marketing activities. Community is particularly the most valuable driver. Organizations' brand community strategies should be grounded on the stimulation of feelings such as we-intentions (De Valck et al. 2009) and belongingness, as well as a feeling that members matter to one another and have shared faith (Shao 2009). All the four motivational drivers of customer brand engagement presented in this study should be reflected in an organization's marketing communication. Furthermore, marketing communication should be consistently implemented across all marketing channels to ensure that a strong and unified brand image is created and retained in the minds of brand community members.

The relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW is positive and significant, indicating that an important component is to support processes that advance customer brand engagement for the purpose of improving customer SOW. Such improvement, in turn, enhances revenue flow. Managers should also recognize that perceived customer innovativeness influences the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. Finally, frequency of visits exerts a positive effect on SOW. Thus, managers

should implement strategies for increasing frequency of visits, especially from innovative customers.

### 5.3 Evaluation of research

In the field of social sciences, the most extensively used methodology for empirical research is testing research quality through construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability (Yin 2003). The validity of research generally refers to situations wherein research methods and results reflect the actual reality of a studied phenomenon (Roe and Just 2009). Reliability pertains to the repeatability of a study (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009). Yin (2003) discusses the consideration of whether results vary when different researchers perform the same study at a different period with the same measures and scales. Tested hypotheses based on theory and previous research should correspond with the concepts developed by a researcher (Bryman and Bell 2007). The core task in determining construct validity is to assess whether operational measures are correctly set in evaluating theorized concepts (Yin 2003).

In this study, all the measures were designed to fit theorized conceptualizations and definitions that are based on previous research. All the measures were drawn from previous peer-reviewed scientific releases. They were tested with similar hypotheses and confirmed effective. The correlation between variables that measure a single construct in comparison with other constructs is significant in all the cases. According to Mestämuuronen (2006), factor identification is a relevant indicator of construct validity (Table 3).

In cases wherein empirical research is designed to verify causal relationships, internal validity evaluation is relevant. An example of causal relationships is whether factor  $x$  affects factor  $y$ . Internal validity refers to the observation of the direction of causal relationships; an incorrect observation of relationships between factors leads to failed internal validity (Yin 2003). Roe and Just (2009) state that internal validity pertains to a researcher's ability to analyze the causality of relationships through identified correlations. In this study, the internal validity was based on previous research; all the causal relationships were theoretically justified and the hypotheses were carefully developed. External validity refers to situations wherein identified relationships can be generalized to another sample of people, periods, or settings (Roe and Just 2009).

The sample size of this study is 818, which is fairly high. An important issue to remember, however, is that this study focused on only one community. This feature constrains generalization. Moreover, the community was a company's Finnish Facebook fan page, and nonglobal and survey data were collected on a voluntary basis. Results for different cultures or countries may differ. Nevertheless, the sample derived for this work includes different respondents, and their answers were comparatively equally distributed.

In research, the reliability of a study refers to repeatability or the extent to which a different researcher in a different period can conduct the study in exactly the same manner, under the same conditions (i.e., same procedures and scales), and with the same results. Consistent and careful documentation of the research process is required to achieve reliability (Yin 2003). In this study, all the phases of the study and the overall process were carefully documented and explained to enable repetition. As indicated in Section 4.3, the reliability and validity of the measurement model were analyzed by several indices. Factor loadings and Cronbach's alphas were used to measure the reliability of the measurement model (Bagozzi and Yi 2012).

Our measurement model is reliable because all the factor loadings exceed the suggested limit (0.60). All the Cronbach's alpha values (except that of economics, 0.652) exceed .70. This acceptable alpha value has nonetheless been debated. A study (Mestsämuuroinen 2006) considers an alpha value higher than .60 acceptable. On the whole, nearly all the values in the present research can be regarded as reliable.

According to Fornell and Lacker (1981), the validity of a measurement model can be determined by using AVE values and their square roots. All the AVE values in the current work exceed the suggested limit of .50, and the squared AVE values exceed those of the factor correlation. Thus, both of these instruments' values are satisfactory and indicate good measurement validity.

## 5.4 Limitations of the research

One of the main purposes of quantitative research is to enable generalization from a studied sample to the entire population that the sample represents (Bryman and Bell 2007). In this work, the sample was acquired through voluntary participation motivated with a prize draw. Accordingly, the sampling method used was convenience sampling, which is a readily accessible approach (Bryman and Bell 2007). We can assume that only the most active members would have participated in the survey. As indicated by the response backgrounds, however, the survey reached members with different histories of activity in the studied online brand community. The limitations presented by perceived and actual behavior are usually included in these kinds of surveys. In this study, for example, levels of engagement behavior were treated as subjective measures and these measures may not precisely correspond to real-world behavior. Moreover, differences may exist between perceived and actual customer innovativeness.

The measurement model is sufficiently reliable and valid, except for the economic dimension, for which an invalid Cronbach's alpha may have been obtained. A low alpha value indicates the attachment of potentially inconsistent variables to a factor. Thus, the results related to economics should be evaluated with caution given that reliability may be questionable. Additionally, some of



the original variables had to be excluded from further factor analysis because they lack communalities or imply the presence of multicollinearity (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). These variables were identified as excessively closely related and therefore encumber the overall construct identification and model fit. The information and enjoyment items were also highly related that they were combined to form a new construct (i.e., information and enjoyment). According to Mestämuuronen (2006), carefully defining constructs is one of the most crucial contributing factors to research success.

The original language of the scales was English and because the study object was a Finnish Facebook community, the scales were translated into Finnish. Careful translation and checking were implemented to guarantee the accuracy of the translation. The core meaning of each item was also appropriately translated. Translation typically presents problems. Thus, translation necessitates a thorough understanding of constructs and measures because such understanding enables capturing the essence of a language in other languages and cultures. These issues should be considered in evaluating the results of this study. Another important requirement is expertise in examining the concepts under consideration.

## 5.5 Future research

The issue undertaken in this study is topical and timely. More empirical studies should therefore be devoted to elucidating the nature of customer engagement (Jahn and Kunz 2012; Brodie et al. 2011), and different types of brand communities should be investigated to identify similar engagement behaviors or engagement behavior dimensions (Gummerus et al. 2012). Several possible directions for future research arose during the study. The limitations of this work are primarily study related to context given its concentration on only one brand community in a particular industry.

The model used in this research should be evaluated and tested in other communities, industries, cultures, and contexts. This study can also be expanded by comparing several communities in the same industry or comparing the communities of the different brands owned by the same corporation. A relevant and rewarding endeavor may be to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in studying customer brand engagement or (for example) the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. In this study, only one moderating effect was used. In future research, different moderating effects should be explored and evaluated to determine potential new moderating items that affect the relationship between customer brand engagement and SOW. Future studies should also investigate different motivational drivers of engagement. Although the drivers chosen for this study are principal drivers that have emerged from early engagement studies, a few

studies include other possible engagement drivers, such as empowerment (Men and Tsai 2013). A final recommendation for future study is to expand this work by adding data from Facebook's own analytic system and comparing these with our results. Facebook produces numerous data on customer behavior on the site; researchers can develop an algorithm for measuring engagement.

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## APPENDIX 1

### LIST OF SURVEY ITEMS IN ENGLISH

#### Community

COM1 I am as interested in input from other users as I am in the content generated by company

COM2 I like company's FB-site because of what I get from other users

COM3 Company's FB-site gets its visitors to converse or comment

COM4 I have become interested in things, which I otherwise would not have, because of other users on the site

#### Information

INF1 I get good tips from the content

INF2 The content helps me to learn from new products or solutions

INF3 The content shows me how people live

INF4 The content helps me to improve myself

INF5 The content helps me learn what to do or how to do it

#### Enjoyment

ENJ1 I find following content enjoyable

ENJ2 Following content helps me improve my mood

ENJ3 While I consume the content, I do not think about which site to go to next

ENJ4 The content entertains me

ENJ5 I like to relax with the content

#### Identity

IDE1 Following content makes me a more interesting person

IDE2 Contributing to this content makes me feel like I belong in a group

IDE3 I want other people to know that I am reading this content

#### Economic

ECO1 I write comments and/or like posts on virtual platform because of the incentives I can receive

ECO2 I write comments and/or like posts on virtual platform because I can receive a reward for the writing and liking

#### Contribution

CON1 I engage in conversations and comment in company's FB-site

CON2 I often like (like-function in FB) contents from company's FB-site

CON3 I use to contribute in conversations in company's FB-site

CON4 I often share company's contents in FB

**Fan-Page Engagement**

---

FPE1 I am an engaged member of this fan-page community

---

FPE2 I am an active member of this fan-page community

---

FPE3 I am a participating member of this fan-page community

---

**Personal Innovativeness**

---

PI1 If I heard about a new domestic appliance technology, I would look for ways of experimenting with it

---

PI2 Among my peers, I am usually the first to explore new domestic appliance technologies

---

PI3 I like to experiment with new domestic appliance technologies

---

PI4 In general, I am hesitant to try out new domestic appliance technologies

---

**Share of Wallet**

---

SOW1 What percentage of your total expenditures for domestic appliance technologies do you spend for company's products?

---

SOW2 Of the 10 times you select to buy domestic appliance technologies, how many times do you select company?

---

**Gender**

---

Men/Female

---

**Age**

---

Under 18

---

18-25

---

26-35

---

36-45

---

46-55

---

Over 55

---

**Frequency of visit**

---

Daily

---

4-6 times per week

---

1-3 times

---

2-3 times per month

---

Once a month or seldom

---

## APPENDIX 2

### SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE IN FINNISH / KYSELYLOMAKE SUOMEKSI

#### Kokemuksia yrityksen Facebook -yhteisöstä

Vastaa lyhyeen kyselyyn yrityksen Facebook -sisällöstä. Kyselyyn vastanneiden ja yhteystietonsa ilmoittaneiden kesken arvotaan yrityksen tuote.

Kyselyn tarkoituksena on selvittää yrityksen Facebook -sivun merkitystä yhteisön käyttäjille.

Kysely toteutetaan Jyväskylän yliopiston kauppakorkeakoulun markkinoinnin pro gradu -työnä ja kyselyn vastaukset käsitellään nimettömänä eli vastauksia ei voida yhdistää vastaajaan. Lisätietoja saat tarvittaessa alla olevista yhteystiedoista.

Vastausaikaa on **16.3.2014** saakka.

Vastauksesi on arvokas!

Ystävällisin terveisin  
Severi Tiensuu  
severi.tiensuu@jyu.fi  
Markkinoinnin opiskelija

#### 1. Ikä?

- Alle 18    18-25    26-35    36-45    46-55    Yli 55

#### 2. Sukupuoli?

- Mies    Nainen

#### 3. Kuinka usein vieraillet yrityksen Facebook -sivuilla?

- Päivittäin    4-6 kertaa viikossa    1-3 kertaa viikossa    2-3 kertaa kuukaudessa    kerran kuukaudessa tai harvemmin

#### 4. Arvioi kuinka suuren % -osuuden kodinelektroniikkaan käyttämästäsi rahamäärästä kulutat yrityksen tuotteisiin?

- 0    10    20    30    40    50    60    70    80    90  
 100

5. Kun mietit 10 viimeisintä kodinelektronikkaostostasi, arvioi kuinka monta kertaa ostoksesi oli yrityksen tuote

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

6. Arvioi uusien innovaatioiden omaksumistasi. Vastaa seuraaviin väittämiin

	Täysin eri mieltä	Melko eri mieltä	Ei eri eikä samaa mieltä	Melko samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä
Jos kuulen uudesta teknologiasta, haluaisin päästä kokeilemaan sitä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olen ystäväistäni usein ensimmäinen, joka tutustuu uusiin teknologioihin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Haluan kokeilla uutta teknologiaa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Useimmiten epäröin kokeilla uusia teknologioita	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. Miten sinä koet yrityksen Facebook -sivun sisällön? Vastaa seuraaviin väittämiin

	Täysin eri mieltä	Melko eri mieltä	Ei eri eikä samaa mieltä	Melko samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä
Sisältö viihdyttää minua	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisältöä seuraamalla tunnen kuuluvani johonkin ryhmään	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tykkään rentoutua sisällön parissa	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisällön avulla oppii uusista tuotteista tai ratkaisuista	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kirjoitan kommentteja ja/tai tykkään sisällöstä yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivuilla, koska voin saada kannustimia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Saan sisällöstä hyviä vinkkejä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisällön seuraaminen auttaa parantamaan mielialaani	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisällön avulla näen toisten käyttäjien elämää	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Haluan muiden tietävän minun lukevan näitä sisältöjä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisällön tarkastelun aikana en mieti, mille sivustolle seuraavaksi menisin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kirjoitan kommentteja ja/tai tykkään sisällöstä yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivuilla, koska voin saada palkintoja kirjoittamisesta tai tykkäämisestä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



Sisällön seuraaminen tekee minusta mielenkiintoisemman ihmisen muiden silmissä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Koen sisällön seuraamisen nautinnolliseksi	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisältö auttaa minua kehittämään itseäni	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sisällön avulla opin mitä tehdä tai miten tehdä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. Miten sinä koet yrityksen Facebook -sivun? Vastaa seuraaviin väittämiin

	Täysin eri mieltä	Melko eri mieltä	Ei eri eikä samaa mieltä	Melko samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä
Osallistun yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivulla keskusteluihin ja kommentointiin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olen yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -yhteisön osallistuva jäsen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tykkään yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivusta erityisesti, koska koen saavani jotain toisilta lukijoilta	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olen kiinnostunut toisten sivuston seuraajien takia asioista, joista en muuten olisi kiinnostunut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olen yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -yhteisön kiintynyt jäsen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jaan usein yrityksen sisältöä <u>Facebookissa</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Otan osaa keskusteluun yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivulla	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olen yhtä kiinnostunut toisten lukijoiden kommentaista sivustolla kuin olen yrityksen tuottamasta sisällöstä	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tykkään (painan <u>tykkää-nappia</u> ) usein sisällöstä, jotka ovat yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivulla	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Osallistun usein yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -yhteisössä kommentointiin ja sisältöjen jakamiseen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -sivu onnistuu saamaan vierailijat keskustelemaan tai kommentoimaan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Olen yrityksen <u>Facebook</u> -yhteisö aktiivinen jäsen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>