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**CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT:
PERCEIVED BENEFITS AND EFFECT OF INDIVIDUAL AND BRAND
PERSONALITY ON ENGAGEMENT BEHAVIORS**

A Dissertation Presented

by

YANA GEORGIEVA ANDONOVA

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2016

Isenberg School of Management

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CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT: PERCEIVED BENEFITS AND EFFECT OF
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ABSTRACT

CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT: PERCEIVED BENEFITS AND EFFECT OF INDIVIDUAL AND BRAND PERSONALITY ON ENGAGEMENT BEHAVIORS

MAY 2016

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Customer engagement has been defined as “the customer’s behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” (van Doorn et al. 2010, p. 254). The term is often used to refer to creating experiences that allow companies to build deeper, more meaningful and sustainable interactions with their customers (The Economist 2007). While practitioners have been very interested in customer engagement as it is believed to lead to loyalty, academic interest toward customer engagement as a separate construct has been somewhat limited (van Doorn et al. 2010). This research extends the literature on customer engagement by looking at internal and external motivational factors driving engagement and by showing that individual and brand characteristics affect consumer inclination to engage.

This dissertation consists of two essays. Essay 1 presents a typology of customer engagement behaviors based on perceived motivational benefits driving those behaviors.

This typology will be useful to marketers as it outlines important benefits derived from engaging in an extensive list of engagement behaviors and suggests how to motivate groups of behaviors based on salient benefits. In addition, the typology can be extended to new social media networks which may become available in the future. Further, understanding what motivational benefits are important for different groups of behaviors is key in order to encourage desired engagement behaviors. Essay 2 examines the effect of individual and brand personality on customer engagement. In particular, we explore how individual attachment style impacts one's likelihood to engage with brands. We also study whether consumer perceptions of the brand as sincere or exciting affect customer engagement and brand attachment. Further, we examine the role of brand familiarity on the relationship between brand personality, attachment style, and engagement.

Essay 1 draws upon the Uses and Gratifications Framework (Blumler and Katz 1974; Katz et al. 1974) which has been used to explain various engagement behaviors including participation in virtual communities, social networking, and blogs (Raacke and Bonds-Raacke 2008). We apply this framework to understand a wider range of customer engagement behaviors. In addition, we extend the four benefits comprising the framework (cognitive, social integrative, personal integrative, and hedonic), to include an additional type of benefit — economic benefits.

This essay contributes to the theory on customer engagement by creating a typology of engagement behaviors. Currently, marketers are concerned with increasing engagement as a whole, but due to the broad scope of this construct, it might be more effective to target specific clusters of engagement behaviors instead.

Essay 2 examines the effect of individual and brand personality on customer engagement behaviors. This essay makes three primary theoretical contributions. First, it begins to shed light on what are some of the personality characteristics differentiating engaged consumers. In particular, this essay shows that consumers with secure attachment styles tend to be more engaged than consumers with anxious attachment styles. Second, this research also contributes to the literature on brand relationships: we explore whether the way consumers relate to others mirrors the way they relate to brands. Last, to our knowledge, the effect of brand personality on customer engagement has not been examined. This essay has several managerial implications. First, it helps marketers identify personality characteristics that differentiate consumers that are more likely to engage. In addition, this essay also identifies some important brand characteristics that draw consumers to engage.

This dissertation is one of the first attempts to use an integrative approach toward examining online customer engagement behaviors. Previous studies have either focused on one specific behavior or have conceptually discussed customer engagement. In this research, we create a typology of customer engagement by categorizing the different engagement behaviors on the basis of their perceived benefits. By classifying an extensive list of engagement behaviors with respect to their perceived motivational benefits, we create a nuanced typology of engagement behaviors which contributes to the theory on customer engagement. We also show that individual attachment style and brand personality affect customer engagement. In particular, we show that consumers with secure attachment style are more likely to engage with brands compared to consumers with anxious attachment style. Last, this research shows that brand familiarity is an

important factor affecting engagement especially for consumers who have anxious attachment style.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Customer Engagement: Definition and Research Gaps

Customer engagement refers to “the customer’s behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” (van Doorn et al. 2010, p. 254). Consumer interactions with the brand or company are central to the customer engagement concept and have implications for relationship building. Moreover, it has been proposed that customer engagement is related to loyalty (Bowden 2009) and is thus critical in achieving long-term company success. Therefore, understanding customer engagement has important theoretical and managerial implications as it impacts key marketing variables.

Despite the recent interest in customer engagement in the marketing literature, most of the research in this area has been purely conceptual (Kumar et al. 2010; van Doorn et al. 2010; Verhoef et al. 2010). There is little understanding regarding the motivations for customer engagement and even less knowledge about how these motivations differ across different engagement behaviors. Essay 1 of this dissertation attempts to address this gap. In this essay, we focus on internal and external motivations. In particular, we look at the perceived benefits associated with an extensive list of engagement behaviors. Analyzing survey data using hierarchical cluster analysis, we create a typology of customer engagement behaviors that differ on their motivational benefits.

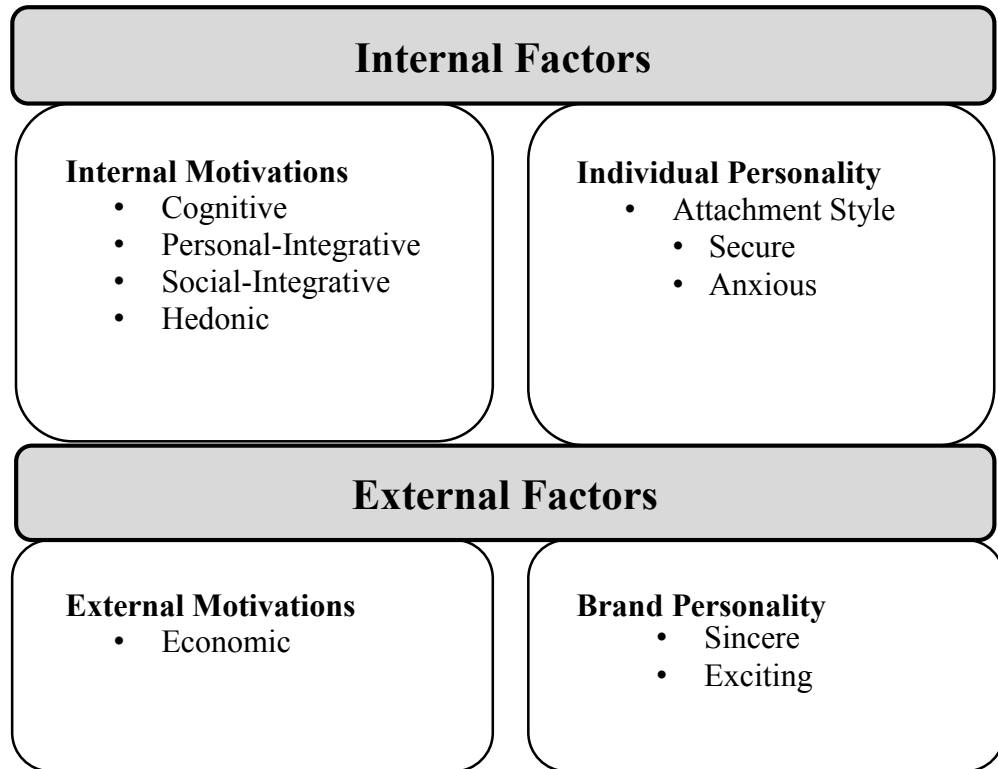
Essay 2 examines the effect of attachment style and brand personality on customer engagement behaviors. Results show that consumers with secure attachment styles are likely to engage more than consumers with anxious attachment styles. In addition, we show that brand familiarity is important for engagement, especially for consumers with anxious attachment style. Figure 1.1 displays the scope of this dissertation.

1.2 Contributions

This dissertation contributes to the literature on customer engagement in several ways. Previous research has not examined the benefits that consumers derive from engagement or systematically reviewed different types of engagement behaviors. Research has also not explored whether and how personality and brand characteristics affect engagement behaviors.

This dissertation has several managerial contributions. First, it outlines the important motivational benefits for different customer engagement behaviors. Knowing these benefits will help managers encourage behaviors by appealing to these motivations. Second, our findings suggest that consumers with secure attachment styles are more likely to engage with brands compared to consumers with anxious attachment styles. We also find that brand familiarity positively affects engagement likelihood. This effect is stronger for individuals with an anxious attachment style.

Figure 1.1
Drivers of Customer Engagement



CHAPTER TWO

A TYPOLOGY OF CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction

It has become increasingly difficult for companies to reach their customers using traditional media. The majority of TV viewers either mute or switch channels during commercial breaks and only one third of them watch the commercials (Urban 2005). Further, the average time spent watching TV is decreasing and is about the same as the time spent browsing online (Urban 2005). Although the internet and the rise of social networks have facilitated new ways in which consumers can interact with companies, brands, and other consumers, they have also created distracted consumers. As a result, it has become challenging for companies to find ways to keep their customers' attention. Against this backdrop, customer engagement has emerged as an important recent development in customer management (Verhoef et al. 2010). Moreover, its importance has been underscored by the Marketing Science Institute (MSI) listing customer engagement as one of its top research priorities (MSI 2010-2016).

2.2 Background Literature

2.2.1 Definition of Customer Engagement

Given that engagement is a relatively new construct, a few different conceptualizations of engagement are found in the literature. Customer engagement has been defined as “the customer’s behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” (van Doorn et al. 2010).

Kumar et al. (2010) argue that the definition of customer engagement is incomplete without including customer purchases from the firm. However, a person can be engaged with a brand even without owning the brand; someone who likes sports cars, but does not have the disposable income to purchase one, may still read everything about that specific car make and its features. Although this person is not a current customer, one day he or she might become one and thus might have a future customer lifetime value for this company. This customer value may even be realized sooner (before a purchase has been made) through word of mouth as an engaged fan is likely to discuss the car with potential buyers. We agree with van Doorn et al. (2010) that purchase is not a prerequisite for customer engagement; nevertheless, we consider it an engagement behavior. Other examples of engagement behaviors include writing reviews, seeking product information, signing up for loyalty rewards, and liking a company Facebook page. A complete list of the engagement behaviors considered in this dissertation is provided in Table 2.1.

Customer engagement has also been defined as the “intensity of an individual’s participation in and connection with an organization’s offerings or organizational activities” (Vivek et al. 2012). This definition reflects the emotional state accompanying engagement behaviors; it is unclear if it includes content consumption as part of engagement. Yet, practitioners consider content consumption the first building block of engagement (Evans 2010). Therefore, in this dissertation we use the definition of engagement provided by van Doorn et al. (2010): “the customer’s behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers.”

2.2.2 Online Customer Engagement and Other Forms of Engagement

In this dissertation, we focus on online customer engagement behaviors. These include four broad activities: consumption, curation, collaboration, and creation (Evans 2010). These activities form the construct of customer engagement, which differs from other types of engagement, such as media engagement and brand engagement, in that customer engagement is primarily considered a behavioral construct while media engagement and brand engagement both refer to a psychological state or process (van Doorn et al. 2010). Next, we discuss five different conceptions of engagement: media engagement, brand engagement, customer engagement, online customer engagement, and customer brand engagement. Their definitions are presented in Table 2.2.

Media engagement focuses on the consumer's psychological experience while consuming media (Calder and Malthouse 2008). While new media such as social networks provide a platform for participating in customer engagement behaviors, it is the behavioral focus of customer engagement that differentiates it from media engagement. Brand engagement differs from customer engagement as it refers to "consumers' propensity to include important brands as part of how they view themselves" (Spratt et al. 2009). Thus, brand engagement is more of a psychological state. Because brand engagement does not necessarily have an explicit behavioral aspect, it is considered similar to consumer psychology concepts such as self-brand connection and customer-brand relationships (van Doorn et al. 2010). Customer engagement, on the other hand, is a behavioral phenomenon and it is this behavioral focus that differentiates customer engagement from other related constructs including brand engagement (van Doorn et al. 2010). More narrowly, customer brand engagement is defined as the specific interactions

between a focal customer and a particular brand (Hollebeek 2011). Customer engagement is a broader construct than customer brand engagement because it includes not only the interactions between a customer and a brand, but also the interactions between the customer and the company as well as those among the customers. Last, online customer engagement behaviors refer to engagement behaviors facilitated by an online environment.

Customer engagement behaviors result from motivational drivers (van Doorn et al. 2010). Van Doorn et al. (2010) describe these behaviors as falling on a continuum, ranging from pure voice (e.g. complaint behavior, positive or negative recommendation, positive or negative WOM) to pure exit (Hirschman 1970). Further, customer engagement allows for value creation and the customer is always a co-creator of value (Vargo and Lusch 2008).

2.3 The Customer Engagement Process

Evans (2010) suggests that the foundational blocks of engagement include consumption, curation, creation, and collaboration. These forms fall on a continuum with consumption being the most passive form of engagement and creation and collaboration--the most active forms. Content consumption involves reading material that others have created such as reviews or posts. Curation includes rating or commenting. Collaboration behaviors are replying to others' comments or writing reviews. Co-creation behaviors include participating in contests or blogs where customers provide an input for a new product concept or redesign. In this dissertation we examine engagement behaviors from all four major categories. Next, we discuss each of these forms in more detail.

2.3.1 Content Consumption

Consumption in the context of social media refers to downloading, reading, watching, or listening to digital content (Evans 2010). As it is the starting point for most online activities (Evans 2010), content consumption is the most passive form of customer engagement. One can read product or service reviews or visit brand communities for strictly informative purposes without any intention to create content or interact with other consumers, the company or the brand. The majority of customers use a brand community mainly as a source of information rather than actively contributing to the community (Gummerus et al. 2012). Customers may be reluctant to create content due to a variety of reasons including time constraints or other perceived costs outweighing the benefits from engaging (van Doorn et al. 2010), belief that there is no need for additional input as information is already abundant, and privacy considerations (Heller Baird and Parasnis 2011).

Although content consumption might be considered a less valuable engagement form compared to content creation, someone who is engaged in reading about a brand or a company, could still have an important influence on other consumers. For example, an individual who is engaged with Apple might read everything about the company and brand, but choose not to create any content such as product reviews or replies to questions posted online by other consumers. Yet this person can act as a brand advocate offline by promoting the brand to their friends during conversations and this behavior could make them even more committed to the brand (Garnefeld et al. 2011). Therefore, consumption is also an important form of engagement.

2.3.2 Curation

Curation is defined as “the act of sorting and filtering, rating, reviewing, commenting on, tagging or otherwise describing content” (Evans 2010). Evans (2010) states that curation makes content more useful to others. Unlike consumption, curation allows for a two-way interaction — a comment to a post will generate other comments.

2.3.3 Creation

Content creation requires that community members “offer up something that they have made themselves” (Evans 2010) such as uploading a picture they took. Related to creation is co-creation. It is suggested that customer engagement encompasses customer co-creation (van Doorn et al. 2010). Customer co-creation is defined as “the (customer) participation in the creation of the core offering itself” (Lusch and Vargo 2006). An example of co-creation is when a customer chooses to customize a product.

2.3.4 Collaboration

Online environments provide a medium for interactivity and it is this interactivity which is central to the engagement concept (Brodie et al. 2011). Social media is described as “a group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content” (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010) which could be considered a collaborative activity. Evans (2010) places collaboration on top of what he calls “the building blocks of engagement.” Collaboration and co-creation are activities that entail a greater degree of engagement compared to content consumption and as such may result in greater value for companies. Furthermore, collaboration is considered a process that binds community members together (Evans 2010).

Although the framework proposed by Evans classifies engagement behaviors into groups, it does not account for the motivations behind different engagement behaviors. Yet, understanding these motivations is important in order to motivate desired behaviors. In this essay, we examine the motivations behind engagement behaviors to propose a typology of engagement based on consumer motivations in the form of perceived benefits derived from engagement. As motivations are antecedents to engagement behaviors, we review the current literature on antecedents next.

2.4 Antecedents of Customer Engagement

Three broad factors that affect engagement have been suggested in the literature: firm based, context based, and customer based (van Doorn et al. 2010). Firm-based relate to characteristics of the firm such as brand characteristics, firm reputation, and firm size. Brands with high reputation or high brand equity are likely to have higher levels of positive engagement behaviors (De Matos and Rossi 2008).

Context-based factors refer to competition and the environment (political, economic, and technological). Context-based factors include competitor actions as well as political, economic/environmental, social and technological factors. Technological factors such as advances in technology have turned a significant part of consumers into “connected” consumers — consumers who are always connected to the internet in some way either via their phone, laptop, or tablet.

Customer-based antecedents refer to attitudinal antecedents (van Doorn et al. 2010). These include customer satisfaction (Anderson and Mittal 2000; Palmatier et al. 2006), brand commitment (Garbarino and Johnson 1999), trust (De Matos and Rossi 2008), brand attachment (Schau et al. 2009), and brand performance perceptions (Mittal

et al. 1999). Individual customer traits and predispositions can also lead to customer engagement (van Doorn et al. 2010). For example, consumers with a high need for self-enhancement have been shown to engage more in WOM (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Sundaram et al. 1998). Self-enhancement refers to the need to feel good about oneself and seek positive evaluations from others (Jones 1973). Self-enhancement is considered not only a trait, but also a process (Sedikides and Gregg 2008).

Emotional states such as delight, disgust, regret, or anger can affect customer engagement (van Doorn et al. 2010). In addition to these, situational factors including time, effort, and money can also influence consumers' intention to engage. Although all of the above-mentioned factors motivate engagement, we focus on the perceived benefits from engagement behaviors. It has been suggested that concerns about the benefits from engaging is a key factor hindering engagement (Noble and Phillips 2004), thus examining the perceived benefits from different behaviors contributes to our understanding of customer engagement. Consumers engage both for internal and external reasons. In the following sections we elaborate on those internal and external motivations.

2.4.1 Internal Motivations

A framework useful for understanding the internal motivations is the Uses and Gratifications framework (Blumler and Katz 1974; Katz et al. 1974). According to this framework people select media based on their needs and gratification-seeking motives. Originally developed to explain engagement with TV media, the Uses and Gratifications framework has been adapted to studies of internet use (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004), participation in virtual communities (Nambisan and Baron 2009), and online interactions on social media (Rohm et al. 2014). Since we are studying online engagement behaviors,

this framework is appropriate to adapt to our context. We discuss the framework in greater detail next.

2.4.1.1 Uses and Gratifications Framework

The Uses and Gratifications framework identifies four types of benefits that individuals obtain from using media: cognitive, social integrative, personal integrative and hedonic benefits. In this section we describe each of these benefits in relation to engagement behaviors.

Cognitive benefits relate to obtaining information and understanding of the environment. Engagement behaviors such as visiting a company webpage and reading reviews provide consumers with useful information which increases consumer knowledge about the company and its products or services and thus deliver cognitive benefits.

Social integrative benefits refer to strengthening consumer's relations with relevant others. In addition to providing cognitive benefits, visiting a company webpage also offers opportunities for interaction with the brand and other consumers via links to the company blog and/or social media pages, which in turn could create a sense of community and thus deliver social-integrative benefits. Following a company on social media gives consumers access to a brand community where they have the opportunity to interact with others and the company, as a result of which they could feel closer to the brand, company, and other consumers. While some behaviors, such as visiting a company website, provide both cognitive and social-integrative benefits, either or both of these benefits will serve as motivators.

Personal-Integrative benefits relate to improving the credibility and confidence of the individual. Because Personal-Integrative benefits refer to gains in reputation or status and the achievement of greater self-efficacy (Katz et al. 1974), we anticipate behaviors showcasing one's expertise such as writing reviews or replying to consumer questions to be high on personal integrative benefits.

Hedonic benefits strengthen aesthetic or pleasurable experiences. Engagement behaviors that are experiential in their nature such as watching an ad and playing games online should provide consumers with more hedonic benefits compared to non-experiential behaviors.

To investigate the motivations driving consumers to engage online with companies and brands, we conducted twelve in-depth interviews with college students. These interviews revealed an additional, external motivation, not captured by the Uses and Gratifications framework, namely economic incentives.

2.4.2 External Motivations

To understand the motivations behind customer engagement, we conducted a qualitative study which consisted of twelve in-depth interviews with college students¹. Analysis of the interviews suggested that economic rewards are an important reason for interacting with brands on social media.

¹ This study is described in detail in Appendix A.

Companies often provide incentives to encourage engagement (i.e. coupons, free gifts, or sweepstakes) and these economic benefits are overlooked by the Uses and Gratifications framework. For example, signing up for company email provides consumers with special offers that they may otherwise not know about. Behaviors that provide consumers with savings such as joining a loyalty rewards program or downloading a coupon should be high on economic benefits compared to other types of engagement behaviors.

In this dissertation we focus on online engagement behaviors. As these behaviors are mediated by technology, the Uses and Gratifications framework is a suitable framework to adapt. The goal of the current work is to seek to understand whether the broad range of engagement behaviors that exist can be classified on the basis of motivations to engage in them. Prior research has usually focused on one type of engagement behavior at a time and has not explored the similarities or differences between different types of engagement behaviors. While extant research has suggested broad antecedents to engagement behaviors (van Doorn et al. 2010), how the behaviors vary across those antecedents has not been empirically examined. Understanding the motivations behind groups of engagement behaviors will offer potential insights into how marketers can motivate these behaviors more efficiently.

In study 1 we build upon the Uses and Gratifications framework to explore how engagement behaviors differ based on the customer perceived benefits associated with engaging in those behaviors. Further, we extend this framework to include an additional benefit — economic incentives.

2.5 Study 1: Perceived Benefits of Customer Engagement Behaviors

To compare how engagement behaviors differ on the basis of their perceived benefits, we first identified a long list of engagement behaviors. For a complete list of the behaviors used in this study, please refer to Table 2.1. The behaviors included in the study were selected after reviewing company websites across different product categories as well as companies that have the highest virtual presence (largest number of likes or followers). The goal of reviewing those websites was to examine what opportunities are offered for engagement. Common opportunities for engagement across the different websites reviewed were then selected for the study. The opportunities for engagement (behaviors) included to represent the customer engagement construct are consistent with what practitioners consider engagement behaviors — these include a diverse range of behaviors such as visiting a website, viewing an ad, making a referral, blogging about a product, and rating a product online (LaPointe 2008).

2.5.1 Method

2.5.1.1 Sample and Data Collection

The data for the study were collected on Amazon Mechanical Turk. Two hundred and sixty-two participants completed the survey and were compensated forty cents for their participation. This payment rate is consistent with practices on this site. Amazon Mechanical Turk is considered a reliable source of subjects (Berinsky et al. 2012; Buhrmester et al. 2011; Goodman et al. 2013).

Ten participants completed the survey in less than 5 minutes and failed an attention check measure; these participants were deleted, leaving a sample size of 252. Participants were instructed that they would be asked to evaluate five online behaviors

and told that it may help to think of a brand they like when evaluating each of the behaviors. After seeing each behavior, they were asked to think how they would feel if they were engaged in doing that behavior and were then presented with the scales for the perceived benefits.

Seventy-nine percent of the participants were between 19-34 years old and 38.9% were women. Sixty-nine percent indicated they follow brands or companies on social media. On average participants reported following 9 brands. Participants were also presented with a list of the behaviors and asked to indicate which behaviors on that list they have participated in (Table 2.1 displays the groups of behaviors along with the percent of respondents in our sample who had engaged in the behaviors, this number is listed in parentheses next to each behavior).

2.5.1.2 Measurement

To measure the perceived cognitive, personal integrative, social integrative and hedonic benefits for each of the behaviors, we used existing scales from the literature. For a list of the scales used, please refer to Appendix B. With the exception of economic benefits for which there was no established scale in the context of customer engagement, we used previously validated scales. All scales, except for the scale measuring economic benefits, demonstrated a sufficient reliability greater than 0.70 (Nunnally 1978). The reliability of the economic benefits scale was less than the desired 0.70 threshold ($\alpha = .64$).

2.5.1.3 Results

The data were analyzed using SPSS. To classify the list of 39 engagement behaviors on the basis of differences and similarities of the resulting groups on the five perceived benefits previously discussed, a hierarchical cluster analysis (Ward's method) was used. Cluster analysis is frequently used as a classification tool (Punj and Stewart 1983). Unlike other clustering procedures such as non-hierarchical clustering (i.e. K-means) where the number of clusters needs to be specified by the researcher in advance, hierarchical procedures generate a list of solutions (Hair et al. 2009).

Because the goal for this essay was to create a typology of engagement behaviors, rather than a typology of different groups of consumers, the analysis was at the behavior level (vs. subjects). We clustered the scale means of the perceived benefits associated with each of the 39 behaviors.

After examining a range of solutions and the corresponding agglomeration schedule as well as the meaningful interpretation of the resulting solutions, a six cluster solution was selected. We named the six clusters Informative-Social, Behaviors Demonstrating Expertise (or Expertise for short), Economic behaviors, Post-Purchase behaviors, Informative-Product, and Low Effort behaviors. Table 2.1 provides a list of the resulting cluster solution (list of behaviors presented by cluster membership) and also lists the percent of respondents who indicated having engaged in a given behavior.

2.5.1.4 Interpretation of the Clusters

Cluster 1 (Informative Social) consists of predominantly informative behaviors: reading reviews, visiting a company webpage, visiting social media pages, reading FAQs, reading a company blog, following a company on social media, subscribing to company

email, and watching a company video. In addition, posting a comment to a company blog, liking a company webpage, participating in a survey, customizing a product, and downloading an app also fell in this cluster. Some of these behaviors fall under the broad categorization of content consumption, while others like posting a comment to a blog, participating in a survey, and customizing a product are more involved. We expect these behaviors to deliver primarily cognitive and social-integrative benefits.

Cluster 2 (Behaviors demonstrating expertise) consists of reading about a company, registering for an account on the company website, answering questions to get product recommendations, becoming a company insider, writing reviews, replying to questions asked by others, commenting on a company post, telling others about a purchase, and participating in a contest. Although answering questions to get product recommendations may not explicitly demonstrate expertise, once a consumer receives a product recommendation, that consumer's feeling of expertise would be increased. Interestingly, "posting a comment to a company blog" (Informative-Social) and "posting a comment to a company Facebook post" fell in two different clusters. A possible explanation could be that a company blog would require more time to read and presumably an additional effort to find and visit the blog whereas a Facebook post could simply appear in one's social media newsfeed. Further, posts tend to be shorter than blogs, thus reading and processing a post requires less cognitive resources compared to reading and processing the content of a blog. It may also not be clear why "participating in a contest" can be considered an expertise behavior. A contest itself could be an expert behavior if you are making recommendations to the company or if you are using a skill or knowledge to compete. The behaviors in the expertise cluster are more active compared

to the behaviors in the Info-Social cluster² – more than half of the behaviors in the first cluster can be categorized as content consumption behaviors while only one in Cluster 2 is a content consumption behavior (reading about a company). As it was previously discussed, personal-integrative benefits relate to improving the credibility and confidence of an individual. We expect the behaviors in this cluster to deliver personal-integrative benefits.

Cluster 3 (Economic) consists of economic behaviors such as using company loyalty cards, downloading a coupon, signing up for rewards, entering sweepstakes, using a company credit card. While sweepstakes and contests both offer a reward to the winner, these behaviors differ in the amount of effort and thought required — sweepstakes generally require a quick entry while contests generally require more effort – which could account for why the two seemingly similar behaviors fall within different motivational clusters. It could be questioned whether economic behaviors should be considered engagement behaviors since they are driven by economic incentives (benefits). We consider them as part of engagement for two reasons: 1) they result in additional sales for the company and 2) by engaging in behaviors such as signing up for rewards, a consumer shows his or her intention to continue purchasing from a specific retailer.

Cluster 4 (Post-purchase) includes only three behaviors: mentioning a brand in a blog, mentioning a brand in a tweet, and tracking an online order. These behaviors are likely to occur after a purchase which is supported by our follow up study (Study 2).

Cluster 5 (Informative-Product) consists of online shopping, browsing a company website, using online chat to talk to a company representative, and sharing a company

² We confirm this in Study 2.

post/video/photo on Facebook. What these behaviors have in common is that they are likely to revolve around information focused on the product. Because they relate to information, we expect them to deliver cognitive benefits. While we expect that Cluster 1 (Informative-Social) also delivers high cognitive benefits, the difference between the two clusters is that Info-Social focuses primarily on the company whereas Info-Product focuses on company products or services.

Cluster 6 (Low Effort) consists of keeping a wish list on the company website, watching an ad, and playing games on the company website. All these are intrinsically motivated and relate to entertainment. Compared to other motivational benefits (i.e. cognitive, social-integrative, personal-integrative, and economic), this cluster is relatively high on hedonic benefits, but is not higher than the other clusters. In the following section we discuss how the six clusters identified in this essay differ on their perceived benefits from engagement.

2.5.1.5 Differences among Clusters

To test for significant differences in the perceived benefits among the clusters, a series of ANOVA tests were run on each of the benefits, followed by post-hoc group comparisons. To control for familywise error, Tukey's test was used. We present the results by type of benefits.

Personal-Integrative (PI) benefits are most associated with the Expertise behaviors, followed by the Informative-Product and Informative-Social Behaviors. The Expertise behaviors are significantly higher on PI benefits than the Informative-Social cluster ($M_{\text{expert}} = 5.37$, $M_{\text{InfoS}} = 5.01$; $p's < .003$), but not significantly different than the Informative-Product ($p > .726$). The informative groups are not significantly different

from each other ($M_{\text{InfoP}} = 5.18$, $M_{\text{InfoS}} = 5.01$; $p > .772$). Lowest on PI benefits are the Post-Purchase ($M_{\text{post}} = 4.42$), Economic ($M_{\text{econ}} = 4.60$) and Low Effort clusters ($M_{\text{LE}} = 4.66$). These are not significantly different from each other (p 's $> .670$).

Social-Integrative benefits (SI) are highest for the Expertise ($M_{\text{expert}} = 5.24$) and Informative-Social clusters ($M_{\text{InfoS}} = 4.93$, $M_{\text{expert}} = 5.26$; $p < .004$). Lowest on SI benefits are the Informative-Product ($M_{\text{InfoP}} = 4.19$), Low Effort ($M_{\text{LE}} = 4.23$), and Post-Purchase clusters ($M_{\text{post}} = 4.27$); these three clusters are not significantly different (p 's $> .997$), but are significantly lower than the Expertise and Informative-Social clusters (p 's $< .001$).

Highest on cognitive benefits are the two informative clusters (Informative-Social and Informative-Product) and the Expertise cluster ($M_{\text{InfoS}} = 5.42$, $M_{\text{InfoP}} = 5.52$, $M_{\text{expert}} = 5.36$; p 's $> .826$). Lowest on cognitive benefits are the Economic ($M_{\text{Econ}} = 4.64$), Post-purchase ($M_{\text{Post}} = 4.53$) and Low Effort clusters ($M_{\text{LE}} = 4.87$); these three are not significantly different from each other (p 's $> .491$), but are significantly lower than the other three (p 's $< .001$).

The behaviors in the Economic cluster are perceived highest on economic benefits ($M_{\text{econ}} = 5.23$), followed by the Expertise ($M_{\text{expert}} = 4.87$, $M_{\text{econ}} = 5.23$; $p < .027$), and the Informative-Product clusters ($M_{\text{InfoP}} = 4.84$, $M_{\text{econ}} = 5.23$; $p < .054$). The Post-Purchase cluster scored lower on economic benefits ($M_{\text{post}} = 4.14$) than all other clusters (p 's $< .007$).

Highest on hedonic benefits are the Informative-Product ($M_{\text{infoP}} = 5.25$), Expertise ($M_{\text{expert}} = 5.24$) and Low Effort clusters ($M_{\text{LE}} = 5.15$). These three groups are not significantly different from each other (p 's $> .977$). Lowest on hedonic benefits is the Post-Purchase cluster ($M_{\text{post}} = 4.45$), followed by the Economic cluster ($M_{\text{econ}} = 4.94$); the

two clusters are significantly different ($p < .030$). The Post-Purchase group is significantly lower on hedonic benefits than the other three groups (p 's $< .009$). Table 2.3 presents a summary of the means of the benefits for the different clusters of behaviors.

In summary, the Expertise and Info-Product behaviors were highest on personal-integrative benefits, followed by the Info-Social behaviors. The Expertise and Informative-Social behaviors were also highest on social-integrative benefits. Behaviors in the Expertise cluster are not just driven by desire to showcase oneself as an expert, but also by altruistic motives to help others make the right decisions. Our expectations that the two informative groups (Info-Social and Info-Product) will deliver high cognitive benefits were supported. In addition, Expertise behaviors were also found to be high on cognitive benefits. We found that hedonic benefits described more than one cluster: with the exception of the Post-Purchase cluster all clusters delivered high hedonic benefits. Last, economic benefits aligned with the Economic cluster the best, but were also delivered by the Expertise and Info-Product behaviors.

2.5.1.6 Discussion

The goal of study 1 was to explore how engagement behaviors differ on their motivational benefits and to propose a typology of customer engagement behaviors. This study built upon the Uses and Gratifications framework (Katz et al.1974) which suggests four main benefits that people derive from engaging with media (cognitive, social-integrative, personal-integrative, and hedonic). In addition, we included a fifth benefit, economic benefits.

Personal-integrative benefits refer to improving the credibility and confidence of the individual. Personal-integrative benefits were highest for the behaviors demonstrating

expertise and the two Informative clusters. Behaviors demonstrating expertise allow for reinforcing one's credibility as an expert.

Social-Integrative benefits relate to strengthening consumers' relations with others. Social-Integrative benefits were highest for the Informative-Social behaviors and the behaviors demonstrating expertise. By providing help or advice to other consumers, one may feel closer to other consumers or the company itself, which delivers social integrative benefits.

Cognitive benefits refer to obtaining information. The cognitive benefits were highest for the two Informative groups (Informative-Product and Informative-Social) and the behaviors demonstrating expertise. While one can expect that informative behaviors should be high on cognitive benefits, one may not necessarily expect expertise behaviors to be high on cognitive benefits since individuals are providing rather than gaining expertise. However, these two behaviors (providing and gaining expertise) appear to be linked for consumers, as informative behaviors which might increase expertise, such as "reading about the company" and "answering questions to get product recommendations" also fell into the Expertise cluster.

As it can be expected, the economic benefits were highest for the Economic cluster of behaviors. Second highest on economic benefits were the behaviors demonstrating expertise. This can be explained by the fact that occasionally companies offer a discount or sweepstakes entry in exchange for product reviews.

Hedonic benefits entail aesthetic or pleasurable experiences. Hedonic benefits were perceived as significantly lower for the Post-Purchase behaviors compared to the rest. Because the other clusters did not significantly differ on their perceived hedonic

benefits, this finding implies that hedonic benefits might be a necessary driver for most engagement behaviors.

In summary, the empirical analysis resulted in six clusters rather than the expected five. It is likely that more than one motivation can underlie different groups of behaviors as in the case of Info-Social behaviors being driven by cognitive and social-integrative benefits. Further, the motivations we considered may not explain all clusters as in the case with the Post-Purchase cluster which was rated low on all benefits.

Informative-Social and Informative Product behaviors are both motivated by cognitive benefits, but differ on the extent to which they provide social-integrative benefits such that Informative-Social behaviors deliver more social-integrative benefits than the Informative-Product behaviors. Expertise behaviors are high on personal-integrative, cognitive benefits, and social-integrative benefits and are relatively lower on economic benefits compared to the other three. The Post-Purchase behaviors are low on all benefits. The Low Effort behaviors are high on hedonic benefits relative to other motivations.

A follow up study (study 2) was designed to check whether the differences in motivational benefits that we found between the clusters replicate. The second goal of the study was to identify additional characteristics which might be used to explain why certain behaviors were classified into each cluster. These characteristics include effort and timing of the behavior (before, during, after a purchase). We discuss study 2 next.

2.6 Study 2

2.6.1 Method

2.6.1.1 Design and Procedure

A total of 25 engagement behaviors were examined in study 2 which were selected from the list of behaviors from study 1. Behaviors that were most commonly engaged in (as indicated by a high percent of respondents who reported having engaged in a specific behavior) were included in study 2. For a list of the behaviors included in this study, refer to Table 2.4. Each subject evaluated three behaviors from three different clusters. Each cluster was paired with every other cluster so that differences between the clusters could be assessed. A total of 13 replicates were created such that most behaviors appeared in more than one replicate, allowing us to rule out subject differences as an explanation for any differences observed since each replicate consisted of a different sample of respondents. The respondents were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk and were compensated 25 cents for their participation. This payment was lower than the payment in Study 1 as the study was shorter³. A total of 397 participants completed the study (46.3% female). The average age of the participants was 34 years old.

To investigate if the engagement clusters differ on measures other than the perceived benefits (i.e. characteristics of the behaviors), participants were first asked to rate each of the three behaviors they were assigned to on the amount of effort required to do each behavior, the extent to which they considered the behavior active or passive, and the timing of the behavior in respect to purchase (before, during, after a purchase). The

³ For reference, it took on average 12 minutes to complete Study 1 and approximately 7 minutes to complete Study 2 (the means reported are 5% trimmed mean).

amount of effort involved in a behavior may discourage customers from engaging in a given behavior. Further behaviors whose focus is content consumption can be seen as passive behaviors, while others whose focus is collaboration and/or co-creation can be seen as active. Similar to study 1, participants also rated the behaviors on the perceived benefits provided by each behavior. To decrease subject fatigue, the behaviors' perceived benefits were tested with a subset of the items used in study 1.

For a list of the measurement items used in this study, refer to Appendix B.

2.6.1.2 Results

2.6.1.2.1 Perceived Benefits

Table 2.5 displays a summary of the means for all motivational benefits, presented by cluster. Personal-Integrative benefits were highest for the Informative-Social, followed by Informative-Product, and Expertise behaviors, which were not significantly different from each other ($M_{\text{infoS}} = 3.94$, $M_{\text{infoP}} = 3.84$, and $M_{\text{expert}} = 3.75$, $p > .87$). This finding is partially consistent with study 1; while these three clusters were high on Personal-Integrative benefits in both studies, the Expertise cluster was rated significantly higher on PI benefits compared to the Informative-Social and the Informative-Product Clusters in Study 1.

Study 2 found the economic cluster delivered significantly less SI benefits compared to all other clusters; no other differences were significant. Yet, in study 1, the Economic cluster was among the top three clusters on SI benefits.

Highest on cognitive benefits is the Informative-Social cluster ($M = 5.07$), which was highest in study 1 and the Informative-Product cluster ($M = 4.84$) which along with the Expertise cluster were highest in study 1. The Informative-Product group is not

significantly different than the Low Effort group ($M = 4.97$; $p > .560$) whereas in Study 1 the latter were lowest on cognitive benefits. One can expect Low Effort behaviors to be low on cognitive benefits, however, one of these behaviors — “watching an ad” is a behavior that delivers cognitive benefits. Excluding “watching an ad” from the cluster, lowers the cluster mean from 4.97 to 4.29; further, the cluster without this behavior delivers marginally less cognitive benefits compared to the Info-Product group ($p < .102$). Because study 2 featured fewer behaviors than study 1, the mean for the cognitive benefits provided by the Low Effort behaviors might have been skewed as a result of the higher benefits provided by watching an ad, which provides some explanation for the differences in results between the two studies.

Highest on economic benefits are the Economic ($M = 5.42$) followed by the Informative-Product ($M = 4.65$) groups. The two are significantly different ($p < .001$). Lowest are the Post-purchase behaviors ($M = 3.28$). These findings are consistent with results from study 1 with the exception that the expertise behaviors did not score as high on economic benefits in study 2 as in the previous study.

This study found that Informative-Product ($M = 4.57$) and Economic ($M = 4.31$) groups are highest on hedonic benefits while the Post-Purchase ($M = 3.68$) and Low Effort ($M = 3.38$) groups were lowest. While the results for the Informative-Product and Post-Purchase clusters are consistent with those from study 1, the results for the Low Effort cluster are not consistent with study 1; in study 1, the Low Effort cluster was not the lowest on hedonic benefits. Additional analysis revealed that “watching an ad online,” a behavior from the Low Effort cluster, was perceived low on hedonic benefits ($M = 3.00$) in the current study, yet rated as relatively high on hedonic benefits in the previous

study ($M = 5.03$). To check for the impact of this behavior on the mean score for hedonic benefits, we re-ran the analysis excluding this behavior. As a result, the mean for the cluster's perceived hedonic benefits increased from 3.38 to 3.98. Despite excluding this behavior from the cluster, the Low Effort cluster was still perceived as lower on hedonic benefits compared to the Informative-Social and Expertise clusters. It is unclear what accounts for this difference.

In summary, while a lot of the differences between the clusters were supported, there were a number of discrepancies in the results between the two studies. Specifically, in study 1, the Economic cluster was among the top three clusters on SI benefits, yet was rated lowest on this benefit in Study 2. The Low Effort cluster was rated low on cognitive benefits in Study 1, but relatively high in Study 2. Also, the Low Effort cluster was relatively high on hedonic benefits in Study 1 (compared to other benefits, not clusters), but was rated low on this benefit in Study 2. The Info-Social and Expertise clusters were high on hedonic benefits in Study 1, but that was not the case in Study 2. Nonetheless, generally the results from study 1 replicated in study 2. The Informative-Social, Informative-Product, and Expertise clusters were motivated by personal-integrative benefits. The Informative-Social and Informative-Product clusters are driven by cognitive benefits. The Economic cluster delivers economic benefits. Last, the Info-Product cluster is motivated by hedonic benefits.

2.6.1.2.2 Perceived Characteristics

2.6.1.2.2.1 Timing of the behavior

Next we discuss how the behaviors included in study 2 differ on two additional characteristics such as timing of the behavior and effort. As previously discussed engagement behaviors could be performed at different times in relation to a purchase (i.e. before, during, or after a purchase) as well as could require different amount of effort (certain behaviors such as “liking a Facebook post” would take only a second to complete while others such as “writing a review” may require a few minutes).

First, we address differences in the timing of engaging in a behavior relevant to the purchase process (before, during, or after purchase). We include this variable because we expect the timing of a behavior to be an important characteristic distinguishing among the different engagement clusters. In addition, this characteristic provides support for naming one of our clusters (“post-purchase” cluster). As expected, most of the participants indicated engaging in a behavior in the Post-Purchase cluster after a purchase: 85% of participants reported engaging in a behavior from the Post-Purchase cluster after purchase; moreover, this number was significantly higher than the frequency of engagement in all the other clusters ($p < .05$). Further, only 16% of participants indicated to have performed a post-purchase behavior while making a purchase and 19% prior to purchase.

Seventy-three percent of participants indicated they have engaged in the Informative-Social behaviors prior to purchase compared to 54% of participants after

purchase and only 30% during purchase⁴. Most of the economic behaviors were performed prior (65.4%) or during purchase (50.9%) in comparison to after purchase (33.6%). Sixty-one percent of respondents indicated to have engaged in Informative-Product behaviors prior to purchase compared to 48% who indicated after purchase. Last, 56% of respondents engaged in Low Effort behaviors prior to purchase and 49% after purchase compared to only 18% during purchase.

In summary, when it comes to timing of the behaviors, participants would predominantly engage before purchase in behaviors from the Info-Product and Info-Social clusters. They would engage in behaviors in the economic and low effort clusters prior to or during purchase. Last, as the name implies, they engage in the post-purchase cluster after purchase.

2.6.1.2.2.2 Effort

The behaviors in the Expertise cluster and the Informative-Product cluster were perceived as most effortful ($M_{\text{expert}} = 3.70$, $M_{\text{infoP}} = 3.22$; $p > .171$). The Low Effort behaviors were perceived as being least effortful ($M_{\text{LE}} = 2.37$). The behaviors in this cluster appear to have an entertainment element. This finding suggests that a behavior whose focus is on entertainment might not be perceived as an activity requiring effort. For example, if someone loves playing computer games, this individual may not perceive a game as involving a lot of effort because either s/he is an expert at it or the pleasure derived out of the game would make the effort seamless. On the contrary, someone

⁴ Total percentage is greater than 100% as participants could select multiple time periods for their answer.

learning to play a game for the first time might consider this activity an effortful endeavor.

2.6.1.3 Study 2 Discussion

The goal of study 2 was to provide additional support for our findings from study 1 as well as to explore if the behaviors included in the typology differ on other characteristics such as effort and timing of the behavior. For the most part this study showed support for the differences between the clusters on the basis of their motivational benefits, however, a few inconsistencies between the results of the two studies should be noted here. The Social-Integrative benefits for the Economic cluster were high in study 1, but low in study 2. The Low Effort cluster was rated among the lowest on cognitive benefits in Study 1, but not in Study 2. The Low Effort cluster was relatively high on hedonic benefits in Study 1 (compared to other benefits, not clusters), but was rated low on this benefit in Study 2.

This study also explored how the clusters of behaviors differ based on characteristics such as effort and timing of the behavior. Our findings show that Expertise and Informative-Product behaviors require significantly more effort than the other clusters. In addition, 85% of participants rated the Post-Purchase behaviors as behaviors they would perform after a purchase. This percent was significantly higher than the other clusters which suggests that the Post-Purchase name is appropriate for this cluster.

2.7 General Discussion

Based on the findings from this essay, we categorize engagement behaviors into six different clusters which differ on their motivational benefits. Informative-Social

behaviors and Informative-Product behaviors are both motivated by cognitive benefits, however, one cluster appears to focus more on the company (Info-Social) whereas the other (Info-Product) – on the product.

Expertise behaviors are high on personal-integrative, cognitive benefits, and social-integrative benefits. They are relatively low on economic benefits. Even though companies often provide incentives for their customers to post a review (an expertise behavior), consumers could also be driven by other reasons such as helping others and feeling like an expert. Expertise behaviors are considered higher on effort than most other engagement behaviors with the exception of Informative-Product behaviors. For example, writing a review could take a couple of minutes whereas other behaviors such as liking a Facebook page could merely take seconds. The Post-Purchase behaviors are low on all benefits. Their most defining characteristic is the timing of the behavior — consumers would engage in these behaviors after a purchase (i.e. mentioning a brand in a blog/tweet, tracking an online order).

The motivational differences and characteristics differentiating engagement behaviors proposed in this essay could be useful to managers if they want to encourage specific engagement behaviors or groups of behaviors. For example, if companies want to motivate consumers to write a review (an expertise behavior), they could try to appeal to two primary motivations such as personal integrative and social integrative benefits by saying “help other consumers by providing your expert advice.” For the Informative-Social cluster, marketers could emphasize the cognitive benefits provided by such behaviors by emphasizing words such as “learn about new company initiatives”, whereas

for the Informative-Product the focus could be on learning about new products or sales as this cluster is also motivated by cognitive benefits.

2.8 Conclusion

The two studies in Essay 1 contribute to the literature on motivations for customer engagement in several ways. First, prior research has not examined the different motivations for a broad list of engagement behaviors. Second, the typology proposed in Study 1 could serve as a framework to further examine engagement behaviors. This typology categorizes behaviors in groups that have similar levels of motivational benefits (cognitive, personal integrative, social integrative, economic, and hedonic benefits). Although other categorizations of engagement have been suggested (Evans 2010), they do not focus on the motivations, but rather on the type of behaviors (i.e. content consumption, curation, creation, and collaboration). While both categorizations contribute to our knowledge of engagement behaviors, understanding the reasons for which consumers choose to engage in certain behaviors but not in others has important managerial implications. Therefore, this typology will be useful to marketers as it outlines the salient benefits for an extensive list of engagement behaviors which is important in order to motivate desired engagement behaviors.

Table 2.1

Behaviors by Cluster Membership

Cluster 1 Informative- Social Behaviors	Cluster 2 Behaviors Demonstrating Expertise	Cluster 3 Economic Behaviors	Cluster 4 Post Purchase Behaviors	Cluster 5 Informative- Product Behaviors	Cluster 6 Low Effort Behaviors
Visiting a company webpage (57%)	Reading about a company (55%)	Signing up for rewards (44.2%)	Tracking online order (38.4%)	Online shopping (69.8%)	Watching an ad (55.8%)
Reading reviews (56.6%)	Telling others about a purchase (43.8%)	Downloading a coupon (38.8%)	Mention a brand in a blog (26.7%)	Browsing a company website (56.6%)	Liking a company post on Facebook (49.6%)
Reading FAQs (56.6%)	Writing reviews (37.2%)	Using company loyalty cards (24%)	Mention a brand in a tweet (19%)	Sharing a company post/video/photo on Facebook (35.7%)	Playing games on the company website (34.9%)
Participating in a company survey (51.9%)	Registering for an account on a company website (32.9%)	Entering sweepstakes (23.3%)		Using online chat to talk to a company rep (23.6%)	Checking in online at a specific location (34.5%)
Liking a company webpage (44.2%)	Participating in a company contest (29.8%)	Using a company credit card (21.3%)			Keeping a wish list on the company website (20.5%)
Visiting social media pages (40.3%)	Replying to questions asked by others (27.1%)				
Watching a company video (39.9%)	Commenting on a company post (26%)				
Following a company on social media (39.5%)	Answering questions to get product recommendations (24%)				
Reading a company blog (37.6%)	Becoming a company insider (11.6%)				
Subscribing to company email (32.2%)					
Downloading an app (30.6%)					
Customizing a product (25.2%)					
Posting a comment to a company blog (22.9%)					

The number in parentheses indicates the percent of respondents who reported having performed that behavior.

Table 2.2

Engagement Definitions in the Literature

Construct	Definition	Author
Customer Engagement	1) “the customer’s behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” 2) “the intensity of an individual’s participation in and connection with an organization’s offerings or organizational activities”	van Doorn et al. 2010 Vivek et al. 2012
Online Customer Engagement Behaviors	The customer’s behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers and which occur in an online environment	Adapted from van Doorn et al. 2010
Media Engagement	Media engagement focuses on the consumer’s psychological experience while consuming media	Calder and Malthouse 2008
Brand engagement	“consumers’ propensity to include important brands as part of how they view themselves”	Sprott et al. 2009
Customer brand engagement	the specific interactions between a focal customer and a particular brand	Hollebeek 2011

Table 2.3

Study 1: Summary of Cluster Means Based on Perceived Benefits from Engagement Behaviors

Benefit	Info- Social Cluster	Expertise Cluster	Economic Cluster	Post Purchase Cluster	Info- Product Cluster	Low Effort Cluster
PI Benefits	5.01 ^a	5.37 ^b	4.60 ^{cd}	4.42 ^d	5.18 ^{ab}	4.66 ^c
SI Benefits	4.93 ^a	5.26 ^b	4.63 ^{cd}	4.27 ^{de}	4.19 ^e	4.23 ^e
Cognitive Benefits	5.42 ^a	5.36 ^{ab}	4.64 ^{cd}	4.53 ^{cd}	5.52 ^{ab}	4.87 ^c
Economic Benefits	4.76 ^a	4.87 ^a	5.23 ^b	4.14 ^c	4.84 ^a	4.65 ^a
Hedonic Benefits	5.04 ^a	5.24 ^a	4.94 ^a	4.45 ^b	5.25 ^a	5.15 ^a

*Superscripts with different letters denote those means that are statistically significantly different from each other across rows ($p < .05$)

Table 2.4

List of behaviors included in study 2

Informative-Social Cluster	Expert Cluster	Economic Cluster	Post-Purchase Cluster	Informative-Product Cluster	Low Effort Cluster
Reading Reviews	Reading about a company	Downloading a coupon	Mentioning a brand in a blog	Online shopping	Watching an ad online
Visiting a company webpage	Writing Reviews	Signing up for rewards	Mentioning a brand in a tweet	Browsing a company website	Liking a company post on Facebook
Reading FAQs	Telling others about a purchase	Using a company loyalty card	Tracking an online order	Sharing a company post/video/comment on Facebook	Playing games
Liking a company webpage	Commenting on a company post	Entering sweepstakes			
Participating in a survey	Participating in a contest				
Visiting a company social media pages	Registering for an account				

Table 2.5
Study 2: Means for the Perceived Benefits by Cluster

Benefits	Info-Social Cluster	Expertise Cluster	Economic Cluster	Post Purchase Cluster	Info-Product Cluster	Low Effort Cluster
PI benefits	3.94 ^a	3.75 ^a	3.46 ^b	3.35 ^b	3.84 ^a	3.36 ^b
SI benefits	4.04 ^a	4.17 ^a	3.48 ^b	3.73 ^a	4.25 ^a	4.01 ^a
Cognitive Benefits	5.07 ^a	4.61 ^{bc}	3.99 ^b	3.87 ^b	4.84 ^{ac}	4.97 ^a
Economic benefits	4.40 ^c	4.01 ^c	5.42 ^a	3.28 ^d	4.65 ^b	3.93 ^c
Hedonic benefits	3.79 ^b	3.65 ^b	4.31 ^a	3.68 ^b	4.57 ^a	3.38 ^b

*Superscripts with different letters denote those means that are significantly different from each other across rows ($p < .05$). The benefits means were measured on a 7-point scale.

CHAPTER 3

EFFECTS OF ATTACHMENT STYLE, BRAND PERSONALITY, AND FAMILIARITY ON CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT

3.1 Introduction

Achieving customer engagement has become an important strategic objective for marketers and a new direction in customer relationship management (Verhoef et al. 2010). Companies strive to build relationships with customers because such relationships have been shown to increase key outcomes including word-of-mouth (Batra et al. 2012) and brand loyalty (Fournier 1998). Yet, despite the importance of engaging customers and developing relationships with them, there is still little known about what drives consumers to engage with brands beyond purchase. In particular, researchers have not examined whether consumers who possess certain personality characteristics are more likely to engage online than others who do not. Further, it is not clear if brand personalities influence online customer engagement and if so, what factors might moderate these effects. Building on the interpersonal relationships literature, we propose that individual and brand personality characteristics will influence customer engagement.

People form relationships driven by the need to belong (Baumeister and Leary 1995). According to attachment theory (Bowlby 1973), a major theory in understanding how relationships form, an individual's view of the self and others affects the way they attach to others. Two dimensions of attachment styles, avoidance and anxiety, have been suggested (Bartholomew and Horowitz 1991; Collins and Read 1994). Avoidance refers to having a negative view of others while anxiety refers to having a somewhat negative

view of the self. The resulting combinations of low or high values of avoidance and anxiety correspond to four different attachment styles (Bartholomew and Horowitz 1991). These styles are: secure (low anxiety and low avoidance), dismissing (low anxiety and high avoidance), preoccupied (high anxiety and low avoidance), and fearful (high anxiety and high avoidance). We use the term “anxious” to refer to the two (high anxiety) groups, pre-occupied and fearful. Likewise, we refer to the other two (low anxiety) categories, secure and dismissing, as secure.

Secure individuals (both secure and dismissing) have a sense of worthiness whereas anxious ones feel unworthy (Bartholomew and Horowitz 1991). Individuals who have different attachment styles have been found to differ in the nature of the relationships they develop with others. For example, people with secure attachment style develop stable and supportive relationships characterized by high trust and commitment (Simpson 1990; Simpson et al. 1992). In contrast, those who are avoidant form relationships that are lower in trust and commitment. People with anxious attachment styles feel insecure about their relationships; as a result, they are unable to build relationships strong in trust.

Prior literature on interpersonal relationships suggests that respondents with a secure attachment style have the highest potential for developing strong attachments, whereas those with an avoidant style are significantly less likely to form strong attachments (Collins and Read 1990; Collins and Read 1994; Hazan and Shaver 1987; Kirkpatrick and Hazan 1994; Shaver and Hazan 1993). Whether the same patterns apply for brand relationships, however, is not clear.

3.2 Hypotheses Development

A growing body of literature has studied the relationships consumers develop with brands (Fournier 1998). Consumers become attached to brands (Thomson et al. 2005; Park et al. 2010) just like they become attached to others – over time. Brand attachment is defined as the strength of the bond connecting the brand with the self (Park et al. 2010). This bond, which has been referred to as brand self-connection (Chaplin and John 2005; Escalas and Bettman 2003; Escalas 2004), reflects the extent to which individuals incorporate a brand as part of their self-concept (Escalas and Bettman 2003). Consumers form self-brand connections when a brand represents who they are (Park et al. 2010) or who they want to be (Malar et al. 2011).

The literature related to how attachment styles affect brand attachment has been mixed. Although some have suggested that brand relationships mirror human relationships, the alternative argument that lack of satisfactory relationships could lead to filling this void with brand relationships has also been made (Johnson and Thomson 2002; Thomson et al. 2005; Thomson and Johnson 2006). We argue that because secure individuals tend to be confident in their relationships, they should also be relatively confident in other aspects of life such as decision-making and brand choices. In contrast, anxious individuals should be less confident in everything they do including feeling confident about their choice to purchase a given brand. Further, because anxious individuals desire to be accepted by others, they are also more likely to engage in brand signaling (Swaminathan et al. 2009). We expect that anxious individuals should be more likely to purchase a brand in order to signal to others their self-worthiness rather than

based on true feelings toward the brand. This implies that their relationships with brands may be more superficial, leading to lower attachment. Thus, we propose:

H1: Individuals with secure attachment styles will exhibit stronger attachments to brands compared to individuals with anxious attachment styles.

While attachment style is likely to influence the strength of attachments consumers develop toward brands, characteristics of the brand may also influence which brands consumers choose to engage with. Brand personality refers to assigning a brand with human traits (Aaker 1997) and has been shown to be “influential in understanding consumer brand relationships” (Aaker et al. 2004). Two dimensions of brand personality, sincere and exciting, have been found to capture most of the variability in brand personality (Aaker 1997). Swaminathan et al. (2009) found out that attachment style moderates the effect of brand personality on important outcomes such as brand attachment, purchase likelihood, and brand choice. Research, however, has not explored whether and how attachment style affects customer engagement beyond brand attachment, purchase or choice. In this essay we examine how attachment style influences engagement in various behaviors (i.e. writing reviews, visiting a company webpage, commenting on Facebook, etc.). These interactions reflect the behavioral dimension of the customer engagement construct. As previously discussed, brand attachment is primarily an emotional state whereas customer engagement in addition to having an emotional and a cognitive component, also has a behavioral one; we focus on the behavioral dimension of engagement. It is important to study these two constructs as some factors may affect one, but not the other.

Individuals who are more anxious, have a less positive view of themselves, and feel insecure in their relationships rely more on brands for expression (Swaminathan et al. 2009). Unlike secure individuals, anxious individuals do not have high self-worthiness (Bartholomew and Horowitz 1991), thus there is a somewhat large gap between their actual and ideal selves. To diminish this gap, we expect that anxious consumers will engage in self-enhancement (Malar et al. 2011). Although sincere and exciting personalities are both desirable qualities to have, we expect that an exciting personality compared to a sincere personality tends to be more aligned with feeling confident and thus should provide a higher self-esteem boost compared to that provided by a sincere personality. An exciting brand will attract anxious individuals more than a sincere brand because it would allow them to look “cooler” in the eyes of others by associating themselves with the brand and rubbing off some of the brand’s exciting personality. Therefore, we suggest:

H2a: Individuals with anxious attachment style are more likely to engage with exciting brands compared to sincere brands.

Secure individuals, on the other hand, do not need to prove their self-worthiness to others, thus they should be less likely to engage in brand signaling compared to anxious individuals. Secure style have been found to be moderately positively correlated with extraversion (Nofle and Shaver 2006). One can expect that secure individuals will likely be the “heart of the party” and will be perceived by others, at least by the anxious individuals, as exciting. However, secure individuals may also want to be seen as sincere in addition to exciting because sincere people have more meaningful relationships whereas those perceived as exciting but insincere should have somewhat shallow

relationships. By expressing their liking for sincere brands, secure people will associate themselves with values these brands hold such as sincerity and trustworthiness and thus should be able to attract meaningful relationships with others. Therefore, we expect:

H2b: Individuals with secure attachment style are more likely to engage with sincere brands compared to exciting brands.

We test our hypotheses in three studies. Study 1 uses a survey design while studies 2 and 3 use experimental designs.

3.2.1 Study 1

3.2.1.1 Method

The goal of study 1 was to find initial support for our hypotheses. This study used a survey design. One hundred and seventy-three respondents completed the survey of which 14 were removed due to failing an attention check, thus making the final sample 159 (62% women). Participants were recruited online using Amazon Mechanical Turk and were compensated for their participation. At the beginning of the survey respondents were asked to think of a brand they like and told that they would be answering questions related to that brand; participants had to provide the brand name. They rated that brand on an abbreviated brand personality scale adapted from Aaker (1997; see Appendix C for scale items). Next, they answered questions assessing brand attachment (Park et al. 2010) and customer engagement, the two dependent measures. Engagement was measured as participants' likelihood of performing various engagement behaviors such as visiting the brand's website or writing a review (see Appendix C for the full list of behaviors included in the study). The dependent measure total engagement was calculated as the sum of engagement likelihood in all behaviors. Participants also completed items about

attachment style (Collins and Read 1990). To classify participants' attachment style as either anxious or secure, the difference score was taken (secure minus anxious).

Participants whose difference score (secure minus anxious) was one standard deviation lower than the mean difference were coded as anxious and those whose secure score was one standard deviation higher were coded as secure.

Participants then answered questions about themselves, including their general likelihood of engaging in different behaviors (as opposed to specifically for the focal brand), their personality (Rammstedt and John 2007), and use of different social media. They were also asked questions about their focal brand, including if they had ever purchased it, how frequently they used it, and how much money they spent on it annually. Finally, we collected demographic information, including marital status, gender, age, and education.

3.2.1.2 Results

3.2.1.2.1 Brand Attachment

We expected that individuals with secure attachment styles will exhibit stronger attachments to brands compared to individuals with anxious attachment styles (H1). To test this hypothesis, we performed a multiple regression with anxiety and security (continuous measures) as predictors. The results indicated that secure style was a significant predictor of attachment ($b = .063$, $t = 2.847$, $p = .005$) whereas anxious style was not ($b = .013$, $t = .518$, $p = .605$). Thus, H1 is supported. Table 3.1 reports the results from the regression analysis. To further understand these results, we performed a one-way ANOVA on brand attachment with attachment style (categorical: anxious or secure) as the independent variable. Consistent with the regression results, participants with

secure attachment style were more attached to the brand compared to those with anxious attachment style ($M_{\text{secure}} = 5.06$ and $M_{\text{anxious}} = 4.39$; $F(1,59) = 4.500$, $p = .038$).

3.2.1.2.2 Customer Engagement

We expected that anxious consumers will be more likely to engage with brands with exciting personalities compared to brands with sincere personalities (H2a) and that the opposite will hold for secure consumers (H2b). We ran a regression on total engagement likelihood with anxious and secure measures (continuous), sincere brand personality score, exciting brand personality score, and the respective interaction terms (the interaction terms were calculated using the centered scores in order to avoid multicollinearity). Engagement likelihood was calculated by computing the average score for the likelihood to engage in a list of engagement behaviors with respect to the focal brand (Cronbach's alpha = .932). There was a main effect of brand personality on engagement such that an exciting brand personality was associated with higher engagement likelihood regardless of attachment style ($\beta = .962$, $p = .0001$). The interaction term between anxiety and sincere brand personality was marginally significant ($\beta = .067$, $p < .063$) suggesting that the more sincere a brand is perceived to be, the more likely an anxious individual will be to engage. This finding is opposite of what we predicted in H2a; we anticipated that sincerity would matter more for secure consumers. The interaction between secure style and exciting brand personality is not significant ($p > .872$), thus H2b is not supported. Table 3.2 presents the results of this regression.

It should be noted, however, that when asked to pick a brand they like at the beginning of the survey, only 35% of anxious participants picked a sincere brand while 69% of secure consumers did so. That suggests that anxious individuals were

significantly more likely to think of an exciting brand than a sincere brand while the opposite was true for secure individuals ($\chi_{df=1}^2 = 6.571, p = .010$). These results offer some evidence that the hypothesized relationships in H2a and H2b could exist. We explore this possibility further in studies 2 and 3.

3.2.1.3 Discussion

This study offers initial support for the effect of individual and brand personality on brand attachment and customer engagement. Using survey data, we show that individuals with secure attachment styles exhibit stronger brand attachments compared to individuals with anxious attachment styles. In addition, we find that consumers are more likely to engage with brands with exciting personalities compared to brands with sincere personalities. We also find that a sincere brand personality positively affects engagement for anxious individuals. However, when prompted to think of a brand in relation to which to answer the study questions, secure people were more likely to think of a sincere vs. exciting brand while the opposite was true for anxious people.

Study 1 had several limitations including that participants were prompted to pick a brand they like. By using survey design, we can only infer that relationships between the variables of interest exist, but cannot establish causality. Study 2 was conducted to test our hypotheses in an experimental setting.

3.2.2 Study 2

3.2.2.1 Pretest

Prior to the main study, a pretest was conducted to test the effectiveness of the brand personality manipulations. Two different product categories were included — a

fitness activity tracking device and sneakers. The design of the pretest was 2 (Brand Personality: Sincere/Exciting) x 2 (Product: Sneakers/Fitness Activity Tracking Device) between subjects design. Prior research has successfully manipulated brand personality for the sneakers product category (Swaminathan et al. 2009), which was one of the reasons sneakers were chosen as the focal product; the other reason was that sports shoes similar to clothing are items often associated with expressing one's individual style. The fitness activity tracking device, referred from now on as simply the fitness device, was chosen because technology products tend to be high involvement products, thus they are a suitable product category in which to examine customer engagement behaviors.

Participants in this pretest were randomly presented with one of four ads corresponding to the four conditions in the experimental design (See Figure 3.1 for the stimuli used in the study). After seeing the ad, participants were asked to rate the product featured in the ad on items corresponding to the sincere and exciting brand personality traits (Aaker 1997). In addition, participants were also asked to rate the ad they saw in terms of its appeal, ad involvement, and realism.

3.2.2.1.1 Manipulation Checks

A hundred and forty-six respondents, recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk, participated in the pretest. For the sneakers product category, the sincere condition was perceived as more sincere than the exciting condition ($M_S = 4.25$, $M_E = 3.41$; $p < .001$) and the exciting condition was perceived as more exciting than the sincere condition ($M_E = 5.24$, $M_S = 4.16$; $p < .001$). Although the manipulation of brand personality was successful, the two ads differed on ad involvement – the exciting condition was rated

higher on ad involvement compared to the sincere condition ($M_E = 2.60$, $M_S = 4.15$, $F(1,61) = 17.997$, $p = .001$).

The manipulation of brand personality in the fitness device condition was successful as shown by the following mean comparisons: sincere brand personality was higher in the sincere condition compared to the exciting condition ($M_S = 4.94$ vs. $M_E = 4.10$, $t_{31} = 3.70$, $p = .001$). The exciting brand personality rating was higher in the exciting condition compared to the sincere condition ($M_E = 5.07$ vs. $M_S = 4.13$, $t_{30} = -5.80$, $p = .001$). Further, the sincere condition was perceived as more sincere than exciting ($M = 4.94$ vs. 4.13 , $t_{61} = 3.19$, $p = .002$) and the exciting condition was perceived as more exciting than sincere ($M_E = 5.07$ vs. $M_S = 4.10$, $t_{61} = -2.97$, $p = .004$). Last, the two ads did not differ on ad involvement ($M_S = 3.95$, $M_E = 4.11$, $F(1,59) = .158$, $p > .693$). Since the other set of stimuli (sneakers) differed on ad involvement, the fitness device was used as the stimulus in the main study, which we present next.

3.2.2.2 Main Study

3.2.2.2.1 Design and participants

The design for the study was 3 (Attachment style: Secure/ Pre-Occupied/Fearful) x 2 (Brand Personality: Sincere/Exciting) between subjects design where attachment style and brand personality were both manipulated (the manipulations are presented in Appendix C). For attachment style, we were interested in investigating the secure and the anxious groups (preoccupied, fearful); while we did not expect differences based on avoidance, existing manipulations include separate manipulations for high anxious-low avoidance (pre-occupied) and high anxious-high avoidance (fearful). We decided to

include the two anxious groups in order to use existing manipulations of attachment styles, rather than attempt to modify the manipulation scenarios.

A hundred and eighty participants recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk completed the experiment of which 164 were retained in the analysis (sixteen participants failed an attention check). Sixty per cent were women. Forty-five percent were between 25-34 years old. Only 22% of all participants reported owning a fitness activity tracking device.

3.2.2.2 Method and Procedure

Participants were assigned to one of three attachment style manipulations where they were asked to imagine a person they had a relationship with and read a scenario about how this person made them feel. Next, attachment style was measured. After providing responses to the items comprising the attachment style, participants were assigned to one of two brand personality manipulations, sincere or exciting. Participants also rated the stimulus they saw on items comprising the brand personality scale. Next, we measured the dependent variable, engagement likelihood. Total engagement likelihood was calculated as the average of the engagement likelihoods for all behaviors included in the study (Refer to Appendix C for the list). Cronbach alpha for the total engagement likelihood measure was .946, which indicates the measure was reliable.

Note, because our main focus in this study is engagement, we used an unbranded stimulus to help remove effects of familiarity. However, in doing so, we could no longer directly test H1 (effect of attachment style on brand attachment), as brand attachments develop over time (Park et al. 2010) and thus require some brand familiarity. Instead, we test H1 by examining intentions to engage, which should reflect expectations about how

feelings toward the brand will develop over time. We further examine the effects of familiarity and replicate the findings related to H1 in Study 3.

3.2.2.2.2.1 Manipulation Checks

3.2.2.2.2.1.1 Brand Personality Manipulation

The brand personality manipulation was successful. The sincere condition was perceived as significantly more sincere than the exciting condition ($M_S = 4.78$, $M_E = 3.81$, $p < .001$) and the exciting condition was perceived as significantly more exciting than the sincere condition ($M_E = 4.70$, $M_S = 3.81$, $p < .001$). Further, the sincere condition was seen as more sincere than exciting while the exciting condition was rated as significantly more exciting than sincere (all p 's $< .001$).

3.2.2.2.2.1.2 Attachment Style Manipulation

To test whether the manipulation of attachment style was successful, we conducted a series of ANOVAs to test for differences between the experimental conditions on each of the following measures: security, anxiety, and avoidance. The three attachment style conditions did not differ on any of those dimensions (all p 's $> .329$). Table 3.3 presents a summary of the means and standard deviations for each experimental condition. Anticipating that attachment style may be hard to manipulate due to enduring traits being stronger than situational states, we had included a measure of attachment style. Therefore, in the analyses, we do not use the manipulated variable attachment style, but rather, use the trait measure for attachment style.

3.2.2.2.3 Results

3.2.2.2.3.1 Total Engagement Likelihood

We ran a linear multiple regression on total engagement likelihood with scores for the anxious and secure dimensions of attachment style, brand personality, and the interaction terms between brand personality and attachment style. Secure attachment style positively influenced engagement likelihood ($\beta = .264, p = .031$). The effect of anxious attachment style was not significant ($\beta = .179, p = .101$). The effect of brand personality on customer engagement was not significant ($\beta = -.194, p > .322$). The two interaction terms (secure x brand personality, anxious x brand personality) were not significant (p 's $> .503$), thus we fail to support H2a and H2b. These results are presented in Table 3.4.

Last, we explored whether purchase intentions affect engagement likelihood. We find that people who reported being likely or somewhat more likely to purchase the fitness activity tracking device, were also significantly more likely to engage in all behaviors ($p < .001$). However, this is a correlational finding; therefore, it is possible that those who engage more could also be more likely to purchase.

3.2.2.2.4 Discussion

Study 2 provided additional evidence in support of H1: individual attachment style affects engagement—secure attachment style has a stronger effect on engagement likelihood than anxious style. Our findings regarding the effect of brand personality on engagement have been mixed so far. Study 1 found consumers to be more likely to

engage with exciting brands regardless of attachment style while Study 2 found that brand personality has no effect on customer engagement.

In study 1, we used a survey design where participants were asked to think of a brand they like, thus their levels of attachment toward the brand they selected is expected to be high (and indeed, participants reported levels of attachment higher than the midpoint: $M = 4.67$ on a 7-point attachment scale). In contrast, in study 2, an experimental design was used where the product featured in the ad (fitness activity tracking device) was unbranded, thus participants could not have been affected by prior brand attitudes. It is possible that brand familiarity and brand attachment could impact the effect of brand personality on customer engagement. For example, brand attachment is expected to lead to customer engagement (van Doorn et al. 2010; Keller 2001). Further, one can expect that brand familiarity should be an antecedent of most engagement behaviors with respect to the brand as consumers will be unlikely to exert effort to engage when familiarity with the brand is low (except for learning more about a new product). Therefore we suggest:

H3: Brand familiarity has a positive effect on customer engagement.

As previously discussed, anxious individuals engage in brand signaling as a compensatory mechanism to improve their self-esteem (Swaminathan et al. 2009). Consumers express their desired identities through products (Belk 1988; Edson Escalas and Bettman 2003) and more specifically through brand choices. A brand choice could serve as a signal to others because people associate a brand with the type of consumers who buy this brand (Wernerfelt 1990). When it comes to brand signaling, it could be expected that consumers would pick popular or familiar brands over unfamiliar brands as this would help them identify with others that they might aspire to be like. Since anxious

individuals are more likely to use brand signaling than secure individuals and brand familiarity is more important when trying to send a signal, we expect that anxious consumers would be more likely to engage with a familiar as opposed to a less familiar brand. Thus, we suggest:

H4: The effect of brand familiarity on customer engagement is stronger for anxious compared to secure individuals.

3.2.3 Study 3: The Role of Brand Familiarity

The goal of Study 3 was to test the effect of brand familiarity on customer engagement. Prior to the study a pretest was conducted to test the manipulations of brand personality.

3.2.3.1 Pretest

The ads manipulating brand personality were pretested prior to the main study. One hundred respondents from Amazon Mechanical Turk participated in the pretest.

A 2 (brand familiarity: familiar, unfamiliar) x 2 (brand personality: sincere, exciting) between-subjects design was used. Four stimuli featuring the same model sneakers were created corresponding to the four conditions in the experimental study design. The sneakers product category was chosen for generalizability and also because more individuals own sneakers compared to fitness activity monitoring devices. Further, additional analysis of Study 1 showed that the clothing category enjoys high engagement levels⁵. Therefore, this product category was suitable to examine customer engagement.

⁵ In Study 1 respondents were asked to think of a brand they like and were asked to provide the name of that brand. The brands were then coded on the basis of their product category. The classification resulted in

The two brands selected for the familiar and unfamiliar condition were Puma and Runmate, respectively. These brands were pretested in a different pretest for familiarity and perceived quality.

Figure 3.2 shows the stimuli used in this pretest (note, to increase involvement with the sincere brand ad, these stimuli were modified from the stimuli used in the previous study (study 2) in the following ways: a more modern sneaker was used as well as a stronger slogan. In the previous study, the slogans were “Because life is too exciting (meaningful) to let it pass you by” where “exciting” was used in the exciting condition and “meaningful” was used in the sincere condition. To make the slogans stronger we added “Countless exciting adventures to wear your PUMA sneakers to; Enjoy a moment of pushing the limits with Puma” (exciting condition) and “Countless precious moments to wear your Puma sneakers to; Enjoy a relaxing family time with Puma” (sincere condition).

3.2.3.1.1 Familiarity Manipulation Check

As expected, participants were more familiar with Puma than the fictional brand, Runmate ($M = 5.39$ vs. 2.14 , $t_{58} = 11.78$, $p < .001$). In addition, Puma was also perceived of higher quality than Runmate ($M = 5.33$ vs. 3.79 , $t_{58} = 7.84$, $p < .001$). It should be noted that despite the low familiarity with Runmate, consumer perceptions of the quality of the brand were neutral ($M = 3.79$ vs. the midpoint 3.5).

four categories (clothing, technology, food & beverage, and other). The “other” category included categories that did not have a high number of occurrences. Results show that the clothing and technology categories had higher engagement likelihood than the other two categories, “food & beverage” and “other” ($F(3,155)=6.304$, $p<.001$).

3.2.3.1.2 Brand Personality Manipulation Check

The sincere familiar condition (Puma) was perceived as marginally more sincere than the exciting familiar condition ($M = 4.94$ vs. 4.38 , $t_{46} = -1.84$, $p = .072$). The exciting personality in the exciting familiar condition was higher than that of the sincere familiar condition ($M = 5.40$ vs. 3.75 , $t_{46} = 4.71$, $p < .001$). Thus, the manipulation of brand personality in the familiar (Puma) condition was successful. Table 3.5 presents a summary of the relevant statistics.

The sincere unfamiliar (Runmate) condition was perceived as more sincere than the exciting unfamiliar condition ($M = 5.28$ vs. $M = 4.34$, $t_{50} = -3.80$, $p < .001$). The exciting unfamiliar condition was rated more exciting than the sincere unfamiliar condition ($M = 4.86$ vs. 3.67 , $t_{50} = 3.06$, $p < .005$). Thus, the manipulation of brand personality for the unfamiliar brand (Runmate) was also successful.

Last, we checked for differences in ad involvement, perceived brand quality, and attitude toward the brand. Ad involvement did not differ between the different experimental conditions ($F(3,96) = 2.05$, $p > .112$). As it could be expected, the familiar brand (Puma) was perceived of higher quality than the unfamiliar brand Runmate ($M = 3.65$ vs. 3.10 , $t_{98} = 2.91$, $p < .005$). Similarly, participants had a more favorable attitude toward the familiar brand Puma compared to the unfamiliar Runmate ($M = 6.13$ vs. 4.69 , $t_{95} = 5.95$, $p < .001$). This is not surprising since purchasing an unknown brand involves risk (Sheth and Venkatesh 1968). Given these differences, we control for brand attitude in the main study.

3.2.3.2 Main Study

The goal of this study was to provide an explanation for the conflicting findings between studies 1 and 2 with respect to brand personality and attachment style. While Study 1 found that consumers are more likely to engage with a brand with an exciting rather than sincere personality, study 2 found that brand personality did not affect engagement. Further, in study 1, we found that anxious consumers were marginally more likely to engage with sincere brands, whereas in study 2, we found that secure people are more likely to engage. A possible explanation for these conflicting results is that an unbranded product was used as a stimulus in study 2 whereas the focal brand in study 1 was selected by the consumer. We argue that lack of familiarity with the brand as well as brand attachment could possibly account for those results. In study 1 participants picked a familiar brand toward which they could have felt attached ($M = 4.67$ on a 7-point attachment scale) whereas in study 2 they rated their engagement likelihood toward an unbranded stimulus, limiting the role of attachment.

Brand attachment is expected to lead to customer engagement (van Doorn et al. 2010; Keller 2001). Further, one can expect that brand familiarity should be an antecedent of most engagement behaviors as consumers will be unlikely to expend effort to engage when familiarity is low (except for learning more about a new product). Because anxious individuals engage in brand signaling as a compensatory mechanism to improve their self-esteem (Swaminathan et al. 2009), we expect that brand familiarity will matter even more for them than for secure individuals (H4).

3.2.3.2.1 Study Design

The data for this study was collected on Amazon mechanical Turk. A total of 202 respondents were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk and were compensated for their participation. Sixteen failed an attention check, thus reducing the sample to 186 (51% female). Seventy-two percent were between the ages of 20-39.

The design for the study is 2 (Brand Familiarity: Unfamiliar/Familiar) x 2 (Brand Personality: Sincere/Exciting) x 2 (Attachment style: Anxious/Secure) between subjects design where the first two factors were manipulated and attachment style was measured. Puma was used as the familiar brand and Runmate was the unfamiliar brand. As with the previous studies, brand personality was manipulated via images and slogans. The brand personality manipulation was described in the pretest.

A list of the scales used in this study (engagement likelihood, attachment style, brand familiarity, and purchase likelihood) is provided in Appendix C.

3.2.3.2.2 Method

The data was analyzed using linear regressions. The two dependent variables are brand attachment and engagement likelihood. As in the previous studies total engagement likelihood was calculated as the average of the engagement likelihoods for all individual behaviors included in the study (refer to the Appendix C for the list). As in the previous studies, attachment style was measured using a scale adapted from Collins and Read (1990).

3.2.3.2.3 Results

3.2.3.2.3.1 Manipulation Checks

The brand personality manipulation was successful for both brands, Puma and Runmate (all p 's < .005). The statistics are presented in Table 3.5. Because normality was violated for the exciting brand personality in the PUMA condition, we transformed that variable using a square root transformation for moderate negative skew (Tabachnik and Fidell 2000), $\text{SQRT}(K-X)$ where K is a constant equal to the largest score + 1 and X is the rating for exciting brand personality.

As expected, participants were more familiar with Puma than Runmate ($M_{\text{PUMA}} = 4.93$, $M_{\text{RUN}} = 1.80$, $p < .001$), thus the familiarity manipulation was successful.

3.2.3.2.3.2 Hypotheses Tests

To test our hypothesis that individuals with secure attachment style are more attached than individuals with anxious attachment style (H1), we ran a one-way ANOVA on brand attachment with attachment style (2-levels: secure or anxious). To create the two-level categorical variable attachment style, we first classified respondents using the attachment style scale into the four different styles (secure, dismissing, pre-occupied, and fearful), resulting from the combinations of different levels of anxiety and avoidance (high or low). Next, we collapsed the secure and dismissing individuals into one variable (the groups did not differ on the dependent measure brand attachment, $p > .1$) and the pre-occupied and fearful individuals into anxious (again, there were no differences for brand attachment, $p > .1$). There was a marginally significant effect of attachment style ($F(1,168) = 3.31$, $p = .071$) such that anxious individuals were more attached compared to secure individuals ($M_{\text{A}} = 2.91$ vs. $M_{\text{S}} = 2.42$). This finding was contrary to what we

found in study 1 (note, in study 2 we used an unbranded product, which is why we do not examine differences in brand attachment).

We also expected that anxious consumers will be more likely to engage with brands with exciting personalities (H2a) and that the opposite will hold true for secure consumers (H2b). These hypotheses were not supported as shown by the lack of significant interaction between brand personality and attachment style ($p = .700$). Thus, we fail to support H2a and H2b, which is consistent with our prior results.

Next, we tested the effect of brand familiarity on customer engagement (H3) and also the hypothesis that secure individuals will be more likely to engage than insecure individuals; we expected this effect to be attenuated by brand familiarity (H4). A multiple regression on engagement likelihood was run with anxiety, security, brand familiarity; brand personality, and the respective interaction terms (for all factors except brand personality which was categorical, continuous measures were used). We centered the factors prior to calculating the interactions. We included attitude toward the brand as a control variable in the regression model.

The results indicate a main effect of brand familiarity ($\beta = .107$, $t = 2.003$, $p = .047$) on customer engagement in support of H3. The effect of attachment style on engagement, however, was not significant ($p > .574$). The effect of brand personality on engagement was not significant either ($p > .375$). However, as predicted, the interaction between brand familiarity and anxiety was significant ($\beta = .119$, $t = 2.403$, $p = .017$) indicating that for anxious individuals an increase in brand familiarity affects engagement likelihood favorably, all other factors constant. Thus, H4 is supported. Figure 3.3 displays the effect of brand familiarity on engagement for anxious and secure consumers.

In summary, brand familiarity impacts customer engagement positively (H3 supported) and this effect is greater for anxious individuals (H4 supported). This finding provides explanation for our conflicting findings in studies 1 and 2 with respect to our mixed results regarding the effect of brand personality and attachment style on engagement.

3.2.3.2.3.3 Exploration of Effects by Behavior

Next we conducted the regression analysis described above separately for each behavior included in this study. Consistent with the overall results, brand personality did not affect engagement for most behaviors. There was one exception only: a brand with an exciting personality positively affects engagement for reading reviews.

While we did not find a main effect of anxiety on overall engagement, anxiety affected favorably the likelihood of mentioning the brand in a tweet (Post-Purchase cluster) and sharing a company post/photo/video (Informative-Product).

Consistent with the results for the effect of brand familiarity on total engagement likelihood, the interaction term between familiarity and anxiety was significant for the following behaviors: liking the company's Facebook page (Info-Social), liking a company post on Facebook (Low Effort), signing up for loyalty rewards (Economic), mentioning a company in a tweet (Post-Purchase), mentioning a company in a blog (Post-Purchase), and sharing a post/photo/video (Info-Product). Individuals high on anxiety were more likely to engage in these behaviors when the brand is more familiar, which is what we hypothesized. Table 3.7 presents a summary of the results (we report the unstandardized coefficients beta and the associated p-values).

Finally, the three way interactions between anxiety, familiarity, and brand personality were significant for liking a company's Facebook page (Info-Social), liking a post on Facebook (Low Effort), mentioning a company in a tweet (Post-Purchase), mentioning a company in a blog (Post-Purchase), and sharing a post/photo/video (Informative-Product)⁶. Although these behaviors belong to different cluster groups, what they all have in common is that they are all public behaviors (by public we mean that engagement in one of these behaviors is visible to other individuals). It should be noted that the coefficient associated with the three-way interaction is negative, which implies a decrease in engagement likelihood in those behaviors given an exciting brand (the sincere brand was coded as 0 and the exciting as 1). These results provide evidence for the moderating role of brand familiarity on the relationship between brand personality and attachment style on engagement. The results further suggest that with respect to public engagement behaviors, a sincere brand personality might be associated with greater engagement likelihood for anxious individuals.

3.2.3.2.4 Discussion

Study 3 had two goals – to explore the role of familiarity on customer engagement and to try to reconcile the findings from Study 1 and 2 with respect to brand personality and attachment style. The results support the importance of brand familiarity for engagement and for the proposed moderating role of brand familiarity for the effect of attachment style on customer engagement. While brand familiarity is an important factor influencing a consumer's likelihood to engage, it is even more important for consumers

⁶ Note, this interaction did not reach significance in the regression model where the dependent variable was total engagement likelihood ($p > .197$).

with anxious attachment style. As discussed previously, anxious consumers use brands as a signaling mechanism which allows them to reduce the gap between their actual and ideal selves.

With respect to the individual behaviors examined in this research, the effects were particularly persistent for engagement behaviors that we described as public (e.g. liking a company's Facebook page, liking a post on Facebook, mentioning a company in a tweet, mentioning a company in a blog, and sharing post/photo/video). Future research could examine in more depth the mechanism underlying these effects. For example, self-presentation and impression-management could be driving these effects, as well as in-group membership aspirations.

3.2.4 General Discussion

Although customer engagement has received growing attention from both academics and practitioners in the last few years, the literature on customer engagement has been rather fragmented. Most of the articles on engagement have been conceptual and little is known about the effect of individual characteristics on engagement. Further, the effect of brand personality on consumer intentions to engage in various behaviors that extend beyond purchase (i.e. liking a Facebook page, writing a review, mentioning the brand on Facebook, etc.) has not been examined.

This essay begins to shed light upon important research questions including how brand characteristics and individual personality affect customer engagement. We find that consumers with secure attachment styles tend to engage more than consumers with anxious attachment styles. Our results with respect to brand personality were mixed.

Study 1 suggested that consumers are more likely to engage with exciting as opposed to sincere brands, however, Study 2 did not replicate this finding. Study 1 used a survey design while Study 2 used an experimental design featuring an unbranded product. Study 3 resolved the inconsistency in results by examining the effect of brand familiarity on the relationship between attachment style and brand personality on customer engagement. Study 3 found that brand familiarity positively affects engagement likelihood and this effect is stronger for consumers with anxious attachment style. Further, study 3 found significant three-way interaction effects between brand personality, attachment style, and familiarity for engagement behaviors displayed in public only; for anxious consumers, the more familiar the brand is, the more likely they are going to engage given a sincere brand personality. Brand personality did not appear to affect private behaviors (behaviors that others are unaware someone had engaged in).

In summary, by identifying personality factors (attachment style type) and brand characteristics (brand personality and brand familiarity) that impact engagement behaviors, this research contributes to the literature on customer engagement. Further, this dissertation also contributes to the literature on brand personality — to our knowledge, the effect of brand personality on online customer engagement have not previously been examined.

This essay has several managerial implications. First, it helps marketers identify personality characteristics that differentiate consumers that are more likely to engage. In addition, this essay also identifies important brand characteristics that draw consumers to engage such as brand personality and brand familiarity. We highlight the importance of brand familiarity on engagement, in particular for anxious individuals. Brand personality

appeared to have a more prominent role for public engagement behaviors; with increase in brand familiarity, anxious consumers were more likely to engage, given a sincere brand.

Table 3.1
Study 1: Effect of Attachment Style on Brand Attachment

Independent variables	β	t	p-value
Security score	.063	2.847	.005**
Anxiety score	.013	.518	.605

Table 3.2
Study 1: Effect of Attachment Style and Brand Personality on Customer Engagement

Independent Variables	β	t	p-value
Anxiety score	-.009	-.312	.755
Security score	.012	.467	.641
Sincere BP	-.007	-.050	.960
Exciting BP	.962	7.601	.000**
Anxiety x Exciting BP	.015	.406	.685
Anxiety x Sincere BP	.067	1.878	.062*
Security x Sincere BP	.004	.131	.896
Security x Exciting BP	.004	.161	.872

$R^2 = .334$, Adj. $R^2 = .299$

**p-value <.001

*p-value <.09

Note, brand personality is abbreviated as BP.

Table 3.3
Study 2: Attachment Style Manipulation Check

Experimental Condition	Secure score	Anxious score	Avoidance score
Secure style condition	4.667 (1.252)	3.006 (1.443)	3.613 (1.319)
Anxious style condition	4.690 (1.036)	3.140 (1.393)	3.660 (1.170)
Anxious-avoidant condition	4.378 (1.128)	2.830 (1.342)	3.830 (1.289)

p's > .329

Table 3.4
Study 2: Effect of Attachment Style and Brand Personality on Engagement Likelihood

Independent Variables	β	t	p-value
Anxiety Score	.179	1.652	.101
Security Score	.264*	2.179	.031
Brand Personality (BP)	-.194	-.994	.322
BP x Anxiety	-.003	-.019	.985
BP x Security	.119	.671	.503

*p-value significant at $p < .05$

Table 3.5
Study 3: Brand Personality Manipulations

	Familiar Brand Condition	Unfamiliar Brand Condition
Sincere Brand Personality Score		
Sincere experimental condition	4.937 ^a (1.061)	5.280 ^c (.777)
Exciting experimental condition	4.384 ^b (1.002)	4.342 ^d (.999)
Exciting Brand Personality Score		
Sincere experimental condition	3.750 ^c (1.512)	3.667 ^c (1.407)
Exciting experimental condition	5.400 ^d (.872)	4.860 ^d (1.404)

a, b: $p < .073$

c, d: $p < .005$

Note, different superscripts within brand conditions (columns) indicate differences in means on sincere or exciting brand personality score (measure) between the sincere and exciting experimental conditions.

Table 3.6
Study 3: Effect of Brand Familiarity, Attachment style, and Brand Personality on Customer Engagement Likelihood

Independent Variables	β	t	p-value
Security	.033	.289	.773
Anxiety	.060	.564	.574
brand personality (bp)	.126	.890	.375
brand familiarity (fam)	.107*	2.003	.047
fam x security	.062	1.259	.210
fam x anxiety	.119*	2.403	.017
bp x fam	-.046	-.656	.512
bp x anxiety	-.014	-.108	.914
bp x security	.022	.147	.883
bp x fam x anxiety	-.085	-1.296	.197
bp x fam x security	-.061	-.856	.393
attitude (control)	.811**	12.416	.000

$R^2 = .632.$, Adj. $R^2 = .607$

**p-value <.001

*p-value <.05

Table 3.7
Study 3: Engagement Likelihood by Individual Behavior

Engagement Behavior	Cluster	Security	Anxiety	BP	Brand Famil (fam)	fam x security	fam x anxiety	bp x fam	bp x anxiety	bp x security	bp x fam x anxiety	bp x fam x security
Visiting the website	Info-Social	-0.023	.020	.308	-.102	.037	.099	-.034	-.054	.161	-.045	-.003
		.893	.902	.152	.211	.621	.187	.752	.789	.467	.651	.974
Reading reviews	Info-Social	-.215	-.201	.506*	.038	-.023	-.019	-.221*	-.041	.188	.037	-.030
		.245	.242	.028	.655	.773	.809	.053	.849	.426	.724	.795
Liking the company's Facebook page	Info-Social	.076	-.041	.151	.057	.168*	.253**	-.083	.190	.065	-.227*	-.180
		.639	.782	.449	.452	.016	.000	.406	.311	.751	.015	.072
Telling others about a purchase	Expertise	.234	.160	.107	.014	.143*	.070	.020	.006	-.170	-.037	-.052
		.154	.294	.595	.855	.043	.320	.841	.974	.417	.693	.605
Writing a review	Expertise	.069	.144	.034	-.022	.098	.101	-.049	-.037	.026	-.115	-.075
		.680	.356	.870	.784	.176	.167	.634	.850	.903	.233	.470
Reading about the company	Expertise	-.192	.079	.361	-.054	-.047	.021	-.108	-.171	.138	.073	.075
		.299	.643	.114	.534	.551	.789	.343	.425	.559	.493	.510
Liking a company post on Facebook	Low Effort	.142	.141	.105	.075	.110	.190**	-.095	.017	-.031	-.195*	-.122
		.353	.321	.577	.296	.097	.004	.314	.922	.873	.027	.200
Watching a company ad	Low Effort	.249	.223	.166	-.109	.016	.057	.131	-.191	-.245	-.028	-.027
		.173	.189	.460	.202	.838	.473	.244	.369	.295	.792	.813
Signing up for loyalty rewards program	Economic	-.262	-.168	.012	.110	.117	.200**	-.066	.274	.442*	-.159	-.130
		.129	.293	.956	.171	.115	.008	.531	.172	.046	.109	.224
Downloading a coupon	Economic	-.097	-.152	-.205	-.087	-.016	.028	.067	-.023	.149	.044	.003
		.599	.376	.368	.313	.839	.723	.555	.914	.527	.676	.978
Entering sweepstakes	Economic	.132	.071	-.125	-.076	.104	.103	.138	-.096	-.014	-.029	-.094
		.501	.697	.606	.407	.216	.223	.251	.674	.956	.796	.437
Mentioning the company in a tweet	Post-Purchase	.317*	.403**	.069	.140*	.117	.239**	-.202*	-.166	-.170	-.188**	-.067
		.044	.006	.721	.056	.083	.000	.037	.360	.394	.036	.487
Mentioning the company in a blog	Post-Purchase	.176	.270	.214	.090	.118	.183**	-.093	-.087	-.160	-.195*	-.156
		.265	.066	.270	.222	.083	.008	.335	.634	.427	.032	.110
Sharing a post/photo/video	Info-Product	.174	.287*	.066	.040	.090	.188**	-.083	-.026	.043	-.184*	-.101
		.267	.050	.731	.584	.185	.006	.387	.887	.831	.041	.295
Browsing the company's website	Info-Product	-.128	-.013	.341	-.062	-.071	.015	-.059	-.026	.260	.013	.097
		.479	.936	.128	.460	.365	.846	.594	.902	.261	.903	.388

Note, the numbers in the shaded rows display the unstandardized b coefficients, the numbers in white rows represent the corresponding p-values.

Figure 3.1
Stimuli used in Study 2

a) Sincere Personality Condition




Because life is too **meaningful** to let it pass you by....



We can be your partner in your quest for fitness; we'll work with you every step of the way to make sure you succeed.

b) Exciting Personality Condition



Because life is too **exciting** to let it pass you by....



We have many exciting new ways to use your bracelet; you can push the limits and have a great time with our hot exercise routines featured in the startup guide!

Figure 3.2
Stimuli used in Study 3
Exciting Brand Personality condition (Known brand condition)

Because life is too exciting to let it pass you by....



Countless exciting adventures to wear your **PUMA** sneakers to;
Enjoy a moment of pushing your limits with **PUMA!**

Sincere Brand Personality Condition (Known brand condition)



Because life is too meaningful to let it pass you by....



Countless precious moments to wear your **PUMA** sneakers to;
Enjoy a relaxing family time with **PUMA!**

Exciting Brand Personality condition (Unknown brand condition)

Because life is too exciting to let it pass you by....



Countless exciting adventures to wear your **RUNMATE** sneakers to;
Enjoy a moment of pushing your limits with **RUNMATE!**

Sincere Brand Personality condition (Unknown brand condition)

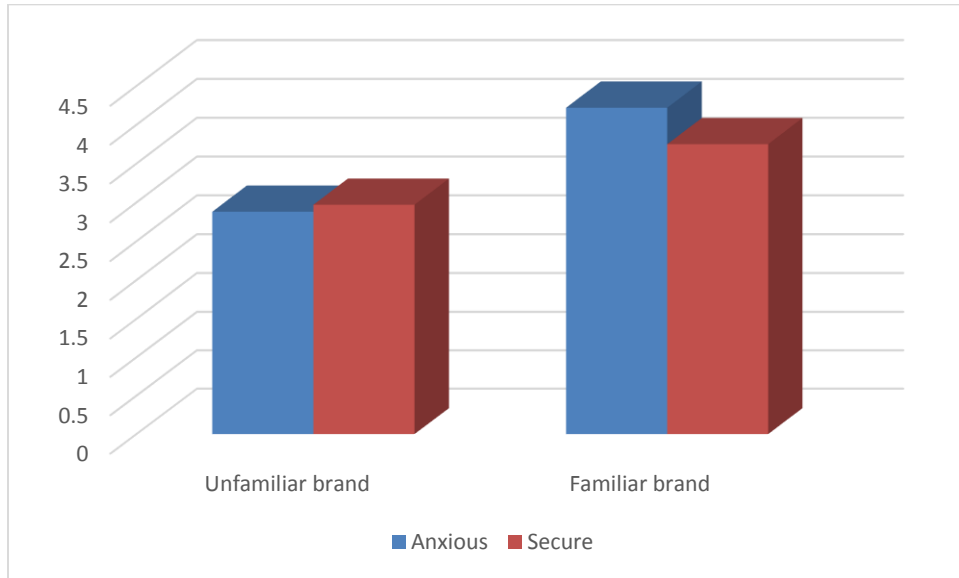
Because life is too meaningful to let it pass you by....



Countless precious moments to wear your **RUNMATE** sneakers to;
Enjoy a relaxing family time with **RUNMATE!**

Figure 3.3
Study 3: Effect of Attachment Style and Brand Familiarity on Customer Engagement Likelihood

Customer Engagement



CHAPTER 4

CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

4.1 Theoretical Contributions

Although customer engagement has received growing interest from both academics and practitioners, extant research has been primarily conceptual. Essay 1 of this dissertation seeks to understand the motivations behind various engagement behaviors. This essay begins to fill an important gap in the literature on engagement — research to date has not examined the motivations driving engagement in a systematic way. That is, studies have looked at different behaviors (e.g., eWOM), one at a time, but have not examined similarities or differences among engagement behaviors. In this essay we propose a typology of customer engagement behaviors (Chapter 2/ Essay 1) based on the perceived motivational benefits from engagement for an extensive list of behaviors.

Essay 1 builds upon the Uses and Gratifications Framework (Blumler and Katz 1974; Katz et al. 1974) which was originally developed to understand media consumption, but has been adapted to understand online behaviors such as participation in virtual communities and social networking (Raacke and Bonds-Raacke 2008). This essay contributes to marketing theory in the following ways. First, we extend the framework to analyze an extensive list of engagement behaviors, the goal of which is to present a systematic approach of looking at engagement behaviors as groups of behaviors that are driven by similar motivations (reflected in the different benefits derived from engagement). By doing so we create a typology of customer engagement behaviors. Second, we extend the Uses and Gratifications framework, which consists of cognitive,

social-integrative, personal-integrative, and hedonic benefits, to include an overlooked benefit – economic benefits. Economic benefits are an important motivation for engagement as consumers often expect an economic incentive in order to engage in various behaviors. We show that the motivational benefits proposed by the Uses and Gratifications framework along with the additional benefit we incorporated – economic benefits, can be used to distinguish among engagement behaviors.

In addition to the different motivations driving engagement behaviors, we also seek to understand whether and how brand personality and individual attachment style affect consumer engagement (Chapter 3/ Essay 2). With regards to attachment style, we find that secure consumers are more likely to engage than anxious ones. Our results regarding the effect of brand personality on engagement have been mixed. Results from study 1 suggest that marketers might benefit from highlighting the exciting personality of a brand in order to drive engagement while study 2 did not detect a significant effect of brand personality. Study 3 found interactive effects between brand personality, familiarity, and attachment style such that a sincere brand personality resulted in higher engagement likelihood for anxious individuals with increase in brand familiarity. Last, we find that brand familiarity has a favorable role for engagement – consumers are more likely to engage with a familiar than an unfamiliar brand. This effect is stronger for consumers with anxious attachment style.

This research contributes to the fragmented and mostly conceptual literature on customer engagement in the following ways. First, we identify important benefits consumers derive from engagement behaviors and show how the different clusters we identified in our typology differ on their motivational benefits. Second, we show that

individual attachment style type and brand characteristics (brand personality and brand familiarity) impact engagement behaviors. Last, to our knowledge, the effect of brand personality on online customer engagement have not previously been examined. Therefore, this research also contributes to the literature on brand personality.

4.2 Managerial Contributions

Customer engagement has become a buzz word in marketing. Marketers want engaged consumers because engagement is considered to lead to desired outcomes such as loyalty and purchase behavior. How well marketers understand engagement, however, is not clear. Practitioners appear to think of engagement very generally, but due to the broad scope of this construct reflected in the manifestation of engagement in various behaviors, it might be more effective for marketers to target specific engagement behaviors. Marketers could use the typology proposed in Chapter 2 (Essay 1) to design targeted advertising messages. By appealing to the motivations driving different groups of behaviors, they can create effective marketing messages that drive engagement. For example, gaining personal integrative benefits is a motivation for engaging in Expertise behaviors. Marketers could appeal to this motivation by saying, “Unleash the expert in you” or as a recent email to recruit online survey participants by LinkedIn asked, “LinkedIn request for expertise.”

Engagement is unlikely to occur when a consumer is unfamiliar with a brand. By raising brand awareness, marketers can expect increased engagement. Based on our results this effect is expected to be stronger for anxious individuals. By identifying anxious vs. secure individuals based on their internet usage patterns, marketers will be

able to reach anxious consumers online. Further, the extent to which a brand's personality is perceived as exciting or sincere might also affect engagement. Our results, however with respect to brand personality, were mixed. Results from study 1 suggest that marketers might benefit from highlighting the exciting personality of a brand in order to drive engagement while study 2 did not detect a significant effect of brand personality. Study 3 showed a three-way interaction between attachment style, brand familiarity, and brand personality such that for public behaviors, with increase in familiarity, sincere brands enjoyed higher engagement likelihood from anxious individuals.

Future research needs to explore further the effect of brand personality on customer engagement. In particular, it would be interesting to see whether consumers might be more prone to attach to one type of brand personality, exciting or sincere, but engage with another type. For example, consumers might engage with certain brands for self-presentation motives or to identify with a group they aspire to be a part of. In situations when they are attached to a brand that others may not feel strongly about or may even have a negative attitude, consumers may choose not to display their attachment.

Understanding different consumer characteristics such as their attachment styles can result in better-tailored marketing communications. The future of data marketing is to design personalized messages that are more complex than simply showing consumers an image of a product they browsed online recently. Marketers could try to focus on engaging anxious consumers because they could be less likely to engage compared to those consumers who are secure; thus there is potential to increase engagement. Identifying anxious vs. secure consumers may not be a very easy task, however,

companies are constantly tracking consumer online activities through the use of cookies. Depending on what types of online behaviors and information search individuals engage in, identifying personalities based on attachment styles should be possible.

4.3 Limitations

This research explored consumer motivations related to the perceived benefits from customer engagement. Although we aimed to investigate an extensive list of behaviors, the possibilities for engagement are endless; thus some behaviors have inevitably been left out. In addition, with the emergence of new social media sites or new plugins for existing social media networks, new behaviors come into existence. Nevertheless, we believe that the benefits outlined in this research are general enough to help us understand new engagement behaviors.

Essay 1 has several limitations. First, Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used as the primary source for data collection. While the validity of MTurk samples have been acknowledged (Berinsky et al. 2012; Buhrmester et al. 2011; Goodman et al. 2013), it is possible that respondents collected through this service have different motivations to engage than other consumers. Considering MTurk workers receive a modest compensation to take surveys, they may be more motivated by financial incentives than the average consumer. Future research should explore the generalizability of these findings with other samples.

A limitation of the second essay is that marketers may find it difficult to distinguish between anxious and secure individuals. A possible way to deal with this is by observing how a consumer interacts with a brand and their online search patterns. For

example, anxious individuals, driven by the need to be accepted by others, might follow more brands on social media, but may not necessarily interact more. They could also be more likely to search about certain topics online. Future research can seek to identify behavioral patterns associated with different attachment styles.

In addition, further research is needed to examine the role of brand personality on engagement across different product categories. While study 1, which used a survey design, explored a diverse list of categories, the two experimental studies, study 2 and 3, featured two different product categories, technology products and shoes, respectively.

Last, the brand personality manipulations were delivered through print ads and, although successful, it may be difficult for consumers to infer brand personality from static images alone. Therefore, future research could manipulate brand personality via the use of videos.

4.4 Future Research

In Essay 1 we created a typology of engagement behaviors based on five motivations (cognitive, social-integrative, personal-integrative, hedonic, and economic benefits). It is possible that other motivations exist beyond the five primary motivations we considered. Future research could seek to identify whether other motivations are also important drivers of engagement behaviors.

It should also be mentioned that while we considered economic incentives a positive motivation, under certain conditions, it is likely that incentives could undermine engagement (Ryan and Deci 2000). Thus, an interesting question for future research is whether certain behaviors are negatively affected by the use of incentives and what is the

mechanism driving this effect. Research could also investigate the effectiveness of different types of economic incentives for engagement. Incentives linked to the underlying motives identified should be more effective at motivating engagement through these behaviors.

Characteristics of the behavior itself such as whether the behavior is displayed online (e.g. liking a Facebook page) or remains private (e.g. reading a blog), could also impact one's engagement. Effort required to engage in a behavior could also affect one's willingness to engage – for example, suppose you were reading a review for a product or service and noticed icons allowing you to rate the review as either “helpful” or “not helpful” by clicking on the respective icon. Imagine you clicked on the icon of your choice, but your rating was not recorded. Instead, you were asked to log in or register for an account. Suppose you did not have an account or simply forgot the password to your account, would you proceed or would you exit the site? It is very likely that you may close the page, thinking that providing the rating was not worth your time. On the other hand, if you were about to write a review, that extra step of registering for an account or logging in may not have been as strong a deterrent possibly because writing a review is a behavior that demands higher effort compared to giving a rating and is potentially more valuable to other website visitors. Future research can explore the role of these additional factors in engagement decisions and behavior.

Essay 2 examined the effect of brand personality and individual attachment style on engagement behaviors. Prior research has suggested that sincere and exciting personalities capture the major variance in brand personalities, thus we focused on those two traits. However, it is possible that other brand personality traits could also impact

engagement. For example, a rugged brand is typically associated with having masculine features. When it comes to a brand with a rugged brand personality, one can expect that men compared to women might be more likely to find a rugged brand appealing.

However, under high involvement with the product category and a congruence between the brand personality and the activity for which the brand is used, this effect should not hold. Consider hiking for example — a rugged brand of shoes should be preferred by both men and women who are passionate about hiking because a rugged personality reflects endurance, a characteristic that is necessary for hiking. Future research can investigate such effects.

Further, we focused on one aspect of individual personality, namely the role of attachment style on customer engagement. In addition to attachment style, it is possible that other individual characteristics such as the Big Five personality traits could also affect customer engagement. This gap represents an avenue for future research. Last, it is possible that the brands consumers engage with online are not necessarily the ones they are most attached to. Future research is needed to understand what factors could explain this seemingly unintuitive behavior.

In conclusion, this research contributes to the literature on customer engagement in the following ways. First, most of the literature on engagement has been conceptual; researchers have explored individual engagement behaviors. By identifying important benefits consumers derive from engagement in different behaviors and showing what benefits distinguish the different clusters identified in our typology, we provide an integrative approach for examining engagement. Further, we show that individual attachment style and brand characteristics including brand personality and brand

familiarity impact engagement behaviors, which offers implications for both theory and practice. This research opens up interesting areas for future inquiry — in particular, research could examine the effectiveness of different types of incentives for engagement behaviors. Research could also examine additional personality characteristics that drive consumers to engage. Last, research could also explore whether the nature of the behavior (publicly displayed in the online environment vs. privately consumed) has a differential impact on outcomes such as engagement and attachment and what drives such effects.

Appendix A

Qualitative Study on Consumer Motivations to Engage

Twelve semi-structured interviews were conducted with undergraduate students from a large northeastern university. Four men and 8 women participated in the interviews and were compensated \$10 in exchange for their time. To protect their confidentiality, pseudonyms instead of their real names are used below. The interviews took place in an interview room and were taped using an audio recorder. The interviews lasted on average about 30 minutes. The questions asked in the interviews focused on how interviewees spend their time online and proceeded to whether they follow brands or companies on social media and in what kind of engagement behaviors they have participated. In addition, interviewees were also asked whether they have liked a company page to get an incentive. For a list of the questions used in the study, refer to the Interview Guide at the end of Appendix A. In accordance with qualitative research principles, this list was used as a guide and additional questions were asked by following up on interviewees' responses (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

College students are a viable sample to use in this study; being often referred to as the "born digitals," they represent a significant portion of the population who spends their time online and therefore are expected to partake in engagement behaviors. In line with this expectation, a recent report shows that the average 18-24 year old has four times as many "likes" of corporate pages as the average senior (Mintel 2012).

Findings

The majority of our interviewees have participated in more passive engagement behaviors. Most of the interviewees have not written any reviews, but all of them have read reviews. As we expected, participants acknowledged being engaged with brands they do not necessarily own. One participant said she was following Louis Vuitton on Instagram “cause I really love their shoes” even though she did not own the brand.

Interviewees indicated they like to frequent social media sites that offer useful information; this motivation aligns with the cognitive benefit described in the Uses and Gratifications framework. For example, a health conscious interviewee, who follows Chobani greek yogurt, said she liked their page because they offered interesting content such as healthy recipes using greek yogurt which made it look like it is not all about advertising the brand, but educating the consumer as well. A few of our interviewees indicated they do not like following food brands because they do not need to be updated about them.

Jeremy: I guess I tend to like the pages where I can personally relate. For example, I don't usually like food pages...For me that's sort of strange. I don't need updates on the Snickers bar.

Mobile Applications (apps) are another way in which students engage with brands. Some of these apps offer convenience: quite a few of our interviewees used bank apps on their phones. One interviewee enthusiastically spoke about the Chipotle app, which lets you order takeout online and saves you time waiting in line at busy locations.

Michelle: You can order your food from your phone so when you go there, you don't have to wait in line during rush hour...Over the summer in New York City that was like the hottest thing to have.

A few interviewees indicated they were willing to support a friends' business by liking their page on Facebook. Some also like to support small local businesses that need exposure.

We found that interviewees have liked or shared a post even if they thought they had no chance of winning because liking a page or sharing a post only takes seconds. Participation in contests, however, where the odds of winning are low, requires more effort and time, which not everyone is willing to spend.

Our interviewees said they will not "like" a company on Facebook in exchange for an incentive if they did not really know much about that company. This suggests that brand familiarity plays an important role in engagement. Moreover, one interviewee said that she must really like a company in order to "like" it on Facebook as she does not want her friends to see in their newsfeed that she is supporting a company she is not really fond of:

Kate: Oh, I don't wanna look that I'm endorsing this brand cause I don't know it.

A couple of interviewees were using apps because of the coupons and deals that they offer. For example, one student who uses the crafts store Michael's app said:

Jennifer: I'm a college student, I like the deal that you get, you just click on the coupon on the app and it has a barcode, so you just pay with your cell phone at checkout.

We were interested in what causes someone to remove an app because that may indicate disengagement. We found that one reason is lack of deals. One female participant had downloaded and later removed the OPI app:

Jennifer: It [the app] just had the color wheel, but it didn't have any practicality for me, it was just like, "see what colors we have," they didn't have deals and coupons... That app, I guess, it was cool, but the cool factor

wore off pretty quickly and then I said, “I don’t wanna take any more space on my phone.”

Posting too often is a reason why some people may not follow brands on social media or remove a page they have previously liked:

Michelle: There was one page...it was too much.

Interviewer: What do you mean by too much?

Michelle: They were posting, I felt like they were spamming my facebook wall, facebook newsfeed [corrects herself] because they would post like once an hour...I like seeing a post maybe once or twice a day.”

Other Themes

When it comes to their favorite social media site to connect with brands, I found that the majority of interviewees prefer to follow brands/companies on Twitter as opposed to Facebook due to a desire to separate friends’ newsfeed updates from those of acquaintances and corporate messages (including celebrities, brands or companies). This is an interesting finding for those companies who may not be very active on Twitter.

Discussion

Most interviewees have participated in more passive engagement behaviors. Interestingly, some of the brands they were engaged with were not necessarily brands that they were strongly attached to, but were brands that offered interactive and interesting content; this motivation aligns with the cognitive and hedonic benefits from the Uses and Gratifications framework. Another interesting observation is that the interviewees like separating friends’ updates from company/brand updates by using one type of social media primarily for brand updates and another for keeping in touch with friends. In most cases Twitter was the preferred site for receiving brand updates. Newer social media sites

such as Pinterest and Instagram were mentioned from female interviewees as sites that they like to follow clothing and shoes brands because they provide a lot of visuals.

The qualitative pretest shed light as to how often students engage with brands online and in what ways they interact with brands (contests, replying to comments, etc). We found that coupons in exchange for a “like” work for well-known brands, but not for new brands. This has an important implication for less known companies; they should try to build awareness first through traditional forms of advertising before expecting to grow the number of likes on Facebook or followers on other social media sites such as Twitter, Instagram, or Pinterest. This finding also suggests an additional motivation for engaging with brands online that is not captured by the Uses and Gratifications framework – economic incentives.

Qualitative Study Interview Guide

1. Welcome
 - a) Interviewer welcomes the respondent and engages in small talk to build rapport.

2. Instructions
 - a) Thank you for agreeing to come in, what I'd like to do is ask you questions about how you spend your time on the Internet – what are some of the things you do while online? There are not right or wrong answers, I just want you to be yourself and answer truthfully. I am recording the interview for my own records so I can review it later. While the recording will not be shared with others, I may share parts of it for academic purposes only, using pseudonyms to protect your identity. Is that ok?

3. Online Uses of the Internet/Online Behaviors
 - a) How do you spend your time online?
 - b) Do you use social media web sites? Which ones? How many hours a week do you spend approximately on social media sites?
 - c) What do you typically do while on social media?
 - d) Do you follow/have you liked companies/brands on Facebook or Twitter? Which ones? Do you remember if there was a reason why you clicked like for each of these brands?
 - e) How often do you update your Facebook status?

4. Thinking about the companies/brands you liked on Facebook or follow on Twitter:
 - a) Do you own the brand?
 - If yes, do you remember the first time you used this brand?
 - If they do not own the brand: why did you like it on Facebook?
 - b) When was the last time you visited the company/brand Facebook page?
 - c) Do you follow the company/brand posts on Facebook? Why?
 - d) Have you ever commented, liked or shared a company Facebook post? What was the content about? Please, elaborate on what motivated you to do any of these activities.
 - e) When was the last time you visited the company main webpage? Was there a particular reason you visited the webpage?
 - f) Do you have any company apps on your cell phone? Why did you download them? How often do you use them?
 - g) Have you removed any pages that you previously liked on Facebook? If yes, why?

5. Favorable Brand Attitudes vs. Brand Attachment

- a) Can you give examples of brands that you like?
 - b) How about brands that you consider yourself attached to (explain attachment)?
 - c) How would you describe your relationship with these brands in terms of frequency of purchase behavior?
6. Product Reviews and Other Helpful Behaviors
- a) Do you recall when was the last time you read a review before making a purchase? What kind of purchase was that? What motivated you to look for reviews? Did you find the reviews helpful/accurate? Did you write a review for this particular product (provided they purchased it)? Why or why not?
 - b) Have you written reviews for any other products or services? Which ones? When was the last time you wrote a review? What motivated you to do that? What website did you post it (company website or a special website for reviews)?
 - c) Have you replied to comments/questions posed by other buyers? Why or why not? Do you recall the content of the post?
7. Incentives offered to engage with the company using social media
- a) Have you ever been offered any incentives to like a page on Facebook? How did you react?
 - b) Imagine a company sends you an email to like their Facebook page in exchange for being entered in a sweepstake. What is your immediate reaction?
 - c) How about if they sent you a discount, would you like them? If not, why not? How big would the incentive have to be?
 - d) Are you subscribed to any company mailing lists? Which ones? Why?
8. Brand Communities/Forums
- a) Do you visit any brand communities (explain what a brand community is)? If yes, which one/s and what is the reason of your visit?
 - b) Think about the first time you visited this community, what motivated you to do so?
 - c) Have you ever replied to a post on these forums? Why or why not?
 - d) How do you feel about this community in general?
9. Other Engagement Behaviors and Their Motivations
- a) Do you read blogs? If yes and it's not too personal to ask, what is the blog about?
 - b) Have you ever blogged in your life? About what? How did you decide you wanted to start a blog? Was there anything else that motivated you?
 - c) Have you ever used online chat instead of calling a toll free customer service number? What was your experience? Would you do it again?

Appendix B

Measures for Essay 1

Measures for Study 1

Personal-Integrative Benefits

(adapted from Franke and Shah, 2003; Hertel et al. 2003; Wasko and Faraj, 2000)

- 1) (behavior X) would enhance my status/reputation as product expert in the community. (.79*)
- 2) (behavior X) would reinforce my product-related credibility/authority in the community. (.81*)

Social Integrative Benefits

(three-item scale based on customer interviews from Kollock, 1999; Wasko and Faraj, 2000)

- 1) (behavior X) would let me expand my personal social framework. (.72*)
- 2) (behavior X) would enhance the strength of my affiliation with the customer community. (.78*)
- 3) (behavior X) would enhance my sense of belongingness with this community. (.53*)

Cognitive Benefits

(three-item scale based on customer interviews; Franke and Shah, 2003; Hertel et al. 2003; Wasko and Faraj, 2000)

- 1) (behavior X) would enhance my knowledge about the product and its usage. (.80*)
- 2) (behavior X) would allow me to obtain solutions to specific product-related problems. (.80*)
- 3) (behavior X) would enhance my knowledge about advances in product, related products, and technology. (.82*)

Hedonic Benefits

(three-item scale based on customer interviews; Franke and Shah, 2003; Hertel et al. 2003)

- 1) (behavior X) would entertain and stimulate my mind. (.81*)
- 2) I would spend some enjoyable and relaxing time while (behavior X). (.79*)
- 3) While (behavior X), I would derive fun and pleasure. (.82*)

Economic Benefits

- 1) I would engage in (behavior X) to get an incentive (i.e. a coupon, free sample, or a sweepstake entry) (.63*)

2) I wouldn't engage in (behavior X), if I did not expect to get any financial benefits out of it. (.48*)

3) By (doing behavior X), I save money on a future purchase. (.70*)

*the numbers in parentheses refer to factor loadings.

Measures for Study 2

Behavior Characteristics

Behavior X (is):

- (1) A very passive behavior.....A very active behavior (7)
- (1) Not relevant to me.....Relevant to me (7)
- (1) Not very exciting.....Very exciting (7)
- (1) Requires little effort.....Requires a lot of effort (7)
- (1) Not very entertaining.....Very entertaining (7)
- (1) Not very enjoyable.....Very enjoyable (7)
- (1) Something I will never do.....Something I've done or see
.....myself doing in the future (7)
- (1) Something I do for myself.....Something I do for others (7)
- (1) Something I do in private.....Something I do in public (7)
- (1) Affects only me.....Affects others (7)

Benefits from Engagement

Thinking about [engaging in behavior X], rate each of the statements below
(1 = "Strongly Disagree," 7 = "Strongly Agree"):

Personal Integrative benefits

After doing this behavior, I feel like an expert about this product.

Social Integrative benefits

This behavior makes me feel closer to other users of the brand.

Engaging in this behavior helps me feel closer to the brand.

Economic Benefits

This behavior allows me to save on a future purchase.

Cognitive Benefits

After doing this behavior, I feel more knowledgeable about the brand.

By doing this behavior, I keep informed about the company and its products.

Appendix C

Measures for Essay 2

Study 1 Measures

Engagement Likelihood

How likely are you to engage in each of the following? If you already do this behavior, please indicate that in the right-most column. This question was anchored by 1= “Very unlikely” and 7= “Very likely”, 8 = “I already do this behavior.” As an attention check, an item was inserted in the list of behaviors asking participants to select “Unlikely” for their response for that item.

Visit X company website
Write a review for a X product
Sign up for X loyalty rewards program
Like X Facebook page
Read X’s blog
Post on X’s blog
Follow X on Twitter or other social media
Subscribe to email from X
Mentioning X on social media
Sharing a X post/video/photo on Facebook
Liking a X post on Facebook

“X” refers to the focal brand they specified at the beginning of the survey.

Brand Attachment

(Park et al. 2010)

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

Brand X is part of me and who I am.
I feel personally connected to brand X.
My thoughts and feelings toward brand X are often automatic, coming to mind seemingly on their own.
My thoughts and feelings toward brand X come to my mind naturally and instantly.

Items were anchored by 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree.”

Attachment Style

(Adapted from Collins and Read 1990)

- I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others (Av).
- People are never there when you need them (Av).
- I am comfortable depending on others (S).
- I know that others will be there when I need them (S).
- I find it difficult to trust others completely (Av).
- I find others are reluctant to get as close as I would like to (Anx).
- I often worry that my partner does not really love me (Anx).
- I find it relatively easy to get close to others (S).
- I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others (Av).
- I am comfortable having others depend on me (S).
- I often worry my partner will not stay with me (Anx).

Items were anchored by 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree.”
S-Secure, Av-Avoidance, Anx - Anxiety

Brand Personality

(Aaker 1997)

A 23-item scale in which participants were asked to rate the degree to which they agreed/disagreed that Brand[X] is ____ (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Items 1-5 assess *Sincerity*. Items 6-12 assess *Excitement*. Items 13-17 assess *Competence*. Items 18-20 assess *Sophistication*. Items 21-23 assess *Ruggedness*.

The characteristics assessed were: (1) down-to-earth, (2) honest, (3) sincere, (4) cheerful, (5) friendly, (6) daring, (7) trendy, (8) exciting, (9) cool, (10) young, (11) unique, (12) independent, (13) confident, (14) reliable, (15) hard working, (16) intelligent, (17) successful, (18) upper class, (19) glamorous, (20) charming, (21) outdoorsy, (22) tough, (23) rugged.

Study 2 Measures

Engagement Likelihood

How likely are you to do each of the following behaviors in relation to the product brand you saw earlier? 1=Not very likely, 7 = Very likely

- Visit the company website
- Write a review
- Sign up for rewards
- Download a coupon
- Like the company Facebook page
- Read company blog
- Post on company blog
- Follow the company on Twitter
- Subscribe to company email
- Mention brand on social media
- Share a company post/photo/video
- Like a company post on Facebook

Purchase likelihood

How likely are you to purchase the product featured in the ad? (1= “Not very likely”, 7 = “Very likely”)

Study 2 (Essay 2)

Attachment Style Manipulations

Participants in this study were randomly presented with one of the following three attachment style manipulations:

Low Anxiety/Low Avoidance (Secure)

“Please think about a relationship you have had in which you have found that it was relatively easy to get close to the other person and you felt comfortable depending on the other person. In this relationship you didn’t often worry about being alone or abandoned by the other person and you didn’t worry about the other person getting too close to you or not accepting you.”

High Anxiety/Low Avoidance (Pre-Occupied or Anxious)

“Please think about a relationship you have had in which you have felt like you wanted to be completely emotionally intimate with the other person but felt that the other person was reluctant to get as emotionally close as you would have liked. In this relationship, you felt uncomfortable being alone but worried that the other person didn’t value you as much as you valued them. “

High Anxiety/High Avoidance (Fearful or Anxious-Avoidant)

“Please think about a relationship that you have had in which you did not want to be emotionally close to the other person. In this relationship you felt that it was difficult to trust the other person completely, or to depend upon them. In this relationship, you worried that the other person was not willing to accept you and you would be hurt if you allowed yourself to become too emotionally close to the other person.”

After reading one of the above descriptions, participants were asked the following questions (procedure adopted from Swaminathan et al. 2008):

Now, take a moment and try to get a visual image in your mind of this person. What does this person look like? What is it like being with this person? You may want to remember a time you were actually with this person. What would he or she say to you? What would you say in return? How do you feel when you are with this person? How would you feel if they were here with you now? After the visualization, write a sentence or two about your thoughts and feelings regarding yourself in relation to this person.

Participants were also asked if they were able to imagine the relationship they read about. Those who were unable to do so will be removed from the analysis.

Measures for Study 3

Study 3: List of Engagement Behaviors/Engagement Likelihood

How likely are you to do each of the following behaviors in relation to the product brand you saw earlier? (1= “Not very likely”, 7 = “Very likely”)

- Visit the PUMA/Runmate website
- Read reviews about the PUMA/Runmate sneakers featured in the ad
- Liking PUMA’s/Runmate’s Facebook page
- Telling others that you bought PUMA/Runmate sneakers
- Writing a review about PUMA/Runmate’s sneakers
- Reading about PUMA /Runmate
- Liking a PUMA/Runmate post on Facebook
- Watching a PUMA/Runmate ad
- Signing up for PUMA’s/Runmate’s loyalty rewards program
- Downloading a coupon for PUMA/Runmate
- Entering sweepstakes sponsored by PUMA/Runmate
- Mentioning PUMA/Runmate in a tweet
- Mentioning PUMA/Runmate in a blog
- Sharing a post/photo/video by PUMA/Runmate
- Browsing PUMA/Runmate’s website

Ad Involvement

The ad you saw was.... (Select the response that best describes your perception of the ad)

- 1 = “Unimportant”7 = “Important”
1 = “Boring”7 = “Interesting”
1 = “Irrelevant”7 = “Relevant”
1 = “Unexciting”7 = “Exciting”
1 = “Means nothing to me”7 = “Means a lot to me”
1 = “Unappealing”7 = “Appealing”
1 = “Mundane”7 = “Fascinating”
1 = “Worthless”7 = “Valuable”
1 = “Uninvolving”7 = “Involving”
1 = “Not needed”7 = “Needed”

Brand Attachment

Please indicate to what degree you agree or disagree with each of the following statements

(1 = “Strongly Disagree”, 7 = “Strongly Agree”):

Puma/Runmate is part of me and who I am.

I feel personally connected to Puma/Runmate.

My thoughts and feelings toward Puma/Runmate are often automatic, coming to mind, seemingly on their own.

My thoughts and feelings toward Puma/Runmate come to my mind naturally and instantly.

Brand Attitude

I consider the PUMA/Runmate brand:

1= “Bad”7 = “Good”

1= “Negative”7 = “Positive”

1= “Undesirable”7 = “Desirable”

Please indicate to what degree you agree or disagree with each of the following statements (1 = “Strongly Disagree”, 7 = “Strongly Agree”):

Puma/Runmate is important to me.

Puma/Runmate is self-relevant.

I have thought about PUMA/Runmate.

I am confident with my brand evaluation of PUMA/Runmate.

Brand Familiarity

How familiar are you with Puma/Runmate? (1= “Not at all familiar”, 7 = “Extremely familiar”)

Product Involvement

Sneakers are a product that is:

Unimportant to me (1).....Important to me (7)
Of no concern to me (1).....Of concern to me (7)
Irrelevant to me (1).....Relevant to me (7)
Means nothing to me (1).....Means a lot to me (7)
Useless to me (1).....Useful to me (7)
Insignificant to me (1).....Significant to me (7)

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