

NOTTINGHAM TRENT UNIVERSITY

**Customer Engagement With Brand-related
Content on Social Media Within the Context of
Restaurant Industry**

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ABSTRACT

Purpose

Customer engagement has evolved to a new level with the growth of social media. Although researchers have shifted their attention to exploring customer engagement in the social media context, there is still a need of studies that empirically examined customer behaviours with brand-related content as a focal object. Based on the review of previous literature, there is a need to empirically investigate customer engagement with brand-related social media content in the restaurant industry. This study aims to measure customer engagement with brand-related content on social media based on COBRA (Consumer Online Brand – Related Activities) typologies, including Consumption, Contribution, and Creation. Furthermore, the relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content and its motivational factors (entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation), as well as outcomes (attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase intention), will be evaluated.

Context

The restaurant industry is considered as one of the fastest-growing service industries facing a significant level of competitiveness. Therefore, restaurant marketers must pay more attention to engaging customers to survive and grow. Vietnam has been chosen as a country for investigation because the restaurant industry has been growing rapidly in Vietnam and has the potential for further development in the future. In addition, the use of social media in Vietnam is high and has been increasing sharply. A growing number of restaurant brands are using social media as a critical resource in their marketing and branding activities in order to build and enhance customer relationships and customer engagement.

Design/ Methodology/ Approach

In the conceptual model, the COBRA was used to demonstrate the three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. To examine the motivations of customer engagement with brand-related content, five factors were drawn from the Uses and Gratification (U&G) theory, including entertainment, searching for information, remuneration,

social interaction, and self-presentation. Moreover, two consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content were identified from the literature review. The conceptual model proposed 21 hypotheses of significant and robust relationships between the three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, five motivational factors, and two consequences.

In order to test these hypotheses, a quantitative methodology using an online questionnaire is adopted in this study. After descriptive analysis of a sample of 509 active social media users having inevitable participation in restaurant social media platforms in Vietnam, a structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis using AMOS 27 statistical software is conducted to assess the model fit of the data and test the causal relationships suggested in the hypotheses.

Findings

Empirical results from this study noticed that the popularity of customer engagement activities with branded content decreased when the level of activities' activeness decreased. Restaurant industry customers tend to be the most engaged in consuming brand-related content activities compared to contributing to and creating branded content. Regarding the relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content with the motivational factors, it is concluded that all five motivations (entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation) positively influence content consumption and contribution activities. However, motivation for information searching does not affect the highest level of COBRAs (content creation), while the other four factors do. Moreover, the empirical findings from the study confirm the significant positive relationship between all three levels of content engagement, including consumption, contribution, and creation, and their consequences: attitude toward reviews and ratings and restaurant visit intention.

Practical implications

The findings from this research provide some insights into customers' behaviors on restaurant-related social media platforms and the factors that motivate customer engagement behaviours with the content. Therefore, the restaurant managers can use these findings when creating and adjusting content strategies to get customers truly and highly engaged, and in turn, increase customers' attitude toward the eWOM (e-Word of Mouth) and visiting intention toward the restaurant brands

Originality/ Value

This study's theoretical contribution is in regard to extending the initial research on the construct of customer engagement with brand-related content behaviours. When examining the relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content and its motivations and consequences, this study is distinguished from previous studies by investigating all three comprehensive dimensions, including content consumption, contribution, and creation covering all online behaviours from the most passive to the most active. Furthermore, the research also contributes to knowledge of the purchase intention construct as it is known as the first study that empirically explores the impact of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on customer purchase intention.

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The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

The aims of this chapter are to provide the background of the research and present the context for later chapters. Firstly, an overview of the research background including the introduction of the customer engagement concept, especially customer engagement behaviours in the context of social media, will be presented. It will be followed by providing the research objectives. After that, the chapter will provide a brief of the research methodology employed in the current study. Then, the briefly summary of research findings and research contributions will then be then presented. Lastly, the thesis structure will be provided, giving a brief introduction to the following chapters.

The structure of chapter 1 is presented in Figure 1.1.

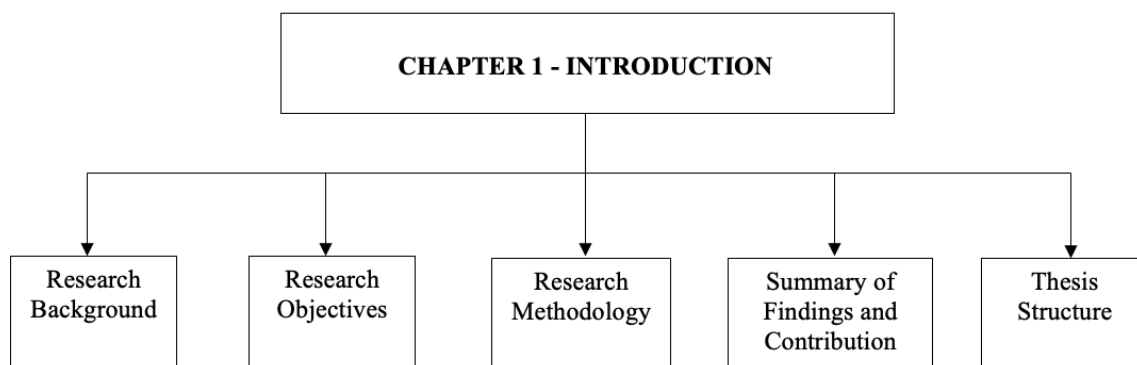


Figure 1.1: Structure of Chapter One

1.2. Background to the Research

1.2.1. Customer engagement

In the last three decades, researchers have shifted their higher attention to studying the concept of **customer engagement** (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011). There are many terms that have been used when examining the concept of customer engagement, such as brand

engagement (Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Pongpaew et al., 2017); brand community engagement (Dessart et al., 2016; Simon et al., 2016); customer brand engagement (Hollebeek et al., 2011; Solem, 2016); and customer engagement behaviour (Van Doorn et al., 2010, Simon et al., 2016). Customer engagement in literature was defined as both a psychological process and behaviour. Regarding the psychological process, Bowden (2009:63) defines customer engagement as a

psychological process that models the underlying mechanisms by which customer loyalty forms for new customers of service brand as well as the mechanisms by which loyalty may be maintained for repeat purchase customers of a service brand

In contrast, other authors have perceived customer engagement as a behaviour (Tafesse, 2016; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Ángeles Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Gummerus et al., 2012; Van Doorn et al., 2010). In this line, customer engagement can be defined as

behaviours (that) go beyond transactions and may be specially defined as a consumer's behavioural manifestation that a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers (van Doorn et al., 2010:254).

Although the author acknowledges the existence of both positive (e.g., bonding or by being attracted to the item) and potentially negative forms of involvement (e.g., dissociating from an object), it is worth noting that, to date, researchers have primarily focused on positive rather than negative forms of customer engagement.

1.2.2. Dimensions of customer engagement

Literature reflects a variety of dimensionality of customer engagement. While several authors consider customer engagement as a unidimensional concept (Ángeles Oviedo-García et al., 2004, Sprott et al., 2009; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014), other studies describe customer engagement as multi-dimensional concept consisting of three dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and behavioural (Sim & Plewal, 2017; Dessart et al., 2015; Verma, 2014; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011). Although a few studies have added a social dimension to customer engagement (Vivek et al., 2012; Gambetti et al., 2012), the three dimensions comprising cognitive (thoughts), emotional (feelings), and behavioural (action) are most widely used

(Dessart et al., 2015; Vivek et al., 2014; Hollebeek, 2014; Calder et al., 2009). The cognitive dimension refers to a customer’s level thinking process related to an interest in a given object such as a brand, a brand community, a social networking site, and so on. Firstly, according to Hollebeek (2011), a cognitive aspect of customer engagement can be displayed through a behaviour toward a brand when a customer focused on or was interested in a brand. Attention and absorption are the two aspects of the cognitive dimension. Secondly, the emotional dimension of customer engagement is a state of emotional activities associated with and caused by the engagement object (Hollebeek, 2011). Cheung et al. (2011) referred the emotional dimension to the term “dedication”, showing customer’s sense of belonging and pride to a specific brand when studying customer-brand relationships. Differently, Hollebeek et al. (2014) define the emotional dimension as the term “customer attachment”, which can be considered as a customer’s favourable feelings for a specific brand in a given interaction. The emotional dimension of customer engagement includes two sub-dimensions: enthusiasm and enjoyment (Hollebeek, 2011a). The behavioural dimension is a condition of customer behaviour associated with the engagement object, defined as the effort and energy expended in an encounter. The verb engage itself presents the behavioural manifestation of customer engagement (Van Doorn et al., 2010). The main sub-dimensions are involved in the behavioural manifestation of customer engagement: sharing, learning, and endorsing behaviours (Dessart et al., 2015).

Authors	Dimensionality
Brodie et al. (2011a)	Multidimensional – Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural
Patterson et al. (2006)	Multidimensional – Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural
Vivek et al. (2012)	Multidimensional – Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural
Mollen and Wilson (2010)	Multidimensional – Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural
Bowden (2009)	Multidimensional – Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural
van Doorn et al. (2010)	Unidimensional – Behavioural
Hollebeek (2011)	Multidimensional – Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural

Table 1.1: Customer Engagement Dimensions in Marketing Literature

1.2.3. Social media and how it changes customer engagement

The term Web 2.0 was proposed and first used by O'Reilly (2015). It can be defined as

a collection of open-source, interactive and user-controlled online applications expanding the experiences, knowledge and market power of the users and participants in business and social processes. Web 2.0 applications support the creation of informal users' networks, facilitating the flow of ideas and knowledge by allowing efficient generations, dissemination, sharing and editing/refining of the information content (Constantinides & Fountain, 2008:23).

These new technologies provide organisations with numerous interactive opportunities in a variety of ways. These, for example, are utilised in changing the way of communicating with customers (Abed et al., 2015; Dwivedi et al., 2015). Blogs, social networks, forums, content aggregators and communities are the five main types of Web2.0 (Constantinides & Fountain, 2008).

Social media platforms are "internet-based systems that allow information to flow through social communication channels while also providing decentralised user-level content and public membership" (Abrahams et al., 2012:23). Another definition considered social media as "a collection of Internet-based apps that build on the conceptual and technological roots of Web 2.0 and enable the creation and exchange of user-generated content" (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010:60). Through social network sites (SNS) such as Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube, social media has grown in its importance in customers' lives and influences their communication habits. According to eMarketer (2020), approximately 4.48 billion people using social network sites accounted for around 50 percent of the population worldwide.

Social media is usually categorised into many different types of platforms based on the main functions, including social networking sites (e.g., Facebook), professional networking sites (e.g., LinkedIn), video-sharing sites (e.g., YouTube), picture-sharing sites (e.g., Flickr, Instagram), microblogging (e.g., Twitter), and blogs. With customers more engrossed in social media, a rising proportion of communication occurs in sites (Berthon et al., 2008). Brand-customer communication using social media has overcome the disadvantage of using websites in early days. When utilising social media on a regular basis, customers interact with businesses

through reading, writing, watching, commenting, liking, sharing, and a variety of other two-way activities. Social media is also referred to as a network tool for content creation, relationship and community building, online reviewing, and real-time feedback giving (Rodriguez et al., 2012). Users' networks and communities are expanded through growing the number of social media platforms (Curran & Lennon, 2011). And these social media platforms, in turn, make it easier to spread knowledge to others, thus resulting in decentralised user-level content (Abrahams et al., 2012). Conversation, involvement, community development, information openness, and connection are the main features of social media (Chan-Olmsted et al., 2013). However, social media is just media if there is no engagement. People do not use social media to have a one-way conversation; both customers and brands benefit from social media as it provides two-way active interaction.

1.2.4. Customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

Although customer engagement on social media has gained attention from an increasing number of researchers for a long time, there is still a lack of studies that empirically examined the customers' behaviours with brand-related content as a focal object. Many of the published studies on customer engagement on social media have examined brand as a focal object. However, it is argued that the content is the centre of social media and engaging on social media is actually engaging with social media content (Bianchi & Andrew, 2018; Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016). Thus, this research took the brand-related content as the focal object of customer engagement on social media and examined customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. Thus, this study strongly focused on behavioural perspectives of customer engagement regarding brand-related content on social media. Brand-related content is defined as brand-related posts, images, videos, news, stories, brand-related reviews, brand-related online games, and so on, on social media platforms (Muntinga et al., 2011; De Vries et al., 2012). Brand-related content on social media platforms is different from content on traditional media such as TV, radio, newspapers and magazines because of its interactive perspective (Ashley & Tuten, 2015). This means customers are able to interact, collaborate, and create content related to the brands on social media rather than solely consuming it (Obar & Wildman, 2015). For instance, on their social media platforms, customers are able to follow, like, comment, or share the brand-related content with others (Muntinga et al., 2011). Schivinski & Dabrowski (2016:5) defines customer engagement with brand-related content on social media as "a set of online activities in the part of the consumer that related to a brand, and which vary in the levels of interaction and engagement with the consumption, contribution

and creation of media content”. The set of activities mentioned in Schivinski and Dabrowski (2016) is drawn from COBRA (Consumer Online Brand-Related Activities) framework.

COBRA framework is considered as the most comprehensive framework that presents customer engagement behaviours on social media. This framework was introduced by Shao (2009), further developed by Muntinga et al. (2011), and measured by Schivinski et al. (2016). Based on COBRAs framework, brand-related content engagement consists of various activities categorised into three types: consuming, contributing, and creating. Consuming types of behaviours occur when customers passively interact with brand-content on social media by activities such as watching or reading the content. This type refers to the lowest level of activeness from the customer toward the brand-related content (Schivinski et al., 2016; Muntinga et al., 2011). Contributing types of COBRAs refer to engagement behaviours with a moderate level of activeness and it happens when the customers like or comment on brand-related posts. The final type of COBRAs is creating behaviour that presents the engaging behaviour with the highest level of activeness, e.g., posting or uploading content or writing a review about a brand, product or service (Schivinski et al., 2016; Muntinga et al., 2011). To date, the contributing behaviours are the most studied type of brand-related content engagement behaviours in literature. Its popularity among studies, especially the examination of liking and commenting on social media content, can be seen as the most prevalent behaviours exhibited on social media platforms. It is also important to highlight that on social media, each individual may act as a consumer, contributor and/or creator of content for the same brand depending on different time and context. In addition, each individual may act as a consumer for one brand and a contributor or creator for another brands (Schivinski et al., 2016).

1.2.5. Importance of the research

Research undertaken recently has shown that although the use of social media in business has significantly increased, a relatively small proportion have seen comparable increases in customer-brand engagement such as liking, sharing or commenting on brand messages (Schultz & Peltier, 2013; Barger et al., 2016). Moreover, a TrackMaven’s report in 2016, which was examined by Barger et al (2016:269), showed that “while social media contents per brand rose by 35 per cent across varied platforms from 2014 to 2015, content engagement actually decreased by 17 per cent over that same period”. Thus, understanding how and why customers engage with brand-related content in a social media context is necessary for both marketing scholars and for practice. Customers engage with brand-related content on social media driven

by certain motivational factors (Schivinski et al., 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010) as they tend to do so to satisfy a wide range of needs (Muntinga et al., 2011). In order to understand the motivations of customer engagement with brand-related content, the Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory was adopted in this study. This theory concerns the certain needs of individuals prior to their engagement. There are five motivational factors identified based on the U&G theory including the customers' needs of entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013; De Vries et al., 2012; Jahn & Kunz, 2012). There are no studies yet that examine the influence of these motivations on all three levels of COBRAs. This research will study customer behaviour theories and social influence theories in order to understand those five motivational factors of customer engagement behaviours on social media consuming, contributing and creating content. These theories will be presented in Chapter 2.

Moreover, as there is limited number of studies examined the customer engagement considering content as a focal object rather than a brand, it is also revealed that the investigation regarding the influence of customer engagement with brand-related content on its consequences is scarce (Dessart et al., 2017; Schivinski et al., 2016). According to Muntinga et al. (2011), the primary goal of a brand's marketing strategy on social media is to create an intimate relationship with customers by delivering effective content. Thus, customer interactions with brand-related content are expected to have positive influence on attitudes and behaviours toward the brand (Hutter et al., 2014; Qin, 2020). The highest level of customer engagement with brand-related content is creating user-generated content related to the brand, presenting the co-creation brand values – core concept in relationship marketing and S-D logic theory. Hence, an important outcome of customer behaviour with the brand-related content is to develop customers' positive attitude toward the brand and brand-content (Hutter et al., 2013). The attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase/ visit intention are suggested as consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content and will be examined in this study. By doing so, this study answers the calls in previous research, evaluating the relationship between all three levels of COBRAs and the antecedents and outcomes.

1.2.6. Research context

The literature shows limited investigation of whether the customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, as well as its motivational factors and consequences, vary among different products and services. Hollebeek (2011), Bowden (2015), and Islam &

Rahman (2016) professed the importance of the investigation of customer engagement on social media across various industries and contexts. In the literature, customer engagement on social media has been examined in a small number of service industries, primarily tourism and telecommunications, leaving a significant number of services unexplored. The hospitality industry, with a specific focus on restaurants, has been selected to be investigated with regard to customer engagement on social media because it is considered one of the fastest-growing service industries, having significant economic impacts (Han et al., 2016; Reynold et al., 2013). Despite the increased usage of social media in the restaurant industry, there is no research to date that focuses on customer engagement with restaurant brands (Han et al., 2016). Thus, this study aims to fill this gap in the literature.

1.3. Research Objectives

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement with brand-related content on social media as well as the important of its motivational drives and consequential outcomes within the context of the restaurant industry. The research objectives are:

Objective 1: To identify the levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry.

The research question for this objective is:

Q1: What are the behaviours of customers with brand-related content on social media regarding restaurant brands?

Objective 2: To measure the importance of motivational factors in relation to the levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry.

The research questions associated with this objective are:

Q2: To what extent does entertainment influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?

Q3: To what extent does searching for information influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?

Q4: To what extent does remuneration influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?

Q5: To what extent does social interaction influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?

Q6: To what extent does self-presentation influence three dimensions of customer engagement with restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?

Objective 3: To evaluate the importance of relationships between the levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and the consequential outcomes in the restaurant industry.

The questions will be answered are:

Q7: To what extent do the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content in social media impact on the customer's attitude toward reviews and ratings?

Q8: To what extent do the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media impact on the purchase/visit intention?

1.4. Research Methodology

1.4.1. Research paradigm and Research methodology

Positivism was adopted as an appropriated paradigm for the current research for some reasons regarding ontological and epistemological perspectives. In terms of ontology assumptions, this research aims to discover the laws – here are the unexplored areas of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media. From the epistemological perspective, current research aims to test the proposed hypotheses empirically; then positivism is the appropriate choice. In terms of research methodology, this study will employ a quantitative/deductive approach. This choice is considered appropriate with the research objectives. While qualitative research usually aims to create new hypotheses or concept, the purpose of quantitative research is to test the proposed hypotheses and illustrate the relationships between variables. This study has hypotheses proposed in Chapter 5 and aims to test them in the chosen context, so a quantitative approach is chosen. Furthermore, the study path is fairly obvious, logical, and straightforward, which are common features in quantitative research (Neuman, 2011).

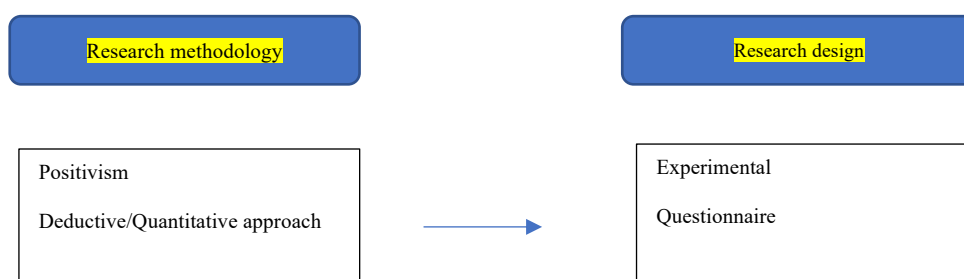


Figure 1.2: Research Methodology

1.4.2. Research Design

A survey will be used in this study as it is “the best method available to social researchers who are interested in collecting original data for describing and measuring constructs in a large population” (Babbie, 2015:247). An online, web-based questionnaire will be applied in this research because of its advantages over other methods. The web-based questionnaire method is more flexible in data collection compared to other types of survey because it allows researchers to use different question formats (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). In addition, targeting specific customer demographics and brand community familiarity is more accessible when using a web-based survey (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Web-based surveys allow researchers to incorporate respondents’ answers as subsequent answers and can also ensure respondents provide the correct number of responses to each question which helps cut down on errors and insufficient responses (Hair et al., 2010).

1.4.3. Sampling and Data Collection

The researcher will collect data and conduct research in Vietnam because of its convenience as well as a strong presence of social media usage and the significant growth of the restaurant industry in this country. The sampling method adopted in this research is the mixture of probability and non-probability sampling techniques. First, a convenient non-probability method is used where the data is collected from the Golden Gate restaurant group and the researcher’s Facebook account friend list. It is impossible to obtain a complete list of the population, leading to the choice of a convenient, non-probability method as it is simple and convenient to access. The researcher proposes to collect data from the Golden Gate restaurant group, a nation-wide group having 25 different restaurant brands with over 400 outlets. This group has a strong social media presence with many active members. Thus, collecting data from the Golden Gate group can ensure that the respondents have specific interactions with a restaurant’s social media sites and representation of the population. Next, both simple random probability and voluntary sampling methods are applied. The participants, who were randomly selected from the customer list Golden Gate Restaurant Group, were sent participation invitations via email. Furthermore, additional respondents were recruited by sending invitations through Golden Gate’s website, Facebook page, and 20 Facebook pages of its brands/concepts to find voluntary participants for this research.

1.5. Summary of expected research findings and contributions

Research Findings

The research findings are regarding the customer engagement levels with restaurant brand-related content on social media, the relationships between these engagements and the U&G motivations as well as the outcomes. Based on the literature review of the connections between U&G motivations and customer engagement behaviours such as like, comment, review, photo upload, etc, the current research is expected to have the positive relationship between five motivational factors (entertainment, information seeking, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation) with three levels of customer engagement from the most passive to the most active. In addition, the positive impacts of customer engagement behaviours and attitude toward reviews and ratings as well as restaurant visit intention are also expected.

Through the quantitative method approach with the use of SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) analysis, it is concluded that all five motivations (entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction and self-presentation) positively influence content consumption and contribution activities. However, motivation for information searching does not influence the highest level of COBRAs (content creation), while the other four factors do. Moreover, the empirical findings from the study confirm the significant positive relationship between all three levels of content engagement, including consumption, contribution, and creation, and their consequences: attitude toward reviews and ratings and the restaurant visit intention. The findings imply that all forms of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, including the most passively engaged behaviours, still significantly influence the attitude toward the restaurant's reviews and rating, as well as the restaurant visit intention. As a result, restaurant brand managers should not ignore the passive users on social media.

Research Contributions

In regard to practical contributions, the findings from the current research provide restaurant managers the insights of customer engagement behaviours on social media platforms as well as understanding of the reasons the customers engage with the brand-related content. Therefore, these findings could be used by the restaurant managers when creating content strategies to get customers engaged, which lead to increases in customers' attitude toward

making reviews and ratings about the restaurants, as well as the customers' intention toward visiting the restaurants.

Regarding the theoretical contributions, this research extends the initial research on the construct of customer engagement with brand-related content behaviours. Distinguished from the previous studies which only examined motivations of customers with specific behaviours such as like, comment, etc, the current research investigates the customer engagement behaviours in all three comprehensive levels including content consumption, contribution and creation covering all online behaviours from the most passive to the most active. Furthermore, the research also contributes to knowledge of purchase intention construct as it is known as the first study that empirically explores the impact of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on customer purchase intention.

1.6. Thesis Structure

This thesis includes eight chapters (see Figure 1.1) and is structured as follow.

Chapter 1 – Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to the thesis. First, the background of the research, including a brief literature review and the context of the research, is introduced. Next, the research objectives which the study aims to investigate are outlined. An overview of research methodology and data collection is also provided, and the summary of findings and contributions of the current study conclude the chapter.

Chapter 2 – Critical Literature Review and Theoretical Foundation

This chapter provides a critical literature review of customer engagement and customer engagement behaviour with brand-related content on social media. Then, an overview of approaches to customer engagement with brand-related content on social media is presented, including three focused theoretical areas: relationship marketing, customer behaviour, and social influence.

Chapter 3 - Systematic Literature Review

This chapter presents a systematic literature review of customer engagement, especially in the social media context. Based on three major electronic database sources (Emerald Insights, Science Direct, and Scopus) the review was performed on 91 peer-reviewed articles published between 2010 and 2018, with a rigorous and transparent searching and reviewing process. The results of this review are detailed and are followed by the discussion of conceptualisation,

theoretical background, and geographical perspectives in addition to the antecedents and consequences of consumer engagement construct. Based on the review, the limitations which imply the needs for further research on customer engagement with brand-related content are highlighted.

Chapter 4 – Research Context, Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

This chapter provides the context of the research with by presenting the background of the restaurant sector in Vietnam as well as the social media usage in this sector. Moreover, the chapter is also concerned with the development of a conceptual framework that was built from validated constructs in literature and which will then be tested in the chosen context. Then, each construct in the conceptual model will be discussed, in detail, with the rationale underlying the hypotheses highlighted.

Chapter 5 – Research Methodology and Data Collection

This chapter provides a detailed description of the methodology and research design employed in this research. A discussion on the sampling process, questionnaire design process, and the chosen data analyses techniques are then outlined.

Chapter 6 – Data Analysis

This chapter is concerned with the data analysis and findings. After the data cleaning process, the chapter includes the exploratory factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis to analyse data, examine relationships between constructs, and assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the scale. The chapter will also examine the common method bias. The empirical analysis results of the structural model will be then reported.

Chapter 7 – Discussions of Findings

This chapter addressed the findings regarding each of the research objectives. Then, the chapter will present a critical and intensive discussion of the findings from the data analysing in relation to the extent literature.

Chapter 8 – Conclusions

In this final chapter, the theoretical and managerial contributions of the current study are drawn from the research findings. Next, the limitation of current research, leading to directions for future research, will be presented.

Figure 1.3 below presents the structure of the thesis in more detail.

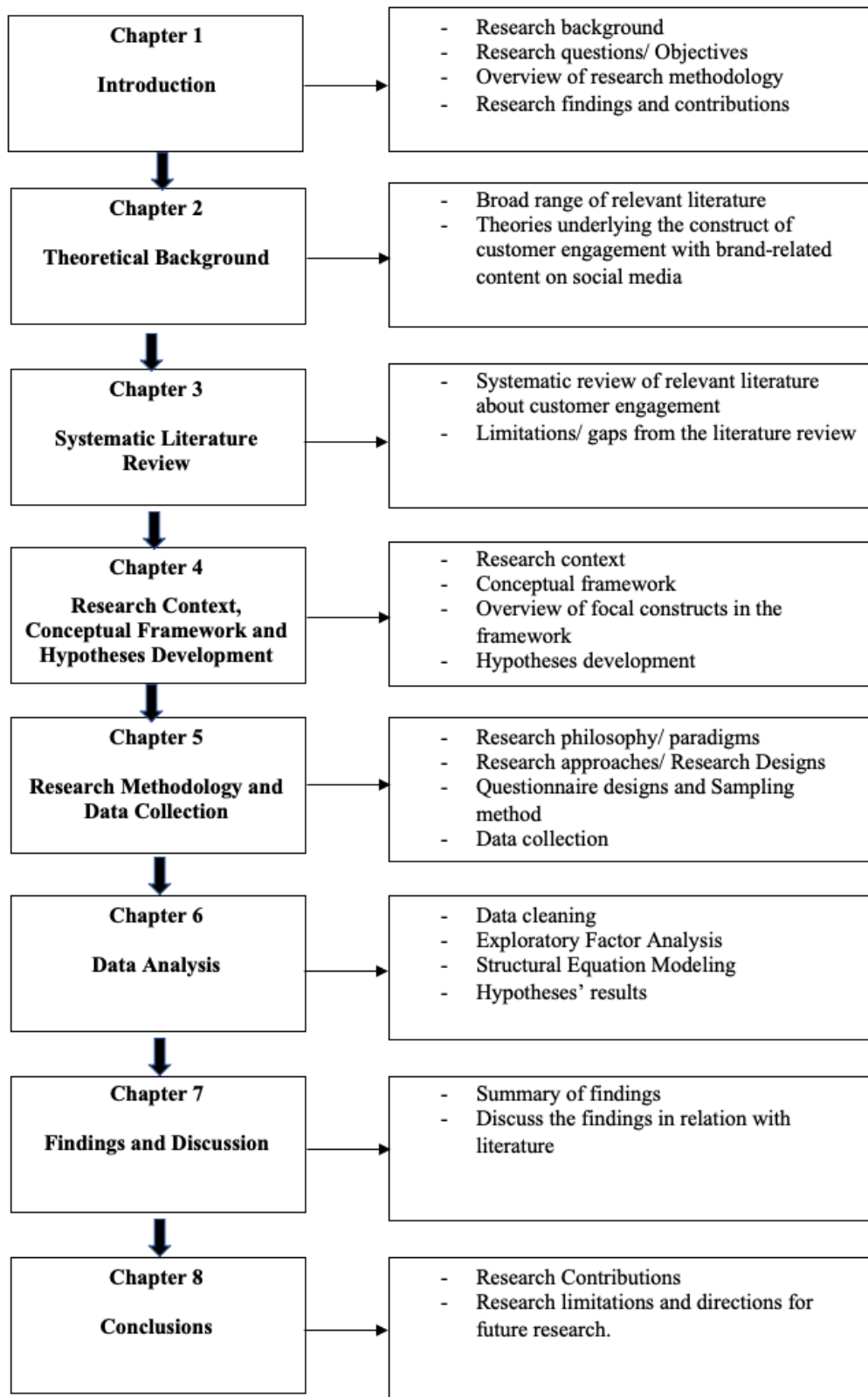


Figure 1.3: Structure of the Thesis

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER TWO – THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CUSTOMER ENGAGEMENT WITH BRAND-RELATED CONTENT ON SOCIAL MEDIA

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a critical review of the literature, related to customer engagement with regard to definitions, conceptualisations, dimensions, relevant constructs, and background theories. First of all, a critical overview of customer engagement, as well as customer engagement in the social media context, are presented. Then, the construct will be examined from relationship marketing, customer behaviour, and social influence perspectives. The theoretical root of the customer engagement concept can be seen in these three research areas. The first research area involving relationship marketing will be presented, explaining the relationship between relationship marketing and customer engagement, and the social Customer Relationship Management CRM (CRM 2.0) will be introduced. Next, the second root of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, which is customer behaviour studies focusing on online customer behaviours, will be demonstrated. Finally, the third research area, social influence studies, will be introduced. The background and theories of social influence are discussed and the examination of constructs under the social influence perspective will be presented. Figure 2.1 shows the structure of Chapter 2.

2.2. Literature Review of Customer Engagement on social media

2.2.1. Definition and Types of Literature Review

A literature review is defined as “the critical evaluation, analysis and full synthesis of prior/existing knowledge that is relevant to a research problem” (Hart, 2018:3). This study, therefore, will provide a literature review of customer engagement construct, in relation to the context of social media. According to Winchester & Salji (2016), a good review will help with revealing a balanced understanding of the subject area, including different and inconsistent views of authors in the literature. A good literature review should accomplish some criteria following the suggestions of Steward (2004), which are:

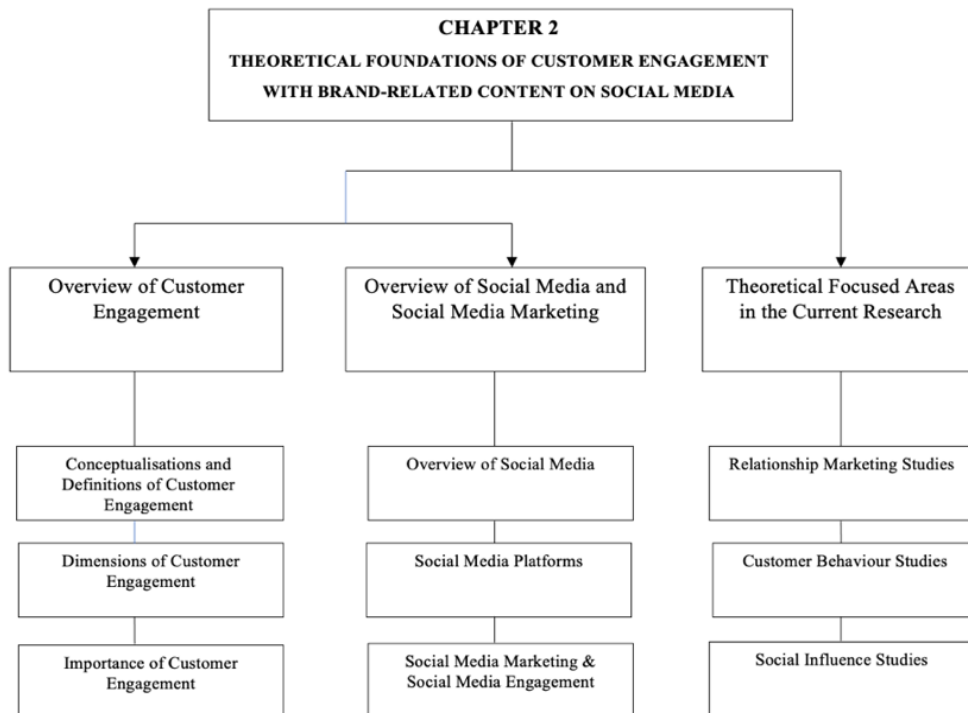


Figure 2.1: Structure of Chapter 2

- (1) Comprehensive, which means all the evidence gathered in the literature should include the most relevant sources.
- (2) Fully and correctly referenced.
- (3) Relevant and selective, having appropriate strategy to search and focus on key information surrounding the subject area.
- (4) Critical and balanced between different and contrasting ideas and opinions.
- (5) Analytical: a review needs to show new ideas, understanding from the evidence gathered, and identify gaps to raise the further areas of future research.

The most common approach to the different types of literature review is differentiating traditional/narrative literature review and systematic literature view (Winchester & Salji, 2016; Hart, 2018). However, Grant & Booth (2009) provide a further comprehensive list of review types which will be presented in Table 2.1.

Review Types	Definition	Purpose of Review and Method of Analysis
Critical Review	It is a form of review that goes beyond mere description, including a degree of analysis and critical evaluation	Critically and intensively evaluate what is valuable from previous studies to provide synthetic understanding and limitation of the subject area
Meta-Analysis	A statistical technique of quantitative results combined to produce precise effect of results	Numerical analysis of measure with the absence of heterogeneity
Mixed studies review/ Mixed methods review	A combination of quantitative and qualitative research review techniques	Analysis involves seeking a correlation between characteristic or gap analysis
Qualitative systematic review/ Qualitative evidence synthesis	A review method that compares or integrates results from qualitative studies	Involves a thematic analysis approach
Scoping Review	A prior assessment of the scope and potential size of available literature	Attempts to characterize the quality and quantity of literature through study design, etc.
State of the art review	A form of review that addresses current matters and offers a new perspective on areas for future research	Evaluation of current state of knowledge and need for future investigation
Systematic Review	A systematic search, appraisal, and synthesis of research evidence	Highlight recommendations for research practice, ambiguity around findings and recommendations for future research
Umbrella Review	It deals with a compilation of evidence from a number of reviews into an accessible and usable document	The analysis of this review reveals certain recommendations for practice and future research

Table 2.1: The Main Review Types of Literature in Research (Adapted from Grant & Booth, 2009)

2.2.2. Types of Literature Review adopted in this study

A combination of critical and systematic reviews will be conducted in this study to explore extant customer engagement literature. First, the next sections provide a critical literature review which intensively and critically evaluate the previous customer engagement research. The aim of conducting the critical review is presenting extensive research of the extant literature as well as critically evaluating the quality of the literature. Also, a critical review “provides a premise to the development of a new concept and subsequent testing the concept” (Grant & Booth, 2009:93). Moreover, after considering a critical review the researchers are able to address gaps that need to be further studied in future research (Carnwell & Daly, 2001).

In addition, a systematic literature review will be further conducted in Chapter 3. The reason for conducting systematic review is to transparently and objectively approach to customer engagement to minimise the potential bias (Mallet et al., 2012). A combination of these two types of literature review, therefore, ensures a better and comprehensive understanding around the area of customer engagement in the social media context.

2.3. Critical Review of Customer Engagement on social media context

2.3.1. Customer Engagement

2.3.1.1. Conceptualisations of Customer Engagement

Before utilised in marketing, the construct of engagement was first considered and analysed in sociology and psychology (Brodie et al., 2011). It is also used in various disciplines (see Table 2.2), as “civic engagement” in sociology (Jennings & Stoker, 2004), “state engagement” in political science (Resnick, 2001), “social engagement” in psychology (Achterberg et al., 2003), “student engagement” in educational psychology (Hu, 2010), and “employee engagement” in organisational behaviour (Catteeuw et al., 2007).

Discipline	Constructs	Authors	Definitions
Sociology	Civic engagement	Jennings & Stoker (2004)	Involvement in voluntary organizations and the performance of volunteer work, facilitating the development of social networks.
Political Science	State engagement	Resnick (2011)	Iterative process aiming to influence political behaviour of a target state through maintained contacts with that state across multiple issue-areas.
Psychology	Social engagement	Achterberg et al. (2003)	A high sense of initiative, involvement, and adequate response to social stimuli, participating in social activities, interacting with others.
Educational psychology	Student engagement	Hu (2010)	The quality of effort students put into educationally meaningful activities.
Organizational behaviour	Employee engagement	Catteeuw et al. (2007)	The degree to which employees are satisfied with their jobs, feel valued and experience collaboration and trust. The result is a high performing, productive.

Table 2.2: Definitions of Engagement in other disciplines

In marketing, engagement has studied and discussed customer engagement as a term “customer engagement” regarding activities of a customer towards a company (Kumar et al., 2010; Hollebeek, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Vivek et al., 2012). There are different terminologies identified when exploring the concept of customer engagement, such as brand engagement (Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Brahim et al., 2017, Pongpaew et al., 2017); brand community engagement (Dessart et al., 2016; Simon et al., 2016); customer brand engagement (Hollebeck et al., 2011; Solem, 2016); and customer engagement behaviour (Van Doorn et al., 2010, Simon et al., 2016). Table 2.3 illustrates an overview of associated terminologies of customer engagement in the literature.

Terminology	Definition	Author(s)
Consumer Brand Engagement	A customer’s positively valance brand related cognitive, emotional, and behavioural activity during or related to consumer/ or brand interactions.	<u>Hollebeek et al. (2014); Kabadayi and Price (2014)</u>
Consumer Engagement	Consumer engagement is a context-dependent, psychological state characterized by levels that occur within dynamic engagement processes.	Brodie et al. (2011a)
Customer Engagement Behaviour	A customer’s behavioural manifestation that has a brand/firm focus beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers	<u>Van Doorn et al. (2010)</u>
Customer Brand Engagement	The level of a customer’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioural investment in specific brand interactions	<u>Hollebeek (2011)</u>

Table 2.3: Overview of associated terminologies of customer engagement

Although many researchers identified the importance of customer engagement in marketing (e.g., Bowden, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek, 2011), they could not agree on any universal definition of this construct. Therefore, there are many contrasting definitions of customer engagement in literature. Hollebeek et al. (2014:6) defined customer brand engagement as “a customer’s positively valanced brand related cognitive, emotional and

behavioural activity during or related to customer/brand interaction”. In contrast, So et al. (2012:310) conceptualised customer engagement as “the personal connection a customer has to a brand that stems from cognitive, affective, and behavioural actions beyond purchase”. These two definitions differ by whether the behavioural activities mentioned in each definition are limited to the nature of transactional behaviours or not. Moreover, customer engagement in literature was defined as both a psychological construct and a behavioural construct. Bowden (2009:63) defines customer engagement as a

psychological process that models the underlying mechanisms by which customer loyalty forms for new customers of service brand as well as the mechanisms by which loyalty may be maintained for repeat purchase customers of a service brand.

In contrast, other authors have perceived customer engagement as a behaviour (Tafesse, 2016; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Ángeles Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Gummerus et al., 2012; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Similarly, Van Doorn et al. (2010:254) define customer engagement as

behaviour (that) goes beyond transactions and may be specially defined as a consumer’s behavioural manifestation that a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers.

While authors consider customer engagement as a construct involving both psychological and behavioural perspectives, some authors have only emphasised emotional dimension, defining customer engagement as emotional connection between customers and brands (Sashi, 2012; Grewal et al., 2018). Regarding psychological perspective, while some authors consider customer engagement as psychological process including several steps toward purchase decision (Bowden, 2019), others defined customer engagement as a psychological state (Brodie et al., 2011; Calder et al., 2016). For example, Calder et al. (2016:40) define customer engagement as

psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/object, under a specific set of context-dependent conditions, and exists as a dynamic, iterative process in which other relational concepts are antecedents and/or consequences.

Furthermore, in literature, several researchers focus on the intensity of customer engagement. Vivek et al. (2012:127) define customer engagement as

the intensity of an individual's participation in and connection with an organisation's offerings or organisational activities, which either the customer or the organisation initiates.

Similarly, Hollebeek (2011) argued that customer engagement refers to the degree to which a customer exerts in specific interactions with the brand including immersion, passion, and activation. Finally, it is noticeable that while several authors describe customer engagement as a positively balanced psychological process (Hollebeek et al., 2014), some others such as van Doorn et al. (2010) consider customer engagement to be either a positive or negative behaviour or process.

Table 2.4 presents major definitions of customer engagement construct in marketing literature.

Author(s)	Constructs	Definitions
Brodie et al. (2011:22)	Customer Engagement	A psychological state that occurs “by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/ object (e.g., a brand) in focal service relationships. It occurs under a specific set of context dependent conditions generating differing CE levels; and exists as a dynamic, iterative process within service relationships that co-create value.”
Vivek et al. (2012:127)	Consumer Engagement	“The intensity of an individual’s participation and connection with the organization’s offering and activities initiated by either the customer or the organization.”
Hollebeek (2011:560)	Customer Brand Engagement	“The level of a customer’s motivational, brand-related and context-dependent state of mind characterized by specific levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity in brand interactions.”
Bowden (2009:65)	Customer Engagement	“A psychological process that models the underlying mechanism by which customer loyalty forms for new customers of a service brand as well as the mechanism by which loyalty may be maintained for repeat purchase of a service brand.”
Sashi (2012:259)	Customer Engagement	“Engagement consists in two types of commitment between the consumer and the brand: the calculated commitment and the affective commitment.”

Table 2.4: Definitions of customer engagement in marketing literature

2.3.1.2. Dimensions of customer engagement

In order to have a deeper understanding of the customer engagement concept, this section considers the dimensions of customer engagement proposed by some key authors in marketing literature. In a conceptual paper capturing customer engagement, Hollebeek (2011) proposed that customer brand engagement is a multi-dimensional construct which comprises of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural dimensions. Hollebeek et al. (2014) later develop these

three dimensions to cognitive process, affection, and activation. These three dimensions of customer engagement are the most adopted in literature (Sim & Plewal, 2017; Dessart et al., 2015; Verma, 2014; Brodie et al., 2013). Cognitive process refers to the level of an individual thought focused on a brand involving attention and absorption. Secondly, affection is related to the degree of customer's emotions during and related to the interaction between a customer and a brand. The sub-dimensions of affection include enthusiasm and enjoyment. Lastly, activation dimension represents the active manifestation of the concept dealing with the level of effort (e.g., time, energy) a customer invests on a brand through customer-brand interactions. Dessart et al. (2015) develops the sub-dimensions of activation which comprise sharing, learning and endorsing. Moreover, the social dimension is added to the concept of customer engagement by some authors (Gambetti et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2012). The social dimension of engagement regards "interaction and sharing of one's experiences and content" (Islam & Rahman, 2016:2019). While cognitive and affective dimensions imply the psychological perspective (cognition) of customer engagement and are based on customer's feelings (emotion) (Vivek et al., 2014), the behavioural and social dimensions emphasize customer engagement with its proactive and interactive nature captured by participation and co-creation of values and content in certain customer-brand related social exchanges (Gambetti et al., 2012). Furthermore, Abdul-Ghani et al. (2011) identified three dimensions of customer engagement: utilitarian, hedonic, and social dimensions. The utilitarian dimension reflects the evaluation of customers regarding utility and advantages of the engagement object (e.g., a website or a fan-page), whereas the hedonic dimension is approached as a customer's experienced pleasure during the interactions with the engagement object. So et al. (2012) illustrates customer engagement as a multi-dimensional construct comprising of five dimensions: identification, enthusiasm, attention, absorption and interaction which is represented for cognitive and behavioural perspectives of engagement.

While researchers believe customer engagement to be a multi-dimensional construct including psychological and behavioural perspectives as above (Hollebeek, 2011; Vivek et al., 2014, Hollebeek et al., 2014; Brodie et al., 2011, Gambetti et al., 2012; Sim & Plewal, 2017; Dessart et al., 2015), some others argued that customer engagement is a unidimensional construct. Sashi (2012) and Grewal et al. (2018) emphasise the importance of emotional dimension, representing the feelings of customers for a specific brand on a customer-firm relationship. In contrast, Mollen & Wilson (2010) shift their focus to the cognitive perspective of engagement. However, many others believe customer engagement to be a behavioural construct, resulting

from specific motivations (van Doorn et al. 2010; Verhoef et al. 2010; Bijmolt et al. 2010; Gummerus et al., 2012). Van Doorn et al. (2010) introduced and explored the CEB (Customer Engagement Behaviour) construct. The authors proposed a conceptual framework to examine CEB, presenting a list of antecedents and consequences of CEB in both a customer-perspective and a firm-perspective. Likewise, Verhoef et al. (2010) also study customer engagement from a behavioural aspect, with focus barriers and consequences for a firm with regard to engaging with customers.

In summary, it is noticeable that there is no consensus on the customer engagement concept regarding its dimensional perspective. However, So et al. (2014) established that the behavioural approach to customer engagement represents the participation level through the engagement activities while the multi-dimensional approach, with the involvement of both psychological and behavioural aspects, captures the full complexities of the customer engagement concept. Table 2.5 presents a review of customer engagement dimension in the literature.

Author(s)	Dimensions			
	Cognitive	Emotional	Behavioural	Social
Kumar et al. (2010)		√		
Mollen & Wilson (2010)	√			
Van Doorn et al. (2010)			√	
Brodie et al. (2011a); Brodie et al. (2011b)	√	√	√	
Hollebeek (2011), Hollebeek et al. (2014)	√	√	√	
Vivek et al. (2012), Gambetti et al. (2012)	√	√	√	√
Gummerus et al. (2012)			√	
So et al. (2012)	√		√	

Table 2.5: Review of customer engagement dimensions

2.3.1.3. Importance of Customer Engagement

Customer engagement plays an important role in maintaining and enhancing relationships between a brand and its customers, helping a brand to increase sales and profits (Hollebeek, 2011). Bowden (2009) declare that customer engagement is an iterative process where the satisfied customers become the loyalty customers. Customer engagement, therefore, can be considered as a factor for increasing customer loyalty, driving customers to be the brand advocates (Hollebeek, 2011). Scholars in marketing field have also claimed many benefits of engaging customers with a brand, including increased customer acquisition, retention and product innovation (Vivek et al., 2012, Hollebeek et al., 2014). High levels of customer engagement to a brand are also declared as being a part of co-creation and product development activities (Hollebeek et al., 2014). The studies focusing emotional dimension of customer engagement affirm the general goal of engaging customers is to form and maintain emotional bonds between the customers and brands (Sashi, 2012; Brodie et al., 2013). These emotional bonds involving commitment and trust, in turn, will help promoting brand attachment and brand connection (Li et al., 2020). Furthermore, researchers who focus on behavioural manifestation of customer engagement have note several additional benefits of customer engagement behaviours to financial and reputational outcomes of the brands (van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2010; Gummerus et al., 2012). For example, the behaviours regarding WOM activities are found having influences on customers' purchase behaviours and brand usage intention (van Doorn et al., 2011; Bilro et al., 2019). A recent study of Alvarez-Milán et al. (2019) found that customer who are highly engaged with brand is likely to make 90% more purchases compared to non-engaged customers. This type of highly engaged customers is said to be very advantageous for brands through WOM and referral activities.

Although there are many advantages of engaging customers to a brand, some scholars have argued the disadvantages of customer engagement. Highly engaged customers usually have higher expectations toward a brand than other customers. When their expectations are not met, a brand will have a high risk of experiencing lower level of customer satisfaction. Customers with lower satisfaction level have impact on negative WOM, relinquishing the reputation of a brand (van Doorn et al., 2010; Henderson et al., 2014).

2.3.2. Customer engagement in social media context

2.3.2.1. Overview of social media

According to Harris & Dennis (2011), social media is not a new concept but considered as a new form of networking and communication. The number of social media users has grown massively. Gallup (2014) stated that 72% of individuals over 18 years old use social media sites every day, meaning that people are more engaged with social media platforms than before. People can easily and openly connect and communicate with like-minded individuals through social media platforms (Barnes & Jacobsen, 2013; Zhu & Chen, 2014; Felix et al., 2016). With regard to business, social media has changed the way businesses communicate with their customers (Dewan & Ramaprasad, 2014). Social media communication allows customers not only one-way consumption of the content or information from brands but also can contribute to the content they consumed or can even create the content they want relating to the brands. That is two-way communication. In other words, social media allows interactions between the customers and brands (Dessart, 2017). It is related to “web-based channels of communication and information in which active consumers engage in behaviours that can be consumed by others both in real time regardless of their spatial location” (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010:312).

2.3.2.2. Key Elements of Social Media Sites

The social presence and media richness are used to classify social media sites.

The term social presence is used to describe and comprehend how people interact socially in online learning environments. Social presence was defined by Short et al. (1976:65) as the “degree of salience of the other person in the interaction and the consequent salience of their interpersonal relationships”. According to Kaplan & Haenlein (2010), the concept of media richness is intertwined with the concepts of social presence. The theory of media richness was developed by Daft & Lengel (1986) to understand information processing behaviours in organisations and industries. They discovered that communication’s goal is to reduce uncertainty, ambiguity, and equivocality. Uncertainty is defined as the lack of information (Daft & Lengel, 1986:556).

Self-presentation and self-disclosure are used to classify social media sites.

When it comes to self-presentation, Goffman (1959) claims that when an individual enters the presence of others who are likely to seek information about them or to bring the information they already have about them into play, the individual tries to control or guide the impressions others may have of them, such as their appearance and manner. This is referred to as self-

presentation. The concept of impression management is at the heart of Goffman's theory. People usually present themselves as acceptable people in every social interaction by making positive impressions on others or by wearing fashionable clothing to be perceived as stylish. Self-disclosure, is any personal information that someone shares with others. Personal states, dispositions, past events, and future plans all fall under the umbrella of self-disclosure. According to Kaplan & Haenlein (2010:62), self-disclosure is "the conscious or unconscious disclosure of personal information (e.g., thoughts, feelings, likes, dislikes) that is consistent with the image one wishes to project". Members' friendships are strengthened because of self-disclosure.

As a result of the traits listed above, social media is a valuable tool for businesses. Social media platforms are diverse online sources of knowledge and information about services, goods, and brands that users develop and share (Curran & Lennon, 2011). Thus, social media sites play a crucial role in branding activities (Hutter et al., 2013). When compared to traditional forms of marketing communication, two-way customer interaction with brand is said to have a more significant impacts on customer behaviours either intention or actual action, therefore is a crucial factor driving brand awareness and brand engagement (Hutter et al., 2013, Wallace et al., 2014).

2.3.2.3. Social media platforms

Abrahams et al. (2012:23) defined social media platforms as "internet-based systems that allow information to flow through social communication channels while also providing decentralised user-level content and public membership". Social media platforms are places where individuals are able to update news, present their thoughts and concerns, and to interact with others. Previous research reveals that different types of social media platforms have different purposes, functions, and ways of communication (Zhu & Chen, 2015; Voorveld et al., 2018). Based on different levels of message customisation and the nature of connection, Zhu & Chen (2015) provide two typologies of social media platforms, including profile-based and content-based platforms. Table 2.6 presents these two types of social media platforms.

	Profile- based	Content-based
Focal point	The individual member	Contents posted
Nature of information	Topics are typically related to the person	Discussions and comments are based around contents posted
Main purpose	Users make connections mainly because they are interested in the user behind the profile	Users make connections because they like the contents a certain profile provides
Example	Facebook, Twitter, Whatsapp	Flickr, Instagram, Pinterest, YouTube

Table 2.6: Profile-based vs Content-based social media platforms (Adapted from Zhu & Chen, 2015)

Facebook

In 2004, Mark Zuckerberg and his colleagues at Harvard University (Eduardo Saverin, Andrew McCollum, Dustin Moskovitz, and Chris Hughes) created a social media site named Facebook which allows its members to connect with other people. The members can also publish their posts, photos, and videos. Once the members connect with each other, called friends, they can see and react to friends' posts, photos and videos by liking, commenting, or sharing them. Moreover, the members also can stay connected with others through messenger which is a function that allows members to have private conversations with other members. In Facebook, communities with people who share common interests are also created. Facebook is the most preferred social media site (Jennings et al., 2014). In the first quarter of 2016, Facebook became the world's most popular social network with approximately 1.65 billion active users. In the second quarter of 2021, the number of active Facebook users reached 2.89 billion. Facebook is commonly used as a marketing tool in business because of its capability to reach and communicate with a large population (Fan & Gordon, 2014). Facebook is commonly used as a marketing tool in business because of its capability to reach and communicate to a large population (Fan & Gordon, 2014). Companies usually use Facebook campaigns in order to attract new followers and foster customers' participation (Coulter & Roggeveen, 2012).

Blogs

Blogs are social media platforms where individuals (called bloggers) express their opinions, educate others, and initiate discussions surrounding the things they are interested in (Ngai et al., 2015). Wu et al. (2013) revealed many benefits of blogs for businesses, including building relationship with customers, developing the brands' voice, and increasing their reputation. According to Wu et al. (2013), trust via blogs is higher than other types of social media platforms, therefore, it positively influences WOM activities and business reputation (Fan & Gordon, 2014). However, Fan & Gordon (2014) also found that blogs have not received the appropriate attention from a large number of companies because the companies lack understanding about the benefits of blogs.

Twitter

Twitter is a social networking sites used to provide updates about the latest news, stories and ideas on topics that users are interested in (Malhotra & Malhotra, 2016). A tweet is usually a short post (maximum 140 characters). Twitter provides users many functions such as email, instant messaging, and blogging (Azhar & Abeln, 2014). Users can add images, videos, and links to their tweets (Wasike, 2013). People use Twitter in order to follow news about the businesses of their interest or to learn about the businesses and their competitors (Schlinke & Crain, 2013). Businesses use Twitter to do their marketing, engage their followers, and build the information communities (Jung & Hadley, 2014; Malhotra & Malhotra, 2016). Wolny & Mueller (2013) state that Twitter is an effective social media tool to attract new customers and increase credibility.

Instagram

Instagram, named from instant camera and telegram, is another popular social media platform. Instagram was originally created by Kevin Systrom and Mike Krieger in 2010 and was later bought by Facebook. This platform is based on the principle of sharing photos and short videos and has many advantages. First, it makes the experience of sharing photos faster and easier. Second, it helps make the photos and videos taken from smartphones look more high quality and professional due to the filter function and other photo editing functions. Third, this platform allows photos and shorts videos to be uploaded and shared on other social media networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter, Flickr, and so on. The users also can see photos and videos of other users. While uploading photos and short videos, the users can add hashtags which allows other users to see the posts when they search for this hashtag.

YouTube

YouTube was primarily created in 2005 by Chad Hurley, Steven Chen, and Jawed Karim who are all former employees of PayPal. It was then bought by Google in November 2006. YouTube is an online video-sharing platform. Available content included on YouTube is video clips, TV show clips, music videos, audio recordings, video blogging, live stream, short and documentary films, etc. Unregistered users can only watch but not upload videos, while registered users can upload an unlimited number of videos and can also share, rate, and comment on the videos of others. Every minute, more than 500 hours of content are uploaded to YouTube. In addition, there are approximately one billion hours of content being watched every day on YouTube.

2.3.2.4. Social Media Marketing and Customer Engagement on social media

The growth of social media has changed the way brands market their products and services, as well as engage their customers (Taneja & Toombs, 2014). Social media marketing is considered an efficient way of marketing, reducing costs and increasing sales (Castronovo & Huang, 2012; Kohli et al., 2015). In traditional marketing, the message provided is one-way where the businesses provide the customers what they want the customers to know about their products and services (Bruce & Salomon, 2013). In contrast, in social media marketing, brand-related messages allow interaction of customers and even enable their customers to create user-generated content (UGC) which can be used as WOM marketing strategy for businesses (Kwok & Yu, 2013). Throughout social media platforms, businesses can interact with existing customers and enhance customer engagement (Brodie et al., 2013; Goi, 2014). Social media engagement can be either positive or negative (van Doorn et al., 2010; Bruce & Solomon, 2013). Thus, listening to customer feedback and reviews is important for businesses in order to understand and educate the mindset of customers as well as their behaviours (Kohli et al., 2015), aiding their new product and service development strategies (Peltola & Mäkinen, 2014). Through social media platforms, not only brands interact with their customers, but customers can also interact with other customers, bringing not only benefits but also challenges for brand managers on how to manage these interactions and avoid negative WOM among customers (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2015).

In addition, social media allows brands to access a large number of social media users, grouped together based on the interest with the brands, called brand communities (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013). These brand communities play a significant role on enhancing the

relationship between the brand and customers and increasing sales (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013). Similarly, De Vries et al. (2017) argued that brand community members usually have strong bonds with brands than who are not, therefore, they are successful tools for increasing sales. Jahn et al. (2013) emphasised the importance of WOM activities within brand communities which, in turn, positively influences attitudes towards the brand and purchase intention. Although Algesheimer et al. (2015) noted some negative outcomes of brand communities such as community pressure and negative WOM, brand communities are still important because of the positive consequences mentioned above: enhancing customer engagement and loyalty, increasing brand image, and positive WOM activities.

Although researchers have recently had more attention on examining the customer engagement construct in social media context, there is no agreed definition of what the construct is (Dessart et al., 2015; Syrdal & Briggs, 2018). Several authors define engagement on social media as a manifestation of behaviours by the customer beyond the purchase and resulting from motivational factors (van Doorn et al., 2010). It also can be manifestations of commitment in interacting with brands (Mollend & Wilson, 2010). Some others defined social media engagement as specific behaviours in specific social media platform such as liking and commenting on Facebook posts (Syrdal & Briggs, 2018), or commenting on and sharing activities on Facebook (Hargittai & Hsieh, 2010). As a result, customer engagement on social media in general comprehends the customers' interaction with the content towards the brand on social media platforms.

Defining dimensions and measuring engagement in social media become essential for brands. The number of likes, comments and shares of brand content are commonly defined as a metrics presenting the engagement manifestations of customers (Hoffman & Fodor, 2010; Gorry & Westbrook, 2011; Bonsón & Ratkai, 2013). However, Aichner & Jacob (2015) argue that customer engagement on social media is not limited to liking, commenting, and sharing behaviours. They include many behaviours that also can be considered as customer engagement such as page visits, content views, product reviews, and much more (Aichner & Jacob, 2015). COBRAs (Consumers' Online Brand Related Activities), introduced by Shao (2009) and developed by Muntinga et al. (2011), is considered a comprehensive theoretical framework to understanding customer engagement behaviours with a brand on social media. This framework shows three levels of engagement behaviours, including consumption,

contribution, and creation of brand-related content on social media (Muntinga et al., 2011; Schivinski et al., 2016).

In the next section, the construct of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media context will be further explored regarding the underlying theoretical focused areas of the current research, including relationship marketing, customer behaviours, and social influence.

2.4. Theoretical focused areas of current research

According to Hollebeek (2011) and Brodie et al. (2013), the main background theories of customer engagement are based on the relationship marketing domain. In this theoretical domain, customers are put at the centre of the relationship with brands where they are believed to have proactive contributions rather than just being passive recipients in customer-brand interactions. Thus, customer engagement's main purpose is to maintain the relationship quality between customers and the brand which helps to increase customer satisfaction and customer loyalty.

In addition, some others examine social influence theories as another necessary background of customer engagement (Roy et al., 2018; Wallace et al., 2014; Gummerus et al., 2012). These theories examine customers' underlying motivations for participating and making contributions in the interaction with brands.

The other theoretical area related to customer engagement literature is customer behaviour studies where all the behaviours and interactions of customers toward a brand are discussed. Therefore, the focus of the current research is on three critical areas: relationship marketing studies, customer behaviour studies, and social influence studies (see Figure 2.2).

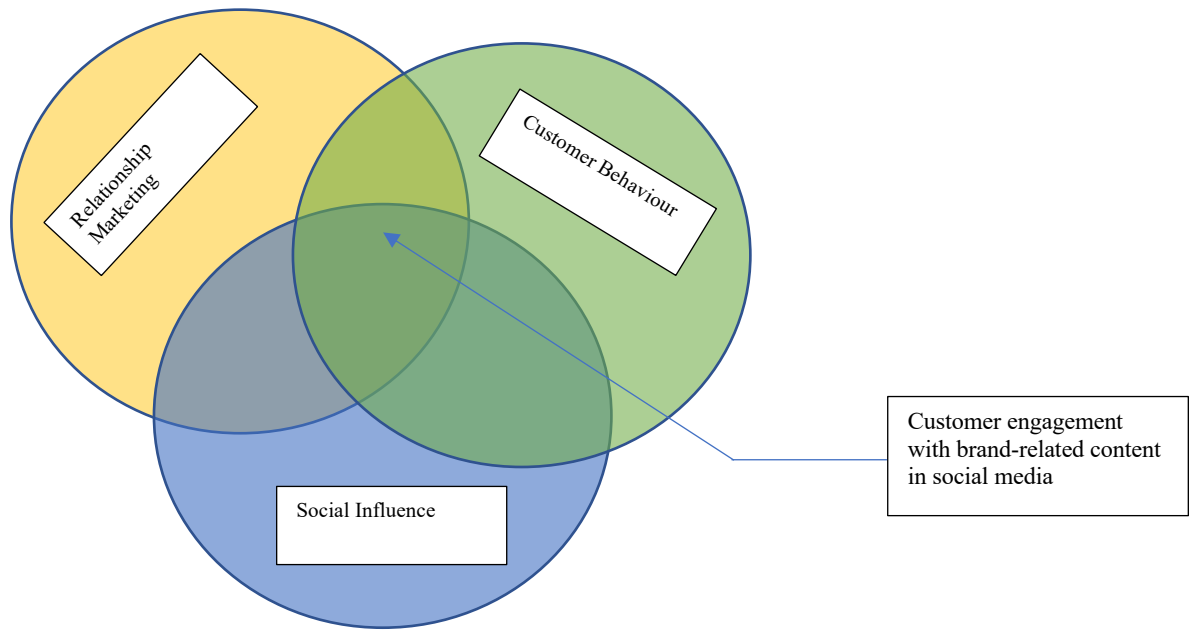


Figure 2.2: Areas underlying the current research: Relationship Marketing, Customer Behaviour and Social Influence

2.4.1. Relationship Marketing Studies

2.4.1.1 Relationship Marketing: A Marketing Paradigm Shift

Godson (2009:4) defines relationship marketing as

the concentration of marketing efforts and resources on developing and maintaining long-term, close relationships with customers and other stakeholders.

Indeed, the scope of relationship marketing is very broad, including both internal function and external networks to help maintain relationships with customers (Buttle, 2015). The domain of relationship marketing covers a huge range of areas including supply chain relationships, partner and competitor relationships, employee relationships, and customer value management, customer retention, and loyalty management (Godson, 2009). Morgan & Hunt (1994:22) define relationship marketing as “all marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchange”. These relationships should lead to commitment and trust between the parties involved. The main aspects of relationship marketing are not only getting new customers and completing the transactions (e.g., purchasing) but also maintaining those ongoing relationships.

Recent modern marketing faces a paradigm shift from transactional marketing (which mainly focuses on 4Ps) to relationship marketing (which focuses on customers' needs and satisfaction). The comparison of transactional marketing and relationship marketing is presented in Table 2.7. There have been many differences between transactional marketing and relationship marketing with the level of customer engagement in the study of Sonkova & Grabowska (2015). While relationship marketing focuses on customer retention, the purpose of transactional marketing is to obtain new customers (Christopher et al., 2013). Because of this, the main goal of relationship marketing could be to create a long-term relationship between customers and the company and only focus on this relationship. Christopher et al. (2013) also identified the other differences between transactional marketing and relationship marketing as the level of customer service, customer commitment, and customer contract which is much higher in relationship marketing compared with a limited level of transactional relationship. It is seen that in relationship marketing, marketers with much effort have paid more attention to keep their existing customers instead of having as many new customers as possible by providing them with a range of benefits or emphasising the ongoing contracts with their customers so they can effectively adapt their marketing strategy to create strong commitment with customers. This has even driven many companies to use terms like associates, clients, or partners instead of customers to emphasise the long-term relationship between the company and customers (Christopher et al., 2013). Another study by Grundey (2009) also defined relationship marketing as the synthesis of customer service, quality, and marketing.

	Transactional Marketing	Relationship Marketing
Time perspective	Short-term focus	Long-term focus
Dominating marketing function	Marketing Mix	Interactive Marketing (supported by marketing mix activities)
Price elasticity	Customers tend to be more sensitive to price	Customers tend to be less sensitive to price
Dominating quality dimension	Quality of output (technical quality dimension) is dominating	Quality of interactions (functional quality dimension) grows in importance and may become dominating
Measurement of customer satisfaction	Monitoring market share (indirect approach)	Managing the customer base (direct approach)
Customer information system	<i>Ad hoc</i> customer satisfaction surveys	Real-time customer feedback systems
Interdependency between marketing, operations and personnel	Interface of no or limited strategic importance	Interface of substantial strategic importance
The role of internal marketing	Internal marketing of no or limited importance to success	Internal marketing of substantial strategic importance to success

Table 2.7: Comparison of Transactional Marketing and Relationship Marketing (Adopted from Christopher et al., 2013)

2.4.1.2. Customer Relationship Manager (CRM) and Social CRM (CRM 2.0)

Although relationship marketing, as mentioned above, includes all relationships both internal and external, this research focuses specifically on the relationship between customers and the company, something called Customer Relationship Management (CRM). Parvatiyar & Sheth (2001:5) define CRM as

a comprehensive strategy and process of acquiring, retaining, and partnering with selective customers to create superior value for the company and the customer. It involves the integration of marketing, sales, customer service, and the supply-chain functions of the organisation to achieve greater efficiencies and effectiveness in delivering customer value.

The goal of CRM is customer retention through a more effective management of both short-term and long-term customer relationships as studies suggest that customer retention positively influences sales and profit (Buttler, 2015).

In practice, to maintain long-term performance goals, relationship marketing must provide a win-win outcome and ensure benefits for both parties. Based on the literature, it is suggested that the main consequences of customer engagement are customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek, 2011), making huge benefits for brands. Better customer relationships help companies reduce marketing costs and get better customer insight and lead to higher customer satisfaction, brand loyalty, and consequently business performance. On the other hand, from customers' point of view, engaging in a good relationship with brands brings positive effects to customers in terms of perceiving greater relational benefits. Aside from reducing perceived risks, building relationships with companies refers to customers' feeling of being valued, being understood regarding their specific expectations and needs, enhancing customers' status, and meeting customers' social needs.

With the recent emergence of social media, CRM has been transformed into a more collaborative and advanced form called Social CRM or CRM 2.0. Social SRM can be defined as 'a philosophy and a business strategy, supported by a technology platform, business rules, processes and social characteristics, designed to engage the customer in a collaborative conversation in order to provide mutually beneficial value in trust and transparency business environment. It is "a company's programmatic response to the customer's control of the conversation" (Greenberg, 2010:34). It is considered as a natural evolution of traditional CRM. The Web 2.0 services and utilities are employed in Social CRM strategies to create and maintain a two-way relationship between customers and brands (Faase et al., 2011). In the Social CRM environment, both companies and customers become more active. Companies can talk and listen to their customer more easily and more efficiently, either through direct discussions and interactions with a customer or through indirect content analysis (Faase et al., 2011; Greenberg, 2010).

Recent studies suggest that brands are increasingly interested in establishing a presence on social media and use social media as their most important marketing strategy. According to Lipsman et al. (2012), brands utilise social media networking sites, especially their brand fan pages, to interact with their fans and potential customers, to shape customer experiences, and

to power up the customers' voices in order to gain greater marketing impact. The shift toward social media of brands can be explained by Tsimonis & Dimitriadis (2013). First, the response rates of traditional marketing strategies have declined. Customers are more likely to ignore conventional online marketing such as banners or email advertising. The second reason is the development of technology which makes social media more popular and attractive by tools and increasing populations. The third reason is demographic shifts which refers to the movement of people, especially young people, from traditional media channels to social media channels. The fourth reason is customer preference. Trust is vital in customer-brand relationships and now people are likely to trust their friends and people on social media rather than trusting the traditional brands' marketing and branding strategies. Last, social media is a low-cost strategy compared to other strategies which aim to engage the same number of customers.

Although using social media has become a trend, the critical question for marketing managers is how to take full advantage of social media in order to have significant contributions to customer-brand relationships. Kozinets (2002) pointed out two reasons to explain why brands are interested in using social media platforms: word of mouth (WOM) and customer-brand interactions. Social media networks are ideal tools for eWOM as users of the networks can easily create and share brand-related information in their networks of friends and public (Chu & Kim, 2011; Lee & Ma, 2012; Wallace et al., 2014). eWOM can be spread on various online channels, including blogs, virtual communities, social networks (Chu & Kim, 2011; Lee & Ma, 2012; Kumar, 2013; Cui & Wu, 2016). Second, because social media provides a two-way relationship between customers and brands, it provides opportunities to brands to understand customers more by collecting data about their preferences, desires, and needs (Kozinets, 2002). Brands, therefore, can effectively develop and enhance a relationship with customers. Social media not only intensifies the existing relationship between brands and their customers but also increase the ability of brands to create new variations of interactions and strengthens the efficiency of their communication strategies. Firms can easily reach out to the new audience that otherwise could not be reached (Dong-Hun, 2010) because the content can be easily transferred and distributed to a large number of people. Social media can be used as a tool to increase customer engagement and raise brand awareness (Schivinski et al., 2016) as it allows firms to access millions of people, informing them about the brands' presence all over the networks (O'Flynn, 2012).

Social media relationships can boost sales. O’Flynn (2012) examined two examples of Sony and Dell. In 2012, Sony declare that they had earn an extra million pounds in sales through their social networking sites. Similarly, Dell claimed that in 2012 they earned an extra three million dollars with the presence of their Twitter site. Furthermore, there is evidence of the relationship between customer engagement in social media and purchase intention and purchase behaviours (Choi et al., 2016; Schivinski et al., 2016).

Although social media offers many benefits to firms, some risks could happen along their use of social media in marketing strategies. One of the most frequent risks which the brand could not control and predict is negative comments and reviews can be spread faster and more easily through social media platforms (Bilro et al., 2019), therefore negatively impacting brands’ brand image and sales (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010).

As mentioned, maintaining profitable customers or customer retention is considered as one of the most critical objectives of customer relationship management. It will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.1.3. Customer retention, brand relationship quality, trust and commitment

Customer retention

Customer retention is an essential goal of relationship marketing as it positively influences sales and profit (Buttler, 2015). Buttler (2105) defines customer retention as a strategy of maintaining long-term relationships with customers. Strategies for customer retention include two types: positive strategies and negative strategies. Whereas positive strategies of customer retention refer to maintaining relationships with customers by encouraging and rewarding them, negative strategies refer to keeping customer relationships by locking and forbidding them from getting away with penalising policies. When studying positive strategies for customer retention, authors suggest that customer satisfaction is not a strong enough reason for maintaining a relationship with a brand or a firm (Buttler, 2015). Successful customer retention requires more than satisfying customers by giving them what they want. It sometimes needs to exceed the customers’ expectations to keep them loyal to the brand/firm. Thus, the concept of customer engagement is migrated to and examined in research about customer relationships.

Customer retention and customer loyalty are the ultimate destinations of business. The goal of the business must be to build an increasingly loyal customer base, customers who will never

leave the business, and not be shaken by the tricks of competitors. Research by Forentrepreneurs shows that 70-95% of a business's revenue comes from loyal customers. Not only do they come back to shop, but they shop more, spend more, and are ready to buy bundles and more expensive, upgraded, or premium versions of the selected item (Zakaria et al., 2014). According to a report by the American research institute Gartner Group, loyal customers also spend 30% more than new customers (Bowden & Chen, 2011). This is understandable because when customers put their trust in the business they will buy and spend more. Upselling is considered to contribute the most revenue to the business. As analysed in the customer-centric growth model, with employee satisfaction as the foundation, customer attachment (or customer loyalty) is the factor that has the most direct impact on customer satisfaction - business revenue and growth. Loyal customers have put their trust in the business; they return to buy without hesitation and consideration like the first time, they accept other products, and are willing to try new products (Zakaria et al., 2014). When they are entirely conquered by the product or service they will automatically recommend the product to relatives and friends. The market is increasingly saturated; finding new customers and new markets is much more complex than maintaining and retaining existing customers. Therefore, profitable businesses in the world attach great importance to policies to retain loyal customers. According to a report by the American research institute Gartner Group, research also shows that 60% of loyal customers refer businesses to relatives and friends. This means they find new customers for the business. According to data from the market research institute Forrest USA, the cost to acquire new customers is five times higher than the cost to retain existing customers (Zakaria et al., 2014). Therefore, the more loyal customers the business retains, the higher the profit. Loyal customers talk about the business and write reviews about the business; compliments from customers are the most valuable compliments for businesses. Customer satisfaction is a determining factor in their loyalty to a product or brand. Loyalty will motivate them to take action to contribute to the growth and development of that product or brand. Thus, customer satisfaction is the decisive factor for business results and the reputation of enterprises.

Brand relationship quality

In the market orientation concept, companies desire to satisfy customers' needs by providing relatively superior value to the competitors to enhance customer relationships. However, relationship marketing broadened the domain by explicitly focusing on the exchange relationships to maintain two-way interactions between companies and customers (Christopher et al., 2013). The relationship should be built on the welfare of customers, trust and

commitment, as well as the services provided (Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek et al., 2011). As customers become more demanding than they were 20 years ago, customer service plays an essential part in marketing strategy. Besides the high quality of products and services, customers expect more excellent service with empathic and responsive employees or service providers (Buttle, 2015). Harris & McDonald (2004) also emphasised the importance of mutuality between marketers and customers or the relationship between business and customers. Overall, customer engagement is what relationship marketing is aiming for by enhancing brand relationship quality. Brand relationship quality can be defined as the perceptions of customers of how well the relationship can satisfy their expectations, goals, and desires. Trust and customer satisfaction primarily affect the brand relationship quality (Brodie et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011).

Trust and commitment

In a long-term relationship (which is the purpose of relationship marketing) customer engagement is the initial step to keep customers committed and engaged with the business. Meanwhile, to keep customers committed or engaged, trust should be gained first (Sonkova & Grabowska, 2015). Trust is defined as “a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence” (Moorman et al., 1999:315). Trust is believed to reduce the customers’ perceived risks, transactional costs and increase the confidence of the customer. Thus, trust helps to maintain the commitment of customers to a relationship. Trust plays a vital role in business operations. When trust is created in partners to maintain relationships with suppliers or customers, time and money will be saved, thereby bringing a higher value profit for shareholders and customers. Trust can create higher returns for brands and stakeholders through better quality customer-brand relationship between and higher level of customer loyalty (Sonkova & Grabowska, 2015; Harris & Dennis, 2011). Trust reflects a brand’s reputation. It is the emotion that makes customers buy products, services or invest time and money, and recommend it to others. Obviously, a corporate brand is essential to every company providing products and services. At the most minor level, each individual has their own brand or reputation that affects trust, speed, and cost.

A Golin and Harris’ (2013) poll found that 39% of respondents said they would start or increase a partnership with a company because of its trust or credibility, while 53% said they would terminate, cut down, or switch a business partnership to a competitor when they feel concerned about a company’s trust or reliability issues, and 83% expressed they would give their trust to

a company when they have not proven that company has made a mistake against them and will listen to the company before judging its ethical behaviour. Thus, trust in businesses affects awareness and buying behaviour. In addition, the Annual Edelman Trust report in 2006 (cited in Das et al., 2017) pointed out that trust is not only a reward, but also a tangible asset that an organisation needs to create, maintain, and see as an opportunity. While trust brings significant benefits to businesses, doubt or loss of trust causes much damage. At least 64% of the opinion of leaders in all areas in all countries surveyed said that they often refuse to buy products or services from companies they do not trust (Das et al., 2017). Trust is also the element that helps to increase customer engagement in relationship marketing.

In summary, trust and commitment are the two essential elements required in a customer-brand relationship to create and maintain customer engagement. When customers trust companies, they can be expected to become advocates for the companies. However, the trust may not suffice for an enduring relationship. Commitment, which has been defined as

an exchange partner believing that an ongoing relationship with another is so important as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it; that is, the committed party believes the relationship is worth working on to ensure that it endures indefinitely (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:67)

fills the gap and turns a relationship with trust into a long-term relationship. Bowden (2009) identified two types of commitment: calculative commitment and affective commitment. He argued that these two types of commitment, along with trust, will likely result in customer engagement.

2.4.1.4. Relationship Marketing and customer engagement on social media.

Vivek et al. (2012) stated customer engagement has emerged from the theoretical root of relationship marketing. Ashley et al., (2011) has the same idea that relationship marketing is the background theory used in studying customer engagement. Under relationship marketing theory, customers consider having proactive contributions to brands instead of being passive (Hollebeek, 2011b). From a marketing strategy point of view, the concept of customer engagement is related to relationship marketing. Fornel (1992) pointed out two different categories of marketing strategies which are offensive strategies and defensive strategies.

While offensive strategies refer to marketing activities aiming to attract more customers and increase purchase frequency, defensive strategies involve those to ban customers that exist. It is agreed in literature that both two marketing strategies are involved when examined the scope of relationship marketing (Vivek et al., 2012). Hollebeek (2011) and Vivek et al. (2012) argued customer engagement is a central concept in relationship marketing.

The recent emergence of social media platforms makes lots of changes in online customer behaviours and alters the way of interacting between customers and customers as well as customers and brands. In particular, customers were transformed from passive observers or consumers of content to active participants who can contribute to the content or even can create large quantities of content through their online behaviours and interactions (Malthouse et al., 2013). Central to this shift is the concept of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media (Bijmolt et al., 2010). Brands are challenged to adjust their relationship marketing strategies in order to engage more customer through their efforts on social media.

Customer engagement has been classified as either psychological behavioural or both dimensions (see section 2.3.1). Although it may be preferable to define customer engagement behaviourally rather than psychologically, the involvement of psychological aspects (e.g., cognitive commitment and affective commitment) could not be ruled out. These constructs are usually examined either as antecedents or outcomes of customer engagement (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). Customer engagement is also defined as building emotional bonds, including commitment and trust, between brands and customers (Sashi, 2012; Grewal et al., 2017). It focuses on long-term customer-brand relationships rather than emphasising specific short-term transactions. Therefore, it is considered as being built on the core of relationship marketing. Defining customer engagement as behaviours other than the core transaction has the added benefit of explicitly separating it from behavioural loyalty (i.e., repeat purchases, purchase intention) and other transaction-focused behaviours commonly researched in marketing. In a broad sense, customer relationship management is considered as an entire process of “building and maintaining profitable customer relationships by delivering superior customer value and satisfaction” (Yunus et al., 2022:936). When examining the long-term relationship between the customers and the brands, it can be seen behavioural loyalty (including, purchase intention or repeated purchases) is one of the benefits of the relationship marketing (Harun et al., 2018). Customer purchase intention is defined as the customers’ interest in willingness to purchase a

product or service (Kim and Ko, 2012; Tiruwa et al., 2016), which can be influenced and increased by customer relationship marketing (Yunus et al., 2022).

Moreover, interpreting it as any activity other than purchase encompasses a wide range of customer behaviours (e.g., brand learning, word of mouth activities). When customer interaction occurs organically, or naturally (meaning customer interaction happens in reaction to product experiences or marketing messages, with no purposeful activities from the company to motivate or empower the customer), more trust can be achieved compared with business-sponsored communication (de Matos & Rossi, 2008), therefore there is a higher level of engagement, which in turn, results in a higher customer purchase intention.

In addition, if the customer involvement is more about customers' voluntary, customer engagement contributes to the companies. Kumar (2013:36) valued the customer engagement as it can be measured as "the profits associated with the purchase generated by a customer's influence on other acquired customers and prospects" as well as "the profits generated by customer feedback, suggestions, or ideas to the firm over time". Customer engagement behaviour such as word of mouth, reviews, feedback, and so on, aim to enhance "acquisition, retention, and share of wallet" (Kumar et al., 2010:289). For instance, word of mouth activities on social media can contribute to marketing communication effort through customer-to-customer communication. Moreover, customers' online reviews and feedback has great impact on product and service development (Cui & Wu, 2016).

Literature provided strong relationships between the customer engagement and word-of-mouth activities as well as the intention to purchase a product or service (Tiruwa et al., 2016; Barger et al., 2016; Hwang et al., 2013). However, in the social media context, limited attempt of examination how customer engagement with brand-related content having impact on the eWOM and purchase intention. This is a foundation leading to the research objective 3 is to "evaluate the importance of relationships between the levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and the consequential outcomes (attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase intention) in the restaurant industry".

2.4.2. Customer Behaviour Studies

2.4.2.1. Definition of Customer Behaviour

The definition of customer behaviour has been agreed among scholars as "the behaviour that customers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products,

services, and ideas” (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2007:3). Studies of customer behaviours, therefore, comprise a wide range of related research topics, including all aspects of purchasing behaviours, from pre-purchase through post-purchase activities. It is also concerned with customers’ emotional and psychological responses which can precede or follow those activities. It also refers to all individuals involved either directly or indirectly in activities related to decisions of purchasing and consuming products or services. The research field of customer behaviour emerged from ideas of several scientific disciplines such as psychology, biology, sociology, economics, and so on. Research on the Information Systems field, with the advance of the Internet and other online systems, has contributed to the growth and development of customer behavioural studies (Karimi, 2013).

2.4.2.2. Customer Engagement in Customer Behaviour Perspective

The concept of customer engagement has emerged in the marketing literature, considered an essential concept with a strong behavioural focus (see section 2.3.1). The Marketing Science Institute-MSI (2010:4) defines customer engagement as

customers’ behavioural manifestation toward a brand or firm beyond purchase, which results from motivational drives including word-of-mouth activities, recommendations, customer-to-customer interactions, blogging, writing reviews, and other similar activities.

A large number of previous studies on customer behaviours have focused on examining the constructs related to customers’ purchase behaviours such as customer retention, cross-buying, and buying frequency (Bolton et al., 2004). However, with the booming growth of the Internet and especially social media, customer-brands and customers-customers interaction are easier and more efficient. Thus, the non-purchase customer behaviours become more popular and important (Kumar et al., 2010). Beyond purchases, customers can contribute to companies in many ways such as word-of-mouth activities (e.g., reviews, recommendations, suggestions) and co-creation. As discussed previously, customer engagement goes beyond the mere concepts of customer participant and customer involvement, and the customer engagement behaviour goes far beyond customer purchase behaviours (Brodie et al., 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Van Doorn et al. (2010) initially proposed the concept of Customer Engagement Behaviours (CEB) to reflect customer non-purchase. They defined CEB as a “customer’s

behavioural manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” (Van Doorn et al., 2010).

Customers can engage with a variety of objects, including brand (Hollebeek et al., 2011), product or service offerings (Brodie et al., 2011), media (Calder et al., 2009), media content (Schivinski et al., 2016; Bianchi & Andrew, 2010), and events (Vivek et al., 2012). This study examines the behavioural manifestation of engagement within the context of social media platforms (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Gummerus et al., 2012).

Online social community and customer engagement behaviours in online social community

Although this study focuses on content as a focal object of customer engagement it also affects, and is affected by, many behaviours in the online social communities. Customer behaviours toward online social media communities may include behaviours with brand-related content on social media such as reading or commenting on the posts related to brands on social media communities. Therefore, the online social communities will be discussed in this section in order to have a better understand of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media. One type of online social communities based on Web2.0 is online brand communities. An online brand community is defined as “a specialised, non-geographically bound, online community, based on social communications and relationships among a brand’s customers” (De Valck et al., 2009:185). This definition was developed from the definition of brand community by Muniz & O’Guinn (2001:412) where brand community is “a specialised, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of relationships among admirers of a brand”. It can be seen that the only difference between these two definitions is related to the term online community. An online brand community consists of three key elements:

- (1) Brand-orientation: the centre of online brand community is brand itself
- (2) Internet – based: in interactions between customers and between customer and content are enabled on the Internet.
- (3) Shared rituals and traditions. While rituals are “conventions that set up visible public definitions and social solidarity, traditions refers to the set of social practices which seek to celebrate and inculcate certain behavioural norms and values” (Muniz & O’ Guinn, 2001:413).

In other words, a brand community is “a collective of people with a shared interests in a specific brand, creating a subculture around the brand with its own value, myths, hierarchy, rituals and vocabulary” (Cova & Pace, 2006:52). An online brand community is considered as an important platform for customers’ engagement behaviours (Dholakia et al., 2004; Brodie et al., 2011) where customers can consume, contribute to, and create content related to the brand that they are interested in.

The advancement of technology in social media allows customers of a specific brand to gather together in an online environment through social network sites (SNS) which is called “embedded brand communities”. The most popular social network sites – Facebook allows companies to create a fan-page that people can easily join in just by clicking “Like” or “Join” button. In such embedded brand communities in social media, people may engage in many types of behaviours includes both peer-to-peer and peer-to-content behaviours. Examples of peer-to-peer behaviours are chatting with other customers about products and brands or sharing experiences with other customers; whereas reading or commenting on others’ brand-related posts on community’s social media sites are examples of peer-to-content behaviours. Zagila (2013) suggested that brand communities on social media networking sites also have the same characteristics of general band communities. Similarly, Gummerus et al. (2012) agreed to the same idea. Although some of previous studies have examined the embedded communities, studies which focus on customer behaviour in such communities are still at limitation. Previous studies considered embedded brand communities as reference group and word of mouth networks (Cheung & Lee, 2010; Kozinets et al., 2010;). These studies found that customers are likely to accept and believe in word of mouth from embedded brand communities when there is a lack of information about the brands or products.

2.4.2.3. Customer Engagement on social media: Customer behaviour perspective.

The Web 2.0 and social media such as blogs, wikis, and social networking sites have significantly developed both quantity and quality of customer-brand interactions (Li & Bernoff, 2011, Christodoulides, 2009). Brands are constantly searching for solutions to leverage their social media channels and strategies to reach a larger network of users and customers. According to Naylor et al. (2015), approximately 83% of companies of Fortune 500 had employed several forms of social media to connect with customers, keep them engaged, and therefore improve the firm’s performance (Sashi et al., 2012; Gummerus et al., 2012). Among various social networking sites, the most heavily used by both brands and customers is

undoubtedly Facebook. From a brand management perspective, Facebook allows companies to create their own brand-page where they can post photos, videos, links and make comment to engage both current and potential customers (Gummerus et al. 2012). In return, customers can respond to this content by liking, commenting or sharing them with others. These activities strengthen the bonds that customers have with companies and further these customers turn into engaged fans of the brand-page (Wallace et al., 2012). Thus, it is important for brands to have efficient social media strategies for engaging customers in order to gain the desired outcomes.

The emergence of Web 2.0 social media platforms has made a paradigm of online customer behaviour shifted. In particular, the interactive functions of social media networking sites allow customers transformed from passively observing the content and messages of the brands to actively contributing and creating content through their online interaction, conversations and behaviours (Malthouse et al., 2012). Bijmolt et al. (2010) considered customer engagement as central to the shift and recognised the value of customer co-creation through their behaviours. Social media can influence the level of customer engagement with the brands through the brand-related content, and the level of customer engagement, in turn, have a significant impact on customer relationship management strategies of the brands (Malthouse et al., 2013). As a result, it is challenged for the brands to manage their relationship marketing strategies collaborating with the roles social media to create and enhance customer engagement.

Behaviours that reflect the level of the customer engagement with brand-related content on social media consists of customers' consumption, contribution and creation of the brand-related content, based on the COBRAs (Consumer Online Brand-Related Activities) framework (Muntinga et al., 2011). The degree of customer engagement with the content can vary from the lowest form (e.g., reading posts, watching videos) to the highest form (user-generated content) of activeness and engagement (Muntinga et al., 2011; Malthouse et al., 2013; Schivinski et al., 2016). They argued that customers can engage with content on social media in different role at different time, based on their certain motivations at that time. COBRAs framework presents customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content in a hierarchy of activeness and behavioural intensity, which comprise passive low-intensity engagement behaviours (consuming), moderate active engagement behaviours (contributing), and highly active engagement behaviours (creating). The COBRA framework of consuming, contributing and creating content is presented in Figure 2.3.

COBRA type	Examples of brand-related social media use		
Level of brand related-activeness ↓ Consuming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Viewing brand-related video • Listening to brand-related audio • Watching brand-related pictures • Following threads on online brand community forums • Reading comments on brand profiles on social network sites • Reading product reviews • Playing branded online videogames • Downloading branded widgets • Sending branded virtual gifts/cards 		
	Contributing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rating products and/or brands • Joining a brand profile on a social network site • Engaging in branded conversations, e.g. on online brand community forums or social network sites • Commenting on brand-related weblogs, video, audio, pictures, etc. 	
		Creating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Publishing a brand-related weblog • Uploading brand-related video, audio, pictures or images • Writing brand-related articles • Writing product reviews

Figure 2.3: COBRA typology as a continuum of three usage types – consuming, contributing and creating (Muntinga et al., 2011)

The highest level of content engagement on social media refers to the term UGC (user-generated content). All social media platforms (Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Wikipedia, Yelp, etc) can include UGC which ranges from posts, videos and reviews. UGC can be performed in brand's own pages or other social networking sites. For example, users can generate content related to a brand and then post/share on YouTube (videos), Yelp (reviews), blogs, etc.

According to Underwood et al. (2011), there are several types of actors on UGC platforms. The first actors are called contributors who provide content, and the second actors are consumers who consume content. While in traditional media, the content contributors and content consumers are different, the novel feature of UGC is that a platform's end users can perform as both contributors and consumers. There are some users who will be still primary contributors, while some others will still be primary consumers. The third type of actors in UGC is advertisers who are defined as people and organisations trying to reach users. Many organisations pay for Facebook, YouTube and other social network sites to advertise their brands and products. For example, advertising is a major source of earnings for Facebook with their main clients are

Microsoft, Ford, Disney, and Walmart. The fourth type of actors is bystanders – people or companies considered as the subjects of content, for example, a person being discussed on Facebook or a restaurant being reviewed on Yelp. The final type of actors in UGC platforms is designers. They are people/organisations who set the rules for the performance of other actors on the platform. The designers decide which users are allowed to interact on the platform and the rules they need to follow as well as the incentives they may have.

Modes of interaction

The activities under three types of COBRAs have been examined. The ways customers choose how to interact or behave on social media are affected by the interaction modes in which users interact with other members (Zhao et al., 2008). According to Underwood et al. (2011), there are two interaction modes in which social media users perform: broadcasting mode and communicating mode. Broadcasting mode is defined as one-to-many interaction style where users want to promote themselves to public or large number of people. People in broadcasting mode tend to use their interactions in social media to increase their self-presentation and self-promotion in public (Underwood et al., 2011). This implies that they may engage in more active form of activities such as contributing and creating activities rather than passively consuming content (Bibby, 2008; Kramer & Winter, 2008). They may make comments or publish their own brand-related content because they know their comments or UGC content will be visible to the entire brand pages and other users. In most case, they are willing to share their information as well as their thoughts and opinions with others as they contribute to their self-presentation (Kolek & Saunders, 2008).

On the other hand, the communicating mode is categorised as a one-to-one or one-to-few interaction types (Underwood et al., 2011). This mode is less visible and more private. Customers tend to interact with people who are closer to them. In other words, they more focus on maintaining strong, high-quality relationship with smaller communities in social network (Singla & Richardson, 2008). In contrast with the users in broadcasting mode, customers in communication mode do not prefer to share their personal information as well as their thoughts and opinion in a large public (Pederson & Macafee, 2007). The implication of this interaction type is that customers may engage with brand-related content in more passive forms such as only reading, watching or liking the content (Underwood et al., 2011).

Understanding customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media with the adoption of COBRA framework is the main aim of this study. This raised the research objective 1 “To identify the levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry”. In addition, in order to explore the antecedents/ motivational factors of customer engagement with brand-related content, the Use and Gratification (U&G) theory was adopted. The theory is an approach originally suggested to understand how and why individuals use and interact in social media to satisfy their needs (Katz and Foulkes, 1962; Ko et al., 2005; Ku et al., 2013). U&G theory emphasizes the customer perspectives by considering their actual needs rather than focus on the brand perspectives (Boyd, 2008; Qin, 2020). According to Dolan et al. (2016), social media platforms are designed to engage customers and encourage customers to play an active role. Therefore, it is important to explore the motivations for customer engagement under the customer perspectives. Literature highlights the constructs used in U&G theory including motivation of entertainment (Tsai and Men, 2013; Dolan et al., 2016), motivation of information seeking (Cvijikj and Michahelles, 2013; Dolan et al., 2016), motivation of remuneration (Tsai and Men, 2013; Cvijikj and Michahelles, 2013; Dolan et al., 2016), motivation of social interaction (Dholakia et al., 2004), and motivation of self-presentation (Dholakia et al., 2004) in the online and social media context. However, up to date, there is no research empirically examine the relationship between comprehensive U&G motivations and full levels of COBRA yet. This is the background to the research objective 2 “To measure the importance of motivational factors in relation to the levels of customers engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry” (to answer research questions from 2 to 6). The theory and its constructs will be explained in depth in Chapter 4.

2.4.3. Social Influence theory

2.4.3.1. Overview of Social Influence theory

The third area that the current research focuses on in order to explore customer engagement with brand-related content in social media is social influence. According to Burnkrant & Cousinneau (1975), one of the most important factors affecting an individual’s behaviours is the influence of people around them. With the same idea, Bandura (2011) states that human behaviours must be considered and examined regarding both self and social influences. All human development, change and adaption of behaviours are embedded in social systems. It is also suggested by Dholakia et al. (2014:242) that “a common theme underlying many of these studies is to better understand the nature and role of social influence exerted by the community

on its members”. Thus, the social influence studies need to be examined in the current research in order to identify the motivational factors of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media. There are many different theories that have been employed in research of social influence such as social networking theory (Islam & Rahman, 2016b; Bitter & Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Wallace et al., 2014), social exchange theory (Rehnen, 2017; Roy et al., 2018), motivational theory (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2004), etc. These theories are used to have in depth understanding the motivation of social interaction and motivation of self-presentation of customers when engaging with brand-related content on social media.

Social influence refers to how an individual in a social network is impacted by the behaviours of the others following the community behaviour patterns. Social influence can be differentiated into two types: informational social influence and normative social influence (Li, 2013). Informational social influence refers to the influence used to make individuals accept information from another and think about it as evidence about reality, while normative social influence is made to “conform to the expectations of another person to group” (Li, 2013:265). When individuals are under normative social influence, they usually decide to perform or not perform behaviours not because of their belief or their attitude toward the behaviours but because of group pressure. Similarly, Aronson et al. (2005) pointed out that normative social influence is motivated by the desires of individuals of being that belong to and maintain the harmony of the groups. These desires lead people to follow the expectations of others in order to be accepted and liked by other group members.

Kelman (2017) identified three different processes included when a behaviour of an individual in the group is formed or changed: identification, compliance and internalisation. Identification is “the degree of overlap between individuals’ self-schema and the schema they hold for another target object, can be brand or community” (Carlson et al., 2008:286). Identification happens when an individual performs a certain behaviour to keep interaction and enhance satisfying relationships with other members in the group. Compliance refers to the process of individual accepting influence in order to get approval or support from another group members (Kelman, 2017). The final process, namely internalisation, is when the individual’s goals and values and those of groups are similar (Dholakia et al., 2004).

2.4.3.2. Social influence and customer engagement

The three levels of influence examined above play an important role when examining customer engagement in social media under the social influence research area. Literature found strong relationships between identification, internalisation and participating in online communities and social networks, whereas the evidence for compliance is not significant (Dholakia et al., 2004). Zhou (2011) shows the same findings. It can be explained as people can join social network voluntarily so they can leave the network very easily whenever they want. Thus, complying with others' expectations might not be necessary when a person participates in social media community as Dholakia et al. (2004) predicted.

Normative social influence appears in literature when examining the antecedences of individuals' participating in and engaging with social networking. Kaplan (1989) states that normative social influence refers to an affiliation or disaffiliation of social interaction between members in groups. Social interaction is defined as the most important contributor to affective commitment and engagement of customers to brand's social networking sites (Heffner and Rentsch, 2011). Similarly, Silvera et al., (2008) also argue that the higher level of normative social influence presents more chances of social interaction between group members, thus leading to consequently high levels of customer engagement and commitment.

Social influence refers to the approval or disapproval of others when customers decide to perform a certain behaviour (Curran & Lennon, 2011). Large numbers of previous studies have widely shown that people decide to make certain behaviours to impress others or to connect with others (e.g., Curran & Lenon, 2011; Chu & Kim, 2011, Wallace et al, 2012). Indeed, via social network sites, customers can use brands as a mean for creating self-identity (Schau & Gilly, 2003), gaining impressions on other customers or brands' fans (Wallace et al., 2012), and increasing their social interaction (Shu & Chang, 2011). Social interaction is considered as an important factor influencing the creation of user-generated content (Shu & Chang, 2011; Wallace et al., 2012). By creating content, customers are able to connect with others, experience a sense of belonging and feel important when being in a community. Furthermore, Shu & Chang (2011) suggested that social media sites create higher ratings of "trust on the website" and "trust in other members" when compared with other virtual communities. Trust, in turn, has a significant impact on customers' online brand-related activities. Ridings et al. (2002) found trust is a fundamental driver making members of social network sites willing to exchange information with others such as opinion-seeking, opinion-giving, and so on (Chu &

Kim, 2011). Moreover, Halaszovick & Nel (2015) found that the higher level of trust can lead to greater contributions of customer toward WOM activities.

2.3. Summary

This chapter has presented a critical overview of customer engagement in the literature in terms of conceptualisations, dimensions, underlying theories, and its importance. The three areas of research focus, including relationship marketing, online customer behaviour, and social influence studies, were presented in the relation to the customer engagement concept and within the social media context. The next chapter will provide a systematic literature review which will present a comprehensive current scenario of customer engagement especially with brand-related content on social media.

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER THREE – SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter offered an overview of the general concept of customer engagement and its theoretical background which is based on literature on relationship marketing, consumer behaviour, and social impact. This aided in clarifying essential conceptual words, outlining the theoretical foundation of customer engagement, and emphasising the importance of customer engagement research in marketing literature. A full systematic literature review is conducted in this chapter to (1) comprehend the current literature of customer engagement, particularly with brand-related content in social media, and (2) highlight the limitations of the literature for future research.

This chapter will be organised as followed. Firstly, the method used in the systematic literature review will be described. Then the integrative result of the review will be presented in many aspects of previous studies including theoretical background, antecedences and consequences, geographic contribution, etc. Finally, the contributions and also the limitations of the systematic literature review are addressed.

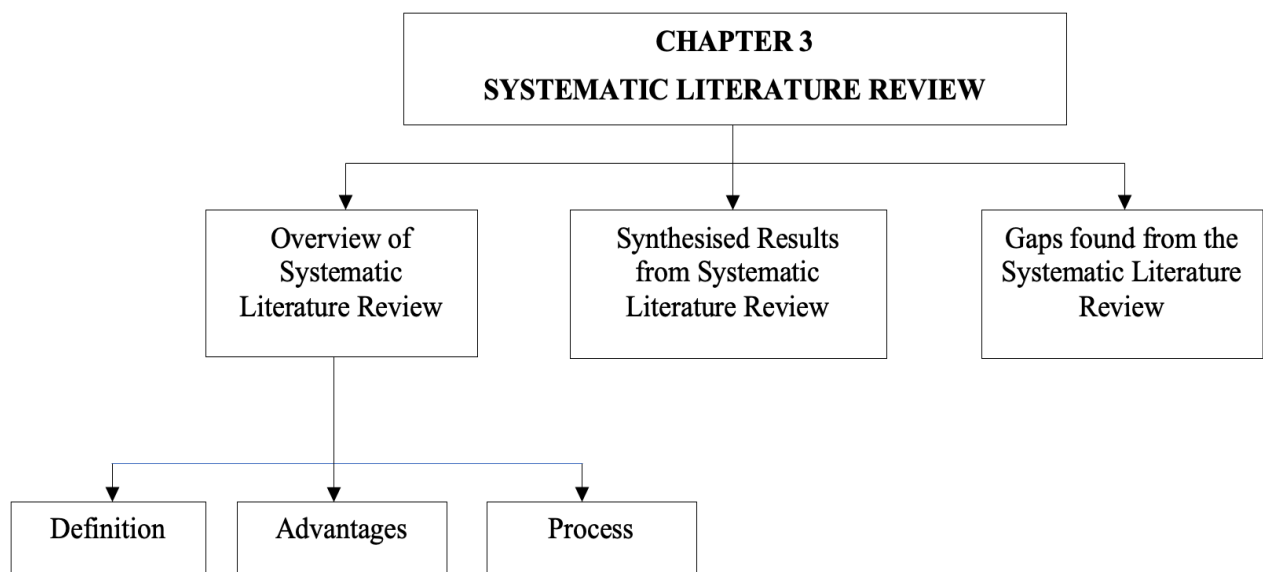


Figure 3.1: Structure of Chapter 3

3.2. Systematic Literature Review Method

3.2.1. Why Systematic Literature Review

There are two main approaches of literature review which can be undertaken to analyse and discuss about a particular research area: the first approach is traditional literature review (also called “narrative literature review”) which based on a qualitative and subjective analysis of the literature, and the second type is systematic literature review which refers to a review of previous studies using a quantitative and objective analysis (Transfield et al., 2003; Coombes & Nicholson, 2013). This review method was first employed in medical research. It then has been employed in other research areas including Management and Marketing (Crossan & Apayden, 2010, Coombes & Nicholson, 2013). This method of review adopts a “replicable, scientific and transparent process” (Transfield et al., 2003: 209) where a comprehensive search and analysis of all relevant published studies is conducted. Therefore, this method of literature review could minimise the bias and make the conclusions more reliable.

This systematic literature review has two objectives. The first objective is to demonstrate the current of research related to customer engagement in general and customer engagement with brand-related content in social media. The second objective is to summarise some unexplored areas in the field which the research in the future should focus on, implying the gaps leading to this research.

Brodie et al. (2011) also mentioned the need for the systematic literature of customer engagement in general. They mentioned “from a theoretical perspective further systematic, explicit scholarly inquiry addressing the customer engagement concept is required” (Brodie et al, 2011:262). This method of review “summarise in an explicit way what is known and not known about a specific practice related question” (Briner et al., 2009: 19). Furthermore, conducting a comprehensive systematic literature along with a previous critical review provides a further explicit understanding of the customer engagement construct in the extant literature and a sufficient guide for future research. Table 3.1 shows the comparison between a systematic and a narrative literature review, giving further reasons for conducting a systematic literature review in the current research.

Systematic Literature Review	Traditional/ Narrative Review
Precedes with a concise question to be answered or a hypothesis to be tested	May precede with a clear question, however, it involves a general discussion of the topic with no clear hypothesis
Seeks to find all relevant unpublished and published research to limit biases and impact of publications	Attempt to locate all relevant literature is not essential
Provides an inclusion/ exclusion criterion that explicitly describes type of study to be included and excluded. Limiting selection bias of studies	Do not usually describe its inclusion and exclusion of certain studies
Considers the differences in studies through examination of a systematic manner of the methods used, investigation of biases and sources of heterogeneity	Often disregards the differences in study quality and methods
Synthesises results on studies that are methodological sound	Usually does not highlight the differences between methodologically sound and unsound studies

Table 3.1: A comparison between a Systematic Review and a Traditional Review

This systematic review is of value to both researchers and practitioners as it provides a current scenario of customer engagement research with various aspects regarding conceptualisations and dimensions, background theories used in research, antecedents and consequences, context of research, etc. From this review, a number of research gaps have been found, giving clear directions of future research. This study employed the constructs validated from the previous papers to build the framework and aimed to test it and, as a result, a systematic literature review is a really valuable approach for this research. By examining a large number of studies, the construct used for the framework will be chosen properly.

3.2.2. The process of Systematic Literature Review

This current study has adopted a five-step review process suggested by Transfield et al. (2003).

Step 1: Identification of the research

Step 2: Selection of studies

Step 3: Study quality assessment

Step 4: Data extraction and monitoring progress

Step 5: Data synthesis

Firstly, there were 9 keywords/terms listed in order to search for relevant studies including “customer engagement”, “consumer engagement”, “customer brand engagement”, “consumer brand engagement”, “customer engagement behaviour”, “consumer engagement behaviour”, “social media engagement”, “brand engagement” and “content engagement”. The papers will be considered if these search strings are included in the title, abstract or keywords.

Secondly, to identify articles for the review the search was conducted in three dominant academic databases including Emerald Insight, Science Direct and Scopus. These three databases were specifically chosen because of their comprehensive journal coverage. The initial search was limited to the articles which was published between January 2010 and December 2018, written in English and peer reviewed. The result of this search produced 29204 articles (as detailed in Table 3.2).

Keywords	Number of articles found			
	Emerald Insight	Scopus	Science Direct	Total
Customer engagement	523	1268	258	2049
Consumer engagement	405	1098	410	1913
Customer brand engagement	442	2563	378	3380
Consumer brand engagement	510	1567	450	1527
Customer engagement behaviour	506	1980	668	3208
Consumer engagement behaviour	612	1130	590	2332
Brand engagement	750	5307	775	6832
Social media engagement	406	4048	531	4985
Content engagement	253	2246	479	2978
Total				29204

Table 3.2: Systematic Literature Review - Number of articles found in each Database

The third stage is study quality assessment or, in other words, is the process of deleting irrelevant studies using the decision using the decision tree shown in Figure 3.2. This process consists of three steps. Firstly, all duplicated papers were found and removed using Refworks, leaving 4023 articles. Next, the titles of articles were assessed to exclude irrelevant articles such as the articles which were specific in irrelevant areas such as medical or political. For example, articles with unrelated titles such as “Customer engagement and development,

evaluation, and dissemination of evidence-based parenting programs” by Sanders & Kirby (2012) or “Improving the quality of patient experience through student engagement” (Liu, 2018) were removed with 778 articles remaining for the next step. Finally, an examination of full articles was performed. In this step, this research only considered the articles related to customer engagement and customer engagement on social media. After this exclusion, 91 articles were chosen for final review.

	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Subject area	Marketing, Customer	Non-marketing related (e.g. political, sociology, psychology, educational, etc) Non – customer related (e.g. employee, student, etc)
Focal object	Brand, Online channels (websites/ social media/ online community), service provider	Technology (.IT/ science related), task, occupation, etc
Types	Customer engagement, consumer engagement, online brand engagement, customer engagement behaviours, customer brand engagement, etc	Loosely defined engagement terms such as “participation” or “involvement”

Table 3.3: Systematic Literature Review - Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The fourth step is data extraction. For each paper remained from previous step, the following information was extracted including name of author(s), year of publication, name of Journal, research method of the articles (conceptual/empirical/literature review), theoretical background used in the paper to examine the customer engagement construct, research design utilized in the article (survey/experiment/qualitative/mixed method), product type (product, service/ mixed industries) of research, dimensions of customer engagement, antecedents and consequences, and geographical aspect of the research. The further detail of the data extraction results will be provided in Appendix 1.

Then, the final step is data synthesis. In this step, the information extracted from the articles in fourth step will be summarised, synthesised and analysed. The results will be presented in the following sections.

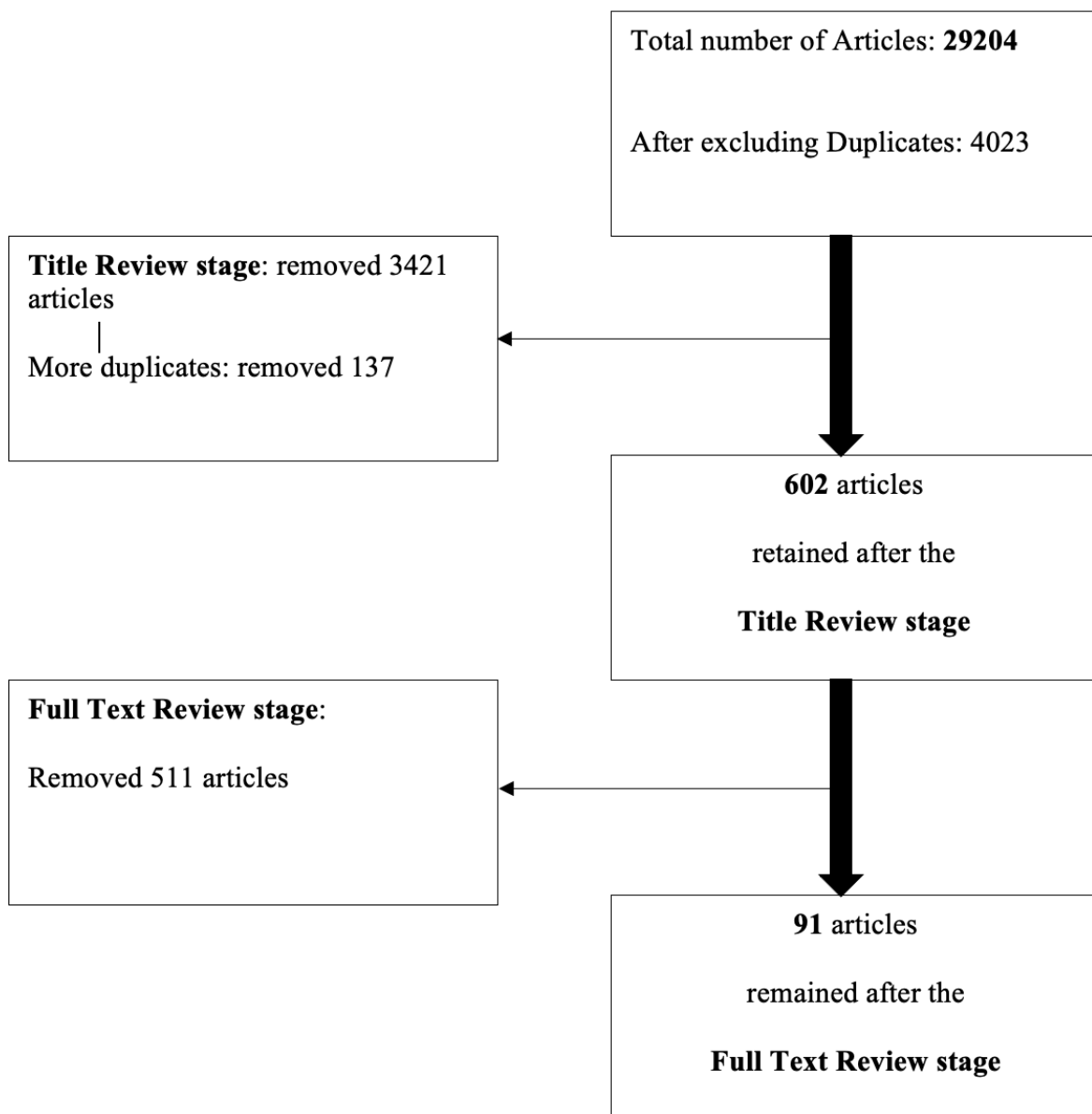


Figure 3.2: Decision tree and reasons for excluding articles

3.2.3. Synthesis Results from Systematic Literature Review

3.2.3.1. Articles sorted based on the article types and designs

From the data in Table 3.4, it can be seen that the number of articles about customer engagement written before 2013 was very limited, with a total of only 10 articles from 2010 to 2012, implying a relatively new concept in this area at that time. Since 2016, there has been a significant increase in the number of articles. In the years of 2016, 2017 and 2018, there were 23, 22 and 11 studies being conducted respectively.

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Total
Number of articles published	3	4	3	6	12	7	23	22	11	91
Article Type										
Conceptual	1	2	–	1	3	–	2	2	1	12
Literature Review	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	1	1	3
Empirical (Quantitative)	1	–	1	3	7	4	16	13	7	52
Empirical (Qualitative)	–	2	1	1	2	2	1	3	2	14
Empirical (Mixed Methods)	1	–	1	1	–	1	3	3	–	10

Table 3.4: Articles sorted based on the article types and designs

Regarding the methodologies and approaches of the studies, the systematic literature review shows that 84% of papers were empirical studies, while 13% were conceptual papers and 3% were literature reviews (Figure 3.3). As seen in Table 2.4, quantitative method emerges as the most preferred method of collecting and analysing data. 68% of empirical studies (52 papers) utilised quantitative method with a focus on testing customer engagement theories in different contexts. In contrast, there are 18% of papers (14 articles) under review using qualitative methods, and 13% (10 studies) using mixed methods. In addition, it can be noticed that, from 2016, authors began to pay more attention to conducting literature review papers in the field, something that was not really considered thoroughly before.

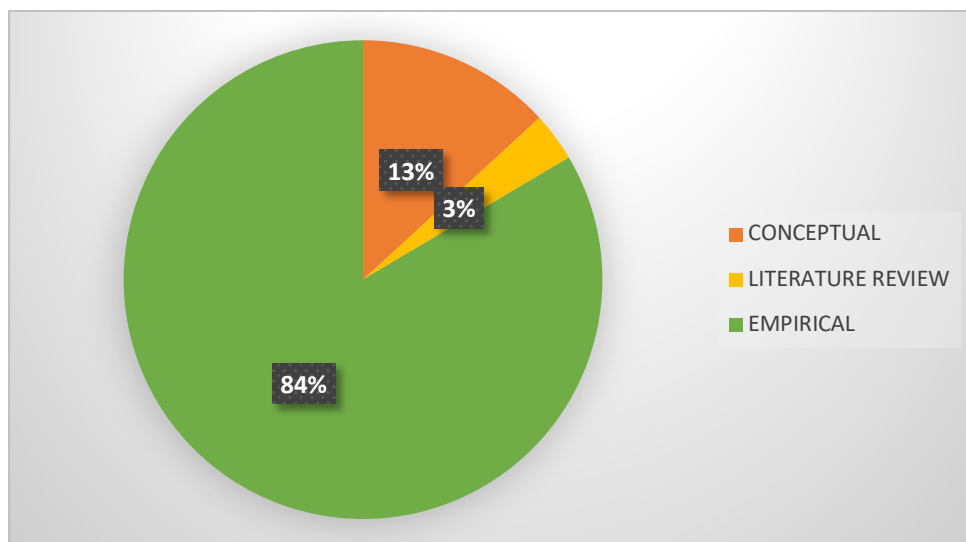


Figure 3.3: Articles sorted based on the article types and designs

3.2.3.2. Journal-wise distribution of articles

Regarding the journal-wise distribution of articles, the articles were analysed to see where customer engagement research was published. According to Figure 3.4, it was found that the research was carried out in a total of 47 reputed peer-reviewed journals. Among those journals, the dominant sources of research in customer engagement field are journals in Marketing and Services areas including the “*Journal of Marketing Management*” (Rank A - 6 articles published), “*Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing*” (Rank A - 5 articles published), “*Journal of Product and Brand Management*” (Rank B - 5 articles published), “*Journal of Strategic Marketing*” (Rank A - 4 articles), “*Journal of Services Marketing*” (Rank A - 4 articles), “*Journal of Service Theory and Practice*” (Rank A - 4 articles), and “*Journal of Service Management*” (Rank A - 4 articles). The remaining journals will be presented further in Figure 3.4.

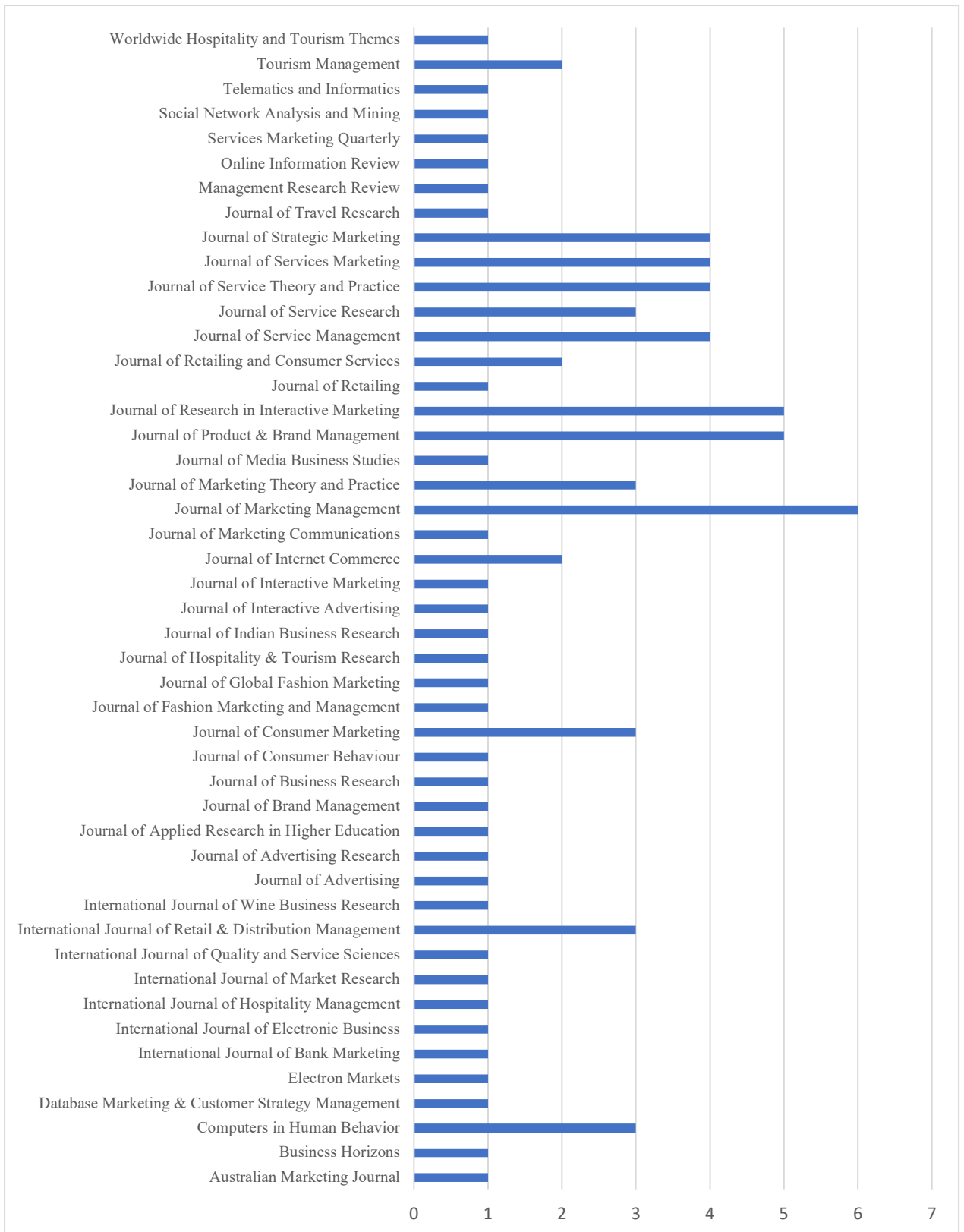


Figure 3.4: Journal-wise of distribution of articles under review

3.2.3.3. *Articles sorted by the context (online/offline)*

From Table 3.5, it can be clearly seen that until 2014, most studies on customer engagement are conducted in general offline contexts, while from 2015 onwards, researchers began placing more emphasis on customer engagement on online platforms such as websites and social networking sites and therefore customer engagement with brand-related content was starting to be known and examined. The focal objects of customer engagement are differentiated between the contexts in which the construct is examined. For example, in the online context, the areas of focus for customer engagement can be websites, social media (content), or online communities. Offline, this differs with customers physically engaging with brands through stores, products, service providers, etc. (Sylvia et al., 2020; Bednall et al., 2018).

In a total of 91 papers identified in the systematic review, 44% were conducted in online contexts (16.5% conducted in social media context and 27.5% conducted in other online settings), 36.5% were in offline contexts, 3% were in settings of both online and offline, and the remaining studies (15 papers, approximately 16.5%) did not show the context (such as conceptual papers, review papers). (See Table 3.5).

Context	Number of studies	% (of 91 papers)	Select references
Offline	33	36.5%	Naumann et al., 2017; Verleye et al., 2016; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014
Online			
<i>Social media</i>	15	16.5%	Gong (2018); Carlson et al., 2018; Oh et al., 2017; Chiang et al., 2017
<i>Other online</i>	25	27.5%	Heinonen, 2018; Guesalaga, 2016; Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016
Mixed	3	3%	Li et al., 2017; Vivek et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2014
NA	15	16.5%	Hollebeek & Andreassen, 2018; Harmelling et al., 2017; Grewal et al., 2018

Table 3.5: Article sorted by the main context

3.2.3.4. *Definition and conceptualisation of customer engagement*

In chapter two, there are many contrasting conceptualisations and definitions of customer engagement through a critical literature review. This chapter, by a comprehensive systematic review of customer engagement research in literature, will summarise the customer engagement conceptualisations in a systematic way to provide a more intelligible understanding of customer engagement construct.

Through a comprehensive systematic review of customer engagement in literature, this study has revealed many contrasting conceptualizations and definitions of customer engagement. Some authors consider customer engagement as a psychological process. Bowden (2009:63) defines customer engagement as “psychological process that models the underlying mechanisms by which customer loyalty forms for brand spanking new customers of service brand likewise because the mechanisms by which loyalty could also be maintain for repeat purchase customers of a service brand”. Another definition, widely adopted by scholars, is conceptualised by Brodie et al. (2011)’s. They presented customer engagement as a “psychological state characterized by fluctuating intensity levels that occur within dynamic, iterative engagement process” Brodie et al., 2011:107). Calder et al. (2016:40) extend Brodie et al. (2011)’s definition of customer engagement to a “psychological state that happens by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/object, under a particular set of context-dependent conditions, and exists as a dynamic, iterative process during which other relational concepts are antecedents and/or consequences”. In contrast, other authors have perceived customer engagement as a behaviour (Tafesse, 2016; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Ángeles Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Gummerus et a., 2012; Van Doorn et al, 2010). Van Doorn et al. (2010, p.254) defines customer engagement as “behaviour (that) transcend transactions, and will be specially defined as a consumer’s behavioural manifestation that a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers”. This definition has been widely utilized in related literature.

In summary, to date, the construct of customer engagement has been studied from four broad perspectives: (1) as a **behavioural manifestation** (van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Harmelling et al., 2017); (2) as a **psychological state** (Brodie et al., 2011); (3) as a **psychological process** including different stages of customer decision making process (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Maslowska et al., 2016), and (4) as an **emotional manifestation** (Sashi, 2012; Grewal et al., 2018). Among 91 papers under the systematic review, 15 explicit definitions are identified from quality papers in highly ranked journals such as Journal of Service Research, Journal of Retailing and Industrial Marketing, Journal of Marketing Management. These definitions of customer engagement are presented further in Table 3.6.

Year	Author	Type of paper	Definition of customer engagement	Type of engagement
2010	van Doorn et al.	Conceptual	"a customer's behavioural manifestation that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers"	Behavioural
2010	Kumar et al.	Conceptual	"active interaction of a customer with a firm, with prospects and with other customers, whether they are transactional or non-transactional in nature"	Behavioural
2010	Verhoef et al.	Conceptual	"a customer's behavioural manifestation that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers". <i>cf.</i> van Doorn et al. (2010)	Behavioural
2010	Bijmolt	Conceptual	"the behavioural manifestation from a customer toward a brand or a firm which goes beyond purchase behaviour". <i>cf.</i> van Doorn et al. (2010)	Behavioural
2011	Brodie et al.	Conceptual	"a psychological state that occurs by virtur of interactive, cocreativec customer experiences with a focal agent/object (e.g., a brand) in focal service relationships"	Psychological
2012	Vivek et al.	Empirical	"the intensity of an individual's participation and connection with an organisation's offerings or organisational activities, which either the customer or the organisation initiates".	Behavioural/ Emotional
2012	Sashi C.M.	Conceptual	"turning on customers by building emotional bonds in relational exchanges with them"	Emotional/ Relational

2014	Jaakkola & Alexander	Empirical	"is a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive customer experiences with a focal agent/object such as a firm or brand. <i>cf.</i> Brodie et al. (2011). This study focuses on the behavioural manifestations of CE. We study CEBs through which customers make voluntary resource contributions that have a brand or firm focus but go beyond what is fundamental to transactions, occurs in interactions between the focal object and/or other actors, and result from motivational drivers (<i>cf.</i> Brodie et al., 2013; Brodie et al., 2011; Van Doorn et al., 2010)"	Behavioural
2014	Verleye et al.	Empirical	"behavioural manifestation of customer engagement toward a firm, after and beyond purchase". <i>cf.</i> van Doorn et al. (2010).	Behavioural
2014	Hollebeek et al.	Empirical	"a customer's positively valance brand related cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity during or related to consumer/or brand interactions"	Psychological
2016	Guesalaga R.	Empirical	"the extent to which the organisation's important customers are active in using social media tools".	Behavioural
2017	Kumar & Pansari	Conceptual	"a mechanic of a customer's value addition to the firm, either through director/and indirect contribution". <i>cf.</i> Kumar et al. (2010)	Behavioural
2017	Harmeling et al.	Empirical	"a customer's voluntary resource contribution to a firm's marketing function, going beyond financial patronage".	Behavioural
2018	Grewal et al.	Conceptual	"the connection between the customer and retailer".	Emotional

Table 3.6: Definitions of customer engagement

Considering behavioural manifestation of customer engagement, this current research adopts two definitions. The first one is the definition of Dolan et al. (2016) which was adapted from Van Door et al. (2010)'s conceptualisation. Dolan et al. (2016:265) defines customer engagement with brand-related content in social media as “customer’s behavioural manifestations toward a brand-related content that has a social media focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers”. The second definition that the current research adopts is the definition provided by Schivinski and Dabrowski (2016:5) in which customer engagement with brand-related content in social media is “a set of online activities in the part of the consumer that related to a brand, and which vary in the levels of interaction and engagement with the consumption, contribution and creation of media content”. This current research, therefore, defines *customer engagement with brand-related content on social media as customer behaviours toward a brand-related content that has a social media focus, including the consuming, contributing and creating, resulting from motivational drivers.*

3.2.3.4. Dimensions of customer engagement

The systematic review also revealed different dimensions of customer engagement. While some authors examined customer engagement as a unidimensional construct (Ángeles Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Van Doorn et al., 2010), a variety of studies declare that customer engagement is a multi-dimensional concept which involves cognitive, affective/emotional, and behavioural perspectives (Sim & Plewal, 2017; Dessart et al., 2015; Verma, 2014; Brodie et al., 2013). Some studies add the social dimension to the construct (Gambetti et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2012). The cognitive and affective/emotional dimensions reflect the psychological aspect of customer engagement which relies mainly on the feelings of customers (Vivek et al., 2014). In contrast, the behavioural and social dimensions refer to the proactive and interactive nature of customer engagement (Gambetti et al., 2012).

Conceptualization	No. of articles	% (of 91 articles)	Select References
Uni-dimensions			
<i>Behavioural</i>	52	56%	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2010; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014
<i>Emotional</i>	4	4.5%	Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016; Grewal et al., 2018
Multi-dimensions	27	29.7%	Bordie et al., 2011; Carvalho & Fernandes, 2018; Heinonen, 2018
Others/ NA	8	8.8%	Storbacka et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017

Table 3.7: Conceptualisations of customer engagement

As shown in Table 3.7, customer engagement is mainly analysed from a behavioural perspective (56%). A further 27% of the papers conceptualise customer engagement as multi-dimensional psychological construct, while 5% only focused on emotional engagement. Therefore, literature focusing on behaviour refers to customer engagement behaviour construct which was frequently specified as “a customers’ behavioural manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers” (van Doorn et al., 2010:254). Kumar et al. (2010) argue that customer engagement includes transactional behaviours whereas most other academics (e.g., Verhoef et al., 2010; Bijmolt et al., 2010; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Verleye et al., 2014) accept the conceptualisations of van Doorn et al. (2010) and the Marketing Science Institute (2010), showing that customer engagement only involves behavioural aspect that extends past transactions and therefore beyond purchase. The behavioural approach to customer engagement is usually employed by industry experts to measure customer engagement level by activities such as information consuming, online WOM, reviews, and other customer-initiated interactions with brand (Bolton, 2011).

Customer engagement in social media context – Conceptualisations and Dimensions

Furthermore, the study will take a further in-depth review of 15 papers examining customer engagement in social media context. According to Bianchi & Andrews (2018), the focal object of customer engagement, on social media context, is the content that individuals consume while using social media platforms. The brand-related content on social media can be post, status updates, pictures, videos, or reviews related to a brand. Content should be designed in a way that generates value for individuals and creates a stronger level of engagement (Malthouse et al., 2013). Social media users are believed to be engaged with brand-related content for a variety of motivational reasons such as seeking information, entertainment or following their need to feel like they belong or presenting themselves. This study will specialise in the content perspective of engagement with brand in social media. Though considered as a multidimensional construct drawn from which cognitive and emotional process may become motivations leading to behaviour, customer engagement with brand-related content in social media will investigate the behavioural manifestation of customer engagement as this is often the dimension most closely aligned to customer activities. There are two definitions of customer engagement with brand-related content that widely adopted in literature, and both of them define customer engagement with brand-related content as a behavioural construct (see definitions provided by Dolan et al. (2016) and Schivinski & Dabrowski (2016) – page 78).

Therefore, this research, in consistency with most of previous studies, take the behavioural dimension when examining the customer engagement with brand-related content construct.

Different attempts are made to handle and investigate engagement behaviours within the extant research. For instance, the term “activation” was used in Hollebeek et al. (2014) when investigating the behavioural component of customer engagement. This term was measure by the items like “*I spent plenty of your time using [brand] compared to other brands*”. This measure item sounds representing customer brand loyalty behaviours rather than the actual behaviours with the social media content. In another attempt of describing customer engagement behaviours, Jaakkola & Alexander (2014) identified four styles of consumer behaviours: co-developing, augmenting, influencing, and mobilising. These behaviours involve two roles of co-creation including participation in new development and spreading WOM, and that they aren't limited to online or social media engagement. In addition, Underwood et al. (2011) examined customer behaviours with social media content regarding two type of interactions which are broadcasting (one-to-many) and communicating (one-to-one or one-to-few) modes (as mentioned and discussed on section 2.4.2.3, chapter 2). Both passive and active interaction are considered in their research. However, Underwood and the co-authors focused their study on user-generated content (UGC) rather than brand-generated content. Yet, one more attempt relies on Muntinga et al (2011)’s typology of customers’ online brand-related activities (COBRA). Customer engagement with brand-related content in social media networking sites are often examined using three continuous active levels which are consuming, contributing and creation of the brand-related content (both user-generated content and brand-generated content). The first group of behaviours refers to the behaviours with minimum level of activeness such as reading or watching content on social media sites. Second, the behaviours with medium level of activeness refer to the engagement activities which contributing to the social media brand-related content such as clicking the Like button, engaging in a conversation or commenting on photos or videos posted in the brand social networking sites. Lastly, the behaviours with highest active level of engagement are concerned with behaviours posting user-generated content (UGC) such as publishing posts related to brands on social networking sites or writing their own reviews and ratings about the brands, products or services. This type of content allows others to consume and contribute to it. This attempt was widely agreed and utilised in literature of customer engagement behaviour with social media content. However, the number of studies focusing specifically on customer engagement with brand-related content in social media is proscribed. To date, there are only a

few studies which researches specific behaviours on specific platform, for example, “Like” behaviours on Facebook (Halaszovich & Nel, 2017) or “Like”, “Comment” and “Share” on a fan page (Pentina et al., 2018), but have not provided a comprehensive examination of all three level of customer engagement behaviour with brand-related content. Table 3.8 will present a comprehensive summary of customer engagement behaviour dimensions and investigated social media platforms in the 15 identified articles. The above reasons justify the choice of adopting COBRA framework in examining customer engagement with brand-related content in this study.

Year	Author	Research method	Social media platform	Engagement behaviour(s)
2012	Gummerus et al.	Online survey	Facebook	Consumption, Contribution
2014	Bitter et al.	Online questionnaire	Facebook	Consumption, Contribution, Creation
2014	Kabadayi & Price	Questionnaire	Facebook	Contribution
2015	Jayasingh & Venkatesh	Regression analysis	Facebook	Consumption, Contribution, Creation
2016	Simon et al.	Online survey	Facebook	Contribution
2016	Bitter & Grabner-Kräuter	Online experiment	Facebook	Contribution, Creation
2017	Chiang et al.	Online questionnaire	Facebook	Contribution
2017	Halaszovich & Nel	Online questionnaire	Facebook	Contribution
2017	Carlson et al.	Online survey	Weibo	Consumption
2017	Oh et al.	Ordinary least square regression model	Facebook, YouTube, Twitter	Contribution
2017	Lei et al.	Coding approach	Facebook	Consumption, Contribution
2017	Leek et al.	Non-participant observation	Twitter	Consumption, Contribution, Creation
2017	Harrigan et al.	Online survey	Amazon Mechanical Turk	Consumption, Contribution
2018	Gong	Online survey	Firm-managed online brand community	Consumption, Contribution
2018	Carlson et al.	Survey	Facebook	Consumption, Contribution

Table 3.8: Conceptualisations and Dimensions of customer engagement in social media context

3.2.3.5. Valence of customer engagement

Valence	Number of studies	% (of 91 papers)	Select references
Positive	77	85%	Fehrer et al., 2018; Guesalaga, 2016
Both Positive and Negative	3	3%	Naumann et al., 2017; Heinonen, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018
NA	11	12%	

Table 3.9: Articles sorted by valence of customer engagement

Although the valence of customer could be either positive or negative (van Doorn et al., 2010), it can be seen from the review that most of the studies in the extant customer engagement literature have focused on the positive valence of customer engagement. Among 91 papers under review, there are 77 papers (85%) investigating customer engagement in the positive perspective (e.g., Fehrer et al., 2018; Guesalaga, 2016), whereas only 3% examining customer engagement in both positive and negative perspectives (Naumann et al., 2017; Heinonen, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018) (Table 3.9). In relation to a brand, negative customer engagement can be defined as “unfavourable brand-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviours during focal brand interactions” (Hollebeek & Chen, 2014:64). Exploring negative valence of customer engagement, therefore, is important as negative customer engagement can affect a brand’s performance and reputation by influencing the wider community (Naumann et al., 2017).

3.2.3.6. Theoretical background of customer engagement

This systematic review found various theories which have been used in customer engagement literature. Among 91 articles analysed, 79 studies were built using 33 background theories (some of them used the mixture of two theories). The rest (12 studies) did not mention any specific theory used to examine customer engagement constructs. The 33 theories found were categorised into three groups and details are demonstrated in Figure 3.5.

The first group consists of two theories including the Relationship Marketing Theory and the Service-dominant (S-D) logic. These theories are widely used to explore customer engagement research. In this systematic review, there are 21 studies using Relationship Marketing Theory (e.g., Oyner & Korelina, 2016; Vivek et al., 2014; Kosiba et al., 2018; Rosenthal & Brito, 2017; Vivek et al., 2012) and 15 papers using ` (e.g., Røndell et al., 2016; Sim & Plewal, 2017; Hollebeek, 2011b) to study customer engagement. Considering the origin of these theories, customers are believed to have proactive contributions to brands instead of acting as passive recipients (Hollebeek, 2011b). Relationship marketing is defined as “attracting, maintaining and – in multi-service organisations – enhancing customer relationship” (Berry, 1983:25). In contrast with transactional marketing which focus on purchasing transactions, the relationship marketing theory focuses on enhancing long-term relationships between customers and brands (Wirtz & Lovelock, 2018). Customer engagement, in particular, is expected to contribute to relationship marketing strategies of a brand. Through the customer experience, customer engagement will have impacts on customer retention and customer loyalty (Verhoef et al., 2010). Studies that fall within this research area concentrate on the ways in which customer

engagement can influence a company’s marketing strategy (Jaakkola et al., 2018). Service-Dominant logic (S-D logic) was first conceptualised by Vargo & Lusch (2007). In contrast to the good-dominant logic where value is embedded in products, being reflected in tangible output and discrete transactions, S-D logic posits that service is the basis and centre of the exchange between customers and brands where the value is co-created (Vargo & Lusch, 2008; Echeverri & Skalen, 2011). Customers in this approach are thought as active players rather than passive receivers (Payne et al., 2008).

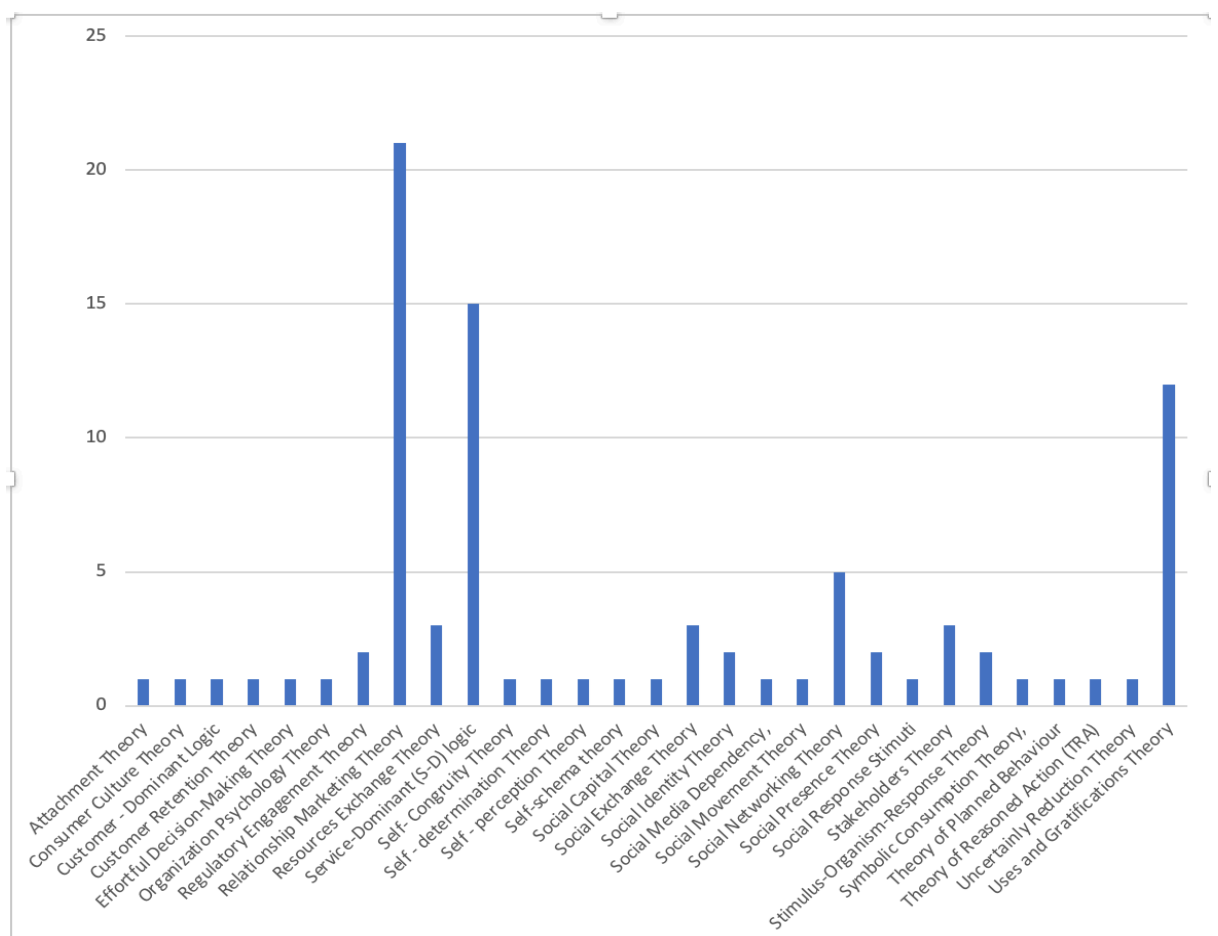


Figure 3.5: Background theories used in papers under systematic review

Another group of theories adopt social behaviour theories such as Social Exchange Theory (Hollebeek, 2011b; Rehnen, 2017; Roy et al., 2018), Social Presence Theory (Gummerus et al., 2012), and Social Networking Theory (Islam & Rahman, 2016b; Bitter & Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Wallace et al., 2014). While Relationship Marketing and S-D logic theories focus on the proactive contributions of customers to the relationship with a brand, the theories in this group aim to understand the motivations underlying customers’ decisions for making such active contributions (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011). Customers in these theories are presumed

to decide to make any behaviours toward a focal object (brand, content) in order to gain certain benefits from those interactions with brands.

Another set of theories used by researchers when examining the construct of customer engagement in literature are the theories regarding personal behaviours such as Affordance Theory (Tafesse, 2016), Stimulus-Organism-Respond Model (Islam & Rahman., 2017; Demangeot & Broderick, 2016), Theory of Planned Behaviour (Dessart, 2017), and Uses and Gratifications Theory (De Vries et al, 2014; Verhagen et al., 2015; Hollebeek et al., 2016). This group of theories refers to customer engagement as a trait and aims to assess customer engagement behaviour at the individual level, from intention to actual action behaviours (Islam & Rahman, 2016).

Among the 15 papers investigating customer engagement construct in social media contexts, the most widely adopted theories are the Uses and Gratifications and the Social Exchange. In the Uses and Gratifications theory, it is suggested that customers are aware of their own needs (such as the needs of entertainment, information seeking, remuneration, etc.) and they engage with brands to fulfil those needs. In addition, the Social Exchange theory assumes that customers engage with brands and others as they expect they will be given some type of reward for their interactions (Emerson, 1976). A summary of theories utilised in the total 15 identified papers is presented in Table 3.10

Theoretical Background	Frequent	Study
Uses & Gratifications theory	3	Oh et al., 2017; Chiang et al., 2017; Halaszovich & Nel, 2017
Social Exchange theory	2	Simon et al., 2016; Harrigan et al., 2017
Theory of Planned Behaviour	1	Bitter et al., 2014
Social Network theory	1	Bitter & Kräuter (2016)
S-D logic	1	Gong, 2018
Stimulus Organism Response (S-O-R)	1	Carlson et al., 2018
Consumption value theory	1	Carlson et al., 2017
The concept of Marketing 4Ps	1	Lei et al., 2017
NA	4	Leek, 2017; Javasingh & Venkatesh, 2015; Kabadayi & Price, 2014; Gummerus et al., 2012

Table 3.10: Theoretical Foundation used to examine Customer Engagement in social media context

3.2.3.7. Antecedents Customer Engagement

According to Van Doorn et al. (2010), the antecedents and outcomes of customer engagement should be categorised into three perspectives: customer-based, firm-based, and context based.

Customer-focused antecedents

Customer-focused variables represent attitudinal and perceptual traits based on customers' emotional states, needs, objectives, and attributes, and are especially important for consumers (Van Doorn et al., 2010). Individuals interact with brand-related content on social media for a variety of reasons to satisfy their needs including entertainment (Son et al., 2012, Rohm et al., 2013, Azar et al., 2016), information seeking (Rohm et al., 2013, Berger, 2014, Azar et al., 2016), promotions and remuneration (Rohm et al., 2013, Schultz & Peltier, 2013, Azar et al., 2016), and social interaction need (Rohm et al., 2013, Berger, 2014). In addition, a large number of studies have found customer satisfaction (van Doorn et al., 2010; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Dessart, 2017), trust (Gambetti & Graffigna, 2010; Harris & Dennis, 2011; So et al, 2014; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014), commitment (So et al., 2014; Alsufyan & Aloud; 2017), and involvement (Leckie et al., 2016; Harrigan et al., 2017) as important antecedents of customer engagement. Moreover, literature shows the influence of perceived costs and benefits (van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhagen et al., 2015), perceived information quality and perceived interactivity (Abduhllah & Siraij, 2018), and perceived usefulness (Truwa et al., 2016; Bianchi

& Andrews, 2018) on customer engagement. Brand love and brand awareness are also identified as customer engagement's antecedents (Islam & Rahman, 2016; Pongawee et al., 2017).

Firm-based antecedents

Firm-based components denote variables that are more under the firm's control, directly influencing on the firm's operation and success. Some examples of firm-based antecedents of customer engagement are brand characteristics and reputation (van Doorn et al., 2010), brand-generated content type (Rohm et al., 2013; Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013; Luarn et al., 2015; Dolan et al., 2016; Rosenthal & Brito, 2017), and the brand's information quality (Wirtz et al., 2013; Wirtz et al., 2013; Islam & Rahman, 2017; Carlson et al., 2018). Moreover, Sigala (2018) suggested that the traditional CRM strategies of brand should be transformed to social CRM (or called CRM2.0) in order to engage more customers in the social media context. CRM2.0 strategy is also considered as customer engagement's antecedent because through advance technologies of social media, many more powerful forms of two-way interaction between customers and brands are enable, increasing customers engaged (Choudhury & Harrigan, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010). Furthermore, through CRM2.0 activities, customers are encouraged to participate in more co-creation activities which are in turn, increase the level of customer engagement with the brand (Rodriguez et al., 2012).

Context-based antecedents

Context-focused variables affecting consumer engagement include those over which companies or customers have little influence, such as economic, political, social, or technical concerns, as well as social media factors (Sim & Plewal, 2017; Fernandes & Esteves, 2017; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Social media platform itself can be important prelude to customer involvement and engagement (Smith et al. 2012). For example, perceived utility and perceived ease of use are demonstrated as two factors leading to a greater engagement of individuals with a social media platform and therefore engage with the content on that platform (Pinho & Soares, 2013). Later, Mortazavi et al. (2014) identify four features of social media that can boost the engagement, including entertainment, information availability, social interaction and ease of use.

The mentioned categorised constructs can have direct or indirect impacts on customer engagement. Although those factors are identified and listed separately, they are not mutually

exclusive (van Doorn et al. 2010). In some situations, they can influence customer engagement independently. On the contrary, in another situations, they may impact each other, then influence customer engagement together. Moreover, it is also can be seen that some factors such as trust, satisfaction, loyalty can be either antecedent (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Cambra-Fierro et al., 2014; Islam & Rahman, 2016) and consequences (Brodie et al., 2011, 2013; Wallace et al., 2014; Islam & Rahman, 2016) of customer engagement (can be presented further in the next section). Table 3.11 presents full antecedents of 91 articles under systematic review.

Antecedents	Frequency	Studies
Customer-based		
Customer satisfaction	4	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; So et al., 2014a; Dessart, 2017
Customer involvement	6	Harrigan et al., 2017; So et al., 2016; Leckie et al., 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Vivek et al., 2012; Hollebeek, 2011b
Customer commitment	5	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek, 2011b; So et al., 2014a; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Alsufyan & Aloud, 2017
Trust	7	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Gambetti & Graffigna, 2010; Harris & Dennis, 2011; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; So et al., 2014a; Azar et al., 2016; Kosiba et al., 2018
Participant	5	Vivek et al., 2012; Oviedo-Gracia et al., 2014; Hammedi et al., 2015; Solem et al., 2016; Leckie et al., 2016
Perceived costs	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Perceived benefits	3	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Writz et al., 2013; Verhagen et al., 2015
Relationship quality	3	Hollebeek et al., 2011b; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Carlson et al., 2018
Brand Attachment	4	So et al., 2014a; Dessart et al., 2015; Truwa et al., 2016; Pentina et al., 2018
Perceived usefulness	3	Truwa et al., 2016; Bianchi & Andrews, 2018; Abdullhah & Siraj, 2018
Perceived service fairness	1	Roy et al., 2018
Perceived information quality	1	Abdullhah & Siraj, 2018
Perceived interactivity	1	Abdullhah & Siraj, 2018
Customer' needs	15	Mersey et al., 2010; Gummerus et al., 2012; Rohm et al., 2013; Tsai & Men, 2013; Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013; Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Verhagen et al., 2015; Tiruwa et al., 2016; Azar et al., 2016; Tafesse, 2016; Dolan et al., 2016; Halaszovich & Nel., 2017; De Vries et al., 2017; Chiang et al., 2017; Pentina et al., 2018
Brand love	1	Islam & Rahman., 2016
Brand awareness	1	Pongaew et al., 2017
Firm-based		
Brand characteristic	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Firm reputation	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Firm size	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Firm diversification	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Firm's information usage and process	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Product/Service quality	3	Islam & Rahman., 2017; Hapsari et al., 2017; Roy et al., 2018
Information quality	4	Wirtz et al., 2013; Wirtz et al., 2013; Islam & Rahman, 2017; Carlson et al., 2018
Content type	5	Rohm et al., 2013; Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013; Luarn et al, 2015; Dolan et al., 2016; Rosenthal & Brito, 2017
Context-based		
Competitive factors	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Political factors	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Economic factors	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Environmental factors	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Social factors	1	Van Doorn et al., 2010
Technological factors	3	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Ponte et al., 2015; Moro & Rita; 2018

Table 3.11: Antecedents of Customer Engagement

3.2.3.8. Consequences of Customer Engagement

Customer-based consequences

Several marketing constructs were commonly identified as customer engagement customer-based consequence. Among 91 identified articles, 22 papers investigated loyalty (e.g., Chiang et al., 2017; Seo et al., 2017; Rehmen, 2017; Khan et al., 2017, So et al., 2014; Wirtz et al., 2013) and 12 papers examined satisfaction as the consequences of customer engagement (e.g., Gummerus et al., 2012; So et al., 2014; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Khan et al., 2016; Asufyan & Aloud, 2017). In addition, other consequences can be trust (Harris & Dennis, 2011; Vivek et al., 2012; Dessart, 2017), commitment (Vivek et al., 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014), and purchase intention (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Truwa et al., 2016; Seo et al., 2017; Harrigan et al., 2017; Bianchi & Andrews, 2018). While satisfaction and trust may act as antecedents or outcomes, depending on the customer's previous experience with the focal object [i.e. existing versus new customers (Bowden, 2009)], intention to purchase and WOM may be marketing outcomes of a specific/single cycle whether for an existing or new customer. Referral behaviour may be viewed as behavioural engagement itself (Kumar & Pansari, 2016), while others conceptualise it as an outcome of engagement (e.g., Islam v Rahman, 2016). Clarity in conceptualisation and explanation is critical for theoretical and practical advancement in the field.

Firm-based consequences

Customer engagement, because of its influence on customer retention and customer acquisition, will also affect a firm's performance (van Doorn et al., 2010; Wirtz et al., 2013; So et al., 2014; Rosenthal & Burito, 2017; Moliner et al., 2018) and reputation (van Doorn et al., 2010; So et al., 2014; Alsufyan & Aloud, 2017). Table 3.12 shows full consequences of customer engagement in 91 papers under review.

Consequences	Frequency	Studies
Customer-based		
Loyalty	22	Chiang et al., 2017; Rosenthal & Brito, 2017; Seo et al., 2017; Rehnen, 2017; Islam & Rahman, 2017; Hapsari et al., 2017; Dolan et al., 2017; Dessart et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2017; Leckie et al., 2017; Solem, 2016; Oyner & Korelina, 2016; Islam & Rahman, 2016a; O' Brien et al., 2015; Dessart et al., 2015; So et al., 2014a; So et al., 2014b; Wirtz et al., 2013; Vivek et al., 2012; Gummerus et al., 2012; Hollebeek, 2011b; Javornik & Mandelli, 2012
Loyalty intention	1	Kosiba et al., 2018
Satisfaction	12	Hollebeek, 2011; Gummerus et al., 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; So et al., 2014; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Oyner v Korelina, 2016; Røndell et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2016; So et al., 2016; Asufyan & Aloud, 2017
Commitment	7	Hollebeek, 2011; Vivek et al., 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; So et al., 2014; Hammedi et al., 2015; Dessart, 2017
Trust	9	Hollebeek, 2011b; Harris & Dennis, 2011; Vivek et al., 2012; So et al., 2014; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Hammedi et al., 2015; So et al., 2016; Alsufyan & Aloud, 2017; Dessart, 2017
Purchase Intention	5	Hollebeek et al., 2014; Truwa et al., 2016; Seo et al., 2017; Harrigan et al., 2017; Bianchi & Andrews, 2018
Engage Intention	4	Verhagen et al., 2015; O' Brien et al., 2015; Halaszovick & Nel., 2017; Carlson et al., 2018
WOM	5	Vivek et al., 2012; Wallace et al., 2014; Oyner & Korelina, 2016; Dolan et al., 2017; Roy et al., 2018
Attitude toward brand	2	Javornik & Mandelli, 2012; Truwa et al., 2016
Attitude toward UGC	2	Geissinger & Laurell, 2016; Carlson et al., 2018
Firm-based		
Firm's performance	5	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Wirtz et al., 2013; So et al., 2014; Rosenthal v Brito, 2017; Moliner et al., 2018
Firm's reputation	3	Van Doorn et al., 2010; So et al., 2014; Alsufyan & Aloud, 2017
Brand attitude	1	Schivinski et al., 2016
Recognition	2	So et al., 2014; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014

Table 3.12: Consequences of Customer Engagement

3.2.3.9. Geographical aspect of articles

In this section, a geographical classification of 91 considered articles was assessed in order to identify how the research in customer engagement spreads across the globe. It is worth noting that the country of the study was identified based on the reported country of respondent if mentioned. In case that the reported country of respondent is unknown, then the country of the first authors of the publication will be listed (Fetscherin & Usernier, 2012). The conceptual papers, review papers will not be counted regarding this aspect. As a result, there are two out of the 91 articles for which it was not possible to identify the locations: Abdullah & Siraji (2018) and Rosenthal & Brito (2017). Furthermore, there are three studies which were carried out in cross-continental countries such as the paper by Tsai & Men (2017) which aimed to present the comparison between China and the USA. Consequently, after excluding all those mentioned papers as well as conceptual and review papers, there are 67 articles that remained categorised by countries of publication. Details can be seen in Table 3.6.

In Table 3.6, it is noticed that Europe was at the top with 33 out of 67 articles being published in this area between 2010 and 2018. It is also shown that most of the studies were carried out in developed countries and the USA contributing a large number of articles (14 articles), followed by Australia (7 articles), the United Kingdom (6 articles), and Germany (5 articles). However, in recent years, along with an increasing in number of quantitative empirical studies conducted for theory testing, the research studies are also extended across different countries and there are almost none conducted in developing countries. Therefore, according to Islam & Rahman (2016), future research should pay more attention to exploring customer engagement in developing countries in order to enrich the literature of customer engagement.

Furthermore, there are a limited number of studies being conducted in Asia (12 articles) and roughly half of them were in India, leaving many other countries unexplored. Further research therefore should extend their research attention to these countries.

Continental	Country	Frequent	Studies
America (14 papers)	USA	11	Mersey et al. (2010), Tsai & Men (2013); Rohm et al. (2013), Wei et al. (2013), Franzak et al. (2014), Kabadayi & Price (2014), Harrigan et al. (2017), Grewal et al. (2017), Syrdal & Briggs (2018), Carlson et al. (2018), Pentina et al. (2018)
	Chile	1	Bianchi & Andrews (2018)
Australasia (7 papers)	Australia	7	So et al. (2014), O'Brien et al. (2014), Leckie et al. (2016), Dolan et al. (2017), So et al. (2016), Seo et al. (2017), Sim & Plewal (2017)
Europe (33 papers)	Portugal	3	Azar et al. (2016), Ferandes & Esteves (2017), Prentice & Loureiro (2018)
	Finland	2	Gummerus et al. (2012), Heinonen, 2018
	Spain	1	Moliner et al. (2018)
	Germany	5	Rossmann et al. (2016), Bitter & Grabner-Kräuter (2016); Braun et al. (2016), Halaszovich & Nel (2017), Rehnen (2017)
	UK	6	Harris & Dennis (2011), Jaakkola & Alexander (2014), Dessart et al. (2015), Dermangeot & Broderick (2016), Dessart et al. (2016), Brahim et al. (2017), de Vries et al. (2017)
	Ireland	2	Wallace et al. (2014), Dolan et al. (2016)
	Norway	1	Tafesse, 2016
	France	1	Dessart et al. (2016)
	Sweden	3	Gummerus et al. (2012), Røndell et al. (2016), Geissinger & Laurell (2016),
	Poland	1	Schivinski et al. (2016)
	Russia	1	Oyner & Korelina (2016)
	Netherland	2	Verhagen et al. (2015), de Vries et al. (2017)
	Switzerland	3	Javornik & Mandelli (2012), Cvijikj & Michahelles (2013), Braun et al. (2016),
	Italy	1	Gambetti & Graffigna (2010)
Asia (12 papers)	India	5	Verma (2014), Islam & Rahman (2016), Tiruwa et al. (2016), Khan et al. (2016), Roy et al. (2018)
	Taiwan	2	Luarn et al. (2015), Chiang et al. (2017)
	Thailand	1	Pongpaew et al. (2017)
	Arab Saudi	1	Alsufyan & Aloud (2017)
	Indonesia	1	Hapsari et al. (2017)
	Hongkong	1	Chathoth et al. (2014)
Africa (1 paper)	Ghana	1	Kosiba et al. (2018)

Table 3.13: Articles sorted by geographical aspect

3.2.4. Gaps found from literature review

After an in-dept investigation of the literature review, this study found some unexplored areas of customer engagement research (see Table 3.14). First of all, although customer engagement, especially customer engagement in social media, has been always a great concern for researchers, the number of studies looking into the content perspective and its intensity of engagement is still limited (Gap 1). Among a few studies examining customer engagement with content on social media, there has been only one study by Schivinski et al. (2016) that conducted measurement and evaluation of the intensity of customer engagement with brand-related content in terms of three levels: consumption, contribution, and creation. This limitation therefore is the calling for further studies to test and investigate customer engagement with brand-related content in social media in different countries as well as different contexts. In addition, it is evident from previous literature studies that there are limited number of service areas being examined regarding product and service types. Main services in which customer engagement research was conducted are hospitality, tourism, and telecom. This means there are still many service contexts which have not been examined. This point is also supported by Hollebeek (2011) and Bowden et al. (2015) as they mentioned that customer engagement needs to be investigated in various contexts of services to identify how and why its intensity differs in different contexts. The objective 2 of this research will fulfil this gap by examination of customer engagement with brand-related content on restaurant social media context.

No	Major gaps identified	Studies
1	Exploration of whether the customer engagement intensity differs across different products and services	Bowden (2009), Brodie et al. (2011), Hollebeek (2011), Ashley et al. (2011), de Vries & Carlson (2014), Hollebeek & Chen (2014), Jaakkola & Alexander (2014), Bowden et al. (2015), Nadeem et al. (2015)
2	Development of a valid and reliable measure of customer engagement	Mollen & Wilson (2010), Hollebeek (2011), Gummerus et al. (2012), Vivek et al. (2012), Wirtz et al. (2013), Hollebeek & Chen (2014)
3	Exploration of negative effects of customer engagement	Verleye et al. (2013), Bitter et al. (2014), Hollebeek & Chen (2014), So et al. (2014), Dessart et al. (2015)
4	Conducting longitudinal research to	Bowden (2009), Brodie et al. (2011), Hollebeek (2011), Bitter et al. (2014), Hollebeek & Chen (2014), Vivek et al. (2014), Dwivedi et al. (2015)
5	Further exploration and empirical validation of causal relationships between customer engagement and other related constructs	Van Doorn et al. (2010), Brodie et al. (2011), Hollebeek (2011), Cambra-Fierro et al. (2013), Tsai & Men (2014), Bitter et al. (2014), Jaakkola & Alexander (2014), So et al. (2014), O'Brien et al. (2014)
6	Develop a universal definitions of customer engagement behaviour construct	Kumar et al. (2010), Harrigan et al. (2017), Chiang et al. (2017)

Table 3.14: Major gaps identified from systematic literature review

Furthermore, both researchers and marketers need to view customer engagement on social media holistically and find out which factors actually drives customer engagement toward a brand in this context (Bolton, 2011; Verhoef et al., 2010). Therefore, they need to seek conceptual and empirical models regarding acknowledgement of different levels of engagement in online social media environments (Brodie et al., 2011, Bolton, 2011). Also, the literature has highlighted those numerous factors have been proposed to act as antecedents and/or consequences of customer engagement, however, most of them have only been proposed conceptually, especially in the context of social media due to the early stage of the research. Thus, future studies are suggested to empirically examine the causal relationships between customer engagement with brand-related content and other related construct in the context of social media (Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011a; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; O'Brien et al., 2015) to enrich this area in literature (Gap 5). For instance, literature prove the positive relationship between customer engagement with the brand and WOM as well as the purchase

intention. However, in the social media context where customer engagement is actually presented as the engagement with the content, there is no evidence yet about the influence of customer engagement with brand-related content on the purchase intention and eWOM attitude and behaviours. The objectives 1 and 3 of this study aim to fulfil this gap.

Moreover, another gap identified from the literature is a lack of exploration of negative effects of customer engagement in general and customer engagement with brand-related content in social media in particular (Gap 3). According to studies by Vivek et al. (2014) or Hollebeek & Chen (2014), customer engagement may not usually be positive but can also have negative effects. However, most of the studies in literature focused on the positive perspective of customer engagement. Therefore, the further studies should also pay more attention to the negative perspective of customer engagement (Vivek et al., 2015, Dessart et al., 2015).

Finally, it can clearly be seen that most of studies in this systematic literature review are empirical cross-sectional research reflect customer engagement at a specific point in time with certain focal objects (Cambra-Fierro et al., 2015; Cabiddu et al., 2014; Brodie et al., 2013; Gummerus et al., 2012, Ashley et al., 2011). However, according to Bowden (2009a) and Gambetti et al. (2012), customer engagement is not a state but a process which changes and intensifies over the time. Therefore, researchers in the future should carry out longitudinal studies to have further and better understandings of customer engagement for period of time, and in different contexts (Hollebeek, 2014; Dwivedi, 2015).

3.2.5. Contributions of systematic literature review

This systematic literature review has multiple practical, as well as academic, contributions. With regard to theoretical contribution, it firstly provides comprehensive and valuable understandings of the current state of customer engagement construct, especially in social media context. Ninety-one identified articles were reviewed regarding many aspects, disseminating how the concepts have been studied so far by the researchers. This review also presented various conceptualisations and dimensions of customer engagement in previous studies. From that, definitions of customer engagement behaviours were discussed and a specific definition of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media was delivered. Moreover, a series of theoretical backgrounds adopted in previous literature was identified and thoroughly examined in order to help readers easily understand how the constructs were investigated. In addition, antecedents and consequences of customer

engagement in general and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media were assessed and synthesised which provides a comprehensive link between customer engagement related constructs and other relevant concepts in marketing. Finally, this systematic literature review has addressed many unexplored areas relating to customer engagement and customer engagement with brand-related content in social media that future research should focus on. These gaps were examined in the previous section.

In terms of practical managerial contributions, this systematic literature review provides valuable insights and understandings for marketers and brand managers who have been seeking to build and maintain an engagement of customer with brands especially through social media. Customer engagement could be seen as an important driver of marketing and customer relationship decision-making process, having great effects on organisational performance and reputation (Cambra-Fierro et al., 2013; Van Doorn et al., 2010). Therefore, the better understandings of customer engagement the marketer has, the better practical activities the organisations could have (Vivek et al., 2014).

3.2.6. Updated systematic literature review in the period 2019-2022

In order to ensure the relevance and importance of the research, this part aims to conduct an additional literature review from 2019 to 2022. The same process of 5-step systematic literature review was applied to identify and select papers for reviewing. At the first step of identifying the research, the 9 keywords are still employed, including “customer engagement”, “consumer engagement”, “consumer brand engagement”, “customer engagement behaviour”, “consumer engagement behaviour”, “social media engagement”, “brand engagement” and “content engagement” to search for papers published from Jan 2019 to December 2022 in three reliable databases: Emerald Insight, Science Direct and Scopus. Then, the quality assessment of the studies was done, including the removal of duplicated articles, exclusion of irrelevant articles, and full examination of articles. However, because this aims to focus on reviewing the articles directly related to customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, the criteria for choosing articles for the final analysis differed from the previous systematic literature review. Only studies about customer engagement behaviours in the social media context, especially focusing on behaviours with the brand-related content are chosen for further examination in detail. The process of selecting final studies is presented in Figure 3.6.

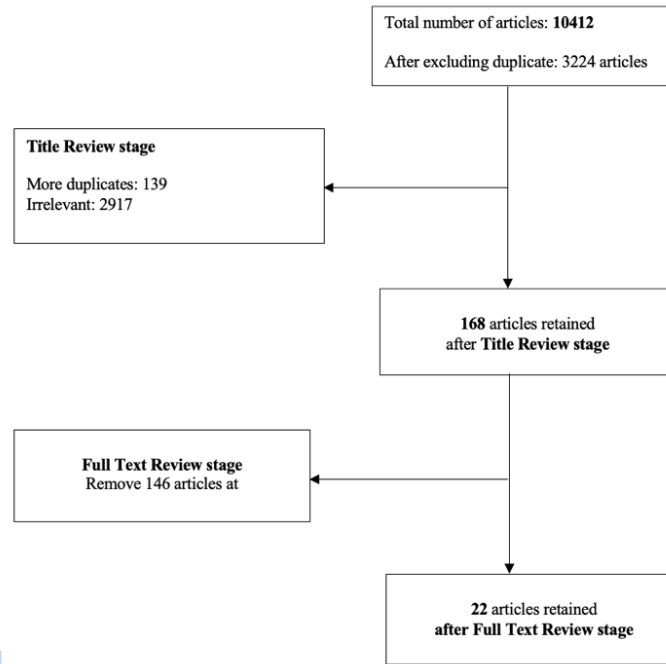


Figure 3.6: Decision tree and reasons for excluding articles (2019-2022)

For the final 22 papers remained from previous steps, the most important information was extracted and presented in Table 3.15.

Conceptualisation and dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content

It can be seen from the literature review that since 2019, researchers have been paying great attention to examining customer engagement behaviours in the social media context, with a focus on the brand-related content as a focal object of engagement. It is widely accepted that customer engagement in social media context is measured by customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content rather than simply engagement with the brand. By taking that, they emphasize the behavioural dimension of customer engagement rather than the cognitive and affective/ emotional dimensions. As shown in Table 3.15, only 4 out of 22 articles (18%) considered customer engagement in social media as a multi-dimensional construct that consists of cognitive, affective, and behavioural dimensions (Kanje et al., 2020; Schee et al., 2020; Hinson et al., 2019; Brandão et al., 2019).

Most of the literature under review considered customer engagement from a behavioural aspect encompassing behaviours from passive such as content consumption (for example, reading or watching content), to active such as content contribution (commenting on the content or sharing the content) and content creation (creating user-generated content). COBRA framework,

therefore, is widely adopted in their studies to measure or capture customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. Although most of the articles study the comprehensive engagement behaviours regarding all those three levels (Ebrahim et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Buzeta et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2020, Qin, 2020; Dolan et al., 2019; Mirsha, 2019), some emphasize on specific behaviours, such as “like and comment” (Ko et al., 2022), “like, comment and share” (Gruss and Kim, 2020), or “generating and sharing user-generated content” (Shabermajidi et al., 2020). In addition, McClure and Seock (2020) captured the term customer involvement in a brand’s social media, which can be measured by both customer interactions with the brand’s social media sites in general and the brand’s content in particular, as well as the interactions with other members of the brand.

Number	Authors and Year	Journal's Name	Article's Type	Research Design	Research Methods	Industry	Theoretical Background	Engagement Dimensions	Antecedents	Consequences	Country of study
1	Ciunova-Shuleska et al., 2022	Marketing Intelligence and Planning	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	NG	U&G theory	Behavioural	U&G (communal incentives, self-interest incentives, reward incentives)	NG	North Macedonia
2	Ko et al., 2022	Computers in Human Behaviours	E	E (Quantitative)	Content Analysis	Various	Relationship Marketing	Behavioural (Like, Comment)	having emojis, number of emojis, number of emotional emojis, number of informational emojis	NG	USA
3	Lim et al., 2022	Journal of Business research	LR		Bibliometric analysis and Thematic analysis	NA					NA
4	Ebrahim, 2021	International Journal of Customer Relationship Marketing and Management	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	NG	Technology Acceptance Model	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	System quality, Cognitive absorption, Information quality; User satisfaction, Behavioural intention	NG	UK
5	Liu et al., 2021	Journal of Business Research	E	E (Quantitative)	Big data, Content analysis	Luxury		Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	Social Media Marketing (entertainment, interaction, trendiness, customisation)	NG	USA
6	Yost et al., 2021	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	E	E (Quantitative)	Content Analysis	Hospitality	Relationship Marketing	Behavioural	NG	Sales	USA
7	Bazi et al., 2020	Journal of Business research	E	E (Qualitative)	Semi-structured interviews	Luxury	Relationship Marketing	Behavioural	perceived content relevancy, brand-customer relationship, hedonic, aesthetic, socio-psychological, brand equity, and technology factors.	NG	UK
8	Buzeta et al., 2020	Journal of Interactive Marketing	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Various	U&G theory	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	U&G: entertainment, information, social interaction, personal identity, remuneration, empowerment	NG	USA
9	Busalim et al., 2020	Technology in Society	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	E-commerce	Social Support theory, U&G theory	Behavioural	Social factors (social interaction, social support, social presence); technological factor (interactivity, information quality, service quality, system quality); motivational factors (hedonic motivations, utilitarian motivations, perceived value)	NA	Singapore
10	Cao et al., 2020	Journal of Business research	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Fashion	Theory of Planned Behaviour	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	Engagement Intention	NA	UK
11	de Silva, 2020	Marketing Intelligence and Planning	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Various	U&G theory, Relationship Marketing, Commitment- Trust theory	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	U&G motivations	Trust, Commitment	Srilanka
12	Gruss and Kim, 2020	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research	E	E (Quantitative)	Content Analysis	Restaurant	Social Identity theory	Behavioural (Like, Comment, Share)	Community building language	NA	USA
13	Kanje et al., 2020	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Tourism	Relationship Marketing	Cognitive, Affective, Behavioural	NA	eWOM	Tanzania

Number	Authors and Year	Journal's Name	Article's Type	Research Design	Research Methods	Industry	Theoretical Background	Engagement Dimensions	Antecedents	Consequences	Country of study
14	McClure and Seock, 2020	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	NG	Relationship Marketing	Involvement on brand's social media	Brand familiarity, Information Quality	Attitude toward brand, Purchase Intention	USA
15	Schee et al., 2020	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	Conceptual			NG	Relationship Marketing	Cognitive, Affective, Behavioural	consumer status, consumer disposition, personality trait, intrinsic motivations, extrinsic motivations, cultural dimensions	Brand status, brand disposition, brand attribute, brand connection, brand affirmation, brand aversion	NA
16	Qin, 2020	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Fashion	U&G theory	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution)	U&G: information seeking, entertainment, personal identity, convenience	Attitude toward brand, Purchase Intention	USA
17	Sabermajidi et al., 2020	Information Technology and People	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Restaurant	Consumer Socialisation theory	Behavioural (Generating UGC, Sharing UGC)	facebook use intensity, self enhancement, self affirmation	Attitude, Involvement, Repurchase intention	Malaysia
18	Dolan et al., 2019	European Journal of Marketing	E	E (Quantitative)	FB Insights and Content analysis	Wine brands	U&G; dual processing theory	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	U&G motivations	NG	Australia
19	Hinson et al., 2019	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Various	Attachment Theory	Cognitive, Emotional, Behavioural	self-image expression, brand identification, social interaction ties, brand trust	Customer Participation, Customer Generated Advertising	Ghana
20	Mirsha, 2019	Marketing Intelligence and Planning	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Various	U&G theory, Relationship Marketing	Behavioural (Consumption, Contribution, Creation)	social media marketing efforts, online interaction propensity	Overall Brand Equity, Purchase Intention	India
21	Brandão et al., 2019	Spanish Journal of Marketing	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Luxury	Relationship Marketing	Cognitive, Affective, Behavioural	Consumer involvement	self-brand connection, brand usage internet	Portugal
22	Yoong and Lian, 2019	International Journal of Business and Social Sciences	E	E (Quantitative)	Survey, SEM	Hotel	U&G theory	Behavioural	surveillance, social interaction, sharing of information and attraction	Purchase Intention	Malaysia

Table 3.15: Literature review of customer engagement on social media from January 2019 to December 2022

Regarding research types and methodologies, among 22 studies of the review, 20 articles were empirical research, while only 1 article was a conceptual paper and 1 article was a literature review. In addition, from the review, it is noticed that the main focuses of recent studies are on testing the concepts and theories regarding customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, as well as examining the relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content and other relevant constructs in different backgrounds and contexts. Among 20 empirical studies, 19 papers are using a quantitative approach to collect and analyse data, while only 1 article uses a qualitative method. In terms of the country for investigation, the USA still contributes the most significant number of papers (7 papers), followed by the UK (3 articles). The rest of the papers broadly covers different countries, including Asia (India, Malaysia, Singapore), European (Portugal, North Macedonia), Africa (Tanzania, Ghana), and Australia (Australia). Several contexts have gained attention in the literature, such as luxury brands, and hospitality, including restaurant, hotel, and tourism brands. There are two articles that study customer engagement with brand-related content in the restaurant industry, however, their findings and contributions are not directly affected by current research. Gruss and Kim (2020) investigated three specific behaviours (like, share, comment) with brand-related content on the Facebook pages of restaurant brands. They used social identity theory to understand the relationships between community building language and customer behaviours. In a different approach, Sabermajidi et al. (2020) used Consumer Socialisation theory to investigate how Facebook use intensity, self-enhancement and self-affirmation influence user-generated content on Facebook pages. Sabermajidi and the co-authors focused their investigation only on the most active behaviours, including generating and sharing brand-related media content.

Theoretical backgrounds of the studies

Among the 22 articles under review, the most adopted theories when examining customer engagement with brand-related content construct are Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory and Relationship Marketing theories with S-D logic. The other theories used in the studies are Theory of Planned Behaviour (Cao et al., 2020), Technology Acceptance Model (Ebrahim, 2021), Attachment Theory (Hinson et al., 2019), Consumer Socialisation theory (Sabermajidi et al., 2020), Social Identity Theory (Gruss and Kim, 2020), and Social Support Theory (Busalim et al., 2020). In Relationship Marketing and S-D logic, customer engagement with brand-related content is examined by considering of proactive contributions of customers to the content (Ko et al., 2022; Bazi et al., 2020). The Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory,

Attachment theory, Consumer Socialisation theory, Social Identity, and Social Support theory are used to examine the motivations underlying customers engagement behaviours with brand-related content. Among these, The U&G theory, which focuses on customer perspective with their own needs, is the most widely adopted in the literature (8 out of 22 papers). In addition, the Theory of Planned Behaviour and Technology Acceptance Model are utilised to understand customer engagement behaviour as an individual trait and to assess engagement behaviour from intention to actual action. A summary of theories utilised in the total 22 identified papers is presented in Table 3.16.

Theoretical Background	Frequent	Study
Uses & Gratifications theory	8	Ciunova-Shuleska et al., 2022; Buzeta et al., 2020; Busalim et al., 2020; de Silva, 2020; Qin, 2020; Dolan et al., 2019; Mirsha, 2019; Yoong and Lian, 2019
Relationship Marketing and S-D logic	9	Ko et al., 2022; Yost et al., 2021; Bazi et al., 2020; de Silva, 2020; Kanje et al., 2020; McClure and Seock, 2020; Schee et al., 2020; Mirsha, 2019; Brandão et al., 2019
Theory of Planned Behaviour	1	Cao et al., 2020
Technology Acceptance Model	1	Ebrahim, 2021
Attachment theory	1	Hinson et al., 2019
Consumer socialisation theory	1	Sabermajidi et al., 2020
Social identity theory	1	Gruss and Kim, 2020
Social support theory	1	Busalim et al., 2020
NA	2	Lim et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2021

Table 3.16: Theoretical background of 22 articles examining customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in 2019-2022

Antecedents and Consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content

The full detail of antecedents and consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media can be seen in Table 3.15.

Antecedents

Most articles under review investigated customer-focused antecedents of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. Customer-focused antecedents refer to customers'

emotional states, needs, objectives, and attributes which are essential to the customers. The most common antecedents were customer needs drawn from the U&G theory, including the needs for entertainment, social interaction, personal identity, information, remuneration, and empowerment. The other customer-focused antecedents identified from the review are engagement intention (Cao et al., 2020); customer involvement (Brandão et al., 2019), social media usage intensity (Sabermaajidi et al., 2020), customer status, customer disposition, personal trait, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Schee et al., 2020). Beside customer-focused antecedents, the literature also identified some brand-focused antecedents, such as social media marketing efforts (Liu et al., 2021; Mirsha, 2019), brand familiarity (McClure and Seock, 2020), brand identifications (Hinson et al., 2019); and context-focused antecedents, for example, social factors (Busalim et al., 2020), cultural dimensions (Schee et al., 2020).

Consequences

Among 22 articles of final review, the consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content were investigated in 11 articles only. The most common consequences in literature are customer's attitude toward the brand (McClure and Seock, 2020; Qin, 2020; Sabermaajidi et al., 2020), purchase intention (McClure and Seock, 2020; Qin, 2020; Mirsha, 2019; Yoong and Lian, 2019), eWOM and attitude toward eWOM (Kanje et al., 2020). It is a strong evidence showing the importance of the outcomes investigated in the current study, including attitude toward eWOM (attitude toward reviews and ratings) and purchase intention.

In summary, from the review of literature in customer engagement with brand-related content on social media from 2019 to 2022, it can be confident that the reliability and importance of the current research are still applied. First, it still needs to be investigated more of customer engagement with brand-related content and its antecedents/ consequences in the restaurant industry. It is found from the literature that the relationships between engagement behaviours on brand-related content and their motivational factors or consequences vary in different contexts. Therefore, the findings of this current research are still good contributions both academically and practically. This additional review also proves the importance of chosen antecedents and consequences in the current study that are worth investigating.

3.3. Summary

This chapter conducted a systematic review of a large number of relevant peer-reviewed articles published between January 2010 and December 2018 in three major electronic

databases. The discussion was then performed with the main focus on three issues including (a) conceptualisation and theoretical background of customer engagement, (b) measurement and dimensions of customer engagement, and (c) antecedents and consequences of customer engagement with emphasis on customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. This comprehensive evaluation of the existing customer engagement literature has addressed a number of gaps in previous studies that can be further explored in the future research.

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH CONTEXT, CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

4.1. Introduction

This chapter will first introduce the context of the research. Then, the conceptual framework for the relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and its potential antecedents and outcomes will be presented based on the identified context. The chapter also includes an explanation and discussion of each construct in the proposed framework, based on the literature.

Figure 4.1 below shows the structure of this chapter.

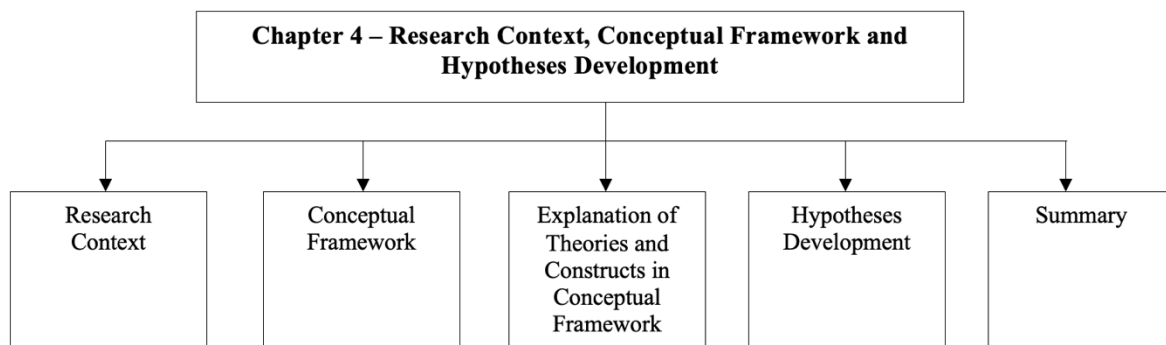


Figure 4.1: Structure of Chapter 4.

4.2. Context of the research – Restaurant industry in Vietnam

This study chose the context of the restaurant industry in Vietnam for an empirical investigation. This particular setting has been chosen following an in-depth review of published articles related to customer engagement. The first reason for choosing the current context was due to a need suggested in the literature of investigating the customer engagement construct in unexplored hospitality service industries (Islam & Rahman, 2016; Bowden et al., 2015), involving the restaurant industry. The restaurant industry is considered as one of the fastest-growing service industries facing a significant level of competitiveness. Therefore, restaurant marketers need to pay more attention to engaging customers to survive and grow. The Vietnamese market is chosen to be investigated not only because of its convenience to access, but also because of its strong presence within the restaurant industry. Vietnam has high Internet

usage as well as social media penetration rates, which were 70.3% and 73.7% respectively in 2021 and are estimated to grow (Hootsuite, 2021). Not surprisingly, the country has also experienced a high social media usage in the restaurant sector in Vietnam from both business and customer perspectives. From a business perspective, nearly 70% of restaurants use social media channels in their operation and marketing activities.

In addition, the context of the restaurant sector was chosen because of the consideration that this industry has been growing rapidly in Vietnam and has potential for further significant development in the future. Recent research from Vietcetera (2018) suggests that eating out in Vietnam has become popular, with more than 50% of Vietnamese people dining out at least once a week. The restaurant sector in Vietnam accounts for 72% of the dining out market. A growing number of restaurant brands are using social media as a critical resource in their marketing and branding activities in order to build and maintain customer relationships and customer engagement. This restaurant service context also has limited exploration in previous literature. Hollebeek (2011) and Bowden et al. (2015) suggest customer engagement requires investigation in different contexts of services in order to examine whether the intensity of customer engagement varies across the contexts.

This section will present the background of Vietnam and its restaurant sector with the use of social media to strengthen the justifications for choosing this context of the study.

4.2.1. Vietnam – Demographics

Vietnam, officially named the Social Republic of Vietnam, is a country in Southeast Asia, situated on the eastern of the Indochinese Peninsula. Vietnam land borders are shared with China in the North, and Laos and Cambodia in the West. In addition, it has maritime borders with the Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand and Malaysia.

Vietnam is experiencing high level of social demographic changes. With an estimated population of 97.8 million as of 2020, it is considered as the 16th most populous country in the world. According to Population Census Report in 2020, approximately 60 percent of the Vietnamese population are at the age of under 35 years old. In addition, Vietnam has a population growth rate of 1.5% which means nearly 1.5 million new people are born every year making the country very attractive to any business sector, including the food-related sector.

Worldometers (2019) reported that 37% of the population of Vietnam is urban. There are five cities with a population of over one million, the largest of which is Ho Chi Minh City, with a population of 8,636,899. The capital city, Hanoi, closely comes second, with 7,781,631 people residing there. The remaining three cities with substantial populations are Hai Phong, Da Nang, and Can Tho.

Vietnam is one of the countries that have the fastest economy growth in South-East Asia and this development has increased stably. According to PricewaterhouseCoopers, in February 2017, Vietnam was considered having the fastest growing economy in the world. The GDP of Vietnam grew steadily from 2014 to 2019 with the pace of 6-7% per year, which was one of the fastest growth rates in the region. In 2019, the GDP of Vietnam reached 261.9 billion USD. In addition, the poverty rate in Vietnam has experienced a sharp decline from around 70 percent in 2002 to under 6 percent in 2019. These aspects made Vietnam the most attractive destination for foreign investment.

The income per capita of Vietnam has increased from around 2,000 USD in 2014 to approximately 3,000 USD in 2020. The household income of citizens in the five big cities mentioned above (Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City, Hai Phong, Da Nang, Can Tho) is higher than the national average of about five times. Moreover, Vietnam's middle class has been increasing sharply recently. Middle class Vietnamese currently accounts for 13% of the population. This number is expected to be double (26%) by 2025.

During the Covid-19 pandemic, Vietnam is one of the few countries in the world that is not experiencing a recession (WorldBank, 2020), although the growth rate for the year 2020 is far lower than the typical 6-7% as the period before. The growth rate in 2020 was 2.8% and it is forecasted to bounce back and reach around 5% in 2021. There are some critical factors suggested for Vietnam in order to help the economy recover more robust and faster in the medium term such as improving the business environment and promoting the digital economy.

4.2.2. The use of Internet and social media in Vietnam

According to Hootsuite's report in January 2020, the number of Internet users is more than 4.54 billion, and number or active users of social media is 3.8 billion. The report also pointed out that the area with the highest social media usage rate in the world is Eastern Asia. Among the Asian countries, Vietnam has a solid presence of Internet and Social Media usage. In

Vietnam, with a population of 97.75 million, there are 68.72 million Vietnamese online. This means the Internet penetration rate in Vietnam stays at 70.3%. Moreover, as presented in 2019 Global Digital reports from We Are Social and Hootsuite, the number of active social media users in Vietnam is 72 million, which is equivalent to 73.7% of the total population of Vietnam (See Figure 4.2).

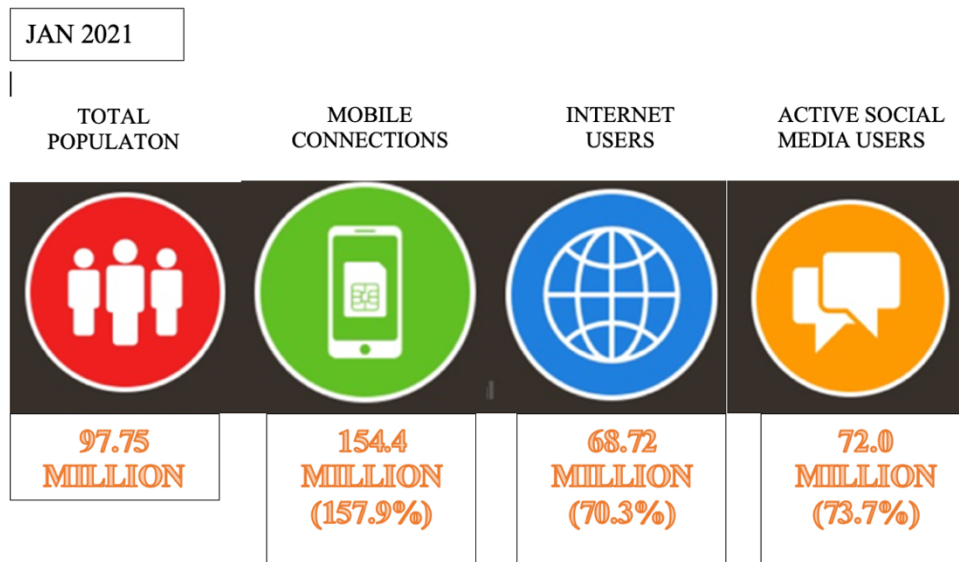


Figure 4.2: Internet and Social media usage in Vietnam. Source: Hootsuite, 2021

There is also an increasing trend in social media users in Vietnam (Figure 4.3), according to Hootsuite (2001) and Statista (2001).

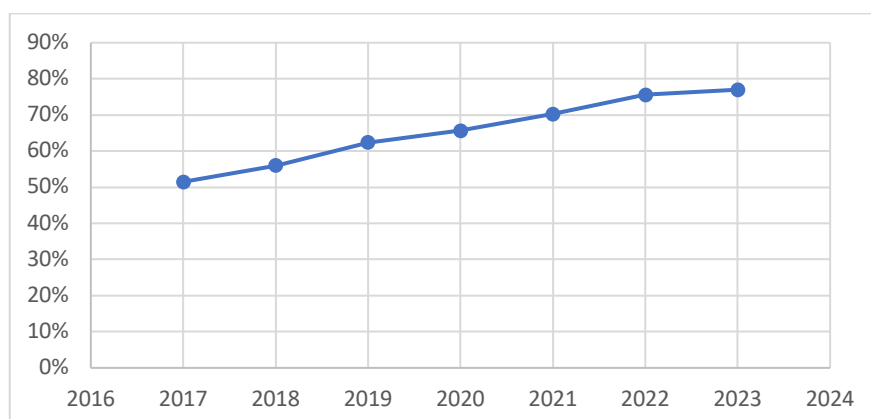


Figure 4.3: Social media user penetration in Vietnam 2017-2023 (Hootsuite, 2021)

On average, Vietnamese spend a total of 6 hours 30 minutes online every day. Within this total amount of time, approximately 2 hours 22 minutes is used for social media (Figure 4.4). The time the Vietnamese spend on social media is ranked as the highest among other countries in Asia, for example Singapore (2 hours 17 minutes), Chinese (2 hours 4 minutes), South Korea (1 hour 8 minutes), and Japan (51 minutes) (according to Hootsuite report, 2020).

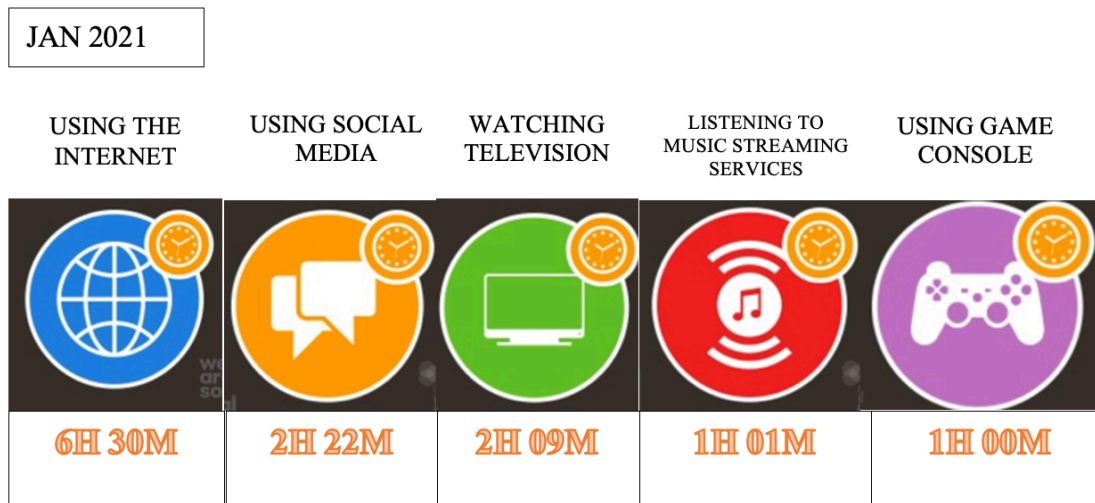


Figure 4.4: Daily time spent with media channels in Vietnam. Source: Hootsuite, 2021

Statistics in Figure 4.5 also show that Vietnamese who use social media more often tend to be younger, more educated, and wealthier (Pew Research Centre, 2019). Firstly, the age gap between each group is the greatest among Vietnamese social media users. The graph indicates that 81% of Vietnamese between the ages of 18 and 29 frequently use social media while only 3% of those aged 50 and over do so. In addition, the different usage of social media is not only more common among the young but also the higher educated. Generally, people with higher education tend to use social media more than those with less educated at the difference of 48 percentage points. Research also indicates that developing and emerging countries (such as Vietnam, Kenya, Ghana, Turkey, and Chile) tend to have a greater education gap between social media users with the difference between two groups of at least 40 percentage points. Furthermore, as presented in the research, the social media usages differ by the individual-level income. People with higher incomes are more likely to use social media more often than those with lower incomes. Vietnam is categorised as one of the countries having the largest income gap in social media user groups. While 66% of people with higher incomes use social media frequently, only 34% of people with lower incomes do so.

Age				Education			Income			Gender		
18-29	30-49	50+	DIFF	Less	More	DIFF	Lower	Higher	DIFF	Men	Women	DIFF
81	44	3	78	29	77	48	34	66	32	45	55	32

Figure 4.5: Social media users' demographic in Vietnam

There are many social media sites that Vietnamese use, however, the most common sites are Facebook (90%), YouTube (89%), and Instagram (56%).

Facebook

Facebook is not only the most popular social network in the world but also in Vietnam. There are many Facebook groups that people can join in Vietnam to connect with new friends, business brands, or attend social events. There are also many Facebook groups created by people having the same interests or hobbies. In these groups, information and experiences are shared and discussed. In 2020, Vietnam had 68.72 million Facebook users (Figure 4.2), up 5.4% from the previous year. Also, in the same year, Vietnam surpassed Thailand and became the 7th biggest Facebook market in the world. Vietnamese Facebook users' demographics according to genders and ages were presented in Figure 4.6.

Demographics:

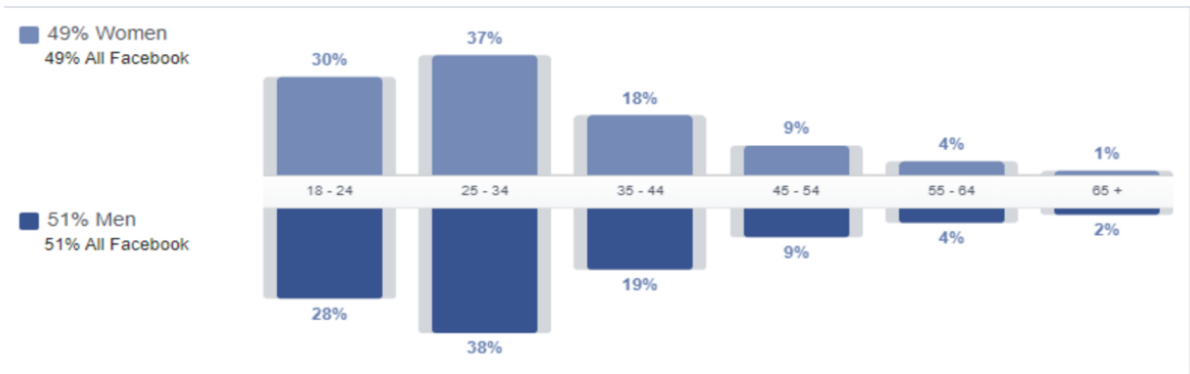


Figure 4.6: Vietnamese Facebook users' demographics

YouTube

In Vietnam, YouTube is the second-most accessed site with the user ratio of 66 percent, behind Facebook at 72%, according to a 2019 report by We Are Social. Based on the time people spend per day watching YouTube videos on average, Vietnam is on the list of the five most dedicated markets for YouTube worldwide, according to the Asia Pacific Regional Director of YouTube, Ajay Vidyasagar (CNBC, 2019). The other countries that made the list are India, Indonesia, Japan, and Thailand.

Instagram

In April 2016, Instagram became the eighth most popular social site globally, with around 400 million monthly active users. In Vietnam, it ranked the third place in the most popular social media sites (Datareportal, 2019). Instagram users' demographics according to gender and age (according to Statista, 2019) are shown in Figure 4.7.

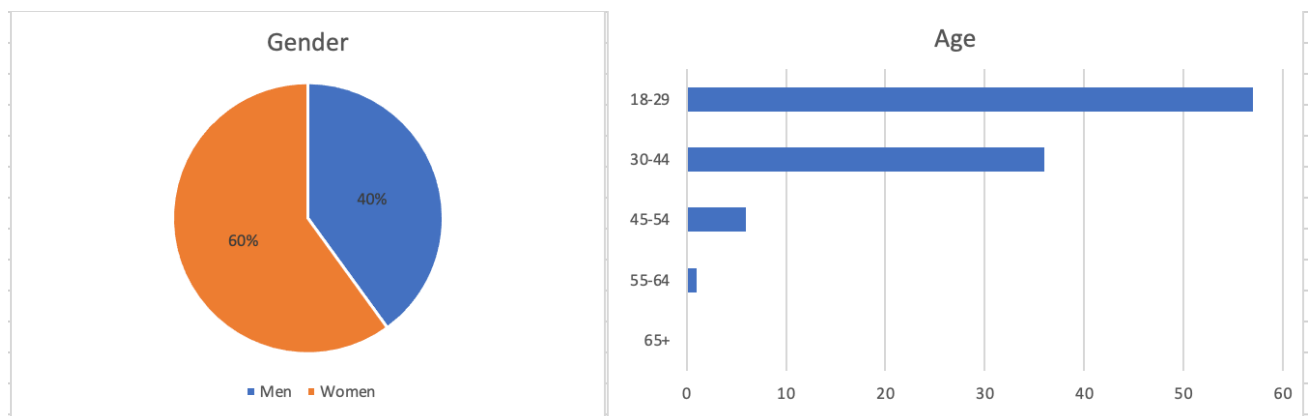


Figure 4.7: Vietnamese Instagram users' demographics

4.2.3. Restaurant Sector in Vietnam

Eating out is becoming increasingly popular in Vietnam. While the older people may still consider dinner an excellent time for family members to gather and have dinner together and talk together at home, the younger generation tends to be more interested in dining out in restaurants. More than 50% of Vietnamese people dine out at least once a week and, within this, the restaurant sector accounts for approximately 72% of the dining-out market (Vietcetera, 2018). They go to restaurants for many reasons such as meeting friends and relatives, celebrating anniversaries, discussing businesses, or simply trying foods at new restaurants, and so on.

The living standard in Vietnam has increased in recent years, resulting in Vietnam's restaurant industry having experienced substantial growth in both quantity and quality. As mentioned in section 4.2, Vietnam has a high GDP growth rate of 7% per year (in the period from 2014 to 2019) which is relatively high compared to other Asian countries (USDA, 2019). During this time, a significant increase in middle-class income resulted from strong economic and tourist growth leading to the changes and development of the foodservice industry (AAFC, 2018). As a result, Vietnam's HRI (Hotel Restaurant Industry) foodservice revenue was \$25.3 billion in 2019, increasing 9.8% from 2018. The sector consists of the following subsectors: restaurants, including full-service restaurants and quick-service restaurants; bakeries and street stalls; cafes and bars; hotels; and institutional catering services (USDA, 2020). In 2019, Vietnam's middle-income class accounted for 13% of the total population. This number is also estimated to be doubled by 2026, making it one of the fastest-growing demographics in Southeast Asia. Furthermore, the population of Vietnam has been categorised as a young population, with more than half being under the age of 30 years old. The customers of this age group are likely more open to food service experiences. They also prefer to dine in at informal full-service restaurants where young people can meet for food and socialising activities (Euromonitor International, 2018).

Recently, there has been a wide range of diversions in the full-service restaurant category including products, formats, themes, menus, and even an age target, thus creating a more complex competitive service environment (Euromonitor International, 2018). The up-scale, full-service restaurants usually target middle-income and high-income customers who prefer to spend time in an elegant and modern environment. Thus, they tended to focus on standardising their food-making process, staff training, and developing chains of outlets to target those customers. These customers are also more likely social media users, implying that social media marketing strategies are more critical with the full-service chained restaurants. However, the value-priced restaurants are still more popular by providing full-service with lower prices to target comparatively lower-income customers (Euromonitor International, 2018). Moreover, fast-food chained restaurants have become a trend for young people's dining habits. The customer preferences are also experiencing a shift from western-style cuisines to more Asian-centric cuisines such as Korean, Japanese, Taiwanese, and so on, making restaurants' themes and menus also shift.

4.2.4. The use of social media in Restaurant Industry

It is evident in literature and real life that new forms of media such as the Internet and social media have replaced traditional mass media in the restaurant industry. Social media becomes an ideal tool for restaurants managers to engage customers and increase brand image and brand awareness (Bruhn et al., 2012). Hill & Cairncross (2011) recognised social media as a new form of word-of-mouth (WOM) called eWOM. The eWOM among guests in social media strongly affects restaurant brand image (Leung et al., 2013). In addition, social media eWOM also has a significant influence on guests' attitudes and visit intention (Leung et al., 2015), brand trust, and brand loyalty and customers' decision-making process (Hill & Cairncross, 2011).

Facebook has proven to be the most popular social media platform used in hospitality social media research (Hsu, 2012; Phelan et al., 2013; Leung et al., 2015). From the literature review, only a few research studies have been conducted on restaurant social media marketing thus, the implications from the general hospitality industry will be applied in this section. Previous studies suggested that identification, compliance, and internalisation are the main determinants of guests' attitudes toward a Facebook page. The two consequences of hospitality Facebook marketing are determined as booking intention and attitude toward reviews and ratings (eWOM) (Leung et al., 2015). Choi et al. (2016) employed the use and gratification (U&G) theory to identify antecedents of customer engagement on Facebook page and future booking intention are: information, convenience, and self-presentation.

Although many restaurant brands are now using social media as a viral marketing strategy, few of them are successful. Thus, understanding how to evaluate the effectiveness of marketing strategies on social media, especially of engaging customers efficiently, is still limited in both research and practice. Therefore, the need for empirical research of customer engagement on social media in the restaurant context will fill the gaps in the existing literature.

Dining out is becoming more popular in Vietnam and the number of people using restaurants' social media channels has increased rapidly. According to research about the use of social media in Vietnam (Ha & Thu, 2019), seventy-five percent of the participants state that they used social media at least once a day. The primary purposes of using social media include connecting with friends (81%), searching for restaurants (80%), getting information and

updates (70%), sharing pictures (33%), posting content (29%), playing games (15%), being entertained (13%) and using location-based services (5%). 80% of people who took part in the research indicated that searching for restaurants is one of the main reasons they use restaurants' social media sites and they tended to be younger participants while older ones were more likely to use WOM such as recommendations from friends and relatives. Another reason highlighted is getting information and updates. This suggests that, when using social media strategies, restaurants' marketing managers should pay more attention to the information dissemination of restaurants. They can use social media to get electronic WOM, promote new products, respond and give information to customers, and so on. Facebook is the most preferred channel that they use to receive information and updates from restaurants.

4.3. The proposed conceptual model

First, the three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, consumption, contribution and creation, were examined based on extended COBRA framework (Muntinga et al., 2011; Schivinski et al., 2016). Measurements of these three dimensions were adopted from Schivinski et al. (2016). To the author's best knowledge, this is the most comprehensive framework that measures all activities of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. Moreover, the Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory is implemented in this conceptual framework in order to assess motivational factors of customer engagement with brand-related content, as suggested by De Vries et al. (2012), Jahn et al. (2012), and Cvijikj & Michahelles (2013). U&G theory was first proposed by Katz (1959) and since then it has captured the attention of more and more researchers when studying antecedents of engagement on social media (De Vries et al., 2012; Jahn et al., 2012; Cvijikj & Michahelles (2013). This theory is distinguished from others as it was built from the viewpoint of individual users and concerns the individuals' need prior to their engagement. This theory argued that the reason customers engage with social media is to attain the certain goals by satisfying their needs. The model shows five motivational factors influencing customer engagement with brand-related content in social media which present customers' needs of entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction and self-presentation. These antecedents will be clarified in the next section. Furthermore, although research about customer engagement with social media content is very limited, the number of studies looking at its probable consequences are even less. This study will examine two consequences highlighted from the literature review: attitude toward reviews and ratings (Leung et al., 2015; Lee & Ma, 2012), and purchase intention (Choi et al., 2016; Schivinski et

al., 2016). The conceptual framework of relationship between three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media and its antecedents as well as consequences is demonstrated below in Figure 4.8. A further explanation of the constructs in the conceptual framework, as well as the development of hypotheses, will be presented in the next sections.

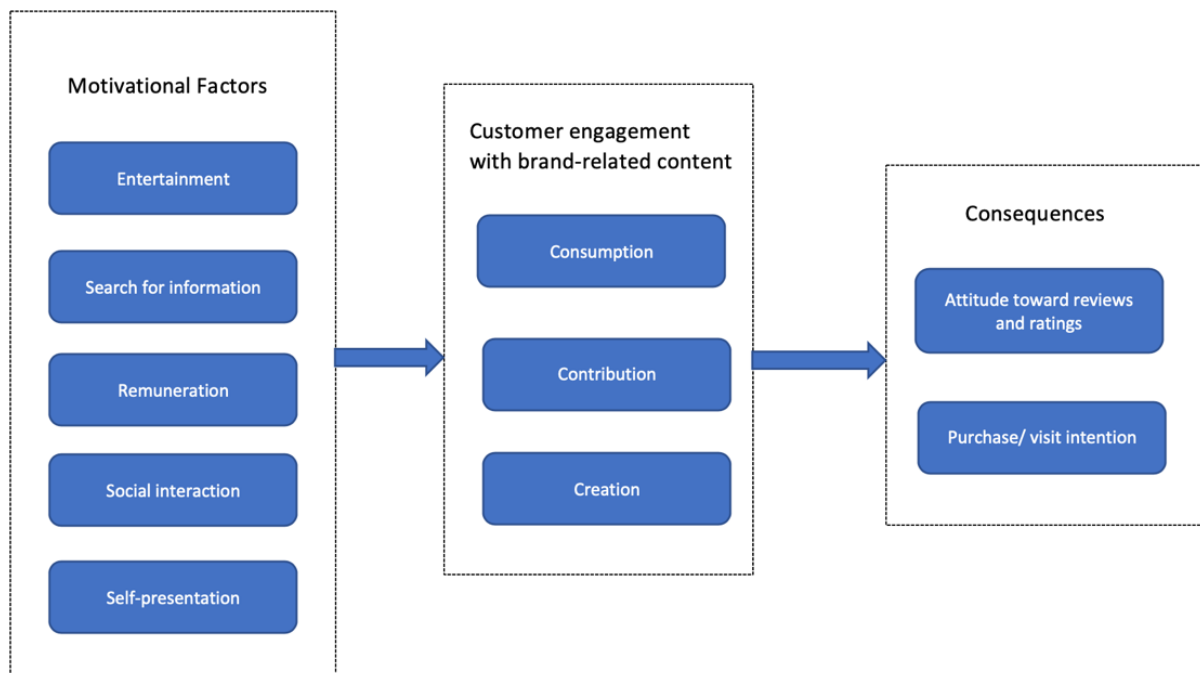


Figure 4.8: The proposed framework

4.4. An Overview of the Constructs in the Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development

4.4.1. Three levels of Customer Engagement with Brand-related content on social media – COBRA framework

A new level of customer engagement with brands on social media has grown with the significant development of the Internet (Li & Bernoff, 2011). Various media sharing and social networking sites have dramatically increased the quantity and quality of consumer-brand interactions (Christodoulides, 2009). Customer engagement on social media is described as the behaviours such as following, liking, sharing, commenting, posting, and so on. There are many different types of customer interaction with brands via brand pages on social media. The current research is drawn based on the customers' online brand-related activities (COBRA) framework by Muntinga et al. (2011). The COBRA concept is defined as a

behavioural construct that provides a unifying framework to think about consumer activity pertaining to brand-related content on social media platforms. Under its sign, a wide range of consumer-to consumer and consumer-to-brand behaviours are clustered (Muntinga et al., 2011:14).

Schivinski et al. (2016:66) later defined COBRA as

a set of brand-related online activities on the part of consumers that vary in the degree to which the consumer interacts with social media and engages in the consumption, contribution, and creation of media content.

COBRA is a simple but comprehensive framework which, based on their motivations and goals, examines customer engagement with brand-related content on social media as a continuum of different types and degrees of activities. According to this framework, customers' activities with brand-related content can be categorised into one of the three dimensions: consumption, contribution and creation which are further listed from passive to active. Based on customers' motivations and goals, they can have different levels of engagement with different content and at different time (Azar et al., 2016). For example, the same customer can have passive engagement behaviour such as reading posts or watching videos but later can also have more active behaviour such as commenting on posts or even creating posts about brands. Figure 4.9 presents the three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media based on the COBRA framework.

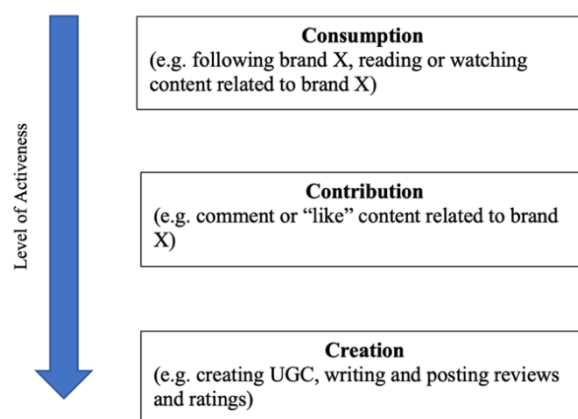


Figure 4.9: Three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media (based on the COBRA framework)

The consuming type of COBRA

The consuming type of COBRA is defined when customers participate in social network and online brand community. It is the most popular type of activities in COBRA (Muntinga et al., 2011). It refers to lowest level of customer engagement where the customers only consume (watch/ read/etc) the media content without participating (Shao, 2009; Muntinga et al., 2011). The content mentioned here can be both firm-generated or user-generated content. Some examples of consuming brand-related content can involve watching brand-related videos, viewing brand-related pictures or reading comments (Muntinga et al., 2011; Schivinski et al., 2016). “Lurkers” is the term used for people who just consume brand-related content, and assuming a more “voyeuristic” engagement with brand fan page, are also important for brands. Although passively consuming brand-related content, lurkers are still considered as people actively use the brand fan page and therefore, they are still valuable for brands to target on in their social media strategies (Edelman, 2013, Wang and Stefanone, 2013). Zhang and Stock (2001) suggested that the contributions of lurkers to the brands may as much as the members who are more active. However, brands need to criticise in stimulating lurkers to become more active users because too many lurkers could lead to low posting rate and low valuable content rate (Sun et al., 2014).

This is the most common sort of COBRA among customers (Buzeta et al., 2020; Muntinga et al., 2011). Reading posts about brand X in social media; reading fan page(s) related to brand X on social networking sites; watching pictures/graphics related to brand X; following blogs related to brand X; and following brand X on social networking sites are all examples of consuming brand-related content in social media (Schivinski et al., 2016, Muntinga et al., 2011).

The contributing type of COBRA

The contributing type of COBRA refers user-to-content and user-to-user interactions with brand (Shao, 2009; Muntinga et al., 2011). This type of behaviours does not include one’s actual and original creation of content, but the behaviours of contributing to brand-related content which was previously created either by users or brands, such as “sharing” behaviour. Due to its interactive nature, this COBRA type is the most popular type of behaviours being noticed by both researchers and brand practitioners. Among these activities under this type of COBRA, “like” and “comment” on Facebook are the most popular in the public. When

customers “like” a post of a brand, then this post will appear on customers’ personal pages and can be seen by their friends or public (if their page are set up in public mode of privacy) (Wallace et al., 2012). It has suggested that ‘likes’ on Facebook help companies increasing traffic, brand awareness and customer engagement, and therefore have positive contributions to company’s performance and implementation (Barnard and Knapp, 2011). The customers who engage with brands through this way are likely to do further research about the brands and products or services that they like. They also are more likely to be satisfied with the brands they like and will continue using their products or services in the future (Wallace et al., 2012; Smith, 2013). Another type of engagement behaviour at this level is commenting of customers on brands’ pages. Commenting behaviour allows customers to share their opinions with the brand-related content. When a customer comment on a brand’s post either created by the brand itself or other customers/ visitors, anyone who views the brand’s post can also see this comment even they are not “friend” of each other. Wallace et al. (2012) state that these two behaviours, liking and commenting, allow customers to show their affinity with a brand, a product or service. Although both “like” and “comment” are performed in public space, “like” is considered as less visible and less exposing to public. When a customer likes a brand’s page or brand’s post, it will be appeared in the list of all those customers who like the same brands without showing any other information of the customers’ profiles as well as their thought or feelings about the brand. It is considered as more about basically building personal relationship with brand, which does not need to expose to the public (Wallace et al., 2012). In contrast, “Comment” is more visible, and it presents users’ feelings, opinions, etc. (Lipsman et al., 2012, Gummerus et al., 2012). When a customer comment in a brand’s post, everyone who visit brand’s page, can see and read that post (Facebook Developers, 2012). It is known that users can always change their privacy to prevent their profiles and comments to be seen by strangers. However, a study of Palis (2012) states that millions of users just ignore this feature. Thus, the comments of customers are usually easy to access with other customers and public who visits brand’s page. This COBRA type, including “like” (Nelson-Field et al., 2012; Wallace et al., 2014) and “share” brand-related content on social media (Shi et al., 2014), has gained significant favour among practitioners and researchers. Commenting on video(s) linked to brand X, commenting on post(s) related to brand X, commenting on picture(s)/graphic(s) related to brand X, sharing brand X related posts, liking picture(s)/graphic(s) related to brand X, and liking posts related to brand X are all examples of the contributing level of COBRA activities (Schivinski et al., 2016).

The creating type of COBRA

Finally, the development and online publication of brand-related content by the customers is conducted by the creating type of COBRA. The creating type of COBRA refers to the activities of creating and publishing brand-related content of customers in social media. This type of activities presents the strongest level of customer engagement with the brand (Muntinga et al., 2011) where the customers generate their own brand-related content which will be further consumed or contributed by other customers. This type of activities was examined in the previous studies in different topics such as co-creation (Füller et al., 2006; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2002), consumer empowerment (Pires et al., 2006; Wright et al., 2006), and more recently is user-generated content (UGC) (Berthon et al., 2008; Bruhn et al., 2012; Christodoulides et al., 2012; Daugherty et al., 2008; Schivinski and Dabrowski, 2015). UGC is defined as the content originally posted by users on social media networking sites, and not including content shared by users. All social media platforms (Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp, Wikipedia, Yelp, etc) contain UGC which ranges from posts, videos and reviews. UGC can be performed in brand's own pages or other social networking sites. For example, users can generate content related to a brand and then post/share on Youtube (videos), Yelp (reviews), blogs, etc. The creating COBRA type represents the highest level of engagement of the customers with brand-related content (Muntinga et al., 2011). The content created by customers refers to "customer-generated content" or "user-generated content" (UGC) and they can act like a stimulus for higher level of content consumption and/or contribution by other customers (Schivinski et al., 2019). These activities include producing brand-related articles and posting product reviews, as well as creating and uploading user-generated material on social media sites or blogs (Schivinski et al., 2016).

The measurement of these three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media was adopted from Schivinski et al. (2016) and is presented as follows.

	Measurement Items	
Consumption	CONS1	I read posts related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites
	CONS2	I read fanpage(s) related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites
	CONS3	I view pictures/graphics related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites
	CONS4	I follow blog(s) related to restaurant brands on social media
	CONS5	I follow restaurant brand(s)' page(s) on social media sites
Contribution	CONT1	I comment on video(s) related to restaurant brands on social media
	CONT2	I comment on post(s) related to restaurant brands on social media
	CONT3	I comment on picture(s)/ graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media
	CONT4	I share restaurant brand related post(s) on social media sites
	CONT5	I "Like" picture(s)/ graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media sites
	CONT6	I "Like" post(s) related to restaurant brands on social media sites
Creation	CREA1	I initiate post(s) related to restaurant brands on blogs
	CREA2	I initiate post(s) related to restaurant brands on social networking sites
	CREA3	I post picture(s)/ graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media
	CREA4	I post video(s) that show restaurant brands
	CREA5	I write post(s) related to restaurant brands on forums
	CREA6	I write review(s) related to restaurant brands

Table 4.1: Measurements of three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

4.4.2. Antecedents of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media – Uses & Gratifications Theory

The Uses and Gratification (U&G) theory, originally proposed by Katz (1959) and widely used in research to understand why users participate and engage with the internet, online communities, social media, and blogs, is used in this study to examine the antecedents of

customer engagement with brand-related content in social media. People utilise media and participate in media content to meet their certain needs and goals (Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Jahn et al., 2012). The U&G theory emerged from a functionalist perspective on mass media communication, and it is distinguished by using an inductive method to classify various motivations of media usage (Buzeta et al., 2020). U&G theory was first introduced in the 1950s in a study on the efficiency of radio media that examined reasons for the motives and behaviours of its audience.

The growth of computer-mediated communication and increased adoption of new media (e.g., social networking, virtual worlds) has led to a rise of U&G research in this new social media context (Kaye & Johnson, 2002; Ruggiero, 2000). When it comes to answering why particular media behaviours occur, the U&G hypothesis has been the most popular approach (Buzeta et al., 2020). According to the theory, users have a wide range of media possibilities to pick from and the reasons and motives for choosing a certain media will differ from one user to the next (Katz et al., 1974). The most common needs can be divided into three categories: content-orientated, relationship-orientated, and self-orientated. Content-orientated needs are based on media content, relationship-orientated needs are based on social interactions with others, and self-orientated needs are based on the need of each individual such as achieving certain status or the need for diversion (Buzeta et al., 2020; Jahn et al., 2012). These categories are used as major motivators for social media involvement with brand-related material in this study. It is posited that social media brand-related content can be grouped into three main categories based on its level of entertainment (de Vries et al., 2012), information (de Vries et al., 2012; Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013) and remuneration (Lee et al., 2013; Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013). Customers' requirements for knowledge, amusement, and recompense will be met via the delivery of these many types of material. This study looks at the customer needs for social connection with other users and brand enthusiasts in the relationship-orientated domain. Finally, customers may choose to interact with social media content because they expect it to affect their self-presentation, image, or status (Piehler et al., 2019). Customers that are part of a brand's social networking site defer values for their own personal identities in this situation (Buzeta et al., 2020). Fernandes & Castro (2020) stated that each level of COBRA is driven by customers' motivations, and in some situations, these can drive more than one COBRA type. Figure 4.10 presents the potential motivational factors of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media based on U&G theory. Moreover, table 4.2 will summarise these motivations in detail.

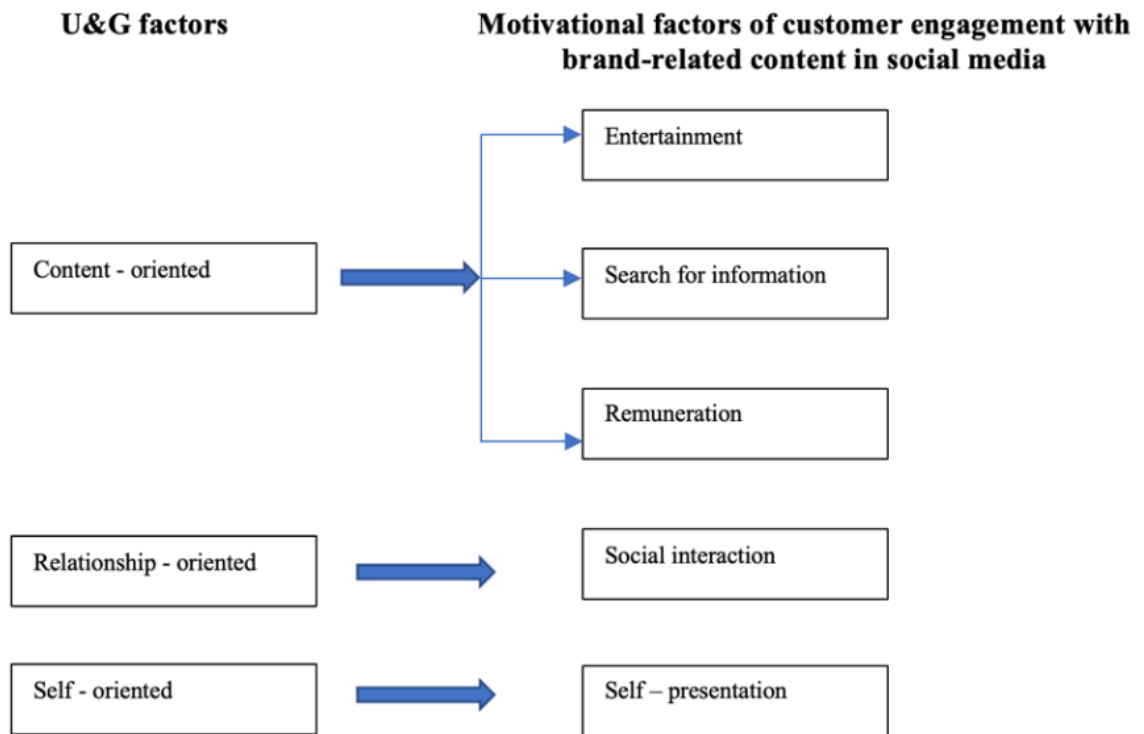


Figure 4.10: Motivations for customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

Motivation	Definition	Sub-motivations	Sources
Entertainment	The emotional relief generated by temporarily recreating or recessing from daily routines	Escape or being diverted from problems or routines; emotional release or relief; relaxation, passing time, having fun, and playing	Buzeta et al. (2020); Saridakis et al. (2016); Tsai and Men (2013); Muntinga et al. (2011), Shao (2009)
Information	Individuals' understanding of relevant events and conditions in the world around	Information seeking, information sharing, gaining social information, surveillance, and self-documentation	Khan and Dongping (2017); Sheldon and Bryant (2016); Azar et al. (2016); Shu and Chang (2011); Muntinga et al., 2011)
Remuneration	Users' intention to obtain some future benefit or external reward that basically stands apart from the behaviours	Obtaining economic incentives such as discounts and coupons, accessing sale promotions, taking part in competitions	Buzeta et al. (2020); Wallace et al. (2020); Schivinski et al. (2016); Azar et al. (2016); Muntinga et al. (2011)
Social interaction	The users' feeling of connection (to an online community, for instance) that enables them to increase their knowledge about other people's circumstance and augment individuals' social capabilities	The sense of belonging, the supportive peer groups and the enhanced interpersonal connections associated with media usage	Zhu and Chen (2015); Jahn and Kunz (2012); Muntinga et al. (2011)
Self-presentation	The need for shaping one's identity by providing an image of one's personality and by receiving peer recognition	Self-expression, social recognition, self-assurance	Schivinski et al. (2016); Jahn and Kunz (2012); Lee et al. (2012); Muntinga et al. (2011)

Table 4.2: Motivations of brand-related activities on social media according to U&G Theory

4.4.2.1. Entertainment

According to literature on social media, the most popular motivation for people to participate in Internet and social networking sites is entertainment. This concept of entertainment is also deemed relaxing (Shu & Chuang, 2011; Rohm et al., 2013), enjoyment (Curran & Lennon, 2011), amusement and having fun (Enginkaya & Yilmaz, 2014), and 'killing time' (Shu & Chuang, 2011:29). Curran & Lennon (2011) argued that attitudes toward social media content are most significantly influenced by enjoyment. Likewise, Muntinga et al. (2011) stated that entertainment is the motivation that is presented during all levels of engagement. In the most

passive stage, Muntinga et al. (2011) stressed that motivation for consuming brand-related content is mostly entertainment helps individuals relax, enjoy themselves, pass time when bored, and unwind from everyday life. In addition, it is believed that entertaining content can attract users to social networking sites and increase usage intensity (Jahn & Kunz, 2012) as well as increase customer satisfaction with the brand on social media (Gummerus et al., 2012). When it comes to contributing activities, Muntinga et al. (2011) and Shao (2009) proved that entertainment is a major motivation in engaging customers in content contribution as individuals feel enjoyment when they share common interests with others. When examining the message strategies which most likely used to promote online WOM, Swani et al. (2013) found that the content involving entertainment aspect is likely to gain more engagement such as likes and comments. Similarly, Cvijikj & Michahelles (2013) also agreed that entertaining content can significantly increase the number of likes, shares and comments on social media. Lastly, the importance of entertainment in creating brand-related content activities is also stressed in the work of Muntinga (2013) where the author argued that individuals enjoy creating content for their own satisfaction and fun. Thus, three hypotheses are proposed in the chosen context as follows:

H1: Entertainment is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.

H2: Entertainment is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.

H3: Entertainment is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.

The measurements of the entertainment construct were adopted from Shu & Chang (2011) with three items: ENT1 – “*My interactions on restaurant brands’ social media sites entertain me*”; ENT2 – “*My interaction on restaurant brands’ social media sites make me feel relaxed*”; and ENT3 – “*My interactions on restaurant brands’ social media sites help me to pass time when I am bored*”.

4.4.2.2. Search for information

The need to find information is linked to a variety of knowledge-related media gratifications mentioned in literature (Jahn et al., 2012; Enginkaya & Yilmaz, 2014). Finding out information is an important motivation for using social networking sites (Lin & Lu, 2011), joining

Facebook groups (Park et al., 2010), or participating in online brand communities (Shang et al., 2006; Zaglia, 2013) according to the literature, and social media has become the first-place consumers look for trustworthy information (Enginkaya & Yilmaz, 2014). People seek information to improve their consciousness and knowledge of themselves, others, and the world around them. “Consumers observe the brand-related social environment” and “learn how to make sense of things from their peers on just about any subject” (Bowman & Willis, 2003:40) through consuming brand-related information on Facebook. Furthermore, people read information to gain inspiration and fresh ideas or to make better-informed purchasing decisions (Muntinga et al., 2011). One of the most essential factors for attracting new followers to the brand fan page, according to Jahn & Kunz (2012), is gaining valuable functional material. Even if brand enthusiasts don't actively participate, their presence benefits the community's promotion and development (Sun et al., 2014).

When compared to persuasive material such as emotional content, informed content has been found to have no significant impact on levels of interaction in the form of likes and comments in the literature (Lee et al., 2013). Similarly, Cvijikj & Michahelles (2013) discovered that postings including brand information result in lower engagement than posts containing amusing material. Customers' passive involvement with a brand, is dictated by their informational needs more than customers' active involvement (de Vries et al., 2012; Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013). This study will look at the link between information seeking and three different levels of customer involvement with brand-related content on social media. Three hypotheses are proposed in the chosen context are as follows:

H4: Searching for information is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.

H5: Searching for information is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.

H6: Searching for information is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.

Searching for information is a three-item construct and the measurements were adopted from Shu & Chang (2011) and Azar et al. (2016): SFI1 – “*My interaction allows me to have a better*

understand of restaurant brands”; SFI2 – *“My interaction allows me to find out the opinions of restaurant brands from other customers”*; and SFI3 – *“My interaction gives me convenient access to information about restaurant brands”*.

4.4.2.3. Remuneration

Reward motivation is considered as “the degree to which community members want to gain utilitarian rewards (e.g., monetary rewards, time savings, deals or incentives, merchandising, and prizes) through their participation in the community” (Baldus et al., 2015:981). From the literature on social media, another motivation for people joining and using brands’ social networking sites is to participate in competitions and raffles, or to get some form of economic benefit such as discounts or rewards (Gummerus et al., 2012; Martins & Patrício, 2013). Social media content that offers these kinds of economic rewards, including monetary incentives, giveaways, prize draws or monetary compensations, are categorised as remuneration content and they meet the need of customers for remuneration as examined in U&G theory (Fuller, 2006). It is evident that remuneration is a primary reason for customers engaging with brand-related content on social media (Tsai & Men, 2013; Rohm et al., 2013). It is proven that individuals consume brand-related content because they expect some form of remuneration (Enginkaya & Yilmaz, 2014; Muntinga et al., 2011). Furthermore, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) discovered a positive relationship between economic incentives and customers’ contributions to eWOM. Thus, three hypotheses are proposed in the chosen context as follows:

H7: Remuneration is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.

H8: Remuneration is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.

H9: Remuneration is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.

Remuneration is measured as a two-item construct adopted from Azar et al. (2016): RE1 – *“I interact with restaurant brands’ content in order to access discounts and promotions”*; and RE2 – *“I like to interact with restaurant brands’ content as they offer contests and games from which I can access free meals or drinks or other special offers”*.

4.4.2.4. Social interaction

Consumers' need for social engagement and integration, as well as their desire for social advantages, have been recognised as significant motivators for using social media (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). According to previous studies, people make interactions on social media to make positive impressions on others or to connect with others. By using social media, they can gain a sense of belonging, connect with friends, family, and society, and finding support (Muntinga et al., 2011). Within a virtual brand community, Brodie et al. (2013) identify socialising as one of five sub-processes of customer interaction on social media. Consumers acquire attitudes, conventions, and/or a shared language through two-way, non-functional interactions known as socialising (Brodie et al., 2013:7). Indeed, customers can use brands to generate a sense of self-identity on social networking sites to make an impression on others (Wallace et al., 2012) and increase their social interaction (Shu & Chuang, 2011). Customers more likely to engage with others through interactions with content on social media (e.g., commenting on others' posts) when they are motivated by social influence factors in both physical and virtual contexts. Participating in online conversations and providing comments and feedback are examples of engaging behaviours in this situation (Ko et al., 2005). In addition, social interaction is suggested as an essential motivation for the creation of content by social media users (Daugherty et al., 2008). Social contact helps them to connect with others, feel a sense of belonging, and show their identity through the material that they create. Similarly, social interaction and integration is demonstrated as a key driver for attracting customers to join brand-pages and contribute and create brand-related content in several studies (Buzeta et al., 2020; Jahn & Kunz, 2012; Gummerus et al., 2012; Muntinga et al., 2011). Piehler et al. (2019) also state that social interaction is a driving factor in all three types of COBRA activities with regard to brand-related content on social media in order to satisfy customers' need for a sense of belonging. Based on those reasons, it can be hypothesised that the need for social interaction will be successful in facilitating positive engagement with brand-related content on social media. Thus, three hypotheses are proposed:

H10: Social interaction is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.

H11: Social interaction is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.

H12: Social interaction is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.

The measurement of a social interaction construct was adopted from Shu & Chang (2011) with four items: SI1 – “I can meet people like me on restaurant social media sites”; SI2 – “I can meet new people on restaurant social media sites”; SI3 – “I can find out about people like me on restaurant social media sites”; and SI4 – “I can interact with people like me on restaurant social media sites”.

4.4.2.5. Self-presentation

According to Tufekci (2008), many activities on social media platforms can be thought of as types of self-presentation such as users customise their accounts, connect with specific friends, display their likes and dislikes, and join groups to present themselves. Fan pages may be joined by consumers as they expect it to impact their image or status (Jahn & Kunz, 2012). Brand fan page members suspend expectations for their own personal identities in this scenario. Furthermore, Facebook users consciously use their profiles and status updates to project images of themselves. As a result, when consumers participate and interact in SNSs, consumer self-presentation can be defined as a motivating element. Self-expression is an important aspect of self-presentation. Self-expression refers to the representation of an individual’s own identity, especially their individuality. It can be assumed that by projecting their personalities on social media, people have a desire to show their inner selves to the outside world, and that they want other users to know them as well as they know themselves. Customers may want to show themselves among others by engaging with brand-related content on social media (Lee et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2010). Customers with greater social identity and self-presentation motives, according to Moon et al. (2013), will engage more with the brand and brand-related content on social media. Several research studies (Tsai & Men, 2017; Muntinga, 2013; Shao, 2009) stress the importance of the motivation for self-presentation in all three levels of brand-related content engagement. This motivation is related to contributing activities as people want to show an image of their personality to others, while they also want to show off and impress others by involving themselves in content creating activities (Muntinga et al., 2011). Therefore:

H13: Self-presentation is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.

H14: Self-presentation is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.

H15: Self-presentation is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.

This research adopted a four-item construct self-presentation from Lee et al. (2012): SP1 – “My interaction of restaurant social media sites helps me make good impression on others”; SP2 – “My interaction on restaurant social media sites helps me improve the way I am perceived”; SP3 – “My interaction on restaurant social media sites lets me present who I am to others”; and SP4 – “My interaction on restaurant social media sites lets me present who I want to be to others”.

4.4.3. Consequences of Customer Engagement with Brand-related content on social media

4.4.3.1. Attitude toward reviews and ratings

Customer engagement's content-related repercussions include attitudes toward reviews and ratings (Barger et al., 2016; Bahta & Muda, 2016; Thakur, 2017). An attitude, defined as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993:1), has been shown to influence behavioural intentions. Customer reviews and ratings are a type of user-generated material that includes consumers' experiences with product quality and the provider's services. Customer evaluations and ratings are becoming increasingly important in purchase decisions (Chu & Kim, 2011; Wang & Yu, 2015; King et al., 2014). Due to the credibility of user-generated content in the form of online reviews and ratings, it is deemed more credible than seller-generated content. As a result, online evaluations and ratings might be considered a unique form of eWOM communication (Yusuf et al., 2018; Bahta & Muda, 2016). Users may readily engage with one another on social networking sites and marketers have the ability to influence and interact with customers (Appel et al., 2020). It also includes a mix of user-generated content published on blogs, content communities, social platforms, rating sites, and virtual social worlds, all of which enable their users to create and maintain a community (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Plangger, 2012). With the rise in popularity of social media platforms like Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, and Twitter, consumers are now becoming vocal brand advocates rather than solely being passive recipients of commercial messages (Heinonen, 2011; Kotler et al., 2016).

Because of the time saved in making product and service selections, consumers thought that reading online customer reviews and ratings was beneficial. When it comes to finding and choosing specific items or services, online reviews of other social media users have become an increasingly useful tool (Rosario et al., 2019; Dai et al., 2020). According to Smith (2013), 60 percent of customers value reviews and ratings while evaluating products and services. Online reviews and ratings are an important consequence of customer participation in the restaurant sector (Lee & Ma, 2012; Mellet et al., 2014).

According to certain social media studies, customers' attitudes about user-generated content such as reviews and ratings will improve as their engagement with brand-related content increases (Lee & Ma, 2012; Mellet et al., 2014). The relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and customers' attitudes regarding reviews and ratings will be investigated in this study and will be conducted in the restaurant business.

H16: The consumption of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitudes toward reviews and ratings.

H17: The contribution of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitudes toward reviews and ratings.

H18: The creation of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitudes toward reviews and ratings.

Attitudes towards online reviews and ratings will be measured as a four-item construct adopted from Lee & Ma (2012): ARR1 – “*Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are good*”; ARR2 – “*Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are valuable*”; ARR3 – “*Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are positive*”; and ARR4 – “*Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are favourable*”.

4.4.3.2. Purchase/Visit intention

Purchase intention is defined as the intention to buy and is a psychological characteristic that exists between attitude and actual purchase behaviour (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2015). Purchase decisions in the brand selection process for well-known products are influenced by

the group and, in turn, the brand's group cohesiveness decides which brand to choose (Witt & Bruce, 1972).

Purchase intention without actual purchase is considered to be a part of customer engagement since it is an influential behaviour that can be utilised to disclose characteristics of both existing and potential customers (Vivek et al, 2012; Barger et al., 2016; Harrigan et al., 2017). Customer happiness, loyalty, word of mouth, brand attitude, and purchase intention are the most common outcomes of customer interaction according to literature evaluations. Purchase intention is one of these impacts that is thought to be a result of the others (Barger et al, 2016; Tiruwa et al., 2016; Huang et al, 2013). Purchasing intention also plays a vital part in growing sales and other purchase behaviours and it may therefore be considered a key goal and destination for organisations when it comes to establishing and maintaining consumer engagement. Moreover, a favourable association between high levels of content engagement and purchase intention has also been suggested in the literature (Ahn & Back, 2018; Schivinski et al., 2016). This relationship will be empirically tested in the context of the restaurant industry in this study. Thus:

H19: The consumption of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention

H20: The contribution of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention.

H21: The creation of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention.

The measurement of this construct was adopted from Tiruwa et al. (2016) with three items: PI1 – “I will definitely purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurant in the future”; PI2 – “I will continue to purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurants in the future”; and PI3 – “I will recommend products/services belonging to the restaurant brands to my friends/ family/colleagues in the future”.

In summary, fifteen hypotheses regarding the relationship between U&G motivational factors and three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media (H1 - H15), and six hypotheses regarding the relationship between each engagement level and the outcomes (H16 - H21) were developed. Figure 4.11 will present all twenty-one proposed hypotheses.

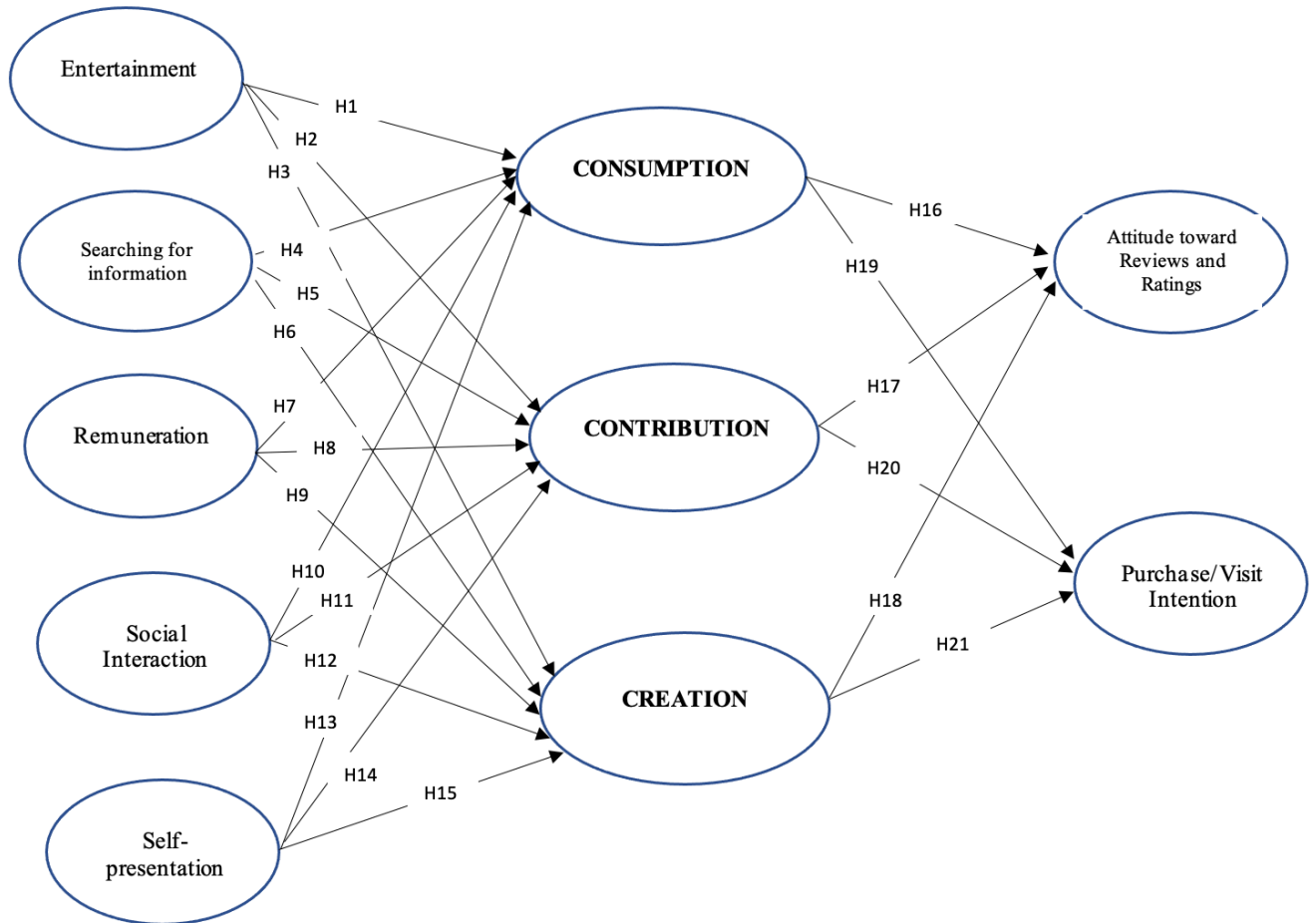


Figure 4.11: Conceptual Framework with proposed hypotheses

4.5. Summary

This chapter has provided an understanding of the theoretical background that underpins this research. First, the COBRA framework is used in order to understand different levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. According to this framework, the engagement behaviours can be categorised into three levels from passive to active: consumption, contribution, and creation. In addition, each of these engagement levels on social media is driven by certain motivations as individuals have a wide range of needs they want to fulfil. In this study, based on U&G theory, five motivations were considered:

entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation. Moreover, two outcomes of customer engagement with brand-related content were studied in this research: attitude toward online reviews and ratings, and purchase/visit intention. This study aims to provide a greater understanding of customer engagement behaviours towards restaurant brands, as well as what motivations drive customers to engage with brand-related content in social media sites, through COBRA typology. Also, it aimed to examine whether the content engagement has an influence on attitudes toward online reviews and ratings and restaurant visit intention. Fifteen hypotheses showing relationships between proposed motivations and three level of COBRAs, and six hypotheses regarding the relationship between three level of COBRAs and the outcomes, were developed and presented. The next chapter will present the methodology and data collection method adopted in this research.

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER FIVE – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

In the Chapters 2 and 3, the foundation of customer engagement with brand-related content (CEBC) in social media and other relevant constructs have been outlined. The potential antecedents and consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content have also been examined and the relationships between them and customer engagement with brand-related content dimensions were hypothesised in the proposed model in Chapter 4. This chapter will present and justify the methodology utilised in this research for testing and validating the proposed conceptual framework. Firstly, the broad view of research philosophy in social science, including definitions of ontology, epistemology, methodology as well as their application to the current research, is introduced. This study is guided by a positivist paradigm with a quantitative approach in order to propose and test hypotheses which are developed from theories and previous studies. Next, a discussion regarding research design employed in this study and a justification behind that choice will be provided. Furthermore, of the sampling process is described and the data collection is presented. Lastly, the data analyses, including Structural Equation Modeling, will be outlined and discussed. Figure 5.1 shows the structure of the chapter in detail.

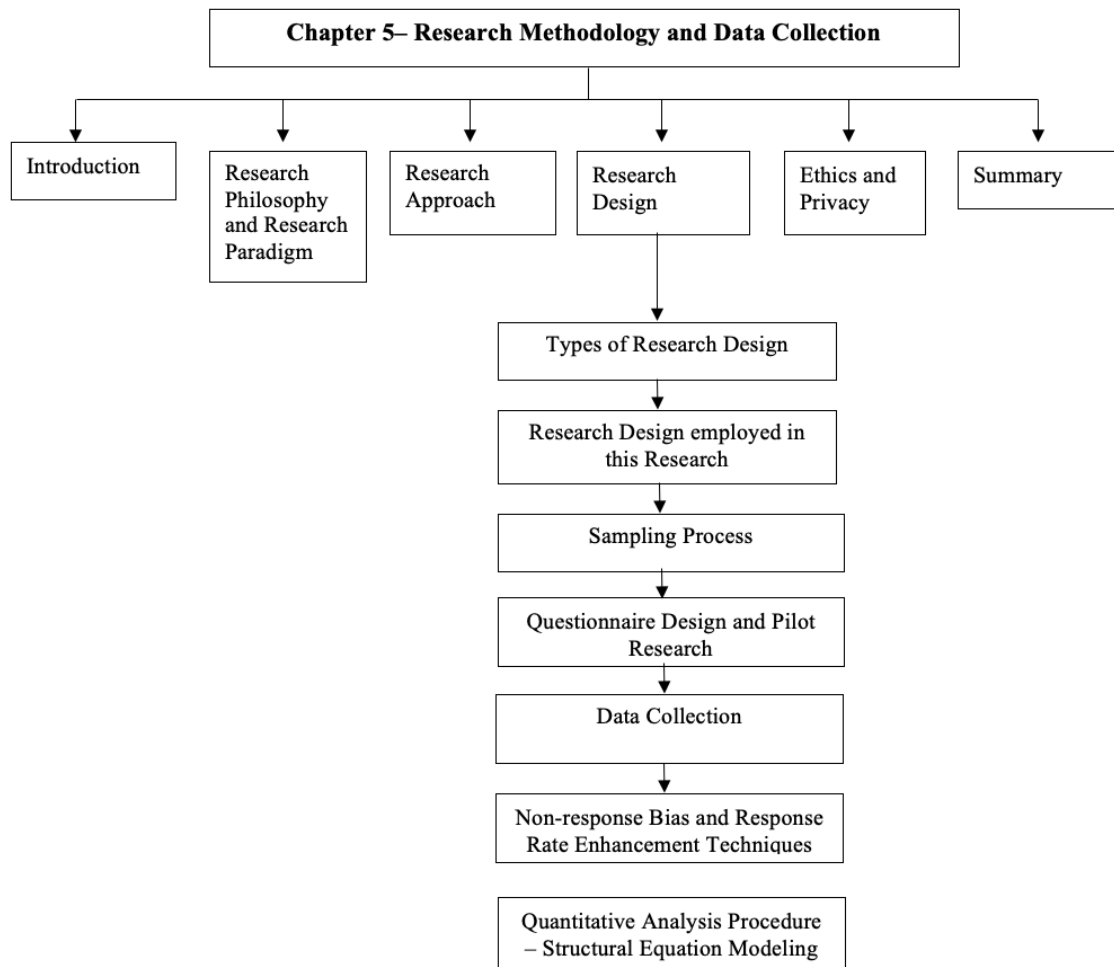


Figure 5.1: Structure of Chapter Six – Research Methodology

5.2. Research Philosophy and Research Paradigms

5.2.1. Research Philosophy and Research Paradigm Approaches

Research philosophy is defined as a “framework that guides how research should be conducted based on ideas about reality and the nature of knowledge” (Collis & Hussey, 2014:43). It refers to people's beliefs about how a phenomenon should be understood and analysed (Saunders et al., 2007). Crossan (2003) points out several reasons why research philosophy should be thoroughly acknowledged before conducting any study. Firstly, by understanding research philosophy the researcher may easily clarify which method should be used in the study to gather data and evidence to answer research questions. Secondly, acknowledgement of research philosophy may help researchers avoid unnecessary and unrelated works because they understand the most appropriate methodologies. Lastly, it helps researchers to be more flexible and creative when exploring and choosing research methods for their studies. In summary, the

adopted research philosophy in each study (also considered as research paradigm) will guide the researchers' decisions of which research design and research methodology should be used (Creswell, 2009; Crossan 2010). There are three main fundamental elements of research philosophy, including ontology, epistemology, and methodology.

Ontology - is defined as “an area of philosophy that deals with the nature of being or what exists; the area of philosophy that asks what reality is and what the fundamental categories of reality are” (Neuman, 2011:111). So basically, ontology answers the question: what is the nature of reality?

Epistemology - is defined as “a theory that deals with the nature of knowledge, its scope, and provides a set of criteria for evaluating knowledge claims and establishing whether such claims are warranted” (Khazanchi & Munkvold, 2003:2). In other words, it deals with the possibilities and sources of knowledge.

Methodology - Kothari (2004) defines it as the procedure in which the knowledge is created. In this procedure the specific methods, techniques, and processes will be used in order to identify problems, gathering and analysing data, and solving problems (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The three main approaches of research paradigms in social science, including Positivism (or Objectivism), Interpretivism (or Subjectivism), and Critical paradigm, will be clarified in the following sections with the comparison of ontology, epistemology, types of data, and roles of researchers of each paradigm.

5.2.1.1. Positivism

Positivism is believed to be the most commonly used research approach in social science (Cohen et al., 2007; Rehman & Alharthi, 2016; Richard, 2003). Positivist research is defined as research where “there is evidence of formal propositions, quantifiable measures of variables, hypothesis testing, and the drawing of inferences about a phenomenon from a representative sample to a stated population” (Klein & Myers, 1999:69). The ontology of this approach is realism where “reality exists independently of humans” (Richard, 2003). Only with the method of putting the studied subjects in real contexts to confirm the possibility of different theories could researchers acquire the fundamental characteristics of reality. The subjects of this testing

process may include the actual objects, processes, or structures. The epistemology of positivism is objectivism. Positivist researchers always try to observe and understand phenomena of the social world objectively and they do not disturb or affect what is being observed.

According to Rehman & Alharthi (2016), experimentation is the main approach of positivist research. Hypotheses are usually proposed and presented in question form to express the causal relationship between phenomena. Evidence used in positivist research is usually empirical evidence and analysed following a deductive approach (Cohen et al., 2007). In other words, it relies on quantifiable observations and uses statistical analyses in order to test hypotheses and answer the research questions. Cohen et al. (2007) pointed out that the purposes of positivist research are measuring, controlling, predicting, constructing the laws and the causality.

5.2.1.2. Interpretivism

Interpretivism is a “response to the over-dominance of positivism” (Grix, 2004:82). Klein & Myers (1999:69) said the research could be defined as interpretive research if

it is assumed that our knowledge of reality is gained only through social constructs such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, documents, tools, and other artifacts. Interpretive research does not predefine dependent and independent variables but focuses on the complexity of human sense-making as a situation emerges.

In contrast to positivist research, interpretivism implies that objective observation is not possible’ and the reality does not exist independently of humans (Oates, 2006). According to interpretivism, the reality is always mediated by a human’s sense and depends on their backgrounds, point of views, and so on. In other words, the epistemology basis of interpretivism is subjective. Social phenomena in interpretive research are understood “through the eyes of participants rather than the researcher” (Cohen et al., 2007:21). The data used in interpretivism research is primarily qualitative and can be analysed following the inductive approach. The data is usually in verbal form such as audio/video records to “preserve the events in a fairly authentic manner for subsequent data analysis” (Gall et al., 2003:21). The methods are employed in the interpretive research in order to generate qualitative data with no or limited involvement of numerical data, for example open-ended interviews and observations.

5.2.1.3. Critical paradigm

Another important paradigm used in social science research is the critical paradigm. Research can be classified as a critical paradigm when

the main task is seen as being one of social critique whereby the restrictive and alienating conditions of the status quo are brought to light. Critical research seeks to be emancipatory in that it aims to help eliminate the causes of unwarranted alienation and domination and thereby enhance the opportunities for realising human potential (Klein & Myers, 1999:69).

While the purpose of both positivist and interpretive research is to understand reality, the research with critical paradigm aims to change the social world (Neuman, 2011). The ontology basis of critical research is historical realism where facts are believed to exist independently and are affected by cultural, political, gender, religious and ethnic factors that all build a social system (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Epistemology of critical research is subjective. In critical studies, “knowledge is generated and justified by a critical evaluation of social systems in the context of researchers’ theoretical framework adopted to conduct research” (Khazanchi & Munkvold, 2002:14). Data used in critical research is usually qualitative, however, quantitative data also can be used (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

5.2.2. The choice of Research Paradigm

After examining the three fundamental approaches of research paradigm in the previous sections, a comparison of these approaches is presented in Table 5.1 and a chosen approach for this current research was also rationalised and justified based on the research objectives in Chapter 1. The positivism therefore was adopted as the appropriate paradigm for the current research for reasons regarding ontological and epistemological perspectives. In terms of ontology assumptions, this research aims to discover the laws – here are the unexplored areas of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media. From the epistemological perspective, current research aims to empirically test the proposed hypotheses meaning the positivism is the appropriated choice.



	Positivism	Interpretivism	Critical research	This research
Ontological Assumptions	- Realism: in which an understandable reality is assumed to exist, driven by immutable laws. True nature of reality can only be obtained by testing theories about actual objects, processes of structures in the real worlds	- Relativism: the social world is produced in reinforced by humans through their action and interaction	- Historical realism: where the world is not a universe of facts that exist independently of the observer. It is assumed that “a reality exists, but it has been shaped by cultural, political, ethnic, gender and religious factors which interact with each other to create a social system”	- <i>Researcher believes in objective reality.</i> - <i>Reality is empirically evident</i> - <i>Aims to discover laws</i>
Epistemological Assumptions	Objectivism: - Verification of hypothesis through rigorous empirical testing - Search for universal laws or principles - Tight coupling among explaining, prediction and control	Subjectivism: - Understanding of the social world from participant’s perspective, through interpretation of their meanings and actions - Researchers’ prior assumptions, beliefs, values, and interests always intervene and shape their investigation	Subjective in that it is assumed that no object can be researched without being affected by the researcher - Knowledge is generated and justified by critical evaluation of social systems in the context of researchers’ theoretical framework adopted to conduct research	- <i>Propose hypothesis and should be empirically tested to verify</i> - <i>Study to find out the existed laws and principles</i> - <i>Researcher believes in deductive reasoning</i>
Role of the Researchers	Objective: impartial observer, passive, value-neutral	Interactive: the researcher interacts with the human subjects of the enquiry, changing the perceptions of both party	Transformative: initiating change in social relations and practices, helping to eliminate the bases of alienation and domination	<i>Objective: impartial observer and passive</i>

Table 5.1: A Comparative Overview of Research Paradigm and the choice of Current Research Paradigm (adapted from Khazanchi & Munkvold, 2003)

5.3. Research Approach

The different paradigms were examined in the previous sections and the appropriate choice for the current research was justified. Based on the research objectives addressed in Chapter 1 and the explanation in Table 6.1, this study selected positivism as the appropriate research paradigm. In this section and the next section, the research approach and research design of this study will be assessed in detail.

The research approach (also called research methodology) is defined as a plan of how research is done, a procedure consisting of data collection and data analysis from broad to detailed (Kothari, 2004). There are two primary research approaches: the Qualitative (Inductive) approach and the Quantitative (Deductive) approach. Quantitative (Deductive) research aims to test the proposed hypotheses related to existing theories. In quantitative research, close-ended questions are often used; sometimes, open-ended questions are also included but that has to be coded numerically. This type of research is usually performed in large, probability samples in order to provide reliable and valid results which can be considered as representative of the universe. Analysis of this research is proceeded by using statistics, charts, and tables to examine and discuss how the results relate to the hypotheses. Figure 5.2 represents the deductive process in quantitative approach.

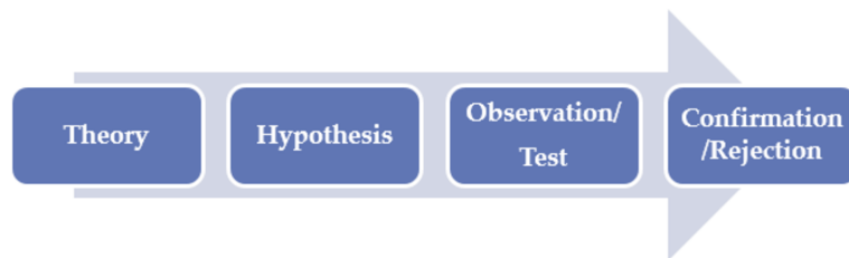


Figure 5.2: Quantitative (Deductive) approach of research

Qualitative (Inductive) research, in contrast, does not have involvements of hypotheses. These aim to capture and discover meaning from generalising evidence and organising data. Open-ended and unstructured questions are often used in in-depth interviews and focus groups in qualitative research. Data is collected from observations, documents, and transcripts are viewed as words and images. This type of research is often conducted in small and nonprobability samples and the findings are usually not representative of the universe. Figure 5.3 below shows an inductive process in the qualitative approach.

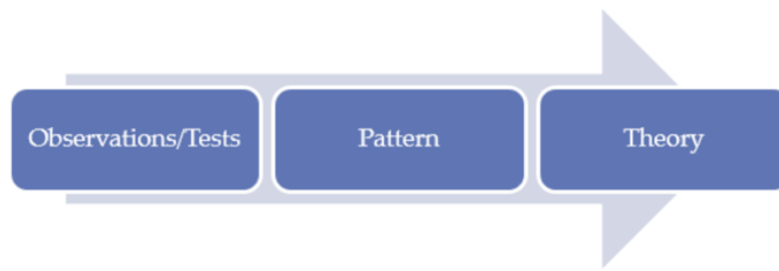


Figure 5.3: Qualitative (Inductive) approach of research.

Table 5.2 shows the comparison between quantitative and qualitative approach as well as the choice for this research.

This research adopts a quantitative (deductive) approach for several reasons. The first reason is related to the paradigm of the research. As stated in the previous section (section 6.2.2), the positivism paradigm is adopted in this research and as it usually includes the form of variables and hypotheses, then the quantitative approach is appropriate. This choice is also supported by the research objectives. Qualitative research is often considered when generating new theories or hypotheses, whereas quantitative is used to test the proposed hypotheses and illustrate the correlations between variables. This study has proposed hypotheses in Chapter 5 and aims to test them in the chosen context and, therefore, a quantitative approach is chosen. Another reason is regarding the nature of data. While qualitative research uses soft data such as words and images, the hard data in the form of numbers are used in quantitative research. Different forms of data require different data collection methods. In this research, the data will be collected in numerical form and analysed using statistics, so it is quantitative research. Finally, the current research is conducted with a linear research path which following a clear step-by-step route, therefore, appropriate for quantitative research. For all the mentioned reasons, the quantitative approach was adopted in current research.

	Quantitative research	Qualitative research	This research
Study purpose	Testing hypotheses that are stated at the beginning	Capturing and discovering meaning once they become immersed in the data	<i>Proposing and testing hypotheses which is developed from the theories and previous studies</i>
Types of questions	Close-ended questions with predefined possible responses and open-ended questions that have to be coded numerically. Most questionnaires include attitude scales and, generally, the questions are not disguised	Open-ended, unstructured questions and further probing by the interviewer. Projective techniques include disguised questions where the respondents do not know the true purpose of the questions and are asked to freely respond to such as words or pictures.	<i>Online questionnaire with close-ended questions. In order to measure the constructs in the proposed model, the attitude scale is used.</i>
Data collection method	Questionnaires are used in surveys conducted in person, by phone or mail, or online. Observation of respondents is also used. Experimentation is used to test cause-and-effect relationships.	In-depth interviews and focus groups are used.	<i>Online survey</i>
Data type	Data are in the form of numbers from the precise measurement.	Data are in the form of words and images from documents, observations, and transcripts.	<i>The collected data are coded and entered to the database. Numbers are assigned to the options of each question and therefore the collected data are in the form of numbers.</i>
Sampling method	Large, probability samples. Providing that the data collection instruments are valid and reliable, the result can be viewed as representative of the universe.	Small, nonprobability samples; the findings are generally not representative of the universe under study.	
Data analysis	Analysis proceeds by using statistics, tables, or charts and discussing how what they show relates to hypotheses.	Analysis proceeds by extracting themes and generalisations from evidence and organising data to present a coherent, consistent picture.	<i>The collected data are analysed using statistic.</i>

Table 5.2: A comparison between quantitative and qualitative research and the choice of current study.

5.4. Research Design

Churchill (1999:98) defines a research design as the “plan of study used as a guide in collecting and analysing data”. A research design must be coherent and consistent, following research objectives and research questions (Saunders et al., 2007). It is essential to have a straightforward research design at the beginning of every research as it will decide which types of data to be collected, which data collection techniques are used, and which sampling method to be utilised (Hair et al., 2003). A well-defined research design, therefore, will increase the effectiveness of conducting research process (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The types of research design will be examined in the following sections.

5.4.1. Types of Research Design

Research design can be classified into three main types: exploratory research, descriptive research, and casual research (Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

First of all, according to the study of Malhotra & Birks in 2006, exploratory research is the process of investigating the problems to get a profound insight into their fundamental essence. To explain it more clearly, this method is considered particularly useful in the process of investigating “what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light” (Robson, 2002: 59). This type of study is described as an evolutionary approach with such a considerably flexible structure when it comes to specific characteristics. Exploratory research is typically applied in the following circumstances: first, exploratory research is adopted when a quantitative approach is not practical since the nature of the issue cannot be measured based on the number or amount scale. Second, apart from the main questions, if the researchers are confronting plenty of sub-problems that are also in need of being specified, then exploratory research is applied. Third, exploratory research will also be useful when more progress or development is required to be made in terms of research questions or hypotheses. As mentioned in a study by Malhotra & Birks (2006), exploratory research can be conducted as an individual study or be regarded as an initial step in the study design which is normally followed by descriptive or causal research. This method involves the study of literature (Saunders et al., 2007), and expert surveys as well as qualitative interviews (Saunders et al., 2007; Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

Moreover, descriptive research is also considered a valuable type of research design. The foundation of the method is to approach the problem through a categorical scheme which can

involve a collection of questions and hypotheses under study and other specific information (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Therefore, this method usually comprises a pre-planned and stable structure. According to a study by Hair et al. (2003), the primary purpose of descriptive research is to use the scientific methods and procedures to acquire a set of information and present a description of the existing nature that can be found in a defined target group. Researchers can take plenty of benefits from this approach when they aim at confirming the possibility of potential hypotheses or when the relationships among particular variables require examining (Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

Finally, to evaluate the cause-and-effect relationships between independent variables and dependent ones, casual research is usually applied (Churchill, 1999; Hair et al., 2003). This kind of conclusive research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006) is especially helpful when the research aims is to analyse the causality among measured variables. On the one hand, with this method researchers not only assess the connection among the studies' subjects, but they can also explain the reasons behind them. On the other hand, casual research designs have a tendency to be rather complicated which usually requires a considerable deal of devotion in both time and expenses (Hair et al., 2003). The structure of this method is carefully planned in advance which is similar to that of descriptive research. However, from the study of Malhotra & Birks (2006), we can conclude that casual research will be particularly effective in assessing cause and effect relationships in case independent variables are manipulated by controlled conditions in which descriptive method cannot be applied. In order to successfully carry out casual research, experimental designs are regarded as the most major method used (Hair et al., 2003; Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

5.4.2. Research Design employed in this Research

Based on current research objectives, the descriptive design is employed in this research. Moreover, in association with the positivism paradigm and deductive approach, a survey (with a specific choice of the online questionnaire) is adopted over other descriptive methods such as observation or case-study because it could be done as a large sample.

Survey: A research survey is defined as “the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions” (Check & Schutt, 2012:160). This type of research comprises various methods of recruiting participants to collect data. Surveys can be used in both quantitative (e.g., close-ended questionnaires) and qualitative research (e.g., using

open-ended questionnaires). This method is widely used as it can be performed cheaper and faster compared to other primary data collection such as experiments and observation, especially in a larger sample (Singleton & Straits, 2009). Structured observation, structured interviews, and questionnaires are included in the survey method. This research, in association with the positivism paradigm and quantitative approach, will adopt an online questionnaire to collect data.

Online questionnaire: An online, web-based questionnaire will be applied in this research because of its advantages over other types of questionnaires (shown in Figure 5.2). First, online questionnaires are more flexible in data collected as researchers can use various formats of questions (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Moreover, Evans & Mathur (2005) suggest that it is easier to target and choose specific respondents' demographical aspects when using a web-based questionnaire. The web-based questionnaire also allows researchers to incorporate respondents' answers as subsequent answers and can also require respondents to provide the correct number of responses to each question which helps cut down on errors and insufficient responses (Hair et al., 2010).

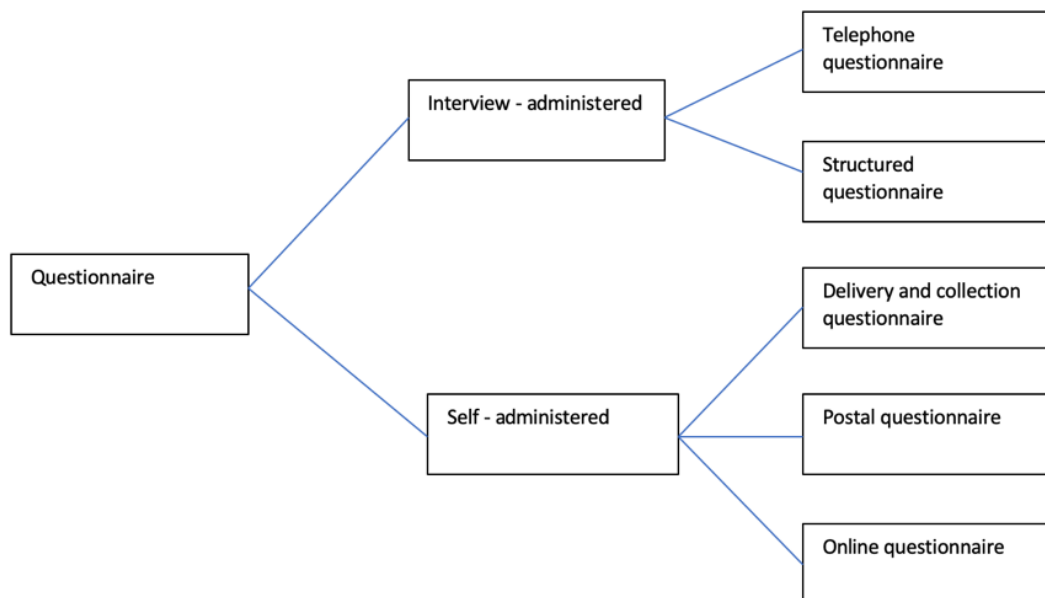


Figure 5.4: Different types of Questionnaires (adapted from Saunders et al., 2003)

In the next sections, the research design will be presented in more detail including the sampling process and questionnaire design process as well as data analysing and measuring procedure.

5.4.3. Sampling Process

Sampling process is defined as the utilisation of different methods to collect adequate data from the population instead of examining the whole population (Neuman, 2011). Probability sampling and non-probability sampling are the two types of sampling methods.

Probability sampling is the process of choosing participants based on the equal chance of each sample element (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Probability sampling comprises simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Figure 5.5 presents four types of probability sampling methods.

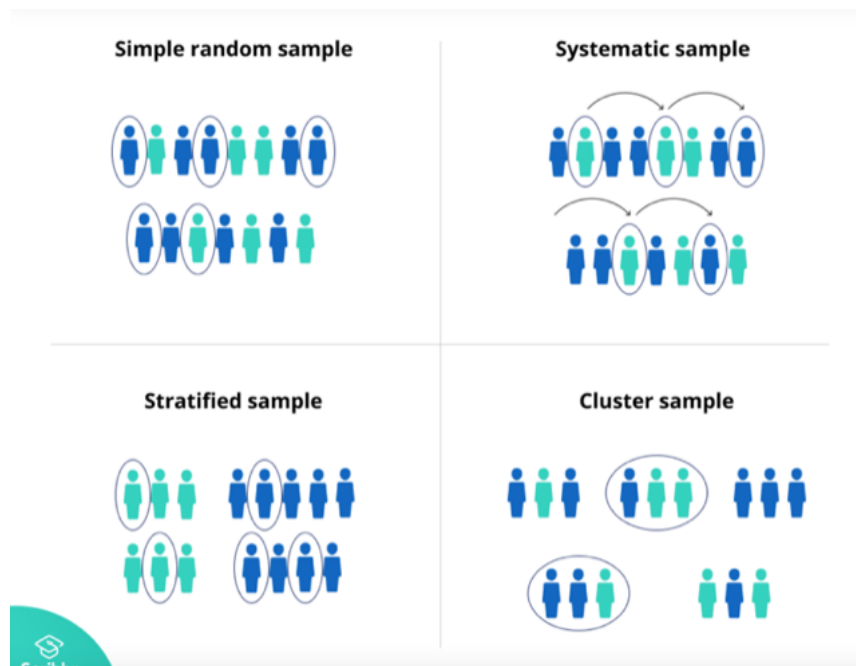


Figure 5.5: Four types of Probability Sampling

Simple random sampling: Simple random sampling means everyone in the population has an equal chance to be chosen. This sample is usually a good representation of the whole population.

Systematic sampling: In a systematic sampling method, each member of the population is given a number, and individuals of the sample are then chosen at regular intervals. This is usually a more convenient and easier way to administer, however more shows bias when compared to simple random sampling.

Stratified sampling: In a stratified sampling method, the population is grouped based on how they differ from each other (e.g., gender, age, income, etc). Then, the number of samples in each subgroup will be calculated based on proportions of the population. After that, a simple random or systematic sampling method will be used to choose a sample from each subgroup. Stratified sampling method increases the accuracy and representativeness of the sample.

Cluster sampling: in this method, the population is divided into subgroups which have similar characteristics. Then, instead of choosing individuals from each subgroup to frame a sample, the entire subgroup will be selected randomly. This method is usually utilised to deal with a large and dispersed population but there may be more risk of error in the sample so the representative of the whole population might not be guaranteed.

In contrast, **non-probability** is the way of choosing participants relying on the personal judgement of researchers. This method of sample is usually cheap and easy, however has higher risk of sampling bias. Non-probability sampling includes convenience sampling, voluntary response sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling. Non-probability sampling methods are often utilised in qualitative and exploratory research. Four types of non-probability sampling methods are shown in Figure 5.6.

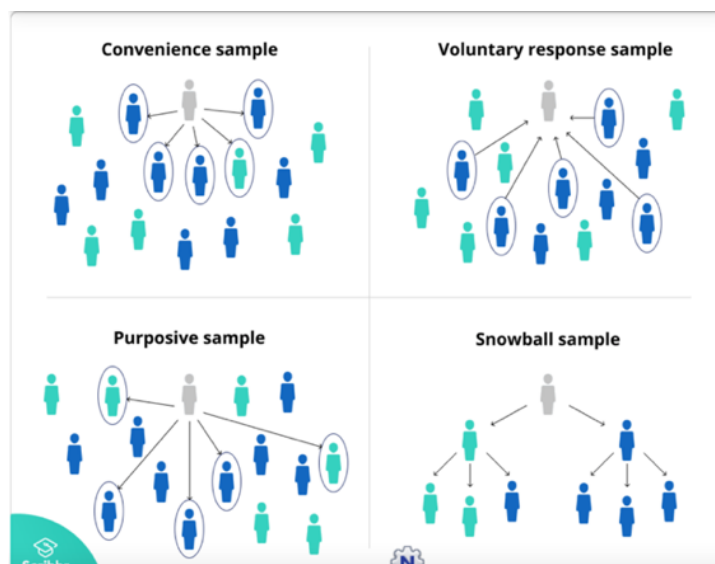


Figure 5.6: Four types of non-probability Sampling

Convenience sampling: In convenience sampling, individuals are chosen because of the convenient accessibility to the researcher. The use of this method is easy and inexpensive, however, the representative of the whole population is not guaranteed.

Voluntary response sampling: This method is also mainly based on the ease of access. However, in contrast to convenience sampling where the researcher chooses participants directly, people volunteer themselves to become individuals of the sample.

Purposive sampling: This method can also be referred to as judgement sampling. In this type of sampling, the researcher will use their expertise to choose the most appropriate sample for the research. The process of choosing participants is based demographics, attitudes, behaviours, etc. This method is often used in qualitative method. Purposive sampling has the advantage of being time- and cost-effective But, in turn, it has a high risk of bias because it relies solely on the researchers' judgements.

Snowball sampling: This method involves choosing a group of respondents who can help the researcher to identify additional respondents to include in their research. This method is usually employed when it is hard to access to the population of the research. However, this method also has a significant risk of sampling bias.

	Sampling Type	Advantages	Disadvantages
Probability sampling	Simple random sampling	- Data results can be generalized - Un-bias	- Difficult to obtain an accurate list of target population elements
	Systematic random sampling	- Easy to draw a sample and ensure randomness - Well presentative for the whole population	- Potential for hidden patterns in the data that can be overlooked by the researchers
	Stratified random sampling	- Increase the accuracy and representativeness of the sample	- Difficulty in determining the basis for stratifying
	Cluster sampling	- Cost effective and feasibility of implementation	- More potential risks of the error in the sample leading to a low representativeness of the whole population
Non-probability sampling	Convenience sampling	- Easy and inexpensive	- the representativeness for the whole population is not guaranteed
	Voluntary response sampling	- Easy to access the sample	- The researcher does not have control over the composition of a sample - High potential bias as most respondents who volunteer have strong opinions on the subject
	Purposive sampling	- Time-effective and cost-effective	- High risk of bias as this method based only on judgement of researcher
	Snowball sampling	- Reduce sample size and cost-effective	- Significant risk of bias

Table 5.3: Comparisons between Sampling Methods

The comparisons of different sampling methods regarding their advantages and disadvantages are presented in Table 5.3. According to Hair et al. (2003), it is necessary to consider the five following factors when selecting appropriate sampling strategy. Firstly, an appropriate sampling method is chosen based on the research questions and research objectives as they help to determine the research population. The second factor is the required level of accuracy and representativeness of the results. The third factor is research's financial and human resources. In addition, time frame is another requirement needs to be considered when selecting sampling method. And final factor affecting sampling method chosen is the research scope.

Considering all the above variables that affect the sampling method, the next sections will discuss in detail the key issues regarding the sample of this research, including target population, sampling method and sample size.

5.4.3.1. Sampling method

The target population of this study are people who are social media users and familiar with the chosen context set in Chapter One. This study proposed to collect data in Vietnam, from Golden Gate Restaurant Group.

About Golden Gate Restaurant Group in Vietnam

Founded in 2005, Golden Gate is a national group owning more than 20 different brands with over 400 restaurants in 45 provinces nationwide. Golden Gate is a well-known pioneer in applying the restaurant chain models in Vietnam. Its 20 different brands cover five main dining cuisines including Hotpots (e.g., Kichi Kichi, Ashima, Hutong); BBQ (e.g., Sumo BBQ, Gogi); Asian (e.g., iPho, 37 Street, iSushi); Western (e.g., Vuvuzela, Cowboy Jack's) and cafeteria (e.g., Citi Beer) (Golden Gate Group, 2022)

MILESTONES



Figure 5.7: Milestones with brands' appearance of Golden Gate restaurant Group since founded.

With its variety of concepts and cuisines, Golden Gate serves around 18 million customers per year, covering a wide range of customers regarding different ages, genders, and income statuses. It is now considered as the largest F&B (Food & Beverage) chain in Vietnam without comparable competitors (Forbes Vietnam, 2022).

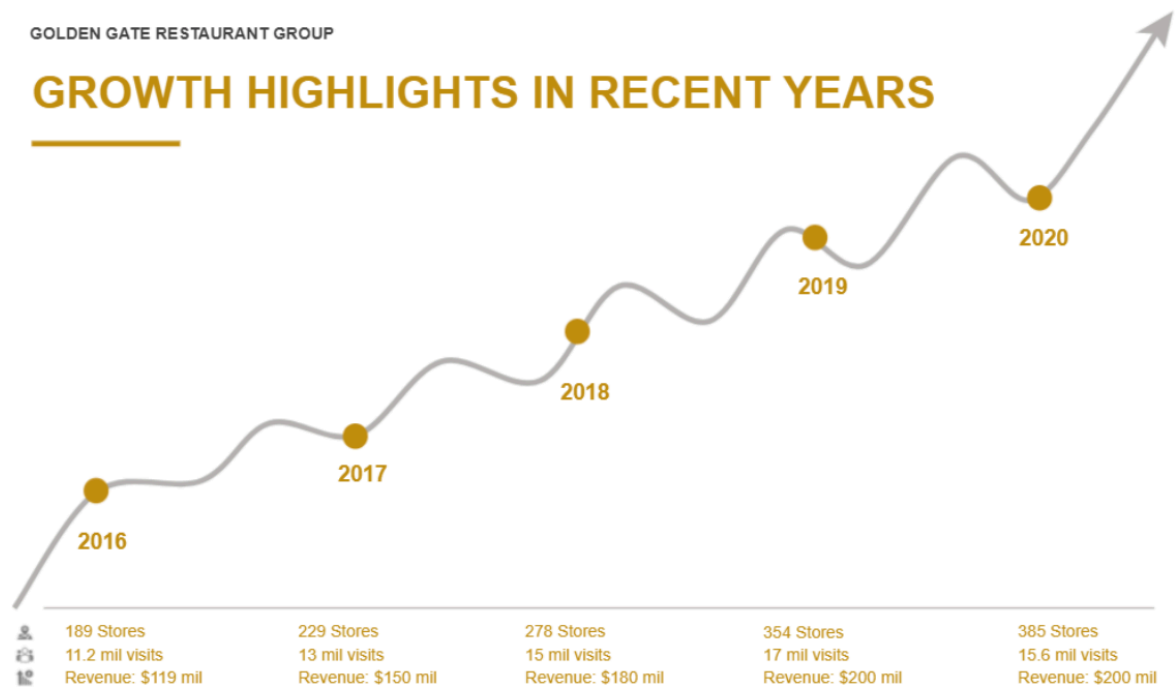


Figure 5.8: The growth of Golden Gate Restaurant in recent years

Golden Gate has a strong presence in social media with the use of various platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, Zalo, Whatsapp, etc. It has nearly 1 million active members in its online social media community, including members of its 20 brands' social media platforms. A wide range of brand-related content are posted regularly in their platforms and many engagement behaviours can be seen. Content posted includes brand-related information (such as information about products, opening time, services, information about an event), quizzes, games, recipes, deals and offers, instructions for booking, etc, in different forms of texts, photos, videos, pools, and so on.

Sampling method adopted in this research

The sampling method utilised in this research is a mixture of non-probability and probability techniques. In regard of non-probability sampling, convenience sampling and voluntary response sampling are adopted. The questionnaire was posted on the researcher's Facebook page seeking for voluntary respondents as well as sent to the researcher's Facebook friend list which as convenient to access. There are some reasons for choosing convenience sampling at this step. The first reason is the limited availability of time and other resources leading to a

selection of simple and less time-consuming sampling methods. Moreover, obtaining a complete list of the population is impossible, implying the likely choice of a non-probability sampling method. “A lack of adequate lists may automatically rule out systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling or any other type of probability sampling method” (Hair et al., 2003:364).

In the second approach, a simple random probability sampling method was adopted. The participants were chosen randomly from the customer list with Golden Gate Restaurant Group and the invitations were sent via email. Moreover, the respondents were also recruited by extending invitations through Golden Gate’s website, Golden Gate’s Facebook page, and 20 Facebook pages of its brands/concepts to find participants who would volunteer to take part in the research. The research proposes to collect data from Golden Gate to ensure that the respondents have specific interactions with a restaurant’s social media sites and represent the nationwide population. The Golden Gate Group has a solid social media presence with many active members. Collecting data from the Golden Gate Group can ensure that the targeted respondents have specific interactions with a restaurant’s social media sites. It is also worth to mention that there is no personal relationship between the researcher and Golden Gate Group. The Golden Gate supports for the current research and in turn, the key findings of the research will be shared with the Golden Gate for free. The researcher will grant the Golden Gate group no access to the collected data but only the results once the data is processed and analysed.

5.4.3.2. Sampling size

Determining sample size is defined as the act of choosing the appropriate number of observations to conduct research. The sample size is an essential aspect of any empirical research to ensure the findings are reliable and representative of the whole population. The larger the sample is, the more valid and reliable the results are. However, the sample size is also based on the cost, time, and convenience of collecting data. Therefore, it is crucial in any research to calculate the appropriate size of the sample.

This research will employ the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method to analyse the model and test the hypotheses. There are several rules applied to determining the adequate sample size in order to perform SEM. Ding et al. (1995) proposed that 100 to 150 is the minimum appropriate sample size for SEM. Hair et al. (2010) also state that SEM will be considered to be unreliable with a small sample size and suggests a sample size of 100 to 500

based on the number of observed variables, number of constructs, and item communalities (shown in Table 5.4).

Based on the suggestions mentioned above, a sample size of 500 is proposed for this quantitative research.

Minimum sample size	Number of Items (Observed variables)	Number of constructs in the model	Item communalities
100	More than three items	Five or fewer constructs	High communalities (0.6 or higher)
150	Not important	Seven or less construct	Modest communalities (0.5)
300	Not important	Seven or less constructs	Lower communalities (below 0.45)
500	Fewer than three observed measures	Large number of constructs	Some lower communalities

Table 5.4: Suggested Sample (adapted from Hair et al., 2010)

5.4.4. Questionnaire Design

This section will describe the process of designing a questionnaire, following the steps outlined in Figure 5.9, adopted from a study by Malhotra & Birks (2006). In that research, Malhotra & Birks pointed out three main objectives of any questionnaire. The first objective is to ensure that the questionnaire provides all the required information, and the target sample can answer all the questions. The second objective of questionnaire design is to encourage the contribution of the respondents by completing the questionnaire. As such, the questionnaire should be designed in an easy-to-understand and attractive way. Finally, the questionnaire should be designed to minimise response errors.

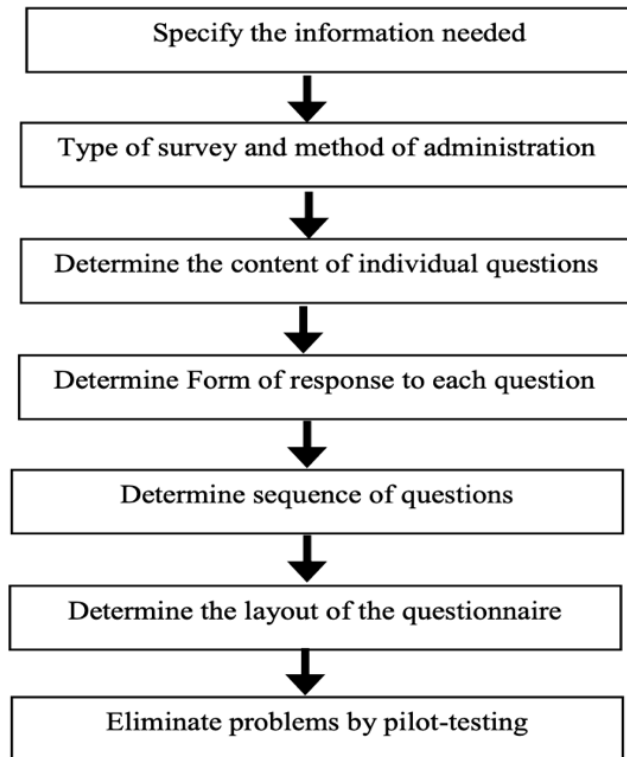


Figure 5.9: Questionnaire Design Process (Source: Malhotra & Bricks, 2006)

5.4.4.1. Specify the information needed

When designing a questionnaire, you need to determine the information that should be included in order to answer the research objective. In this study, three types of information were collected from the questionnaire. The first type is screening information. Respondents were screened regarding their use of social media as well as how familiar they were with the restaurant services in order to examine their eligibility to participate in the research. The second type of information required is related to the objectives and the constructs in the proposed model. The final type was the participants' demographic information which can be utilised to create a descriptive profile of the respondents.

5.4.4.2. Type of questionnaire and method of administration

There are several types of questionnaires and each one has its pros and cons. The information required and the type of questions asked will affect the selection of appropriate data collection methods. An online web-based questionnaire will be applied in this research because of its advantages over other types of questionnaires (as discussed in section 5.4.2). The online questionnaire is categorised as a self-administered type of questionnaire (see Figure 5.4) allowing respondents to fill in their answers themselves without interviews.

5.4.4.3. Determine the Content of each individual Question

There are three main sections included in the questionnaire. The first section is the introductory section where the questions were used to screen out the respondents. The main criteria required for respondents to complete the questionnaire is participating in social media and having interactions with any of restaurant brands' social media sites. Thus, the questions about how often the respondents use social media, the number of social media sites, as well as the number of restaurant brand's social media sites that respondents have interactions with, are included. The second section is the main part of the questionnaire and includes two types of questions. The first type consists of the questions about the respondents' engagement behaviour with restaurant brand-related content in social media, their motivational factors, and the consequences of these engagement behaviors. The second type refers to a question containing three marker variable constructs items that will be used to test the common method bias of the research. Finally, the last section of the questionnaire consists of questions designed to classify the respondents, including questions about gender, age, and the income of the respondents.

5.4.4.4. Form of Response for each Question

Two main issues related to the form of responses need to be considered: the type of response format and the number of response categories.

According to Netemeyer et al. (2003), there are two dominant forms of response for each question in the questionnaire: dichotomous and multichotomous forms. The multichotomous form of response is widely used in the questionnaire with Likert scales or different semantic scales. The Likert scale format was used in most of the main questions in this research. In Likert scale questions, respondents are required to indicate their level of disagreement or agreement with an object through a series of the given statement (Hair et al., 2003). This is often used when the questions aim to measure respondents' opinions, beliefs, or attitudes with the objects (Devellis, 2003). This is also considered the best form of question response for self-administered online surveys (Hair et al., 2003). It is easy to understand, construct, and administer (Malhotra & Birks, 2006; Baker, 2003).

The number of response categories is another essential thing that needs to be considered. This can be an even or odd number of responses. Netemeyer et al. (2003) argue that using an even number of responses categories forces respondents to decide their stronger level of agree or disagree which they may not actually have, while using an odd number of scales offers

respondents a midpoint or neutral opinion. The number used in most cases is between five and nine. The seven-point Likert scale was used for most questions in this research for several reasons. First, this research uses an odd-scale option as the absence of a midpoint option could be problematic as it may not exactly demonstrate the respondents' opinions. Therefore, using an odd number of responses is preferred when there is no need to force respondents to express strong opinions (Brace, 2006). Moreover, it is also suggested in the literature that using more rather than fewer scale points helps to reduce measurement error (Ping, 2004). Thus, the seven-point Likert scale is more appropriate than the five-point Likert scale in this research.

5.4.4.5. Determine Sequence of Questions

The sequence of questions here refers to the order of questions used in the questionnaire. According to studies of Hair et al. (2013), and Malhotra & Birks (2006), the order of the questions in the questionnaire can have a significant effect on the response rate and findings. Therefore, the order of questions in this research will follow several guidelines provided in those studies.

The questionnaire starts with an introduction about the purposes and importance of the research, as well as the estimated time needed to complete the questionnaire and the compensation for participating in the research. All these could encourage respondents to take part in the research. Then, some general screening questions were presented before moving to more specific questions. This procedure helps to reduce the potential of sequence bias. It then ends with easy and basic questions related to demographic classification. The final part of the questionnaire is a thank-you statement for contributing to the research. Clear instructions for each part of the questions were fully provided to make it easier for respondents to understand and complete the questionnaire.

5.4.4.6. The Layout of Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this research was designed by Qualtrics Online Survey (www.qualtrics.com) As it provides distinctive features helping to create an easy-to-follow online questionnaire with a professional layout in order to make responding clear and unambiguous.

5.4.4.7. Pre-test and Pilot Research

Pre-test: The questionnaire was originally designed in English then translated into Vietnamese. It was then reviewed/pre-tested by three chosen Vietnamese, non-academics living in the UK who are relatives or friends of the researcher, and two Vietnamese academics who are now lecturers at the University of Leicester and De Montfort University respectfully. This pre-test was to make sure that the questionnaire was understandable and meaningful.

Pilot research: The pilot research aimed to test the questionnaire and the research design with regard to language and structure issues to minimise mistakes before conducting research in a large-scale population. The pilot research design refers to the research sample and data collecting method. The pilot research was expected to have 20 completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was sent to 130 people in total (30 of the researcher’s friends from their Facebook friend list and 100 people from Golden Gate’s customer list who were randomly chosen) by email and Facebook messenger. As a result, there were 30 respondents, indicating the rate of response was approximately 24 percent. After the pilot research, in terms of questionnaire design, some minor technical problems were identified. As suggested by some respondents, the researcher also decided to redesign the questionnaire and deliver it as a bilingual questionnaire to avoid any misunderstanding of concepts because some marketing concepts could not be translated in Vietnamese whereas they are all understood in English. The problems identified from the pilot research and the solutions to solve those problems are presented in the table 5.5.

Number	Problems identified	Actions
1.	Translated version in Vietnamese has some words that not fully represented the words in English. The words that difficult to be translated into Vietnamese are “customer engagement”, “content consumption”, and “content contribution”	Keep the questionnaire as bilingual instead of asking respondents to choose between Vietnamese and English
2.	Respondents can take part in even they do not participate in any restaurant social media platform	Include the screening question to eliminate respondents who not active users of any restaurant social media platforms are. Question 3 “How many restaurants’ social media community/ group/ fan-page that you are a member of?”.

		If the respondent chooses “none” then they cannot continue to answer further questions
3.	After answering the questionnaire, the respondents do not know how to get the rewarded vouchers.	There are codes generated after the respondents finishing the questionnaires. The respondents can use this code to get the vouchers from the Golden Gate.

Table 5.5: Problems drawn from the pilot research and actions.

5.4.5. Non-response Bias and Response Rate Enhancement Techniques

5.4.5.1. Non-response Bias

According to Biemer & Lyberg (2003:80), “non-response bias occurs when an entire questionnaire is missing or not obtained on a unit selected for sample”. It refers to the bias that “exists when respondents to a survey are different from those who did not respond in terms of demographic or attitudinal variables” (Sax et al., 2003:411). The main reason for non-response bias is the respondents’ refusal to answer the questionnaire or participate in the research without reason(s) (Saunders et al., 2007). There are three main methods which can determine non-response bias: comparison with a known value of a population, subjective estimates, and extrapolation (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Although Morgan & Hunt (1994) considered non-response bias not a major problem in the research where the theoretical model is initially investigated, other authors are still concerned that non-response bias can affect both the reliability and validity of research findings (Groves & Peytcheva, 2008; Sax et al., 2003; Curtin et al., 2000). Therefore, several initiatives are planned for this research to avoid non-response.

5.4.5.2. Response Rate Enhancement Techniques

This section addressed several techniques to ensure the good response rate and data quality for the current research. These are:

(1) Improving the questionnaire in terms of some technical problems which have been found as a result of the pilot research as mentioned in the previous section. The questionnaire itself, in terms of design (such as length of the questionnaire, presentation, and language of the questionnaire), found a strong relationship with response rate (Fan & Yan, 2010).

(2) Using personalised messages when sending out invitations along with a supportive message from Golden Gate Group. The personalisation of invitations was found to significantly increase the response rate in surveys (Fan & Yan, 2010; Cook et al., 2000).

(3) Sending reminder emails throughout the data collection period. The effects of reminders on response rates have been consistently proved in previous studies (Fan & Yan, 2010; Bosnjak et al., 2008; Wygant et al., 2005). It was planned to send a first reminder email midway through the collection period, the second one a month before the end of the collection report, and the third one when there were seven days left.

(4) Incentives are also often used to boost the response rate. Respondents who completed the questionnaire were given 5% discount vouchers off a food bill in Golden Gate's restaurants. In previous studies, monetary incentives as such are suggested as a motivational driver to increase the response rate (e.g., Jobber & O'Reilly, 1998; Roth & BeVier, 1998).

These initiatives are expected to ensure a response rate higher than 30% (this is an average response rate in email and online surveys according to SurveyAnyPlace (2019)). This rate is also supported by the research of Nulty (2008).

Moreover, in order to ensure the reliability and validity of data, some additional data quality control checks were implemented (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Walliman, 2017). Firstly, besides including an unrelated maker variable to test common method bias, the questionnaire also had a question for checking respondents' attention towards the questions. The question is "Please choose "Strongly disagree" among the options listed below" with the options from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree". All the responses that choose other options than "Strongly disagree" were eliminated from the dataset. Secondly, as the estimated completion time of the questionnaire was 15 minutes, all the questionnaires that were completed in less than 5 minutes (1/3 of the median survey length) were removed.

5.4.6. Quantitative Analysis Procedures

This section presents an outline of the quantitative data analysis process used in this current research which will give a guideline for the data analysis performance in the next chapter. The first important step is preliminary data analysis (Hair et al., 2010) which comprises of missing

data analysis, test of outliers and test of normality. Then, an exploratory factor analysis will be discussed. Finally, the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method will be presented.

5.4.6.1. Missing Data Analysis

“Missing data often occurs when a respondent fails to answer one or more questions in the survey” (Hair et al., 2010:34). It is ideal for any research if no values are missing when conducting the survey. However, in practice, it is common to deal with missing data problems when using survey research (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Missing data could make the findings more biased and therefore need to be determined before a more profound data analysis process. However, if the missing value of the survey is determined less than 5% (according to Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) or 10% (according to Hair et al., 2010), it will not significantly affect the results so it can be ignored. Moreover, Kline (2010) suggests that it is the pattern of missing data, rather than the number of missing values, that is most important. Kline also suggests that it is less problematic if the missing data is not systematic. Therefore, it is important for one to determine whether the missing values are systematic or not.

There are two methods in which one can deal with missing data: deleting cases/variables or estimating missing data and the method that is used should be based on the amount and pattern of missing data. Firstly, deleting cases or variables is regarded as one of the most common and simple approaches so that researchers can cope with the missing data in connection with either a case or a variable. However, this method is not always the best decision and its application needs to be carefully considered. To be more specific, in a study in 2014, Tabachnick & Fidell indicated that this method would be of essential usefulness on the condition that the missing data only happens in a small number of cases which appears to be unsystematic. Researchers can also leave out the missing values provided that it accounts for less than 5%. Nevertheless, if the phenomenon of missing data can be seen in a great number of cases and variables, deleting them will result in a considerable loss of subjects which will make this approach a terrible choice. Moreover, researchers usually need to devote a massive amount of time as well as money to collect the required data so dropping some of them is definitely an unfavourable waste. Secondly, in the case of missing data, estimating missing data is regarded as another helpful method. This process comprises of case substitution, mean substitution, regression imputation, and expectation maximization. When the data is missing randomly with the low level, researchers can choose to either delete or estimate the missing values. However, in case the level of missing data grows up, expectation maximization will be of more favour in

comparison to other methods (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) generally believe that when coping with randomly missing values, EM is suggested to be the simplest as well as the most reasonable approach.

5.4.6.2. Test of Outliers

An outlier is defined as “a case with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that it distorts statistics” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007: 72). There are plenty of reasons for the occurrence of outliers, according to Hair et al. (2010). First of all, an outlier can result from an incorrect data entry. Therefore, researchers should carefully check the inputted values in the data cleaning process to identify any mistakes and find a suitable solution. Second, extraordinary events can also lead to the presence of outliers. In this case, researchers can choose either to keep or remove these outliers as long as they base their decision on the extent to which the study's objectives can still be guaranteed. Last but not least, outliers can arise from unexplained extraordinary observations. In this case, the specific context of the research objectives decides whether the outliers should be retained or deleted.

In order to identify outliers, researchers can approach using either statistical or graphical methods. In a precise way of explanation, outliers can be seen in the form of small circles with an attached number in SPSS. Therefore, either Z-scores or box-plots can be used to identify those outliers. According to Field (2005) and Tabachnick & Fidell (2007), with the application of Z-scores cases with standardised scores larger than 3.29 ($p < 0.001$) are regarded as potential outliers. Furthermore, box-plots is another useful approach to detect outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Univariate outliers of this particular method are the cases that fall away from the box.

5.4.6.3. Test of Normality

Another critical step in multivariate data analysis is examining the normality assumption for each variable (Hair et al., 2010). Normality can be tested using either graphical methods or statistical methods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, using graphical methods such as histograms is not considered as the best normality assessing method because they are usually subjective and need a great deal of experience to interpret the results of the test. Thus, it is better to rely on statistical methods when the researcher does not have a good experience of

graphical methods. The most popular statistical methods of assessing normality assumptions are skewness, kurtosis, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S), and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W).

Skewness assesses the extent to which a variable's distribution is symmetrical. If the distribution of responses for a variable stretches toward the right or left tail of the distribution, then the distribution is referred to as skewed. Kurtosis is a measure of whether the distribution is too peak (a very narrow distribution with most of the responses in the centre) (Hair et al., 2017:61).

As recommended by Hair et al. (2010), it is acceptable with skewness and kurtosis values are less than |2.0| and |7.0| respectively.

However, Field (2005:93) criticised skewness and kurtosis arguing that “they do not indicate whether the distribution as a whole deviates from a comparable normal distribution”. Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) offer a more advantage method by comparing the scores revealed on the tests to a normally distributed set of scores. Thus, it is preferable to employ Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) together with skewness and kurtosis (Stevens, 1992; Barnes, 2001).

5.4.6.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is a multivariate statistical method which aims to identify common factors which can explain the structure among measured variables (Tucker & MacCallum, 1997). The three fundamental decisions that need to be considered in exploratory factor analysis are the factor extraction method used, the number of factors to be extracted and the rotational method used (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

The factor extraction method used

According to Hair et al. (2010), the methods of extracting factors can be divided into two categories, component analysis (e.g., principal component analysis) and common factor analysis. Principal component analysis (PCA) is an extraction method that aims to “reduce the number of variables by creating linear combinations that retain as much as the originally measured variance as possible” (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003:150), whilst the goal of common factor analysis is finding and analysing underlying dimensions or latent variables in data sets (Netemeyer et al., 2003). In literature, many authors favour the use of typical factor analysis (such as principal axis or maximum likelihood factoring) over the principal component analysis (CPA) (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Hinkin, 1998), while others argued the

growing use of CPA over standard factor analysis (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). This research employs principal component analysis as the factor extraction method as it is a preferred method when the number of items is large (Hair et al., 2010; Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

Number of factors extracted

The number of factors extracted is decided based on several criteria. First of all, the most widely used criteria are the eigenvalue rule. Eigenvalue presents the amount of variance for each factor (Netemeyer et al., 2003). The factors with an eigenvalue more significant than one can be retained for further analysis as they can be considered significant (Hair et al., 2010). Also, according to Hair et al. (2010) also state that the use of eigenvalue to determine the number of factors extracted is considered to be significantly reliable if the number of items shown between 20 and 50. The scree test is another criterion used for deciding the number of factors extracted. A scree test is a graphic method that presents the plotting of eigenvalue and the shape of the resulting curve in which the number of factors extracted is based. More specifically, it detects the point at which the curve begins to straighten (the ‘elbow’) and this is the number of factors to be retained (Hair et al., 2010). The third method is explained variance. According to Hair et al. (2010), the number of factors extracted should account for at least 60% of the total variance. To achieve the best results, researchers should consider several criteria when determining how many factors should be extracted (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Rotational method used

After deciding the number of factors extracted, researchers need to determine which rotational method will be used. This makes the factor structure more simple, interpretable, and meaningful (Netemeyer et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2010). Rotational methods are basically categorised into two types: orthogonal rotations and oblique rotations. Orthogonal rotations assume the factors are interdependent whereas oblique rotations allow the correlations between factors. Oblique rotation was used in this research for a number of reasons. Firstly, oblique rotation should be used when factors have high probability of correlation as it is more realistic (Hair et al., 2010; Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). Secondly, an oblique rotation is considered as a simpler and more interpretive solution which results in “more meaningful theoretical factors” (Netemeyer et al., 2003:125). Thirdly, orthogonal rotation could lead to identification problems as it assumes that there are zero correlations between constructs (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

5.4.6.5. Structural Equation Modeling

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is defined as “a collection of statistic techniques that allow a set of relationships between one or more independent variables (IVs) and one or more dependent variables (DVs) to be examined” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014:655). Also, according to Ulman (2007), SEM is a comprehensive statistic method to examine the causal relationship or path relationship between variables which are shown in a hypothesised model. SEM utilises several statistical techniques such as causal analysis and modelling, analysis of path, analysis of covariance structure, simultaneous equation modelling, and confirmatory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Because of its comprehension, SEM has been widely used in different research areas such as social, economic, and management. SEM is adopted in this current research to analyse the model and test the proposed hypotheses for several reasons. Firstly, SEM provides a means of testing a complex model with a large number of constructs (Hair et al., 2010). It is also supported by Ulman (2007:679) as he states that “when the phenomena of interest are complex and multidimensional, SEM is the only analysis that allows complete and simultaneous tests of all the relationships”. Secondly, SEM can also be considered as a combination of factors analysis and path analysis. Therefore, it is more rigorous and advanced than the normal factor analysis, discriminant analysis, or multiple regression (Chin, 1998; Hoyle, 1995). Finally, SEM provides a means to control measurement errors, such as common method bias testing by marker variable technique (Hoyle, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Considering all the above reasons, SEM is the most appropriate method to be adopted in this research.

There are various SEM software programs employed to perform SEM such as Linear Structural Relation (LISREL), Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS), and Partial Least Squares (PLS). Among these, AMOS is chosen in this study because of its user-friendly perspective compared to a more computer-coding approach as in LISREL. The researcher will employ the most updated version of AMOS – AMOS 27.0 to perform SEM analysis in this study.

There are typically two stages in SEM analysis: Measurement Model Analysis (also known as Confirmatory Factor Analysis) and Structural Model Analysis. In Measurement Model Analysis the relationships between observed and latent variables are considered and the measurement model fit is examined (Hair et al., 2006). The second stage of SEM will be performed once the reliability and validity, in addition to the model fit of the measurement

model, are confirmed. In this stage, path analysis, or regression, is used to verify the hypothesised causal relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2011).

5.4.6.5.1. Measurement Model Analysis

Measurement Model

In Structural Equation Modeling, the measurement model deals with the relationship between the latent variables (factors) and observed variables (indicators) (Brown & Moore, 2013; Bryant et al., 1999). There are two types of measurement models which are **reflective measurement models** and **formative measurement models**. In reflective models, the measured indicators are considered to be caused by the latent constructs while in formative models, the measured indicators are the causes of the constructs (Hanafiah, 2020; Coltman et al., 2008). Figure 5.10 shows a comparison between a reflective construct and a formative construct.

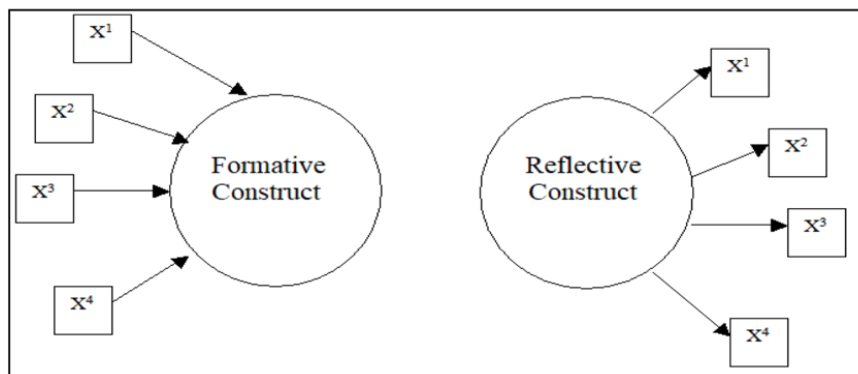


Figure 5.10: Comparison between a formative construct and a reflective construct

According to Hanafiah (2020), a measurement model could be classified as either a formative model or a reflective model based on: (1) the nature of the construct, (2) the direction of the causality between measured items and the construct, and (3) the characteristics of the measured items used to measure the construct (Coltman et al., 2008).

(1) The first consideration in categorized a formative model and a reflective model is the nature of the construct. In a reflective model, the latent construct is independent with the measures. In contrast, the latent construct in formative model is presented dependently of the measures “based on constructive, operational or instrumental interpretation” (Hanafiah, 2020:879).

(2) The second criteria used to classify the measurement models is the direction of causality between the construct and its indicators. In a reflective model, the direction of causality is

presented from the construct to its indicators. Therefore, a change in the construct will lead to a change in the indicators. Meanwhile, the flow of causality in a formative model is from the indicators to the particular construct. Hence, any change in the indicators will result in a change of the construct under study.

(3) The last factor when examining where the measurement model is formative or reflective is the characteristics of indicators. In a reflective model, when one or even more indicators added or deleted, the validity of the latent construct is not triggered. According to Hanafiah (2020), as the indicators of the construct share the common theme, they are interchangeable. In contrast, the indicators of a formative construct in formative model are not interchangeable because the entire conceptual meaning of the construct can change when one or some indicators included or excluded.

Table 5.6 presents the differences between reflective and formative models.

Criteria	Reflective model	Formative model
Nature of construct	Latent construct exists independent of the measures used	Latent construct is determined as a combination of its indicators
Direction of causality between items and latent construct	Causality from constructs to items	Causality from items to construct
Characteristics of items used to measure the construct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Items share a common theme • Items are interchangeable • Adding or dropping an item does not change the conceptual domain of the construct 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Items need not share a common theme • Items are not interchangeable • Adding or dropping an item may change the conceptual domain of the construct

Table 5.6: Criteria in classifying Reflective and Formative Measurement Models

It is important to classify whether the model is reflective or formative because each type consider different direction of causal relationships between the latent construct and the indicators, so wrong approach chosen can lead to significant potential measurement errors and model estimation (Hanafiah, 2020; Coltman et al., 2008). Based on the above, the measurement model in this study is considered as reflective model because the latent constructs are existing independently of the measures used and the flows of causality are from the constructs to the measurement items. Therefore, the measurement model assessment in the next section will based on the reflective model assessment.

Measurement model assessment

Model fit

According to Hair et al. (2010), a combination of indices will be used in CFA to assess the model fit of the measurement model which includes Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom (χ^2/df), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Furthermore, another fundamental requirement of sufficient model fit to be achieved is all factor loadings of observed variables should be higher than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010).

(1) Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom (χ^2/df)

Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom (χ^2/df) is an index used to examine how matching is the observed model to the theoretical model (Bentler & Bonnett, 1980; Bhattacharjee, 2002). As suggested by Kline (1998), the value of χ^2/df less than 3 is acceptable and it is better when the value gets closer to 1.

(2) Normed Fit Index (NFI)

Normed Fit Index (NFI) presents the difference of χ^2 between null model of no covariance assumptions and hypothesised model (Hair et al., 2006). As suggested by Kline (1998), the model can be accepted if the value of NFI is over 0.90.

(3) Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is an index which presents how well the observed model improve over the null model ((Bentler & Bonnett, 1980). The value over 0.95 of CFI indicates that the model fit is satisfactory.

(4) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is widely used to assess model fit in SEM because it “is used both descriptively (i.e., sample estimates) and inferentially (with confidence intervals and hypothesis tests)” (Kelley and Lai, 2011:2). It measures the average variance per degree of freedom which is expected to occur in the population (Hair et al., 1998). The model fit can be considered sufficient if the RMSEA values range from 0.05 to 0.08 (Hair et al., 1998).

(5) Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)

Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) is defined from standardised residuals analysis to examine the difference between the predicted correlation and the observed correlation (Hu & Bentler, 1998). This is an absolute measure of fit and a perfect fit is happened when SRMR is zero. However, a value of SRMR less than 0.08 can be considered as a good fitting model (Kline, 1998).

Absolute	Description	Rule of thumb
Chi-square (χ^2/df)	It is the fundamental index in SEM to examine the matching between the observed model and theoretical model	χ^2/df less than 3 is acceptable and it is better when the value <u>get</u> closer to 1 (Kline, 1998)
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	The index presents the difference of Chi-square value between null model of no covariance assumptions and hypothesized model	NFI > 0.90 is acceptable
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	This is an incremental index that is an improve version of the null model	CFI > 0.95 is satisfactory
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	It measures the average variance per (χ^2/df) which is expected to happen in the population	RMSEA < 0.05 is good 0.05 < RMSEA < 0.08 is acceptable
Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	SRMR is defined from standardized residuals analysis to examine the difference between the predicted correlation and the observed correlation. It is used for comparing fits across models	SRMR < 0.08 is acceptable

Table 5.7: Description of indices used to assess model fit

Unidimensionality of Measures

According to Netemeyer et al. (2003), a construct can be considered as unidimensional or multidimensional. A measure is unidimensional if there is only one underlying construct or factor that exists in a set of observed variables (indicators) (Hair et al., 2010; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). Unidimensional measures involve a number of factors making cross-loadings

and covariance among error terms constrained to zero (Hair et al., 2010). It is vital to test the unidimensionality of constructs in theory testing and development (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). When the items of a measure are said to be unidimensional, it means that those items are “strongly associated with each other and represented for a single concept” (Hair et al., 2010). Netemeyer et al. (2003) demonstrated several methods to examine a scale’s unidimensionality: using item-total correlations, using coefficient alpha, and using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Among those, the most widely used method is Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. Although there is no statistical requirement of acceptable level of Cronbach alpha, there are some rules applied. Nunnally (1978) considered that .70 as the lowest acceptable for coefficient alpha. Robinson et al. (1991) suggested a score of .80 and over is desirable. More comprehensively, Devellis et al. (2003:95) considered “an alpha score below .60 as unacceptable, between .60 and .65 as undesirable, between .65 and .70 as minimally acceptable, between .70 and .80 as minimally respectable, and between .80 and .90 as very good”. Hair et al. (2010) considered Cronbach’s alpha of .70 and over to be acceptable.

Reliability check

According to Thorndike et al. (1991), reliability checks could be considered as the precision and accuracy of the measurement procedure. Measurement reliability is ‘the numerical results an indicator produces do not vary because of characteristics of the measurement process or measurement instrument itself’ (Neuman, 2011). There are three types of measurement reliability as below:

Stability reliability: this refers to the reliability over time and answers the question “Will the same result be obtained when the measure is applied in a different time period?”. To test this reliability, the re-testing of indicator on the same group of respondents is completed. Researchers argued the usefulness of this measure reliability is limited as it is difficult to encourage respondents to answer the same questions after a period of time (or it is only useful for longitudinal research) (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Alternative form reliability: this reliability is similar to stability reliability. The difference between the two types is: while the same measures for the same construct are used to test stability reliability in the different time period, the two different adjusted measurement are used for the same construct in alternative form reliability. Due to the same nature, alternative form reliability has the same disadvantages as for stability reliability (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Equivalence reliability: this refers to internal consistency which means “a reliable measure gives the same results with all indicators” (Neuman, 2011:153). In order to examine this reliability, the multi-items or indicators are employed to determine a construct. The Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is commonly used to measure the internal consistency of the scales. The acceptable value of Cronbach’s alpha, according to Hair et al. (2011), is .70 or above. This type of reliability will be tested in this research.

In Confirmatory Factor Analysis, reliability of the measurement process refers to the consistency level of an instrument (Said et al., 2011) and is calculated based on three main indexes: Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Cronbach’s Alpha. The measurement instruments are considered reliable when all factors have CR and AVE indexes higher than 0.50 and Cronbach’s Alpha is higher than 0.70 as proposed by Hair et al. (2006).

Validity check

Construct validity is concerned with the accuracy of the measurement (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003). It is defined as “the degree to which a set of observed variables actually measures the latent construct it is intended to measure” (Elbedweihy, 2014:183). Clark & Watson (1995:310) suggested that “the most precise and efficient measures are those with established construct validity; they are manifestations of constructs in a theory that is well supported by empirical data”.

There are two fundamental aspects to test construct validity used in Confirmatory Factor Analysis: convergent validity and discriminant validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). While convergent validity tests that the constructs that should be related are, in fact, related, discriminant validity, on the contrary, tests that the constructs which are expected to be unrelated do not actually have any relationship (Hair et al., 2010).

Convergent validity can be examined by three criteria: (1) the standardised loading of each indicator on its intended factor is significant and ideally greater than .70 or at least .50 (Hair et al., 2010); (2) the Composite Reliability (CR) with value greater than .70 as good reliability and values between .60 and .70 indicate acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2010); (3) the

Average Variance Extract (AVE) is .50 or greater implying convergent validity is achieved (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

According to Anderson & Gerbing (1988), discriminant validity can be tested by three criteria,: (1) if the confidence interval around the correlation estimates between two latent constructs does not include the value of 1.0, it is said the discriminant validity is achieved; (2) when the chi-square value of the constrained model is significantly greater than the chi-square value of the unconstrained model, the discriminant validity is established; and (3) the discriminant validity is supported if the AVE value of each construct is greater than the square of the correlation between two constructs.

Common method bias

Common method bias is a well-known problem in social research, especially in survey research. Common method bias “occurs when the estimates of the relationships between two or more constructs are bias because they are measure with the same method” (Jordan & Troth, 2019:5). Assessing common method bias is vital in research because it can affect the reliability and validity of the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2010). In addition, it can bias the estimates of the relationships between constructs, therefore, leading to errors in hypothesis testing (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

There are four main statistical methods of testing common method bias: (1) Harman’s one factor test, (2) unmeasured latent factor technique, (3) confirmatory factor analysis marker variable technique, and (4) IV technique. The main problem with Harmon’s one factor test is that this method uses a single-factor model and this is unlikely to fit the data, especially when the number of variables increases (Jordan & Troth, 2019; Chang et al., 2010). The biggest advantage of unmeasured latent factor technique is this method might “also contain variance between the hypothesised relationships and the construct variables of interest” (Jordan & Troth, 2019:9), then it can lead to actually multiple biases (Eichhorn, 2014; Kline, 2005).

Due to the criticisms of those two methods, this study will use a CFA marker variable technique to examine common method bias and to ensure that this does not pose a potential problem to the final results.

5.4.6.5.2. Structural Model Analysis

This section intends to test the fit of a structural model which presents the hypothesised relationships between the latent constructs.

After the measurement model fit is achieved and validated as well as specifying the structural model, the parameters need to be estimated in order to ensure the validity of the structural model. The process of testing the structural model fit is the same as the process of measurement model fit, with the only difference is the covariance matrix (Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model is assumed that all constructs are related to each other, while the structural model only demonstrates certain correlations between certain constructs based on the proposed hypotheses. Like measurement models, the assessment of structural model fit alone is “insufficient to support a proposed structural theory” (Hair et al., 2010:712). Thus, the analysis needs to include the process of examining individual structural parameter estimates.

In order to appraise the structural parameter estimates, three main criteria need to be considered including the statistical significance, the direction and the feasibility of the parameter estimates (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010).

The first criterion is the statistical significance of the parameter estimates which is determined by two aspects: standard error and critical value. Standard error is concerned with the accuracy of the estimate and critical value refers to whether the parameter estimate is significantly different from zero (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). It can be determined by dividing the parameter estimated by its standard error. Byrne (2010) suggested that the model fit is poor when the standard error is either too big or too small.

The second criterion explores whether the direction of the parameter is consistent with the hypotheses in the proposed theoretical model.

The third criterion is feasibility of the parameter estimates. “Correlation should not exceed 1.00 and variance should not have negative values” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004:70). The squared multiple correlation (R²) is used for “indicating the amount of variance in an endogenous construct that is explained by the exogenous constructs also should be considered when examining the structural model” (Hair et al., 2010). The larger the R² value, the stronger the hypothesised relationships.

5.4.6.5.3. Adoption of Measurement Items

With the aim of testing the proposed hypotheses built from all the validated constructs taken from previous studies, this section provides the adoption of measurement items for each construct in the model. There are some definitions that need to be examined before presenting the adopted measurement of the constructs in proposed conceptual model. Netemeyer et al. The core of measurement is defined as “consist[ing] of rules for assigning symbols to objects to numerically represent quantities of attributes” (Netemeyer et al., 2003:188). In this definition, the rules refer to “the explicitly stated assignment of numbers” and attributes is “the particular feature of the objects being measured”.

The aim of the research is to measure the attributes of the object which are latent by nature. “Latent constructs are not directly observable or quantifiable. A latent construct is also variable; that is, the strength and magnitude for the ratings on a latent construct may change over time” (Netemeyer et al., 2003: 4).

Another definition is about the scales. “A scale is a measure in which a researcher captures the intensity, direction, level, or potency of a variable construct and arranges responses or observation on a continuum. A scale can use a single or multiple indicator” (Neuman, 2011:188). It is generally agreed that multiple items of statements are the most accurate ways to determine how the constructs vary (Sarstedt et al., 2012, Clark & Watson, 1995; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

This research study uses the correct items for each construct taken from the literature, and the 7-point Likert scales were utilised in the questionnaire as a form of multichotomous responses. First, this research uses an odd-scale option because, as mentioned above, the absence of a midpoint option could be a problem as it may not reflect the actual opinion of respondents. Therefore, using an odd number of responses is preferred if there is no reason to force respondents to provide strong opinions (Brace, 2006). It is also suggested in literature that using more rather than less scale points helps to reduce measurement error (Ping, 2004). Thus, the seven-point Likert scale is more appropriate than five-point Likert scale in this research.

The adopted measurement of the constructs in this study will be presented in Table 5.8.

Constructs	Measurement items	Scales
Entertainment	<p>Three-item construct was adopted from Shu & Chang (2011) with three items:</p> <p>ENT1 – <i>“My interactions on restaurant brands’ social media sites entertain me”</i></p> <p>ENT2 – <i>“My interactions on restaurant brands’ social media sites help me to feel relaxed”</i></p> <p>ENT3 – <i>“My interactions on restaurant brands’ social media sites helps me to pass time when I am bored”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Search for information	<p>Three-item construct’s measurement was adopted from Shu & Chang (2011) and Azar et al. (2016):</p> <p>SFI1 – <i>“My interactions allow me to have better understand of restaurant brands”</i></p> <p>SFI2 – <i>“My interactions allow me to find out the opinions of other customers of restaurant brands”</i></p> <p>SFI3 – <i>“My interactions give me convenient access to information about restaurant brands”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Remuneration	<p>Remuneration is measured as a two-item construct adopted from Azar et al. (2016):</p> <p>RE1 – <i>“I interact with restaurant brands’ content in order to access discounts and promotions”</i></p> <p>RE2 – <i>“I like to interact with restaurant brands content as they offer contests and games from which I can access free meals or drinks or other special offers”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Social interaction	<p>A Four-item construct was adopted from Shu & Chang (2011) with four items:</p> <p>SI1 – <i>“I can meet people like me on restaurant social media sites”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales

	<p>SI2 – <i>“I can meet new people on restaurant social media sites”</i></p> <p>SI3 – <i>“I can find out about people like me on restaurant social media sites”</i></p> <p>SI4 – <i>“I can interact with people like me on restaurant social media sites”</i></p>	
Self-presentation	<p>A four-item construct from Lee et al. (2012):</p> <p>SP1 – <i>“My interactions on restaurants’ social media sites help me make good impression on others”</i></p> <p>SP2 – <i>“My interactions on restaurants’ social media sites help me improve the way I am perceived”</i></p> <p>SP3 – <i>“My interactions on restaurants’ social media sites let me present who I am to others”</i></p> <p>SP4 – <i>“My interactions on restaurants’ social media sites let me present who I want to be to others”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Consumption	<p>A five-item construct adopted from Schivinski et al. (2016)</p> <p>CONS1 – <i>“I read posts related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites”</i></p> <p>CONS2 – <i>“I read fanpage(s) related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites”</i></p> <p>CONS3 – <i>“I view pictures/graphics related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites”</i></p> <p>CONS4 – <i>“I follow blog(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”</i></p> <p>CONS5 – <i>“I follow restaurant brand(s)’ page(s) on social media sites”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Contribution	<p>A six-item construct adopted from Schivinski et al. (2016)</p> <p>CONT1 – <i>“I comment on video(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”</i></p> <p>CONT2 – <i>“I comment on post(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales

	<p>CONT3 – <i>“I comment on picture(s)/graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”</i></p> <p>CONT4 – <i>“I share restaurant brand related post(s) on social media sites”</i></p> <p>CONT5 – <i>“I Like picture(s)/graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media sites”</i></p> <p>CONT6 – <i>“I Like post(s) related to restaurant brands on social media sites”</i></p>	
Creation	<p>A Six-item construct from Schivinski et al. (2016)</p> <p>CREA1 – <i>“I initiate post(s) related to restaurant brands on blogs”</i></p> <p>CREA2 – <i>“I initiate post(s) related to restaurant brands on social networking sites”</i></p> <p>CREA3 – <i>“I post picture(s)/graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”</i></p> <p>CREA4 – <i>“I post video(s) that show restaurant brands”</i></p> <p>CREA5 – <i>“I write post(s) related to restaurant brands on forums”</i></p> <p>CREA6 – <i>“I write review(s) related to restaurant brands”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Attitude toward reviews and ratings	<p>A four-item construct adopted from Lee & Ma (2012):</p> <p>ARR1 – <i>“Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are good”</i></p> <p>ARR2 – <i>“Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are valuable”</i></p> <p>ARR3 – <i>“Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are positive”</i></p> <p>ARR4 – <i>“Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are favourable”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales
Purchase/visit intention	<p>The measurement was adopted from Tiruwa et al. (2016) with three items:</p> <p>PI1 – <i>“I will definitely purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurant in the future”</i></p>	7-point Likert scales

	<p>PI2 – <i>“I will continue to purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brand and visit the restaurants in the future”</i></p> <p>PI3 – <i>“I will refer products/services belonging to the restaurant brands to my friends/ family/colleagues in the future”</i></p>	
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Table 5.8: Measurement scales of the constructs

5.5. Ethics and Privacy

It is important to thoroughly consider ethical issues when conducting any research. There are two main ethical issues when conducting survey research which are privacy and voluntary participation of respondents. Willis (2005) noticed that the respondents who participate in survey have the right to have privacy as well as the right to decide when or to whom they reveal information. In addition, the respondents need to be completely voluntary when participating in the current research. Respondents can refuse to participate in the research and can leave the research at any time. At the beginning of the questionnaire, the respondents will be provided all the information regarding research including research aims, how the data will be collected and used during and after the research. In order to take part in the questionnaire, participants will be asked to confirm that they are over 18 years old, they have certain interactions with a restaurants’ social networking sites, and they voluntarily agree to take part in the research.

Furthermore, there are additional ethical issues relating to the data storage process, the use of incentives for respondents, etc. These issues are addressed in an ethics application form that has been sent to the Ethics Committee at Nottingham Trent University (attached as Appendix). There was no objection to the research on ethical grounds by the ethics panel at the university. Therefore, the current research was conducted in accordance with the ethical approval provided by the university.

5.6. Summary

This chapter has presented the methodological approach which was employed in this research. The consideration with regard to philosophical paradigm and research method was explained, followed by the justifications and presentation of research design employed in this research. In association with the aims of testing the proposed model of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media with its antecedents and consequences, the chapter also

presented the sampling process, questionnaire design, and quantitative analysis procedure. Finally, the issues of ethics were also addressed and outlined. More details of the data analysis and findings will be shown in the next chapter.

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER SIX – DATA ANALYSES AND FINDINGS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter will present the process of analysing the data collected from the survey. After the data cleaning process, the demographic profile of respondents and descriptive analysis are presented. Then, the chapter provides further assessment exploratory factor analysis where it is confirmed no item was eliminated and a 10-factor 40-item model was retained for further analysis. Next, the chapter employs a two-stage Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method to analyse data. After the assessment of the validity, reliability of the constructs, and model fit of the measurement model were confirmed satisfactory, a structural model analysis (which includes path analysis) was carried out in order to verify the proposed hypotheses. Consequently, twenty of the twenty-one hypothesised structural paths were significant indicating that most of the hypotheses are supported. Figure 6.1 presents the structure of Chapter 6 in more detail.

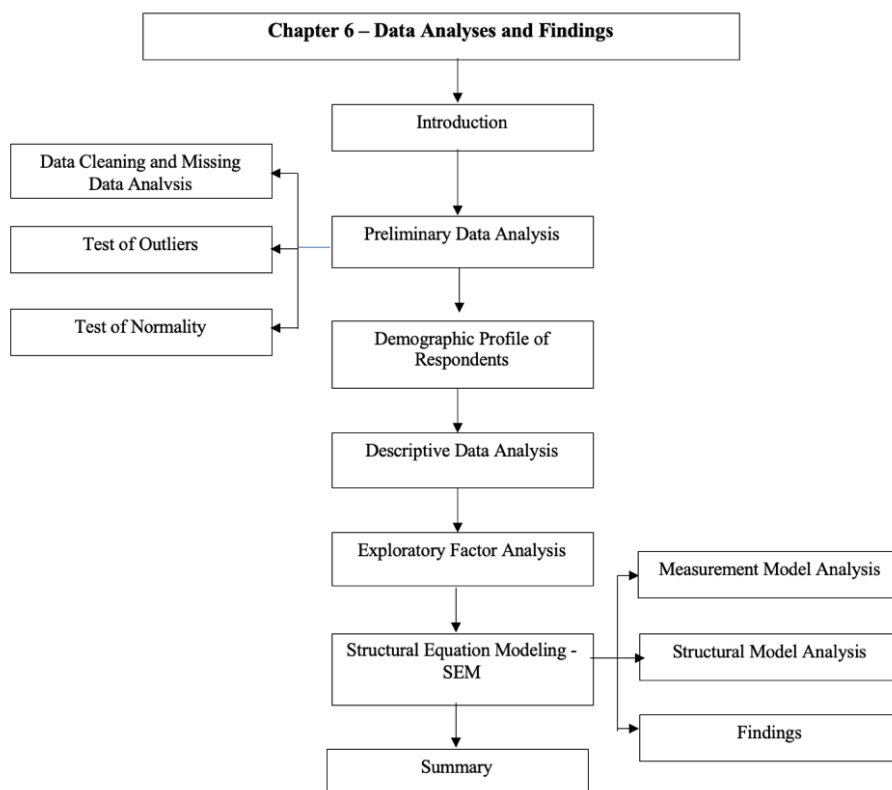


Figure 6.1: Structure of Chapter Six

6.2. Preliminary Data Analysis

6.2.1. Data cleaning and missing data analysis

Data was collected between November 2019 and October 2020 and 542 questionnaires were completed by the respondents. The completed questionnaires were coded and examined for accuracy. In this step, the validity of responses was checked, and invalid and incomplete responses were removed from the data set. This step was important because any problems related to poor quality data could lead to the incorrect conclusion, putting the proposed model at fault. Of 542 final questionnaires, 19 questionnaires had missing items (3.5%). Researchers pointed out there is little concern, and it can even be ignored if the missing value is less than 5% (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) or 10% according to Hair et al. (2010). In this case, the very simple approach to deal with missing data was used – deleting cases concerned. Therefore, the 19 questionnaires mentioned above were simply deleted from the data set. Furthermore, the average time to complete the questionnaire was calculated as 9.3 minutes. Thus, to ensure the quality of data, all questionnaires completed in less than 4.65 minutes (half of average time) were excluded. As a result, 14 questionnaires were excluded at this step. At the end of the data cleaning process, 509 questionnaires were remained for further data analysis procedures.

6.2.2. Test of Outliers

When examining potential outliers, the findings of Z-scores and boxplot showed that most of the cases were below ± 3.29 z-values ($p < 0.001$) which indicates an absence of significant outliers according to Hair et al., (2010). Table 6.1 shows the number of outliers identified after using boxplots. The identified outliers related to items RE1-I interact with restaurant brands' content in order to access discounts and promotions, CONS4-I follow blog(s) related to restaurant brand(s), SP1-My interactions help me build a good impression with others on restaurant social media sites, CONT5-I 'Like' pictures/graphics related to restaurant brands. The researcher considered these outliers were not unique and unrepresentative of the whole population because it is very normal when respondents showed their extreme agreement or disagreement with the items identified. Therefore, these outliers still remained for further analysis as recommended by Hair et al. (2010).

Item	Case number
RE1: I interact with restaurant brands' content <u>in order to access</u> discounts and promotions	177, 279, 215
CONS4: I follow blog(s) related to restaurant brand(s)	163, 156, 175, 281, 246
SP1: My interaction helps me building good impression on others on restaurant social media sites	287, 284, 281, 211
CONT: I "like" pictures/ graphics related to restaurant brands	163, 142, 293

Table 6.1: Assessment of Outliers Using Boxplot

6.2.3. Test of Normality

This study will initially use skewness and kurtosis in order to test the normality assumptions.

Skewness assesses the extent to which a variable's distribution is symmetrical.

If the distribution of responses for a variable stretches toward the right or left tail of the distribution, then the distribution is referred to as skewed. Kurtosis is a measure of whether the distribution is too peak (a very narrow distribution with most of the responses in the centre) (Hair et al., 2017:61).

The results of skewness analysis showed the positive values varying from 0.033 to 1.632 and the negative values varying from -1.408 to -0.006. The kurtosis positive values ranged from 0.036 to 2.103 and the negative values ranged from -0.968 to -0.201. As recommended by Hair et al. (2010), it is acceptable with skewness values are less than |2.0| and kurtosis values are less than |7.0|.

Furthermore, the normality assumption will be also tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W). Table 7.2 presents the results from these two tests. It can be seen for both tests that the significant values of all items were 0.000 (<0.05) indicating deviation from normality. However, there are several points should be considered. The first consideration is the effects of sample size on the deviation from normality. A sample size of more than 200 (N>200) is considered as large enough to avoid influence by the presence of small deviations from normality (Hair et al., 2010; Field, 2013).

Moreover, Nunnally (1978:160) stated that

test scores (for trait scales) are seldom normally distributed, even if the number of items is large. Because of the positive correlations among items, a normal distribution would not obtain.

In addition, Malthouse (2001) pointed out that seven-point scales do not typically follow normal distribution. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) also seem to be relatively vigorous against violations of normality (Elbedweihy, 2014:236). Consequently, although the deviation from normality was found from the K-S and S-W tests, factor analysis is still utilised effectively in this study.

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
ENT1	0.182	509	0.000	0.936	509	0.000
ENT2	0.181	509	0.000	0.937	509	0.000
ENT3	0.156	509	0.000	0.936	509	0.000
SFI1	0.177	509	0.000	0.919	509	0.000
SFI2	0.209	509	0.000	0.910	509	0.000
SFI3	0.159	509	0.000	0.892	509	0.000
RE1	0.235	509	0.000	0.775	509	0.000
RE2	0.205	509	0.000	0.903	509	0.000
SI1	0.157	509	0.000	0.933	509	0.000
SI2	0.166	509	0.000	0.917	509	0.000
SI3	0.170	509	0.000	0.925	509	0.000
SI4	0.167	509	0.000	0.884	509	0.000
SP1	0.199	509	0.000	0.880	509	0.000
SP2	0.207	509	0.000	0.860	509	0.000
SP3	0.277	509	0.000	0.793	509	0.000
SP4	0.244	509	0.000	0.857	509	0.000
CONS1	0.150	509	0.000	0.914	509	0.000
CONS2	0.186	509	0.000	0.936	509	0.000
CONS3	0.232	509	0.000	0.907	509	0.000
CONS4	0.158	509	0.000	0.944	509	0.000
CONS5	0.183	509	0.000	0.925	509	0.000
CONT1	0.194	509	0.000	0.932	509	0.000
CONT2	0.224	509	0.000	0.907	509	0.000
CONT3	0.179	509	0.000	0.917	509	0.000
CONT4	0.152	509	0.000	0.921	509	0.000
CONT5	0.159	509	0.000	0.921	509	0.000
CONT6	0.185	509	0.000	0.917	509	0.000
CREA1	0.191	509	0.000	0.907	509	0.000
CREA2	0.217	509	0.000	0.884	509	0.000
CREA3	0.259	509	0.000	0.886	509	0.000
CREA4	0.234	509	0.000	0.880	509	0.000
CREA5	0.243	509	0.000	0.860	509	0.000
CREA6	0.207	509	0.000	0.881	509	0.000
ARR1	0.219	509	0.000	0.866	509	0.000
ARR2	0.212	509	0.000	0.878	509	0.000
ARR3	0.232	509	0.000	0.901	509	0.000
ARR4	0.222	509	0.000	0.862	509	0.000
PI1	0.216	509	0.000	0.923	509	0.000
PI2	0.181	509	0.000	0.935	509	0.000
PI3	0.247	509	0.000	0.914	509	0.000

Table 6.2: Normality Assessment Using Kolmogorow-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk

6.3. Demographic Profile of Respondents

The demographic statistics of respondents are shown in Table 6.3. Of the 509 respondents, 40.7% are male and 59.3% are female and 97.2% of respondents are aged 26 to 40 years old (75.4% are 26-35 years old and 21.8% are 36-45 years old). Only 2.8% of respondents were aged below 25 and no respondents over 45 years old participated in this study. Not surprisingly, the age range of 26-45 is also the one which most frequently uses social media networking sites which also correlates with the demographic who eat out most in Vietnam (according to Vietcetera, 2018). In addition, more than 91% of respondents have a monthly income at average level or above, while only 8.3% of respondents have relatively low monthly income.

	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Total sample (N)
Gender			
Male	207	40.7	509
Female	302	59.3	509
Prefer not to say	0	0	509
Age Category			
18-25	14	2.8	509
26-35	384	75.4	509
36-45	111	21.8	509
46-55	0	0	509
Over 55	0	0	509
Monthly Income			
Less than 10 million VND (relatively low)	42	8.3	509
10 million - 20 million VND (lower average)	204	40.1	509
20 million - 20 million VND (upper average)	132	25.9	509
More than 30 million VND (relatively high)	131	25.7	509

Table 6.3: Demographic Statistics of Respondents

In terms of geography, Table 6.4 shows that 91.4% respondents were from the three biggest cities in Vietnam (Hanoi, Ho Chi Minh City and Da Nang), Hanoi having the biggest number of participants (52.7%), and Ho Chi Minh City the second with 32%.

	Frequency	Percent
Binh Duong	1	0.2
Can Tho	5	1
Da Nang	34	6.7
Hai Phong	28	5.5
Hanoi	268	52.7
HCM	163	32
Lao Cai	1	0.2
Quang Binh	8	1.6
Thai Nguyen	1	0.2
Total	509	100

Table 6.4: Geography Statistics of Respondents

6.4. Descriptive Data Analysis

6.4.1. The use of social media of respondents

	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Total sample (N)
Time spent in social media each day			
Less than 30 minutes	27	5.3	509
30 - 60 minutes	190	37.3	509
1-3 hours	206	40.5	509
3-5 hours	81	15.9	509
More than 5 hours	5	1.0	509
Number of <u>restaurant</u> SNS they are member of			
None	63	2.4	509
1-5 sites	237	46.6	509
6-15 sites	125	34.6	509
More than 15 sites	84	16.4	509

Table 6.5: Respondents' use of social media

The frequency distribution of total time the respondents spend on social media each day reveals that most of respondents spent from 30 minutes to 3 hours using social media each day (37.3% spent from 30 to 60 minutes, and 40.5% spent between 1 and 3 hours a day). 5.3% of respondents use social media for less than 30 minutes, 15.9% use it between 3 to 5 hours and only 1% of respondents spent more than 5 hours a day using social media (Table 6.5). When assessing the respondent’s use of social media regarding gender differences, it is clear that both males and females spent roughly the similar time on social media per day. It also showed that the youngest generation (18-25) is the one that spends more time on social media with 92% of respondents in this age range claiming they spent from 3 to 5 hours a day on social media. In contrast, the respondents who are in age group of 36-45 are the ones that spent the least amount of time on social media (Table 6.6).

In terms of the number of restaurant social networking sites that the respondents are members of, 46.6% of them are members of 1 to 5 restaurant sites, 34.6% are members of between 6 to 15 sites and 16.4% are members of more than 15 restaurant social networking sites. Only 2.4% of respondents are not a member of any restaurant social sites (Table 6.5).

	Less than 30 mins		30-60 mins		1-3 hours		3-5 hours		More than 5 hours	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	10	4.8%	76	36.7%	82	39.6%	37	17.8%	2	1%
Female	16	5.2%	117	38.7%	126	41.7%	41	14%	2	0.6%
18-25	0	0%	0	0%	1	4%	12	92%	1	4%
26-35	44	11.4%	88	22.9%	163	42.4%	87	22%	2	0.5%
36-45	20	18%	55	49.5%	34	30.6%	1	1%	1	1%

Table 6.6: Respondent’s use of social media by Gender and Age

6.4.2. Motivations of Customer Engagement with Brand- related Content on social media

It can be seen that the most popular motivations when customers engage with restaurant brand-related content in social media are “Entertainment” (ENT1, ENT2, ENT3), “Searching for information” (SFI1, SFI3, SFI3) and “Remuneration” (RE1 and RE2) with all items of these constructs having relatively high means (from 4.07 to 5.35). On the other hand, self-presentation seems to be the least favourable motivational factor when customers engage with restaurant brand-related content in social media: SP1 “My interactions help me make good impression on others on social media sites”, SP2 “My interactions on social media sites help

me improve the way I am perceived”, SP3 “*My interactions on restaurant social media sites let me present who I am to others*” and SP4 “*My interactions on restaurant social media sites let me present who I want to be to others*” with the means at 2.82, 2.73, 2.34 and 2.32 respectively. One more highlighted field which has the highest mean (5.35) is RE1 “*My interaction with restaurant brands is in order to access discounts and promotions*”.

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
ENT1	509	6	1	7	4.27	0.056	1.262	1.593
ENT2	509	6	1	7	4.11	0.061	1.386	1.921
ENT3	509	6	1	7	4.07	0.069	1.567	2.454
SFI1	509	6	1	7	4.45	0.07	1.577	2.488
SFI2	509	6	1	7	4.61	0.068	1.529	2.337
SFI3	509	6	1	7	4.84	0.075	1.683	2.832
RE1	509	6	1	7	5.35	0.075	1.691	2.858
RE2	509	6	1	7	4.62	0.074	1.666	2.775
SI1	509	6	1	7	3.53	0.062	1.406	1.978
SI2	509	6	1	7	3.34	0.066	1.486	2.209
SI3	509	6	1	7	3.17	0.063	1.426	2.034
SI4	509	6	1	7	2.89	0.061	1.366	1.867
SP1	509	6	1	7	2.82	0.056	1.267	1.606
SP2	509	6	1	7	2.73	0.055	1.248	1.556
SP3	509	6	1	7	2.34	0.057	1.279	1.635
SP4	509	4	1	5	2.32	0.045	1.005	1.01
Valid N (listwise)	509							

Table 6.7: Descriptive Statistics - Antecedents of Customer Engagement with Brand-related Content on social media

6.4.3. Customer Engagement Behaviours with Brand-related Content on social media

When taking into consideration the 17 items of question 9 in the questionnaire, it is noticeable that all items in consumption activities present relatively high means (from 4.08 to 4.94), when compared to contribution and creation activities regarding restaurant brands (Table 6.8).

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
CONS1	509	6	1	7	4.94	0.062	1.392	1.938
CONS2	509	6	1	7	4.73	0.055	1.243	1.544
CONS3	509	6	1	7	4.97	0.05	1.135	1.288
CONS4	509	6	1	7	4.35	0.062	1.395	1.947
CONS5	509	6	1	7	4.08	0.055	1.245	1.551
CONT1	509	6	1	7	3.6	0.054	1.218	1.485
CONT2	509	6	1	7	3.47	0.049	1.096	1.202
CONT3	509	6	1	7	3.66	0.053	1.205	1.452
CONT4	509	6	1	7	3.33	0.056	1.263	1.596
CONT5	509	6	1	7	3.6	0.056	1.26	1.587
CONT6	509	6	1	7	3.62	0.056	1.253	1.571
CREA1	509	6	1	7	2.73	0.052	1.166	1.361
CREA2	509	5	1	6	2.62	0.042	0.947	0.898
CREA3	509	5	1	6	2.72	0.048	1.079	1.165
CREA4	509	5	1	6	2.52	0.044	1.003	1.006
CREA5	509	4	1	5	2.25	0.042	0.952	0.906
CREA6	509	5	1	6	2.43	0.043	0.975	0.951
Valid N (listwise)	509							

Table 6.8: Descriptive Statistics - Customer Engagement behaviour with Brand-related Content on social media

The most frequent activity is viewing pictures/graphics related to brands on social media (CONS3 – M=4.97; SD=1.135), followed by reading posts related to brands on social media sites (CONS1 – M= 4.94; SD=1.392). Regarding the contribution activities, then means ranged from 3.33 to 3.66. Among those activities, the most frequent activity is commenting on pictures/graphics related to restaurant brands on social media sites (CONT3 – M=3.66, SD=1.205) while the least frequent one is sharing restaurant brand-related posts on social media (CONT4 – M=3.33, SD=1.263). Furthermore, in terms of creation activities, many respondents revealed that they did not have engagement activities at the level of content creation related to restaurant brands. Consequently, this dimension has relatively low means (between 2.25 and 2.73). Therefore, it can be indicated that participants tended to develop more passive engagement activities at the consumption level and were not engaged in activities that required a higher level of effort, especially in the last stage of content creation.

6.4.4. Consequences of Customer Engagement with Brand-related Content on social media

It is clear that all of the items of consequence have high mean results. More specifically, all four fields of ‘attitude toward reviews and ratings’ (ARR) have an average means larger than 5.00, with the noticeable highlight of high min and small variance as well. In other words, the customers tend to appreciate and believe reviews and ratings of restaurant brands on different social media sites since they find them good, valuable, positive, and favourable.

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Error	Std. Deviation	Variance
ARR1	509	4	3	7	5.70	0.061	1.052	1.106
ARR2	509	6	1	7	5.41	0.081	1.391	1.935
ARR3	509	6	1	7	5.05	0.068	1.160	1.346
ARR4	509	6	1	7	5.09	0.063	1.077	1.159
PI1	509	6	1	7	4.77	0.068	1.174	1.378
PI2	509	6	1	7	4.63	0.070	1.206	1.455
PI3	509	6	1	7	4.71	0.070	1.200	1.440
Valid N (listwise)	509							

Table 6.9: Descriptive Statistics - Consequences of Customer Engagement with Brand-related Content on social media

The construct of attitude toward reviews and ratings presents the highest means of all, ranging from 5.01 to 5.85 (Table 6.9). This indicates that customers have an overall positive attitude towards the activities regarding online reviews and ratings.

Regarding the construct of purchase/visit intention, the means of this construct varies between 4.63 and 4.77 (Table 6.9) meaning that customers have a generally positive attitude towards the activities mentioned in each of the items. The item with the highest mean is PI1 “*I will definitely purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurants in the future*” (M=4.77, SD=1.174) while the item with the lowest mean is PI2 “*I will continue to purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurants in the future*” (M=4.63, SD=1.206).

6.5. Exploratory Factor Analysis

There are number of issues that were considered before conducting Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Firstly, as suggested by Devellis (2003) and Netemeyer et al. (2003), the data set was identified as satisfactory for EFA with an overall number of responses of 509 and 40 items. Second, in order to examine the suitability of the data set for further exploratory factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was calculated. As the result, the value of KMO for the data set was 0.871 which is meritorious (Vogt, 2005; Hair et al., 2010) and the data set is considered suitable for EFA. Furthermore, the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity comes up with an approximate significant Chi-Square value of 10038.162 ($p < .000$, $df = 780$) indicating that there are substantial correlations between variables (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, it can be said that the data set is appropriated for further factor analysis.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.871
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	10038.162
	df	780
	Sig.	0.000

Table 6.10: KMO and Bartlett's Test

After examining all of the above issues, the next step was selecting the factor extraction method and rotation method. In order to increase the interpretability of the data set and minimise information loss at the same time, principal component analysis with promax rotation was utilised in this study (Ian and Jorge, 2016). Promax rotation is one of oblique rotation methods which assumes that the factors are correlated.

The principal component analysis, with a choice of promax rotation, was undertaken on 40 items and no restrictions were applied on the number of factors to be extracted. To determine the number of factors to be extracted or retained, the analysis was based on three criteria which were eigenvalues, scree test plot and explained variance. In this procedure, any item with communalities less than 0.50 was dropped. In addition, items with factor loading less than 0.5 or present cross loading over 0.30 were eliminated (Hair et al., 2010). The results of this process came up with a clean ten-factor structure (Table 6.11) where total variance was accounted for 72.5% with no loading less than 0.50, no cross loadings, and all communalities >0.50 .

Furthermore, Cronbach Alpha value of the 10 factors ranged from 0.806 to 0.953. These values satisfied the threshold of 0.70 and indicated high level of internal consistency within each dimension (Nunnally, 1978; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Consequently, no items were eliminated from the EFA procedure and the 10-factor 40-item structure remained for further analysis

	Factor Loadings										Communalities	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
CREA3	.942											0.884
CREA4	.918											0.803
CREA6	.905											0.893
CREA2	.901											0.822
CREA1	.896											0.824
CREA5	.863											0.814
CONT2		.933										0.907
CONT1		.899										0.837
CONT6		.893										0.861
CONT4		.881										0.878
CONT5		.875										0.864
CONT3		.850										0.810
CONS1			.891									0.810
CONS2			.883									0.741
CONS3			.860									0.786
CONS5			.858									0.765
CONS4			.829									0.777
SI2				.984								0.836
SI3				.975								0.864
SI1				.942								0.823
SI4				.928								0.812
SP2					.930							0.749
SP1					.929							0.697
SP3					.921							0.631
SP4					.898							0.849
ARR4						.913						0.756
ARR3						.834						0.712
ARR1						.803						0.760
ARR2						.772						0.789
ENT1							.927					0.762
ENT2							.924					0.841
ENT3							.840					0.793
SFI2								.918				0.825
SFI3								.887				0.811
SFI1								.762				0.772
PI2									.840			0.859
PI1									.822			0.841
PI3									.804			0.832
RE1										.761		0.769
RE2										.739		0.665
% of Variance	25.4%	11.10%	9.2%	5.40%	4.7%	4.10%	3.60%	2.90%	2.70%	2.10%		
Cronbach Alpha	0.953	0.898	0.874	0.862	0.876	0.846	0.848	0.813	0.885	0.806		

Table 6.11: Principal Component Analysis: Factor Loadings, Variance Extracted and Cronbach's Alpha

6.6. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

As mentioned in Chapter 5, this study will use the most update version of AMOS - AMOS 27.0 to perform SEM because of its user-friendly perspective compared to a more computer-coding approach as in LISREL.

SEM analysis includes two stages, namely Measurement Model Analysis (also known as Confirmatory Factor Analysis) and Structural Model Analysis. In Measurement Model Analysis the relationships between observed variables and latent variables are considered and the measurement model fit is examined (Hair et al., 2006; Gefen et al., 2000). Once the reliability and validity, as well as the model fit of the measurement model, are confirmed the second stage of SEM (Structural Model Analysis) will be performed. In this stage, path analysis, or regression is used to verify the hypothesised causal relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2011).

6.6.1. Measurement Model Analysis - Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

As pointed out in Chapter 7, a combination of indices will be used in CFA to assess the model fit of the measurement model which comprises of Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom (χ^2/df), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Furthermore, another fundamental requirement of sufficient model fit to be achieved is all factor loadings of observed variables should be higher than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010).

Model fit

AMOS 27.0 was used to examine a 10-factor, 40-item model and the outcome is presented in Figure 6.2. Indices revealed indicating the model fit was satisfactory ($\chi^2 = 850.931$, $p = .000$; Normed Chi-Square = 1.224, NFI = 0.957; CFI = 0.992; SRMR = 0.025; RMSEA = 0.021) (see Table 7.11).

In addition, no item needed to be removed after assessment as each of the 40 items loaded significantly and on the desired dimension. As shown in Table 6.11, the estimated confirmatory factor loadings ranged from 0.685 to 0.983 with t-values between 14.96 and 22.38 ($p=0.000$)

and all standard coefficients were more than 0.50, indicating that all items should remain in the model.

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN (Chi-square χ^2)	850.931	--	--
DF	695.000	--	--
CMIN/DF (χ^2/df)	1.224	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
NFI	0.957	>0.9	Excellent
CFI	0.992	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	0.025	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.021	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	1.000	>0.05	Excellent

Table 6.12: Measurement Model fit indices

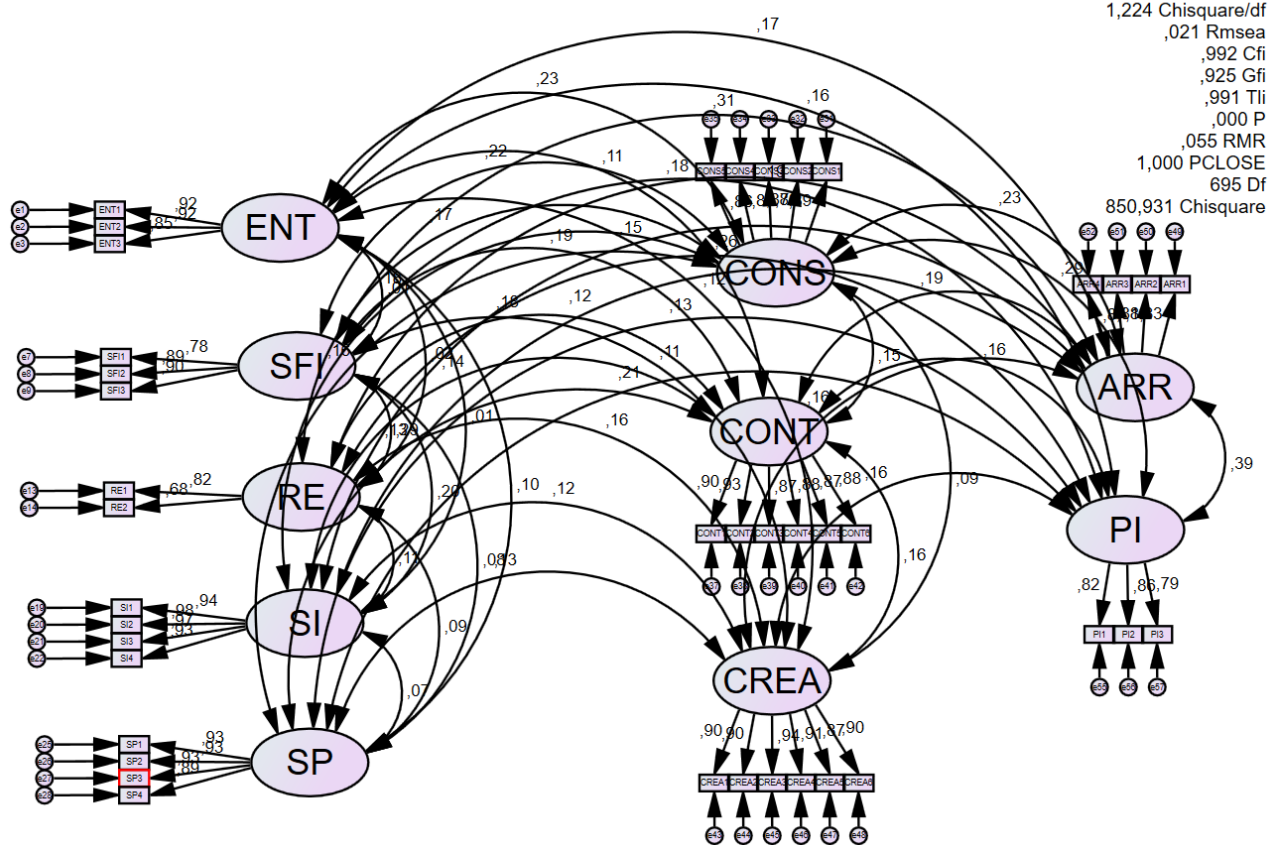


Figure 6.2: Factor Measurement Model

Reliability Check

According to Thorndike et al. (1991), a reliability check could be considered as the precision and accuracy of the measurement procedure. In Confirmatory Factor Analysis, reliability of the measurement procedure refers to the consistency level of an instrument (Said et al., 2011) and is measured based on three main indexes of Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Cronbach's Alpha. The measurement instruments are considered reliable when all factors have CR and AVE indexes higher than 0.50 and the Cronbach's Alpha higher than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006). As shown in Table 6.13, the Cronbach's Alpha ranged from 0.806 to 0.953, and CR and AVE of all factors are higher than 0.5. Therefore, the reliability check is satisfactory.

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
ENT	0.848	0.926	0.807
SFI	0.813	0.893	0.736
RE	0.806	0.725	0.571
SI	0.862	0.978	0.917
SP	0.876	0.957	0.847
CONS	0.874	0.937	0.747
CONT	0.898	0.957	0.789
CREA	0.953	0.964	0.817
ARR	0.846	0.901	0.695
PI	0.885	0.863	0.678

Table 6.13: Reliability check in Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Validity Check

There are two fundamental aspects to test construct validity used in Confirmatory Factor Analysis: convergent validity and discriminant validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). While convergent validity is to test that the constructs that should be related are, in fact, related, discriminant validity, on the contrary, is to test that the constructs which are expected to be unrelated, in fact, do not have any relationship.

Convergent validity of the measurement model can be examined by the Average Variance Extract (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR) (Fornell-Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table

6.15, all CR indexes ranged from 0.725 to 0.978 and all the AVE estimated were from 0.695 to 0.971 indicating the support of the scale's convergent validity.

Discriminant validity of the measurement model can be evaluated by the square root of AVE and the correlation of latent constructs (Fornell-Larcker, 1981). In Table 6.15, the square root of AVE values are shown in bold while other values show the correlation between respective constructs. According to Fornell-Larcker (1981), to have satisfactory discriminant validity the level of square root of the AVE of each construct needs to be larger than the correlations involving that construct, meaning the diagonal values (in bold) need to be higher than the value in its column and row. From the results in Table 6.15, discriminant validity is supported. Moreover, as presented in Table 6.16, the confidence interval for the correlation between each pair of dimensions were different from the value of 1, indicating the evidence of discriminant validity.

Factors and Items	Unstandardized loadings	Standardized Loadings
ENT - Entertainment		
ENT1 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites entertain me”	1.000	0.923
ENT2 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites make me feel relaxed”	1.018	0.921
ENT3 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites help me to pass time when I am bored”	0.904	0.851
SFI - Search for information		
SFI1 – “My interaction allows me to have a better understand of restaurant brands”	1.000	0.781
SFI2 – “My interaction allows me to find out the opinions of other customers of restaurant brands”	1.164	0.891
SFI3 – “My interaction gives me convenient access to information about restaurant brands”	1.141	0.897
RE - Remuneration		
RE1 – “I interact with restaurant brands' content in order to access discounts and promotions”	1.000	0.821
RE2 – “I like to interact with restaurant brands' content as they offer contests and games from which I can access free meals or drinks or other special offers”	0.824	0.685
SI - Social interaction		
SI1 – “I can meet people like me on restaurant social media sites”	1.000	0.942
SI2 – “I can meet new people on restaurant social media sites”	1.025	0.983
SI3 – “I can’t find out about people like me on restaurant social media sites”	1.015	0.974
SI4 – “I can interact with people like me on restaurant social media sites”	0.945	0.931

SP - Self-presentation		
SP1 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites help me make good impression on others”	1.000	0.929
SP2 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites help me improve the way I am perceived”	0.987	0.931
SP3 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites lets me present who I am to others”	1.030	0.926
SP4 – “My interactions on restaurant social media sites lets me present who I want to be to others”	0.970	0.895
CONS - Consumption		
CONS1 – “I read posts related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites”	1.000	0.886
CONS2 – “I read fan page(s) related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites”	1.024	0.873
CONS3 – “I view pictures/graphics related to restaurant brand(s) on social media sites”	1.014	0.862
CONS4 – “I follow blog(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”	0.961	0.844
CONS5 – “I follow restaurant brand(s)' page(s) on social media sites”	0.988	0.856
CONT - Contribution		
CONT1 – “I comment on video(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”	1.000	0.901
CONT2 – “I comment on post(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”	0.987	0.929
CONT3 – “I comment on picture(s)/graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”	0.994	0.866
CONT4 – “I share restaurant brand related post(s) on social media sites”	0.996	0.877
CONT5 – “I Like picture(s)/graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media sites”	0.983	0.871

CONT6 – “I Like post(s) related to restaurant brands on social media sites”	0.972	0.885
CREA - Creation		
CREA1 – “I initiate post(s) related to restaurant brands on blogs”	1.000	0.895
CREA2 – “I initiate post(s) related to restaurant brands on social networking sites”	0.989	0.898
CREA3 – “I post picture(s)/graphic(s) related to restaurant brands on social media”	0.955	0.937
CREA4 – “I post video(s) that show restaurant brands”	0.979	0.914
CREA5 – “I write post(s) related to restaurant brands on forums”	0.812	0.874
CREA6 – “I write review(s) related to restaurant brands”	0.979	0.904
ARR - Attitude toward reviews and ratings		
ARR1 – “Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are good”	1.000	0.832
ARR2 – “Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are valuable”	0.988	0.814
ARR3 – “Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are positive”	0.985	0.818
ARR4 – “Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are favourable”	1.088	0.871
PI - Purchase/ Visit intention		
PI1 – “I will definitely purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurants in the future”	1.000	0.821
PI2 – “I will continue purchase products/services belonging to the restaurant brands and visit the restaurants in the future”	0.971	0.858
PI3 – “I will refer products/services belonging to the restaurant brands to my friends/family/colleagues in the future”	0.930	0.791

Table 6.14: Factor loadings in CFA A

	CR	AVE	ENT	SFI	RE	SI	SP	CONS	CONT	CREA	ARR	PI
ENT	0.926	0.807	0.899									
SFI	0.893	0.736	0.014	0.858								
RE	0.725	0.571	0.018	0.285	0.755							
SI	0.978	0.917	0.013	0.198	0.106	0.958						
SP	0.957	0.847	0.099	0.084	0.088	0.075	0.92					
CONS	0.937	0.747	0.235	0.217	0.174	0.177	0.16	0.864				
CONT	0.957	0.789	0.109	0.186	0.179	0.14	0.127	0.155	0.888			
CREA	0.964	0.817	0.117	0.111	0.16	0.123	0.127	0.093	0.155	0.904		
ARR	0.901	0.695	0.17	0.313	0.184	0.154	0.119	0.234	0.192	0.159	0.834	
PI	0.863	0.678	0.16	0.191	0.262	0.134	0.207	0.293	0.161	0.157	0.387	0.823

Table 6.15: CR – Composite Reliabilities, AVE – Average Variance Extracted, Construct Correlations and Square Root of AVE

Parameter			Estimate (r)	S.E=SQRT((1-r ²)/(n-2))	t-value	P
ENT	<-->	SFI	0.014	0.044407	22.2036	0.00
ENT	<-->	RE	0.018	0.044404	22.11494	0.00
ENT	<-->	SI	0.013	0.044408	22.22582	0.00
ENT	<-->	SP	0.099	0.044193	20.38767	0.00
ENT	<-->	CONS	0.235	0.043168	17.72153	0.00
ENT	<-->	CONT	0.109	0.044147	20.1826	0.00
ENT	<-->	CREA	0.117	0.044107	20.01971	0.00
ENT	<-->	ARR	0.17	0.043765	18.96488	0.00
ENT	<-->	PI	0.16	0.043839	19.16084	0.00
SFI	<-->	RE	0.285	0.04257	16.79598	0.00
SFI	<-->	SI	0.198	0.043532	18.4231	0.00
SFI	<-->	SP	0.084	0.044255	20.69841	0.00
SFI	<-->	CONS	0.217	0.043353	18.06091	0.00
SFI	<-->	CONT	0.186	0.043637	18.65408	0.00
SFI	<-->	CREA	0.111	0.044137	20.14178	0.00
SFI	<-->	ARR	0.313	0.04218	16.28733	0.00
SFI	<-->	PI	0.191	0.043594	18.55762	0.00
RE	<-->	SI	0.106	0.044161	20.24395	0.00
RE	<-->	SP	0.088	0.044239	20.61517	0.00
RE	<-->	CONS	0.174	0.043734	18.88687	0.00
RE	<-->	CONT	0.179	0.043694	18.78965	0.00
RE	<-->	CREA	0.16	0.043839	19.16084	0.00
RE	<-->	ARR	0.184	0.043653	18.69275	0.00

RE	<-->	PI	0.262	0.04286	17.21878	0.00
SI	<-->	SP	0.075	0.044286	20.88674	0.00
SI	<-->	CONS	0.177	0.04371	18.8285	0.00
SI	<-->	CONT	0.14	0.043974	19.55693	0.00
SI	<-->	CREA	0.123	0.044074	19.8982	0.00
SI	<-->	ARR	0.154	0.043882	19.27908	0.00
SI	<-->	PI	0.134	0.044011	19.67689	0.00
SP	<-->	CONS	0.16	0.043839	19.16084	0.00
SP	<-->	CONT	0.127	0.044052	19.81751	0.00
SP	<-->	CREA	0.127	0.044052	19.81751	0.00
SP	<-->	ARR	0.119	0.044096	19.97914	0.00
SP	<-->	PI	0.207	0.04345	18.25101	0.00
CONS	<-->	CONT	0.155	0.043875	19.25934	0.00
CONS	<-->	CREA	0.093	0.044219	20.51151	0.00
CONS	<-->	ARR	0.234	0.043179	17.74029	0.00
CONS	<-->	PI	0.293	0.042462	16.65001	0.00
CONT	<-->	CREA	0.155	0.043875	19.25934	0.00
CONT	<-->	ARR	0.192	0.043585	18.53837	0.00
CONT	<-->	PI	0.161	0.043832	19.14119	0.00
CREA	<-->	ARR	0.159	0.043847	19.18051	0.00
CREA	<-->	PI	0.157	0.043861	19.2199	0.00
ARR	<-->	PI	0.387	0.040951	14.96911	0.00

Table 6.16: Correlations between each pair of constructs, estimates and t-values

Common Method Bias

The definition of common method bias, as well as the importance of assessing common method bias in research, has been examined in Chapter 7. The four main statistical methods that can be used to test the common method bias were also highlighted: Harman's one factor test, unmeasured latent factor technique, confirmatory factor analysis marker variable technique, and IV technique. The main problem with Harman's one factor test is this method uses a single-factor model and this is unlikely to fit the data, especially when the number of variables increases (Jordan & Troth, 2019; Chang et al., 2010). The biggest advantage of unmeasured latent factor technique is this method might 'also contain variance between the hypothesised relationships and the construct variables of interest' (Jordan & Troth, 2019:9), then it can lead to actually multiple biases (Eichhorn, 2014; Kline, 2005). As a result of the criticisms of those two methods, this study will use CFA marker variable technique to examine common method bias and to it is not a potential problem to the final results.

As suggested in Malhotra et al. (2006), a three-item fantasy was selected as the marker variable because it is not related to any construct of the hypothesised model. Then, the four nested models including CFA model, Baseline model, Method-C model and Method-R model were examined and compared to each other in order to assess the existence of common method bias. The model fits of those four models are presented in Table 6.17.

According to Table 6.17, the Baseline model has a better fit ($CFI = .994$ and $\chi^2 = 860.223$ with 698 degrees of freedom) than the CFA model, indicating the presence of common method bias. However, when comparing Baseline model and Method-C model, it can be seen that the Chi-square difference between these two models was not significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.652$), indicating the factor loadings in these two models are not significantly different. In other words, it means that the factor loadings were not significantly biased by common method variance. Furthermore, the result of comparing Method-C model and Method-R model shows not much difference ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.66$) meaning that the correlation parameter estimates were not affected significantly by the marker variable. Consequently, it can be said that the common method bias is not a big problem in this research.

Model	Model fit				Chi-Square Models comparison		
	χ^2	df	P	CFI	Δ models	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δ df
CFA Model	850.931	695	0.000	0.992			
Baseline Model	860.233	698	0.000	0.994			
Method-C Model	859.581	697	0.000	0.993	Baseline vs. Method-C	0.652	1
Method-R Model	858.921	698	0.001	0.992	Method-C vs. Method-R	0.66	1

Table 6.17: Common Method Bias Goodness of Fit Values and Model Comparison Tests

6.6.2. Structural Model Analysis

The purpose of this section is to evaluate the structural model which presents the hypothesised relationships between latent constructs. The model proposed in Chapter Five will be used as a structural model to test the hypotheses. As shown in the proposed model, there are paths from entertainment, search for information, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation to each of the three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content in social media including consumption, contribution, and creation, as well as paths from each of these dimensions to attitude toward review and rating, and purchase/visit intention.

The indices revealed indicates that the model fit is satisfactory: $\chi^2 = 782.421$, $p = .000$; Normed Chi-Square= 1.341, GFI=.917, CFI = .987; TLI = .986; RMSEA = .026, SRMR=.05. This indicates that the model was acceptable and, therefore, the significance levels of the hypotheses will be discussed.

Twenty of the twenty-one hypothesised structural paths were significant and in the proposed direction, indicating that most of the hypotheses were supported. Table 6.18 shows the unstandardised and standardised structural path estimates. Specifically, it was hypothesised that five antecedents, entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction and self-presentation are positively related to three dimensions of customer engagement with brand related content in social media, consumption, contribution and creation. Empirical results supported the positive influence of entertainment ($\beta = .221$, t -value= 4.907), searching for information ($\beta = .153$, t -value= 3.112), remuneration ($\beta = .111$, t -value= 2.045), social interaction ($\beta = .127$, t -value= 2.851) and self-presentation ($\beta = .110$, t -value= 2.471) on consuming brand-related content in social media. The results also showed the positive influence of entertainment ($\beta = .097$, t -value= 2.123), searching for information ($\beta = .125$, t -value= 2.509), remuneration ($\beta = .129$, t -value= 2.322), social interaction ($\beta = .095$,

t-value= 2.108) and self-presentation ($\beta= .190$, t-value= 2.998) on contributing content in social media are supported. In addition, while the significant influence of four antecedents, entertainment ($\beta= .105$, t-value= 2.993), remuneration ($\beta= .129$, t-value= 2.995), social interaction ($\beta= .193$, t-value= 2.635), self-presentation ($\beta= .195$, t-value= 2.995) on creating content in restaurant social media sites are presented, the impact of searching for information ($\beta= .047$, t-value= 0.943) on creating content is not supported.

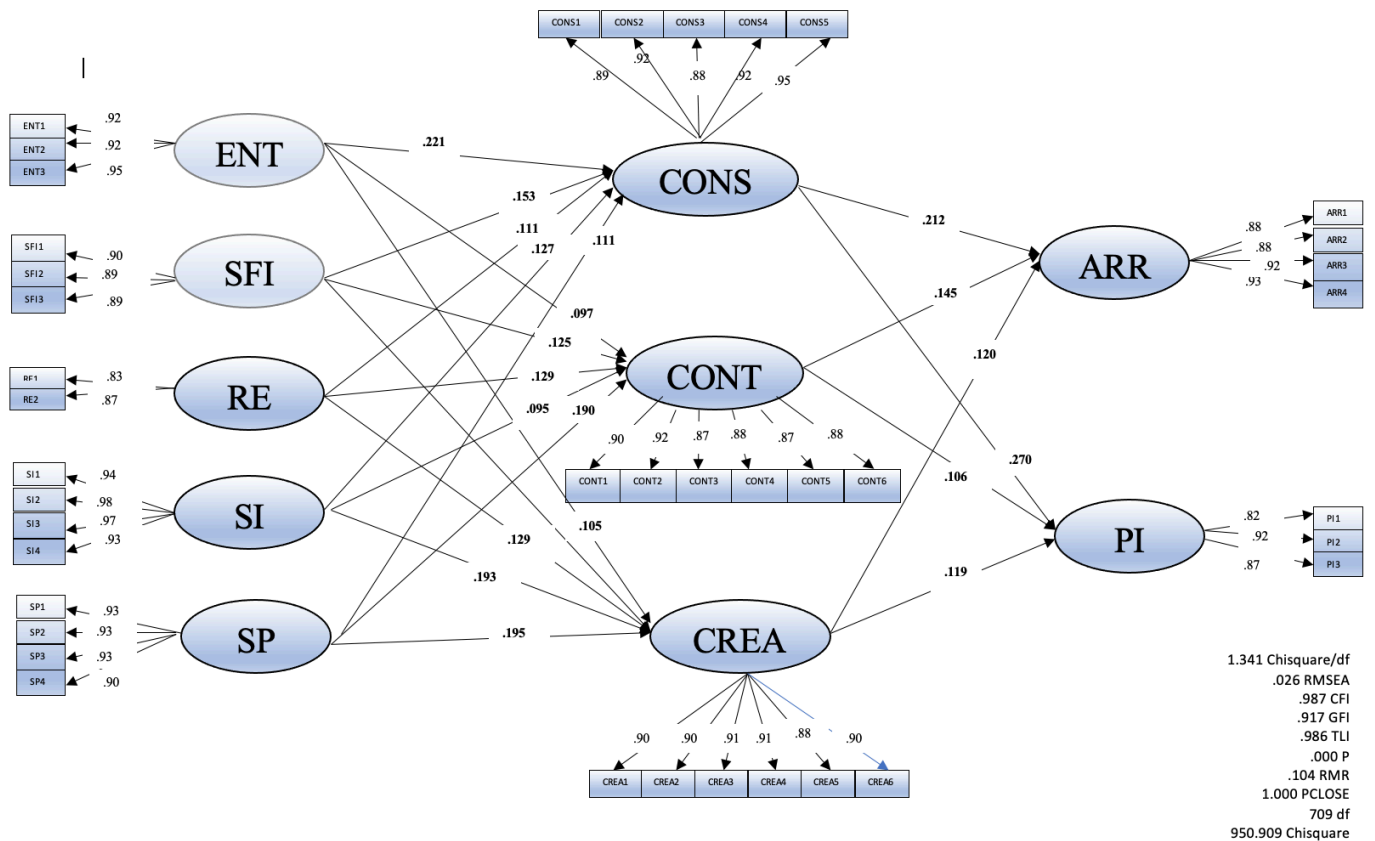


Figure 6.3: Structural Model Analysis

By assessing the outcomes of customer engagement with brand related content on social media H16, H17, H18 suggested that consumption, contribution, and creation of brand-related content on social media have positive influences on attitude toward reviews and ratings, while H19, H20, H21 hypothesised the positive impact of those three dimensions of customer engagement on social media on purchase/restaurant visit intention. The results supported the positive significant influence of consumption ($\beta= .212$, t-value= 4.474), contribution ($\beta= .145$, t-value= 3.119) and creation ($\beta= .120$, t-value= 2.608) on attitude toward reviews and ratings. The results also showed the positive significant impacts of consuming ($\beta= .270$, t-value= 5.609), contributing ($\beta= .106$, t-value= 2.261) and creating ($\beta= .119$, t-value= 2.946) restaurant brand-related content in social media on purchase/visit intention. The results of the hypotheses are presented in Table 6.19.

Structural Relationships	Unstandardized Estimate	t-value	Standardized Estimate
ENT (Entertainment) ---> CONS (Consumption)	0.202	4.907	0.221
ENT (Entertainment) ---> CONT (Contribution)	0.093	2.123	0.097
ENT (Entertainment) ---> CREA (Creation)	0.096	2.993	0.105
SFI (Search for information) ---> CONS (Consumption)	0.172	3.112	0.153
SFI (Search for information) ---> CONT (Contribution)	0.148	2.509	0.125
SFI (Search for information) ---> CREA (Creation)	0.053	0.943	0.047
RE (Remuneration) ---> CONS (Consumption)	0.135	2.045	0.111
RE (Remuneration) ---> CONT (Contribution)	0.66	2.322	0.129
RE (Remuneration) ---> CREA (Creation)	0.157	2.995	0.129
SI (Social interaction) ---> CONS (Consumption)	0.107	2.851	0.127
SI (Social interaction) ---> CONT (Contribution)	0.084	2.108	0.095
SI (Social interaction) ---> CREA (Creation)	0.078	2.635	0.193
SP (Self-presentation) ---> CONS (Consumption)	0.088	2.471	0.11
SP (Self-presentation) ---> CONT (Contribution)	0.076	2.998	0.19
SP (Self-presentation) ---> CREA (Creation)	0.077	2.990	0.195
CONS (Consumption) ---> ARR (Attitude toward reviews and ratings)	0.171	4.474	0.212
CONS (Consumption) ---> PI (Purchase/ Visit intention)	0.263	5.690	0.276
CONT (Contribution) ---> ARR (Attitude toward reviews and ratings)	0.111	3.119	0.145
CONT (Contribution) ---> PI (Purchase/ Visit intention)	0.096	2.261	0.106
CREA (Creation) ---> ARR (Attitude toward reviews and ratings)	0.097	2.608	0.12
CREA (Creation) ---> PI (Purchase/ Visit intention)	0.113	2.946	0.119

Table 6.18: Structural Modeling Results

Hypotheses	
H1: Entertainment is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H2: Entertainment is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H3: Entertainment is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H4: Searching for information is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H5: Searching for information is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H6: Searching for information is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.	Not Supported
H7: Remuneration is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H8: Remuneration is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H9: Remuneration is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H10: Social interaction is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H11: Social interaction is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H12: Social interaction is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H13: Self-presentation is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H14: Self-presentation is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H15: Self-presentation is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.	Supported
H16: Consumption of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitude toward reviews and ratings.	Supported
H17: Contribution of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitude toward reviews and ratings	Supported
H18: Creation of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitude toward reviews and ratings.	Supported
H19: Consumption of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention	Supported
H20: Contribution of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention	Supported
H21: Creation of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention	Supported

Table 6.19: Summary of Hypotheses results

6.7. Summary

This chapter presented the analysis performed to test the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 4. After confirming the reliability and validity including nomological validity of proposed measures, the chapter assessed the first step towards testing the hypothesised relationships which is analysing the measurement model (CFA) using AMOS 27.0. The findings of CFA showed that the measurement model satisfied the criteria of reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and fit indices. Then, the CFA market variable technique was used to check the presence of common method bias. It was shown that the common method bias was not big problem in this research. After that, the structural model which presented the hypotheses was tested. The findings indicate that most of hypotheses were supported, except the influence of searching for information on creating restaurant brand-related content in social media. The findings from analysis in this chapter will be further discussed in relation to the relevant literature in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN – DISCUSSIONS OF THE FINDINGS

7.1. Introduction

In this chapter, a discussion of the findings of the previous analyses in Chapter Seven will be presented in relation to the extant literature. The first section of the chapter will address the customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media as well as their motivations and consequences in the restaurant industry. Next, a discussion about the influences of proposed motivations on the three levels of customer engagement behaviours, including consumption, contribution, and creation of content, will be provided. Finally, the findings of relationship between those three levels of customer engagement with restaurant brand-related content will also be discussed, confirming the proposed hypotheses. The chapter will end by presenting a revised framework and providing a summary. Figure 7.1 highlights the outline of this chapter.

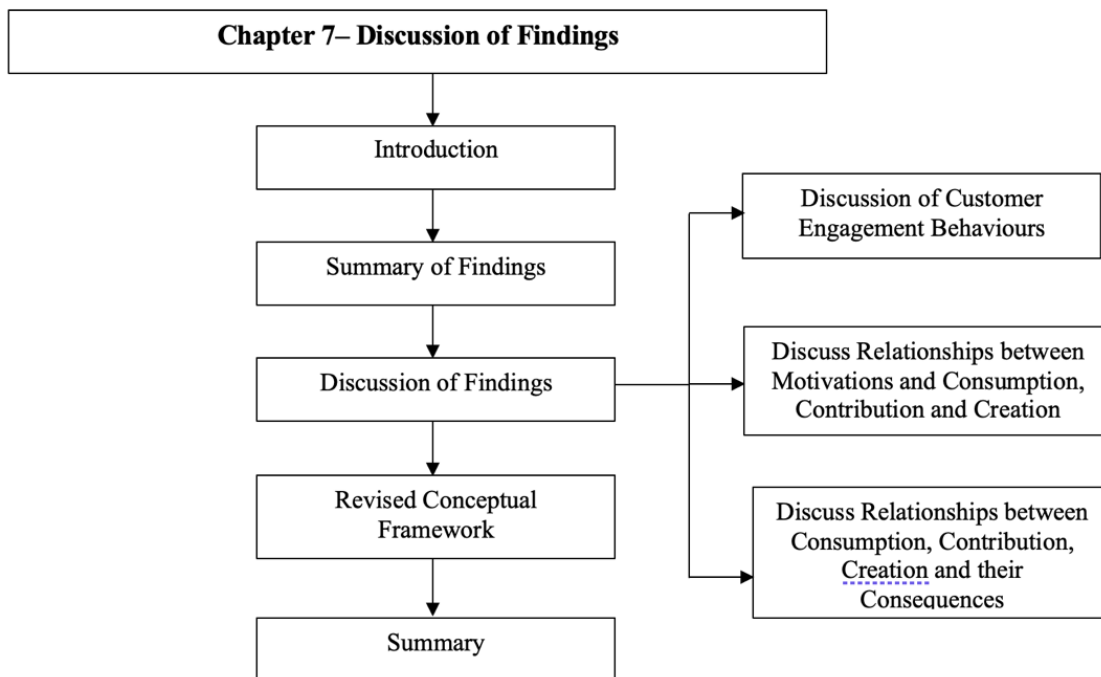


Figure 7.1: Outline of Chapter Seven

Several brands have considerably enhanced their creation and usage of social media to engage their customers while only a relatively small portion of customers are really engaged

(Heinonen, 2018; CMI, 2016; Brenner & Bedor, 2015). Thus, brands need to find a way to enhance and increase customer engagement with their branded content on social media. It indicates the importance of understanding a comprehensive list of customer engagement behaviours as well as investigating the motivational factors which drive the customer engagement with brand-related content on social media (Meire et al., 2019; Schultz & Peltier, 2013; De Vries et al., 2012). The investigation of this research was based on the customer engagement construct and focused on the behavioural dimension. However, while emphasising the behavioural perspective, the psychological perspectives of the customer engagement construct cannot be ignored. It results from motivational drivers which illustrate the customers' psychological process (Kumar & Pansari, 2016; Van Doorn et al., 2010). With the evolution of technologies on social media platforms, customers are able not only to consume but also contribute and share content which can criticise and review brands online. Therefore, social media is considered as a new way to foster customer engagement (Dessart et al., 2015). Although customer engagement on social media is continually concerned in research, and there is limited information in literature regarding the influence of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media platforms (Piehler et al., 2019; Dessart, 2017). Thus, it is necessary to explore the construct of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media to enrich the literature. Moreover, the systematic literature review shows a need to investigate the customer engagement construct in various unexplored hospitality service industries (Islam & Rahman, 2016; Bowden et al., 2015). The restaurant industry was chosen to be studied in this research as it is one of the fastest-growing service industries, having significant economic impacts (Han et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2013). The restaurant industry's growth has caused increased competition and thereby pressure for survival. As the industry becomes more competitive restaurants, therefore, need to pay greater attention to engaging customers (Han et al., 2016). Thus, this study aimed to investigate customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media in terms of its dimensions as well as possible motivational drivers and consequential outcomes in the context of the restaurant industry.

In order to understand customer engagement behaviours with restaurant brands on social media platforms, this study was based on the COBRAs typology of Muntinga et al. (2011), which presents three levels of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media: consumption, contribution, and creation. Furthermore, this model has a hierarchical order, being a passive-to-active gradient, which was used to understand how different levels of

online activities with brand-related content connect with other factors such as motivations and consequences on social media.

In order to examine the antecedents of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media to answer the first objective question, this research utilises the Uses and Gratification (U&G) theory which was proposed by Katz (1959) and widely used in research to understand why users participate and engage with the Internet, online communities, social media, and blogs. According to U&G theory, people use media and participate in media content in order to gain specific goals by being satisfied their various needs (Gao & Feng, 2016; Jahn & Kunz, 2012; Muntinga et al., 2011). The most common needs can be divided into three categories: content-orientated, relationship-orientated, and self-orientated. Content-orientated needs are based on media content, relationship-orientated needs are based on social interactions with others, and self-orientated needs are based on a persons' individual needs such as attaining a specific status or the requirement for distraction. In the content-orientated area, this study examined the three reasons for customer engagement with brand-related content which are the needs for entertainment, searching for information, and remuneration. In the relationship-orientated area, this research examines the customer needs for social interaction with other users and brand's fans. Finally, from the self-orientated perspective, self-presentation is examined as an antecedent of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media.

Moreover, from the literature review, two consequential outcomes of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media are identified which are the attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase/visit intention (Popy & Bappy, 2020; Ahn & Back, 2018; Jang et al., 2009). First, online reviews and ratings are an important effect of customer participation in the restaurant sector (Lee & Ma, 2012; Mellet et al., 2014). As individuals have trouble determining the quality of products/services before consumption, online reviews and ratings, eWOM, are becoming more popular and influencing customer involvement in the restaurant business. When it comes to purchase/visit intention, previous studies have found that purchase/visit intention plays a vital part in growing sales and other purchase behaviours. Therefore, it may be considered a key goal and destination for organisations to establish and maintain consumer engagement. A favourable association between high levels of content engagement and purchase intention has also been suggested in the literature (Ahn & Back, 2018; Jang et al., 2009).

In order to investigate the relationship between the five identified motivations as well as two consequences and the three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant context, this study adopts a confirmatory quantitative methodology with the use of a structured online questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed through the convenient sampling method, resulting in 509 valid responses. In addition, the confirmatory quantitative methodology was based on the use of scales widely tested in the literature, aiming to investigate the causal relationship between variables in the proposed model. Thus, structural equation modeling analysis was used in this research. The findings obtained throughout this research will be briefly presented in Table 7.1 and will be discussed in relation to the results of the previous studies in the next section.

With regard to the age of respondents, most of them (97.2%) are aged from 26 to 40. Not surprisingly, this age range is also the category that most frequently uses social media networking sites. In addition, this age range is also justified as the range of people who most often go out to eat in Vietnam (according to Vietcetera, 2018). In terms of gender, the sample consists of 40% male and 60% female respondents. This suits the fact that the number of female members of the brands' social media platforms exceeds male members. With regard to income, more than 91% of respondents have a monthly income at an average level or above. Moreover, most of the respondents reside in the three most prominent cities in Vietnam (Ho Chi Minh City, Hanoi, and Da Nang). It is a fact that the number of social media users has grown massively, and Facebook is the most used social media platform so far (Kemp, 2020; Adwek, 2018). This is in accordance with this research, where respondents state that they use Facebook (97.3%), YouTube (57%), Instagram (54.7%), and WhatsApp (45%) every day. Most of respondents claims that they spent from 30 minutes to 3 hours on social media each day (37.3% spent from 30 to 60 minutes, and 40.5% spent from 1 to 3 hours a day). The data also showed that both males and females spent roughly the same time on social media per day. Moreover, it is shown that the younger generation (18-25) spent more time on social media where 92% of respondents who are in this age range claim they spent from 3 to 5 hours a day.

Once the profile of the respondents was understood, it is essential to discuss the findings in accordance with the theoretical framework formulated and the respective hypotheses. The constructs will be contemplated regarding how they are operationalised by the variables and the causal relationships between latent variables will be explained. In the suggested model of

this research, the variables regarding COBRAs (Online Brand-Related Activities) play a pivotal role, evaluating the motivations of entertainment, information searching, remuneration, social interaction and self-presentation as their antecedents and their outcomes: attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase/visit intention.

7.2. Summary of findings and the discussions

7.2.1. Summary of findings

Research objectives	Research questions	Data analysis	Hypotheses	Key findings	Implication
<i>To identify the customer engagement level with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry.</i>	Q1: What are the behaviours of customers with brand-related content on social media regarding restaurant brands?	Descriptive analyses		<p>Customer engagement activities with restaurant brand-related content on social media vary among consumption, contribution and creation of content.</p> <p>The Mean of Consumption and Contribution items are relatively high (≥ 3.6).</p> <p>The Mean of Creation items are lower (ranged from 2.25 to 2.75) but the Max value is still high (=6).</p>	Customers of the restaurant industry tend to be more engaged in consuming and contributing to brand-related content activities, compared to behaviours of creating branded content.
<i>To measure the importance of motivational factors in relation to customer engagement behaviour dimensions.</i>	Q2: To what extent does entertainment influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?	Structural Equation Modeling analyses	<p>H1: "Entertainment is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media"</p> <p>H2: "Entertainment is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media."</p> <p>H3: "Entertainment is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media."</p>	<p>H1 is supported. Entertainment positively and significantly affects the consumption of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .221$, t-value= 4.907).</p> <p>H2 is supported. Entertainment positively affects the contribution of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .097$, t-value= 2.123).</p> <p>H3 is supported. Entertainment positively and significantly affects the creation of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .105$, t-value= 2.993).</p>	The customers' desire for entertainment positively and significantly motivates the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media.

<p>Q3: To what extent does searching for information influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?</p>	<p>Structural Equation Modeling analyses</p>	<p>H4: “Searching for information is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H5: “Searching for information is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H6: “Searching for information is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.”</p>	<p>H4 is supported. Searching for information positively and significantly affects the consumption of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .153$, $t\text{-value} = 3.112$).</p> <p>H5 is supported. Searching for information positively affects the contribution of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .125$, $t\text{-value} = 2.509$).</p> <p>H6 is not supported. Searching for information positively and significantly affects the creation of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .047$, $t\text{-value} = 0.943$).</p>	<p>The customers’ needs of information searching positively and significantly motivates the consumption and contribution of restaurant brand-related content on social media.</p> <p>More importantly, no relationship between the information seeking and the creation of content was found.</p>
<p>Q4: To what extent does remuneration influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?</p>	<p>Structural Equation Modeling analyses</p>	<p>H7: “Remuneration is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H8: “Remuneration is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H9: “Remuneration is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.”</p>	<p>H7 is supported. Remuneration positively and significantly affects the consumption of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .111$, $t\text{-value} = 2.045$).</p> <p>H8 is supported. Remuneration positively affects the contribution of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .129$, $t\text{-value} = 2.322$).</p> <p>H9 is supported. Remuneration positively and significantly affects the creation of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .129$, $t\text{-value} = 2.995$).</p>	<p>The gratification of remuneration positively and significantly motivates the customers’ consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam.</p>

<p>Q5: To what extent does social interaction influence the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?</p>	<p>Structural Equation Modeling analyses</p>	<p>H10: “Social interaction is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H11: “Social interaction is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H12: “Social interaction is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.”</p>	<p>H10 is supported. Social interaction positively and significantly affects the consumption of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .127$, $t\text{-value} = 2.851$).</p> <p>H11 is supported. Social interaction positively affects the contribution of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .095$, $t\text{-value} = 2.108$).</p> <p>H12 is supported. Social interaction positively and significantly affects the creation of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .193$, $t\text{-value} = 2.635$).</p>	<p>The customers’ needs of social interaction positively and significantly motivates the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam.</p>
<p>Q6: To what extent does self-presentation influence three dimensions of customer engagement with restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam?</p>	<p>Structural Equation Modeling analyses</p>	<p>H13: “Self-presentation is positively related to consuming brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H14: “Self-presentation is positively related to contributing to brand-related content on social media.”</p> <p>H15: “Self-presentation is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media.”</p>	<p>H13 is supported. Self-presentation positively and significantly affects the consumption of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .110$, $t\text{-value} = 2.471$).</p> <p>H14 is supported. Self-presentation positively affects the contribution of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .190$, $t\text{-value} = 2.998$).</p> <p>H15 is supported. Self-presentation positively and significantly affects the creation of brand-related content on social media ($\beta = .195$, $t\text{-value} = 2.995$).</p>	<p>The customers’ motivations for self-presentation positively and significantly motivates the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media in Vietnam.</p>

<p><i>To evaluate the importance of relationships between customer behaviour dimensions with the consequential outcomes.</i></p>	<p>Q7: To what extent do the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content in social media impact on the customer's attitude toward reviews and ratings?</p>	<p>Structural Equation Modeling analyses</p>	<p>H16: "Consumption of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitude toward reviews and ratings."</p> <p>H17: "Contribution of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitude toward reviews and ratings."</p> <p>H18: "Creation of brand-related content on social media is positively related to attitude toward reviews and ratings."</p>	<p>H16 is supported. The consumption of restaurant brand-related content on social media is positively and significantly related to attitude toward reviews and ratings ($\beta = .212$, t-value= 4.474).</p> <p>H17 is supported. The contribution of restaurant brand-related content on social media is positively and significantly related to attitude toward reviews and ratings ($\beta = .145$, t-value= 3.119).</p> <p>H18 is supported. The creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media is positively and significantly related to attitude toward reviews and ratings ($\beta = .120$, t-value= 2.608).</p>	<p>Higher level of consumption, contribution, and creation of brand-related content on social media leads to higher level of customer attitude toward online reviews and ratings about restaurant brands.</p>
	<p>Q8: To what extent do the consumption, contribution, and creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media impact on the purchase/visit intention?</p>	<p>Structural Equation Modeling analyses</p>	<p>H19: "Consumption of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention."</p> <p>H20: "Contribution of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention."</p> <p>H21: "Creation of brand-related content on social media is positively related to purchase/visit intention."</p>	<p>H19 is supported. The consumption of restaurant brand-related content on social media is positively and significantly related to purchase/visit intention ($\beta = .270$, t-value= 5.609).</p> <p>H20 is supported. The contribution of restaurant brand-related content on social media is positively and significantly related to purchase/visit intention ($\beta = .106$, t-value= 2.261).</p> <p>H21 is supported. The creation of restaurant brand-related content on social media is positively and significantly related to purchase/visit intention ($\beta = .119$, t-value= 2.946).</p>	<p>Higher level of consumption, contribution, and creation of brand-related content on social media leads to higher level of customer intention to purchase products related to restaurant or visit restaurants in the future.</p>

Table 7.1: Overview of the research findings

7.2.2. Discussion of findings

Empirical results from this study noticed that the popularity of customer engagement activities with branded content decreased when the level of activities' activeness decreased. Customers of the restaurant industry tend to be the most engaged in consuming brand-related content activities compared to contributing to and creating branded content. The branded content- creating activities on social media are the least popular in the restaurant sector, indicating that customers are less engaged in creating behaviours with restaurant brand-related content on social media. It was also consistent with the literature showing that consuming online content behaviours such as viewing posts, watching videos, and reading comments relating to the brand posts are the most popular online activities (Edelman, 2013; Sashi, 2012). "Lurker" is the term used to describe those who only consume brand-related content and encouraging them to assume a more obvious engagement with a brand fan page is also crucial for brands (Edelman, 2013; Sun et al., 2014). Despite only passively consuming content, lurkers are still considered as active users and, therefore, are still a valuable audience for brands to target in their social media strategies (Edelman, 2013; Wang & Stefanone, 2013). Similarly, Zhang & Storek (2011) suggested that the contributions of lurkers to the brands may be as much as the more active members. However, brands need to criticise stimulating lurkers to become more active users because higher number of lurkers could lead to a lower posting rate as well as a low rate of valuable content (Sun et al., 2014). In order to do that, it is important to understand the motivations influencing each level of engagement behaviour: consumption, contribution, and creation. Thus, the next section will discuss the influence of proposed motivations on customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry.

7.2.2.1. Motivations of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry

Another objective of this study is to measure the influence of the selected motivations, those being entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction and self-presentation, on the three levels of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media regarding restaurant brands. It was concluded that all five motivations positively influence content consumption and contribution activities. However, motivation for information searching is not influenced by the highest level of COBRAs (content creation).

Figure 7.2 shows that, in the context of the restaurant industry, the customers' need for entertainment is the most vital factor for content consumption and the need for self-presentation is most important for content contribution. In contrast, content creation is largely affected by the customers' needs for social interaction and self-presentation. Restaurant brand managers can use the findings of this study to develop their brand-related content and engage suitable customers for each marketing strategy. For example, if the brand aims to reach as many users as possible, entertainment content could increase content consumption behaviours such as following the pages, reading, and watching branded posts. In contrast, when brands want to encourage user-generated content, they need to satisfy the customers' needs for social interaction and self-presentation; thus, the content strategies will need to be adjusted accordingly. Providing suitable, favourable, and valuable content will enhance customer engagement with brand-related content which can, in turn, eventually increase customer engagement with the brand (Taiminen & Ranaweera, 2019; Schivinski et al., 2016). The examination and discussion for each motivation will be discussed in the following sections.

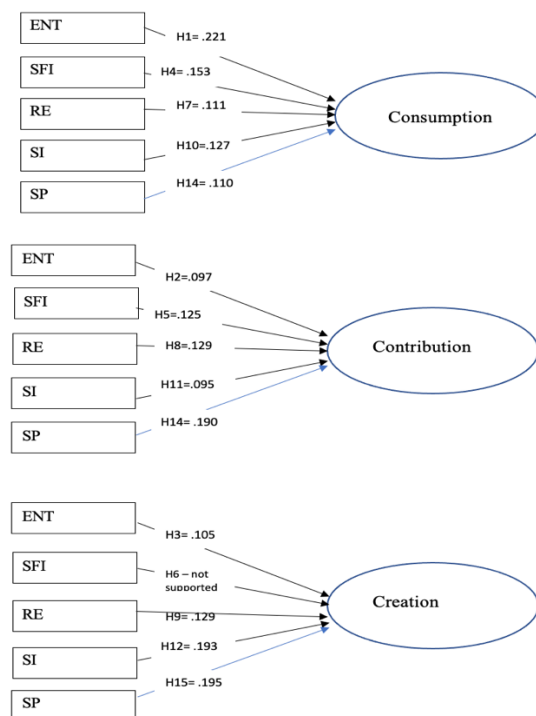


Figure 7.2: Influence of five motivational factors (Entertainment, Searching for Information, Remuneration, Social Interaction and Self-presentation) on three dimensions of Customer Engagement with brand-related content on social media.

Relationship between motivation of entertainment and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

In literature, some research found no relationship between entertainment motivation and customer engagement behaviours with social media content (Vale and Fernandes, 2017; de Silva, 2019; Qin, 2020). However, this research found entertainment gratification is the vital motivational factor for encouraging customers to engage with brand-related content in all forms including consuming, contributing, and creating activities. These findings are consistent with several findings in the literature. Regarding consuming content behaviours, Curran & Lennon (2011) and Enginkaya & Yilmaz (2014) claimed that enjoyment is the most important factor driving content consumption on social media. Moreover, Swani et al. (2013) found the relationship between entertainment factor with contributing behaviours. They declared that the content with entertainment aspect is likely to increased customer engagement in the forms of “like” and “comment” (contribution). Similarly, Cvijikj & Michahelles (2013) also agreed that entertaining content could significantly increase the number of likes, shares, and comments on social media. Furthermore, regarding creating level of customer engagement, study of Swani et al. (2013) also revealed that brand-related content which can satisfy the entertainment need of customers, will have strong effect on online WOM activities. A possible explanation for the relationship of entertainment motivation and consuming, contributing and creating content is because of the nature of this motivation as fully intrinsic. Customers interact with restaurants’ social media platforms because the content is fun, enjoyable, or satisfying themselves without the necessity of obtaining separable outcomes (de Vries et al., 2017). Hence, when this gratification is satisfied, customers usually tend to be more engaged in social media. Entertainment motivation relates to the need of relaxation and evasion from daily routine through brand-related activities (Muntinga, 2013; Baldus et al., 2015), that the feasible reason explaining why customers are likely willing to consume the entertaining content. Also, customers can find it is fun when talking and sharing ideas/ tips with others who have the same products/ services/ or problems of interest. This results in contributing and creating behaviors to satisfy their need of entertainment. Moreover, it is worth to note that the data of this research was collected during the Covid-19 when people are at home most of the time and facing with stresses. Therefore, they are more likely seeking for entertainment content to feel enjoyable and comfort.

Based on these findings, restaurant brands should focus on entertainment content when considering social media strategies in order to engage with their customers. Brands need to

fulfil their customers' desire for entertainment, feelings of relaxation, and emotional release (passing time) (Genadi & Furkan, 2020). Waqas et al. (2021) suggest entertainment content use the humour and aesthetic experiences that the customers could understand, therefore increasing customer interactions with brand-related content. Humour experience is defined as "the extent to which social media users' interaction with branded content allows them to collectively rework the meaning of branded content in a humorous way which takes them to an amusing state" (Waqas et al., 2021:973), while aesthetic experience is defined as "the extent to which social media users' interaction with branded content creates feelings of joy due to artistically beautiful and/or pleasing appearance collectively attributed to branded content by consumers" (Waqas et al., 2021:974). Content that could entertain customers is usually funny, where videos and images create more of a humour experience than regular text posts on social media (Waqas et a., 2021). Waqas et al. (2021) also highlighted the value of creativeness, freshness and trendiness of the entertainment perspective of brand-related content.

Relationship between motivation of information seeking and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

When it comes to the motivation of searching for information, our results show that information seeking has positive and strong relationships with consuming and contributing brand-related content but no relationship with creating content. Evidence from the research clearly indicates that brand-related content was considered as a source of information where customers can find information or opinions about the brands that could help them solve problems relating to their choices of brand consumption. Customers interact with brand-related content on restaurant social media platforms to better understand brands; information relating their products, prices, and events; or evaluation of products or services of the brands through the opinions and comments of other customers (Davis et al., 2014). These findings are consistent with some other research results. For instant, Saridakis et al. (2016) and Vale & Fernandes (2017) reported that information seeking could influence lower-engaged forms of activities with brand-related content. Informative brand-related content can increase customer engagement in the form of consumption such as viewing content and clicking on links (Ko et al., 2005; De Vries et al., 2012) and forms of contribution such as likes and comments (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013). The possible explanation for the consumption of informational content could be that people with information-seeking motivation usually have high expectations about having useful information of the products or services, brands, events, booking process, etc. These expectations guide them to increase content-consumption behaviors to get the information that

they need. In addition, in order to get more valuable and resourceful information, customers are likely willing to make content-contribution behaviours such as commenting on informational content in order to seek for opinions or advices from others, exchange information or update current trends. They will usually get adequate and useful information to satisfy their need. Hence, there is no more motivation for seeking more information from content-creation behaviours. Brands should fulfil the other motivational needs of customers (entertainment, remuneration, social interaction and self-presentation) when seeking the highest level of customer engagement with branded content. In conclusion, this study confirms hypotheses H4 and H5, while H6 “*Searching for information is positively related to creating brand-related content on social media*” could not be supported.

Providing informative content will help brands keep their customers engaged in the forms of consuming and contributing. There are some features of content providing information that brands should acknowledge. Rimadias et al. (2021) suggest trendiness as a crucial element of informative content on social media. Trending, informative content refers to the latest news or events, hot discussion topics relating to the products/services, or other brand-related topics (Waqas et al., 2021). Customers tend to be more motivated when seeking and keeping up with the trending information or updates about brands on social media platforms (Gallaughier & Ransbotham, 2010). Having the same idea, Liu et al. (2021) agree that trendy information on social media can increase customers’ attention, positive feelings, and experiences that drive customer engagement and loyalty. Moreover, customers engage with informative content to find out the opinions of others about the restaurant brands. People tend to trust other customers or influencers when searching for information and opinions about the products or services of restaurant brands (Lee et al., 2018). This suggests that restaurant brands should use relevant influencers when presenting their informative brand-related content in order to increase the customers’ consumption and contribution to the content.

Relationship between remuneration motivation and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

In addition, the empirical findings of this research supported the relationships between remuneration and three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content. In particular, when customers receive motivations in the form of rewards or incentives, they are more likely to engage with brand-related content quite equally in all forms of consumption,

contribution and creation. These findings are consistent with previous studies which showed a strong positive impact of remuneration on customer engagement with brand-related content from lower to higher forms of activeness (Piehler et al., 2019; Vale & Fernandes, 2017; Saridakis et al., 2016; Muntinga, 2013). In contrary to the fully intrinsic entertainment motivation, the motivation of remuneration is fully extrinsic. This means customers with remuneration motivation often engage with the brand-related content because they expect to gain some kind of rewards or incentives such as discounts, lucky drawn prizes, loyalty points, etc. In order to get these rewards, customers will be usually required not only consume but also to make some contribution or creation behaviours such as like the posts, share the posts or creating the posts for reviewing or sharing experience they have with the brands, the products or services. This is the most feasible reason why they are likely to be more active engage with the brand-related content. It is thus not hard for restaurant brands to gain customers who will strongly engaged with their branded content by rewarding their content contribution and creation. Moreover, when examining remuneration content, Buzeta et al. (2021:16) found “the effect of remuneration content is stronger for platforms using customised than the broadcast message”. Restaurant brand managers, therefore, should customise/personalise their promotional and remunerative content to make them more attractive to customers and increase customer engagement with the content. In summary, hypotheses H7, H8 and H9 are supported by the study result.

Relationship between motivation of social interaction and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

When evaluating the influence of the motivation for social interaction on customer engagement with restaurant brand-related content, the research findings revealed that social interaction, indeed, has positive impacts on all three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content, including the consumption, contribution, and creation of content. In other words, it can be said that customers with a higher need for social interaction are likely to have higher engagement behaviours with brand-related content. In addition, social media users tend to have a sense of belonging with a community or group, including other users who interact the same way with the same content related to a brand (Rahman et al., 2018; Davis et al., 2014). Through consuming and contributing to branded content and related comments, customers will have a chance to know other users and understand them better. This is because the interactions with brand-related content enable customers

to observe meanings ascribed to branded content by others, exchange views about their experience with branded content, develop an attachment to the community, build links and have conversations around their branded content experience (Waqas et al., 2021: 970).

The sense of closeness and connection of an individual with other users will, in turn, increase his/her engagement with the content they consume (Waqas et al., 2021; Davis et al., 2014). These results are consistent with findings from previous studies in the literature that customers' need for social interaction and their desire for social integration have been determined as significant motivators for customers engaging on social media (Muntinga et al., 2011; Gummerus et al., 2012; Jahn & Kunz, 2012; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). One of the possible explanations for the relationship of social interaction and content – contribution is the sense of bonding that customers could have. Customers usually feel the increased bonding and relationship when they like or comment on the same brand-related content (Waqas et al., 2021). Contribution to the content enables the customers know better about the others, about how they interpret the messages. Interaction with the content also allows them to talk to others, show your opinions about different matters in life (Muntinga et al., 2011). People tend to find closer to other users who have the similar stance and way of thinking; thus, their need of social interaction will be positively satisfied.

More importantly, the findings also found that the most decisive impact of social interaction on customer engagement is on content creation. It sheds the same light on previous studies, which suggested that social interaction motivation can increase the creation of user-generated content (UGC) (Vale & Fernandes, 2017; Saridakis et al., 2016; Tsai & Men, 2013; Gummerus et al., 2012; Daugherty et al., 2008). For instance, people might upload a post, or a picture related to a brand because they tend to have curiosity about how the others react to see if whether they have the same way of thinking or not. By creating brand-related content, people also want to confirm that they are part of a group such as group of brand enthusiasts or group of brand fans, thus, increase their sense of belonging. Content creating the highest engagement level of customers with a brand-related content and, therefore, aims for all brands to get with their social media marketing strategies. This is also very important to a brand, because as mentioned in Muntinga et al. (2011), people with a sense of belonging and a motivation of social interaction, tend to create some kind of brand-related content when they see others do. For example, when customers see the other customer upload a picture of him/or her while

having dinner at a restaurant, they might be motivated to do the same. This will result in stronger social presence and engagement of customers to the brands, bringing the brands a competitive advantage over the competitors on social media.

Relationship between motivation of self-presentation and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media

Finally, the study aims to examine how self-presentation as a motivational factor influences engaging brand-related content on social media. Many activities on social networking sites can be considered as types of self-presentation, such as users can customise their accounts, display their thoughts through likes, dislikes, and comments to present themselves among other users in the network. Although some papers argued self-presentation motives do not affect consumption and contribution but only creation of branded content (Vale & Fernandes, 2017; Shao, 2009), the empirical findings from the analyses showed that self-presentation motivations positively and significantly influence their behaviours of all three dimensions, including consuming, contributing, and creating content related to brand in the context of restaurant sector. Previous studies also support the importance of self-presentation with brand-related content engagement. Several other studies back up the impact of self-presentation motives on social media content engagement (Dholakia et al., 2004; Bolar, 2009). Peluchette & Karl (2009), for example, Facebook users intentionally using their posts to project certain images of themselves. Therefore, customers may want to show themselves among others by engaging with brand-related content on social media (Tsai & Men, 2017; Saridakis et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2010). Customers with greater social identity and self-presentation motivation, according to Moon et al. (2013), will engage more with the brand and brand-related content. This study confirms the positive and significant relationship between self-presentation motivation and consuming, contributing and creating brand-related content on social media. Instead of only consuming brand-related content, customers with higher self-presentation motivation are likely to engage in content contribution and creation behaviours to express themselves and impress others. People may comment on the brand-related content or create a post about the brand in order to show others about themselves, gain attention from other people, express their viewpoint and present their personality (Muntinga et al., 2011). For example, they might post a picture or a video while having dinner at a fine dining restaurant, to show that is their style of dining out and their style of life. Another example, customers may contribute to brand-related content to gain others' recognition. They tend to be very happy and self-assured when they leave a comment on a post to share knowledge, or to show their opinions, and their

comment receives many likes and hearts and good feedbacks from others. Those activities satisfy their need of self-presentation and encourages them doing the same thing in the future.

7.2.2.2. Consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media in the restaurant industry

This study's next objective was to evaluate the influence of each level of customer engagement with brand-related content on attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase/visit intention in the restaurant industry. The empirical findings from the study confirm the significant positive relationship between all three levels of content engagement, including consumption, contribution, and creation, and their consequences: attitude toward reviews and ratings and the restaurant visit intention. These results are in accordance with previous arguments where the lowest level of engagement with brand-related content (content consumption) is stated to be value and important with brands (Edelman, 2013; Wang & Stefanone, 2013). Furthermore, Figure 7.3 shows that consumption level even has a bigger impact on attitude toward online reviews and ratings, as well as visit intention toward the restaurant brands compared to contribution and creation levels.

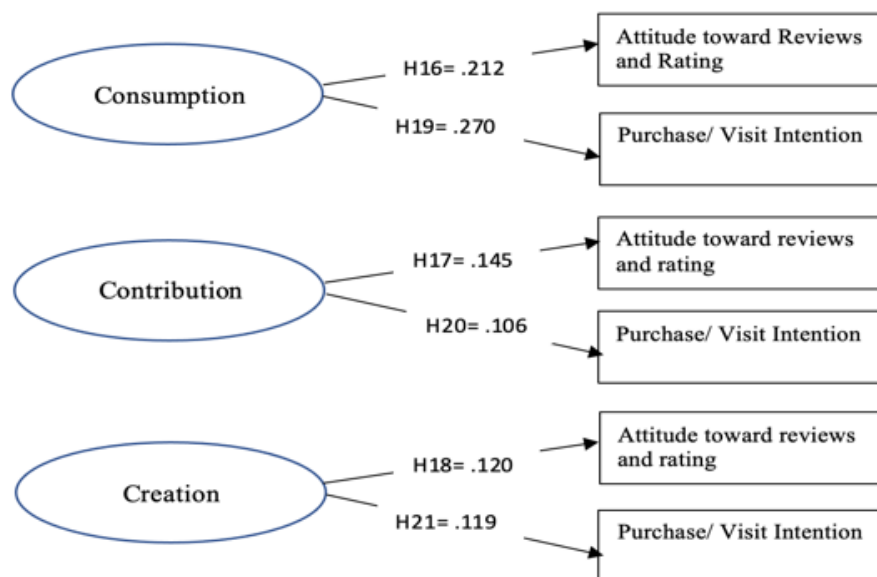


Figure 7.3: Influence of three levels of Customer Engagement with Brand-related content on social media and the two consequences: Attitude towards Reviews and Ratings, and Purchase/Visit Intention

Relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and customer's attitude toward online reviews and ratings

Regarding attitudes toward online reviews and ratings, the results show that customer engagement with brand-related content has strong and positive relationships with their attitude toward reviews and ratings. The higher level of engagement with brand-related content likely leads to a higher attitude toward reviews and ratings. These findings are consistent with previous studies. Lee & Ma (2012), as well as Mellet et al. (2014) who suggest that online reviews and ratings are important factors influencing customers participating in restaurant social media pages and engaging with content about the brand. They also state that customers' attitudes toward user-generated content, such as reviews and ratings, will increase as their engagement with brand-related content increases. With the rise in popularity of social media platforms, consumers are now becoming vocal brand advocates rather than just passive recipients of commercial messages (Kotler et al., 2016; Sanchez et al., 2020). According to Smith (2013), 60 percent of customers value reviews and ratings while evaluating products and services. In the restaurant industry, online reviews and ratings are a vital element in customer participation (Lee & Ma, 2012; Mellet et al., 2014). When considering restaurants for dining out, people tend to rely on friends, relatives, and others on social media through reviews and ratings (Ho-Dac et al., 2013; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2015, Baker et al., 2016). It is stated that customers of restaurant brands appraise online reviews and ratings more crucial than in any other industry (Popy & Bappy, 2020; Nielsen Insight, 2019). According to a report in 2019, 57 percent of guests discover restaurants through online reviews and ratings before actually going there, and 33 percent of diners state they will not visit a restaurant with an online rating is lower than 4-stars on review sites (ReviewTrackers, 2019). Sparks et al. (2013) also argued that customers do not want to visit a restaurant if they find negative social media reviews. Thus, restaurant brands need to improve both quantity and quality of their online reviews and ratings in order to get more customers engaged and increase sales. Concluding, it is possible to say that previous studies, business reports, and our results are similar by stressing that customer engagement with brand-related content on social media positively influences the attitude toward online reviews and ratings. Therefore, the hypotheses H16 (consumption), H17 (contribution), and H18 (creation) are confirmed.

Relationship between customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and customer's purchase/visit intention

Regarding the other consequence of restaurant brand-related content engagement, visit intention, findings from the current study revealed that customer engagement with brand-related content on social media presents a strong and significant influence on customer intention to visit restaurant brands. A favourable association between high levels of content engagement and purchase intention has also been suggested in some studies (Ahn & Back, 2018; Jang et al., 2009). Although there is still a lack of investigation consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content in literature as only a few studies have examined it, the importance of customer engagement (in general) with purchase intention was firmly proven (Vivek et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2013; Barger et al., 2016; Harrigan et al., 2017). Purchasing intention is important in growing sales and other purchase behaviours, therefore it may be considered a key goal and destination for brands in keeping customers engaged. In summary, the results of this study confirm the hypotheses H19, H20, and H21, stressing that brand-related content consumption (H19), contribution (H20) and creation (H21) have a positive influence on purchase/visit intention in the restaurant industry.

In conclusion, following the results revealed from the study, the revised framework is presented in Figure 7.4, where the relationships that appeared in the continuous line arrows are confirmed, while the one in the orange dash line arrow is not supported.

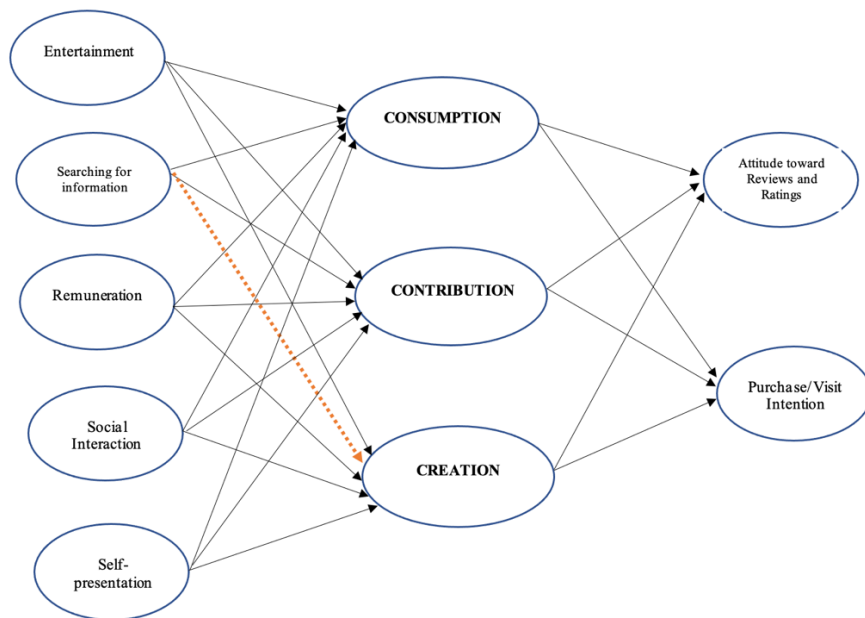


Figure 7.4: Revised conceptual framework

7.3. Summary

This chapter has provided discussions about the findings from the primary data analyses presented in Chapter Seven. Prior to the discussions, a brief of research analyses and findings was presented. Then, those findings were discussed in relation to arguments in the literature. Twenty-one proposed hypotheses were discussed, and among those, twenty hypotheses were supported. The findings showed that the customers' need for entertainment is the most vital factor for content consumption, the need for self-presentation is most important for content contribution. In contrast, customers' needs for social interaction and self-presentation are the main drivers for content creation. The results also found that all levels of customer engagement with brand-related content influence customers' attitudes toward reviews and ratings and customers' visit intentions. The final, chapter will present the contributions of the research to industry sector. Finally, the limitations of the current study and direction for future research will be addressed.

The aim of this study is to measure customer engagement behaviours with Brand-related content on social media within the context of the restaurant industry.

CHAPTER EIGHT – CONCLUSIONS

8.1. Introduction

The previous chapter has discussed a comparison between the empirical findings from primary data analysis and the arguments from the literature. This final chapter will present the conclusions of the current study and the directions for future research. First, the research's contributions, including theoretical contributions and managerial contributions, will be addressed. After that, the limitations of the current research will be then presented. Finally, the thesis will be concluded with suggestions for future research regarding customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. Figure 8.1 illustrates the outline of Chapter Eight – Conclusions.

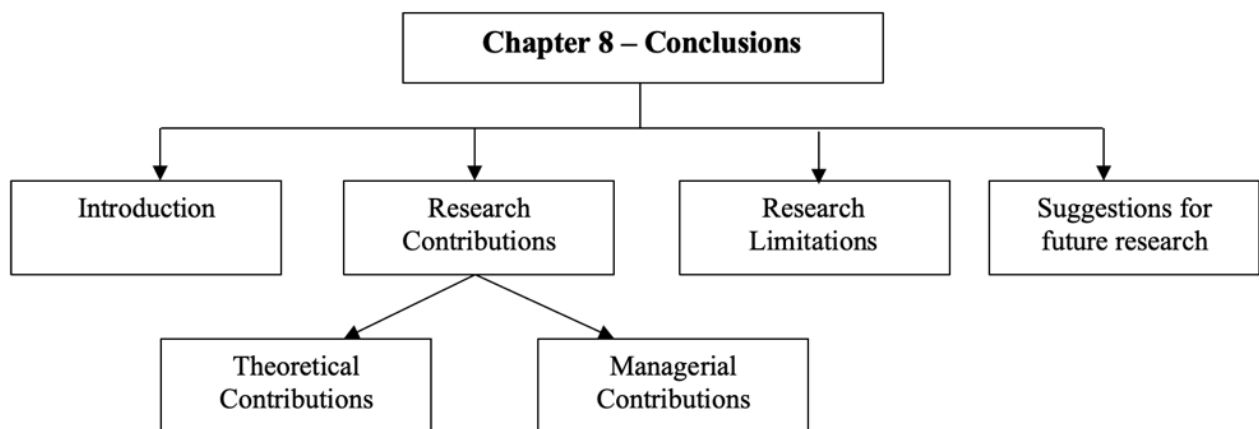


Figure 8.1: The outline of the Chapter Eight

8.2. Contributions of current research

8.2.1. Theoretical contributions

There are several perspectives of theoretical contributions: interestingness (Bartunek et al., 2006), originality and value (Bergh, 2003), utility (Aversson & Sandberg, 2011), and being something which “adds, embellishes or creates something beyond what is already known” (Ladik & Stewart, 2008:157). This current research has examined theoretical contributions according to Corley & Gioia (2011) who suggested that originality and utility are determined

as two main dimensions when examining theoretical contributions. Each of these dimensions is further divided into two subcategories. First, originality can be divided into incremental and revelatory insights. Incremental insight can be defined as an “advancement of our theoretical understanding on a given topic” (Corley & Gioia, 2011:11). In contrast, revelatory insight is a “contribution arises when theory reveals what we otherwise had not seen, known, or conceived” (Corley & Gioia, 2011:11). Second, the utility perspective of a theoretical contribution is categorised into scientific utility and practical utility. The scientific utility is considered as “an advance that improves conceptual rigor or the specificity of an idea and/or enhances its potential to be operationalised and tested”, while the practical utility is defined as “arising when a theory can be directly applied to the problems practicing managers and other organisational practitioners face” (Corley & Gioia, 2011:17-18)

This current research has drawn some theoretical contributions to the literature. First of all, in terms of the incremental perspective of the originality dimension, this study has extended the initial research on customer engagement by providing a clear understanding of the customer engagement behaviours (CEB) on social media regarding its object, level of engagement, motivational factors and consequences. For example, much of previous research studied brand as a focal object of customer engagement (Wui & Cu, 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Malthouse et al., 2013). However, in the context of social media, this current research is consistent with Schivinski & Dabrowski’s (2016) proposal that the actual focal object of customer engagement is the content as content is the centre for any behaviour on social media. Moreover, when examining brand-related content engagement, there is still a lack of research about its comprehensive dimensions in the literature (Schivinski et al., 2016). Thus, the current study also contributes to understanding the use of the COBRA model to determine and categorise customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on social media into three comprehensive dimensions, including content consumption, contribution, and creation covering all online behaviours from the most passive to the most active toward social media platforms. Furthermore, the research has investigated the relationship between those content engagement’s behaviours with the motivational factors and consequences.

In addition, this study provides a comprehensive systematic literature review of customer engagement, especially customer engagement behaviours in a social media context. This systematic literature highlights the limitations of previous studies about customer engagement that further research should investigate. Hence, this study responds to the call of previous

studies requesting that customer engagement behaviours on social media be measured and investigated in different contexts where the products/services are unexplored to see if the customer engagement behaviours and their intensities are different across the contexts. (Islam & Rahman, 2016; Bowden et al., 2015). Therefore, it contributes to the literature through a more nuanced knowledge of customer engagement behaviours regarding the restaurant industry. Furthermore, the current study provides insight into the application of the COBRA framework in the context of social media platforms within the restaurant industry to understand which activities the customers perform on social networking sites, what motivations drive those activities, and the outcomes.

Another contribution of this research is a greater understanding of the motivations driving customer engagement behaviours on social media regarding restaurant brands. Following the systematic literature review, the current study has identified five motivational drivers of customer engagement behaviours on social media based on customers' needs using Uses and Gratification (U&G) theory: the need for entertainment, the need for information seeking, the need for remuneration, the need for social interaction and the need for self-presentation. This provides insight into customer engagement with brand-related content on social media and enables future studies to further investigate and test these concepts in different contexts and platforms. Previous studies in the literature only show the relationship of these motivations with certain specific online behaviours (e.g., like, comment or share). However, this study differs from them by investigating the relationship between the U&G motivational factors and all three levels of customer engagement behaviours covered by consuming, contributing and creating activities on social media.

This study also adds to the consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media: attitude toward reviews and ratings, and purchase/visit intention. Although purchase intention is proven to be an essential outcome of customer engagement, there is still a lack of inquiry into of the relationship between purchase intention and customer engagement with brand-related content on social media. As far as is known, this is the first study that empirically explores the impact of three levels of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content on customers' purchase intention. Therefore, the research findings also contribute to knowledge of purchase intention construct. Regarding attitude toward reviews and ratings, the results show that customer engagement behaviours with brand-related social

media content at all levels do positively influence the customers' attitude toward reviews and ratings, as suggested in the literature.

8.2.2. Managerial and practical contributions

To employ social media marketing and branding strategies more efficiently and confidently, managers need to better understand how customers behave and interact with brands on those social media channels. Regarding practical contributions, this research enhances the managers' understanding of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, particularly focusing on restaurant service brands. First of all, the research findings provide some insights on the behaviours of customers on restaurant-related social media platforms such as the platform that customers use the most, the frequency of social media usage, and total time they spend on social media each day, etc. Restaurant managers can use this information to understand how customers behave on social media platforms and adapt their content strategies to suit each platform.

In addition, this research contributes clear guidance on customer engagement with brand-related content on social media constructs with three dimensions (consumption, contribution, and creation of branded content) and what online behaviours define those dimensions. The dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media can be considered as a conceptual instrument that helps managers to determine and understand the customers' social media behaviours toward brands according to their level of engagement. These dimensions also guide managers with specific brand-related activities on social media that they could pursue. Understanding the customer engagement with brand-related content constructs and its dimensions allows marketing managers to evaluate the success of their marketing strategies efficiently. Furthermore, the COBRA framework presents the dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content as a hierarchical structure, indicating that companies should encourage the customer to engage in more active activities and reflect the highest level of engagement. For example, the customers should be motivated to like, comment, or even share the brand-related content they already consumed. Also, customers who contributed to content should be encouraged to engage more actively with branded content by creating their content related to restaurant brands, such as their user-generated brand-related posts or brand-related reviews on different social media networking sites. Therefore, this level

of engagement related to eWOM activities is very important in the marketing strategies of restaurant brands (Sanchez et al., 2020; Mellet et al., 2014).

Moreover, by investigating the motivational factors of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media, the findings of this research provide some implications for business practice. Five different factors having an influence on brand-related content engagement on social media are identified based on customers' needs, including entertainment, searching for information, remuneration, social interaction, and self-presentation. Each factor influences different levels of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related content differently. Restaurant brand managers can develop their branded content strategies based on current research findings. Regarding content consumption, the customers' need for entertainment is the highest motivation. This means branded posts with entertaining content will likely help increase customers' behaviours, such as following the brands' social networking sites, reading, and watching branded posts. In addition, the customers' need for self-presentation is found to be the strongest factor affecting content contribution behaviours. Customers like, comment, or share branded content relating to restaurant brands to impress other users or to present their personal characteristics such as trendiness or knowledge to others. Furthermore, customers' need for social interaction and self-presentation are the most actively engaged behaviours that refer to content creation. User-generated content (UGC) will only be created if the customers are motivated to articulate themselves or if they feel like they belong to a social group or social community. It is clearly seen that content is the backbone of all interactions that happen on social media. Therefore, restaurant brand managers must ascertain which type of content is the most suitable for their marketing strategies. They need to understand which factors encourage users to engage with branded content passively and which factors encourage passive users to become more actively involved with brands through both content and conversations around the content.

Table 8.1 suggests some types of content that could gratify restaurant customers' needs and therefore encourage customer engagement with the brand-related content on social media. Given the importance of information motivation, restaurant managers should ensure that the content on their social media platforms provides the customers with resourceful and useful information in order to engage them. Customers engage with informational content as they think it can solve the consumption-related or booking-related problems. The informational content provides customers with awareness of the restaurant brands, prices, venues and atmosphere of the restaurants. Restaurant managers should also provide content having

information of food ingredients, cooking process, safety and hygiene related information, or information relating to special events. This type of content will satisfy the need for information of customers, then they could enhance customer engagement regarding content consumption and contribution such as reading, watching, liking, commenting. Considering importance of remuneration motivation in influencing customer engagement, restaurant managers should provide customers with remunerative content such as deals and offers, or competitions in there the participants or winners can have monetary or incentive rewards. They also can offer discounts, gifts, or lucky draws to customers who liked content, or who refer the brands more frequently in their social media platforms. All these would encourage the users more actively engaged with the restaurant brand-related content. In regards with satisfying the customers' need of entertainment in order to engage them into the content on social media, the restaurant marketers should use the entertaining content such as interesting facts, food and recipes, cooking instructions with the use of emotion, emoticons, humour aspects, meme images, slangs, trends, teasers, slogans, etc (Lee et al., 2013; Svijiki and Michalles, 2013). If informational and remunerative content bring rational appeals, entertaining content is more about the emotional appeals. Restaurant managers need to consider humour, aesthetic and awe-inspiring experience that customers could have while engaging with this type of content (Waqas et al., 2021). Given the importance of social interaction and self-presentation as the most significant motivations for customers actively engage in the forms of contributing and creating brand-related content, the restaurant managers need to facilitate different content to gratify their needs. Brand-related content can provide a sensation of social bonding by “enabling consumers to observe meanings ascribed to branded content by others, exchange views about their experience with branded content, develop and attachment to the community, build links and have conversations around their branded content experience” (Waqas et al., 2021:970). Restaurant brands' managers can facilitate social interactions in their social media platform through creating polls or questions where customers can give their opinions or bringing customers into discussion forums. In addition, restaurant marketers can also create a virtual place on social media platforms to encourage interactions between customers, which could result in increased customer engagement with the brands. Lastly, restaurant managers need to significantly consider the importance of self-presentation motivation influencing customer engagement with brand-related content. Marketers should encourage customers to express their personal identity through associations with brand-related content on social media. For instance, restaurant brands can create a competition where customers are inspired to portray the image of the brands and post it on social media platforms. This may motivate customers to

be more active contributors and creators of the content as it provides them with a way to express their feelings, belief and personality (de Silva, 2019).

Types of content	Definition	Purpose	Examples
Informational content	Information content represents the extent to which the social media content provides users with resourceful and helpful information	Satisfy the customer need of information	Brand name, general information, product (foods and drinks) image, vineyard image, price, website address or link, venue image, product review image, product award image, tasting and sampling, product variety, product origin, food ingredients, cooking process, recipes, opening hours, contact details, booking instructions, brand fact or news, service, wine show awards and reviews, information about events, etc
Remunerative content	Remunerative content refers to the extent to which the social media content provides monetary or incentive rewards	Satisfy the customer need of remuneration	Deals or offers, competition image, sales or promotion images, competitions, etc
Entertaining content	Entertaining content refers to the extent to which social media content is fun and entertaining to media users	Satisfy the customer need of entertainment	Food or recipes, cooking instructions, food with product image, emoticon, weather, humour, fun fact, occasion image, celebrity, meme image, slang, trends, etc
Relational content	Relational content refers to the extent to which the social media content meets the customer's needs of social interaction and self-presentation	Satisfy the customer need of social interaction and self-presentation	Questions, thanking fans, quiz or game, holiday or event occasions, ask for action, inspirational or motivational quote, customer image, community involvement image, friend and fan, emotion including happy, caring, depression, fear, confusion, exciting, etc

Table 8.1: Suggested brand-related content for restaurant brands to satisfy customer needs

Furthermore, the findings of this study also suggest that enhancing customer engagement with brand-related content on social media at all levels will strongly and significantly develop the customers' attitude toward reviews and ratings (eWOM) as well as restaurant visit intention.

These findings have implications for restaurant brands' managers that they should value customer engagement with brand-related content regardless of the activeness of the users. Active users interact with brands and other users on social media by commenting, sharing branded content, or participating in conversations around those branded content. In contrast, passive users are those who read the content and conversation around the content but tend not to be in any manner of communication. Marketers tend to ignore this type of customer when considering engagement to be based on interactions (Vohra & Bhardwaj, 2016). However, this research suggests that restaurant brands' marketers should not ignore passive users as even the lowest level of engagement with brand-related content (content consumption) still significantly influences eWOM activities and restaurant visit intention.

8.3. Limitations of current research and suggestions for future studies

Despite the contribution addressed in the previous section, the current research is also subjected to several limitations. Firstly, the list of COBRA activities presented in this current study is not a fixed and unchangeable list. Due to the constant changes of technology and Web 2.0 services, new platforms and functions in each platform can be added, therefore new activities are likely to emerge to the three dimensions of customer engagement with brand-related content. Therefore, researchers should constantly search for new trends and behaviours on social media and adjust the construct customer engagement with brand-related content in line with technological changes. For example, TikTok is a new social media platform which has grown quickly since its launch in 2018. Facebook might still be dominant but has declined in 2021 and early 2022, while TikTok has seen the fastest growth of any social media platform (Statista, 2022). The number of TikTok users has been steadily growing over the years. TikTok has different characteristics and customer targets which mainly focus on younger people, such as GenZ, and might require different approaches to make users engage with its content. Thus, future studies should pay more attention to the new platforms such as TikTok to examine how and why customer engagement behaviours are differentiated with these social media platforms.

Moreover, this research examines customer behaviour on social media in general but did not consider any distinction between different types of social media platforms (profile-based platforms vs. content-based platforms), for example, between Facebook and Twitter, or between YouTube and Facebook. Therefore, future research could focus on investigating the potential moderating variables which may affect the relationships between motivational drives

and customer engagement with brand-related content differently across different types of social media sites.

In addition, the current findings are subject to cross-sectional survey method. The data collection is restricted to a specific point in time. Thus, future research should employ longitudinal design to contribute insights into specific stages or behaviours of customer engagement which may be assessed by using time series to see how it changes during a period of time.

Another limitation of this study is the data collection method. First, the research was conducted in a single country, Vietnam, due to the convenience of accessing sample and collecting data. Although social media channels are similar globally, the platforms' usages in each country are unique so the generalisation is not guaranteed. Therefore, future replicated studies in other countries are still encouraged to be undertaken in order to assess the equivalence of customer engagement with brand-related content across nations and cultures.

Furthermore, as was shown in the systematic literature review, the research on potential consequences of customer engagement with brand-related content on social media is very limited. In this study, we choose to measure the two potential outcomes which are attitudes toward online reviews and ratings and purchase/visit intention; thus, the research results are limited to these consequences. Future research, therefore, should explore the other consequences of customer engagement behaviours with brand-related social media content in order to extend the literature and provide better understanding of content engagement consequences.

Lastly, it can be seen in the systematic literature review that the majority of recent studies only focus on the positive perspective of customer engagement. However, according to Vivek et al. (2014) and Hollebeek & Chen (2014), brands can also face the risks from negative engagement from customers. These risks consist of unpredictable and uncontrolled behaviours with brand of users on social media such as negative comments, rumours, negative WOM and so on (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). The future research, therefore, should pay more attention to the negative perspective of customer engagement with brand-related content in the context of social media (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010; Vivek et al., 2015, Dessart et al., 2015).

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Appendix 1: Summary of Final Articles after Full Text Review stage of Systematic Literature Review

Author and Year	Author and Year
Journal	Journal Name
Article Type	C = Conceptual LR = Literature Review E = Empirical
Study Design	S = Survey E = Experiment Q = Qualitative (e.g., interviews, focus groups) M = Mixed methods
Product Type	P = Product S = Service MI = Mixed industries

Author and Year	Journal	Article Type	Study Design	Main construct	Dimension (of CE)	Product Type	Industry/ Context	Country
Bianchi and Andrews, 2018	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	E	S	CE (in social media)	Affective, cognitive, behavioural	G	Retail	Chile
Prentice and Loureiro, 2018	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	E	S	CE	behavioural	G	Luxury Fashion	Portugal
Pentina <i>et al.</i> , 2018	Journal of Advertising	E	Q	CE (in social media)	behavioural	G	luxury	US
Kosiba <i>et al.</i> , 2018	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	E	S	CE	Affective, cognitive, behavioural	S	retail banking	Ghana
Carlson <i>et al.</i> , 2018	Journal of Services Marketing	E	S	CE (in social media)	Behavioural	NG	NG	USA
Roy <i>et al.</i> , 2018	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	E	S	CE	behavioral	S	telecommunication, retail banking	India
Syrdal and Briggs, 2018	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice	C	Q	Engagement with social media content		NG	NG	NG
Abdullah and Siraj, 2018	International Journal of Electronic Business	L		CE (in social media)	behavioural		NA	NA
Heinonen, 2018	Journal of Service Theory and Practice	E	Q	CE (online)	Affective, cognitive, behavioural	NG	NG	Finland
Moliner <i>et al.</i> , 2018	Journal of Services Marketing	E	S	CE		S	banking	Spain
Tsai and Men, 2017	Journal of Marketing Communication	E	S	CE (in social media)	behavioural			USA, China
Sim and Plewal, 2017	Journal of Service Theory and Practice	E	S	CE	Affective, cognitive, behavioural	S	Education	Australia
Grewal <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Journal of Retailing	C		CE				
Chiang <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Journal of Marketing Management	E	M	CE (in social media)	behavioural	G	mobile phones	Taiwan

Rosenthal and Brito, 2017	Business Horizons	LR		CE (in social media)		NG		
Seo <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Journal of Service Theory and Practice	C		CE		S	NG	
Rehnen, 2017	Journal of Service Management	E	M	CE (in social media)	behavioural	S	mobility service	Germany
Bowden <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Journal of Service Theory and Practice	E	Q	CE	Affective, cognitive, behavioural	G	luxury accessory	Australia
Brahim <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Computers in Human Behavior	E	E (content analysis)	CE (online)	behavioural	G	Retail	UK
De Vries <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Computers in Human Behavior	E	M	CE (in social media)	behavioural	S	Education	Netherlands, Italy, UK
Halaszovich and Nel, 2017	Journal of Product & Brand Management	E	S	CE (in social media)	cognitive, affection, activation	G	clothing, mobile phone	Germany
Fernandes and Esteves, 2017	Services Marketing Quarterly	E	S	CE	behavioural	G + S	healthcare + retailing	Portugal
Pongpaew <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Journal of Product & Brand Management	E	Q (in-depth interview)	CE (customer brand engagement)	behavioural	G	smart IT device	Thailand
Alsufyan and Aloud, 2017	Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education	E	Q	CE (in social media)	behavioural	S	university	Saudi
Islam and Rahman., 2017	Telematics and Informatics	E	S	CE in brand community	behavioural	NG	NG	India
Hapsari <i>et al.</i> , 2017	International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences	E	S	CE		S	airlines	Indonesia
Dolan <i>et al.</i> , 2017	International Journal of Wine Business Research	E	Secondary data analysis	CE (in social media)		G	wine industry	Australia

Harrigan <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Tourism Management	E	S	CE (in social media)	enthusiasm, attention, absorption. interaction and identification. These 5 dimensions are proposed by So et al.	S	Tourism	US
Dessart., 2017	Journal of Marketing Management	E		CE (in social media)	affective, cognitive, behavioural	G	food and beverage, travel, fashion and beauty, entertainment	75 different countries
Tafesse, 2016	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	E	E (content analysis)	CE (in social media)	behavioural	NA		Norway
So <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Service Management	E	S	CE	Identification (ID), enthusiasm (EN), attention (AT), absorption (AB). interaction (IT)	S	law, compliant	Australia
Dolan <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Strategic Marketing	C		CE (in social media)	behavioural			
Khan <i>et al.</i> , 2016	International Journal of Bank Marketing	E	S	CBE (customer brand engagement)	behavioural	S	online banking	India
Dessart <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Marketing Management	E	M	CE		G + S		France, UK
Leckie <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Marketing Management	E	S	CE	Cognitive processing; affection, activation	S	mobile service	Australia
Geissinger and Laurell, 2016	Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management	E	M (content analysis)	CE (in social media)		G	fashion	Sweden
Braun <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Consumer Marketing	E	M	CE behaviour	behavioural	NG	NG	Germany, Switzerland
Barger <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	C	LR	CE (in social media)				
Hollebeek <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Consumer Marketing	E	S	CE		Product	musical	US

Solem, 2016	Journal of Consumer Marketing	E	S	CE		S	insurance	Norway
Truwa <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Indian Business Research	E	S	CE (online)		NG	NG	India
Röndell <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Strategic Marketing	E	Q	CE	behavioural	Product	Game video	Sweden
Schivinski <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Advertising Research	E	M	CE	behavioural			Poland
Oyner and Korelina, 2016	Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes	E		content analysis	CE	S	hotel	Russia
Demangeot and Broderick, 2016	International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	E	S	CE		G	online retails	UK
Dolan <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Strategic Marketing	C		CE (in social media)	behavioural			
Azar <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Brand Management	E	S	CE (in social media)	behavioural	NG	NG	Portugal
Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016	Electron Markets	E	S	CE (in social media)	behavioural	S	restaurant	Germany
Rossmann <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Journal of Services Marketing	E	S	CE (online)		MI	car manufacture, telecom provider	Germany
Islam and Rahman, 2016a	Journal of Global Fashion Marketing	E	S	CE		G	fashion	India
Islam and Rahman, 2016b	Journal of Internet Commerce	E	S	CE (in social media)		NG		India
Luarn <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Online Information Review	E		content analysis	CE (in social media)	MI		Taiwan
Verhagen <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Computers in Human Behavior	E	S	CE		S	mobile telecommunication	Netherlands
Hammedi <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Journal of Service Management	E	S	CE (online)		Product	car	Belgium, France, and USA
O'Brien <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Journal of Services Marketing	E	M	CE		NG	NG	Australia

Baldus <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Journal of Business Research	E	S	CE (online community)		NG	NG	USA
Bowden <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Journal of Marketing Management	E	Q	CE				Australia
Dessart <i>et al.</i> , 2015	Journal of Product & Brand Management	E	Q	CE with online brand community (in social media)	Affective, cognitive, behavioural	NG		UK
Kabadayi and Price, 2014	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	E	S	CBE (in social media)	behavioral	NA		US
Hollebeek <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Journal of Interactive Marketing	C & E	S	CBE (in social media)	Cognitive processing, affection, activation	NA	NA	New Zealand
Oviedo-García <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	C		CE		NG	NG	
Chathoth <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Tourism Management	C	Q	CE		S	tourism	Hongkong
Verma, 2014	Journal of Internet Commerce	E	Q	CE (in social media)	cognitive, emotional, and behavioral	G + S	MI	India
Vivek <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice	E	S	CE	attention, participation, connection			USA
Wallace <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Journal of Product & Brand Management	E	S	CE		MI		Ireland
So <i>et al.</i> , 2014a	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research	E	S	CE	identification, enthusiasm, attention, absorption, and interaction,	S	tourism	Australia
So <i>et al.</i> , 2014b	Journal of Travel Research	E	S	CE		S	tourism	Australia
Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014	Journal of Service Research	E	Q	CE	behavioural	S	station service system	UK
Franzak <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Journal of Product & Brand Management	C		CE		G + S	MI	
Rohm <i>et al.</i> , 2013	Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	E	M	CE (online)		S + G	MI	USA
Cvijikj and Michahelles, 2013	Social Network Analysis and Mining	E	S	CE (in social media)		G	FMCG	Switzerland

Wei <i>et al.</i> , 2013	International Journal of Hospitality Management	E	S	CE	behavioral	S	hotel	USA
Hollebeck, 2013	Australian Marketing Journal	E	Q	CE				Australia
Tsai and Men, 2013	Journal of Interactive Advertising	E	S	CE (in social media)		NG	NG	US
Wirtz <i>et al.</i> , 2013	Journal of Service Management	C		CE (in social media)		NG	NG	
Javornik and Mandelli, 2012	Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management	E	M	CE	Emotional. Cognitive, Behavioural	G	FMCG	Switzerland
Vivek <i>et al.</i> , 2012	Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice	E	Q	CE		G + S		USA
Gummerus <i>et al.</i> , 2012	Management Research Review	E	S	CE (in social media)		Product	Game	Finland and Sweden
Hollebeck, 2011	Journal of Strategic Marketing	E (TB)	Q	CBE		NG		New Zealand
Hollebeck, 2011b	Journal of Marketing Management	C		CBE		NA	NA	
Harris and Dennis, 2011	Journal of Consumer Behaviour	E	Q	CE (in social media)	trust	G	retail	UK
Brodie <i>et al.</i> , 2011	Journal of Service Research	C		CE	Emotional. Cognitive, Behavioural			
Van Doorn <i>et al.</i> , 2010	Journal of Service Research	C		CE	Behavioral			
Gambetti and Graffigna, 2010	International Journal of Market Research	C + E	T-lab software-aided content analysis	CE		NG		Italy
Mersey <i>et al.</i> , 2010	Journal of Media Business Studies	E	M	CE (with online media)		NG	NG	US

Appendix 2: Online Questionnaire

25/11/2018

Edit Survey | Qualtrics Survey Software

Customer Engagement with Brand-re... ▾

Projects

Contacts

Library

Help



Survey

Actions

Distributions

Data & Analysis

Reports

Guide ▾

Customer Engagement with Brand-related Content in Social Media

iQ Score: Good

▼ Default Block

Block Options ▾



Dear Participant,

We would like to invite you to take part in a research project. Before you decide whether to take part it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read this carefully and ask the researcher if you have any questions.

Title of the research

Customer Engagement with Brand-related Content in Social Media: A Study of the Restaurant Sector in Vietnam.

Purposes of the research

In recent years, customers have increasingly engaged with social media (more than one-third of Vietnam's population are social network users and that figure will increase to 50% of the population by 2020 (eMarketer Report, 2016). A growing number of restaurant brands use social media as a key resource in their marketing and branding activities in order to build and maintain customer relationship and customer engagement.

This research aims to understand the customer interactions with restaurant brands as well as other customers of restaurant brands on social media platform such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram etc.

Who is sponsoring/ organising the research?

This research is being done by a PhD Student and overall reviewed by Nottingham Trent University, United Kingdom.

Why have I been invited?

You have been invited to take part in this research because you are aged 18+ and fit the inclusion criteria below:

- You are currently an active social media user.
- You have some interaction with restaurants' social media networking site(s).

Do I have to take part?

No. It is up to you to decide whether or not you want to take part in this research. Please take your time to decide. If you decide to take part in the survey, you will be asked to sign the consent form by ticking in the box on the next page. The information you share with us in the online survey will be confidential and anonymous and will be used only for research purposes.

What will happen if I agree to take part?

If you wish to take part in the research, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire. First, you need to read through the consent form on the next page and give consent by ticking the box at the bottom of the page. Then, you are ready to start the survey.

The survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete and consists of three sections. Section 1 asks you questions about your general social media usage.

Section 2 includes questions which ask about your interactions/ activities with restaurants' social media networking sites in particular.

Section 3 has 3 questions which are designed for classification purpose only (your gender, age and income)

Are there any benefits in taking part?

There are no huge expected benefits in your participation. However, some people do feel that sharing their experiences can make them feel better. Also some people like to participate in research that could help give a greater understanding of relevant areas.

In addition, after you complete the survey, you will receive a completion code. You can use this code to claim a 5% discount off your food bill in any restaurant of Golden Gate Group as a thank you for your time and effort. This code can be used once only and will expire after 60 days since your completion of the questionnaire.

Are there any risks involved?

It is not anticipated that there will be any risks to you taking part in this research. However, you may feel upset as a result of recalling your experiences. If you don't want to continue your participation, you can leave the survey at any time.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information. If you decide to take part or you have any questions, concerns or complaints about this research please contact the researcher using the details below.

Pham Phuong Ngoc
PhD Student – Nottingham Business School
Nottingham Trent University, United Kingdom.
Email: ngoc.pham2009@my.ntu.ac.uk

https://nbsntu.eu.qualtrics.com/ControlPanel/?ClientAction=EditSurvey&Section=SV_0f8WgrOn77k50SF&SubSection=&SubSubSection=&PageActionOption... 1/6

 **Consent Form**

Q26



All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be used only for research purposes and will be kept confidential. You will not be able to be identified or identifiable in any reports or publications. Any data collected about you in the online questionnaire will be kept in a secured location and only those directly involved with the research will have access to them. Cookies, personal data stored by your web browsers, are not used in this survey.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in the research. If you decide to take part in, you still can withdraw at any time within 30 days since your successful submission without giving any reasons.

Please select your choice below. You may print a copy of this consent form for you records. Clicking on the "Agree. Take me to the questionnaire" indicates that:

- You have read all the above information
- You voluntarily agree to participate
- You are 18 years of age or older
- You are currently a social media user and have some interactions with any of restaurant's social networking sites.

- Agree. Take me to the questionnaire
- Disagree. I don't want to take part in the research

 **Section 1**



In the first following questions, we will ask you general questions about your social media usage. Please select the most appropriate response.

 **Question 1** How much time do you approximately spend on social media sites each day? Please choose no more than 1 answer



- Less than 30 minutes
- 30 - 60 minutes
- 1-3 hours
- 3-5 hours
- More than 5 hours

 **Question 2** Which social media sites do you use? You can choose more than 1 choice if you want



- Facebook
- Instagram
- Twitter
- Snapchat
- Whatsapp
- Youtube
- Blogger.com
- Any other. Please specify

 **Question 3** How many restaurants' communities/ groups/ fan-pages are you a member of?



- None
- 1-5
- 6-15
- More than 15

 **Section 2**



The following questions are concerning your activities specific with restaurants' social media networking sites

Question 4




Below is a series of statements concerning the reasons you engage/ response with restaurant brand(s) in social media. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the option from 1 to 7 with 1 is "Strongly disagree" 7 is " Strongly agree"

	1 = Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 = Strongly agree
My interaction on restaurant social media sites entertains me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction on restaurant social media sites let me feel relax	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction on restaurant social media sites help me to pass time when I am bored	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction allows me to have a better understand of restaurant brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction allows me to find out the opinions of other customers of the restaurant brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction gives me convenient access to information about restaurant brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I interact with restaurant brands in order to access discounts and promotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like to interact with restaurant brands as they offer contests and games from which I can access free meals or drinks or other special offers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can meet/ socialise with people like me on restaurant social media sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can meet/socialise with new people like me on restaurant social media sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can find out about people like me on restaurant social media sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can interact with people like me on restaurant social media sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction help me make good impression on others on restaurant social media sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction on restaurant social media sites help me improve the way I am perceived	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction on restaurant social media sites lets me present to others who I am	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My interaction on restaurant social media sites lets me present to others who I want to be	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question 5

Below is a list of activities you can do with content related to restaurant brands in social media. Please indicate the extent to which how you engage with each activities by selecting an option from 1 to 7 with 1 is "Never" 7 is "Always"



	1 = Never	2	3	4	5	6	7 = Always
I read posts related to restaurant brand(s) on social media	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I read fanpage(s) related to restaurant brand(s) on social networking sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I view pictures/graphics related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I follow blog(s) related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I follow restaurant brand(s) on social networking sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I comment on videos related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I comment on posts related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I comment on pictures/graphics related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I share restaurant brand(s) related posts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I "Like" pictures/ graphics related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I "Like" posts related to restaurant brand(s)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I initiate posts related to restaurant brands on blogs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I initiate posts related to restaurant brands on social network sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I post pictures/graphics related to restaurant brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I post videos that show restaurant brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I write posts related to restaurant brands on forums	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I write reviews related to restaurant brands	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question 6

This question will ask you about your opinion of online review and rating relating to restaurant brands. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting an option from 1 to 7 with 1 is "Strongly disagree" 7 is "Strongly agree"

	1 = Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 = Strongly agree
Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are valuable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brands are positive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Online reviews and ratings of restaurant brand are favourable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question 7

This question will ask you about your purchase intentions towards the restaurant brand(s) that you interact with. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting an option from 1 to 7 with 1 is "Strongly disagree" 7 is "Strongly agree".

	1 = Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 = Strongly agree
I will definitely purchase products belonging to the restaurant brand in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will continue to purchase products belonging to the restaurant brands in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will refer the products belonging to the restaurant brands to my friends/family/colleagues in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Question 8

Which factors below affect the quality of restaurants' physical environment? Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting an option from 1 to 7 with 1 is "Strongly disagree" 7 is "Strongly agree"

	1 = Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 = Strongly agree
The restaurant has attractive interior design and decor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The background music is pleasing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The dining areas are thoroughly clean	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Employees are neat and well dressed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section 3

The following questions are designed for classification purpose only. Please select the most appropriate answer in each question.

Gender
Question 9

- Male
- Female
- Prefer not to say


Age groups
Question 10

- 18 - 25
- 26 - 35
- 36 - 45
- 46 - 55
- Over 55

Your income
Question 11

- Less than 10 million Vietnam Dong (approximately 310 Stirling Pound)
- 10 million - 20 million Vietnam Dong (310 - 620 Stirling Pound)
- 20 million - 30 million Vietnam Dong (620 - 930 Stirling Pound)
- More than 30 million Vietnam Dong (more than 930 Stirling Pound)

Thank you very much for your time!
You can contact me at ngoc.pham2009@my.ntu.ac.uk if you have any question related to this questionnaire and/or the research.



[Add Block](#)

	End of Survey	Survey Termination Options...
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