Dong, Xinyu (2022) *Negative brand engagement in the online context.*
PhD thesis.

https://theses.gla.ac.uk/82870/

Negative Brand Engagement in the Online Context

by

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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April 2022

Abstract

This thesis advances the understanding of negative online brand engagement. Previous studies mostly presume consumer brand engagement to be positive. However, many studies highlight the importance of negative online brand engagement and appreciate that it can be more common and potentially more impactful or detrimental to both brands and consumers, particularly in the online context, than positive online brand engagement. Negative online brand engagement is relatively new in the field of marketing and branding research, with no agreement on its conceptualisation and robustly developed measurement. The current thesis aims to address the gap in the conceptualisation and operationalisation and identify and test prominent drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement.

The theoretical development involves a systematic literature review of positive consumer engagement, reviews existing articles on negative consumer engagement and builds the foundation for conceptual model development. The empirical analysis adopts a sequential mixed-methods research design. The qualitative study (online observation, semi-structured interviews) was firstly conducted to identify dimensionality, antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement, and develop the conceptual model. Survey data (N=431) were then used in the measurement development and hypotheses testing.

The findings show the multi-dimensional nature of negative online brand engagement, consisting of cognition, affection, online constructive and destructive behaviour. The quantitative results identify six drivers of the phenomenon, namely perceived brand quality, brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour, anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification and oppositional attitudinal loyalty. Finally, the same evidence supports five outcomes including consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities, brand disloyalty, happiness, offline destructive and constructive behaviour.

The thesis offers theoretical and managerial implications. It provides an improved, innovative conceptualisation and a valid measurement of negative online brand engagement and identifies its key drivers and outcomes, none of which have been clearly identified in previous studies. These findings also provide strategic implications for managers to develop the appropriate marketing and branding strategies and avoid or manage the effects of negative online brand engagement.

Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Acknowledgement

There are several people whose support was invaluable in making this thesis possible. Firstly, I would like to thank my wonderful family for their unconditional love and support. Thank you so much for always being there for me, I am extremely grateful.

I also would like to express my sincere gratitude to my wonderful supervisors: Prof. Cleopatra Veloutsou and Prof. Anna Morgan-Thomas. Thank you for your help, support, advice, generosity and encouragement in my PhD study during these four years. You are the best supervisors I could have asked for. I am eternally grateful for having had the pleasure of working with you.

Finally, I have been very lucky to meet some amazing people during this journey. Thank you, Yanna, Ali, Xi, Sergio, Aleksandra, Nadia and many more. You are a fantastic team.

Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature:

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Abbreviations

AVE - Average variance extracted

CE - Consumer engagement

CFA - Confirmatory factor analysis

CFI - Comparative fit index

CMIN/DF - Chi-square statistic

CMV - Common method variance

CR - Construct reliability

CSR - Corporate social responsibility

EFA - Exploratory factor analysis

EM - Expectation maximisation method

KMO - Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

NCE - Negative consumer engagement

NFI – Normed Fit Index

PCE - Positive consumer engagement

RMSEA -Root mean square error of approximation

RQ - Research question

SEM - Structural equation modelling

TLI - Tucker-Lewis index

UK - United Kingdom

US - United States

WOM - Word-of-mouth

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Research focus

Engagement is a psychological state that occurs through interactive, co-creative consumer experiences with focal objects or agents (Brodie et al., 2011). Although definitions and views of the concept vary, consumer engagement is generally understood as a motivational and context-dependent construct characterised by consumers' cognitive, affective and behavioural investment in specific interactions with the focal engagement object (Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Dessart et al., 2019; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020). Consumer engagement can be developed with different objects important for marketers such as brands (Harmeling et al., 2017; Bruneau et al., 2018; Araujo et al., 2020) or brand communities (Dolan et al., 2019; Hanson et al., 2019; Rabbanee et al., 2020) and in various settings such as online (Parihar and Dawra, 2020; Singh and Pathak, 2020; Wang and Lee, 2020) or offline (Karjaluoto et al., 2020; Lashkova et al., 2020; An and Han, 2020).

Existing studies identify brands as a major object of consumer engagement (Dwivedi, 2015; Algharabat et al., 2018; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020), and consumer brand engagement refers to consumers' cognitions, emotions and behaviours to certain brands (Hollebeek et al., 2014). An increasing number of studies are starting to focus on consumer brand engagement in the online context (Bowden et al., 2017; Moran et al., 2020; Parihar and Dawra, 2020) and highlight the importance of the online environment for brands (Swaminathan et al., 2020). In contrast with offline engagement, online engagement reflects a higher level of consumer participation (Wirtz et al., 2013; Swaminathan et al., 2020), as the online environment provides the convenience for consumers to cooperate and interact with others and engage with brand-related activities (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Gummerus et al., 2012; Baldus et al., 2015). Given the expansion of online interactions and the importance of brands, online brand engagement is impactful and valuable for firms (Simon et al., 2016; Wang and Lee, 2020).

An influential research stream on consumer engagement has emerged in the last few decades, which can be regarded as a bipolar continuum (Brodie et al., 2013; Grewal et al., 2017; Naumann et al., 2020). Positive consumer engagement refers to consumers' positive brand-related cognitions, affections and behaviours (Dessart et al., 2016a), while negative consumer engagement reflects consumers' unfavourable brand-related thoughts, emotions and behaviours (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Stathopoulou et al., 2017). A lot of academic

research focuses on the online brand engagement of a positive nature, and there are clear attempts to define and capture it (e.g., Sprott et al., 2009; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Tuškej and Podnar, 2018; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020); however, limited studies focus on its negative nature when observed under certain situations (Grewal et al., 2017; Naumann et al., 2020). The concept of negative online brand engagement is relatively new in the field of marketing research, with a small number of studies reported so far; its dimensions, drivers and outcomes remain largely unexplored (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Heinonen, 2018).

The literature acknowledges that consumers tend to engage negatively with brands (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Negative brand engagement seems to be more common (Rissanen and Luoma-Aho, 2016), potentially more impactful (Bowden et al., 2017) and detrimental to both brands and consumers (Ba and Pavlou, 2002; van Noort and Willemsen, 2012; Naumann et al., 2020) than positive brand engagement, particularly in the online context (Moran et al., 2020; Parihar and Dawra, 2020). Consumers may develop negative cognitions (e.g., thoughts, reflections) to the brand (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Regarding the affective dimension, not all relationships are inherently positive (Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018) and past evidence indicates that the average split between positive and negative categories amounts to 55% and 45% respectively (Fournier and Alvarez, 2013). As for the behavioural dimension, consumers' online destructive behaviours (e.g., conflicts, boycotting) can negatively affect firm performance or brand value (Gebauer et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017; Gopalakrishna et al., 2019).

Several studies highlight the importance of negative consumer engagement (e.g., Brodie et al., 2011; Naumann et al., 2020) and use items coming from multiple previous studies to capture it based on one dimension (behavioural) (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2020) or three dimensions (cognitive, affective, behavioural) (Naumann et al., 2020). However, to this point, there remains no conceptually adequate and valid scale to capture negative brand engagement in the online context (Bowden et al., 2017; Heinonen, 2018).

Considering negative online brand engagement is an important concept that has not been fully investigated, research should be expanded to view engagement in light of its negative manifestations. To gain a comprehensive understanding of the online brand engagement phenomenon, an enhanced understanding of the concept of negative online brand engagement is necessary. Further, drivers and outcomes of negative online brand

engagement need to be better understood and organised to manage the impact of negative online brand engagement more effectively.

1.2 Research purpose and objectives

Addressing the gaps in the online consumer brand engagement literature, the aim of this study is to enhance theoretical understanding of negative consumer engagement by systematically mapping the concept, operationalising it empirically and examining its antecedents and outcomes. This thesis responds to the recent calls in the literature that suggest negative consumer brand engagement needs to be further examined (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Grewal et al., 2017; Naumann et al., 2020). In addition, studies suggest that understanding negative online brand engagement and its significant antecedents and outcomes are crucial for the survival of the brand or firm (Greve, 2014; Do et al., 2020).

Extending the treatment of consumer brand engagement into the negative side and the online context, this study conceptualises and measures the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. Given the relative newness of the concept, the study offers insight into the role that negative online brand engagement plays in bridging its antecedents and outcomes.

Focusing on the nature and nomological network of negative online brand engagement, the study sets the following three objectives:

1) To explore the nature of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. In this regard, current research aims to refine the existing conceptualisation of negative online brand engagement and develop an instrument to measure it empirically.

2) To identify factors driving negative consumer engagement as reported in the literature; unreported factors driving negative online brand engagement; categorise all factors; and, test the influence of those most prominent on the formation of negative online brand engagement.

3) To identify outcomes of negative consumer engagement as reported in the literature; unreported outcomes of negative online brand engagement; categorise all outcomes; and, test those most prominent that are caused by negative online brand engagement.

The first objective is a prerequisite to the achievement of the second and third. It aims to

bring clarity to the definition of negative online brand engagement, based on which a measure of negative brand engagement, adequate to online contexts, will be created. This step is necessary to enable the application and measurement of negative brand engagement in the online context.

The second and third objectives focus on the antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement and aim to identify those most prominent, in order to study in light of the current state of the literature and the nature of the specific context. To date, research in this area remains fragmented and largely conceptual, with only a minimal number of studies providing empirical evidence for drivers and outcomes of negative consumer engagement (Naumann et al., 2020; Rahman et al., 2022). This step is necessary to understand the conditions under which negative brand engagement occurs in the online context and which effects it generates.

1.3 Research methodology

To address the research objectives, the theoretical development involving an extensive literature review on both positive and negative consumer engagement is first conducted. Then, the thesis adopts an exploratory sequential mixed methods research design, involving six studies. Such design involves the collection of qualitative data using online observation and semi-structured interviews. The literature review and the qualitative phase thereby inform the conceptual model of antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. The qualitative phase is then followed by quantitative data collection in the form of an analytical survey.

The selected empirical approach aligns with the stated research objectives. The qualitative phase (Study 1) adopts online observation and semi-structured interviews with moderators and members of identified Facebook groups/pages to explore the dimensions of negative online brand engagement, which corresponds to the first objective. Further, consistent with the second and third research objectives, the qualitative phase allows identifying the key motivations and the potential outcomes of negative online brand engagement and finalising the conceptual model. Qualitative data are analysed via the thematic analysis method.

The quantitative phase includes five studies: expert survey (Study 2), pre-testing (Study 3),

pilot (Study 4), scale development (Study 5) and model testing (Study 6). Firstly, the quantitative stage focuses on measurement development (Studies 2-5) including the scales for a. negative online brand engagement (core construct), b. offline constructive behaviour and c. offline destructive behaviour (identified as outcomes in the conceptual model). In line with the first objective, a conceptually adequate and valid scale to capture negative online brand engagement is developed. The development of the three scales also paves the way for hypothesis testing. Corresponding to the second and third objectives, Study 6 tests the research hypotheses presented in the conceptual model and the key antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement are identified. The primary survey data analysis methodology is represented by structural equation modelling.

1.4 Expected contributions

The current thesis aims to make theoretical contributions to the academic literature on consumer engagement. First, this research contributes to the conception of negative online brand engagement, a notably under-researched construct. To this end, the study evaluates the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement and summarises what is known about negative online brand engagement to enrich the understanding of the phenomenon. Further, the study hopes to provide a more holistic conception of the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement. Available literature suggests three dimensions of negative consumer engagement including cognitive, affective and behavioural (Naumann et al., 2020). However, there are questions on the dimensionality and the approach to negative consumer engagement and additional research needs to be conducted to uncover the dimensionality of the phenomenon. The unique focus of negative consumer brand engagement provides a more holistic and balanced understanding of the consumer engagement concept.

Secondly, this study intends to provide a theoretical contribution by developing a measurement scale to capture the specific features of negative online brand engagement. To this point, there is no conceptually adequate and valid scale to measure negative online brand engagement. Existing scales on positive brand engagement (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dwivedi, 2015; Dessart et al., 2016a; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019) might not be able to reflect the characteristics of online brand engagement when it has a negative nature.

Although past studies have attempted to measure the concept (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2020a; Naumann et al., 2020), a robust scale seems absent. Existing operationalisations only partially capture the concept and are inconsistent with the current study's conceptual definition and brand focus. It is necessary to clearly define and develop a reliable and valid scale to measure negative online brand engagement.

Thirdly, the current thesis intends to advance the consumer engagement research by uncovering consumers' motivations to engage negatively with brands online. Analysis of existing literature shows a multiplicity of potential antecedents of positive consumer engagement (e.g., Carlson et al., 2019a; Moliner-Tena et al., 2019; de Oliveira Santini et al., 2020). Nonetheless, there are a very limited number of studies identifying the drivers of negative consumer engagement (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). In addition, consumer engagement may be exchanged under different contexts and for different objects (Dessart et al., 2016a; Araujo et al., 2020; Rabbanee et al., 2020) and very little is currently known about the motivations of negative brand engagement in the online context.

Additionally, this research intends to contribute to marketing theory by empirically examining the outcomes of negative online brand engagement. Although existing research acknowledges different consequences of consumer engagement (e.g., Bento et al., 2018; Stocchi et al., 2018; Moran et al., 2020), they mostly focus on the positive side, and little is currently known about the significant consequences of negative consumer engagement. Existing studies on negative consumer engagement identify only limited sets of outcomes from negativity (Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018).

Managing negative consumer brand engagement is significant for managers to avoid brand failure and gain competitive advantages in the competing market (Naumann et al., 2020). This research intends to help brand managers to understand the phenomenon of negative consumer brand engagement and realise its importance and value. As a result, appropriate marketing and branding strategies can be developed to prevent and manage the effects of negative online brand engagement.

1.5 Thesis structure

The current thesis includes 12 chapters which are structured as follows. Following the

introduction to the thesis, Chapter 2 provides a review of what is known about consumer engagement and conducts an in-depth exploration of the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement. The first part of the chapter discusses the nature of positive consumer engagement, as well as an overview of its antecedents and outcomes. The second part includes the review of literature on negative consumer engagement and addresses the conceptualisation, antecedences and outcomes.

Chapter 3 includes a discussion of research gaps and an outline of research questions based on the analysis of the positive and negative consumer engagement literature. The chapter firstly addresses the gaps related to the conceptualisation of negative consumer engagement. Then, the antecedents and outcomes of negative consumer engagement identified in previous studies are discussed and corresponding gaps and research questions are illustrated.

Chapter 4 presents the overall research design and approach to the research that guides the collection and analysis of empirical data. The chapter starts with the discussion of philosophical considerations pertinent to the current research, addressing the appropriate ontological, epistemological and axiological positions. Additionally, the chapter presents the chosen research design and addresses the arguments for the chosen analytical approach.

Chapter 5 concerns the methodology adopted in the qualitative phase. The chapter starts with an overview of the data collection context. The chosen method of data collection and approach to the qualitative data analysis, in line with specific requirements for the rigour in qualitative research, are also addressed.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the qualitative study. The chapter addresses the findings pertinent to the first, second and third research objectives concerning the dimensionality, drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. The chapter provides examples from the qualitative data to corroborate the findings.

Chapter 7 outlines the conceptual model developed based on the results from the qualitative study and the issues identified in the literature review. In line with the second and third research objectives, this chapter presents the key antecedents and outcomes of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. The conceptual model identifies the theoretical relationship between the constructs and stipulates the relevant hypotheses to be tested in the quantitative phase.

Chapter 8 is dedicated to the design of quantitative data collection and analysis. The chapter presents the quantitative research instrument and outlines the process of questionnaire development. The questionnaire structure is presented, followed by a discussion of sampling design and issues related to questionnaire administration. Finally, the chapter addresses the steps undertaken to ensure the suitability of the collected data and the data analysis method adopted for hypothesis testing.

Chapter 9 outlines the measures and items used to capture the study's concepts presented in the conceptual model. First, the choice of the adapted or adopted scales of constructs included in the conceptual model is explained. Then, the chapter presents the rationale behind the development of new scales for a. negative online brand engagement, b. offline constructive behaviour and c. offline destructive behaviour. In addition, the chapter discusses the evaluation of psychometric properties of the newly developed measures. Finally, assessment of the overall measurement model is conducted.

Chapter 10 presents the results of the hypothesis testing. In line with the RQ2 and RQ3, the chapter addresses the results of hypothesis testing related to the influence of specific drivers of negative online brand engagement as well as the effect of negative online brand engagement concerning the identified outcome variables.

Chapter 11 provides an in-depth discussion of the study's findings based on the evidence from the qualitative and quantitative studies. The results of the studies are compared to the evidence from the existing research on positive and negative consumer engagement, and their correspondence with or deviation from the existing literature is explained.

Chapter 12 addresses the key contributions of this thesis and discusses the theoretical contributions of the current research, followed by an overview of the implications for marketing practice. The chapter closes with a discussion of the limitations of the current research and potential avenues for future enquiries.

Chapter 2 Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Some concepts related to positive consumer engagement can be transferred into negative. For example, happiness, which is usually identified as an outcome of positive consumer engagement (Hollebeek and Belk, 2021), can also be an outcome of negative consumer engagement. Due to the limited studies focusing on the negative side of consumer engagement, it is necessary to review the literature on positive consumer engagement and extend it to negative consumer engagement. This chapter presents the two relevant streams of literature including positive and negative consumer engagement. It is essential in the identification of research gaps, necessary in the formulation of the research questions that guide the present thesis (in Chapter 3).

The chapter is structured into four main sections. The first part defines the concept of positive consumer engagement through conducting a systematic literature review. It explains the specific dimensions, sub-dimensions, antecedents and outcomes of positive consumer engagement. Then, the second part includes an in-depth analysis of existing English literature on negative consumer engagement. The section illustrates definitions of negative consumer engagement and presents its dimensionality, drivers and outcomes.

2.2 Positive consumer engagement

An influential research stream on consumer engagement has emerged in the last few decades, which primarily focuses on the positive side. Algesheimer et al. (2005) first put forward consumer engagement and defined it as consumers' intrinsic motivation to interact with community members. Consumer engagement has been widely depicted as a consumer's motivational and context-dependent state of mind characterised by cognitive, affective and behavioural investment in specific interactions with the focal engagement object (Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Dessart et al., 2016a, 2019; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020).

This section aims to define positive consumer engagement and identify its dimensions, sub-dimensions, antecedents and outcomes. This is the first step to understanding consumer engagement and aspects that could become negative, which can provide the theoretical

background in the conceptualisation of negative consumer engagement. Firstly, the systematic approach adopted to review existing articles on positive consumer engagement is introduced. Then, definitions of positive consumer engagement are identified. This is followed by examining its dimensions and sub-dimensions. The last two parts evaluate its antecedents and outcomes respectively.

2.2.1 Systematic literature review on positive consumer engagement

Systematic reviews are the gold standard among reviews (Davis et al., 2014; Snyder, 2019) and are increasingly adopted in business research to synthesize research findings systematically, transparently and reproducibly. To conceptualise positive consumer engagement and understand its antecedents and outcomes, a systematic literature review is conducted aiming to identify aspects relevant to the focus of this study, the negative online brand engagement.

The systematic approach was adopted because of the following reasons. First, unlike the narrative review, which does not follow a rigorous or systematic process, a systematic literature review has strict requirements for search strategy and select articles in the review based on inclusion and exclusion criteria, it is effective in synthesizing what the collection of studies are showing in a particular question and is suitable for the current research topic (Snyder, 2019; Siddaway et al., 2019). Second, the systematic literature review can map the relevant intellectual territory of the field, as traditional narrative reviews frequently omit relevant information (Rumrill et al., 2001; Tranfield et al., 2003). It tends to be of higher quality, more comprehensive, and less biased than other types of literature review, which makes the article more likely to be published and have an impact (Siddaway et al., 2019). Third, the methodology and systematic structure that are apparent throughout the systematic review process impose discipline and a focus that make the task of conducting and presenting the review tangible and digestible (Siddaway et al., 2019).

Considering the inclusion of high quality and relevant sample of papers, this study adopted a narrow search strategy, which has been applied to similar domains such as consumer complaint behaviour (Arora and Chakraborty, 2021) and consumer-brand relationships (Fetscherin and Heinrich, 2015). The narrow search strategy informed the inclusion criteria

and in particular, the keywords, the database that the data was retrieved, sources included and the time scale of the study choices (Snyder, 2019). Most searched journals belong to the marketing discipline and some highly cited documents of the consumer engagement domain emerge from diverse journal areas such as strategy and management.

To ensure the quality and relevance of selected articles, the literature search focused on journals ranked in the top 25% in the marketing category in Scopus. Also, the top 20% in the strategy and management category in Scopus are considered to include related journals which are not listed as marketing. Selected journals are compared with journals ranked 3 or 4 stars in the ABS list (one of the most extensively used ranking instruments) to ensure that all-important journals in marketing are included (Walker et al., 2019). There are some overlaps, some journals in Scopus are also included in the ABS list. As a result, all 20 journals in the ABS list, 8 additional journals in the Marketing category from a total of 39 and 8 additional journals in the Strategy and Management category from a total of 74 in Scopus are selected.

To identify the most relevant articles, the list of keywords (see Table 2.1) was developed in four stages. A list of key themes that are related to positive consumer engagement was first identified (step 1). Considering the brand as the engagement object and the online focus, the researcher then generated a list of potential keywords related to online brand engagement (step 2). Step 3 involved the development of keywords related to the three most widely identified dimensions of consumer engagement (i.e., cognitive, affective, behavioural) (e.g., Dessart et al., 2019; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020). Finally, the list of keywords (11 in total) was discussed with two marketing experts to ascertain their relevance (step 4), with two being removed because of the irrelevance of consumer engagement.

The selection of the time period that articles were published was informed to arise systematic coverage and secure the ability to replicate the study (Snyder, 2019). To control randomness and given that the data were collected between 2018 and 2021, it was decided to download records published between 2000 and 2021. This study used the Scopus database as the main source to identify eligible articles, which is the largest multi-disciplinary database of peer-reviewed literature in social science research, considered as having high-quality standards for selecting sources it incorporates (Veloutsou and Ruiz-Mafe, 2020).

Several exclusion criteria were used to ensure the quality of the selected articles (Snyder,

2019). Some journals are excluded as there is no article available on the topic related to engagement. The articles should have all the needed information and therefore articles with mistakes in the key field, with the author names missing or inaccessible to the full text were removed. To secure the relevance of articles, studies that did not focus on engagement and did not identify the consumer as the engagement subject were excluded.

In total, 340 articles on positive consumer engagement were selected, including 138 from journals in the ABS list, 180 additional articles from journals in the marketing category and 22 additional articles from journals in the strategy and management category in Scopus. All the inclusion and exclusion criteria are summarised in Table 2.1. Appendix 1 shows all the included journals and the number of articles selected in each journal.

Table 2.1 Criteria for selecting articles on positive consumer engagement

Inclusion criteria #1	Scopus (top 25% in marketing, top 20% in strategy and management); ABS list (3, 4, 4* in marketing)
Inclusion criteria #2	*Keywords:* (consumer engagement OR customer engagement, positive engagement OR online engagement OR brand engagement OR cognitive engagement OR emotional engagement OR affective engagement OR behavioural engagement)
Inclusion criteria #3	*Time period:* 2000-2021
Inclusion criteria #4	*Language:* English
Retreated	433 articles from 36 journals
Exclusion criteria #1	Articles with mistakes in the key field, with the author names missing or inaccessible to the full text (72 articles)
Surviving sources	361 articles
Exclusion criteria #2	Articles not focusing on engagement and not considering the consumer as the engagement subject were excluded (21 articles)
Surviving sources	340 articles

2.2.2 Define positive consumer engagement

Consumer engagement has been depicted as a consumer's motivational and context-dependent state of mind characterised by cognitive, affective and behavioural investment in specific interactions with the focal engagement object (Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Dessart et al., 2019; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020). Consumer engagement has been conceptualised as a motivational process that can be triggered by motivational drivers, such as helping others and writing reviews (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek et al., 2017; de Oliveira Santini et al., 2020; An and Han, 2020). In addition, consumer engagement consists of discrete levels

of intensity including active and passive (Dolan et al., 2019; Shawky et al., 2020; Fernandes and Castro, 2020; Behnam et al., 2021). Past research highlights consumers engage with different objects (brand, brand communities) in varied contexts (online, offline) (Sashi, 2012; Dessart et al., 2016a; Bowden et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2020).

Although positive consumer engagement has received increasing attention in the marketing literature, studies still lack consensus on its conceptualisation. Existing positive consumer engagement definitions differ depending on the engagement objects, engagement context, level of engagement and report various dimensions to capture it (see Figure 2.1 and Table 2.2).

Figure 2.1 Key classifications on positive consumer engagement

Engagement objects	Context	Level of engagement	Level of measurement
• Brand	• Online	• Active	• Unidimensional
• Brand community	• Offline	• Passive	• Multidimensional
• Media			
• Multiple objects			
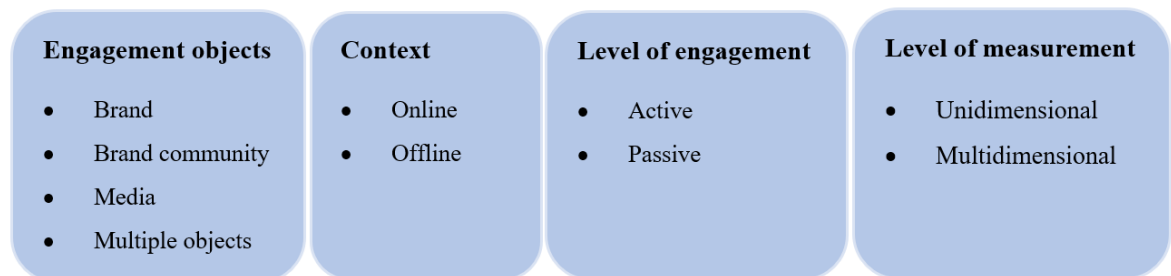
Engagement objects

The object of engagement is one feature delineating past studies. Existing research focuses on consumer engagement with different engagement objects, such as brand (Bowden, 2009; Yang et al., 2016; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021), brand community (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Baldus et al., 2015; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021), media (Calder, 2009; Guesalaga, 2016; Kim et al., 2016) and multiple objects (Sashi, 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2015; 2016a; Bowden et al., 2017). Scholars explain that consumers can engage with a single object (brand or brand community), or with multiple objects (brand and online brand community) (Sashi, 2012; Dessart et al., 2016a; Bowden et al., 2017).

Most existing literature focuses on consumer engagement with multiple objects simultaneously (Sashi, 2012; Dessart et al., 2015; Bowden et al., 2017). Dessart et al. (2016a) emphasise that multiple objects of consumer engagement are usually related to the online context. To illustrate, online communities provide the opportunity for consumers to interact

with each other such as sharing information, recommending the brand and participating in online activities (Lee et al., 2011). Consumers, who engage with an online brand group, may also involve in interactions with the brand and other group members (Gummerus et al., 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Bowden et al., 2017).

Pentina et al. (2018) focus on social media and identify engagement behaviours relates to various objects, such as following the brand and mentioning friends in comments. These behaviours of social media engagement are like some behaviours of engaging in the online brand community (e.g., following, sharing). However, there are differences between engaging with brand community and media. Consumers, who engage with the brand community, may communicate with others about one brand or some similar brands which are related to the brand community, while consumers, who engage with media, can share any brand or firm information that they are interested in (Raïes et al., 2015; Pentina et al., 2018).

The single engagement object is mostly related to the brand, a major and important object of consumer engagement that has been discussed in various studies (Dwivedi, 2015; Algharabat et al., 2018; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020). For example, as a widely cited article on consumer engagement, Hollebeek et al. (2014) indicate that consumer engagement reflects a consumer's cognitions, emotions and behaviours toward a certain brand during focal consumer-brand interactions. Considering the importance of brand in consumer engagement, the current study also identifies the brand as the engagement object.

Table 2.2 Overview of key literature on positive consumer engagement

Objects / Dimensions	Off-line Brand	Online Brand	Online Brand community	Online Media	Both Multiple objects
Unidimensional views — Cognitive	Higgins, 2006; Bowden, 2009; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Blasco-Arcas et al., 2016	-	-	Pynta et al., 2014	Kuo and Feng, 2013
Unidimensional views — Affective	Sprott et al., 2009; Moliner-Tena et al., 2019; Jessen et al., 2020	Read et al., 2019; Park et al., 2020	-	-	Kim et al., 2016
Unidimensional views — Behavioural	Van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2011; Muntinga et al., 2011; Cambra-Fierro et al., 2013; Vivek et al., 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Bowden et al., 2015; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Maslowska et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017; Bruneau et al., 2018; Araujo et al., 2020; Obilo et al., 2021	Weiger et al., 2019; Carlson et al., 2019a; Sheng, 2019; Osei-Frimpong, 2019; Kitirattarkarn et al., 2019; Rietveld et al., 2020; Swani and Labrecque, 2020; Feddema et al., 2020; Giakoumaki and Krepapa, 2020; Labrecqu et al., 2020; Wongkitrungrueng and Assarut, 2020; Moran et al., 2020; Parihar and Dawra, 2020; Singh and Pathak, 2020; Wang and Lee, 2020; Bozkurt et al., 2021; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021; Schaefers et al., 2021	Algesheimer et al., 2005; Jahn and Kunz, 2012; Noguti, 2016; Hall-Phillips et al., 2016; Gavilanes et al., 2018; Pancer et al., 2019; Hughes et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2019; Dolan et al., 2019; Hanson et al., 2019; Rabbanee et al., 2020; Chu et al., 2020; Ho et al., 2020; Ho and Chung, 2020; Kumar and Kumar, 2020; Dessart et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2021	Wang and Calder, 2009; Guesalaga, 2016; Demangeot and Broderick, 2016; Schivinski et al., 2016; Pentina et al., 2018; Tuškej and Podnar, 2018; Thakur, 2019; Cheng et al., 2021	Chu and Kim, 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Gummerus et al., 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; Raïes et al., 2015; Simon et al., 2016; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Pentina et al., 2018; van Heerde et al., 2019; Bravo et al., 2019; Junaid et al., 2019; Bergel et al., 2019; de Oliveira Santini et al., 2020; Gligor and Bozkurt, 2020; Itani et al., 2020

Objects / Dimensions	Off-line	Online			Both
	Brand	**Brand**	**Brand community**	**Media**	**Multiple objects**
Cognitive, affective	-	Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Gligor et al., 2019; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020	-	Marci, 2006; Scott and Craig-Lees, 2010	-
Cognitive, behavioural	-	Hollebeek, 2019	Prentice et al., 2019b	Dijkmans et al., 2015	-
Experiential, social	Gambetti et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2012; Calder et al., 2016		Pagani and Malacarne, 2017; Marbach et al., 2019	-	-
Cognitive, affective, behavioural	Patterson et al., 2006; Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Dwivedi, 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Solem and Pedersen, 2016; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Fernandes and Moreira, 2019; Kumar and Nayak, 2019; Islam et al., 2019; Karjaluoto et al., 2020; Lashkova et al., 2020; An and Han, 2020; Rather and Hollebeek, 2021	Hollebeek et al., 2014; Willems et al., 2019; Taiminen and Ranaweera, 2019; Hollebeek and Macky, 2019; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019; Flaherty et al., 2019; Helme-Guizon and Magnoni, 2019; Carlson et al., 2019b; Islam et al., 2020; Bazi et al., 2020; Syrjälä et al., 2020; Loureiro et al., 2020; Hepola et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; McLean et al., 2021	Naumann, et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2017; Dessart et al., 2019; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019; Hughes et al., 2019; Claffey and Brady, 2019; Yuan et al., 2020; Algharabat et al., 2020	Calder et al., 2009; Phillips and McQuarrie, 2010; Ksiazek et al., 2016; Calder et al., 2016; Thakur, 2016; Voorveld et al., 2018; Connell et al., 2019	Brodie, et al., 2011; Sashi, 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Hammedi et al., 2015; Dessart et al., 2015;2016; Naumann, et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017; Wirtz et al., 2019; Prentice et al., 2019a; Dessart and Pitardi, 2019; Pöyry et al., 2020; Ferreira et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020; Kumar, 2021
Cognitive, affective, behavioural and social	Vivek et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Hollebeek, 2018; Sim et al., 2018; Ayi Wong et al., 2020; Karpen and Conduit, 2020	Xi and Hamari, 2020	Baldus et al., 2015; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021	-	Calder et al., 2016; Islam and Rahman, 2016; Lee et al., 2019

Engagement context

Consumer engagement may occur in the online and offline contexts. Some objects call for particular contexts. Consumer engagement in the online context is usually related to consumer's behaviours within online brand communities and media (Gummerus et al., 2012; Hughes et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2019; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021). Raïes et al. (2015) define consumer online engagement as the frequency and duration of participation in the online brand community, and the level of activities performed by community members. Consumer engagement with media is the extent of consumers interacting with social media, which also relates to the online context (Wang and Calder, 2009; Guesalaga, 2016). Offline consumer engagement is consumers' offline behaviours towards a brand, with other consumers, or within offline brand communities (Dessart et al., 2016a; Bruneau et al., 2018). For example, consumers may share brand-related information with other consumers (Rossmann et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2018) and participate in offline activities sponsored by a brand (van Doorn et al., 2010; Vivek et al., 2014). Scholars also indicate that consumers can engage with multiple objects in the online and offline context (Calder et al., 2016; Ferreira et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020). For example, consumers, who engage with the online brand community, may also engage with the brand online or offline (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a).

In contrast with online engagement, consumer engagement in the offline context reflects a lower level of consumer interaction and participation (Wirtz et al., 2013). Consumers in the online brand community are more likely to engage with other members compared to offline communities (Lee et al., 2011; Chu and Kim, 2011). Studies indicate that online brand communities provide the convenience for consumers to cooperate and interact with community members and engage with brand-related activities (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Gummerus et al., 2012; Baldus et al., 2015; Simon et al., 2016). Hence, consumer engagement seems to be a context-dependent concept, which performs different levels of interaction in the offline and online contexts.

The level of engagement

Consumer engagement consists of discrete levels of intensity (i.e., active, passive) (Dolan et al., 2019; Shawky et al., 2020; Fernandes and Castro, 2020). Studies indicate that consumer

engagement behaviours can be passive when the engagement object is merely consumed, whereas they can also be active when consumers actively create and contribute to the engagement object (Muntinga et al., 2011; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; Shawky et al., 2020; Fernandes and Castro, 2020). It reflects that habitual purchasing/repurchasing behaviour relates to passive engagement, which is a lower level of engagement (de Villiers, 2015). Bowden et al. (2015) suggest that consumer engagement is weak in functional/utilitarian services (i.e., transactional), while it is comparatively strong in participative/co-creative services (i.e. non-transactional). Therefore, positive engagement behaviour can be passive or active, corresponding to a consumer's transactional and non-transactional behaviour respectively.

The level of measurement

Engagement has been variably conceived as either uni- or multidimensional construct. Some scholars only identified one dimension in their definitions of consumer engagement, such as cognitive, affective or behavioural dimension (Bowden, 2009; Van Doorn et al. 2010; Kim et al., 2016; Bruneau et al., 2018).

Existing research offers contrasting definitions of consumer engagement that focus on the **cognitive** dimension. Bowden (2009) indicates that consumer engagement is an individual's attention to the brand during actual consumption. It reflects a consumer's cognitive process from being new to being loyal to a specific brand (Bowden, 2009). Studies on regulatory fit theory define engagement as involvement and absorption of attention: being involved, occupied and fully absorbed in the object (Higgins, 2006; Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Kuo and Feng (2013) emphasise that consumer engagement is related to the positive cognitions of consumers to their participation in activities held by the community. Thus, consumers engagement can be defined as consumers' cognitive interactions with the engagement focus.

Few studies on unidimensional views define consumer engagement based on the **affective** dimension (Sprott et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2016). Kim et al. (2016) have examined the affective dimension of consumer engagement which is defined as a consumer's emotional motivating experience of interaction with a focal brand and its advertising. It refers to consumers' feelings of involvement and being connected to marketing offers (Kim et al.,

2016). Hence, consumers can emotionally engage with the engagement object.

The majority of existing studies within the unidimensional tradition focus on the **behavioural** dimension (e.g., Yang et al., 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017; Bruneau et al., 2018; Rabbanee et al., 2020; Bozkurt et al., 2021; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021). Algesheimer et al. (2005) firstly defined consumer engagement as a consumer's intrinsic motivation to interact with community members. The most adopted conceptualisation defines it as customers' behavioural manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers (Verhoef et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2016; Rehnen et al., 2017; Machado et al., 2019; Obilo et al., 2021). Accordingly, consumer engagement is 'beyond purchase', which is not related to the fundamental transactions but refers to consumers devoting ongoing interaction and participation to develop deep connections with the engagement object (Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Vivek et al., 2014; Dwivedi et al., 2016). Other studies have identified four behavioural manifestations of consumer engagement including customer purchasing, referral, influencer and knowledge behaviour (Kumar et al., 2010; Parihar and Dawra, 2020; Bozkurt et al., 2021). Scholars suggest that engagement is consumers' transactional (e.g., purchase, repurchase) and non-transactional (e.g., blogging, referrals) behaviours to the firm (Cambar-Fierro et al., 2013; Maslowska et al., 2016; Bruneau et al., 2018).

The unidimensional approach provides only a partial view of the concept (van Doorn et al., 2010; Machado et al., 2019). Reflecting this, most customer engagement definitions in the marketing literature adopt a multidimensional perspective, combining two, three or four dimensions (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Summary of the multidimensional view

Two dimensions	Three dimensions	Four dimensions
• cognitive, affective • cognitive, behavioural • experiential, social	• cognitive, affective, behavioural	• cognitive, affective, behavioural, social
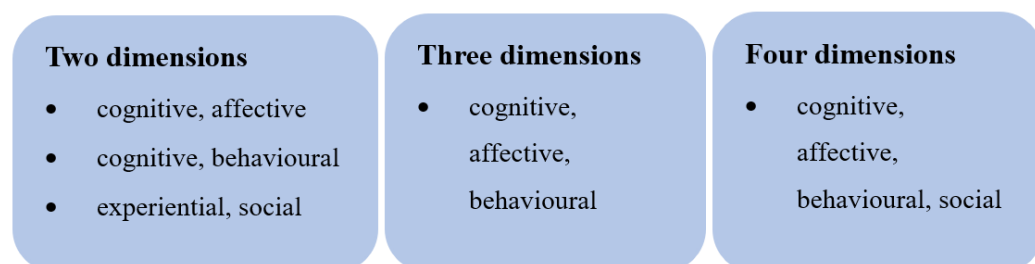
Consumer engagement can have **two dimensions**. Studies have identified consumer engagement based on the **cognitive** and **affective** dimensions (Glavee-Geo et al., 2020).

Mollen and Wilson (2010) indicate that consumer engagement captures the cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with the brand. It is characterised by the cognitive processing and satisfaction with instrumental value (i.e., relevance, utility) and experiential value (i.e., emotional congruence) of the brand (Mollen and Wilson, 2010). This can be explained by research on audience engagement, the audience may first try to understand the movie (cognitive effort), then develop positive feelings (affective response) (Marci, 2006; Scott and Craig-Lees, 2010). Dijkmans et al. (2015) focus on the **cognitive** and **behavioural** dimensions and define consumer engagement as consumers' familiarity with a company's social media activities (cognition) and the online following of these activities (behaviour).

Existing studies also examined the **experiential and social** dimensions (Vivek et al., 2012; Hollebeek et al., 2016; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021). Experiential engagement is defined as consumers' multi-sensory elements (i.e., sight, sound, smell, touch and taste), cognitions, affects, physical interactions and social experiences (Calder et al., 2009; Gambetti et al., 2012; Schmitt, 2012; Tafesse, 2016; Calder et al., 2016). The social dimension refers to consumers interacting, participating, co-creating and sharing brand-related values or content with other potential or existing consumers (Gambetti et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2014).

Most positive consumer engagement conceptualisations have **three dimensions (cognitive, affective and behavioural)** (Halaszovich and Nel, 2017; McLean et al., 2021; Hollebeek et al., 2021) and have been identified by both quantitative (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016a; Kumar, 2021) and qualitative research (e.g., Hollebeek, 2011b; Brodie et al., 2013). Consumer engagement is defined as a motivational and context-dependent construct characterised by the consumer's cognitive, affective and behavioural investment in specific interactions with the focal engagement object (Patterson et al., 2006; Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Dessart et al., 2016a; Halaszovich and Nel, 2017; Dessart et al., 2019; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020). Dwivedi (2015) and Hsieh and Chang (2016) also identified three dimensions of consumer engagement including absorption (cognitive), dedication (affective) and vigour (behavioural). Scholars also have conceptualised engagement as a multidimensional construct that arises from thoughts and feelings about experiences involved in achieving the personal goal (Calder et al., 2009; Voorveld et al., 2018). The authors regard behavioural engagement as consumers' experience where media acts as a tool that enables and facilitates these experiences (Wang and Calder, 2006; Sashi, 2012; Calder

et al., 2016). Studies indicate that consumer engagement is an experiential process comprising cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions (Schmitt, 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Ksiazek et al., 2016).

Other scholars have defined consumer engagement as a consumer's investment in the focal brand based on **four dimensions** (de Villiers, 2015; Solem and Pedersen, 2016; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021). Hollebeek et al. (2016) identify consumer engagement as consumer investment of both operant resources (i.e. cognitive, emotional, behavioural and social knowledge and skills) and operand resources (i.e., equipment) into brand interactions, which has been applied in various studies (e.g., Carlson et al., 2019b; Hollebeek, 2019; Hollebeek et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2019). This definition shows that social knowledge and skill investment is one of the dimensions of consumer engagement (Hollebeek et al., 2016). Vivek et al. (2012) suggest that consumer engagement not only contains cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions but can also be manifested socially. Hence, four dimensions are identified including **cognitive, affective, behavioural and social**.

2.2.3 Dimensions and sub-dimensions of positive consumer engagement

The main dimensions of positive consumer engagement include cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects and each dimension contains several sub-dimensions. This section aims to identify the three dimensions and their sub-dimensions.

Cognitive dimension and its sub-dimensions

Several studies define cognitive consumer engagement as the degree of brand-related thought processing and elaboration in particular brand interaction (Fang, 2017; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Algharabat et al., 2020; Hepola et al., 2020). Based on the intensity of cognitive engagement, two definitions are presented in Table 2.3. The lower level of cognitive engagement is relevant to consumers' attention and cognitive thinking to the engagement object (Dessart, et al. 2016a, 2019; Prentice et al., 2019b; Karjaluoto et al., 2020). Dessart et al. (2015) identify attention as the first step of cognitive engagement. Hollebeek et al. (2014) reveal that cognitive engagement starts from consumers' thinking

about the focal brand. Therefore, cognitive engagement is related to consumers' conscious attention and thinking processes.

The higher level of cognitive engagement is related to the consumer's concentration on the engagement focus (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Gligor et al., 2019; Loureiro et al., 2020; Hepola et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020). After paying attention to the brand, consumers will think more about the brand, which is corresponded to the second and third cognitive processes (i.e., think, learn) identified in Hollebeek et al.'s (2014) research. Studies explain that cognitive engagement is the level of brand-related concentration in specific consumer-brand interaction (Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Islam et al., 2020). Overall, cognitive engagement is an enduring and mental activation process (Gambetti et al., 2012; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a).

The first sub-dimension can be represented by consumers' **attention** (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart, et al., 2016a; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021). Attention is regarded as a process including two steps: being attracted and thinking (Dessart et al., 2015). Vivek et al. (2014) indicate that attention is the degree of people's interest or wishes to interact with the engagement focus. It reflects the intensity of attention and emphasises the feature of cognitive availability. Dessart et al. (2015) stress that attention is a thinking process on selected stimuli. Highly engaged consumers will be attracted by the engagement object first and then start thinking about and cognitively interacting with this focal object (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016a; So et al., 2021). Consequently, attention refers to the extent of a consumer being attentive to and the process of actively thinking about the selected engagement focus.

The second sub-dimension is **absorption** (Dessart et al., 2016a). Absorption refers to the sense of being fully concentrated and, deeply and happily captivated in the consumer-brand interactions (Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Carvalho and Fernandes, 2018; So et al., 2021). Dessart et al. (2015, p. 35) also use absorption to represent the cognitive process and define it as the level of consumers' concentration and immersion with the engagement focus. The engaged consumer will forget the things around, feel time flies and be happy when they are interacting with the brand (Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Carvalho and Fernandes, 2018). Thus, absorption is defined as consumers becoming fully concentrated and happily immersed in the engagement object, whereby have difficulties with detaching from it.

Table 2.3 Cognitive dimension and sub-dimensions

		Definitions	References
Cognitive dimension		Consumer's attention and cognitive thinking to the engagement objects.	Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart, et al., 2015, 2016a; Fang, 2017; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Prentice et al., 2019b; Hepola et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; McLean et al., 2021
		An enduring and mental activation process that a consumer experiences with a focal object.	Gambetti et al., 2012; Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Gligor et al., 2019; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Bazi et al., 2020; Loureiro et al., 2020; Algharabat et al., 2020
Sub-dimensions	attention	The extent of a consumer being attentive to and the process of actively thinking about the selected engagement focus.	Vivek et al., 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a, 2019; Prentice et al., 2019b; Algharabat et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; McLean et al., 2021; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021; So et al., 2021
	absorption	Consumers become fully concentrated and happily immersed in the engagement object.	Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Carvalho and Fernandes, 2018; Dessart et al., 2019; Gligor et al., 2019; Islam et al., 2020; So et al., 2021
	identification	A cognitive process through which the consumer perceives consensus and belongingness to the focal engagement object.	Hung, 2014; Hammedi et al., 2015; Briggs et al., 2016; So et al., 2021
	trust	The belief, confidence, positive perceptions or expectations held by the consumer about the engagement object's reliability, competence, predictability and integrity.	Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Moon et al., 2017; Pesämaa et al. 2013; Briggs et al., 2016; Naumann, et al., 2017a, 2017b
	reciprocity	Consumer's expectation of getting benefits (or returning the favour) from (or to) the engagement object based on the previous given.	Pesämaa et al. 2013; Naumann, et al., 2017a, 2017b

The third sub-dimension is **self-identification**. Briggs et al. (2016) reveal that cognitive engagement is the cognitive self-categorisation process of shaping a consumer's identification. Identification refers to an individual's perceived oneness with or belongingness to a brand (Briggs et al., 2016; So et al., 2021). Hammedi et al. (2015) focus on online community engagement and indicate that identification has three components including self-community connection, cognitive awareness and a sense of interdependence with the community. Identification is higher when consumers perceive themselves to be more similar to the engagement object (Hung, 2014; Briggs et al., 2016). Accordingly, higher identification reflects a higher level of cognitive engagement. This study defines identification as the consumer perceived consensus and belongingness to the focal engagement object.

The fourth sub-dimension is **trust** (Naumann, et al., 2017a). Studies define brand trust based on two dimensions: consumers' willingness to rely on the brand's ability to perform its stated function (i.e., cognitive trust), and successful relationships between the brand and the consumer (i.e., affective trust) (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Moon et al., 2017). In the current research, trust is regarded as a positive cognitive process (Dabholkar et al., 2009). It reflects consumers' willingness to rely on the engagement focus (Pesämaa et al. 2013; Briggs et al., 2016). The trustor is the consumer, and the exchange partner is the engagement object. Therefore, trust is defined as the belief, confidence, positive perceptions or expectations held by the consumer about the reliability, competence, predictability and integrity of the engagement object.

Finally, scholars indicate **reciprocity** is an important component of a consumer's cognitive appraisals, as it enhances self-esteem, establishes predictability, and leads to the expectations of future reciprocation (Pesämaa et al. 2013; Naumann, et al., 2017a). Gouldner (1960, p. 164) originally defined reciprocity as *'a mutually contingent exchange of benefits between two or more units'*, which stresses that reciprocity is an exchange of benefits. Engaged consumers may think they should get returns from the brand that they previously spent efforts, time and money on. In contrast, engaged consumers, who previously get benefits from the brand, may expect to return favours. This study focuses on the cognitive process of reciprocity and defines it as a consumer's expectation of getting benefits (or returning the favour) from (or to) the engagement object based on the previous given (or receive).

Affective dimension and its sub-dimensions

Affective engagement has been widely defined in marketing research (see Table 2.4). Consumer affective engagement denotes consumers' positively valenced emotions in a particular consumer-brand interaction (Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Raïes et al., 2015; Baldus et al., 2015; Loureiro et al., 2020; Cheung et al., 2021). Gambetti et al. (2012) suggest that consumer affective engagement is performed by the feelings activated in a customer during his/her processing of an ad. Scholars emphasise that feelings are from a summative and enduring perspective, which reflects consumers' long-term affective expressions (Calder et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a). Thus, affective engagement is the process of developing positive emotions and building bonds with the engagement focus (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Gligor et al., 2019; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020).

The first sub-dimension is **enjoyment** (Harwood and Garry, 2015; Dessart et al., 2016a). Enjoyment refers to the consumer's feelings of happiness and pleasure when interacting with the engagement focus (Dessart et al., 2015). Others reveal that enjoyment can be measured by consumers' feelings of cheerful, pleasant, satisfaction and relaxation, and can make individuals forget everything for a moment and feel themselves in a suitable moment (Calder et al., 2009; Voorveld et al., 2018). Studies stress that enjoyment is intrinsic or functional, which is related to utilitarian and entertainment experience (Calder et al., 2009; Kirmani, 2009). Building on existing definitions, this study defines enjoyment as a consumer's feelings of pleasure and happiness in the process of interacting with the engagement object(s).

Second, scholars identify **enthusiasm** as a sub-dimension of affective engagement (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Lashkova et al., 2020; An and Han, 2020). Unlike enjoyment, which is a functional or intrinsic emotion, enthusiasm refers to a strong level of interest and excitement regarding the engagement object (Vivek et al., 2014). Studies reveal that enthusiasm is conceptually similar to passion in consumers' affective engagement (Hollebeek, 2011b; Vivek et al., 2014). It reflects a consumer's strong, intense and positive feelings about the engagement focus (Hollebeek, 2011b; Albert et al., 2013; So et al., 2021). Consequently, enthusiasm refers to the consumer's strong positive feelings of excitement and interest when interacting with the engagement focus.

Table 2.4 Affective dimension and sub-dimensions

		Definitions	References
Affective dimension		The process of developing positive emotions and building bonds with the focal object(s).	Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011b; Gambetti et al., 2012; Calder et al., 2013; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Raïes et al., 2015; Baldus et al., 2015; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020; McLean et al., 2021
Sub-dimensions	enjoyment	Consumer's feelings of pleasure and happiness in the process of interacting with the engagement object(s).	Calder, et al., 2009; Kirmani, 2009; Harwood and Garry, 2015; Dessart et al., 2015; Voorveld et al., 2018; Karjaluoto et al., 2020; Islam et al., 2020; Loureiro et al., 2020; Algharabat et al., 2020; Hepola et al., 2020; McLean et al., 2021
	enthusiasm	Consumer's strong positive feelings of excitement and interest when interacting with the engagement focus.	Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Seraj, 2012; Albert, et al., 2013; Vivek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Gligor et al., 2019; Dessart et al., 2019; Lashkova et al., 2020; An and Han, 2020; So et al., 2021
	dedication	Consumer's highest level of positive feelings of meaningful and challenging when interacting with the engagement object(s).	Patterson et al., 2006; Hollebeek 2011a; Vivek et al. 2012; Dwivedi, 2015; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Naumann, et al., 2017a; Carvalho and Fernandes, 2018; Cheung et al., 2021

The third sub-dimension **(dedication)** has been validated as the strongest affective nature of consumer engagement (Dwivedi, 2015; Cheung et al., 2021). Dedication is characterised by a sense of pride, inspiration, enthusiasm and passion that highly engaged consumers held to the engagement object (Vivek et al. 2012; Naumann et al., 2017a; Carvalho and Fernandes, 2018). Also, dedication illustrates that a consumer feels meaningful and challenging when engaging with the object (Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Carvalho and Fernandes, 2018). It seems that dedication is captured by satisfying an individual's higher-order needs such as the need for control or competence (Salanova and Schaufeli, 2008). Affectively engaged consumers hold a deep sense of belongingness and attachment to the engagement focus (Naumann et al., 2017a). In this study, dedication refers to the consumer's highest level of positive feelings of meaningful and challenging when interacting with the engagement object(s).

Behavioural dimension and its sub-dimensions

Most scholars indicate that consumers' behavioural engagement is non-transactional (Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Azer and Alexander, 2020b). Previous studies define behavioural engagement as consumers' behavioural manifestations to the engagement focus, going beyond purchase (Van Doorn et al. 2010; Verhoef et al. 2010; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; de Villiers, 2015; Dessart et al., 2016a; Azer and Alexander, 2020b). However, others believe that consumer's (re-)purchasing behaviour is a basic engagement behaviour (Kumar et al., 2010; Cambra-Fierro et al., 2013; Maslowska et al., 2016; Gong, 2018). Accordingly, behavioural engagement refers to the intensity of an individual's participation in a firm's activities, which can be transactional or non-transactional (see Table 2.5).

Consisted with the non-transactional feature, scholars consider consumer behavioural engagement as a consumer's investment and voluntary behaviours. Behavioural engagement is defined as the level of time, energy and effort a consumer spends on the engagement focus (Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Dwivedi, 2015; Hollebeek, 2019; Cheung et al., 2021). Harmeling et al. (2017) suggest that consumer engagement behaviour is the consumer contribution of personal and voluntary resources to the focal firm. Engaged consumers will invest their resources in the brand, beyond resources spent during consumption (Keller, 2013).

Table 2.5 Behavioural dimension and sub-dimensions

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2"></th><th>Definitions</th><th>References</th></tr>
<tr>
<td rowspan="2">Behavioural dimension</td>
<td></td>
<td>The intensity of an individual's participation in a firm's activities, including transactional and non-transactional behaviours.</td>
<td>Kumar et al., 2010; Van Doorn et al. 2010; Verhoef et al. 2010; Gummerus et al, 2012; Roy et al., 2012; Cambra-Fierro et al., 2013; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; de Villiers, 2015; Dessart, et al., 2015; 2016a; Maslowska et al., 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consumer's investment and voluntary behaviours.</td>
<td>Hollebeek, 2011b; Keller, 2013; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Dwivedi, 2015; Harmeling et al., 2017; Hollebeek, 2019; Hepola et al., 2020; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td rowspan="6">Sub-dimensions</td>
<td>purchasing</td>
<td>Consumer's repeat or additional financial contribution to the engaged firm.</td>
<td>Kumar et al., 2010; Gummerus et al., 2012; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Maslowska et al., 2016; Dolan et al., 2016; Carlson et al., 2019a; Bozkurt et al., 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning</td>
<td>The process of a consumer seeking information and gaining experience, insight, knowledge and skills related to the engagement object.</td>
<td>Brodie et al., 2013; Keller, 2013; Dessart et al., 2015; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Calder et al., 2016; Tafesse, 2016; Eigenraam et al., 2018; Leckie et al., 2018; Dessart et al., 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing</td>
<td>The process of contributing knowledge to other acquired and potential consumers.</td>
<td>Kumar et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2013; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Dessart et al. 2015, 2016a; Rossmann et al., 2016; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Kumar and Reinartz, 2016; Dessart et al., 2019; Clark et al., 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referring</td>
<td>Positive consumer behaviour to recommend the engagement object to potential customers, which is motivated by the firm's rewards.</td>
<td>Kumar et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2015; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Kumar and Reinartz, 2016; Eigenraam et al., 2018; Jaakkola and Aarikka-Stenroos, 2019; Parihar and Dawra, 2020; Lashkova et al., 2020; Bozkurt et al., 2021; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>endorsing</td>
<td>Consumer's internal or external support to the engagement focus.</td>
<td>Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a, 2019; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021; Obilo et al., 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-creating</td>
<td>Consumers actively contribute resources to jointly create value with the firm.</td>
<td>Joshi and Sharma 2004; Kumar et al., 2010; Plé and Cáceres, 2010; Brodie et al., 2013; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Dolan et al., 2016; Kumar and Reinartz, 2016; Bowden et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Jessen et al., 2020; Parihar and Dawra, 2020; Cao et al., 2021; Bozkurt et al., 2021; Obilo et al., 2021; Hua et al., 2021; Li and Han, 2021</td>
</tr>
</table>

As a transactional behaviour, the first sub-dimension **(purchasing)** reflects a lower level of engagement behaviour (Huang et al., 2013; Dolan et al., 2016; Maslowska et al., 2016; Schivinski et al., 2016; Bruneau et al., 2018; Gong, 2018; Carlson et al., 2019a). Consumer purchasing behaviour refers to consumers (re-) purchasing products or services from a firm that will directly contribute to the firm value (Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Bozkurt et al., 2021). Kumar et al. (2010) indicate that purchasing behaviour is a consumer's total financial contribution of transactions with the company, corresponding to consumer lifetime value. However, purchasing is passive reflecting a level of participation without actively creating or contributing to the engagement object (Dolan et al., 2016). It is individualistic and usually related to the brand or firm, but does not affect other consumers (Dolan et al., 2016). Hence, purchasing is defined as a consumer's repeat or additional financial contribution to the engaged firm.

The second sub-dimension is **learning** the novel and relevant information related to the engagement object (Brodie et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Tafesse, 2016; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Eigenraam et al., 2018; Leckie et al., 2018). The learning process is defined as the consumer's acquisition of skills, insight and knowledge related to the engagement focus (Calder et al., 2016). For example, consumer engagement with the firm involves the process of searching for information about the firm, which can be regarded as the most demanding manifestation of engagement (Bruneau et al., 2018). Thus, learning refers to the process of a consumer seeking information and gaining experience, insight, knowledge and skills related to the engagement object.

Third, most studies on positive consumer engagement indicate that consumers may choose to **share** information related to the engagement focus (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Bruneau et al., 2018). This process happens both online and offline, particularly, it seems to be more common in the online community, where is convenient for consumers to exchange information and experiences (e.g., blogging, writing reviews) (Brodie et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013; Rossmann et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2018). Consumer's sharing behaviour can affect other acquired and potential consumers' awareness and perceptions (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Carlson et al., 2019b). Positively engaged consumers are more likely to share positive information which will positively affect others' perception of the engagement object (Kumar et al., 2010; Kumar and Reinartz, 2016). Hence, sharing involves the process of contributing knowledge to other acquired and potential consumers.

Behavioural engaged consumers may also try to recommend the engagement object to others, thereby **referral behaviour** is the fourth sub-dimension (Eigenraam et al., 2018; Bozkurt et al., 2021; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021). Referral behaviour is usually relevant to a firm's referral reward programs, which have been widely adopted to motivate existing consumers to recommend the brand to other potential customers (Ryu and Feick, 2007; Kumar et al., 2010). This can help the firm to attract and acquire new consumers who may not be attracted by the traditional marketing channel (Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Leckie et al., 2018). It is also crucial for the company to reduce the acquisition cost and increase future revenue (Kumar and Reinartz, 2016). Therefore, referral behaviour is defined as a positive consumer behaviour to recommend the engagement object to potential customers.

It is important to note the key differences between sharing and referring behaviours (Kumar et al., 2010). Firstly, the consumer may solely recommend the brand to prospects, but they will share information with both prospects and existing consumers. Also, sharing is a voluntary behaviour, while referring behaviour is motivated by the firm's incentives (e.g., gifts, vouchers). Another key difference lies in that sharing behaviour can be positive, negative or neutral, while referral behaviours cannot be negative. Consumers can spread positive, negative and neutral information through WOM, but they can only provide positive information to others to attract new consumers. Consequently, sharing and referral are two separate constructs.

Fifth, studies identify **endorsing** as a sub-dimension of behavioural engagement, which refers to the act of sanctioning, showing support, and referring (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021). It reflects consumers' internal and external support to the engagement focus (Dessart et al., 2015). As internal support, consumers may participate in group activities and approve the ideas or content in the group (Dessart et al., 2015). For example, engaged consumers may help brand community members with brand-related issues (Hollebeek et al., 2017). The external support occurs when consumers actively recommend the engagement focus (e.g., brand, product) to potential consumers (Brodie et al., 2013; Obilo et al., 2021).

Endorsing is different from referring behaviour (Kumar et al., 2010; Dessart et al., 2016a). Specifically, endorsing is more likely to be a consumer's voluntary or intrinsically motivated behaviour rather than the behaviour motivated by the firm's incentives, as highly engaged

consumer prefers others to know the benefits of the engagement object and actively recommend it (Dessart et al., 2016a). Additionally, the target of endorsing can be internal or external, while referring behaviour only aims at the external potential customer (Kumar et al., 2010).

Finally, **co-creating** is identified as the highest level of positive engagement behaviour in most existing research (Schivinski et al., 2016; Simon and Tossan, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Co-creating behaviours within the online community refer to consumer volunteer ideas and provide feedback to the firm (Kaltcheva et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2021). Co-creators act as co-developers of content on the social media page by interacting with the brand and other members (Dolan et al., 2016; Robiady et al., 2021). Similarly, Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) have conceptualised co-creating behaviour as consumer provision of help, information, and ideas during non-transactional and joint value processes that the firm considers when developing new products and solving problems.

Other studies identify the concept of customer knowledge behaviour that has a similar meaning to co-creating (Kumar et al., 2010; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Kumar and Reinartz, 2016). Consumer knowledge behaviour refers to consumers actively providing feedback or suggestions to improve the firm's products or services, which can contribute to knowledge development (Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Bozkurt et al., 2021). Studies have identified feedback behaviour and knowledge creation as a component of customer engagement behaviour (Huang et al., 2013; Gong, 2018; Carlson et al., 2019a). Thus, the co-creation sub-dimension can be defined as consumers actively contributing resources to jointly create value with the firm or brand.

2.2.4 Antecedents of positive consumer engagement

Understanding drivers of positive consumer engagement could inform antecedents of negative consumer engagement. This section analyses possible factors that can lead to positive consumer engagement (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3 Antecedents of positive consumer engagement

Brand/firm-related driver	**Consumer-related driver**	**Context-related driver**
• Brand value	• Consumer investment	• Political
• Brand investment	• Self-brand connection	• Cultural
• Firm actions	• Personal traits	• Technology
• Firm features	• Personal goal	• Social
• CSR	• Consumer emotion	
	• Consumer relationship	
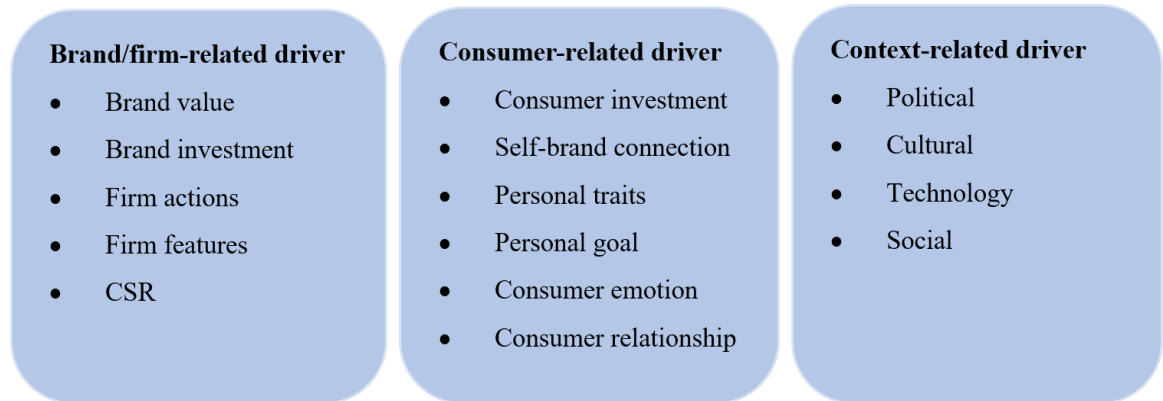
2.2.4.1 Brand or firm-related drivers

Past studies identify several antecedents of positive consumer engagement related to the specific brand/firm that consumers engage with (see Table 2.6). Several studies point to the brand as the most important factor that influences consumer engagement (van Doorn et al., 2010; Araujo et al., 2020). For example, some authors suggest that **brand value** can be the potential source of positive consumer engagement (Zeithaml, 1988; Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Leckie et al., 2018; Gligor and Bozkurt, 2020). There are four categories of brand value including functional value, hedonic value, symbolic value and co-creative value.

First, functional value is evaluated by utilitarian attributes (e.g., quality, price) (Grönroos, 1991; Franzak et al., 2014; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Itani et al., 2020). Functionally driven engagement refers to the consumer engaging the brand to receive utilitarian benefits (Schmitt, 2012; Hall-Phillips et al., 2016). Consumers' positive perceptions of brand quality can lead to positive consumer engagement behaviours (Roy et al., 2018; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Bazi et al., 2020). Studies indicate that the utilitarian benefits of mobile apps (e.g., security, ease to use) can motivate consumer engagement (Stocchi et al., 2018; van Heerde et al., 2019; Qing and Haiying, 2021). However, scholars suggest that utilitarian benefits can only deliver generic and standardised benefits to consumers, thereby it is less likely to drive consumer engagement than hedonic and symbolic benefits (Bowden et al., 2015). Also, utilitarian benefits (rewards) can not contribute to consumer engagement in idea creation, and even negatively affect consumer engagement when the reward is small (Acar, 2018).

Second, the hedonic value reflects the aesthetic response and visceral design level (Crilly et al., 2004; Norman, 2004; Franzak et al., 2014), which is related to entertaining or enjoyable activities (Claffey and Brady, 2017; Högberg et al., 2019; Itani et al., 2020). Consumers are more likely to engage in social media sites that can generate aesthetic experiences (Hall-Phillips et al., 2016; Wongkitrungruenga and Assarutb, 2020). Similarly, consumers perceived playful characteristics of the brand page are positively related to consumer engagement (Carlson et al., 2018; Heinonen, 2018; Eigenraam et al., 2021; McShane et al., 2021). Stocchi et al. (2018) suggest that the hedonic benefits of mobile apps (interpersonal utility, entertainment) can encourage consumer engagement. Thus, the hedonic value is a significant driver of positive consumer engagement.

Third, symbolic value (e.g., brand reputation, personality) also acts as a driver of positive consumer engagement (Voss et al., 2003; Keller, 2013; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017). For example, the social value of luxury fashion brands' products (i.e. enhancing social stature) is positively related to consumer behavioural engagement (Prentice and Loureiro, 2018). Cian et al. (2014) indicate that the design of the brand logo (i.e., dynamic imagery) can evoke a perception of movement and thereby positively affect consumer engagement. Similarly, the sound of a brand name (i.e., [ē] sound which requires a facial movement that mimics a smile) can lead to helping behaviours (Kniffin and Shimizu, 2016).

Fourth, co-creative value (enables consumers to fulfil perceived autonomy, competence and relatedness needs) is regarded as a significant driver of consumer engagement in marketing research (Bowden et al., 2015; Hsieh and Chang, 2016). Co-creation can make consumers feel secure and comfortable and result in strong consumer engagement (Vargo and Akaka, 2009; Bowden et al., 2015). This co-creative value-based approach provides the opportunity for consumers to know, explore, manipulate and develop the brand (Gambetti et al., 2012). For example, consumers can co-create value by interacting, communicating, sharing and cooperating with the brand on social networking platforms (Sashi, 2012; Gensler et al, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014). It is interesting to note that the co-creating value of the focal brand corresponds to the consumer's co-creating behaviour, thereby it might be the driver of consumers' co-creating behaviours.

Brand investment represents another brand-related driver of positive consumer engagement (De Wulf, et al., 2001; Aurier and de Lanauze, 2012), including economic and social

investment (Zainol et al., 2016). Economic investment refers to the consumer's perception of the extent to which a brand actively makes efforts to build functional connections, while social investment is the level of consumers' perceived brand efforts to build emotional connections (Zainol et al., 2016; Simon and Tossan, 2018). To illustrate, the perceptions of a firm's efforts in the area of service recovery, incentives and feedback solicitation can encourage positive consumer engagement behaviour (Zhang et al., 2018). Simon and Tossan (2018) indicate that customer perceived brand social investment (e.g., efforts to reinforce relationships) is positively related to consumer engagement. However, Zainol et al. (2016) argue that economic investment is not sufficient enough to trigger positive consumer engagement. Therefore, brand investment, particularly social-related investment, can cause positive consumer engagement.

As for firm-related drivers, scholars suggest that positive consumer engagement can arise from perceived **firm actions**, which reflect consumers' perceptions of how firms operate and handle specific issues (e.g. marketing mix, brand specifications) (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Maslowska et al., 2016; Viswanathan et al., 2018). Particularly, recent studies indicate that customer engagement marketing can have significant effects on consumer engagement (Venkatesan, 2017; Alvarez-Milán, et al., 2018; Meire et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021). It is deliberately initiated and actively managed and aims to attract more customers to actively engage with the firm (Schmitt et al. 2011; Harmeling et al., 2017). Harmeling et al. (2017) reveal that consumer engagement marketing can cause a higher level of positive engagement.

Studies point to examples of how customer engagement marketing can motivate positive consumer engagement (Beckers et al., 2018). Firms' posts about product-related information, promotional content and rewards can lead to positive consumer engagement (Rehnen et al., 2017; Gavilanes et al., 2018; Unnava and Aravindakshan, 2021). Firms' ads with attractive content (e.g., entertainment), format (e.g., video, photo), appropriate length and favourable language features (e.g., nouns, adjectives, question marks) can positively affect consumer engagement (Noguti, 2016; Bruce et al., 2017; Fulgoni, 2018; Leek et al., 2019; Labrecque et al., 2020; Annamalai et al., 2021). Interestingly, retailers also use chewable candies to encourage consumer cognitive engagement (i.e. spend more time, produce more thoughts) (Lee and Sergueeva, 2017). Firms use big data to know about consumers, thereby more appropriate marketing strategies can be developed to reinforce positive consumer engagement (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; Kunz et al., 2017).

Past literature indicates that certain **firm features** (i.e., firm's reputation, culture) are drivers of positive consumer engagement. For example, a firm with a higher reputation, bigger size, valuable information and rewards can attract more consumers to engage (van Doorn et al., 2010). A highly reputed firm has a more robust buffer against negative events (Beckers et al., 2018). Additionally, consumers prefer to engage with a corporate culture that is rooted in caring and trust and promotes strong internal bonds (Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Cascio and Boudreau, 2011; Briggs, et al., 2016; Grewal et al., 2017). For example, the company encourages employees to provide quality service to enhance positive consumer engagement (Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Islam et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2020a). In a similar vein, Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) found that consumers who are empowered to make decisions for the company (i.e., reflecting the company's trust in consumers) are more likely to positively engage with the firm.

Consumer preference for a firm's **corporate social responsibility (CSR)** can also lead to a higher level of consumer engagement (O'Brien et al., 2015; Briggs, et al., 2016; Aqueveque et al., 2018). For example, a firm's charity work (e.g., donations) can strengthen consumers' satisfaction and positively affect consumer engagement (Vargo, 2016). In addition, inviting consumers to a firm's CSR practice (e.g., making matching donations) can strengthen the connectedness between the consumer and the firm and further encourage other engagement behaviours (e.g. positive WOM) (Mattila et al., 2016). However, Etter (2013) indicates that consumers usually ignore the information related to CSR, as this type of message is now evaluated as scepticism (Saprikis, 2013) and overtly promotional (Funk, 2012). Hence, there are debates on the effect of CSR on consumer engagement, which requires further investigation.

Table 2.6 Brand or firm-related drivers of positive consumer engagement

Antecedents	Definition	References
Brand value	the overall assessment of the utility of a focal brand	Zeithaml, 1988; Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Grewal et al., 2017; Leckie et al., 2018; Gligor and Bozkurt, 2020
	functional value: the utilitarian benefits of the branded product	Schmitt, 2012; Franzak et al., 2014; Hall-Phillips et al., 2016; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Mohd-Ramly and Omar, 2017; Fehrer et al., 2018; Kosiba et al., 2018; Roy et al., 2018; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Bazi et al., 2020; Itani et al., 2020; Qing and Haiying, 2021;
	hedonic value: the aesthetic response and visceral design level	Holbrook, 2006; Crilly et al., 2004; Norman, 2004; Franzak et al., 2014; Baldus et al., 2015; Marbach et al., 2016; Högberg et al., 2019; Carlson et al., 2018; Heinonen, 2018; Wongkitrungruenga and Assarutb, 2020; Eigenraam et al., 2021; McShane et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021
	symbolic value: various meanings and associations of the brand	Voss et al., 2003; Dholakia et al., 2009; Scholer and Higgins 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Jahn and Kunz, 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; Keller, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Franzak et al., 2014; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017
	co-creative value: an interactive process to develop integrated value	Vargo and Akaka, 2009; Gambetti et al., 2012; Sashi, 2012; Gensler et al, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Bowden et al., 2015; Hsieh and Chang, 2016
Brand investment	the overall perception of a consumer on the extent to which efforts and resources are actively devoted by the brand to remain the existing consumer-brand relationship	De Wulf, et al., 2001; Aurier and de Lanauze, 2012; Zainol, et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Simon and Tossan, 2018
Firm actions	the overall efforts from the company	Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Maslowska et al., 2016; Viswanathan et al., 2018; Roy et al., 2018;
	firm's deliberate effort to encourage customers' active participation in and voluntary contribution to the firm's marketing functions	Schmitt et al. 2011; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; Noguti, 2016; Mosteller and Poddar, 2017; Lee and Sergueeva, 2017; Harmeling et al., 2017; Venkatesan, 2017; Bruce et al., 2017; Rehnen et al., 2017; Gavilanes et al., 2018; Fulgoni, 2018; Beckers et al., 2018; Alvarez-Milán, et al., 2018; Unnava and Aravindakshan, 2021; Liu et al., 2021
Firm features	firm reputation and culture	van Doorn et al., 2010; Roberts and Alpert, 2010; Cascio and Boudrea 2011; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Briggs, et al., 2016; Grewal et al., 2017; Beckers et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2020a
CSR	companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and their interaction with their stakeholders voluntarily	Dahlsrud, 2008; Funk, 2012; Etter, 2013; Saprikis, 2013; O'Brien et al., 2015; Mattila et al., 2016; Briggs, et al., 2016; Vargo, 2016; Aqueveque et al., 2018; Chu et al., 2020

2.2.4.2 Consumer-related drivers

A consumer-related driver considered in past studies is **consumer investment** (van Doorn et al., 2010; Zainol et al., 2016) (see Table 2.7). Studies explain that the positive effect of consumer investment on engagement is related to the switching costs which are directly tied to the extent of investment (Sung and Choi, 2010; Adjei et al., 2010). Consumers prefer to sustain the existing relationship to avoid termination costs and ensure future benefits from their investment (Sung and Campbell, 2009; Sung and Choi, 2010; Zainol, et al., 2016). Of particular importance is the consumer's behavioural investment (Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011a; Fang, 2017), which refers to consumer perceived interactivity with a brand (Leckie et al., 2016). Consumers will engage more with the brand if they think their interactions with the brand are controllable, synchronized and responsive to their actions (Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Ou et al., 2014). Scholars suggest that the progressive communication between consumer and brand can shift a passive consumer to an increasingly active consumer (Hatch and Schultz, 2010; Gambetti et al., 2012; Gensler et al, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014).

Studies indicate that an individual's level of interest and personal relevance to a brand in terms of one's basic values, self-concept and goals has received attention (**self-brand connection**) as an antecedent of positive consumer engagement (Ashley et al., 2011; So et al., 2016; Hepola et al., 2017; Dessart, 2017; Algharabat et al., 2018; Harrigan et al., 2018; Stocchi et al., 2018). Consumers usually choose to involve in brands that are connected to their inherent interests, value and needs (Sprott et al., 2009; Hollebeek, 2011a; Vivek et al., 2012; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dwivedi, 2015, 2016; Singh, 2016; Vargo, 2016; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021). The congruence between consumer and brand value can positively influence consumer engagement (Hammedi et al., 2015; Alonso-Dos-Santos et al., 2018; Tuškej and Podnar, 2018). Studies also reveal that consumers show a higher level of engagement with brands that are perceived to be more self-expressive (Wallace et al., 2014; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Baldus et al., 2015; Leckie et al., 2016) or can be incorporated into their self-concept (Brodie et al., 2011; Schmitt, 2012; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Lee and Hsieh, 2019; Giakoumaki and Krepapa, 2020; Li and Han, 2021).

Self-brand connection is associated with a consumer's self-image enhancement value which involves receiving recognition, social approval and winning favourable impressions from

others through engaging with a focal brand (Schau and Gilly, 2003; Dholakia et al., 2004; Toubia and Stephen, 2013; Wilcox and Stephen, 2013; Claffey and Brady, 2017) and is examined as a driver of positive brand engagement (Simon et al., 2016; Vargo, 2016). For instance, Eisingerich et al. (2015) indicate that consumers engage in spreading positive WOM of luxury brands because they need to self-enhance. Similarly, Jang et al. (2018) suggest that if people desire to gain reputation, status and achieve self-efficacy, they will engage more with mobile apps to exercise and purchase exercise-related products. Thus, consumers tend to engage with brands that are in alignment with their self-concept (Goldsmith et al., 2011; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Swani and Labrecque, 2020).

A consumer's **traits** can affect consumer engagement (Harris and Lee 2004; van Doorn et al., 2010; Marbach et al., 2016; Hollebeek, 2018). For example, consumers' approach to materialism can motivate them to shop and finally lead to positive engagement (Goldsmith et al., 2011; Singh, 2016). This is because materialistic people have strong positive inclinations and excessive concerns for material possessions and social renown (Kasser, 2002; Goldsmith et al., 2011). Also, self-esteem, which captures the feelings of self-worth, self-liking, self-respect and self-acceptance, can enhance consumer engagement (Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Kumar and Kumar, 2020). A person with high self-esteem will feel jealous when their preferred brand is owned by others, thereby they will engage more with the brand (Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014). Bento et al. (2018) indicate that Generation Y (born after 1981) is more likely to engage with the brand on social media than Generation X (born between 1961 and 1981).

Consumer engagement can be motivated by functional and social **goals** (Scholer and Higgins, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Porter et al., 2011; Relling et al., 2016; Venkatesan, 2017; Li and Han, 2021). Regarding functional goals, consumers' learning motivation can enhance consumer satisfaction and further lead to active engagement behaviours (Chiang et al., 2017; Behnam et al., 2021). For example, consumers' perceptions of informational exploration potential can positively affect consumer engagement with the website (Demangeot and Broderick, 2016). Particularly, consumers are more likely to engage with the brand when the information is relevant to them (Ashley and Tuten, 2015; Carlson et al., 2019a). Scholars indicate that consumer engagement can be triggered by the need for information, as consumers need to get benefits, reduce the cost of search and perceived risk (Brodie et al., 2013; Marbach et al., 2016; Halaszovich and Nel, 2017; Carlson et al., 2018; Bento et al.,

2018). Research has verified that useful and creative brand messages (e.g., sweepstakes, pop culture events) can foster consumers to positively engage with the brand (Sheehan and Morrison, 2009; Vargo, 2016; Pezzuti et al., 2021; Yousaf et al, 2021). However, others indicate that searching information (e.g., reading, clicking on links) denotes passive engagement rather than active engagement (Dolan et al., 2016; Jang et al., 2018).

Social goals motivate positive consumer engagement (Dholakia et al., 2009; Chu and Kim, 2011; Wirtz et al., 2013; Relling et al., 2016; Jang et al., 2018; Wang and Lee, 2020). Studies reveal that consumer prefers to engage with the brand community which enables them to communicate and interact with others (De Choudhury et al., 2010; Jahn and Kunz, 2012; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Dolan et al., 2016; Carlson et al., 2019a). For example, affiliation-motivated consumers prefer to post on a forum where they perceive audiences are similar to them based on lifestyle and preferences (Chen and Kirmani, 2015; Bento et al., 2018). A higher level of social support will lead to a higher level of consumer engagement (Lowe and Johnson, 2017; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Yusuf et al., 2018). Bianchi and Andrews (2018) identify peer communication as the strongest factor of positive consumer engagement. Peer support significantly affects positive consumer engagement in online communities through creating feelings of belongingness (Heinonen, 2018; Fehrer et al., 2018).

Studies also identified specific **consumer emotions** that cause positive consumer engagement (Porter et al., 2011; Teixeira et al., 2012; Gupta et al., 2018; Simon and Tossan, 2018; Prentice et al., 2019a; Junaid et al., 2019; de Oliveira Santini et al., 2020). Consumer's positive emotions about a brand can be direct and important drivers of active and positive engagement (Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen, 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Franzak et al., 2014; Thakur, 2018; Palusuk et al., 2019; Carlson et al., 2019a). Consumers are more likely to engage with the brand when they feel pleased and satisfied (Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Chiang et al., 2017; Hussain et al., 2021). However, negative emotions may also lead to positive consumer engagement under certain situations. Song et al. (2017) indicate that feeling embarrassed may make consumers with strong self-esteem positively engage with the brand to repair their self-image. In addition, a consumer in a negative mood is more likely to actively engage in impulsive buying to repair their unpleasant mood (Kopetz et al., 2012). Therefore, consumers' positive and negative emotions are positively related to positive consumer engagement.

Consumer relationship acts as a foundation for developing engagement (Kaltcheva et al., 2014). Positive consumer relationships can lead to positive consumer engagement (Liu and Gal, 2011; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Heinonen, 2018; Swani and Labrecque, 2020). For instance, affective trust (successful relationships between the brand and the consumer) (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Moon et al., 2017) can positively affect brand engagement (Chu and Kim, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Mosteller and Poddar, 2017; Thakur, 2018). Consumer's commitment to the brand is also identified as an important trigger of positive brand engagement (de Almeida et al., 2018; Bravo et al., 2019). Studies indicate that brand loyalty captures consumer's tendency to remain trust and commitment to a brand, can be considered as a superior predictor of positive consumer engagement (Yoo and Donthu 2001; van Doorn et al, 2010; Franzak et al., 2014; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Mohd-Ramly and Omar, 2017; Fehrer et al., 2018).

Consumer relationship with the brand community and its members can affect brand community engagement. A person's feeling of belongingness to the brand community can positively affect a consumer's community engagement (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Alonso-Dos-Santos et al., 2018; Haverila et al., 2021). The strength of bonds between members of a network is also identified as a key determinant of community engagement (Mittal et al. 2008; Chu and Kim, 2011). Analogously, Rossmann et al. (2016) indicate that active contact among community members can lead to positive community engagement.

Table 2.7 Consumer-related drivers of positive consumer engagement

Antecedents	Definitions	References
Consumer investment	consumers' overall perception of the degree of resources they have invested for maintaining the relationship with a brand	Sung and Campbell, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Sung and Choi, 2010; Hatch and Schultz, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011a; Gambetti et al., 2012; Gensler et al, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Ou et al., 2014; Leckie et al., 2016; Zainol, et al., 2016; Fang, 2017
Self-brand connection	the extent to which the brand can express consumers' core beliefs and value systems	Schau and Gilly, 2003; Dholakia et al., 2004; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Sprott et al., 2009; Brodie et al., 2011; Goldsmith et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011a; Vivek et al., 2012; Schmitt, 2012; Park et al., 2013; Toubia and Stephen, 2013; Wilcox and Stephen, 2013; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Wallace et al., 2014; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Baldus et al., 2015; Dwivedi, 2015; Hammedi et al., 2015; Eisingerich et al., 2015; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Leckie et al., 2016 Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Singh, 2016; Vargo, 2016; Simon et al., 2016; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Alonso-Dos-Santos et al., 2018; Liu and Minton, 2018; Jang et al., 2018; Tuškej and Podnar, 2018; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021; Matute et al., 2021; Li and Han, 2021
Personal traits	an individual's value, preference and motivations	Kasser, 2002; Harris and Lee 2004; van Doorn et al., 2010; Goldsmith et al., 2011; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Marbach et al., 2016; Singh, 2016; Hollebeek, 2018; Bento et al., 2018; Kumar and Kumar, 2020
Personal goal	Functional goal: consumers' learning motivation	Sheehan and Morrison, 2009; Brodie et al., 2013; Ashley and Tuten, 2015; Vargo, 2016; Marbach et al., 2016; Demangeot and Broderick, 2016; Chiang et al., 2017; Halaszovich and Nel, 2017; Carlson et al., 2018; Bento et al., 2018; Carlson et al., 2019a; Behnam et al., 2021; Pezzuti et al., 2021; Yousaf et al, 2021
	Social goal: consumers' motivation to gain social benefits	Dholakia et al., 2009; De Choudhury et al., 2010; Chu and Kim, 2011; Jahn and Kunz, 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Dolan et al., 2016; Relling et al., 2016; Lowe and Johnson, 2017; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Yusuf et al., 2018; Fehrer et al., 2018; Bianchi and Andrews, 2018; Jang et al., 2018; Heinonen, 2018; Carlson et al., 2019a; Wang and Lee, 2020
Consumer emotion	consumer's positive and negative emotions	Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen, 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010; Teixeira et al., 2012; Kopetz et al., 2012; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Franzak et al., 2014; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Song et al., 2017; Chiang et al., 2017; Thakur, 2018; Gupta et al., 2018; Simon and Tossan, 2018; Carlson et al., 2019a; Moliner-Tena et al., 2019; de Oliveira Santini et al., 2020; Hussain et al., 2021
Consumer relationship	consumer's trust, commitment and loyalty to the brand	Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Algesheimer et al., 2005; Mittal et al. 2008; van Doorn et al, 2010; Chu and Kim, 2011; Brodie et al., 2011; Sarkar and Sreejesh, 2014; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; Franzak et al., 2014; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Rossmann et al., 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Mosteller and Poddar, 2017; Mohd-Ramly and Omar, 2017; Fehrer et al., 2018; Thakur, 2018; Heinonen, 2018; Alonso-Dos-Santos et al., 2018; de Almeida et al., 2018; Bergel et al., 2019; Bazi et al., 2020
	consumer's feelings of belongingness to the brand community	

2.2.4.3 Context-related drivers

Context-related driver refers to the environmental factors (i.e., political, cultural, technological, social) (Etgar, 2008; van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2010; Gupta et al., 2018) (see Table 2.8). Regarding **political** effect, scholars reflect that it can impact consumer engagement by encouraging or inhibiting information flow (van Doorn et al., 2010). By way of illustration, policies on energy efficiency can encourage consumers to engage with an environmentally friendly brand and share the brand with others (van Doorn et al., 2010). Thus, it seems to be necessary for the firm to manage the information environment to positively influence consumer engagement.

Understanding the local **culture** across different countries is helpful for the firm to design strategies to encourage consumer engagement (Gupta et al., 2018; Vredeveld and Coulter, 2019; Thompson and Brouthers, 2021). For example, McDonald's adapts its menu to reflect the different tastes and local traditions of every country (Gupta et al., 2018). Gong (2018) focuses on two dimensions of culture in the social context (i.e. individualism-collectivism, power distance) and indicates that cultural value orientations influence consumer brand engagement behaviour.

The **technological** environment can provide convenience for consumers to engage positively (Sawhney et al., 2005; Murdough, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Ashley and Tuten, 2015; Pöyry et al., 2020). Studies indicate that the development of technology enables consumers to exchange and share information and enhance positive consumer engagement (Scheinbaum, 2016; Kunz et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Henkens et al., 2021). For example, the experience of presence in a computer-mediated environment can make consumers feel informed and develop positive feelings towards the brand (Suh and Chang, 2006; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Algharabat et al., 2018; Cowan and Ketron, 2019). The new technology adoption can provide a convenient and informative environment for consumers to contact the firm and create content related to the brand (Pynta et al., 2014; Malthouse et al., 2016; Carlson et al., 2018; Eigenraam et al., 2021). Branded mobile apps can accelerate consumer brand engagement through informational touch features (e.g., zoom-page, product-view) (Bellman et al., 2011; Fang, 2017; Scheinbaum, 2016; Gill et al., 2017; Shi and Kalyanam, 2018; Chung et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2020).

The ease of use, favourable design and offering of online platforms can also positively affect

consumer engagement (Heinonen, 2018; Islam et al., 2020; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021). Scholars indicate that a clear online structure enables consumers to easily navigate the site, and a set of social and technological elements in the online brand community (e.g., warm chatbot message) can lead to a higher level of consumer engagement (de Almeida et al., 2018; Kull et al., 2021). Also, the increasing use of gamification mechanics in online communities can enhance positive consumer engagement (Harwood and Garry, 2015; Leclercq et al., 2018; Hammedi et al., 2017; Eisingerich et al., 2019; Bitrián et al., 2021). Further, relational-based brand platforms (e.g., My Starbucks Idea platform) enable consumers to participate in value co-creation and build relationships with others (Ramaswamy and Ozcan, 2016).

Social environment is identified as a key determinant of positive consumer engagement (Chu and Kim, 2011; Kumar and Benbasat, 2002; Pongpaew et al., 2017; Algharabat et al., 2018; Carlson et al., 2018; Garzaro et al., 2021). Studies indicate that consumers would develop positive engagement when they feel belonging to the brand community (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Wirtz et al., 2013; Heinonen, 2018), and desire to interact with people who share common goals (Puzakova and Kwak, 2017). Scholars draw on social identity theory and suggest that the sense of belongingness and connection with social groups can lead to positive consumer engagement (Lam et al., 2010; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; Simon et al., 2016; Scheinbaum, 2016; Alonso-Dos-Santos et al., 2018; Simon and Tossan, 2018; Prentice et al., 2019b). When social identity is activated, consumers will consider their group cohesive, thereby developing favourable feelings and engaging in collective activities (e.g., helping others, sharing) (Hammedi et al., 2015). In contrast, if consumers think the social environment is impersonal and machine-like, they will not further engage with it (Fang, 2017; Qing and Haiying, 2021).

Table 2.8 Context-related drivers of positive consumer engagement

Antecedents	Definition	References
Political	government policies or advocacy	van Doorn et al., 2010
Cultural	local culture across different countries	Gupta et al., 2018; Gong, 2018; Thompson and Brouthers, 2021
Technology	the development of technology (e.g. internet, digital, smart products, social media)	Sawhney et al., 2005; Suh and Chang, 2006; Murdough, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Bellman et al., 2011; Pynta et al., 2014; Ashley and Tuten, 2015; Harwood and Garry, 2015; Scheinbaum, 2016; Malthouse et al., 2016; Ramaswamy and Ozcan, 2016; Fang, 2017; Kunz et al., 2017; Hammedi et al., 2017; Gill et al., 2017; Heinonen, 2018; Carlson et al., 2018; Algharabat et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; de Almeida et al., 2018; Leclercq et al., 2018; Shi and Kalyanam, 2018; Chung et al., 2018; Henkens et al., 2021; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021
Social	the sociability and warmth of a brand community and its members	Kumar and Benbasat, 2002; Algesheimer et al., 2005; Lam et al., 2010; Chu and Kim, 2011; Wirtz et al., 2013; Stone and Woodcock, 2013; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; Hammedi et al., 2015; Ashley and Tuten, 2015; Simon et al., 2016; Scheinbaum, 2016; Fang, 2017; Pongpaew et al., 2017; Puzakova and Kwak, 2017; Heinonen, 2018; Algharabat et al., 2018; Carlson et al., 2018; Alonso-Dos-Santos et al., 2018; Simon and Tossan, 2018; Garzaro et al., 2021

2.2.5 Consequences of positive consumer engagement

This section presents the literature on the consequences of positive consumer engagement (see Figure 2.4). Some positive outcomes can transform into negative when consumers engage negatively, thereby it helps identify outcomes of negative consumer engagement.

Figure 2.4 Outcomes of positive consumer engagement

For consumers:
- **Relationship quality:** satisfaction, trust, commitment, loyalty
- **Consumer behaviour:** participation, usage, purchase, WOM
- **Consumer value:** financial benefits, emotional benefits, social value

For the firm/brand
- **Tangible benefits**: firm performance
- **Intangible benefits:** firm reputation, brand equity, marketing effectiveness
- **Firm action:** marketing strategy
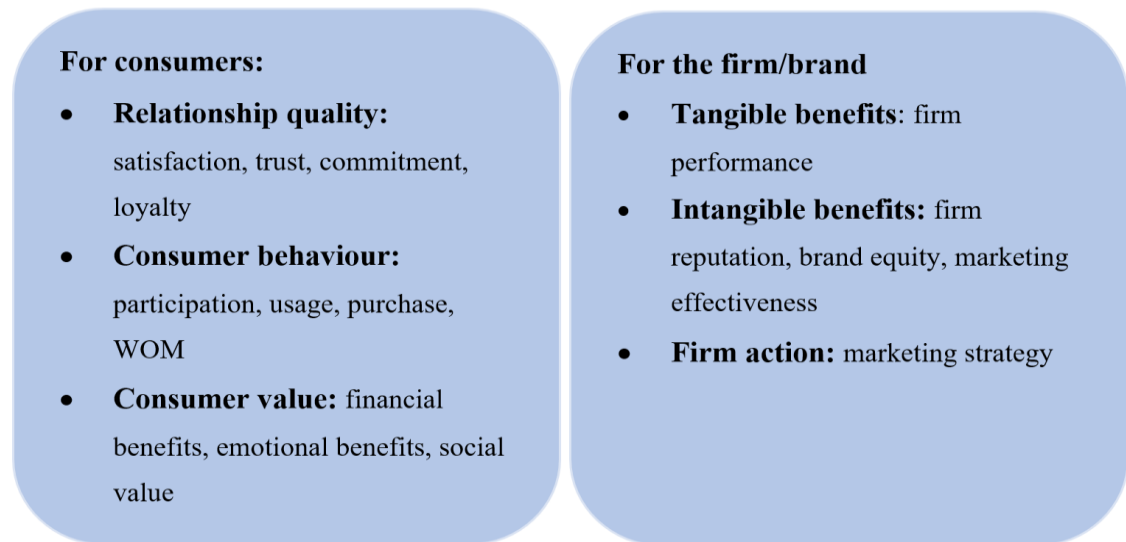
2.2.5.1 Consequences for consumer

Consumer-related outcomes include relationship quality, consumer behaviour and consumer value (see Table 2.9). First, studies indicate that **consumers' relationship** with engagement objects is an important consequence of consumer engagement (Hollebeek, 2011a; Gummerus et al., 2012; Maslowska et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2016; Becker et al., 2018; Haverila et al., 2021; Behnam et al., 2021). Consumer engagement is a relational construct that can result in the bonding between the consumer and the engagement object (Brodie et al., 2013; Dwivedi, 2015; Dessart, 2017). For example, positive engagement in the value creation process can positively affect consumers' evaluation of the product (Troye and Supphellen, 2012; Katona, 2015; Piyathasanan et al., 2018; Sembada, 2018), and further lead to satisfaction (Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Vivek, et al., 2012; Wirtz et al., 2013; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Bailey et al., 2021). A highly satisfied customer shows heightened trust and commitment to engagement objects (Ashley et al., 2011; Harwood and Garry, 2015; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017). Satisfaction, trust and commitment have a further positive impact on consumer loyalty (Moriuchi, 2019), which represents a higher-

order relationship outcome (Hollebeek, 2011a; Wirtz et al., 2013; So et al., 2016; Dessart, 2017). The relationship consequence of positive consumer engagement can be regarded as the progress from being new to being satisfied, trusting, committed and loyal to the engagement focus (Bowden, 2009).

Numerous scholars reveal that positive consumer engagement can also directly enhance brand loyalty (Vivek et al., 2012; Dwivedi, 2015; Harwood and Garry, 2015; Thakur, 2016; So et al., 2016; Leckie et al., 2016; 2018; Kosiba et al., 2018; Fehrer et al., 2018). Studies suggest that positive consumer engagement with brand communities can positively affect brand loyalty (de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Chiang et al., 2017; Rehnen et al., 2017). Similarly, an analysis of a large data set from studies of online brand communities further confirms that stronger community engagement can result in lasting membership continuance (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Woisetschlager et al., 2008; Wirtz et al., 2013; Raïes et al., 2015). Scholars believe that the relationship goes both ways, consumer engagement can lead to brand loyalty, and loyal customers will engage more with the brand (Brodie et al., 2011; 2013; Maslowska et al., 2016).

Second, the consequences of positive consumer engagement are related to a series of **consumer behaviours**, including participation, usage, purchase and WOM. Positively engaged consumers may choose to **participate** in and engage more intensively with the engagement focus (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Scholer and Higgins, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Briggs et al., 2016; Matute et al., 2021). Pansari and Kumar (2017) explain that positively engaged consumers are more likely to enthusiastically participate in activities related to the firm (e.g., e-mail programs). In addition, positive consumer engagement may enhance consumers' co-creative behaviour, thereby increasing their participation (Merrilees et al., 2016).

Other studies indicate that engagement has a significant association with consumer **brand usage** behaviour (Calder et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2010; Calder et al., 2016; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Harrigan et al., 2018). Consumers prefer to use the branded product rather than the unbranded product when both have similar product attributes and marketing stimuli (Hollebeek et al., 2014). Studies reveal that consumer affective engagement can positively influence brand usage intent (Hollebeek et al., 2014). For example, consumers' positive feelings can result in the continuous usage of mobile apps (Fang, 2017; Qing and Haiying,

2021). Further, scholars indicate that engaged consumer shows a higher level of brand acceptance (Du et al., 2007; Wallace et al., 2014). Particularly, consumers, who engage with a brand reflecting their social self, are more likely to try new products and continue to use them after brand failure (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Gambetti et al., 2012; Wallace et al., 2014).

Scholars advance that consumer engagement can lead to a higher level of (re-)**purchasing** behaviour (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Goldsmith et al., 2011; Franzak et al., 2014; Raïes et al., 2015; Singh, 2016; Malthouse et al., 2016; Yusuf et al., 2018; Bianchi and Andrews, 2018; Schaefers et al., 2021; Cheung et al., 2021). For example, studies indicate that engaged consumers are more willing to pay for branded apps or media (Stocchi et al., 2018; Viswanathan et al., 2018). In addition, engaged consumers would be less sensitive to price and willing to pay a higher price for the brand (Sprott et al., 2009; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Stocchi et al., 2018).

Consumers' **(e-)WOM** is a behavioural outcome of positive consumer engagement (Franzak et al., 2014; Algharabat et al., 2018; Bento et al., 2018; Stocchi et al., 2018). Studies reveal that positively engaged consumers can better facilitate the flow of communication among consumers about positive brand-related information (Tripathi, 2009; Vivek et al., 2012; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Wallace et al., 2014; Sembada, 2018). For example, positive engagement can motivate consumers to write positive online reviews (Thakur, 2018). The effect of online reviews seems to be more significant, as it occurs virtually without cost and spread rapidly (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2013).

Positive consumer engagement can create **value for consumers** (Hollebeek, 2011a; de Villiers, 2015; Kunz et al., 2017; Meshram and O'Cass, 2018). First, positive consumer engagement can bring **financial benefits** to engaged consumers (Baldus et al., 2015). Studies suggest that firms' referral program provides rewards to the consumer who engages with the brand and makes a successful referral (Tuk et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010). Engaged consumers are more likely to participate in the company's loyalty program, which may bring direct financial benefits to them (Ashley et al., 2011; Harwood and Garry, 2015).

Second, positive consumer engagement is related to **emotional benefits** to consumers (van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021). Studies indicate that engaging online can

create hedonic value for consumers (Holbrook, 2006; Baldus et al., 2015; Marbach et al., 2016). Also, participating in a brand-sponsored event can bring enjoyment to consumers (van Doorn et al., 2010). Engaging with luxury fashion brands can enhance consumers' positive feelings and well-being (Prentice et al., 2018).

Other studies indicate that engaging with certain brands can help consumers to shape and reinforce social identity and gain **social value** (van Doorn et al., 2010; Marbach et al., 2016). For example, some consumers engage with luxury brands to improve the way they are perceived by peers (Marbach et al., 2016). Similarly, the owners of a Harley Davidson bike can enhance their biker identity by engaging with fan clubs (Etgar, 2008; van Doorn et al., 2010). Vernuccio et al. (2015) suggest that social-interactive engagement positively affects how people identify with the social group, as consumer engagement can enhance consumers' perception of belongingness to the social group, which will influence their social identity formation process (Heere et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2013; Piyathasanan et al., 2018).

Table 2.9 Consequences of positive consumer engagement for consumers

Outcomes	Definition	References
Relationship quality	the extent to which the consumer views the brand as a satisfactory partner in an enduring relationship (i.e. consumer satisfaction, trust, commitment and loyalty)	Algesheimer et al., 2005; Ulaga and Eggert, 2006; Woisetschlager et al., 2008; Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Hollebeek, 2011a; Brodie et al., 2011; Ashley et al., 2011; Vivek et al., 2012; Troye and Supphellen, 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Wirtz et al., 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Katona, 2015; Dwivedi, 2015; Raïes et al., 2015; Harwood and Garry, 2015; O'Brien et al., 2015; Thakur, 2016; Leckie, et al., 2016; So et al., 2016; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Dessart, 2017; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Chiang et al., 2017; Rehnen et al., 2017; Piyathasanan et al., 2018; Leckie et al., 2018; Kosiba et al., 2018; Fehrer et al., 2018; Sembada, 2018; Moliner-Tena et al., 2019; Junaid et al., 2019; Bergel et al., 2019; Lashkova et al., 2020; Pöyry et al., 2020; Algharabat et al., 2020; Kumar and Kumar, 2020; Khan et al., 2020; Islam et al., 2020; Karjaluoto et al., 2020; Behnam et al., 2021; Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021; Matute et al., 2021; Haverila et al., 2021
Consumer behaviour	participate in brand-related activities	Algesheimer et al., 2005; van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Briggs et al., 2016; Merrilees et al., 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Matute et al., 2021
	use branded products or service	Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Du et al., 2007; Calder et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2010; Gambetti et al., 2012; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Wallace et al., 2014; Calder et al., 2016; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Fang, 2017; Harrigan et al., 2018; Qing and Haiying, 2021
	purchase branded products or service	Algesheimer et al., 2005; Sprott et al., 2009; Goldsmith et al., 2011; Franzak et al., 2014; Raïes et al., 2015; Singh, 2016; Dwivedi et al., 2016; Malthouse et al., 2016; Yusuf et al., 2018; Bianchi and Andrews, 2018; Stocchi et al., 2018; Viswanathan et al., 2018; Osei-Frimpong, 2019; Prentice et al., 2019b; Ho et al., 2020; Ho and Chung, 2020; Singh and Pathak, 2020; Schaefers et al., 2021; Cheung et al., 2021
	WOM: consumer's sharing, recommending and feedback behaviours	Algesheimer et al., 2005; Kumar et al., 2010; Vivek et al., 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Wallace et al., 2014; Raïes et al., 2015; Hsieh and Chang, 2016; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Algharabat et al., 2018; Bento et al., 2018; Stocchi et al., 2018; Carlson et al., 2019b; Moran et al., 2020
Consumer value	financial benefit: utilitarian rewards	Tuk et al., 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Ashley et al., 2011; Baldus et al., 2015; Harwood and Garry, 2015
	emotional benefit: positive emotions	van Doorn et al., 2010; Holbrook, 2006; Baldus et al., 2015; Marbach et al., 2016; Prentice and Loureiro, 2018; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021
	social value: consumers' perception of belongingness to the social group	Etgar, 2008; van Doorn et al., 2010; Heere et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2013; Vernuccio et al., 2015; Marbach et al., 2016; Piyathasanan et al., 2018; An and Han, 2020

2.2.5.2 Consequences for the firm or brand

The consequences for the firm/brand include tangible benefits, intangible benefits and firm actions (see Table 2.10). First, positive consumer engagement can bring **tangible benefits**, which can be seen in firm performance (Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Alvarez-Milan, 2018; Ho et al., 2020). Favourable firm performance (e.g., profits) is the most significant consequence of positive consumer engagement, which has been proposed by multiple authors (van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek, 2011b; Vivek et al., 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Stone and Woodcock, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Gill et al., 2017; Moliner et al., 2018). Engaged consumers would invest resources such as time and knowledge to directly augment the focal firm's offering and performance (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Eigenraam et al., 2018).

Studies identify various consumer engagement values to the firm, encompassing customer lifetime value, customer influencer value, customer referral value, customer knowledge value, corresponding to the consumers' engagement behaviours of purchase, share, recommend and feedback respectively (Kumar et al., 2010; Harman and Porter, 2021). Data show that resource reallocation based on consumer purchases increased the revenue by 20 million dollars within the same level of marketing investment (Kumar and Pansari, 2016). Consumer communicates positively about a brand can create a ripple effect, then lead more consumers to interact and increase firm profits (Hogan et al., 2003; Yusuf et al., 2018). Adjei et al. (2010) indicate that sharing information can reduce consumers' uncertainty about the product and increase purchases, which will further increase the firm's profits. Kumar et al. (2010) emphasise that recommending is important as it has the potential to attract new customers, reduce acquisition costs and bring revenue to the company. Feedback from engaged consumers may help the firm to improve existing products and generate ideas for developing new products, which indirectly contribute to the firm's profitability (Kumar and Bhagwat, 2010; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar and Pansari, 2016).

The consequences of positive consumer engagement are also related to **intangible benefits** to the firm/brand (Pansari and Kumar, 2017). First, studies indicate that positively engaged consumers are more likely to participate in brand-related activities (e.g., charity events), which will contribute to the long-term brand reputation (van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2010; Dijkmans et al., 2015; Kumar and Pansari, 2016). Engaged consumer prefers to

build a partnership with the retailer, which can further strengthen firm recognition (Briggs et al., 2016; Pongpaew et al., 2017). Consumer's positive (e-)WOM can help the firm to attract new customers and improve the firm's reputation in a long run (von Wangenheim and Bayon, 2007). Feedback from engaged consumers can also provide valuable information to create a strong firm reputation (van Doorn et al., 2010).

Second, positive consumer engagement has great potential for creating brand equity **(**Franzak et al., 2014; Hepola et al., 2017; Kumar, 2021**)**. Studies indicate that consumer-based brand equity is related to the added value of the brand by the consumer's favourable thoughts and actions (Keller, 1993; Leone et al., 2006). Kuvykaite and Piligrimiene (2014) explain that engaged consumers are more likely to participate in the process of brand value creation which will have positive effects on brand equity.

Third, consumer engagement can affect firm marketing effectiveness (Pansari and Kumar, 2017). Positively engaged consumers can opt into firms' marketing programs and share personal information, thereby it enables the firm to make marketing messages more relevant to the customer and improve the effectiveness of marketing communication (Pansari and Kumar, 2017). Scholars also suggest that consumer engagement is positively associated with search engine advertising effectiveness, expressed by consumers' click-through and purchase rate (Calder et al., 2009, 2016; Yang et al., 2016). The more engaged a consumer was in the program, the more favourable effects on the effectiveness of the advertisement (Calder et al., 2016).

Positive consumer engagement has an impact on the **firm actions** (Guesalaga, 2016). Positive consumer engagement in social media signals sales firms to use this social media to attract more engaged consumers (Jelinek et al., 2006). Accordingly, positive consumer engagement makes the company develop corresponding creative strategies to satisfy consumers' needs (Ashley and Tuten, 2015). Dolbec and Fischer (2015) indicate that consumer engagement can lead to change in the industry such as developing new routines and activities. Therefore, positive consumer engagement can affect the development of suitable marketing strategies.

Table 2.10 Consequences of positive consumer engagement for the firm/brand

Outcomes	Definition	References
Tangible benefits	firm performance: consumer's contribution to the firm's profitability	Hogan et al., 2003; Kumar, 2008; Bowden, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2010; Kumar and Bhagwat, 2010; Adjei et al., 2010; Hollebeek, 2011b; Vivek et al., 2012; Brodie et al., 2013; Stone and Woodcock, 2013; Kumar, 2013; de Vries and Carlson, 2014; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Scheinbaum, 2016; Kunz et al., 2017; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Gill et al., 2017; Moliner et al., 2018; Yusuf et al., 2018; Alvarez-Milan, 2018; Ho et al., 2020; Harman and Porter, 2021
Intangible benefits	firm reputation: the collective perception of the firm's past actions and expectations for its future actions, in view of its efficiency in relation to the main competitors	von Wangenheim and Bayon, 2007; van Doorn et al., 2010; Verhoef et al., 2010; Franzak et al., 2014; Kuvykaite and Piligrimiene, 2014; Dijkmans et al., 2015; Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Briggs et al., 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Pires and Trez, 2018
	brand equity: a set of brand assets and liability linked to a brand, its name, and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers	Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1996a; Leone et al., 2006; Franzak et al., 2014; Kuvykaite and Piligrimiene, 2014; Hepola et al., 2017; Algharabat et al., 2020; Kumar, 2021
	marketing effectiveness: the effectiveness of the firm's marketing communication	Calder et al., 2009; Calder et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017
Firm action	marketing strategy: a set of business tactics that help companies grow in the market	Jelinek et al., 2006; Ashley and Tuten, 2015; Dolbec and Fischer, 2015; Guesalaga, 2016

2.3 Negative consumer engagement

This section aims to conceptualise negative consumer engagement and identify its dimensionality, antecedents and outcomes as derived from the literature on negative consumer engagement. The literature on negative consumer engagement was reviewed to describe the current state of research in focused areas of negative consumer engagement and provide critical analyses of these works (Rumrill et al., 2001).

Existing literature on negative consumer engagement is still in its infancy (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Heinonen, 2018), therefore all the academic and English articles on negative consumer engagement were reviewed, independent of the ranking of the outlet they were published. In addition, the extant literature which has mentioned this concept is also included. Although these studies are not mainly focused on negative consumer engagement, they can provide more information for the current research. Since the concept of negative consumer engagement is very recent, time is not the criteria for this search. The keywords for searching are as follows: negative engagement, negative consumer engagement, negative customer engagement and disengagement. As a result, a total of 31 articles are selected including 18 articles on negative consumer engagement and 13 articles that mentioned this concept.

2.3.1 Defining negative consumer engagement

Several papers attempted to define negative consumer engagement. In a similar fashion to consumer engagement, the definitions of negative consumer engagement can be grouped into two categories: unidimensional and multidimensional views (e.g., Li et al., 2018; Azer and Alexander, 2020b) (see Figure 2.5). In addition, negative engagement has been traced back to online and offline contexts (e.g., Do et al., 2020; Naumann et al., 2020). Table 2.11 summarises existing articles on negative consumer engagement.

Figure 2.5 Uni- and multidimensional views of negative consumer engagement

Unidimensional views
One dimension
- Cognitive
- Behavioural

Multidimensional views
Three dimensions
- Cognitive affective and behavioural
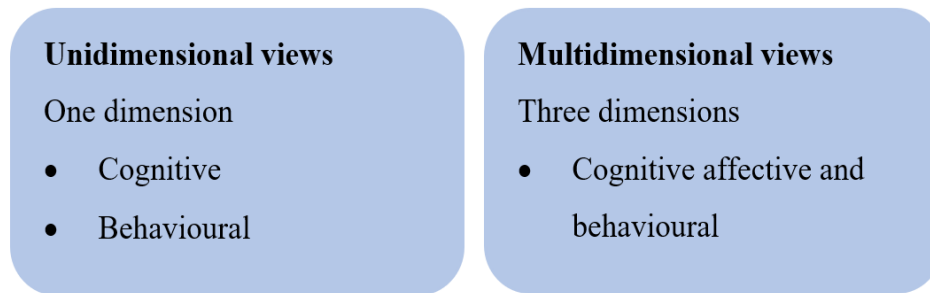
Negative Consumer Engagement as a Unidimensional Concept

Some definitions of negative consumer engagement focus on one dimension (i.e., cognitive or behavioural). For example, some authors define negative consumer engagement solely as consumers' **negative cognitions**. Studies indicate that engagement is an individual's state of being involved, occupied and fully absorbed or engrossed (i.e., sustained attention) in the object, which can take not only positively (e.g., attraction), but also potentially negatively (e.g., repulsion force) (Scholer and Higgins, 2009; Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Accordingly, negative consumer engagement can be defined as the consumer's state of being negatively involved, occupied and absorbed in the engagement object (Higgins, 2006).

Most scholars focus on the **behavioural** dimension and define negative consumer engagement as consumers' unfavourable brand-related behaviours during interactions (e.g., Dolan et al., 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2018, 2020a, 2020b; Rahman et al., 2022). Negative consumer engagement is related to consumers' negative actions (e.g., providing misleading advice, searching for substitutes), which can be active or passive (van Doorn, et al., 2010; de Villiers, 2015). Active negative behaviour is related to a higher level of consumers' negative investment while passive negative engagement reflects a lower level of negative engagement (i.e., minimal investment from the consumer) (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Kunz et al., 2017).

Table 2.11 Definitions of Negative Consumer Engagement

Articles	Paper type	Context	Definitions	Dimensions		
				Cognitive	Affective	Behavioural
van Doorn et al., 2010	conceptual	N/A	Positive (negative) customer engagement refers to **behaviours** that have positive (negative) consequences to the firm.	-	-	√
Hollebeek and Chen, 2014	qualitative	online	Negatively valenced brand engagement is exhibited through consumers' unfavourable brand-related **thoughts, feelings, and behaviours** during focal brand interactions.	√	√	√
de Villiers, 2015	qualitative	online	Consumer's negatively valenced **cognitions, emotions and behaviours** to the engagement focus, which can be active or passive.	√	√	√
Dolan et al., 2016	conceptual	online	Consumers' unfavourable brand-related **behaviours** during interactions.	-	-	√
Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016	quantitative	online	The **behavioural** manifestations of customer engagement on social networking sites.	-	-	√
Rissanen and Luoma-Aho, 2016	qualitative	online	Negatively engaged consumers exhibit negative **behavioural** manifestations such as protests and sharing negative information about the organization.	-	-	√
Maslowska et al., 2016	conceptual	offline	This study follows Hollebeek and Chen's (2014) definitions of negative consumer engagement.	√	√	√
Naumann et al., 2017a	qualitative	offline	Negative consumer engagement has **cognitive, affective and behavioural** dimensions, which can be active or passive.	√	√	√
Naumann et al., 2017b	qualitative	offline	Negative engagement is characterised by hatred, anger, stress and collective complaint behaviour.	-	-	√
Bowden et al., 2017	qualitative	online	A consumer's negatively valenced **cognitive, emotional and behavioural** investments during or related to interactions with focal objects or agents.	√	√	√
Azer and Alexander, 2018	qualitative	online	Negative engagement **behaviours** include discrediting, deriding, expressing regret, endorsing competitors, dissuading, warning.	-	-	√
Li et al., 2018	conceptual	offline	actor engagement valence	-	-	√
Heinonen, 2018	qualitative	online	Community members' **cognitive, emotional, and behavioural** investments in a specific area of interest.	√	√	√

Articles	Paper type	Context	Definitions	Dimensions		
				Cognitive	Affective	Behavioural
Do et al., 2020	conceptual	offline	A customer's unfavourable **thoughts, feelings and behaviours** towards a service brand or provider result from negative critical events that cause perceived threats to customers. Negative customer engagement is understood as the negative valence of customer engagement that includes both disengagement and negative engagement.	√	√	√
Naumann et al., 2020	quantitative	online and offline	Our study adheres to the tri-dimensional framework of negative consumer engagement (i.e., **cognitive, affective and behavioural** dimensions).	√	√	√
Azer and Alexander, 2020a	quantitative	online	Customer contributions of resources such as knowledge, skills, experience, and time negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations, and perception about a focal service provider. (Azer and Alexander, 2018, p. 469)	-	-	√
Azer and Alexander, 2020b	quantitative	online	Negative CEB refers to customers' beyond the transactional negative **behavioural** manifestations.	-	-	√
Rahman et al., 2022	quantitative	N/A	customers' motivation to invest time and resources to bring disappointing service experiences to the attention of relevant authorities in the form of formal **complaints** to negatively affect other actors' service perception about the firm in question.	-	-	√

Authors argue that active negative engagement behaviour is stronger in its depth and intensity than passive engagement behaviour (Scholer and Higgins, 2009; Naumann et al., 2017a). Naumann et al. (2017b) suggest that negative active engagement behaviour is more extreme, which refers to activated, premeditated and dedicated expressions of negativity. For example, active negative engagement manifests through highly active behaviours such as negative (e-)WOM and revenge (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017b). In contrast, a passively engaged consumer may not purchase the product, refuse to collect loyalty points and simply follow other active consumer's engagement behaviour, but do nothing more to express their discontent (de Villiers, 2015). Accordingly, passive engagement shows a lower level of behavioural interactions with the engagement object (Fernandes and Castro, 2020). Negative consumer engagement refers to the level of consumers' negative behaviours to the engagement focus.

Negative Consumer Engagement as a Multidimensional Concept

A majority of scholars conceive negative consumer engagement as a multidimensional concept, which typically contains **three dimensions** including cognitive, affective and behavioural (e.g., Heinonen, 2018; Do et al., 2020; Naumann et al., 2020). Hollebeek and Chen (2014) suggest three dimensions in a conceptual paper and defined negative cognitive engagement as the intensity of consumer's negative thoughts, absorption and reflection of the engagement focus, negative affective engagement as the degree of consumer's negative emotions and feelings, and negative behavioural engagement as the intensity of consumer's negative behavioural investment. Consequently, negative consumer engagement refers to the intensity of a consumer's negatively valenced cognitive, affective and behavioural interactions with the focal engagement object. Their conception has been deployed empirically in a handful of studies (de Villiers, 2015; Bowden et al. 2017; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2020).

Categorising negative consumer engagement into active and passive allows for a more nuanced view of the scope of negative consumer engagement (Naumann et al., 2017a). Active negative engagement involves consumers' active and unfavourable cognitions (e.g., negative bias), emotions (e.g., anger) and behaviours (e.g., boycotting) (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a). While, passive negative engagement refers to consumers'

passive cognitions, affections and behaviours (de Villiers, 2015). Naumann et al. (2017a) regard disengagement as a form of passive negative engagement and define it as a milder negative response with three dimensions: cognitive (distrust), affective (frustration) and behavioural (neglect).

However, disengagement is different from passive negative engagement with the former focusing on unengaged or relationship ending (Bowden et al., 2015; Rissanen and Luoma-Aho, 2016) and the latter reflecting a lower level of engagement (e.g., merely purchase) (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015). Studies suggest that disengagement is the state of detachment and lacks the motivation to interact with the engagement object (i.e., relationship termination) (Goode, 2012; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; Alexander et al., 2018). Similarly, Brodie et al. (2011) indicate that dormancy and detachment seem to be a form of consumer non-engagement rather than negative engagement. Accordingly, 'neglect' in Naumann et al.'s (2017a) study is considered as disengagement rather than passive engagement, as consumers put zero effort to interact with the engagement focus.

2.3.2 Dimensions and sub-dimensions of negative consumer engagement

Most studies indicate that negative consumer engagement has three dimensions including cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects (Hollebeek and Chen 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a). To understand negative consumer engagement, it is necessary to know its dimensionality. This section attempts to identify the three dimensions and their corresponding sub-dimensions through reviewing and organising previous literature related to negative consumer engagement.

Cognitive dimension and its sub-dimensions

Previous literature provides several definitions of negative cognitive engagement (see Table 2.12). Naumann et al. (2020) define the cognitive dimension as the degree of a consumer's **interest and attention** paid to negative information about a brand/community. Hollebeek and Chen (2014) indicate that negative cognitive engagement refers to the intensity of a consumer's negative **thoughts, absorption and reflection** on the engagement object.

Negative cognitive engagement can be active and passive, with active cognitions being more negative, insidious and detrimental than passive cognitions (Naumann et al., 2017a).

Table 2.12 Negative cognitive dimension and sub-dimensions

			Definitions	References
Cognitive dimension			the degree of interest and attention paid to negative information about the engagement object.	Naumann et al., 2020
			the intensity of consumer's negative thoughts, absorption and reflection on the engagement object.	Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a
Sub-dimensions	**Active**	cynicism	consumer's strong level of disbelief and negative perceptions about the engagement object's reliability, competence, predictability and integrity.	Helm, 2003; Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Hollebeek and Chen 2014; Juric et al., 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a
	Passive	distrust	consumer's disbelief, little confidence, negative perceptions and expectations about the engagement object's reliability, competence, predictability and integrity.	Govier, 1993; Helm, 2003; Benamati and Serva, 2007; Darke et al., 2010; Naumann et al., 2017a; Moon et al., 2017
		attention withdraw	consumer turns attention away from the engagement focus.	Scholer and Higgins, 2009; Pham and Avnet, 2009; Bowden et al., 2015

The sub-dimensions of negative cognitive engagement can be active and passive (Naumann et al., 2017a). One active sub-dimension is **cynicism** (Naumann et al., 2017a). Berman (1997, p.105) initially defined it as '*a persuasive disbelief in the possibility of good in dealing with others*'. Chylinski and Chu (2010) suggest that cynicism involves mistrust, suspicion and scepticism of the agent's motives. Naumann et al. (2017a) explain that cynicism can be regarded as a strong cynical theme that permeates the consumer's beliefs and thoughts about the service firm. Other scholars indicate that cynicism is related to unfavourable active cognitions including consumers' negative bias toward the engagement object (Hollebeek and Chen 2014; Juric et al., 2015). Consumers may think the engagement object is unacceptable, below expectations and inconsistent with their self-concept (de Villiers, 2015).

Naumann et al. (2017a) identify **distrust** as the main sub-dimension of passive cognitive engagement. Distrust refers to consumers' negative perceptions of the object's intention and truth (Schul et al., 2007). It reflects an individual who lacks confidence in others and

concerns that they may not care about one's welfare or intends to act harmfully (Govier, 1993) and is accompanied by other lower-level negative cognitions such as perceptions of corruption and scepticism to the focal engagement object (Benamati and Serva, 2007; Darke et al., 2010). In this study, distrust reflects the consumer's significant negative perception of the focal brand and is regarded as the negative side of cognitive trust, which can be defined as a psychological state. Compared to cynicism, distrust is a less negative, harmful and insidious cognitive response (Helm, 2003).

Although consumer cognitive engagement refers to the consumer's sustained attention to the engagement object, it will generate a lower level of engagement when the consumer turns attention away from it (**attention withdrawal**) (Scholer and Higgins, 2009). This is linked to the behaviour of withdrawing (e.g., looking away from the movie) and reflects weak engagement (Scholer and Higgins, 2009; Bowden et al., 2015). It is important to note that attention withdrawal is different from ignoring, with the former focusing more on consumers' negative movement from active to passive engagement or disengagement, whereas the latter can be either negative or neutral as consumers may take no notice of the object intentionally or unintentionally (Pham and Avnet, 2009; OED, 2019). In this study, attention withdrawal refers to the negative side of attention, which reveals consumers intentionally turn attention away from the engagement focus.

Affective dimension and its sub-dimensions

The affective dimension of negative consumer engagement refers to the extent of a consumer's negative feelings exhibited in specific interactions with the engagement object (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). This is supported by Juric et al. (2015), who indicate that the affective dimension is captured by consumers' negative feelings of resentment, hatred, humiliation, shame and fear. Affective engagement can also be active and passive (Naumann et al., 2017a). Active affective engagement refers to consumers' strong negative feelings (e.g., hate, anger) towards the engagement object, whereas passive affective engagement involves less strong emotional component (e.g., frustration, fear) (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020). Accordingly, negative affective engagement can be defined as the degree of a consumer's **negative feelings** toward the engagement object (see Table 2.13).

Table 2.13 Negative affective dimension and sub-dimensions

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3"></th><th>Definitions</th><th>References</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Affective dimension</td><td>the degree of consumers' negative emotions or feelings towards the engagement object.</td><td>Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Juric et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Sub-dimensions</td><td>Active</td><td>anger</td><td>a consumer's active and aggressive negative emotion to the engagement object.</td><td>Juric et al., 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b, 2020</td></tr>
<tr><td>Passive</td><td>frustration</td><td>a consumer's passive and non-aggressive negative emotion to the engagement object.</td><td>Juric et al., 2015; Harwood and Garry, 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Bowden et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b, 2020</td></tr>
</table>

The first sub-dimension involves the consumer's active negative feeling **(anger)** towards the engagement object (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b, 2020). Anger is a strong negative feeling, accompanied by feelings of rage, disgust and irritation (Tronvoll 2011). Other studies capture some active negative feelings (i.e., resentment, hatred, hostility), which are related to the active negative affective engagement (Juric et al., 2015; de Villiers, 2015). Anger is related to strong negative emotions or psychological disorders with behavioural manifestations of aggression and may further lead to serious health, social or emotional consequences (Gardner and Moore, 2008; van Doorn et al., 2014; Lindebaum and Gabriel, 2016).

Passive affective engagement is defined as a consumer's passive negative feelings of frustration, residual anger, humiliation, shame, dislike and fear to the engagement focus (de Villiers, 2015; Juric et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2020). Particularly, **frustration** acts as a typical sub-dimension of passive affective engagement which has been identified in several studies (Harwood and Garry, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a). It refers to consumers' passive and non-aggressive negative emotions. Scholars explain that frustration is closely associated with passive feelings of powerlessness, resignation and despair, which can be triggered by unfavourable service encounters (Tronvoll, 2011; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a).

Frustration and anger are distinct negative emotions that reflect different levels (Gelbrich, 2010). Research indicates that frustration is likely to be a milder form of anger (Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones 2004). Also, the two concepts are different based on their outcomes,

anger will lead to confrontative behaviour (e.g., vindictive negative WOM, blaming), while frustration usually results in supportive behaviour (e.g., support-seeking negative WOM, problem-solving complaining) (Gelbrich, 2010). Accordingly, frustration reflects an individual's passive negative feeling and will not imply blame attribution to others.

Behavioural dimension and its sub-dimensions

Negative behavioural engagement represents the degree of consumers negatively valenced energy, time and effort spent on the brand in specific interactions (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). de Villier (2015) identifies many negative engagement behaviours including sabotage and immoral behaviours. Consumers' negative behavioural engagement includes active and passive forms (Naumann et al., 2017a). Active negative behavioural engagement involves consumers' active actions against the engagement object, while passive behaviour refers to reduced interactions and a lower level of attack (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020). Accordingly, negative behavioural engagement can be defined as the intensity of consumers' negatively valenced **behavioural investment** to the engagement focus (see Table 2.14).

Most studies on negative consumer engagement have discussed **co-destructive** behaviours. Co-destructive behaviours are negative and aggressive (Naumann et al., 2017a; Zhang et al., 2018). Gebauer et al. (2013) identify several co-destructive behaviours including negative WOM, conflicts with others, harming the brand reputation and recruiting people to spread brand hatred. A study on social media context explains that co-destructive consumers will actively spread negative content on brand pages to interact with other consumers (Dolan et al., 2016). For example, car consumers will destroy the value of the firm if they blame the firm for problems and damage its image by communicating adverse opinions to others (Plé and Cáceres, 2010).

Table 2.14 Negative behavioural dimension and sub-dimensions

			Definitions	References
Behavioural dimension			the intensity of consumers' negatively valenced behavioural investment to the engagement focus.	Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020; Azer and Alexander, 2020a, 2020b
Sub-dimensions	**Active**	**destructive**	consumers take actions jointly against or damaging the engagement object.	Plé and Cáceres, 2010; Gebauer et al., 2013; Juric et al., 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Dolan et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Naumann et al., 2020
		constructive	consumers take actions jointly to solve problems, change wrongdoings and sustain the relationship.	Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b; Azer and Alexander, 2018
		complaint	consumer's negative behaviours to express dissatisfaction, whether subjectively experienced or not, to the firm, friends, relatives, other customers or external agencies.	Juric et al., 2015; Aubé and Rousseau, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017a; Dolan et al., 2017; Bowden et al., 2017; Berry et al., 2018; Min et al., 2019; Naumann et al., 2020; Rahman et al., 2022
	Passive	**neglect**	consumers ignore the engagement object and become interested in competitors' products or services.	de Villiers, 2015; Dolan et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017

Research approaches negative and punitive actions as potentially constructive or destructive, with the former behaviours aiming to solve problems, change wrongdoings and sustain the relationship, whereas the latter intends to harm the engagement object (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Kim and Lim, 2020). Studies identify **co-constructive** behaviour as a sub-dimension of negative behavioural engagement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b). However, Azer and Alexander (2018) indicate that constructive behaviour is a positive engagement behaviour, as it is related to problem-solving which has positive effects on the engagement object.

Complaint is identified as a sub-dimension of negative behavioural engagement (Naumann et al., 2017a; Dolan et al., 2017; Rahman et al., 2022). Complaint is primarily defined as expression or communication of dissatisfaction with others (Aubé and Rousseau, 2016; Berry et al., 2018). Kowalski (1996) indicates that complaint is the expression of dissatisfaction, whether subjectively experienced or not, to vent emotions or achieve

intrapsychic/interpersonal goals. Complaints can be viewed as constructive behaviour for the company, as useful information can be provided to learn from mistakes (Min et al., 2019). Accordingly, consumers' complaint has either positive or negative outcomes, however, it has negative connotations which are different from a positive voice (e.g., sharing favourable experiences) (Min et al., 2019).

Neglect is identified as the sub-dimension of negative passive behavioural engagement in Naumann et al.'s (2017a) study. Neglect means a passive behavioural response (e.g., ignoring information) that occurs when consumers alienate the engagement objects and allow the condition to deteriorate (de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a). Dolan et al. (2016) suggest that passive engagement behaviours include dormancy (making zero contribution) and detachment (relationship termination). A passively engaged consumer may try to exit from the previous relationship and search for substitutes offered by other brands (de Villiers, 2015; Bowden et al., 2017). However, other studies on consumer disengagement indicate that neglect is different from passive engagement, with the former focusing on unengaged or relationship ending (Bowden et al., 2015; Rissanen and Luoma-Aho, 2016), while the latter reflects a lower level of engagement (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015).

2.3.3 Antecedents of negative consumer engagement

This section aims to identify factors that drive negative consumer engagement (see Figure 2.6). It is necessary to understand factors that negatively affect consumer engagement to find out ways to avoid and address them.

Figure 2.6 Antecedents of negative consumer engagement

Brand/firm-related driver	Consumer-related driver	Context-related driver
• Brand quality/value	• Personal goal	• Community pressure
• Brand innovation	• Consumer emotions	• Social environment
• Brand failure	• Consumer WOM	• Technology
• Firm actions		• Community/service type
• CSR		
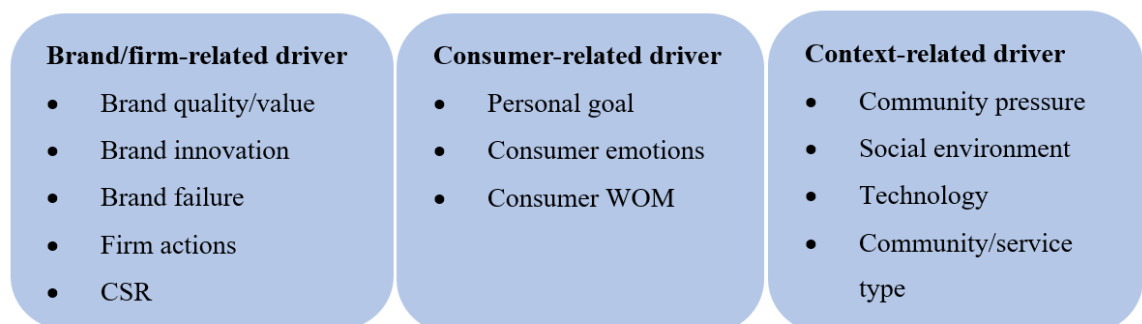
2.3.3.1 Brand or firm-related drivers

Drivers of negative consumer engagement are linked with the specific brand/firm that consumers interact with (see Table 2.15). First, one of the brand-related factors is consumer **perceived brand quality/value** (Kosiba et al., 2018). For example, Hollebeek and Chen (2014) suggest that negative brand engagement is likely to occur when brand quality/value is perceived as unfavourable, and it is particularly related to consumers' negative cognitions. Also, consumer perceived lack of the brand's delivery on its promise and brand responsiveness is expected to generate negative consumer engagement, particularly negative emotions (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). de Villiers (2015) indicate that consumers' negative perceptions of brand quality/value can trigger negative cognitions and emotions, which will further lead to a higher level of negative consumer engagement.

Another brand-related driver is **brand innovation** (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Consumers will not engage with or even negatively engage with the brand when they think the product or service of the focal brand is not novel (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Sembada (2018) suggests that consumers will develop negative engagement behaviours when the firm fails to deliver the co-designed innovation. The negative effect of brand innovation is in line with the regulatory fit theory, which indicates that consumers will move away from the engagement object when they have negative thoughts about its value (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Higher engagement strength can intensify consumers' perceived negative value of an object and finally lead to more active negative consumer engagement (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Hence, actively engaged consumers are more likely to develop active negative engagement when the value is not fitted (Pham and Avent, 2009).

Third, **brand failure** triggers negative consumer engagement (Goode, 2012). For example, after being stranded on a runway for 9 hours, the consumer may proactively engage in strong negative WOM and become an enemy of the firm (Grégoire et al., 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010). The sense of decreased autonomy, unfairness, confusion and frustration can also cause negative consumer engagement, particularly negative cognitions and emotions (Park et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Bowden et al., 2017). In addition, a consumer will develop negative cognitions, emotions and behaviours when they realise the imbalanced control between the consumer and the firm (Naumann et al., 2017a). This can be explained by reactance theory, which concerns an individual's desire to become their own destiny's

autonomous agent, thereby, when people's freedom is threatened, they will respond to protect and restore it (Higgins and Scholer, 2009).

Fourth, scholars indicate that consumers' perceptions of **firm actions** may lead to negative consumer engagement (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Hua et al., 2021). Consumers will develop negative engagement when they are not satisfied with how the firm deals with issues (e.g., delayed service) (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Zhang et al., 2018). Gebauer et al. (2013) claim that a consumer perceived unfairness and dissatisfaction with firm actions can lead to negative outcomes. For example, the service centre may encourage frontline employees to hurry through calls to improve efficiency and productivity, however, consumers may regard this as a misuse of resources as they prefer knowledgeable frontline employees who can resolve their problems with patience (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). Customer engagement marketing also has negative effects (Becker et al., 2018). For example, pro-active web care (i.e., a firm's intervention without consumers' request) can backfire and negatively affect consumer engagement if it is perceived as inappropriate (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015). Also, the increased pervasiveness of advertisements can make consumers feel sceptical about the information in the internet landscape (Saprikis, 2013; Kim, 2014; Vargo, 2016).

Finally, consumer awareness of the lack of **corporate social responsibility (CSR)** will result in negative consumer engagement (de Villiers, 2015). Naumann et al. (2017a) indicate that an accumulation of disappointing encounters can make consumers think the firm has unethical and corrupt motives (e.g., using child labour), which will lead to negative engagement, particularly negative cognitions. In contrast to positive information, the magnitude of the effect of negative information seems to be higher (Ba and Pavlou, 2002). The acquisition of negative information about CSR will have a detrimental impact on consumer relationships and may lead to negative consumer engagement (Adjei et al., 2010).

The regulatory fit theory can explain the effect of firms' actions and CSR on negative consumer engagement, with studies indicating that consumers prefer engaging in fitting rather than not-fitting situations (Higgins, 2006; Avnet and Higgins, 2006; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Solem and Pedersen, 2016). This theory emphasises the importance of a logical fit between consumers' motivational orientation and the marketing strategy adopted to sustain it (Higgins, 2005; Aaker and Lee, 2006; Solem and Pedersen, 2016). Thus, inappropriate and unethical firm behaviours can be regarded as an unfitted environment by

consumers and cause negative engagement.

Table 2.15 Brand or firm-related driver of negative consumer engagement

Antecedents	Definitions	References
Brand quality/value	consumer's overall assessment of product or service utility	Zeithaml, 1988; Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Voss et al., 2003; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; de Villiers, 2015; Kosiba et al., 2018
Brand innovation	consumer's perception of the degree to which a brand can offer novel features or new elements	Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Pham and Avent, 2009; Franzak and Pitta, 2011; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Sembada, 2018
Brand failure	poor performance of the brand that fails to meet a customer's satisfaction	Roehm and Brady, 2007; van Doorn et al., 2010; Park et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b; Bowden et al., 2017; Hassey, 2019; Zhang et al., 2020
Firm actions	consumer perceptions of the company operations and the way of handling specific issues	Plé and Cáceres, 2010; Gebauer et al., 2013; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Zhang et al., 2018; Hua et al., 2021
CSR	companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and their interaction with their stakeholders voluntarily	Ba and Pavlou, 2002; Dahlsrud, 2008; Adjei et al., 2010; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a

2.3.3.2 Consumer-related drivers

Consumer-related drivers include consumers' personal goals, emotions and WOM (see Table 2.16) Consumer's negative perception of the fulfilment of **personal goals** (i.e., functional, social) can motivate negative consumer engagement (Scholer and Higgin, 2009; Relling et al., 2016). Concerning functional goals, highly informational brand-related content may negatively affect consumer engagement when compares to entertaining, emotional and philanthropic content (Feddema et al., 2020), as the only use of product informative content cannot satisfy consumer's informational needs (Dolan et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018a). Messages related to products (e.g., the excessive use of holiday messages) can negatively affect consumer engagement, as consumers start being sceptical to this kind of information (Baldus et al., 2015; Vargo, 2016; Lee et al. 2018). Additionally, economic information (e.g., price, deals) also have negative effects on consumer engagement (Dolan et al., 2016). In terms of social goals, consumers may negatively engage with the brand to achieve their goals of expressing dissatisfaction and declaring negative feelings to others (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; de Villiers, 2015).

Another consumer-related driver refers to **consumers' negative emotions** (van Doorn et al., 2010; de Villiers, 2015; Li et al., 2018). Rodrigues and Borges (2021) evidence that consumers' negative emotions towards a brand have negative effects on brand engagement. Naumann et al. (2017a, 2017b) explain that negative emotional contagion of an individual's cognitions, feelings and behaviours will cause negative consumer engagement and further have harmful effects on the engagement object. Negative emotion of unpleasantness or pain is a potential source of negative engagement (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Studies indicate that passive emotions can result in negative passive engagement, while active emotions can prompt more destructive and punitive actions (de Villiers, 2015; Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b). While, other scholars indicate that passive emotions can lead to either passive or active negative engagement (van Doorn et al., 2010). For example, a consumer with fearful emotion may engage in voicing complaints or choose to exit (Ferguson and Johnston, 2011; Thomson et al., 2012).

Negative **WOM**, particularly from close friends, can negatively affect community members' active participation and even result in negative engagement (Relling et al., 2016; Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016). However, Relling et al. (2016) reveal that negative WOM may trigger positive engagement in functional-goal communities, as these members are primarily interested in negative brand-related communication which seems to be more credible inside the community. In addition, a small dose of negative posts on Facebook may have positive effects on consumer brand engagement but occur only when the user has known about the brand and have a prior positive attitude to it (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016). Reversely, positive WOM (e.g., repeat advertising message) may lead to negative engagement with the brand (Relling et al., 2016). Therefore, positive and negative WOM can trigger negative consumer engagement under certain circumstances.

Table 2.16 Consumer-related drivers of negative consumer engagement

Antecedents	Definitions	References
Personal goals	Functional goal: consumers' learning motivation Social goal: consumers' motivation to gain social benefits	Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Scholer and Higgin, 2009; de Villiers, 2015; Relling et al., 2016; Dolan et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018a
Consumer emotions	consumer's negative emotions	van Doorn et al., 2010; Ferguson and Johnston, 2011; Goode, 2012; Thomson et al., 2012; Romani et al., 2013; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b; Song et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018; Rodrigues and Borges, 2021
WOM	consumer's sharing, recommending and feedback behaviours	Relling et al., 2016; Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016

2.3.3.3 Context-related drivers

Context-related drivers refer to the unfavourable environment that affects consumer engagement (see Table 2.17). First, normative **community pressure** is one of the context-related drivers, which refers to consumers' perceptions of the extrinsic demands of the brand community that require the consumer to cooperate and interact within it (Algesheimer et al., 2005). Social psychologists have suggested that the need for consensual validation by other members of the community may be the main reason for normative community pressure (McMillan and Chavis 1986). Social norms and shared beliefs within networks form the institutional context and provide guidelines for actors to engage with one another, which may lead to negative engagement (Simon et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018). The greater the pressure from the norms of the brand community, the more burdensome it is to associate and participate with it (Algesheimer et al., 2005).

The negative effects of community pressure can be explained by reactance theory, which concerns people's desires to be autonomous agents of their destiny (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Engaging with a community can lead to normative pressure, since it may make consumers feel that their freedom is threatened and then choose to leave the community (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Higgins and Scholer, 2009). A study on the social service industry shows that consumers will develop negative consumer engagement when they feel their values or ideologies are threatened by the local government (Naumann et al., 2017b). Hollebeek et al. (2018) suggest that firms' regulations or rules can make the consumer feel stressed in the environment and finally develop negative engagement.

Activities or behaviours of others can also negatively affect consumer engagement, which reflects the effect of the **social environment** (Heinonen, 2018). Specifically, misbehaviour and unfavourable discussion from other members, and uncivil social interactions between consumers can have negative effects on consumer engagement and even make the consumer leave the community and develop active negative engagement (Heinonen, 2018; Dineva et al, 2020). Ahmad and Sun (2018) indicate that fake reviews or deceptive information on the online social environment can be a driver of consumer distrust and negative consumer engagement. Consumers negatively engage with the community when they do not feel belong to it (Heinonen, 2018). Su et al. (2017) suggest that social exclusion (e.g., being isolated) can make consumers engage in more switching behaviour. Hence, an unfavourable social environment can trigger negative consumer engagement.

Technology can negatively affect consumer engagement (Heinonen, 2018). Technical failure or inappropriate use of technologies can co-destruct consumer experience and lead to negative engagement (Hammedi et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). For example, a firm that imposes self-service technology on all consumers will be perceived as inappropriate by those who are reluctant to embrace the use of this new technology and finally lead to negative consumer engagement (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). In addition, consumers may choose to negatively engage with the online community when they perceive the new site structure and changes of functions are complex and uneasy to use (Heinonen, 2018). Therefore, the misuse or failure of technology can be a driver of negative consumer engagement.

Another context-related driver is related to the **type of community and service** (Relling et al., 2016). Adjei et al. (2010) indicate that consumers are more likely to engage with independently owned communities rather than with corporate-sponsored websites, as they think information from other consumers seems to be more trustworthy and credible than that from a company. Accordingly, consumers may passive or even negative engage with corporate-sponsored communities. Algesheimer et al. (2005) indicate that members are less likely to engage with large brand communities (i.e., 50 members or more) than smaller communities (i.e., fewer than 50 members). This is because consumers prefer to engage with smaller groups for socialization and friendship motives and perceive relationships in large groups are relatively tenuous (Dholakia et al., 2004; Algesheimer et al., 2005). However, actors may feel stressed by a need to conform to group expectations when engaging in high-density networks (Li et al., 2018). Concerning the service type, scholars found that

consumers' tendency toward negative engagement is higher in functional/utilitarian services than in participative/co-creative services (Bowden et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2017b). Goode (2012) groups online service into high integration service and low integration service and indicated that consumers of high integration service are more likely to develop active negative engagement after service failure to solve the problem.

Table 2.17 Context-related driver of negative consumer engagement

Antecedents	Definitions	References
community pressure	consumers' perceptions of the extrinsic demands of the brand community	Algesheimer et al., 2005; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann, et al., 2017a, 2017b; Li et al., 2018; Hollebeek et al., 2018
social environment	the activities or behaviours of other community members	Su et al., 2017; Heinonen, 2018; Ahmad and Sun, 2018; Heinonen, 2018; Dineva et al, 2020
technology	technical failure or inappropriate use of technologies	Plé and Cáceres, 2010; Hammedi et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Heinonen, 2018
community and service type	the characteristics of the community and service	Dholakia et al., 2004; Algesheimer et al., 2005; Adjei et al., 2010; Goode, 2012; Bowden et al., 2015; Relling et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2018

2.3.4 Consequences of negative consumer engagement

The consequences of negative consumer engagement include two parts (see Figure 2.7). The following section presents existing literature which has identified the outcomes of negative consumer engagement.

Figure 2.7 Consequences of negative consumer engagement

For consumers:
- **Relationship quality:** relationship termination, negative relationship
- **Consumer behaviour:** negative participation, negative (e-)WOM

For the firm/brand:
- **Tangible:** firm performance
- **Intangible:** brand equity
- **Firm action:** marketing strategy
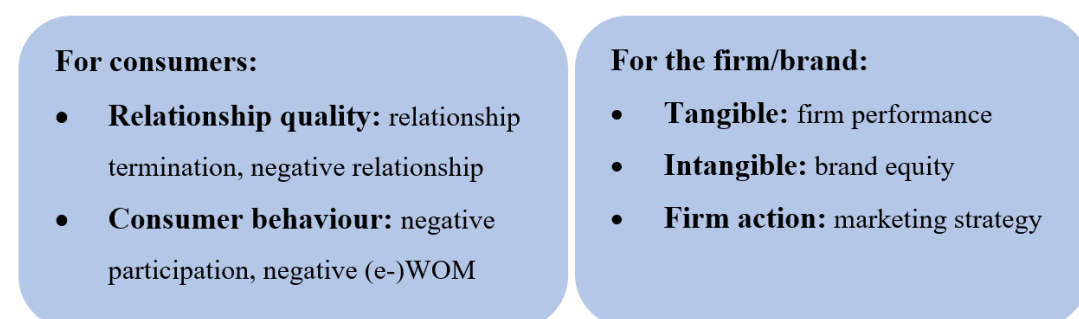
2.3.4.1 For the consumer

Negative consumer engagement can affect consumers' relationship quality and behaviours (see Table 2.18). First, unlike the favourable effect of positive consumer engagement on **relationship quality**, negative consumer engagement may cause consumer relationships to fade, terminate and become even worse (Bowden et al., 2015; Heinonen, 2018). Consumer negative passive engagement will result in the dissolution of a seller-buyer relationship (Naumann et al., 2017b). Dolan et al. (2016) indicate that passively and negatively engaged consumers will remove themselves from the engagement focus, which reflects the termination of the interaction. Negatively engaged consumers may also develop negative relationships with the engagement focus (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Naumann et al. (2017b) explain that actively and negatively engaged consumer seems to be more passionate, involved and dedicated to the negative relationship (e.g., being dissatisfied and disloyal to the engagement object) (de Villiers, 2015).

Consumer behaviour is also an outcome of negative consumer engagement (Naumann et al., 2020; Azer and Alexander, 2020b). Regarding consumer participation, negative consumer engagement can produce repulsion force and generate negative interactions with the engagement focus (Higgins, 2006; Pham and Avnet, 2009; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). van Doorn et al. (2010) indicate that successful consumer engagement behaviour can further make the consumer engage more intensively and frequently in interactions with the engagement focus. Accordingly, negatively engaged consumers will develop more intense negative participation with the focal object (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). This is in line with regulatory engagement theory, which indicates that stronger engagement will make negatively perceived objects more negative (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Therefore, negative consumer engagement will lead to a higher level of negative participation.

Another significant behavioural outcome can be represented by consumers' negative (e-) WOM (Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Naumann et al., 2020). Most studies identify negative WOM as a result of negative consumer engagement (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Relling et al., 2016). For example, negatively engaged consumers may participate in anti-brand communities to vent their discontent to the focal brand (Lee et al., 2009; de Villiers, 2015). Hollebeek and Chen (2014) indicate that WOM is a key consequence of consumer engagement, with negative WOM having more detrimental effects, relative to the favourable

effect of positive WOM. Consumers can be easily influenced by negative information as it is more surprising or shocking (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016). The detrimental impact of negative e-WOM is more significant, as it occurs virtually without cost and spread rapidly (Van Doorn et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2013).

Table 2.18 Consequences of negative consumer engagement for consumers

Consequences		Definition	References
Relationship quality	relationship termination	consumers end their relationship with the engagement object	Bowden et al., 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Dolan et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018
	negative relationship	dissatisfaction, distrust, and disloyalty	Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Bowden et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018
Consumer behaviour	negative participation	negative interactions with engagement focus	Higgins, 2006; Pham and Avnet, 2009; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014
	negative (e-)WOM	negative statements made by consumers about a product or firm	Lee et al., 2009; van Doorn et al., 2010; Brodie et al., 2013; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; de Villiers, 2015; Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Relling et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2020

2.3.4.2 For the firm/brand

The firm/brand-related outcomes include three categories: tangible, intangible and firm actions (see Table 2.19). In terms of the **tangible** outcome, negative consumer engagement has detrimental effects on firm performance (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; Rahman et al., 2022). de Villiers (2015) indicate that negative consumer engagement can result in undesirable outcomes of disloyalty and loss of business, which will directly reduce firm profits. Unlike outcomes of positive consumer engagement, a higher level of engagement has a more positive effect on firm performance, in the negative case, weaken engagement may generate a better outcome for the firm (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). The firm manager prefers negatively engaged consumers to remain passive rather than active, as the harmful result from a passively engaged consumer has less unfavourable effects on the firm performance (de Villiers, 2015).

Other scholars indicate that negative consumer engagement can not only result in

undesirable outcomes for the firm but also has positive consequences if managed appropriately (Antonetti, 2016). Consumer negative engagement can be constructive and aim to rectify the problem and help to improve firm performance (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b). Goode (2012) suggests that consumers may engage with the failed service provider to gather information about the problem and find ways to address it. Similarly, Antonetti (2016) claims that consumer anger has two forms including vengeful anger and problem-focused anger, problem-focused anger can help to foster a productive market relationship. Thus, negatively engaged consumer plays an important role in monitoring firm performance.

Unlike positive consumer engagement, which has great potential for creating brand equity (Hepola et al., 2017; Kumar, 2021), negative consumer engagement (e.g., customer complaints) is likely to cause lower brand equity (Rahman et al., 2022). In this study, brand equity is considered as the **intangible** outcome of negative consumer engagement.

Negative consumer engagement can inform the company to take appropriate actions to address negative effects and improve firm performance (van Doorn et al., 2010). Thus, another outcome is related to **firm actions**. Due to the detrimental effects of negative consumer engagement, many firms take action to intervene against negative engagement (Lee and Song 2010; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015). van Doorn et al. (2010) suggest that negative consumer engagement can encourage the firm to improve the legal and regulatory environment within which the firm operates, to avoid or mitigate the effect of negative consumer engagement. For example, web care is a significant firm action for negative consumer engagement, which refers to the firm searching the web to address consumers' feedback (van Noort and Willemsen, 2012). Schamari and Schaefers (2015) claim that web care has been adopted as an effective firm action for mitigating the detrimental effects of negative consumer engagement. The study on service recovery further explains that if firm actions are properly managed, it may even turn negative consumer engagement into positive consumer engagement (Voorhees et al., 2006).

Table 2.19 Consequences of negative consumer engagement for the firm/brand

Consequences		Definition	References
For the firm/brand	**Tangible** — firm performance	consumer's contribution to the firm's profitability	Higgins and Scholer, 2009; Goode, 2012; Romani et al., 2013; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; de Villiers, 2015; Antonetti, 2016; Naumann et al., 2017b; Rahman et al., 2022
	Intangible — brand equity	a set of brand assets and liability linked to a brand, its name, and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers	Aaker, 1996a; Keller, 1993; Leone et al., 2006; Rahman et al., 2022
	Firm actions — marketing strategy	a set of business tactics that help companies grow in the market	Voorhees et al., 2006; van Doorn et al., 2010; Lee and Song 2010; van Noort and Willemsen, 2012; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015

2.4 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the literature that can be useful to better understand the core construct of negative online brand engagement. Given the scarcity of literature on negative consumer engagement, the chapter starts with a systematic literature review on positive consumer engagement. Then, existing articles on negative consumer engagement are reviewed. The definitions, dimensionality, antecedences and outcomes of positive and negative consumer engagement are discussed and summarised. The results show that negative consumer engagement is better to be defined based on three dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioural. In line with the drivers of positive consumer engagement, the antecedents of negative consumer engagement are also grouped into three categories (i.e., brand/firm-related, consumer-related and context-related). In addition, the outcomes of negative consumer engagement are related to the consumers and the firm/brand.

The analysis of positive and negative consumer engagement concepts, their definitions and dimensionality support the development of the advanced definition and measurement of the negative online consumer engagement construct presented in Chapter 9. Further, the drivers and outcomes of positive and negative consumer engagement are reviewed and analysed to provide the theoretical foundation for creating the conceptual model in Chapter 7.

Chapter 3 Gaps and research questions

3.1 Introduction

The chapter outlines research gaps derived from the review of positive and negative consumer engagement literature in Chapter 2. The research gaps lead to the enunciation of research questions that guide the present study. Specifically, the chapter firstly illustrates gaps related to the conceptualisation of negative consumer engagement through analysing definitions in the existing literature. Second, antecedents of negative consumer engagement are discussed, and gaps are identified by comparing them with antecedents of positive consumer engagement in previous research. Finally, the outcomes of positive and negative consumer engagement identified in the existing literature are discussed, thereby the third research gap is related to outcomes of negative consumer engagement.

Understanding research gaps and developing the research questions are the base for designing, conducting and interpreting the qualitative study explained in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. Further, research gaps and questions also support the development of the conceptual model (Chapter 7), which is, in turn, the foundation of the design of the quantitative phase (Chapter 8).

3.2 Research gap 1: conceptualisation of negative online brand engagement

Construct definition plays a fundamental role, and the development of a coherent, robust and generalizable theory requires clearly defined constructs (MacKenzie, 2003; Gilliam and Voss, 2013; Bergkvist and Eisend, 2021). The first research gap is related to existing definitions of consumer engagement, particularly on the negative side. Two types of inadequate definitions of consumer engagement exist: defining the construct in terms of its antecedents or outcomes, and through examples (MacKenzie, 2003; Gilliam and Voss, 2013). For example, Calder et al. (2016) indicate that consumer engagement is a psychological state that occurs by interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal object. Rissanen and Luoma-Aho (2016) define negative consumer engagement as consumers' negative behavioural manifestations such as protests and sharing negative information about the organisation.

Concepts related to positive consumer engagement are not properly defined in the existing literature. To illustrate, trust represents a sub-dimension of cognitive engagement in some studies (e.g., Briggs et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2017a), however, it is identified as an antecedent (e.g., Brodie et al., 2011; Pansari and Kumar, 2017) or outcome (e.g., Vivek, et al., 2012; Brodie et al., 2013) of positive consumer engagement in other research. In addition, purchasing behaviour, which is a sub-dimension of behavioural engagement (e.g., Kumar and Pansari, 2016), also represents a part of consumer's behavioural outcomes of positive consumer engagement (e.g., Dwivedi et al., 2016). This can also apply to consumer emotions and behaviours which act as dimensions (e.g., Dessart et al., 2016a), antecedents (e.g., Mollen and Wilson, 2010; Pansari and Kumar, 2017) or outcomes (e.g., Marbach et al., 2016; Pansari and Kumar, 2017) of positive consumer engagement. Thus, it is necessary to determine the main roles of these concepts.

There are disagreements on the dimensions and sub-dimensions of positive consumer engagement. The majority of existing studies focus on the cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions (e.g., Hollebeek, 2011a, 2011b; Dessart et al., 2016a). Other scholars identify two additional dimensions including experiential and social (e.g., Gambetti et al., 2012). Regarding cognitive engagement, most studies focus on sub-dimensions of attention and absorption, however identification, trust and reciprocity have not been discussed in detail in the existing literature. As for the affective dimension, enjoyment and enthusiasm have been widely explored and are considered as key components of the affective dimension, while the sub-dimension of dedication is relatively new and requires further investigation. In addition, scholars have inconsistent views on whether purchasing behaviour belongs to behavioural engagement or not (e.g., Maslowska et al., 2016; Gong, 2018; Azer and Alexander, 2020b).

Compared to research on negative consumer engagement, there is more agreement amongst researchers in the positive consumer engagement literature, and the conceptualisation and operationalisation of positive consumer engagement are far more detailed and complex than what is encountered in studies of negative. Dimensions and sub-dimensions are more complicated for positive consumer engagement than negative consumer engagement when this conceptualisation and operationalisation are adopted. There are also specific differences in the depth of the conceptualisation and operationalisation of positive and negative consumer engagement.

The extant literature that conceptualises negative consumer engagement is limited, fragmentation, not consensus (Bergkvist and Eisend, 2021). Based on unidimensional views, existing studies only identify two dimensions of negative consumer engagement (i.e., cognitive, behavioural), without capturing the affective dimension which is a significant dimension of positive consumer engagement. Thus, the current research needs to focus more on the affective dimension and find out if it can become negative under certain contexts. Studies on multidimensional views of negative consumer engagement only identify three dimensions (i.e., cognitive, affective, behavioural), therefore this study needs to identify whether the experiential and social dimensions of positive consumer engagement can become negative or not.

There are questions on the dimensionality and the approach to negative consumer engagement. The majority of the existing literature focuses on the active form of negative consumer engagement, whereas only the study conducted by Naumann et al. (2017a) identifies active and passive negative consumer engagement. Naumann et al. (2017a) regard passive negative consumer engagement as consumer disengagement, and have identified three dimensions and corresponding sub-dimensions: cognitive (distrust), affective (frustration) and behavioural (neglect). However, other studies indicate that disengagement is different from passive engagement, with the former focusing on unengaged or relationship ending (Brodie et al., 2011; Bowden et al., 2015; Rissanen and Luoma-Aho, 2016), while the latter reflects a lower level of engagement (Schamari and Schaefers, 2015). Disengagement or nonengagement is the state of detachment and lacks the motivation to interact with the engagement object (i.e., relationship termination) (Brodie et al. 2011; Goode, 2012; Schamari and Schaefers, 2015; Bowden et al., 2015; Alexander et al., 2018). Accordingly, the sub-dimension (neglect) in Naumann et al.'s (2017a) study is related to disengagement rather than passive engagement.

Previous studies on sub-dimensions of negative consumer engagement are also in their infancy and lack consensus. Some scholars indicate that cynicism and distrust belong to negative cognitive engagement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017a; Darke et al., 2010), however, they are also identified as sub-dimensions of negative affective engagement, particularly affective passive engagement, in other studies (e.g., Bowden et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2017b). Further investigations are needed to identify the categories of these sub-dimensions.

Authors found that some sub-dimensions of positive consumer engagement can be transformed into negative. Specifically, three sub-dimensions of negative cognitive engagement (i.e., attention withdrawal, distrust, cynicism) correspond to three sub-dimensions of positive cognitive engagement including attention, trust and reciprocity (e.g., Scholer and Higgins, 2009; Naumann et al., 2017a). However, there is a lack of studies focusing on whether the other sub-dimensions (i.e., absorption, identification) can become negative or not. Similarly, sub-dimensions of negative affective engagement including frustration and anger can be regarded as the dark sides of enjoyment and enthusiasm respectively, while there is still no study to confirm whether the dedication sub-dimension can become negative or not. Concerning sub-dimensions of behavioural engagement, neglect, complaint, co-construction and co-destruction are related to the positive sub-dimensions of purchasing, sharing and co-creating, however, little is known about the negative sides of learning, referring and endorsing. Further studies should be conducted to find out if other sub-dimensions of positive consumer engagement can be transformed into negative, to gain a full understanding of negative cognitions, emotions and behaviours that consumers may generate to the focal engagement object.

Consequently, there are issues related to the conceptualisation of the consumer engagement concept, particularly on the negative side. First, the dimensionality of negative consumer engagement needs clarification. Also, negative consumer engagement needs to be clearly defined and separated from other similar concepts. For example, disagreement is somewhat associated with passive negative consumer engagement, and existing research does not provide conclusive evidence of the nature, similarities and differences of these concepts. The current research focuses on the negative consumer engagement with brands in the online context. Due to the lack of conceptual clarity, the first research question of this thesis is:

RQ1: How to conceptualise negative online brand engagement?

3.3 Research gap 2: drivers of negative online brand engagement

To understand negative consumer engagement, it seems to be important to identify significant triggers of negative consumer engagement (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). There are a very limited number of studies have identified drivers of negative consumer

engagement (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Algharabat et al., 2020). Some studies identify possible drivers of negative consumer engagement without providing empirical evidence (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b). Existing literature identifies far more drivers for positive consumer engagement than for negative consumer engagement. Thus, studies on positive consumer engagement were reviewed to inform possible drivers of negative consumer engagement.

The review of literature on drivers of positive consumer engagement shows that some factors of positive consumer engagement can also lead to negative consumer engagement. Specifically, the brand or firm-related triggers of positive consumer engagement, including brand value, firm action and CSR, can negatively influence consumer engagement. In terms of consumer-related factors, consumers' goals and emotions can trigger either positive or negative consumer engagement. As for context-related drivers, the social and technological environment is the common contextual factors of positive and negative consumer engagement. However, there is a lack of research to explore drivers of negative consumer engagement and to examine whether other antecedents of positive consumer engagement (i.e., brand investment, brand feature, consumer investment, self-brand connection, personal traits, consumer relationship, political, culture) can affect negative consumer engagement or not. Further investigations are required to examine drivers of negative consumer engagement and understand their connections to drivers of positive consumer engagement.

Existing research on antecedents of negative consumer engagement also lacks consensus. For example, consumer's negative (e-)WOM is identified as a driver of negative consumer engagement in some literature (e.g., Relling et al., 2016), while it acts as an outcome of negative consumer engagement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2020) or a part of the behavioural dimension in other studies (e.g., Bowden et al., 2017). In addition, consumer emotion, which is a consumer-related driver of negative consumer engagement in some studies (e.g., Li et al., 2018), is considered as the affective dimension of negative consumer engagement in other studies (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020). Further, firm action is considered as either a driver (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018) or outcome (e.g., Schamari and Schaefers, 2015) of negative consumer engagement.

Previous studies only discussed several potential drivers of negative consumer engagement without clarifying the most prominent ones. Considering the limited number of research, the

lack of consensus on drivers of negative consumer engagement, the focus of brand engagement in the online context, the second research question is formulated as follows:

RQ2: What are the most prominent drivers of negative online brand engagement?

3.4 Research gap 3: outcomes of negative online brand engagement

Existent research covers some possible outcomes of negative online brand engagement (e.g., firm performance, brand equity, relationship quality) (e.g., Heinonen, 2018; Rahman et al., 2022). However, compared with research on positive consumer engagement, the extant literature on the consequences of negative consumer engagement is very limited (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). The systematic literature review of studies on positive consumer engagement has identified 13 outcomes including 5 for the brand/firm and 8 for consumers while existing literature on negative consumer engagement only suggests 6 outcomes including 3 for the brand/firm and 3 for consumers.

Concerning the brand/firm-related outcomes, previous research on negative consumer engagement mainly focuses on tangible benefits and firm action but lacks attention to the intangible benefits. Only one article (Rahman et al., 2022) discussed the effect of negative consumer engagement on brand equity and no study focused on the outcomes of firm reputation and marketing effectiveness, which are important outcomes of positive consumer engagement (Pansari and Kumar, 2017; Pires and Trez, 2018). In terms of consumer-related consequences, outcomes of negative consumer engagement are also identified as outcomes of positive consumer engagement. However, existing studies have not examined the impact of negative consumer engagement on consumer value (i.e., financial, emotional, social benefits) which are important outcomes of positive consumer engagement (Marbach et al., 2016; An and Han, 2020). In addition, the effects of negative consumer engagement on consumers' usage and purchase behaviours have not been identified.

Existing studies on outcomes of negative consumer engagement lack consensus. For example, marketing strategy, which is identified as a driver of negative consumer engagement (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018), also acts as the outcome in other studies (e.g., Schamari and Schaefers, 2015). Consumer relationship, which is usually considered a driver of positive consumer engagement (e.g., Heinonen, 2018), is identified as an outcome of

negative consumer engagement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017b). Consumers' negative participation and WOM, which are usually considered as consumer behavioural engagement (e.g., Bowden et al., 2017), are identified as outcomes of negative consumer engagement in some studies (e.g., Naumann et al., 2020). Thus, it is necessary to identify significant outcomes of negative consumer engagement and find ways to develop appropriate firm actions to manage negative consumer engagement and avoid its negative effects.

Considering the focus of the brand and the online context, the current research needs to identify the most prominent outcomes of negative consumer brand engagement in the online context. This leads to the formulation of the third research question:

RQ3: What are the most prominent outcomes of negative online brand engagement?

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter is based on the results of the literature review on positive and negative consumer engagement, which revealed that negative consumer engagement as a concept is not clearly defined, and the phenomenon's dimensionality, antecedents and consequences are largely unknown. As such, this chapter presented gaps existing in the consumer engagement literature and come up with three research questions that guide the current study.

Overall, this chapter identifies the need to focus on the concept of negative online brand engagement and inform the design of the current research. Due to the lack of research on negative consumer engagement especially in the online context, current research employed two types of data collection including qualitative and quantitative to answer the stated research questions. Particularly, a need for empirical validation of antecedents and outcomes of negative consumer engagement is identified. The different research methods employed to answer these questions are detailed in the following chapters.

Chapter 4 Analytical approach

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the overall research design followed in this study to collect and analyse the empirical evidence necessary to answer the formulated research questions. Decisions regarding methodology (Saunders et al., 2012; Bryman and Bell, 2015) are presented in this chapter. Care is given to each aspect of the methodology, ensuring that they are consistent with one another and with the research questions articulated in this study.

The first section of the chapter explains the ontological and epistemological assumptions that guide the process of data collection and analysis, discussing the chosen research paradigm in line with the study's aims and objectives. Then, the chapter justifies the specific mixed-method design (exploratory sequential design) deployed in this study, including one qualitative study and five quantitative studies.

4.2 Research paradigm

This research aims to explore the negative online brand engagement phenomenon, its dimensionality, drivers and outcomes. Firstly, the current research aims to refine the existing conception of negative online brand engagement and develop an instrument to measure it. Also, this research investigates and examines the significant antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. As with any other piece of academic research, this study is guided by a set of practices, beliefs and assumptions that frame the way the researcher approaches the enquiry (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). In other words, the study follows a certain research paradigm.

The study adheres post-positivistic paradigm. A research paradigm is an interpretative framework guided by a set of beliefs about how the world should be understood and studied (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). This study follows a post-positivism research paradigm which concerns a set of philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality and existence (ontology), the position of scientific enquiry within this reality (epistemology) and the role of value (axiology) (Saunders et al., 2012; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). The entire set of assumptions concerning ontology, epistemology and axiology defines this research

orientation, a system of values and beliefs.

Different authors provide varying categorisations of paradigms and there is an ongoing debate on their number and definitions (Guba, 1990; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). For example, Guba (1990) suggests that social scientists are often guided by one of the four key paradigms: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, and constructivism (or interpretivism). A common categorisation acknowledges the existence of four research paradigms in social sciences: positivism (naïve realism), post-positivism (critical realism), interpretivism (constructivism) and pragmatism (Wahyuni, 2012). The paradigms are in turn characterised by certain philosophical considerations, namely, ontology, epistemology and axiology (Saunders et al., 2012; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015).

Ontology is concerned with the nature of existence and reality (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). The two ontology extremes are objectivism and subjectivism, where objectivism assumes that social entities exist in the reality that is external to social actors, while subjectivism holds that social phenomena are created through perceptions of social actors (and that reality is being social constructed) (Saunders et al., 2012). The present study adopts a post-positivism research paradigm, which is between objectivism and subjectivism.

This research is related to objective ontology. As specified in the second and third research questions, the study seeks to expose the causal relationships between negative online brand engagement and its antecedents and outcomes, which reveals objective, generalisable knowledge. It reflects real phenomena and exists independent of consumers' perceptions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). The search for objectivity is also evident in qualitative data. This study also seeks to explore the nature of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon, its dimensions, and an alternative way to measure it. Negative online brand engagement is an intangible construct (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), thereby consumers' different views and other potential factors may have effects on it (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). To answer this research question, an exploratory approach is more appropriate to investigate the essence of negative online brand engagement and analyse its different components. Nonetheless, the qualitative data are instrumental in serving the goal of developing generalisable theory.

Epistemology is about the nature of knowledge and helps researchers to understand the best way of creating knowledge (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). Positivism assumes that social

phenomena exist externally and should be measured by using objective methods (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). Post-positivism assumes the need to objectively report reality but also accepts that there may be different interpretations of reality (Henderson, 2011). Post-positivism takes a position that one can never fully comprehend reality and the aim is to generate a reasonable approximation of reality that is tied closely to what is observed (Guest et al., 2013).

In line with the post-positivist paradigm, the researcher aims to achieve objectivity and reduce the possibility of bias by incorporating data triangulation in this research (Moutinho and Hutcheson, 2011). Specifically, quantitative data collected in this research is supplemented by qualitative data. Qualitative data are used to collaborate with quantitative data, to combine strengths and get more convincing results (Venkatesh et al, 2013), which has been applied in many existing studies on consumer engagement (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016a). Post-positivism is adopted as it sees value in methodological triangulation and encourages the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to explore the depth of the research problem and overcome the shortcomings of adopting only quantitative methods (Guba, 1990; Brand, 2008).

Axiology concerns the role of value, including detached and engaged management orientation (Saunders, et al., 2012). Detached orientation means the researcher should strive to be independent of the people and processes that they are studying, while engaged orientation assumes that there is a positive value in getting closer to the objects of one enquiry, to be engaged with the research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2015). In line with the post-positivism paradigm, the researcher adopts a detached stance (Saunders et al., 2012; Easterby-Smith et al., 2015).

4.3 Research design

The present study follows a research design to answer the formulated research questions (Bell et al., 2015). Research design represents the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived to obtain answers to research questions (Blaikie, 2009). This section firstly discusses the research design adopted in existing studies on anti-brand, anti-brand community and negative consumer engagement. Then, the design for the current study is

developed to guide the research project.

4.3.1 Research design of existing studies

The current research design is based on its suitability to the three research objectives as identified in Chapter 1. First, the researcher reviewed existing studies related to negative consumer engagement to understand existing research design and ways to approach consumers who engage negatively online. Studies related to anti-brand or anti-brand community were searched through using keywords of 'anti-brand' and 'anti-brand community'. A total of 12 relevant articles were selected and reviewed, which are widely cited and published in high-quality journals. In addition, existing literature on negative consumer engagement (10 articles) was also reviewed (see Table 4.1 and Table 4.2).

In the selected articles, five qualitative methods (observation, focus group, interview, content analysis, netnography) and two quantitative methods (survey, experiment) are identified. Most studies on negative consumer engagement are qualitative, which reflects that this concept is relatively new and under-researched. Also, some studies use multiple qualitative methods to explore negative consumer engagement (de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017). More quantitative studies were adopted in studies on anti-brand and anti-brand communities to test the relationships in the conceptual model. Only one study on anti-brand (Kucuk et al., 2016) uses a mix-method design, combining survey and interview. Accordingly, more quantitative studies on negative consumer engagement are needed to understand the nature and nomological network of negative online brand engagement.

Existing research on consumer engagement mostly focuses on the positive side (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Algharabat et al., 2018; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020), the available literature on negative consumer engagement is scarce, and does not offer a clear definition of the phenomenon and could not identify its dimensionality, drivers and outcomes. The current research should adopt the qualitative phase to explore the dimensionality, antecedents and outcomes of the novel concept of negative online brand engagement. To confirm the measurement of negative consumer engagement and test the causal relationships in the conceptual model, quantitative studies are needed.

Table 4.1 Research design of studies on anti-brand and anti-brand community

Articles	Selected brand	Research Design	Data collection method
Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2006	anti-Wal-Mart; anti-McDonalds; anti-Starbucks	Qualitative	Interview: (1) communities that oppose popular, transnational brand names; (2) online communities that had been in existence for more than ten years; (3) active communities with the highest number of regular participating members.
Kucuk, 2008	Strong brands	Qualitative	Content analysis: data were collected by using major search engines to determine the number of anti-brand websites for the brands listed in Business week List.
Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009	Top 100 brands on Business Week	Qualitative	Content analysis: use Google and Yahoo to identify anti-brand sites
Lee et al., 2009	-	Qualitative	In-depth interview: participants were self-selected as they responded to printed advertisements posted around a central city university campus
Hollenbeck and Zinkhan, 2010	Wal-Mart	Qualitative	(1) Observations and interviews from a rally opposing a Wal-Mart grand opening; (2) Observation from an anti-Wal-Mart meeting; (3) A netnographic analysis of an online anti-Wal-Mart community; (4) Depth interviews with anti-Wal-Mart community members
Johnson et al., 2011	a brand that the consumer had previously used but no longer buy	Quantitative	Survey; Experiment: Online questionnaires are distributed by a national private market research company based in California.
Awasthi et al., 2012	Strong brand: Pepsi; Coca-Cola	Quantitative	Survey
Yazicioglu and Borak, 2012	Coca-Cola	Qualitative	Netnography (1) Eksisozluk is one of the biggest online communities in Turkey; (2) The yahoo group called Coca-Cola Collectors Club; (3) Four Facebook groups on Coke in Turkish
Romani et al., 2015	Nestle; Dolce and Gabbana	Quantitative	Survey: Facebook anti-fan pages; Experiment: city centre shopping areas
Dessart et al., 2016b	multinational corporate brands	Quantitative	Survey: 113 suitable online anti-brand communities on technology brands
Kucuk et al., 2016	Strong brand: Coca-Coal; Shell	Mix method	Survey: consumers in different parts of the US Interview: respondents were randomly selected in public places of a small town in the US
Wong et al., 2018	Business Week's 100 Best Global Brands; Millward Brown's BrandZ Top 100 Most Valuable Global Brands	Quantitative	Online Survey: (1) Google was used to identify online pro-brand and anti-brand communities for the selected brands; (2) online pro-brand/anti-brand communities (the member number was over 100 and the last discussion was recorded within the past 12 months)

Table 4.2 Research design of studies on negative consumer engagement

Articles	Object	Research design	Data collection method
Yi and Baumgartner, 2004	-	Quantitative	Survey (1) 124 undergraduate business students at a large East Coast university. (2) They were asked to recall one of four emotional experiences, describe it in as much detail as possible, and answer some questions about it. (3) Three different questionnaires
Hollebeek and Chen, 2014	Apple, Samsung	Qualitative	Netnography Four brand communities on Facebook: Fans of Apple, Fan of Samsung, Apple Sucks and Samsung Sucks
de Villiers, 2015	-	Qualitative	Student interview and netnographic cases
Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016	Well-known restaurant chain	Quantitative	Online experiment Facebook users who knew (or did not know) the restaurant brand and graduate students at a mid-sized Austrian University.
Rissanen and Luoma-Aho, 2016	organisation	Qualitative	Focus group Participants are millennials (age 16-19 years, 31) from a high school focusing on media training and operating in the capital of Finland, Helsinki.
Naumann et al., 2017a	Australian Local Government	Qualitative	Focus group and in-depth interview The respondents are rate-paying customers of various areas within a major Australian capital city.
Naumann et al., 2017b	Australian Local Government	Qualitative	
Bowden et al., 2017	Australian luxury accessory brand	Qualitative	Semi-structured interview: highly engaged members of the online brand community Observation from the online brand community sites
Heinonen, 2018	Magazine website	Qualitative	Survey (1) Data were collected in the online community by posting a link to an online questionnaire. (2) The respondents were self-selected.
Azer and Alexander, 2018	-	Qualitative	Unobtrusive netnography Data collected comprise of 954 negatively valenced online reviews posted on TripAdvisor to hotels, restaurants, and 'things to do' in 12 different destinations worldwide.

4.3.2 Research design of the current study

An exploratory sequential mixed methods design (qualitative data collection and analysis, quantitative data collection and analysis, interpret the results) is adopted in the current research (Creswell, 2014), which had a developmental purpose (Venkatesh et al, 2013). Six studies including one qualitative study (Study 1) and five quantitative studies (Studies 2-6) were conducted to answer the formulated research questions (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Studies overview

Study	The nature of the study	Objective
Study 1: Online observation (negative online reviews on Amazon)	qualitative	conceptualise the core construct (negative online brand engagement), explore its antecedents and outcomes, develop the conceptual model and alternative measures
Study 1: Interview with moderators of online anti-brand communities		
Study 1: Interview with members of online anti-brand communities		
Study 2: Expert survey	quantitative	ensure that the suggested dimensionality is appropriate, and the items are valid in terms of their content
Study 3: Pre-testing of the questionnaire	quantitative	test of the statements' clarity
Study 4: Pilot test of the questionnaire	quantitative	identify and adjust any possible issues with the design of the questionnaire
Study 5: Scale development	quantitative	develop a valid scale to measure the negative online brand engagement construct and develop appropriate measures for other constructs included in the conceptual model that failed to identify suitable scales
Study 6: Model testing	quantitative	test the causal relationships in the conceptual model

The qualitative stage includes an exploratory phase (Study 1) with online observation and semi-structured interviews. Data from multiple sources can be integrated to maximise the validity of the qualitative phase (Miles et al., 2014). The aims of conducting the qualitative study are as follows:

1) Better conceptualise the negative online brand engagement and capture its dimensionality.

2) Inform the conceptual model, including the identification of the key drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement.

3) Develop alternative measures of the dimensions of negative online brand engagement, as well as of other variables included in the conceptual model for which an appropriate measurement scale could not be found in the existing literature.

The aim of doing online observation is to get an initial understanding of negative online brand engagement and inform questions in the interview guides. The researcher interviews moderators of identified anti-brand groups to understand negative online brand engagement from the perspective of managers in online anti-brand communities. The objectives of interviewing members are (1) conceptualising negative online brand engagement; (2) exploring the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement; (3) understanding negative consumer engagement with brands in online anti-brand communities; (4) exploring the antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. The multiple sources of qualitative data enable the researcher to gain a rich and deep insight into the negative online brand engagement phenomenon (Miles et al., 2014).

Online observation is adopted in this research to investigate consumers' negative brand-related online discussions. Several existing studies on consumer engagement have used online observation to investigate online user-generated content (e.g., reviews, blogs) posted by consumers about focal products, brands and firms (e.g., Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Kaptein, 2015). It can be conducted by using a participative or unobtrusive approach (Kozinets, 2010; Nørskov and Rask, 2011; Martínek, 2021). In the current study, the researcher adopts a sort of non-participant approach to capture consumer action and interactions as they occurred. The researcher acts as a specialized type of passive 'lurker' to avoid any undesirable effect of the outsider on the group (Nørskov and Rask, 2011).

Semi-structured interviews are then used in this research to collect more qualitative data. This approach is flexible, which not only includes a list of themes and questions but also allows additional or followed-up questions depending on the flow of the conversation (Saunders et al., 2016). In the qualitative phase, the researcher aims to collect information on participants' stories, experiences and examples in detail. Semi-structured interviews are more suitable for the current research than structured interviews, as it provides opportunities for participants to better explain their cognitions, feelings and behaviours to brands (Leavy,

2014; Bell et al., 2019). The number and the order of questions may vary according to the conversation's flow (Saunders et al., 2016). Also, it is favoured over unstructured interviews as it allows the interviewer to design the questions to achieve the research goals (Leavy, 2014). Therefore, semi-structured interviews are adopted in this study to get a clearer understanding of negative consumer brand engagement in the online environment.

The quantitative stage contains five studies (i.e., expert survey, pre-testing of the questionnaire, pilot test, scale development and model testing). As a part of the scale development process, the expert survey (Study 2) is conducted to purify the instrument and to ensure that the suggested dimensionality of the negative online brand engagement construct is appropriate, and the items are valid in terms of their content. Then, the questionnaire for the main study is developed and a pre-testing of the questionnaire (Study 3) is conducted to test the clarity of statements. The researcher also uses the pilot test (Study 4) to identify and adjust any possible issues with the design of the questionnaire. Finally, the questionnaire is distributed and the samples for scale development (Study 5) and model testing (Study 6) are collected. As a result of Study 5, this study develops a valid scale to measure the negative online brand engagement construct and appropriate measures for other constructs included in the conceptual model that appropriate scales could not be found in the existing literature. Finally, model testing (Study 6) is conducted to test the causal relationships (hypotheses) in the conceptual model.

In summary, the reasons for adopting a quantitative phase in the study were as follows:

1) To confirm the hypothesised dimensions and measurement of the negative online brand engagement construct (RQ1);

2) To test the causal relationships between drivers identified in the conceptual model and the negative online brand engagement construct (RQ2);

3) To test the causal relationships between negative online brand engagement and outcomes identified in the conceptual model (RQ3).

4.4 Chapter summary

The chapter explained the research philosophy and the study's overall research design guiding this research project. Considering the nature of the study, this research adopts a post-positivist stance, which concerns a set of philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality and existence (ontology), the position of scientific enquiry within this reality (epistemology) and the role of value (axiology).

To decide the current research design, the literature on anti-brand, anti-brand community and negative consumer engagement was first reviewed. Then, an exploratory sequential mixed methods design, that combines the use of qualitative and quantitative data, was chosen for the collection and analysis of the empirical information relating to the dimensionality, antecedences and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. Six studies including one qualitative study and five quantitative studies are conducted, aiming to answer the three research questions. Specifically, the qualitative study (Study 1) intends to explore the nature of negative online brand engagement, its antecedents and outcomes, and to develop the conceptual model and alternative measures. The quantitative studies (Studies 2-5) are conducted to develop the measurement of the negative online brand engagement construct and confirm the scales for other constructs in the conceptual model. Finally, the causal relationships identified in the conceptual model are tested in Study 6.

The following chapters explain in detail each study presented in this chapter. The procedures and results concerning the qualitative phase are detailed in Chapters 5 and 6, then the conceptual model is developed in Chapter 7, and the quantitative studies and results are discussed in Chapters 8, 9 and 10. The overview of all of the data collection methods, sample size and timeframe adopted in this research is presented in Appendix 2.

Chapter 5 Research methodology-qualitative phase

5.1 Introduction

The qualitative data of this research is collected from three sources. First, online observation was conducted by reviewing negative online reviews on Amazon. Then, interviews with ten moderators of identified Facebook anti-brand pages/groups were conducted. This was followed by interviews with fifteen members of identified Facebook anti-brand pages/groups.

This chapter firstly describes the context of data collection. The second section explains the process of collecting qualitative data from the three sources. Then, the process followed in the planning and execution of qualitative data analysis was discussed. Specifically, it outlines how the collected qualitative data was analysed, following thematic analysis techniques. This is followed by strategies used to guarantee the trustworthiness of the qualitative study. Finally, the ethical considerations for conducting interviews were illustrated.

5.2 Context of data collection

Considering the research focus, the researcher aims to approach consumers who engage negatively with brands online. To identify the context of data collection, existing literature related to the anti-brand and anti-brand community (12 articles) and studies on negative consumer engagement that identified ways to recruit participants (10 articles) were reviewed. As shown in Table 4.1 and 4.2 in Chapter 4, most studies selected anti-websites or anti-communities of strong global brands to approach people. Scholars indicate that strong, valuable and multinational brands are more likely to have hate attraction and be targeted for anti-brand sites (Kucuk, 2008; Krishnamurthy and Kucuk, 2009; Awasthi et al., 2012; Dessart et al., 2016b). Thus, the current research identified 146 strong and valuable global brands from Interbrand Top 100 Best Global Brands List (2018) and Millward Brown's BrandZ Top 100 Most Valuable Global Brands List (2018) (see Appendix 3).

Social media has become a popular context for consumer engagement in recent years (Stathopoulou et al., 2017). Kaplan and Haenlein (2010, p. 61) define social media as *'a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated*

Content'. Social media platforms (e.g., Facebook, Instagram) have been identified as popular contexts of online engagement (Stathopoulou et al., 2017). These platforms are increasingly taking up a larger share of consumers' online time (Lee et al., 2018a), and are registered by over 15 million global brands (Dolan et al., 2016; Bowden et al., 2017). Therefore, there are lots of brands on social media and an increasing number of consumers engage with them.

Two characteristics of social media make it suitable for this research. First, the interactive capabilities of social media can connect consumers with firms or brands, and finally facilitate consumer engagement (Hollebeek et al., 2014). Social media facilitates participation in social networks, thereby enabling users to create and share content, communicate with one another, and build relationships (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010, p. 312). Consumers can positively or negatively engage with the brand to create user-generated content (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Secondly, social media involves rich information about the brand, which also fosters consumer engagement (Tafesse, 2016).

Considering features and functions of different social media platforms, Facebook served as the specific context of this study because of the following reasons. First, Facebook is the largest and most widely used social media platform all over the world, with over 1 billion diverse users each month (Hodis et al., 2015; Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Lee et al., 2018a). Data show that there are 1.52 billion daily active users on average for December 2018 and 2.32 billion monthly active users on Facebook as of December 31, 2018 (Facebook, 2018). Second, unlike other social media platforms (e.g., Twitter restricts the length of tweets), Facebook posts contain various content attributes and rich data on consumer engagement (Lee et al., 2018a). Third, Facebook has more functions, for example, it allows users to express their different emotions to posts by simply pressing the button (e.g., Like, Love, Sad, Angry). Additionally, it requires real personal detail to sign up on Facebook, therefore data on user activity on Facebook are more reliable than on other platforms (Lee et al., 2018a; Facebook, 2019b).

After three meetings with two marketing experts, the researcher planned to approach people from online anti-brand groups/pages on Facebook, as they have two important features: highly involved and negatively engaged with brands in the online environment (Wong et al., 2018). Facebook groups provided a space to communicate about shared interests with certain people (Facebook, 2019a) and some Facebook pages were created by consumers to discuss

brand-related information (Facebook, 2019c). According to identified brands in Appendix 3, the corresponding anti-brand pages/groups were searched on Facebook by using a set of negative terms such as hate, anti and boycott. The type of keyword for searching was <negative term> brand name (e.g., hate Apple).

There are several inclusion and exclusion criteria for selecting appropriate Facebook brand pages/groups for this study. First, large (more than 100 members) and small (less than 100 members) brand groups/pages were searched separately, to approach more participants and get rich information. Second, the last post was within the past 12 months for large groups and within the past 6 months for small groups to ensure the activeness of selected communities. Also, the contents of posts in the group were related to negative information about specific brands and in English. As a result, a total of 40 brands and 107 large anti-brand groups/pages (see Appendix 4), and 18 brands and 24 small anti-brand groups/pages were selected (see Appendix 5).

Moderators of identified anti-brand groups/pages were contacted first to get their help to approach more members for the interview. In addition, interviews with moderators were valuable for the current research to get a deep insight into the negative online brand engagement phenomenon from managers' perspectives. Then, interviews with members were conducted to further explore how consumers engage negatively with the brand online and its triggers and outcomes.

Consumers may also engage negatively with brands in other online contexts. To get an in-depth understanding of negative online brand engagement, the current research examined consumers' negative online reviews of retail product brands by using online observation. According to Appendix 4, online retail product brands, which had anti-brand groups/pages on Facebook with more than 1000 members, were considered including Samsung, Apple, Sony, HP, Nike, Starbuck and Nestlé. Examining the same brands with the interviews is helpful to compare consumer engagement with the focal brand in different online contexts. Also, the more members in the anti-brand groups/pages, the more consumers are likely to negatively engage with the brand online. As a result, more critical reviews were found in the online environment.

5.3 Data collection

Qualitative data were collected from three sources including online observation (reviewing negative online reviews on Amazon), and interviews with moderators and members of identified Facebook anti-brand pages/groups. First, the procedures and results of online observation are explained. Then, this section illustrates the development of two interview guides, the procedures and participants of the interviews.

5.3.1 Online observation

The online observation was conducted to collect negative reviews of identified brands in the online environment (see section 5.2). As one of the world's largest e-commerce marketplaces, Amazon.co.uk was selected as the platform for searching for negative online reviews (SRG, 2019). Consumers' reviews on Amazon were ranked from 1 to 5 stars (with 1 star meaning least satisfied, 3 stars meaning neutral, and 5 stars meaning highest satisfied). Therefore, only 1 or 2-star reviews were selected to ensure the posts were related to negative consumer engagement.

Reviews of 'Samsung' and 'Apple' products on Amazon were searched for this study, as these two brands had more negative reviews than the other selected brands. Based on the product category (each product category includes different products) of these two brands, five product categories of Samsung and four product categories of Apple were searched and reviewed. The products with more negative reviews were selected which included different price ranges. These selected negative reviews were recorded in a word profile. Finally, 481 reviews of Samsung products (63450 words) and 173 reviews of Apple products (9660 words) are recorded respectively (see Table 5.1 and 5.2).

Table 5.1 Reviews related to Samsung on Amazon (by 20190903)

Product category	Product name	Price	Rating	Time	No. of reviews	No. of words
TV	Samsung UE49MU6500 49-Inch Curve TV	£479	1 star	20181013-20190703	2	77
			2 stars	20171030-20180106	2	347
	Samsung UE49NU7100 49-Inch Smart TV	£477	1 star	20180817-20190705	60	8975
			2 stars	20180904-20190513	24	4064
	Samsung UE55NU7400 55-Inch Smart TV	£550	1 star	20180922-20190625	38	4383
			2 stars	20180905-20190706	8	1567
Mobile phone	Samsung Smartphone Galaxy S8	£335	1 star	20170429-20190710	58	9006
			2 stars	20170609-20190628	23	5442
	Samsung Galaxy A7	£218	1 star	20190502-20190704	5	494
			2 stars	20190503-20190531	2	154
	Samsung Galaxy J6	£184	1 star	20181024-20190701	21	1990
			2 stars	20181016-20190615	6	664
	Samsung Galaxy S10+	£719	1 star	20190314-20190605	8	1575
Tablet	Samsung Galaxy Tab A	£149	1 star	20180527-20190711	40	3277
			2 stars	20180525-20190504	10	1348
	Samsung Galaxy Tab S4	£424	1 star	20181025-20190605	7	629
Earphone	Samsung Galaxy Buds	£116	1 star	20190326-20190709	25	2824
			2 stars	20190324-20190711	24	3587
Watch	Samsung Gear S3 Frontier Smartwatch	£170	1 star	20170104-20190702	76	8076
			2 stars	20170201-20190703	42	4971
Total	-	-	-	-	481	63450

Table 5.2 Reviews related to Apple on Amazon (by 20190903)

Product category	Product name	Price	Rating	Time	No. of reviews	No. of words
Mobile phone	Apple iPhone XS (64GB)	£949	1 star	20181029-20190626	8	454
			2 stars	20181210-20190202	3	670
	Apple iPhone X (64GB)	£710	1 star	20180226-20190414	11	1416
			2 stars	20180328-20190128	4	328
	Apple iPhone 8 (64 GB)	£599	1 star	20180120-20190424	12	432
			2 stars	20180706-20190123	2	114
	Apple iPhone 6s (32GB)	£299	1 star	20170204-20190818	10	821
			2 stars	20180103-20190201	4	356
Tablet	Apple iPad Pro (Wi-Fi, 256GB)	£1085	1 star	20190210-20190715	5	653
	Apple iPad (Wi-Fi, 32GB)	£300	1 star	20181214-20190720	12	874
			2 stars	20190205-20190428	3	76
Earphone	Apple Airpods with Wireless Charging Case	£169	1 star	20190624-20190813	7	516
			2 stars	20190708-20190709	2	86
	Apple EarPods with Lighting Connector	£27	1 star	20170222-20190820	72	1732
			2 stars	20170105-20190507	8	317
Watch	Apple Watch Series 4 (GPS, 40mm)	£389	1 star	20190715-20190820	4	295
	Apple Watch Series 3 (GPS, 38mm)	£279	1 star	20181205-20190803	6	520
Total	-	-	-	-	173	9660

5.3.2 Interview guide for moderators

To develop the interview guide for moderators of identified Facebook anti-brand pages/groups, the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement and the data collected from online observation were reviewed to see if there were previously used interview questions that could be adapted in this study and if findings from online observation could inform interview questions, which was the basis of developing the interview guide (step 1). Then, the most important stage was to formulate a good flow of interview questions. Four face-to-face meetings with two marketing managers were conducted to confirm the questions and the order of the questions (step 2). Also, the interview guide was sent to the researcher's colleagues, who are native speakers, to check grammar issues and if questions can be easily understood (step 3). After six revisions, the interview guide for moderators was finalised (see Appendix 6).

The guide for interviewing moderators was classified into four parts. Firstly, the history of the anti-brand community was discussed to warm up the conversation. This was followed by questions related to the role of the manager in this group. Then, questions on members' cognitions, emotions and behaviours in this group were asked to understand negative consumer engagement from the perspective of group managers. The final part of the interview guide included questions on the demographic information.

5.3.3 Interview guide for members

The researcher adopted the same process of developing the interview guide for moderators to develop the interview guide for members of identified Facebook anti-brand pages/groups. This process took longer than the previous one, as the objectives of interviewing members were to gain detailed information on negative online brand engagement (see Chapter 4). The literature on positive and negative consumer engagement and findings from online observation were the basis to develop questions in the interview guide (step 1). Two marketing managers provided valuable comments for the elaboration of the interview guide. Six face-to-face meetings were conducted to confirm the questions and formulate a good flow of interview questions (step 2). Then, the interview guide was sent to the researcher's colleagues, who are native speakers, to check grammar issues and if questions can be easily

understood (step 3). After seven revisions, the interview guide for members was completed (see Appendix 7).

The structure of the interview guide for members includes four parts. First, participants were asked to think about the brand they engage with. The questions were related to their cognitions, emotions and online behaviours with the brand, which is in line with the first objective of this research (i.e., conceptualise negative online brand engagement). In the second part, participants were asked to focus on the anti-brand communities they participate in, including their cognition, feelings and behaviours in these anti-brand communities. The third part focused on participants' perceptions of other members in their engaged anti-brand communities. The questions were related to their cognitions, feelings and behaviours toward group members, and their perceptions of how other members engage negatively online. Further, relating to the second and third objectives, the interview guides also included questions that can inform drivers and outcomes of negative consumer engagement in three parts of the interview guide. Demographic questions were included in the fourth part.

The role of interview guides is to allow researchers to guide interview data collection. The researcher used this guide to consider if the question is completed and if it is biased or leading. The actual interviews did not adhere to the guide exactly. The interview guide was adjusted to continually strengthen the flow and logic of the conversations during actual interviews.

5.3.4 Procedures of interviews

Participant recruitment for the interview is on a purposive basis, from moderators and members of identified Facebook anti-brand pages/groups. The purposive approach is a non-probability technique in which participants are selected based on a specific purpose (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). Participation is based on whether respondents meet the specific criteria described below.

Driven by ethical and practical considerations, participants should be over 18 years old and fluent in English. Considering the multinational nature of online brand communities (i.e., non-geographically bound communities) (Brodie et al., 2013; Hodis et al., 2015), the sample included respondents from a range of countries. Given the nature of negative consumer

engagement, this study focuses on highly involved consumers in anti-brand communities on Facebook. Highly involved consumers can be assessed by measuring the frequency (the number of times), intensity (the role of the participants and the volume of contributions) and duration (the length of interaction) of consumers' interactions within the online anti-brand community (Dessart et al., 2015). Sampling from highly engaged consumers in online brand communities represents a common research approach and has been deployed in previous studies (Brodie et al., 2013; Dessart et al., 2016a). Also, large groups with more members were first approached to gain a higher reply rate. Based on these criteria, 351 people were selected and approached including 209 moderators and 142 members.

Selected participants were contacted one by one through private messages on Facebook or via email. Before the interview, invitation letters were sent to participants separately to remind them of the general purpose of this research and the core themes of the interview. Also, participants were advised to read the Participant Information Sheet before the interview, which provided detailed information about the process of the interview. It emphasised that confidentiality would be strictly adhered according to the regulations of the University of Glasgow Ethics Committee. When the participant agreed to take part in the study, a consent form was signed upon the interviewee's agreement.

Interviews were conducted by the researcher in the UK mostly through online video calls over a period of three months from September to December 2019. The sampling progressed until theoretical saturation was reached. This is, when no new data, no new themes or no new coding emerged from the interviews (Fusch and Ness, 2015). In total, 25 semi-structured interviews were conducted including 10 with moderators and 15 with members of identified Facebook groups/pages.

These interviews lasting between 13-58 minutes were audio-recorded and transcribed (see Table 5.1). The interviews with moderators produced between 1669 and 5828 words each and a total of 40231 words of transcription. The interviews with members produced between 2472 and 5904 words each and a total of 54506 words of transcription. Two interviews with members were conducted by text as the participants have hearing issues. During each of these two interviews, the interviewer texted each question and sent it to the interviewee through Facebook Messenger and the transcription of the two interviews includes 960 and 1049 words respectively. The interviewees were given enough time to think and provide

answers to the questions.

5.3.5 Characteristics of participants for interviews

Of the 10 interviews with moderators, 3 participants were female and 7 were male. Participants were diverse in terms of age and nationality. The youngest interviewee belongs to the 26-35 age group, while the oldest belongs to the 56-65 age group. Of the 15 interviews with members, 5 participants were female and 10 were male. The youngest interviewee belongs to the 18-25 age group, while the oldest belongs to the 66-75 age group. This indicates that negative online brand engagement might appear independently of age. For anonymity purposes, the names of participants are presented as 'Moderator' if moderators or 'Member' if members or of anti-brand groups, followed by a number from 1 to 10 for moderators and from 1 to 15 for members (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Qualitative phase: respondents' demographics (10 moderators & 15 members)

No	Name	Gender	Nationality	Age Group	Employment	Facebook group	Number of words (transcript)	Interview duration (mins)
1	Moderator 1	F	US	36-45	At the hotel	I Hate Walmart With A Passion	4322	36
2	Moderator 2	M	UK	26-35	Engineer	We hate BT broadband speed/Openreach	5198	41
3	Moderator 3	F	UK	56-65	Manager	Nestle Boycott	1669	13
4	Moderator 4	M	US	26-35	Financial advisor	Boycott Disney's Star Wars	4771	35
5	Moderator 5	F	UK	56-65	Lecturer	Nestle Boycott	4352	28
6	Moderator 6	M	UK	56-65	Retired	BT broadband sucks	5828	39
7	Moderator 7	M	UK	26-35	Vehicle repair	I Hate Apple	3805	27
8	Moderator 8	M	Kuwait	26-35	Manager	I hate Google (page)	3272	23
9	Moderator 9	M	UK	36-45	Engineer	Boycott Amazon the tax avoiding pricks	1963	17
10	Moderator 10	M	UK	26-35	Insurance	Apple Sucks (page)	5051	35
11	Member 1	F	US	46-55	Bus driver	I Hate Walmart With A Passion	3587	30
12	Member 2	F	US	36-45	Social worker	I Hate Walmart With A Passion	5281	42
13	Member 3	M	UK	26-35	Fun expert	I Hate Apple	4615	37
14	Member 4	F	Canada	66-75	Retired	I Hate Walmart With A Passion	4692	53
15	Member 5	M	US	36-45	Engineer	I Hate Apple	5158	36
16	Member 6	M	UK	66-75	Retired	Nestle Boycott	2848	24
17	Member 7	M	Denmark	36-45	Engineer	I Hate Apple	4712	39
18	Member 8	M	UK	26-35	Self-employed	BT broadband sucks!	2774	22
19	Member 9	M	UK	26-35	Recycling officer	Nestle Boycott	2892	24
20	Member 10	M	US	46-55	Disabled	Nestle Boycott	5904	58
21	Member 11	F	UK	56-65	Library assistant	Nestle Boycott	5700	48
22	Member 12	M	US	46-55	IT tech	I Hate Apple	960	by text
23	Member 13	M	US	18-25	At grocery store	Nestle Boycott	2472	23
24	Member 14	M	Singapore	26-35	software consultant	I Hate Apple	3871	30
25	Member 15	F	UK	36-45	stay at home mother	Nestle Boycott	1049	by text

5.4 Qualitative data analysis

Thematic analysis was chosen to analyse the qualitative data including online observation and interview data (see Appendix 8). It refers to a method for identifying, analysing and interpreting patterns (themes) within qualitative data, which is regarded as a foundational method for qualitative analysis (Vaismoradi et al., 2013; Clarke and Braun, 2017). This qualitative approach to analysing data is considered to be reliable and involves the systematic identification of common points and ideas across the data (Vaismoradi et al., 2013).

One of the principal advantages of thematic analysis is its flexibility, which distinguishes it from most other qualitative analytic approaches (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Clarke and Braun, 2017). Unlike other methods of qualitative analysis (e.g., conversation analysis), which only allow limited variability of how methods are applied within the framework, the thematic analysis can be applied across a range of theoretical frameworks and research paradigms (Guest et al., 2012; Clarke and Braun, 2017). Some versions of thematic analysis were developed for use within (post)positivist frameworks (Guest et al., 2012). Therefore, thematic analysis is suitable for the current research which is driven by the post-positivist research approach.

It is also flexible to adopt thematic analysis in the process of data analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis offers systematic and accessible procedures for generating codes and themes from qualitative data (Clarke and Braun, 2017). Researchers can search for patterns of meaning and themes within the data, and at the same time move back and forward to the literature and data to ensure the data analysis is reliable and thorough (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In the process of data analysis, thematic analysis can be used to identify patterns within and across data concerning participants' experiences, views and practices to understand their thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Clarke and Braun, 2017). Consequently, thematic analysis was used in the study to explore the dimensionality, antecedences and outcomes of negative online brand engagement.

According to the phase of thematic analysis identified by Braun and Clarke (2006, p.87), this research followed six steps, including familiarising data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes and producing the report. The purpose of the analysis was to reveal explicit and latent themes that need further explanation (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). The qualitative data were analysed manually using

NVivo software and Excel form. The NVivo software is initially used to develop codes and themes. Then, the identified themes and quotes were summarised in Excel forms, which is helpful to write up findings.

In the initial round of coding, qualitative data were coded following a combination of inductive and deductive approaches. Drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement were mainly coded inductively, as very few studies focus on this matter. The dimensions and sub-dimensions of negative consumer engagement were mostly coded deductively. These data were compared with existing literature on consumer brand engagement which has identified dimensions and sub-dimension of consumer brand engagement. The dimensionality of negative consumer brand engagement is likely to be related to the negative side of dimensions of positive consumer engagement. This approach to coding is in line with the methodological guideline from Marks and Yardley's (2004) book, which indicates that no theme can be completely inductive or data-driven because researchers' knowledge and preconceptions will inevitably affect the way of coding.

The qualitative data analysis in the current research is an iterative process. The researcher reviewed the existing literature on consumer engagement and identified the original framework including the dimensionality, antecedents and outcomes of positive and negative consumer engagement. The researchers put aside the original framework and let the themes and sub-themes appear in the qualitative data. Then, the new themes and sub-themes were compared with the original framework, and the literature was reanalysed. This process was repeated, where the researcher compared the data with literature and grouped the subthemes into higher-order themes. The process of data analysis is a process of continuous improvement and retrospection of literature. New categories have emerged, and the codes have been classified most appropriately, to reflect the potential categories more closely. Some data may have multiple meanings for the current study, thereby they were coded in different ways and put into different themes. Codes were contrasted with the literature to ensure the coherence of their definitions. Finally, a new conceptual model was developed (see Chapter 7), which was supported by enough theoretical evidence.

5.5 Rigour in the qualitative research

To ensure the rigour and trustworthiness of qualitative design, the researcher adopted various strategies in the process of qualitative data collection and analysis. These actions were implemented to ensure the credibility and confirmability of qualitative data which was discussed in Hadi and Closs's (2016) study. Four principal methodological techniques were adopted in this research, including triangulation, self-reflection, member checking and audit trail (Hadi and Closs, 2016).

To ensure credibility and conformability, the study utilised widely used methods: data triangulation and self-reflection (Hadi and Closs, 2016; Creswell and Poth, 2018). In terms of data triangulation, this research adopted a combination of online observation and semi-structured interviews methods to collect qualitative data. These two methods are well established and widely used in the existing research (Saunders et al. 2016; Kozinets, 2020). Also, the qualitative phase was followed by quantitative data collection to confirm or disconfirm hypothetical relationships. Regarding the strategy of self-reflection (Long and Johnson, 2000), the researcher reflected on questions in the interview guides and discussed them with the researcher's supervisors. Based on the supervisor's suggestions, the two interview guides have been revised several times to avoid asking biased and leading questions to participants. Additionally, in the process of data collection and analysis, the researcher maintained a reflective journal to recognise and make explicit any personal biases.

Member checking was used to promote the credibility of research findings (Long and Johnson, 2000). After the data collection, several respondents were contacted to assess the accuracy of their interview transcripts and the researchers' interpretation of the quotes. Finally, an audit trail was adopted to demonstrate the truthfulness of the findings (Creswell and Miller, 2000). Two to three supervision meetings were arranged every month during the period of data collection and analysis. The detailed criteria of collecting qualitative data, recruiting participants and steps of analysing qualitative data were shown to two marketing experts who made their judgments about the quality, transferability and worth of this study.

The researcher also adopted other methods to ensure credibility and conformability. The purposive selection technique was used to recruit appropriate participants for the current research, which allowed the researcher to control data quality (Barbour, 2001; Stenbacka, 2001). Specifically, the qualitative phase involves recruiting participants (i.e., members and

moderators in the anti-brand groups/pages on Facebook) who were familiar with the research issues. To ensure honest answers (Shenton, 2004), participants were advised that the interview questions had no right or wrong answers. Also, participants were free to participate (not under pressure) and can withdraw at any time without giving any reason. In the process of interviews, the researcher allowed participants to speak freely to provide as much detail as possible without giving any disturbance, which can guarantee the conformability of the collected data.

5.6 Ethical considerations

Ethics approval for the interviews was sought from the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow, and the ethics approval number is 400180240. The project adopts an ethical position that assumes the researchers observe and protect the rights of would-be participants and systematically act to permit participants to exercise those rights. To this end, the interviews began by reminding the interviewees of the general purpose of the study along with the core themes of the interview. To reduce bias, the principal aim of the study was not shared with the informants. A Participant Information Sheet was provided to help them understand the content of the interview. When participants (over 18 years old) agreed to take part in the study, a Consent Form was signed upon the interviewee's agreement.

Participants were advised that confidentiality would be granted according to the regulations of the University of Glasgow Ethics Committee. It was also explained that the interview should not be longer than one hour, and they would be free to opt out at any time without redress. In addition, participants could request additional clarification about the process of the study if needed. Interview data were stored in the researcher's computer, which is password protected. The researcher would delete the collected electronic data on receiving the degree of PhD and completing related publications in 2030.

5.7 Chapter summary

The chapter detailed the steps followed in the planning and execution of the qualitative study.

The qualitative data of this research were collected by conducting online observation and interviews. Firstly, the researcher identified the data collection context (approach interview participants from Facebook anti-brand communities and collect negative online reviews of selected brands). Qualitative data were firstly collected from negative online reviews of 'Samsung' and 'Apple' products on Amazon. Then, two interview guides were developed, one was for moderators and the other was for members of identified Facebook anti-brand groups/pages. This study recruited moderators (10) and members (15) using the purposive sampling technique.

Thematic analysis was used to systematically identify, analyse and interpret patterns of ideas and meaning (common points or 'themes') of distinguishable dimensions, drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. Actions to guarantee credibility and confirmability of the qualitative study were implemented in the collection and analysis of the data, in line with the post-positivist paradigm. Finally, ethical considerations for conducting interviews were discussed and the ethics approval number was provided.

The appropriate design of the qualitative phase is valuable for the current study to gain rich insight into the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. This step is necessary to achieve three research objectives (i.e., conceptualise the negative online brand engagement and identify its antecedents and outcomes). The findings of the qualitative study were discussed in Chapter 6, which is an important basis for building the conceptual model in Chapter 7.

Chapter 6 Findings - qualitative phase

6.1 Introduction

Given the scarcity of literature on negative consumer engagement (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a) (discussed in Chapter 2), it was necessary to adopt exploratory qualitative methods to reveal this phenomenon. This chapter presents results from the qualitative study (online observation, interviews with moderators and members of online anti-brand communities) related to the dimensions, antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. The qualitative findings are relevant for determining the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement and developing the conceptual model (see Chapter 7).

This chapter opens with findings concerning the dimensions and sub-dimensions of negative online brand engagement. Then, consumers' motivations to engage negatively with a brand online are presented. Next, outcomes of negative online brand engagement are depicted. Also, the implications of the qualitative study findings are discussed. Finally, key points addressed in the chapter are summarised.

6.2 Dimensionality of negative online brand engagement

Investigating the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement was crucial to answering the RQ1 and finding a suitable manner to measure the phenomenon. The combination of literature review and qualitative data indicates the existence of three dimensions of negative online brand engagement (cognitive, affective, behavioural) and each dimension has two sub-dimensions (see Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1 Dimension and sub-dimensions of negative online brand engagement
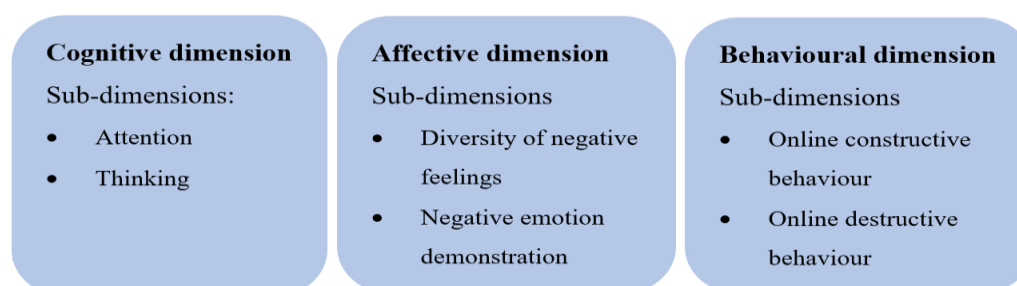
6.2.1 Dimension 1: Cognitive engagement

Cognitive engagement was evidenced in the interview and online observation as a key component of negative online brand engagement. The findings suggest that negative cognitive engagement includes two parts: being aware of and concentrating on the brand. For example, a member (Member 11, 58) of the 'Nestle Boycott' group mentioned that:

> *'I got to sort of late teens and I started to find out about issues, and then I became aware of the baby milk. So, I guess that's probably the first time I was aware of them as a brand'* (Member 11, 58).

Also, consumers may become fully concentrated and happily immersed in the negative aspects of the focal brand, whereby feel time flies and have difficulties detaching from it. A member (Member 5, 44) of the 'I Hate Apple' group indicated that:

> *'Well, it can be time-consuming, not because the group is difficult to manage, it because I can get sucked into it'* (Member 5, 44).

Existing literature on consumer engagement defines the cognitive dimension as the degree of thought processing and elaboration in particular interaction with the engagement object (Fang, 2017; Stathopoulou et al., 2017). Dessart et al. (2015, 2016a) identify two sub-dimensions of cognitive engagement (i.e., attention, absorption) and indicate that the cognitive dimension refers to a set of enduring and active mental states that a consumer experiences concerning the focal object of his/her engagement. Accordingly, cognitive engagement includes two steps: the process of getting attention and concentration on the engagement object.

Hollebeek and Chen (2014, p. 66) focus on both sides of consumer brand engagement and define that cognitive engagement as *'the level of a consumer's positively/negatively valenced brand-related thoughts, concentration and reflection in specific brand interactions'*. Regarding negative consumer engagement literature (Naumann et al., 2017a), cognitive engagement can be defined as the intensity of a consumer's negative thoughts, absorption and reflection on the engagement object. This means that negatively engaged consumers have negatively valenced enduring and mental activation processes.

Based on the qualitative findings and definitions of cognitive engagement in previous

literature, the cognitive dimension is defined as the level of a consumer's negatively valenced brand-related attention and thinking.

Attention

The interview data show that negative online brand engagement started with consumers' attention to the brand. When discussing 'how the group was created' with moderator 10, he indicated that he started to notice the issues of Apple and Google, which made him feel disgusted.

> *'...as the years progressed, I started to realise that, you know, Google is now attracted to that to the way Apple does this business which kind of puts me off'* (Moderator 10, 31).

In the interviews with members, participants expressed that their brand engagement started with their first attention to the brand which can be triggered by many elements such as logo, price, issues and business practice. For example, the interviewee (Member 11, 58) mentioned that the baby milk issue of Nestle made her aware of it as a brand.

> *'I got to sort of late teens and I started to find out about issues, and then I became aware of the baby milk. So, I guess that's probably the first time I was aware of them as a brand'* (Member 11, 58).

A member (Member 2, 42) of the 'I Hate Walmart with A Passion' group mentioned that the unreasonable employment practices of Walmart made her start to pay attention to this company.

> *'Attracted my attention, I first started to hate Walmart and I know hate is a very strong word, was when I learned about their employment practices, they purposely hire people who they do not employ full time. So, they do not have to give them many benefits'* (Member 2, 42).

According to online observation, negative online product reviews are usually related to product or service defects. Consumers may pay attention to the high price, poor quality or unfavourable design of the brand's product. A negative review of the Samsung tablet

(Samsung 1) shows that the unsightly design of the tablet attracts the consumer's attention.

'The first impression of the Tab A in white was cheap and nasty.' (Samsung 1)

All issues discussed above that attract consumers' attention are the negative aspects of the brand. However, members of anti-brand groups also can be attracted by positive aspects of the brand in the first place. A participant in the 'I Hate Apple' group mentioned that at the very beginning, the ideal design and desirable value of the iPhone made him pay attention to the brand.

'...around 2011 or 2012, I purchased my first Android phone. At the time, I believe, Android was just released to the market. So, one of my colleagues had purchased iPhone. So, when I tried to use that iPhone, it looked much better than the Android phone that I possessed. And the Android phone I had was a flagship high-end Android phone, but even the high-end phone was not as good as the Apple smartphone. The other thing is the desired value. So, at the time, if you owned the Apple phone, it looked like a very brilliant thing. So, people respect you.' (Member 14, 31).

Attention can be generally defined as the concentration of our internal resources and state of consciousness (Cohen, 2014). As a central theme in psychological science, attention refers to individuals' focus on selected elements in priority of others, which is a situational and state-dependent concept (Raz, 2004; Cohen, 2014). In organisational science, Ocasio (2011) classifies attention into three types based on the focus of structure, process and outcomes: attentional perspective (i.e., top-down cognitive structures that generate heightened awareness), attentional engagement (i.e., the process of allocation of cognitive resources to make the decision and solve the problem) and attentional selection (i.e., the outcome of attentional processes that result in focusing on focal things and excluding others). Accordingly, attention is related to the degree of an individual's heightened focus on selected items under a certain context.

In the consumer engagement literature, attention is identified as a sub-dimension of cognitive engagement (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a), which is relevant to consumers' focus on and cognitive process to interact with selected engagement objects. Specifically, Vivek et al. (2014) indicate that attention is the degree of people's interest or wishes to interact with the engagement focus. Other scholars reveal that attention is *'the*

cognitive availability and amount of time spent actively thinking about and being attentive to the focus of engagement' (Dessart et al., 2015, p. 35). Both definitions reflect the intensity of attention and emphasise the feature of cognitive availability. In addition, the definition in Dessart et al.'s (2015) study stresses that attention is a thinking process on selected stimuli. This is because the highly engaged consumer will be attracted by the engagement object first and then start thinking about and cognitively interacting with it (Dessart et al., 2016a).

Attention could be regarded as the initial step of negative cognitive engagement. Accordingly, consumers' negative cognitive engagement started with their first attention or notice of the brand which could be on either positive or negative components of the brand. Many negatively engaged consumers initially focus on positive aspects of brands, this is why many of them were former owners of the brand's products. However, only attention to negative aspects of brands can be further developed into a higher level of negative cognitive engagement. Accordingly, attention is the extent of a consumer being attentive to the negative side of selected engagement focus under certain situations.

In this study, attention is relevant to the first step of Dessart et al.'s (2015) definition: being attracted by the engagement object. This is because negatively engaged consumers may only be attracted by some negative information about the brand but not think about it. As a sub-dimension of negative cognitive engagement, attention is defined as the extent of a consumer being negatively attended to the brand in the online environment.

Thinking

Consumers with negative attention may further consider issues or negative information about the engaged brand. Thinking was evidenced in the qualitative data as a key component of negative cognitive engagement.

In the interviews with moderators, participants mentioned that they think about issues related to the brand in detail and believe that members in their group also have the same thinking process. For example, a moderator (Moderator 4, 30) of 'Boycott Disney's Star Wars' group expressed that members in the group might think about problems of the Star Wars story. While a moderator (Moderator 1, 39) of the 'I Hate Walmart With A Passion' group mentioned that she considered issues of Walmart such as poor product quality and unethical

business practices.

> *'They thought that the overall storytelling was so poor, that it needs to be recognized that it was poor storytelling. And it really ruined their Star Wars experience'* (Moderator 4, 30).

> *'it's a principle of a corporate politics have exponential profit growth and the only way to do that is to have lower-quality products and to exploit your workers more and more. Umm… they take their business overseas because they can pay pennies instead of dollars'* (Moderator 1, 39).

The findings from interviews with members suggest that when consumers realise issues or problems of the brand, they will further think about these problems in detail. A member (Member 6, 67) in the 'Nestle Boycott' group mentioned that he realised the brand because of its unethical business practices and after that, he became more aware of this company and think more about its issues. Additionally, a member (Member 14, 31) of the 'I Hate Apple' group indicated that he would think about problems of Apple's product quality, and reasons and solutions to these problems.

> *'I'm mainly interested in it because of some traumatic experiences I have mentioned in the bottle-feeding advertising campaign. But since then, I have just been coming more and more aware of this company… I become aware of the way that they are privatizing water. No water now, they don't produce water, they produce plastic bottles and in which causing some air pollution.'* (Member 6, 67).

> *'I would think Apple should change their strategy to focus more on product quality, rather than searching after profits. So, that was not Steve Jobs' way, he…Steve Jobs, of course, cared about money, but he was not just chasing after profits. He had a vision. I feel the company has lost its vision and it should search define the true meaning of its existence'* (Member 14, 31).

Like the views of members from the 'I Hate Apple' group, the online observation shows that consumers may think about product or service issues of the focal brand. By way of illustration, a consumer of the Samsung smartwatch indicated that the smartwatch was difficult to use because of restrictions from Samsung (Samsung 2). Also, another consumer of Samsung TV thinks the smart design of the TV is useless, which may ruin the user

experience (Samsung 3).

> *'Samsung limits the watch too much and forces you to use what they want. This isn't right'* (Samsung 2).

> *'Honestly, I don't understand the obsession of some producers these days with making things smart and voice-controlled. It really isn't more ergonomic. Takes longer, is more prone to error. So that the marketing blurb sounds more impressive? And I say this as a software developer, so it's not like I normally struggle with tech inventions. It's just I like them to make sense and improve my experience. Talking to my TV in the middle of the movie does not, in fact, it ruins it'* (Samsung 3).

Interviewees also indicated that they may become fully concentrated and spend a lot of time on negative aspects of the brand, whereby feel time flies and have difficulties with detaching from it. This reflects a higher level of thinking. For example, a member (Member 5, 44) of the 'I Hate Apple' group indicated that managing and interacting with the brand in this anti-Apple group was time-consuming. He was fully concentrated on the information related to the brand, thereby feeling time flies.

> *'Well, it can be time-consuming. Not because the group is difficult to manage, is because I can get sucked into it'* (Member 5, 44).

Some members mentioned that they usually spend a lot of time on anti-brand groups. For example, a member (Member 3, 34) of the 'I Hate Apple' group indicated that he would check and read interesting posts about Apple in this group every day and immerse in it. Similarly, a member (Member 9, 30) of the 'Nestle Boycott' group indicated that he focused on issues of Nestle and would spend as much time as he need in this anti-Nestle group.

> *'I'd say anywhere between 10 and 30 minutes a day, just like a meeting, just like…because members will post, I'll just check if there are more interesting posts and I'll read them, two or three parts of something, a day. Especially, it's like you click on one link and then you go down the rabbit hole.'* (Member 3, 34).

> *'As much as I need to. I do sometimes share things involving Nestle…It depends on what I'm thinking right now because I've got my focus on many concerns and causes.'* (Member 9, 30).

The qualitative data clearly explained consumers' increasing awareness and the process of thinking about brand-related issues in detail. Therefore, thinking can be regarded as a sub-dimension of negative cognitive engagement.

In the consumer engagement literature, thinking is identified as a part of attention by Dessart et al. (2015). Specifically, after being attracted by the engagement object, actively engaged consumers will spend more time considering it (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a). Based on the Cambridge English Dictionary, thinking can be defined as *'to use the brain to plan something, solve a problem, understand a situation'*. Accordingly, thinking is a separate concept from attention.

In the current study, thinking is identified as the next step of attention, which reflects a higher level of negative cognitive engagement. The negatively engaged consumer will think about issues related to the focal brand. Therefore, think is considered as the extent of a consumer considering negatively of a brand in their mind.

6.2.2 Dimension 2: Affective engagement

The qualitative data evidenced that consumer affective engagement is a dimension of negative online brand engagement. A moderator (Moderator 9, 45) in the 'Boycott Amazon the tax avoiding pricks' group mentioned that members in anti-brand communities have strong negative feelings about Amazon. Similarly, the moderator (Moderator 6, 62) of 'BT broadband sucks!' indicated that members in this group had very strong negative feelings toward BT because they were treated badly. A member (Member 10, 53) from the 'Nestle Boycott' group also indicated that he had very strong negative feelings towards Nestle.

> *'Yeah, I mean, they hate him. You know this is a company that is ripping them off for a lot of money and running around and that is not a very nice way to treat people. So, I think the response is pretty negative'* (Moderator 6, 62).

> *'I very much dislike them. Yeah. I have fairly strong feelings towards them at this point.'* (Member 10, 53).

In addition, the moderator in 'I Hate Walmart with a Passion' group (Moderator 1, 39)

explained that:

> *'Like I said, especially the ones who are there for political reasons and the ones who were former employees definitely feel strongly about the fact that Walmart should not exist'* (Moderator 1, 39).

The moderator (Moderator 4, 30) of the 'Boycott Disney' group used the word 'hatred' to describe their feelings toward Disney. Similarly, the moderator (Moderator 7, 34) in the 'I Hate Apple' group illustrated that all members of this group hate Apple.

> *'hatred. That's how they feel toward Disney. They hate it'* (Moderator 4, 30).

> *'...generally speaking, people come in, who have either always hated Apple or have just hated...started hating Apple... I think they all hate Apple, that's for sure'* (Moderator 7, 34).

Most existing literature on consumer engagement regards the affective dimension as consumers' positive emotions toward the engagement object (Raïes et al., 2015; Baldus et al., 2015). For example, Dessart et al. (2015) define affective engagement as the summative and enduring levels of emotions experienced by a consumer with respect to his/her engagement focus and identify its two sub-dimensions including enthusiasm and enjoyment. Hollebeek et al., (2014) focus on consumer brand engagement and define the emotional dimension as a consumer's degree of positive brand-related affect in a particular consumer/brand interaction.

Hollebeek and Chen (2014)'s definition of the affective dimension includes both sides which refer to the degree of a consumer's positively or negatively valenced brand-related affect exhibited in particular brand interactions. In negative consumer engagement literature, Naumann et al. (2017a) indicate that the affective dimension of negative engagement is captured by the feelings of anger and hatred respondents hold toward their service provider.

Based on the qualitative findings and previous literature, negative affective engagement is related to the degree of consumer's negative emotions and feelings toward the engagement object (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a). A fundamental difference between emotions and feelings is that feelings are experienced consciously, while emotions manifest either consciously or subconsciously (Micu and Plummer, 2010; Hadinejad et al.,

2019). Emotions are neurophysiological reactions unleashed by an external or internal stimulus (emotions are physical), while feelings are a self-perception of specific emotions, being a subjective expression of emotions (feelings are mental) (Micu and Plummer, 2010). As an unconscious mind, a consumer's emotions should be measured with related equipment (Micu and Plummer, 2010; Hadinejad et al., 2019).

The researcher defines the affective dimension as the degree of a consumer's negative feelings and emotions toward the brand (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann, 2020). Considering ways to measure the affective dimension, two sub-dimensions are identified: diversity of negative feelings and negative emotion demonstration.

Diversity of negative feelings

First, various negative feelings about the brand have been identified in the qualitative data. A member (Member 11, 58) in the 'Nestle Boycott' group expressed that she felt angry toward Nestle.

> *'I respond with either a like or an angry face [laugh]. I never do the sad face, because I'm not sad, I'm angry. You know, it's no good just being sad and giving odious absorb, you have got to be angry, and you know that I think anger channels action more than just being sad. So, I had to do a like or angry'* (Member 11, 58).

The moderator (Moderator 2, 28) of the 'We hate BT broadband speed/openreach' group expressed that he felt frustrated with BT because of its unfavourable customer service.

> *'I have some problems with the existing service provision at my previous address. I was getting very frustrated with the lack of action from the BT and particularly Openreach… I don't work for BT, I occasionally have to deal with Openreach to do my job, while I find this frustrates me the most of the time as everybody else… Oh, yes. I think most of the emotions running through are frustration'* (Moderator 2, 28).

A member (Member 2, 42) in this group mentioned that the business practice of Walmart made her feel sad and depressed.

> *'…in sometimes even children are working in their sweatshops… And it's my*

understanding that some of those people who work very long hours are not allowed to go to the bathroom. Women cannot go to the restroom, when they're menstruating, to manage their hygiene…Not only do we lose employment here by making those products ourselves, but the quality of employment for the people who are making those products is disheartening. It's very sad, it's depressing' (Member 2, 42).

An informant (Member 5, 44) from the 'I Hate Apple' group expressed that he was disappointed with the brand's products and performance.

'And I am also disappointed in the way that they behave… I think they are holding the industry back in a lot of ways' (Member 5, 44).

The feeling of regret was identified from the online observation, where numerous consumers mentioned that they felt regret because of their wrong purchase decision. For example, an Apple customer regrets buying the Apple watch because the function is useless. In addition, the consumer feels worried about Samsung products because of their quality issues (Samsung 4).

'This was not my best buy, but it had to fit into an alcove and was the biggest I could get to fit in the space, I had my doubts as soon as I powered it on but now after a panel failure after just 3 months I am worried about its longevity (Samsung 4).

Accordingly, negative affective engagement includes a range of negative feelings (i.e., anger, frustration, sadness, disappointment, regret, worry). Consumers may develop active (e.g., anger) and passive (e.g., disappointment) negative feelings toward the focal brand. It reflects the different levels of negative affective engagement. Thus, diversity of negative feelings refers to the collection of consumers' overall negative feelings about the brand.

Negative emotion demonstration

Another sub-dimension of the affective dimension evidenced by the qualitative data relates to consumers' demonstration of their negative emotions. Interviewees have identified different ways to demonstrate their negative emotions. The member (Member 14, 31) of the 'I Hate Apple' group illustrated his unfavourable experience of using the iPhone. He mentioned that he threw the phone to the ground to express his negative emotions.

'So, in just a year, the phone started becoming very slow. And it was basically to the point of unusable. So, I remember I was so frustrated, I just threw the phone down on the ground' (Member 14, 31).

The data from online observation show a lot of customers expressed their anger at products of Apple or Samsung in the online reviews through using words, punctuation and emoji. For example, a consumer of Apple used the word 'rubbish', many exclamation marks and angry faces to express his inner anger (Apple 1). Similarly, another review reflects the consumer's anger toward Samsung by using the word 'terrible' and lots of exclamation marks (Samsung 5). Also, these two online reviews included capital letters to emphasize their anger.

'ABSOLUTE RUBBISH!!!!!!!!! BROKE AFTER A WEEK OF USING THEM! WHAT........A........WASTE.......OF........MONEY 😡 😡 😡 *'* (Apple 1).

'The connection is TERRIBLE!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!' (Samsung 5).

Therefore, negatively engaged consumers would adopt different ways to show their negative emotions to others. In this study, negative emotion demonstration is considered as the extent of consumers consciously surface their negative emotions.

6.2.3 Dimension 3: Behavioural engagement

The behavioural dimension of negative online brand engagement was prominent in the qualitative data. The data show that negative behavioural engagement with the brand includes a range of negative behaviours (e.g., destruction, expressing negative). A member (Member 1, 48) of the 'I Hate Walmart with A Passion' group indicated that people talked about terrible or improper things about Walmart.

'there are people that get on the group and they talk about how they used to work for Walmart and all the terrible things that Walmart did...' (Member 1, 48).

Consumer behaviour is identified as a dimension of consumer engagement in the majority of studies on consumer engagement (e.g., Dessart et al., 2016a; Tuškej and Podnar, 2018). Most existing consumer engagement literature focuses on the positive side of behavioural engagement and defines it as consumers' behavioural manifestations to the engagement

focus, going beyond purchase (e.g., Van Doorn et al. 2010; Verhoef et al. 2010; Kaltcheva et al., 2014; de Villiers, 2015). For example, Dessart et al. (2015, 2016a) define the behavioural dimension as the behavioural manifestations toward an engagement focus, beyond purchase, which results from motivational drivers. Some scholars have identified consumer behavioural engagement as a consumer's investment and voluntary behaviours. Hollebeek and Chen (2014) focus on both sides of consumer brand engagement and reveal that the behavioural dimension represents consumers' positively/negatively valenced level of energy, effort and time spent on a brand in particular brand interactions.

In negative consumer engagement literature, many scholars agree with Hollebeek and Chen (2014) and define it as the intensity of consumers' negatively valenced behavioural investment to the engagement focus. Bowden et al. (2017) indicate that the behavioural dimension is relevant to consumers' willingness to enact negative activation. However, the behavioural dimension should focus more on the actual behaviours rather than the consumer's willingness. Naumann et al. (2017a) indicate that the behavioural dimension of negative consumer engagement manifests through collective complaint behaviour and value co-destruction. It reflects that negative and punitive actions can be constructive or destructive, with the former behaviours aiming to solve problems, change wrongdoings and sustain the relationship, whereas the latter intends to harm the engagement object (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Kim and Lim, 2020).

Online behavioural engagement refers to the consumer's negatively valenced constructive and destructive behaviours to a brand in the online environment. Accordingly, the negative behavioural dimension has two sub-dimensions including online constructive behaviour and online destructive behaviour.

Online constructive behaviour

Consumer constructive behaviour was evidenced from the qualitative data as a sub-dimension of negative online behavioural engagement. A member (Member 2, 42) of the 'I Hate Walmart with A Passion' group mentioned that she wrote emails to Walmart to complain about her unfavourable experience, which could help Walmart to improve its service quality. Complaints may not only be negative but also be viewed as constructive behaviour for the

company, as useful information can be provided to learn mistakes (Min et al., 2019).

> *'I emailed them and was not very kind, to be honest, about my experience. I ordered an item and could not get it delivered to me or the store. They told me then to go to the store to order it. I went to the store they said no, we don't do that. So, I got to run around for about a week trying to order a lens that I wanted and was never able to make the purchase'* (Member 2, 42).

Members share their own opinions or experience related to the focal brand in online groups to make the company get notice of the issue. For example, the member (Member 5, 44) of the 'I Hate Apple' group shared his negative views of Apple in the group, intending to get Apple to notice it.

> *'I've written many multi-paragraph essays in the group, so if Apple is monitoring the group or anything like that, then they have certainly gotten my opinion in that respect. I have written all sorts of stuff about why Apple is no good using examples and citing articles or something, talking about how exploitive they are'* (Member 5, 44).

The data from online observation also reflect consumers' constructive behaviour (i.e., posting negative online reviews). These negative online reviews are mostly related to product or service issues and unfavourable experiences with the brand, which can help the company to improve its products or services.

> *'It started off working OK, but within hours the screen locked and the waiting circle log in the middle of a black screen kicked in....and ran for 12 hours during which time I could not do anything - no restart/shutdown option'* (Apple 2).

> *'When I opened the phone, everything looked fine and was working well. However, during the initial set up the phone suddenly switched off and will now not respond to anything. I have tried resetting it and holding down the power button, but nothing works. When I plug in the charger, the LED doesn't light up and after a few hours, nothing has changed'* (Samsung 6).

Past studies argued that consumers with constructive behaviours (e.g., demonstrations, temporary boycotts) aim to rectify the problem, change firm wrongdoings and sustain the relationship, which may be helpful for the improvement of firm performance (Romani et al.,

2013; Naumann et al., 2017b). In this study, online constructive behaviour is considered as consumers' positively oriented online actions to solve the brand's problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand (Kim and Lim, 2020).

Online destructive behaviour

According to the interview data, people in online anti-brand groups have destructive behaviours which can be aggressive and harmful to the brand. A moderator (Moderator 1, 39) of the 'I Hate Walmart with A Passion' group indicated that members can be aggressive. A moderator (Moderator 3, 61) of the 'Nestle Boycott' group described how members in this group were actively against Nestle.

> *'Sometimes, people can be a little aggressive but, you know, it is I hate Walmart with a passion, so people have that passion…'* (Moderator 1, 39)

> *'It ended up with a logo that said, killer Kit Kat, I think, and several members change their pro-Facebook profile to the killer profile and posted on Nestle's Facebook page'* (Moderator 3, 61).

The data from online observation also show that consumers have destructive behaviours toward the brand, particularly after experiencing unfavourable products or services. For example, many consumers of Samsung products expressed that they gave a lower star in online reviews (Samsung 7), which can be regarded as an active behaviour to destroy the brand.

> *'I have altered my original rating from 4 down to 2 stars. After owning the buds for 5 weeks, using them probably 5 times a week in the gym, the left bud has stopped working correctly'* (Samsung 7).

Most existing studies on negative consumer engagement focus on destructive behaviour. Destruction behaviour refers to consumers taking actions jointly against the engagement object (Naumann et al., 2017a). Zhang et al. (2018) indicate that destruction involves negative aggressive engagement behaviours such as consumer revenge and warnings to others. Gebauer et al. (2013) identify several destructive behaviours including negative

WOM, conflicts with other community members, re-creating brand image to harm its reputation, and recruiting other members to spread brand hatred.

A study on social media context explains that destructive consumers will actively spread negative content on social media brand pages to interact with the brand, other consumers and the general public (Dolan et al., 2016). For example, car consumers will destroy the value of the firm if they blame the firm for problems and damage the image of the firm by communicating adverse opinions to others through negative WOM (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). The current study adopts Plé and Cáceres's (2010) work and defined online destructive behaviour as the consumer's negatively oriented online actions to harm the brand considering one's own concerns.

6.3 Drivers of negative online brand engagement

In line with the RQ2, one of the aims of this study is to investigate the antecedent variables that drive the development of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. Qualitative data were mainly used to determine such antecedent variables, as the analysis of the literature provided limited evidence on the matter. The analysis of the qualitative data revealed a total of six drivers that give rise to negative online brand engagement. These six drivers were divided into three themes: brand-related drivers, consumer-related drivers and other brands (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Drivers of negative online brand engagement

Brand-related
- Perceived brand quality
- Brand failure severity
- Unacceptable brand behaviour

Consumer-related
- Anti-consumption in general
- Consumer brand disidentification

Other brands
- Oppositional attitudinal loyalty
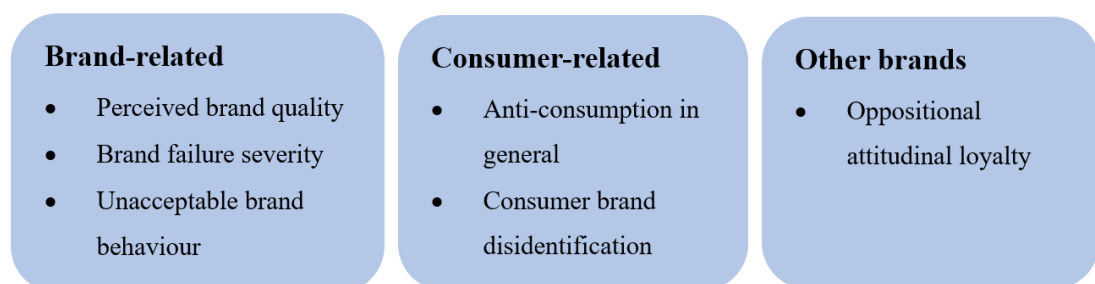
6.3.1 Theme 1: Brand-related drivers

The qualitative data analysis indicates that three brand-related drivers of negative online brand engagement, (see Figure 6.2) can drive negative online brand engagement. All these drivers seem to be directly connected with negative online brand engagement. Exploratory data findings for each driver of this category are explained below.

Perceived brand quality

The qualitative data seem to expose the importance of perceived brand quality in the development of negative online brand engagement. Prior studies defined perceived brand quality as the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml, 1988; Boisvert and Ashill, 2011; Liu et al., 2014; Vera, 2015; Dens and Pelsmacker, 2016; Papadimitriou et al., 2016; Bazi et al., 2020). The qualitative data show that poor service quality (e.g., the failure to resolve customer issues promptly and poor service attitude) motivates negative online brand engagement. For example, the moderator (Moderator 6, 62) of the 'BT broadband suck' group indicates that people negatively engage with BT because customer service cannot help to fix their issues. The moderator (Moderator 7, 34) of the 'I Hate Apple' group mentions that the poor attitude of sales staff in the Apple store makes him hate Apple.

> *'We are all extremely frustrated because they are paying for something they are not getting. They are not getting high-speed broadband, even though that's what was sold to them. So, that's fraud in the first place. But the second thing is they cannot get any help or any answers to fix it. So, there is a big breakdown between the people who are paying for the service, and the people who are providing it'* (Moderator 6, 62).

> *'They think it is a bit too clinical. Uhm…you know, if you look at Apple's stores, they look a little bit like futuristic hospitals, they are not very warm'* (Moderator 7, 34).

Perceived product quality also reflects consumers' judgement about a brand's product including prices, product design and existing problems. For example, a member (Member 11, 58) of the 'Nestle Boycott' group mentioned that:

> *'The fact that their products, I mean, all of the products that they make are not good*

quality products. They are fast food, they are confectionery. Their cereals are really bad for children, they are the ones that are full of sugar' (Member 11, 58).

In addition, the data from online observation show that:

'Wasn't worth the money that I paid' (Samsung 8).

'Neither the microphone nor the speakers on this telephone work properly' (Apple 3).

Perceived brand quality was noticed as an antecedent of negative online brand engagement across the interviews and was one of the motivations mentioned in the existing literature. Interviewees from different online anti-brand communities and people who write negative online reviews discussed their perceived quality of certain brands. This implies that perceived brand quality might be one of the antecedent variables that drive the development of negative online brand engagement.

Brand failure severity

Previous research suggests that brand failure severity centres around consumers' perceived intensity of loss (e.g., money, time) from product or service failure (Fox et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). The more intense or severe the service or product problem is, the greater the customer's perceived losses are (Wang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020).

Brand failure severity was considered by interviewees to cause the appearance of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. A moderator (Moderator 2, 28) of 'We hate BT broadband speed/Openreach' indicated that service issues made him feel frustrated. In addition, the member (Member 12, 49) of the 'I Hate Apple' group mentioned that problems with Apple products can cause inconvenience.

'I was having some problems with the existing service provision at my previous address. I was getting very frustrated with the lack of action from the BT and particularly Openreach' (Moderator 2, 28).

'All their products are difficult or impossible to repair, the hardware they use is the same as a Microsoft machine, but costs 5x the amount' (Member 12, 49).

There is also evidence from the online observation that brand failure severity can lead to

negative online brand engagement. The brand failure discussed below is related to the poor products or services of certain brands.

> *'Apple have virtually zero customer service. Plus, they use UPS for warranty returns and there are only 3 drop off points in the whole country!'* (Apple 4)

> *'The speakers are god awful. The sound is muffled and sounds very cheap. I cannot even get through YouTube videos without noticing how bad the speakers are. The earphones that come with the phone is god awful as well. Seriously the quality is less than what you would get from a 99p shop'* (Samsung 9).

> *'The Samsung service has been terrible. They have broken promised about getting back in touch and doing everything to refuse to fix the problem'* (Samsung 10).

> *'I have cracked the back of this phone, and repair prices from an official retailer will cost a surplus of £200, which is ridiculous for some glass'* (Samsung 11).

In summary, consumers perceived severity of brand failure is related to their negative feeling and behaviours towards the brand. This suggests that brand failure severity is behind the negative online brand engagement phenomenon.

Unacceptable brand behaviour

Unacceptable brand behaviour is commonly defined as consumer perceived ethical or moral violations, which may bring harm to an organisation's stakeholders (Romani et al., 2013; Karaosmanoglu and Isiksal, 2018). Existing literature uses various concepts to represent the brand's unacceptable behaviour, such as corporate wrongdoing, ideological incompatibility, corporate misconduct and brand transgression (e.g., Lindenmeier et al., 2012; Fetscherin and Sampedro 2019; Kim et al., 2019a, 2019b).

Interview data suggest that consumers' perceived ethical or moral violations caused by a brand are motivators of negative online brand engagement. A moderator (Moderator 5, 58) of the 'Nestle boycott' group indicated that unethical behaviours of Nestle cause negative online engagement. Similarly, a member (Member 11, 58) in the same group also mentioned unethical issues with Nestle.

> *'Boycott Nestle started because they were pushing their baby formula in developing*

countries against World Health Organization regulations. So, that is how it started. That is the biggest part or has been until quite recently the biggest part of the Nestle boycott. There are others who boycott Nestle because they allow child labour in their supply chains. There are people who boycott Nestle because they take water from areas where they need it, like Tanzania, California and sell it in bottles to people who don't need it' (Moderator 5, 58).

'I think the boycott started in 1977 because of the baby milk issue… There are so many issues with them. They are the issues of the palm oil, issues of plastic pollution, issues of child slavery in the chocolate production, and apparently adult slavery something to do with fishing…the water issues in California and the water appropriation' (Member 11, 58).

Another moderator (Moderator 9, 45) expressed that Amazon's harmful behaviour to society leads to negative online engagement.

'Amazon is removing money that would otherwise be available for public services by having tax regimes that are convenient for them but not very good in society. So, they like taking from the societies they work in, but they do not give to societies. It is about worker rights, good treatment of the workers in their warehouses' (Moderator 9, 45).

It is also evident from the online observation:

'Apple has been providing software updates for customers with older Apple products in order to slow down the performance of their Apple products, making customers believe they need to replace their Apple products with new Apple products. This scandal has been reported in the mainstream media and there are plans to bring a class action against Apple for this immoral practice. Many customers cannot afford a replacement and would like their phone to last as long as possible and what you get is the manufacturer these customers trusted giving them updates to slow down their product and ultimately profit from it and there are privacy concerns and backdoor access issues with this smartphone' (Apple 5).

'I still thought that I should be able to achieve this simple task, so I contacted Samsung. They went through all the hoops and agreed the function should be there, therefore they would like me to talk to one of their Home Appliance specialists. No problem with me if talking to someone on the phone will magically fix the issue. But then they asked me

to set up an account with my email and phone number. Click on their T&C's and guess what, they share that information with 3rd parties (and law enforcement!)' (Samsung 12).

Qualitative data exposed the link between unacceptable brand behaviour and negative online brand engagement. Hence, unacceptable brand behaviour appears to be one of the drivers of negative online brand engagement.

6.3.2 Theme 2: Consumer-related drivers

The qualitative findings denote two consumer-related drivers of negative online brand engagement, including the consumer's characteristic of anti-consumption and consumer brand disidentification.

Anti-consumption in general

Anti-consumption in general often focuses on the reduction of all consumption activities (Ozanne and Ballantine, 2010). It reflects the lifestyle voluntarily adopted by individuals who reduce the acquisition, use, and disposal of commoditized goods and services (Nepomuceno and Laroche, 2016). The interview findings imply that anti-consumption in general causes negative online brand engagement. The member of the 'Nestle Boycott' group (Member 10, 53) illustrated that in addition to Nestle products, he also refused to buy many other products.

> *'I just say so it is easy for me not to buy their product because I do not buy a lot of packaged goods'* (Member 10, 53).

Similarly, another member (Member 9, 30) indicated that many consumers, who negatively engage with Nestle, also refuse to purchase other brands in question.

> *'It is just like everyone else who protest against companies. They want to stop, they want to have a reason to stop doing any trading with a couple of brands in question, involving Nestle in particular'* (Member 9, 30).

Interviewees indicated that consumers' characteristic of anti-consumption in general was a reason for negatively engaging with a certain brand. It is then implied that anti-consumption in general might be one of the drivers of negative online brand engagement.

Consumer brand disidentification

Brand disidentification is a self-perception based on (1) a cognitive separation between a person's identity and his or her perception of the identity of a brand and (2) a negative relational categorization of the self and the brand (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Berendt et al., 2018). Evidence from the interview data suggests that consumer brand disidentification elicits intense negative online brand engagement. Interviewees indicated that engaging negatively with a brand is due to the brand identity violating their identity and they need to deal with themselves.

> *'I have to live with myself at the end of the day. Because if not, you are just a hypocrite. And, you know, I mean if you can live with that, so be it. But I can't, you know, eventually, you have to deal with yourself ... it's hard to get past for me'* (Member 10, 53).

> *'I mean it doesn't seem to be doing any harm to Nestle, but there's no way that I would buy a product of theirs. I don't care if it makes any difference to them, it makes a difference to me. Contributed to what they are doing by giving them money ... it's funding evil and criminals'* (Member 11, 58).

Exploratory findings suggest the link between the inconsistency of the person's self-concept from that of the brand and negative online brand engagement. In addition, consumers affirm their identities by categorising brands into groups such as rivals or enemies. Thus, the interview data denote the causal relationship between consumer brand disidentification and negative online brand engagement.

6.3.3 Theme 3: Other brands

The exploratory findings uncovered one driver of negative online brand engagement included in the category of other brands: oppositional attitudinal loyalty.

Oppositional attitudinal loyalty

Oppositional loyalty is considered as consumers' loyalty to brands competing with the object of hatred (Dessart et al., 2020). It arises when supporters of a brand take an adversarial view of competitors or rival brands (Thompson and Sinha, 2008; Ewing et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2020b).

This assumption was observed in the analysis of the interview data. A member (Member 8, 29) of the 'BT broadband sucks' group indicated that he is loyal to Virgin Media, which is a broadband company competing with BT.

> *'But I also like to give people whatever advice I know, which is usually go to Virgin Media [laugh]. A little bit more expensive but no problems'* (Member 8, 29).

The online observation shows that consumers would always buy another brand in the same product category as the brand they negatively engaged with. For example, some consumers, who negatively engage with the brand Apple or Samsung, indicate that they would prefer to buy Huawei when they plan to purchase a new phone.

> *'Just buy Huawei or Honor 8x for £220, this is a huge waste of money and the same as last year's iPhone'* (Apple 6).

> *'The Samsung Galaxy Note 9 and the Huawei Mate Pro 20 have far better quality cameras and cost less to purchase'* (Apple 7).

> *'I won't be replacing my S5 with a Samsung. I'm impressed by the design, specs and gimmick-free nature of the Huawei range'* (Samsung 13).

Accordingly, consumers are loyal to a brand that is in the same product category as the brand they negatively engaged with. Exploratory findings support the link between consumers' loyalty to the competing brand and their negative online engagement with the object brand. Thus, the qualitative data denote the causal relationship between oppositional attitudinal loyalty and negative online brand engagement.

6.4 Outcomes of negative online brand engagement

Five outcomes of negative online brand engagement are uncovered from the analysis of the qualitative data and are divided into three different categories (see Figure 6.3). The literature on consumer engagement and the analysis of the qualitative data supported the identification of these outcomes. Each outcome is detailed next.

Figure 6.3 Outcomes of negative online brand engagement

Brand community
- Intention to participate in anti-brand communities

Brand-related
- Brand disloyalty

Consumer-related
- Happiness
- Offline constructive behaviour
- Offline destructive behaviour
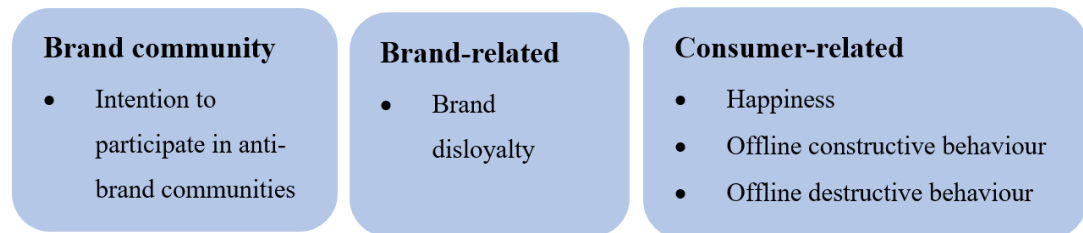
6.4.1 Theme 1: Brand community outcomes

Qualitative findings revealed that one outcome belongs to this theme: intention to participate in anti-brand communities. The interview data evidence that, as a result of negative online brand engagement, consumers would participate in anti-brand communities.

Intention to participate in anti-brand communities

Intention to participate in anti-brand communities is the degree of consumers' willingness to actively participate in anti-brand communities in the online and offline environment. The qualitative data show that negatively engaged consumers also participate in anti-brand communities in various ways. Some interviewees indicated that they want to participate in anti-brand communities to share or express their negative views about the brand with others.

> *'Well, most of them will post any article they find that is negative towards Apple, they'll post it in the group'* (Moderator 7, 34).

> *'they just want to express how horrible they felt about the situation, and they do send us, you know, a lot to read in that respect'* (Moderator 10, 31).

'I've written many multi-paragraph essays in the group…I've written all sorts of stuff about why Apple is no good…using examples and citing articles or something, talking about how exploitive they are' (Member 5, 44).

'And then more recently, I've joined these sorts of groups. And I actually got myself banned from the Nescafe [laugh] for posting negative comments' (Member 11, 58).

Interestingly, interviewees indicated that they participate in anti-brand communities to get benefits or happiness.

'They post funny memes that kind of just on Disney and their executives. And you know, there's one where they put the picture of the director and they put him in a crown with a pacifier in his mouth and call him the king man, baby. I mean, that's what they did.' (Moderator 4, 30)

'Well, they like the group. They think it's a good place for them to discuss with other like-minded people what they think' (Moderator 8, 30).

'Oh, they'll post. Sometimes they'll just post funny memes.' (Member 1, 48)

Consumers also intended to interact with other people in the anti-brand communities:

'I used to interact with the articles, I used to comment on them or have conversations with people' (Moderator 7, 34).

'They just make very negative comments, lots of exclamation points, lots of swearing. You know, I mean they just express themselves and then somebody else will chime in … it's generally meant to be an effective constructive group discussion about a very negative company' (Moderator 6, 62).

'They actively post content, they engage actively, post comments, react to studies/news, keep the conversation flowing, so it feels like a real proper community' (Member 14, 31).

Some interviewees indicated that they want to participate in anti-brand communities to get useful information.

'I'm a lurker. I just read what other people post' (Member 1, 48).

'I guess that's one of my main sources of information. And I read quite a bit about it. Whenever I see an article, I read one' (Member 4, 68).

Participants pointed out that they were willing to participate in activities in the anti-brand communities. Thus, the qualitative data evidenced that people's willingness to participate in anti-brand communities is a possible consequence of negative online brand engagement.

6.4.2 Theme 2: Brand-related outcomes

Qualitative findings revealed that one outcome of negative online brand engagement belongs to this particular theme: brand disloyalty. As a result of negative online brand engagement, consumers might decide to not purchase or use the brand's product and be disloyal to the brand.

Brand disloyalty

Brand disloyalty is conceptualised as consumers' negatively valenced attitudes and behaviours to the brand (Rowley and Daws, 2000; Veloutsou and McAlonan, 2012; Pandey and Chawla, 2016). Participants highlighted their willingness to not purchase, use and support the brand they negatively engaged with, which reflects they are disloyal to this brand. It can be observed in the following examples:

'And then, about six months ago with my BT, I was cut off about three or four months ended up leaving them and going with Virgin Media' (Member 8, 29).

'If I knew the product was owned by Nestle, I most definitely would not buy it. I don't think that I have bought anything even accidentally, because I am quite careful, and I do know most of the companies that they own, and I avoid them' (Member 11, 58).

'I would say every single member of that group doesn't like Star Wars to the point that they're not willing to buy any of the material anymore. And that they cannot stand Disney for one reason or another' (Moderator 4, 30).

Also, an interviewee (Member 1, 48) indicated that she would refuse to purchase any products of this brand in the offline context.

> *'I really don't shop there…the only time I am there is when I need to go to the bathroom and I am near a Walmart'* (Member 1, 48).

The data from online observation also reflects consumer's disloyalty to the brand:

> *'I don't think I'd risk buying this brand again'* (Samsung 14).

> *'Needless to say, it will be my last Samsung...I am already looking forward to getting a new phone, in the probably very distant future. It will certainly not be another Samsung'* (Samsung 15).

> *'The sound is not clear, the remote wasn't the digital one (new). I didn't like it'* (Samsung 16).

> *'I'm going to look at the Huawei P10 and even the P10 lite. A company that makes great phones, don't fill them with bloatware or gimmicks and the build is more robust* (Samsung 17).

> *'I will not be buying another Samsung device due to the poor performance of this one'* (Samsung 18).

People who negatively engage with a certain brand declared their intention to be disloyal to it. Thus, the qualitative findings imply that brand disloyalty is a predictable outcome of negative online brand engagement.

6.4.3 Theme 3: Consumer-related outcomes

The exploratory findings uncovered three consumer-related outcomes of negative online brand engagement: happiness, offline constructive behaviour and offline destructive behaviour. Details of the three outcomes belonging to this theme are explained below.

Happiness

Happiness is commonly defined based on the view of subjective well-being, which refers to an individual's overall sense that life is good (Zhan and Zhou, 2018; Hwang and Kim, 2018; Hsieh et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2019). Interviewees indicate that their negative engagement with the brand in the anti-brand community contributes to their overall life happiness.

> *'All these people are there to talk to which is good…Hates can bring the world together*

and bring happiness. That's how it makes me feel' (Member 3, 34).

'Happy! Whenever I see a post that shows how bad they are, it makes me smile. [...] I think they enjoy the conversations' (Member 12, 49).

There are some examples from the interview data, which show consumer feels satisfied or pleased after negatively engaging with the brand in the online environment.

'I think mostly for the people in the group, they just feel pleased to have somewhere to vent and be with like-minded individuals' (Moderator 2, 28).

'I'm glad that there's a space to be grumpy about it and to express my feelings' (Member 2, 42).

'I'm glad they exist because it allows people to do the same things that I'm doing let off steam, you know, express their frustration, learn a bit more about Walmart, that kind of thing' (Member 4, 68).

Participants indicate that engaging negatively with the brand can increase consumers' overall life happiness or satisfaction. The interview data suggest that happiness can be regarded as a result of negative online brand engagement.

Offline constructive behaviour

In this study, offline constructive behaviour was conceptualised as consumers' positively oriented offline actions to solve the brand's problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand (Kim and Lim, 2020). Interviewees claimed that they would engage negatively with the brand offline to help or improve the brand, as can be observed as follows:

'And people have said that they have written letters, or they have called, or they have gone to Apple stores and complain (Member 5, 44).

In addition, most informants from the 'Nestle Boycott' group illustrated that they would sign petitions offline to change their unethical business practices.

'I always sign all the petitions that are relevant to it. And going back to sort of the 70s, 80s, I probably wrote letters and things like that before' (Member 11, 58).

'...a lot of news articles and petitions, people start petitions to try to get Nestle to stop doing these things, and to change their ways to a more ethical path' (Member 13, 22).

Another member (Member 9, 30) advocated that more offline negative engagement activities are needed.

'I think what is needed is more physical activities like protests and stands, maybe leaflet distribution or something...' (Member 9, 30).

Interviewees who engage negatively with a brand online also expressed their offline constructive behaviours. Thus, the qualitative findings imply that offline constructive behaviour is a predictable outcome of negative online brand engagement.

Offline destructive behaviour

Offline destructive behaviour is considered as consumers' negatively oriented offline actions to harm the brand considering one's own concerns (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). Interviewees manifested their willingness to harm a certain brand in the offline environment. A member (Member 11, 58) of the 'Nestle Boycott' group expressed that she used to put stickers on Nestle's products in the supermarket to destroy this brand.

'I have to be honest about what I really want to do, every time I go into the supermarket is just like, run my hand across the Nescafe display and just smash it on the floor. I have put stickers on things in the past…And I used to get stickers and stick them on Kit Kat and things in the supermarket' (Member 11, 58).

A Samsung consumer, who received a broken TV, mentioned that he would file a lawsuit against Samsung (Samsung 19).

'You will not imagine what happened to me! What would you do if you receive a broken TV from Samsung? I can't trust them anymore. And I seem to file a lawsuit against them. Terrible service experience everything!' (Samsung 19).

Participants expressed their willingness to take offline actions to harm the brand. The qualitative data highlight that consumers' offline destructive behaviour is a possible outcome of negative online brand engagement.

6.5 Implications of the qualitative study

The qualitative study has several implications. Firstly, it has brought to light the dimensions of negative online brand engagement and corresponding sub-dimensions. As a result of the qualitative data analysis, three dimensions of the phenomenon (cognitive, affective, behavioural) are suggested. For the cognitive dimension, two sub-dimensions (attention, thinking) are identified. The affective dimension also has two sub-dimensions (diversity of negative feelings, negative emotion demonstration). Finally, sub-dimensions of behavioural engagement include online constructive and destructive behaviour.

Secondly, the qualitative data have uncovered a set of drivers of negative online brand engagement. A total of six drivers of the phenomenon across three different categories (brand-related, consumer-related, other brands) are presented.

Thirdly, the exploratory findings have revealed several outcomes of negative online brand engagement. Specifically, five outcomes of the phenomenon that emerged from the data were analysed. These outcomes were classified into three categories: brand community outcomes, brand-related outcomes and consumer-related outcomes.

The qualitative findings are fundamental in the process of determining the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement and structuring the conceptual model. Given the scarcity of the literature on negative consumer engagement, these were implied from the analysis of the qualitative data. The review of the literature on negative consumer engagement suggests the existence of three drivers of negative online brand engagement, namely perceived brand quality, brand failure severity and unacceptable brand behaviour, which were corroborated by the qualitative data. Based on the evidence provided by the exploratory data, three more drivers of the phenomenon (oppositional attitudinal loyalty, anti-consumption in general and consumer brand disidentification) were added for consideration.

Regarding outcomes of negative online brand engagement, the review of the literature on negative consumer engagement suggests the existence of one outcome (i.e., brand disloyalty), which was supported by the qualitative data. Based on qualitative findings, four more outcomes were identified including consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities, happiness, offline constructive and destructive behaviour. The detailed conceptual model with relations between variables is covered in the next chapter.

6.6 Chapter summary

The present chapter displayed the findings of the qualitative study, which consisted of 25 semi-structured interviews including 10 with moderators and 15 with members of identified Facebook groups/pages. In addition, 481 reviews of Samsung products and 173 reviews of Apple products were analysed respectively. The chapter explained the dimensions, drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement.

The analysis of the qualitative data uncovers three dimensions of negative online brand engagement (cognitive, affective, behavioural). Further, three categories of drivers of negative online brand engagement (brand-related drivers, consumer-related drivers, other brands) and a total of six drivers were revealed. Each driver was explained separately. Also, three categories of outcomes of negative online brand engagement (brand community outcomes, brand-related outcomes, consumer-related outcomes) were presented and a total of five outcomes of the phenomenon were explained. Lastly, the implications of the qualitative study were highlighted.

Chapter 7 Conceptual framework

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual model developed from the results of the qualitative stage of this research reported in Chapter 6 and the literature review on positive and negative consumer engagement in Chapter 2. This chapter focuses on relationships between negative online brand engagement, the core construct of this study, and its drivers and outcomes. The hypothesised relationships are further tested using quantitative data and the results of hypothesis testing are presented in Chapter 10.

The chapter firstly illustrates the approach to select antecedents and outcomes based on the literature review and findings of the qualitative study. Then, the conceptual model is developed which includes three layers: antecedents, negative online brand engagement and outcomes. Next, these proposed relationships in the conceptual model (i.e., six antecedences and five outcomes of negative online brand engagement) are formally expressed and discussed in terms of research hypotheses. Finally, the raised hypotheses are summarised in a table at the end of this chapter.

7.2 Overall logic

Based on the literature review (Chapter 2) and qualitative findings (Chapter 6), the researcher offers an enhanced definition of negative online brand engagement. Negative online brand engagement is defined as consumer negatively valenced brand-related cognition, affection and online behaviour (see details in section 9.4.1).

To select drivers and outcomes of negative online brand engagement that could be included in Study 6 (model testing), a pragmatic approach was used. More specifically, a systematic evaluation of the identified drivers and outcomes coming from the literature reviews of positive and negative consumer engagement in all contexts or findings in Study 1 (online observation, interviews with moderators and members of online anti-brand communities) was contacted. All the identified drivers and outcomes were first listed and the relevant support for each factor was added, which drove the choice of the factors included in the model. The choices were based on the identification of the relevant and in line with the

project's most prominent drivers and outcomes, characterised as well-established in the literature, standing out from the qualitative data. The evaluation and choices for both drivers and outcomes were made with the help of two brand management academics in 11 meetings over a period of two months.

Selection of drivers of negative online brand engagement

To identify drivers of negative online brand engagement, all factors coming from the literature reviews of positive and negative consumer engagement or qualitative findings were summarised in Table 7.1 (see detailed references in Table 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, 2.15, 2.16, 2.17 and qualitative data in section 6.3). Each factor was discussed, and decisions were made based on specific criteria. First, given that Study 6 would test a model with data collected from consumers who have negatively engaged online with a brand, only factors could be captured by asking consumers were included (i.e., brand-related, consumer-related). Second, when examining factors originating from positive consumer engagement, only factors that could transform into negative were included. Third, factors that were reported both from the two literature reviews and the qualitative stage were all included. Fourth, novel findings not reported before in the literature but unfolded in the qualitative findings were selected. Fifth, factors that are identified as a part of negative brand engagement (consumers' brand-related cognitions, affections, behaviours) but used from other studies as antecedents (i.e., consumer emotion, WOM) were excluded. Finally, general statements that were not possible to be captured with one scale (i.e., personal goals, firm actions, firm features) were omitted.

Specifically, brand and consumer-related drivers identified in positive consumer engagement literature that can be transformed into negative and have been identified in the qualitative study were considered, including brand value, CSR, self-brand connection, personal traits. These four drivers correspond to the brand and consumer-related drivers identified in the qualitative study including perceived brand quality, unacceptable brand behaviour, consumer-brand disidentification and anti-consumption in general respectively.

Three brand-related drivers (brand quality, CSR, brand failure) identified in negative consumer engagement literature were selected. This is because these three drivers have been considered as important drivers of negative consumer engagement in existing consumer

engagement literature (e.g., Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a), and also identified in the qualitative study. However, one brand-related driver (firm actions) and three consumer-related drivers (personal goals, consumer emotion, consumer WOM) identified in negative consumer engagement literature were not selected. Firm actions and personal goals are two general concepts that are difficult to capture in the current study. Consumer emotion and WOM are excluded because they are considered as affective and behavioural engagement in this study.

Table 7.1 Presence of drivers of negative online brand engagement based on the literature review and qualitative findings

	Literature review		Qualitative findings
	Positive consumer engagement	Negative consumer engagement	
Brand-related	Brand value	Brand quality, innovation	Perceived brand quality
	Brand investment	-	-
	Firm actions	Firm actions	-
	Firm features	-	-
	CSR	CSR	Unacceptable brand behaviour
	-	Brand failure	Brand failure severity
Consumer-related	Consumer investment	-	-
	Self-brand connection	-	Consumer brand disidentification
	Personal traits	-	Anti-consumption in general
	Personal goals	Personal goals	-
	Consumer emotion	Consumer emotion	-
	Consumer relationship	-	-
	-	Consumer WOM	-
Context-related	Political	-	-
	Cultural	-	-
	Technology	Technology	-
	Social	Social environment	-
	-	Community pressure	-
	-	Community/service type	-
Others	-	-	Oppositional attitudinal loyalty

The qualitative findings reported in Chapter 6 reveal six drivers of negative online brand engagement in three categories. A first category groups drivers directly linked with the brand that consumers negatively engage with, including perceived brand quality, brand failure severity and unacceptable brand behaviour. The second category brings together factors

related to consumers, including anti-consumption in general and consumer brand disidentification. The third category is concerned with other brands (oppositional attitudinal loyalty). The first and second categories were also identified in the consumer engagement literature, thereby these drivers were selected. The third category was also selected as it was considered as a novel discovery from the qualitative findings, which would provide valuable contributions to the negative consumer engagement literature.

As a result, six drivers of negative online brand engagement were selected: brand-related driver (perceived brand quality, brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour), consumer-related driver (anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification) and other brands (oppositional attitudinal loyalty).

Selection of outcomes of negative online brand engagement

To identify outcomes of negative brand engagement, all outcomes coming from the literature reviews of positive and negative consumer engagement or qualitative findings were summarised in Table 7.2 (see detailed references in Table 2.9, 2.10, 2.18, 2.19 and qualitative data in section 6.4). Each outcome was discussed, and decisions were made based on specific criteria. First, given that Study 6 would test a model with data collected from consumers who have negatively engaged online with a brand, only outcomes could be captured by asking consumers were included (i.e., consumer-related). Second, when examining factors originating from positive consumer engagement, only outcomes that could transform into negative were included. Third, outcomes that were reported both from the two literature reviews and the qualitative stage were all included. Fourth, novel findings not reported before in the literature but unfolded in the qualitative findings were selected. Fifth, factors that are identified as a part of negative brand engagement (consumers' brand-related cognitions, affections, behaviours) but used from other studies as outcomes (i.e., participation, usage, purchase, WOM) were excluded.

Specifically, consumer-related outcomes of positive consumer engagement that can be transformed into negative and have been identified in the qualitative phase were considered, including relationship quality and emotional benefits. The outcome of relationship quality was also identified in the negative consumer engagement literature. However, outcomes

related to consumers' online interactions with certain brands (participation, usage, purchase and WOM) were excluded, as they were considered as a part of negative online brand engagement (behavioural engagement) in the current study.

Table 7.2 Presence of outcomes of negative online brand engagement based on the literature review and qualitative findings

Literature review		Qualitative findings
Positive consumer engagement	**Negative consumer engagement**	**Qualitative findings**
For brand Firm performance	Firm performance	-
Firm reputation	-	-
Brand equity	Brand equity	-
Marketing effectiveness	-	-
Marketing strategy	Marketing strategy	-
-	-	-
For consumer Relationship quality	Relationship quality	Brand disloyalty
Consumer participation	Negative participation	-
Consumer usage	-	-
Consumer purchase	-	-
Consumer WOM	Negative WOM	-
Financial benefits	-	-
Emotional benefits	-	Happiness
Social value	-	-
-		Intention to participate in anti-brand communities
-	-	Offline constructive behaviour
-	-	Offline destruction behaviour

The analysis of the qualitative data revealed five consumer-related outcomes of negative online brand engagement which were further grouped into three categories. The first category consists of the outcome related to brand community (intention to participate in anti-brand communities). The second category covers one outcome related to consumers' relationship quality with the brand (brand disloyalty). The last category is concerned with outcomes related to consumers' feelings and offline behaviours, including happiness, offline destructive and constructive behaviour. Brand disloyalty and happiness were also identified in the consumer engagement literature as significant outcomes, thereby they were selected. Compared with existing literature, three new outcomes identified in the qualitative phase were selected (intention to participate in anti-brand communities, offline destructive and constructive behaviour), which could provide valuable contributions to the negative

consumer engagement literature.

Finally, five outcomes were selected for the current study including brand community outcome (intention to participate in anti-brand communities), brand-related outcome (brand disloyalty) and consumer-related outcome (happiness, offline destructive behaviour, offline constructive behaviour). The brand disloyalty construct was grouped into brand-related outcomes to distinguish it from outcomes that directly related to consumers' feelings and behaviours. The construct (intention to participate in anti-brand communities) was related to how consumers participate in activities of anti-brand communities, thereby it was considered as the brand community outcome.

After the selection of antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement based on the literature review and the qualitative study, the conceptual model was developed, which comprises 11 hypotheses and 12 constructs (see Figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1 Conceptual model
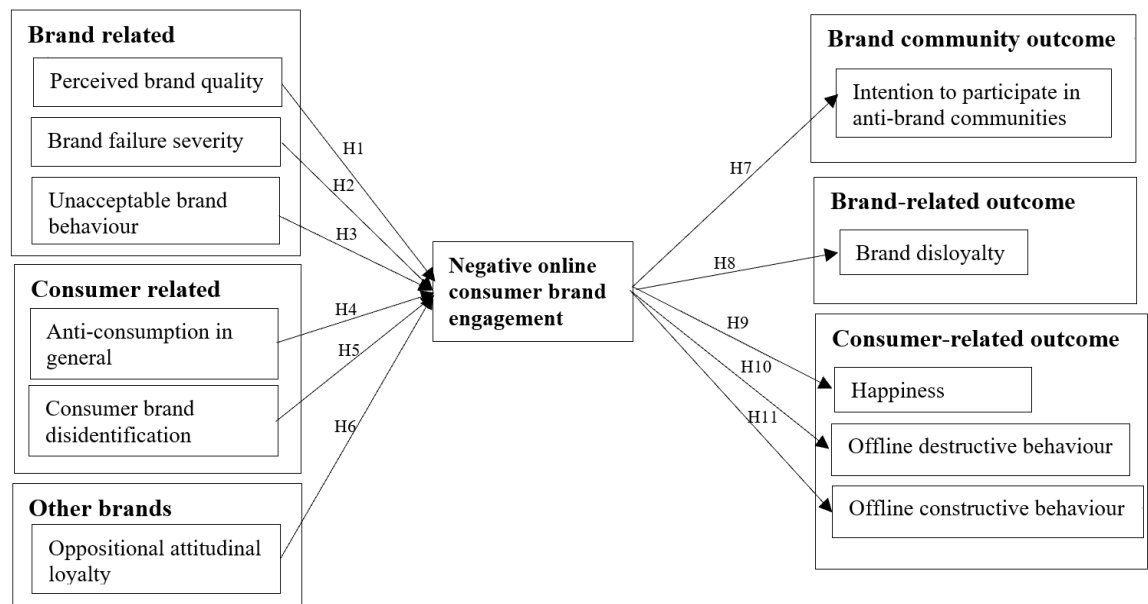
7.3 Research hypotheses: motivations for negative online brand engagement

Past studies and qualitative findings suggest a total of six drivers of negative online brand engagement (i.e., perceived brand quality, brand failure severity, unacceptable brand

behaviour, anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification, oppositional attitudinal loyalty).

7.3.1 Perceived brand quality

Quality can be defined broadly as superiority or excellence (Zeithaml, 1988). It is the overall characteristics of a product/service that bear on its ability to fulfil stated/implied needs (Das, 2014). Zeithaml (1988) defined perceived brand quality as the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority. This definition has been widely adopted in the marketing literature (Boisvert and Ashill, 2011; Liu et al., 2014; Vera, 2015; Dens and Pelsmacker, 2016; Papadimitriou et al., 2016; Bazi et al., 2020). However, Zeithaml's (1988) definition only focuses on consumers' perceptions of the product, which cannot capture all brand features. The perception regarding quality could be derived from products for the product market or services for the service market (Das, 2014). Veloutsou and Delgado-Ballester (2018) indicate that the brand can be a person, a symbol or the actual product or service. Therefore, perceived brand quality is defined in the present study as consumers' judgment about the overall excellence or superiority of all the brand features.

Brand quality factor has been identified as a driver of positive and negative consumer engagement. Numerous studies on consumer engagement indicate that consumer perceived brand utilitarian benefits can lead to positive consumer engagement (Voss et al., 2003; Claffey and Brady, 2017; Fehrer et al., 2018; van Heerde et al., 2019; Bazi et al., 2020; Gligor and Bozkurt, 2020). By contrast, negative brand engagement is likely to occur when brand quality is perceived as unfavourable, and it is particularly related to consumers' negative cognitions as shown by Hollebeek and Chen (2014) in a study of Apple and Samsung communities. In addition, a perceived lack of the brand's delivery on its promise and lack of brand responsiveness is expected to generate negative consumer engagement (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014).

The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that consumers are more likely to engage negatively with brands that have poor product or service quality. Perceived service quality reflects consumers' judgement about whether the firm can solve their problem and the service attitude of sales and after-sales staff. For example, the brand fails to resolve customer

issues promptly and has a poor service attitude of the sales staff (e.g., *'They think it is a bit too clinical. Uhm…you know, if you look at Apple's stores, they look a little bit like futuristic hospitals, they are not very warm'* (Moderator 7, 34)). While perceived product quality refers to a consumer's judgement about a brand's product including prices, product design and existing problems (e.g., *'The fact that their products, I mean, all of the products that they make are not good quality products'* (Member 11, 58)). This implies that perceived bad brand quality might be one of the antecedent variables that drive the development of negative online brand engagement.

Drawing on findings from previous research and the qualitative phase, it is argued that consumers would engage negatively online with a brand when they think this brand has low quality. This is hypothesised as:

H1: Perceived brand quality is negatively related to negative online brand engagement.

7.3.2 Brand failure severity

Brand failure usually occurs when brands' performance does not meet customers' expectations, which is common and unavoidable (Kordrostami and Kordrostami, 2019; Hassey, 2019). Perceived brand failure severity is not only determined by product/service problems but also related to consumer individual factors (Tran et al., 2016). Brand failure can be perceived by one person to be more serious than by another (Tran et al., 2016). Accordingly, this study considers brand failure severity as consumers' perceived intensity of loss from interactions with the focal brand. The more intense or severe the perceived service or product problem is, the greater the customer's perceived losses are, which may further lead to negative brand engagement (Wang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020).

Existing studies identify various brand failures that can lead to negative consumer engagement (Goode, 2012). Scholars indicate that the sense of decreased autonomy, unfairness, confusion, imbalanced control and frustration experienced by consumers can cause negative consumer engagement (Park et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b; Bowden et al., 2017). For example, studies suggest that unfavourable service encounters or service failures could cause consumers' negative feelings such as frustration, resignation and despair (Tronvoll, 2011; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a). In addition, technical

failure or inappropriate use of technologies can co-destruct the consumer experience and lead to negative engagement (Hammedi et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018).

This was further emphasized in findings from the qualitative stage, which reveal that consumers feel frustrated or angry when they meet product or service failure (e.g., *'All their products are difficult or impossible to repair, the hardware they use is the same as a Microsoft machine, but costs 5x the amount'* (Member 12, 49)). Also, they may have negative engagement behaviour toward the brand such as boycotting and negative word-of-mouth. It is thus anticipated that perceived intense or severe brand failure can cause negative online brand engagement, particular for the negative affective and behavioural engagement. This is hypothesised:

H2: Brand failure severity is positively related to negative online brand engagement.

7.3.3 Unacceptable brand behaviour

Unacceptable brand behaviour is a construct that emerged from the qualitative findings. In this study, unacceptable brand behaviour is defined as the consumer perceived unethical, immoral or irresponsible acts of the brand, which is incompatible with their own beliefs and value (Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019). Although the literature review failed to identify a single study directly measuring this construct, past studies have mentioned several concepts that capture the brand's unacceptable behaviour, such as corporate wrongdoing and ideological incompatibility (e.g., Lindenmeier et al., 2012; Fetscherin and Sampedro 2019; Kim et al., 2019a, 2019b).

Corporate wrongdoing can be interpreted as a violation of ethical or moral standards (Romani et al., 2013; Karaosmanoglu and Isiksal, 2018). Consumers compare the perceived immorality of the corporate behaviour with their own internalized moral norms when consumers hear of alleged unethical corporate conduct and judge if this behaviour belongs to unacceptable behaviour (Lindenmeier et al., 2012). Ideological incompatibility refers to consumers thinking the brand's behaviour is unacceptable when it is incompatible with their ideology, evolving from moral misconduct, deceptive communication, or inconsistencies of values by the brand (Hegner et al., 2017). Accordingly, unacceptable brand behaviour is based on consumers' perceptions and values and related to the brand's unethical behaviours.

Existing studies indicate that consumer awareness of the lack of corporate social responsibility (CSR) (e.g., using child labour) will result in negative consumer engagement (Adjei et al., 2010; de Villiers, 2015). Naumann et al. (2017a) support that the accumulation of disappointing encounters can make consumers think the firm has unethical and corrupt motives, which will lead to negative engagement, particularly negative cognitions (e.g., cynicism, distrust).

This relationship between unacceptable brand behaviour and negative online brand engagement was evidenced in the qualitative findings, as interviewees frequently associated relevant unacceptable brand behaviours, such as the issues of baby milk, plastic pollution and child slavery, with their negative brand engagement (e.g., *'I think the boycott started in 1977 because of the baby milk issue'* (Member 11, 58)). Following this line of reasoning, the present study presumes that consumers' perceived unacceptable brand behaviour can lead to the development of negative online brand engagement.

H3: Unacceptable brand behaviour is positively related to negative online brand engagement.

7.3.4 Anti-consumption in general

The literature (e.g., Ozanne and Ballantine, 2010; Cherrier et al., 2011; Pangarkar et al., 2021) shows consensus in describing anti-consumption by using Zavestoski's (2002, p. 121) definition: *'a resistance to, distaste of, or even resentment or rejection of consumption more generally'*. Nepomuceno and Laroche (2016) focus on the anti-consumption lifestyle and define it as the lifestyle voluntarily adopted by individuals who reduce the acquisition, use, and disposal of commoditized goods and services. In general, anti-consumption refers to consumers' reduction of all consumption (Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2018).

Existing studies on consumer engagement indicate that consumers' approach to materialism can motivate consumers to shop and finally lead to positive consumer engagement (Goldsmith et al., 2011; Singh, 2016). This is because materialistic people have a strong positive inclination and excessive concern for material possessions and social renown (Kasser, 2002; Goldsmith et al., 2011). However, no study focuses on the effect of anti-consumption on negative consumer engagement.

In the qualitative phase, anti-consumption in general was identified as a significant driver of negative online brand engagement. Anti-consumption lifestyle was frequently mentioned by interviewees that drive their negative online brand engagement. For example, an interviewee (Member 10, 53) indicates that he usually does not purchase packaged goods and engage negatively with many brands online (*'I just say so it is easy for me not to buy their product because I do not buy a lot of packaged goods'*). Consequently, it is assumed:

H4: Anti-consumption in general is positively related to negative online brand engagement.

7.3.5 Consumer brand disidentification

Brand disidentification is a self-perception based on (1) a cognitive separation between a person's identity and his or her perception of the brand identity and (2) a negative relational categorization of the self and the brand (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Duman and Ozgen, 2018). Odoom et al. (2019) indicate that consumers avoid brands that are incongruent with their actual or desired self-concept.

Existing literature shows that self-brand connection is a significant driver of positive consumer engagement (Dessart, 2017; Stocchi et al., 2018). In contrast, people with strong brand disidentification may try to detach themselves from the brand to demonstrate their distancing from it (Wong et al., 2018). Also, individuals may deliberately avoid choosing certain brands in part to construct their self-concept and identity (Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019; Hegner et al 2017). Therefore, they would not contribute to the brand's success and even may behave in a way to cause detriments to the brand (Wong et al., 2018).

There is evidence from the interview data which reflects that consumer brand disidentification can lead to negative brand engagement in the online environment. Interviewees revealed that they would have negative feelings and behaviours toward certain brands because it is in part to construct their self-concept and identity (e.g., *'I have to live with myself at the end of the day. Because if not, you are just a hypocrite. And, you know, I mean if you can live with that, so be it. But I can't, you know, eventually, you have to deal with yourself ... it's hard to get past for me'* (Member 10, 53)). Some people even feel uncomfortable if they do not against the disidentified brand. It is hereby hypothesised:

H5: Brand disidentification is positively related to negative online brand engagement.

7.3.6 Oppositional attitudinal loyalty

The central idea behind the definition of oppositional attitudinal loyalty includes two key elements: attitudinal loyalty and oppositional loyalty. Attitudinal loyalty addresses the psychological component of consumers' commitment to a brand and may encompass beliefs of product/service superiority as well as positive and accessible reactions toward the brand (Liu-Thompkins and Tam, 2013). Oppositional loyalty can be regarded as an extreme form of user loyalty. In this study, oppositional attitudinal loyalty is defined as a consumer's commitment to another brand in the same product category (Dessart et al., 2020).

Literature indicates that brand admirers may exhibit two types of loyalty in the online community, namely, ultimate loyalty to their preferred brand and oppositional loyalty to competing brands (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001; Kuo and Feng, 2013). Existing consumer engagement literature identifies oppositional behavioural loyalty as an outcome of negative consumer engagement (Dessart et al., 2020). However, the opposition attitudinal loyalty acting as a driver of negative online brand engagement has not been discussed.

This insight emerged from the qualitative data, as consumers show that they would always buy another brand in the same product category with the brand they negatively engaged with. For example, some negative online reviews show that people who negatively engage with the brand Apple or Samsung would always consider buying Huawei when they plan to purchase a new phone. This study asserts that consumers' commitment to brands competing with the object of hatred will enhance negative online brand engagement. It is hence hypothesised:

H6: Oppositional attitudinal loyalty is positively related to negative online brand engagement.

7.4 Research hypotheses: outcomes of negative online brand engagement

A total of five outcomes of negative online brand engagement (intention to participate in

anti-brand communities, brand disloyalty, happiness, offline destructive behaviour, offline constructive behaviour) are included in the conceptual model. The following sections discuss the hypothesised connections linking negative online brand engagement and its outcomes.

7.4.1 Intention to participate in anti-brand communities

Consumer's intention to participate in the anti-brand community is related to the concept of community participation intention identified in the existing literature (e.g., Algesheimer et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2013). Community participation is commonly defined as the level of a consumer's willingness to participate in and become involved in a focal brand community (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Snyder and Newman, 2019). It reflects consumers' positive attitude to the brand community (Muk et al., 2014). In this research, the intention to participate in anti-brand communities is the degree of consumers' willingness to actively participate in anti-brand communities in the online and offline environment.

Existing studies on positive consumer engagement indicate that positive consumer brand engagement can lead to consumers' active participation in relevant brand communities (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Kumar et al., 2010; Briggs et al., 2016). Negatively engaged consumers will develop more intense negative participation in brand-related activities (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). However, the effects of negative online brand engagement on consumers' participation with anti-brand communities have not been discussed in detail in the existing literature.

The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that consumers, who engage negatively with a brand online, would also like to participate in activities of anti-brand communities. Interviewees indicate that they are willing to participate in anti-brand communities to share or express their negative views, gain happiness, interact with others and get useful information (e.g., *'most of them will post any article they find that is negative towards Apple, they'll post it in the group'* (Moderator 7, 34)). It is hereby hypothesised:

H7: Negative online brand engagement is positively related to the intention to participate in anti-brand communities.

7.4.2 Brand disloyalty

Although there are various ways to define brand loyalty in the existing literature, the most widely accepted definition incorporates both the attitude and the behaviour of an individual (Harris and Goode, 2004; Veloutsou and McAlonan, 2012; Foroudi et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019). Attitudinal loyalty refers to customers' overall attachment to the object of interest (Wang and Zhang, 2018). Behavioural loyalty can be regarded as a later stage of attitudinal loyalty which refers to ongoing behavioural actions and include repeat purchase intention of the same object and the act of recommendation (Wolter et al., 2017; Wang and Zhang, 2018). Researchers suggest that customer loyalty and disloyalty lie on opposite ends of a continuum and disloyalty also has attitudinal and behavioural dimensions (Rowley and Daws, 2000; Veloutsou and McAlonan, 2012; Pandey and Chawla, 2016). This research focuses on behavioural disloyalty and defines it as a consumer's tendency to reduce or stop their purchase, use or recommend of the brand's products or service again in the future.

Unlike the favourable effect of positive consumer engagement on consumer relationship quality (i.e., lead to satisfaction, trust, commitment, loyalty), negative consumer engagement may cause consumer relationships to fade, terminate and become even worse (Bowden et al., 2015; Heinonen, 2018). de Villers (2015) indicates that negatively engaged consumers will become dissatisfied and disloyal to the engagement object and ignore the brand offerings. Studies support that a negatively engaged consumer may not purchase the product and refuse to collect loyalty points (de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a), and even be more passionate and dedicated to the negative relationship with the brand (Naumann et al., 2017b).

The qualitative data provide evidence to support the effect on brand disloyalty. For example, interviewees mentioned that they have never used or purchased the brand's products that they negatively engaged with (e.g., *'I really don't shop there. Uhm…the only time I am there is when I need to go to the bathroom and I am near a Walmart'* (Member 1, 48)). In addition, some participants indicated that they will not re-purchase this brand's products in the future and will recommend their friends to avoid it (e.g., *'I don't think I'd risk buying this brand again'* (Samsung 14)). It is hypothesised:

H8: Negative online brand engagement is positively related to brand disloyalty.

7.4.3 Happiness

Happiness can be categorized as hedonic affect (Schellong et al., 2019) and subjective well-being (Zhan and Zhou, 2018; Zhou et al., 2019). Hedonic affect focuses on the presence/absence of positive and negative affects at a certain point in time, while subjective well-being focuses on a person's evaluation of his or her life as favourable (Schellong et al., 2019).

Consumer online brand community happiness reflects consumers' degree of satisfaction and positive affect with online brand community use over a period of time (Zhan and Zhou, 2018). It is different from pleasure or satisfaction (i.e., consumers' positive affect at a certain point in time) and is likely to be a generic concept that includes various positive feelings (Hwang and Kim, 2018). To illustrate, if one just had a bad experience within the online brand community, it is unlikely that this unpleasant experience would strongly influence his/her overall online brand community happiness. Rather, consumers' overall perception of happiness is the outcome of past periods of use, and the outcome of the net of positive experiences over negative from different online brand community tasks (Zhan and Zhou, 2018). In this study, happiness refers to the frequency and degree of consumer positive affect, the absence of consumer negative feelings and the average level of consumer satisfaction of interacting with the brand in the online environment (Li and Atkinson, 2020).

Existing literature reveals that consumer happiness is an important consequence of positive consumer engagement (Piyathasanan et al., 2018; Sembada, 2018). The consumer can gain emotional benefits (e.g., enjoyment) through engaging with the firm or brand-related activities (van Doorn et al., 2010). Studies focusing on online brand community suggest that engaging online can create hedonic value (e.g., fun, entertainment, enjoyment) to consumers, which makes them feel delighted and happy (Holbrook, 2006; Baldus et al., 2015; Marbach et al., 2016). However, existing studies on negative consumer engagement usually link consumers with negative feelings such as frustration and unpleasantness (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Higgins and Scholer, 2009; de Villiers, 2015). There is no study on negative consumer engagement that has identified happiness as an outcome of negative online brand engagement.

Evidence from the interview data shows consumers' happiness after engaging negatively with the brand online. Interviewees reveal that they always feel pleased when they review

negative information and vent their negative feelings about the brand in the online context (e.g., *'Happy! Whenever I see a post that shows how bad they are, it makes me smile. [...] I think they enjoy the conversations'* (Member 12, 49)). It is hence hypothesised:

H9: Negative online brand engagement is positively related to the consumer's happiness.

7.4.4 Offline destructive behaviour

Offline negative brand engagement behaviour refers to the degree of consumer's negatively valenced energy, time and effort spent on a brand in the offline environment, (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Azer and Alexander, 2018). Naumann (2020) illustrates that the behavioural component of negative consumer engagement manifests through collective complaint and anti-brand activism. It reflects the fact that consumers may develop negative word-of-mouth to punish or harm the brand or company (Weitzl, 2019).

Destruction behaviour refers to consumers taking actions jointly against the engagement object (Naumann et al., 2017a). Zhang et al. (2018) indicate that destruction involves negative engagement behaviours such as consumer revenge and warnings to other consumers. Gebauer et al. (2013) identify several destructive behaviours including negative WOM, conflicts with other community members, re-create a brand image to harm its reputation, and recruiting other members to spread brand hatred. For example, car consumers will destroy the value of the firm if they blame the firm for problems and damage the image of the firm by communicating adverse opinions to others through negative WOM (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). In the offline context, destructive behaviour refers to the consumer's offline actions aiming to hurt/damage the brand considering one's own concerns (Plé and Cáceres, 2010).

Negatively engaged consumers can develop more intense negative engagement with the brand. This is in line with regulatory engagement theory, which indicates that stronger engagement will make negatively perceived objects more negative (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). Existing literature shows that negative consumer engagement can lead to consumer's destructive behaviours. For example, negative consumer engagement can produce repulsion force (e.g., dissociating from an object) and generate negative interactions with engagement focus (Higgins, 2006; Pham and Avnet, 2009; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014).

There is evidence from the qualitative data showing that consumers, who interact negatively with a brand online, also develop offline destructive behaviour toward this brand. Interviewees indicate that they would interact with the brand negatively in the offline context by taking actions to harm the brand, expressing negative information related to the brand and boycotting (e.g., *'I seem to file a lawsuit against them. Terrible service experience everything!'* (Samsung 19)). Hence, it is hypothesised:

H10: Negative online brand engagement is positively related to offline destructive behaviour.

7.4.5 Offline constructive behaviour

Offline constructive behaviour was defined as a consumer's offline negative actions to solve the brand's problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand (Kim and Lim, 2020). Past studies argue that negative and punitive actions can be constructive, that aim to solve problems, change wrongdoings, and sustain the relationship (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Kim and Lim, 2020). For example, consumers may help the company by providing valuable feedback related to issues of its products or service in the offline context (Weitzl, 2019; Naumann et al., 2017b).

Existing literature indicates that negative consumer engagement can cause constructive behaviours that aim to rectify the problem, which may be helpful for the improvement of firm performance (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b). For example, as an outcome of negative consumer engagement, consumers' negative WOM can be viewed as constructive behaviour, as useful information is provided to the firm to learn from mistakes (Min et al., 2019). Goode (2012) suggests that consumers may negatively engage with the failed service provider to gather information about the problem and find ways to address it.

The qualitative data show that consumers who engage negatively with certain brands online would help or improve the brand in the offline context but in a negative way. For example, they would sign offline petitions to change firms' unethical business practices and complain about the issues of products or services (e.g., *'And people have said that they have written letters, or they have called, or they have gone to Apple stores and complain'* (Member 5, 44)).

Based on the evidence from the previous research, as well as findings from the qualitative phase, it is expected that through engaging negatively with a brand online, consumers' willingness to develop offline constructive behaviours will be strengthened. Hence, it is hypothesised:

H11: Negative online brand engagement is positively related to offline constructive behaviour.

7.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the pragmatic approach to select antecedents and outcomes of the negative online brand engagement construct informed by the existing literature on positive and negative consumer engagement and the findings of the qualitative study. The conceptual model has three layers: antecedents, negative online brand engagement and outcomes. A total of 11 hypotheses have been proposed including six antecedents and five outcomes of negative online brand engagement (see Table 7.3). The chapter firstly addressed the relationships between six motivational constructs and the negative online brand engagement. Next, the relationships between negative online brand engagement and five outcome constructs were discussed.

Identifying the key antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement is an important step to achieving the second and third research objectives, which correspond to RQ2 and RQ3. These hypotheses are empirically tested with quantitative data in Chapter 10 and the results of hypothesis testing are discussed in Chapter 11.

Table 7.3 Summary of hypotheses

	Drivers of negative online brand engagement
H1	Perceived brand quality is negatively related to negative online brand engagement.
H2	Brand failure severity is positively related to negative online brand engagement.
H3	Unacceptable brand behaviour is positively related to negative online brand engagement.
H4	Anti-consumption in general is positively related to negative online brand engagement.
H5	Brand disidentification is positively related to negative online brand engagement.
H6	Oppositional attitudinal loyalty is positively related to negative online brand engagement.
	Outcomes of negative online brand engagement
H7	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to the intention to participate in anti-brand communities.
H8	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to brand disloyalty.
H9	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to the consumer's happiness.
H10	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to the consumer's offline destructive behaviour.
H11	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to the consumer's offline constructive behaviour.

Chapter 8 Quantitative Methodology

8.1 Introduction

This chapter describes procedures concerning questionnaire development, questionnaire administration, sampling, sample treatment and quantitative data analysis method. The collected data were grouped into two samples, with the sample 1 (N=210) used in the scale development of the negative online brand engagement construct and other constructs included in the conceptual model that appropriate scales could not be found in the existing literature (see Chapter 9), and the sample 2 (N=221) used in the hypotheses testing explained in Chapter 10.

More specifically, the first section of the chapter covers the development of the draft questionnaire and its structure. The next section addresses the overview of the questionnaire pre-test and a pilot as well as the final structure and content of the questionnaire. This is followed by the explanation of specifics of questionnaire administration, sampling design for the quantitative data collection and sample characteristics portrayed. Further, treatment of missing data, non-response bias, common method bias and normality assessment are specified. Also, the procedure followed for quantitative data analysis is outlined. Finally, the ethical considerations for conducting quantitative studies are illustrated.

8.2 Development of the draft questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed to capture constructs included in the conceptual model (DeVellis, 2017). The process of developing the draft questionnaire included three steps: (1) defining constructs in the conceptual model, (2) transforming constructs into variables, and (3) questionnaire design. The section below outlines how each step unfolded in practice.

8.2.1 Conceptualisation and operationalisation

Initially, constructs in the conceptual model were defined considering different views in the existing literature. In total, 314 additional journal articles were reviewed including 40 for the core construct (i.e., negative online brand engagement) and 274 for the other constructs in the conceptual model. Insights from the qualitative study were also considered, especially

for those constructs for which a measurement scale needed to be developed. Six face-to-face meetings with two marketing experts were conducted, and the average duration of each meeting was about one hour. After these meetings, the most appropriate definitions were evaluated in terms of their fit to the research context and ability to explain the constructs in the model.

The final definitions (see Chapter 7 for details) were used to select suitable scales to measure constructs. Following the conceptualisation stage, the next step was to make constructs operational by transforming them into variables (Blaikie and Priest, 2009, 2019). This stage involved searching, reviewing and evaluating relevant measurement scales available in the literature. Three decision criteria were considered to choose the most appropriate measurement scale for each construct. First, it is related to the fit of the scale items with the chosen definition (Tähtinen and Havila, 2019). Second, the number of items on the scale with multi-item measures being preferred as the specificity of the items can be averaged out, better distinctions among respondents can be made, reliability increases and measurement error decreases (Churchill, 1979). To achieve high levels of construct validity, each variable had to be measured by at least 2-3 items (Diamantopoulos et al. 2012). Third, the validity and reliability of the existing scale (Kimberlin and Winterstein, 2008) were considered with the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) of the selected scale above 0.7 and the average variance extracted (AVE) should be above 0.5 (Hair et al., 2013).

It became apparent that some measures required development. For example, at the point of questionnaire development, there was no conceptually adequate and valid scale to capture negative brand engagement in the online or offline context. Although studies highlight the importance of negatively valenced consumer engagement (e.g., Brodie et al., 2011), the concept is relatively new in the field of marketing research and has a small number of studies reported so far (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Heinonen, 2018) and is yet to be robustly developed. Existing scales on positive brand engagement (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dwivedi, 2015, 2016a; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019) cannot reflect the conceptual definition of three dimensions of negative online brand engagement identified in the current study.

Due to the lack of an appropriate scale to measure negative online brand engagement, the central construct of this research, a new scale was developed. In addition, scales for offline constructive behaviour and offline destructive behaviour were developed. The process followed the accepted procedure for measure development (see details in Chapter 9).

8.2.2 Questionnaire Content

The survey began with an introductory statement where the purpose of the study and the time to complete the survey were explained. The researcher's details were included, and the respondents were informed that they could contact the researcher for clarification if they had any questions about the study. Before the main section of the survey, two screening questions were added. The participants should be over 18 years old, consistent with the requirements of the Glasgow University ethics. In addition, the respondents should have interacted negatively with a brand online. So, they were asked to indicate whether they had interacted negatively with a brand online. People who answered "No" to this question were immediately screened out from the study.

If respondents answered affirmatively the screening question, they were asked questions based on five topics: (1) their thinking patterns (2) their feelings about shopping (3) their thinking about shopping (4) their online and offline current behaviour (5) their online and offline future behaviour. The sequence of the questionnaire was congruent with the proposed guides: questions moved from generic to specific, and from simple to more complex (Dillman, 2007; Brace, 2008; Lietz, 2010). Especially, the survey proceeded with general questions about the participants themselves and their shopping habits. These served as warm-up questions, aimed at engaging the participants in the survey. Then, the next part of the questionnaire included questions about consumers' brand-related feelings, thinking, and online and offline behaviours. Finally, the last part of the questionnaire was made up of general questions about participants' demographics.

The response strategy incorporated the usage of close-ended questions, which are considered highly appropriate in self-administered surveys (Czaja and Blair, 2005; Blair et al., 2013). According to Buckingham and Saunders (2004), close-ended questions assure response format homogeneity and facilitate information recording and save the researcher's time when it comes to analysis. Excluding the screening questions, the questions related to the respondents' demographic information and some general questions on online brand/brand community engagement, the variables were operationalised using Likert-type questions. Likert scales are considered ordinal scales and their use is widespread in the field of marketing, especially in online self-administered questionnaires (Wu and Leung, 2017; Hair et al., 2017). Seven attention check questions were dispersed throughout the questionnaire to check respondent data quality (Kees et al., 2017; Gummer et al., 2021). Attention checks

help to minimise inattentive responses and offer simple, direct and relatively objective means to analyse response quality (Abbey and Meloy, 2017). Responses that failed to answer appropriately any of the seven attention check questions were not considered for the analysis.

The statements used in Likert scales can largely capture participants' brand-related perceptions, feelings and behaviours. Likert scales are commonly applied in interval-based techniques, such as Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (DeVellis, 2017; Frey, 2018), thus this method is suitable for the data analysis plan later. Most studies concerning the use of either 5 or 7-item scales do not necessarily confer any absolute recommendation favouring one approach over the other, while a study conducted from a European perspective utterly recommended a 5-point scale to provide a better quality of data compared to a 7 or 11-point scale (Revilla et al., 2013). However, Malhotra (2014) mentioned that 7-point scales are considered crucial to performing successful factor analysis. A study showed slight support to use a 7-point scale among respondents with a more cognitive ability like student respondents and use a 5-point scale when respondents are general public (Weijters et al., 2010). The participants of the current research are consumers who negatively engage with the brand online and have cognitive ability. In line with recommendations as outlined in Weijters et al.'s (2010) paper, 7-point scales were used in this study, anchoring with 1= 'strongly disagree' and 7= 'strongly agree'.

8.3 Questionnaire testing

This section illustrates ways adopted in this research to reduce bias and enhance the study's validity and reliability (i.e., pre-test, pilot study). The pre-tested was firstly conducted to check people's understanding of questions, in particular, if there were any issues with the structure of the survey, the wording or clarity of questions and the flow of the instrument. Then, a small-scale preliminary study was conducted to identify and adjust any possible issues with the design of the questionnaire.

8.3.1 Pre-test

The questionnaire was first pre-tested among a small group of 20 researchers at the University of Glasgow and comments are based on the following four aspects. First, a few

minor issues with the wording and grammatical errors in the text of questionnaire items, as well as in instructions had been identified, and those questions were subsequently rephrased. They also suggested removing 1-7 in the instructions because the responder does not see the 1-7 just the strongly disagree or agree. Second, a few participants expressed that the questionnaire could be restructured to minimize fatigue and confusion, which was also taken into consideration. Particularly, they advised adding 'Piped text' to insert the actual name of the brand that the respondent provided into the subsequent questions. Third, some encouraging words like 'you are doing great' 'you are halfway through the survey!' were suggested to be added to encourage more participants to complete the survey. Fourth, participants proposed that some attention check questions could be replaced. For example, the attention check question (The sun rotates around the Earth) was replaced, because it requires respondents to have basic science knowledge and it can be answered correctly by chance. So, it was replaced with a better way: have an instruction item that asks respondents not to answer this question if they are reading this. Based on these comments, the questionnaire was discussed with some participants and two marketing experts, who confirmed its appropriateness, and the questionnaire was finalised.

8.3.2 Pilot study

Pilot studies are deemed helpful in detecting issues that may have been missed by the researchers even after carefully crafting an instrument (van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2002). The pilot study was launched in April 2021 and carried out for 1 month. To recruit people for the pilot study, convenience sampling was used, where the researcher contacted her network and asked to forward the questionnaire to other potential participants (Saunders et al., 2016, 2019). A Qualtrics link to the survey was sent through e-mail to people in the convenience sample. One screening question was added to ensure that participants could satisfy the study requirements (i.e., they have interacted negatively with a brand online). The researcher explained the purpose of the study and the invitation indicated the voluntary nature of participation and reassured participants of their anonymity.

Table 8.1 Participants' demographics-a pilot study (N=41)

Gender	
Female	27 (66%)
Male	14 (34%)
Age	
18-24	3 (7%)
25-34	28 (68%)
35-44	6 (15%)
45-54	2 (5%)
Over 55	2 (5%)
Education	
High school	2 (5%)
Professional qualification/diploma	4 (10%)
Undergraduate degree	5 (12%)
Postgraduate degree	26 (63%)
Other	4 (10%)
Employment	
Student	14 (34%)
Self-employed	2 (5%)
Working full-time	14 (34%)
Working part-time	5 (12%)
Out of work	2 (5%)
Retired	2 (5%)
Other	2 (5%)
Country	
Canada	2 (5%)
China	20 (49%)
India	1 (2%)
Iceland	1 (2%)
Spain	2 (5%)
UK	13 (32%)
US	2 (5%)

Data collection initially resulted in 83 returned surveys. Following the screening of the returned questionnaires, only those that contained less than 10% of missing data were retained (Hair et al., 2019). Where missing data were not critical to the analysis and for example represented demographic variables, these surveys were also kept. This in total produced 41 surveys that were accepted for the initial data analysis, an adequate sample size considering that for the pilot study, a minimum of 24-36 responses is recommended (Johanson and Brooks, 2010). Table 8.1 shows the profile of the participants of the pilot.

Four items of anti-consumption in general construct selected in the previous stage were removed in this stage, as they showed significant correlation and reliability problems. Also,

there were a couple of double negative questions that might be difficult for people to understand. Thus, the rest items of this construct were rephased to be easily understood. The other constructs did not have reliability issues and all items were retained. After these changes, the final questionnaire (see Appendix 9) was ready to be launched.

8.4 Questionnaire administration

A self-completion online survey was used to collect data. The survey was hosted on the Qualtrics survey platform (https://www.qualtrics.com/). Qualtrics was chosen because it provides high flexibility in questionnaire design (e.g., scale types, format and layout, display logic, skip logic, filter questions, etc.), distributions (e.g., custom link and anonymous link) and data analysis (Molnar, 2019). Participants who opened the survey link were introduced to the research in more detail. They were also asked to indicate their consent to participate in the study following the requirements of the University of Glasgow Ethics. The questionnaire was accessible through the sampled online anti-brand groups, consumer managed brand groups and from the researcher's networks (see section 8.5). Data collection was thus asynchronous, as respondents had the freedom to answer the self-completion questionnaire whenever they chose to.

There are several reasons for choosing an online self-administered survey questionnaire. Firstly, survey is an important and most appropriate data collection tool to obtain data to test hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2019). Thus, it could be used to examine and explain the relationships between variables and solve the current research questions (Gideon, 2012; Saunders et al., 2016, 2019). Moreover, a key advantage of online surveys is their ability to be delivered electronically, which can maximise the scalability and speed of data collection while reducing cost (Wright, 2005; Belisario et al., 2015). Online surveys can cover expansive geographical areas (Gideon, 2012; Belisario et al., 2015), which makes them particularly suited to the investigation of such large-scale phenomena as consumer brand engagement in the online environment. Although self-administered surveys involve the researcher losing control over the process and potential lack of truthfulness of the respondent, it also implies lowering confidentiality issues for them as they have the control, and therefore balance the truthfulness issue (Wright, 2005).

The biggest issue related to self-administered online surveys is the highly variable non-

response rate, thereby financial incentive was offered in this research to increase the response rate (Wright, 2005). Coverage can also be an issue when the population of interest does not have internet access (Couper, 2000), however, this issue is eliminated from this study given the inherent online profile of the population. The researcher accessed potential participants by posting invitations to participate in a survey on online communities, discussion groups, and chat rooms. However, members of online communities often find this behaviour rude or offensive (Hudson and Bruckman, 2004), or consider this type of posting to be 'spam' (Andrews et al., 2003). Response errors can also appear due to a misunderstanding of the questions (Dykema et al., 2013). In general, survey methodologies are associated with several sampling and non-sampling errors (Hair et al., 2006), and sample bias is particularly common for online samples (Hewson et al., 2003; Wright, 2005). These issues are tackled in the sampling section below.

8.5 Quantitative sampling

Several parameters characterise the target population of the survey. The study sought responses from female and male consumers aged 18 years old and above, who had negatively engaged with a certain brand in the online context.

There are a few challenges involved in outlining the target population. Firstly, it is difficult to determine the actual size of the population. As one way to approach relevant participants, online groups on Facebook exhibit the number of members that they have, allowing knowing the number of registered members in the group, however, this does not imply that all group members are active and that they will see survey posts. Second, the researcher also recruited people from various online consumer managed brand groups on Facebook and Instagram and shared the survey link to personal networks. The information was posted to the general public; thus, it is impossible to count the number of the audience. Determining a sampling frame does not seem to be feasible given the characteristics of the study's target population.

In the absence of a sampling frame, the study used a non-probability convenience sample technique to recruit participants. Non-probability sampling involves the non-random selection of respondents and often includes an element of subjective judgement (Saunders et al., 2016, 2019). Thus, this approach is appropriate for this research to recruit people who have engaged negatively with a brand online. Places, where can reach these people, were

first identified. The platforms of Facebook, Instagram and LinkedIn were selected because participants need to be recruited from places where people can freely choose whether to participate in the survey or not. To allow the recruitment of participants with varying levels of negative online brand engagement three approaches were employed.

Respondents were firstly recruited from anti-brand groups on Facebook. Many people in Facebook anti-brand groups actively and negatively engage with a brand (Wong et al., 2018). The researcher identified 52 online anti-brand groups on Facebook and the group moderators agreed to post the survey link in their groups, thereby, online anti-brand groups on Facebook is one of the sources to recruit participants. The survey links were firstly posted to moderators, who were in charge of posting it on the Facebook groups, with a word of explanation. A standard post was suggested, but freedom was left to the managers to post what they thought was best suited to their community.

Second, the researcher approached people from online consumer managed brand groups on Facebook and Instagram, which enables people to share their views about certain brands. Many consumers who engage negatively with a brand will join these consumer managed brand groups. A total of 34 consumers managed brand groups on Facebook (28) and Instagram (6) were selected to get a rich insight into negative brand engagement in different online contexts. The post of the survey link appeared on the timeline of the online groups, allowing its members to view it whenever they clicked on it.

Third, the snowball method was adopted to recruit participants from the researcher's contacts on Facebook and LinkedIn, who are mainly from China and UK. Also, the researcher's supervisors and colleagues helped to share the survey link, therefore respondents are from various countries such as Canada, India, and the US.

A standard questionnaire was used for the first group since all participants were engaging negatively with brands in online anti-brand communities. For the second and third groups, one more screening question was added to the questionnaire to ensure that the respondents have engaged negatively with a brand online. Survey links were created, and questionnaires were distributed to the identified groups by using different links. Once the participant clicked on the survey link, they were redirected to the survey and assumed to answer it.

Participants are from all over the world and from diverse age groups and with different employment statuses and education levels (see Table 8.2). The rule of thumb to have a

participant to item ratio of 5:1 served as a basis to determine the required number of responses (Gorsuch, 1983; Cottrell et al., 2007). In this study, 42 items were used in the scale development process and 33 items were used for testing the structural model. Applying the 5:1 ratio, the minimum number of responses required for the scale development was 210 and for testing the structural model was 165. A total of 1386 responses were collected in two months. Considering the missing data issue (see section 8.6), 431 responses remained including 163 from Facebook anti-brand groups, 69 from consumer managed brand groups on Facebook and Instagram, and 199 from the researcher's network. These responses are divided into two sub-samples: Sample 1 (N=210) was used in the scale development process and Sample 2 (N=221) was applied to test the structural model.

As shown in Table 8.2, the majority of respondents were females, with 59% in sample 1 and 60% in sample 2. Two age groups, 18-24 and 25-34 represent 64% of respondents for sample 1 and 58% for sample 2. In terms of education, over one-third of the participants in sample 1 has an undergraduate degree and in sample 2 has a postgraduate degree. Most participants in sample 1 (57%) and sample 2 (43%) work full-time. Participants in sample 1 mainly reside in China and participants in sample 2 are from a wide variety of countries with almost one-third from the UK.

Table 8.2 Participants' demographics (N=431)

	Sample 1 (N=210)	Sample 2 (N=221)
Sources		
Facebook anti-brand groups	158 (75%)	5 (2%)
Consumer managed brand groups	52 (25%)	17 (8%)
The researcher's contacts	-	199 (90%)
Gender		
Female	124 (59%)	133 (60%)
Male	86 (41%)	88 (40%)
Age		
18-24	32 (15%)	44 (20%)
25-34	102 (49%)	84 (38%)
35-44	31 (15%)	35 (16%)
45-54	31 (15%)	24 (11%)
Over 55	14 (6%)	34 (15%)
Education		
High school	30 (15%)	17 (8%)
Technical training	12 (6%)	7 (3%)
Professional qualification	22 (10%)	29 (13%)
Undergraduate degree	82 (39%)	63 (29%)
Postgraduate degree	59 (28%)	88 (40%)
Other	5 (2%)	17 (7%)
Employment		
Student	38 (18%)	51 (23%)
Self-employed	21 (10%)	17 (8%)
Working full-time	120 (57%)	94 (43%)
Working part-time	6 (3%)	22 (10%)
Out of work	11(5%)	10 (5%)
Retired	13 (6%)	18 (8%)
Other	1 (<1%)	9 (3%)
Country of residence		
Bangladesh	6 (3%)	1 (<1%)
Canada	1 (<1%)	6 (3%)
China	172 (82%)	27 (12%)
Germany	-	5 (2%)
India	-	7 (3%)
Malaysia	-	9 (4%)
UK	14 (7%)	70 (32%)
US	2 (1%)	46 (21%)
Others	15 (7%)	50 (23%)

8.6 Assessment of data for analysis

This section firstly illustrates methods used in this research to analyse missing data, and ways to control non-response bias and common method bias. Then, the normality test was

conducted to check the normal distribution of the data.

8.6.1 Missing data analysis

Missing data must be carefully assessed before proceeding with analyses of sample characteristics and data (Graham, 2012). Data can be missing completely at random, missing at random and not missing at random (Beynon et al., 2010; Graham, 2012). Little's (1988) test is also performed to assess the type of missing data at hand, providing a p-value of 0. This low p-value indicates an ability to reject the null hypothesis, meaning that the data are not missing completely at random; in other words, there is a pattern in the missing data (Li, 2013). Most of the missing data are grouped toward the end of the questionnaire but no other pattern of missingness is detected.

Several factors can explain the structure and high levels of data missingness in the sample. First, it is well accepted that self-administered online surveys tend to provide higher dropout rates than face-to-face surveys, as the researcher cannot ensure the survey completion (Wright, 2005). In addition, the researcher used the forced answering option to reduce missing data, which also increased the dropout rate (Décieux et al., 2015). Moreover, the length of the questionnaire is likely to induce high levels of respondent fatigue, increasing the dropout rate (Galesic and Bosnjak, 2009). Lastly, the sensitive nature of the last set of demographic questions at the end of the questionnaire has probably led some respondents to avoid answering them altogether (Décieux et al., 2015; Galesic and Bosnjak, 2009).

Based on this structure of missing data, dealing with omissions is done on a two-step basis. Listwise deletion was first applied to the data. A cut-off percentage of allowed missing data per case is fixed at 15 per cent, which is higher than the 10 per cent advocated by Hair et al. (2019). This is because a large amount of data is missing on demographic variables, which were not involved in hypothesis testing or scale development. Deletion of these cases resulted in 513 retained replies. Also, responses that failed to answer appropriately any of the seven attention check questions were not considered for the analysis. After reviewing the answers to attention check questions, 82 responses were eliminated. Deletion of these cases resulted in a remaining 431 cases.

These remaining missing data were computed using the Expectation Maximisation (EM) method performed via the SPSS Missing Value Analysis function. This method is considered

an appropriate approach because of the following four reasons. First, it performs better than methods like series mean or regression imputation which tends to reduce the variance of the data (Byrne, 2016). Second, it is the method that produces less bias on not missing completely at random data (Little and Rubin, 2002). Third, it permits the specification of some distributions other than normal, which may be potentially problematic with some constructs (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2019). Lastly, some of the sensitive data that could not be imputed due to their nominal nature (e.g., nationality and country of residence) are marked as N/A. Table 8.3 shows the process of dealing with missing data.

Table 8.3 Missing data analysis

Questionnaires collected (total)	Data with less than 15% missing values	Respondents that correctly answered attention check questions	Total response rate (%)
1386	513	431	31%

8.6.2 Non-response bias

When a sample frame cannot be determined, dealing with non-response bias is particularly important. There are different ways to deal with non-response bias (Clottey and Grawe, 2014). One of the commonly applied techniques to address non-response bias is to compare the early and late respondents and assume that late respondents are more closely to match theoretical non-respondents because their replies required more prodding and took the longest time (Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Clottey and Grawe, 2014). To compare early and late respondents, a cut-off date of September 1st, 2021, was selected to separate the respondents in early and late responses. This was chosen because most of the data were collected before September when the second wave of sampling started. T-tests and chi-square tests were used to compare early and late respondents on their characteristics and no significant differences were found between the two groups on the sample characteristics measures.

However, recent studies suggest that it is not clear why comparing late and early participants on certain characteristics would be able to offer relevant information on the alleviation of non-response bias concerns (Hulland et al., 2018). Researchers also suggest taking strict measures to identify careless participants, such as deploying instructional attention checks where participants are required to select (or not select) a specific response option (Gummer

et al., 2021). In cases where the wrong option is chosen, the participant was probably not paying enough attention; therefore, his/her reply contains a systematic error and should be excluded. According to Hulland et al. (2018), it is legitimate to discard cases if they are not compatible with the screening criteria. This approach was implemented in this research project. Seven attention check questions were used in the research and 82 responses were removed.

8.6.3 Common method bias

Given the potential negative influence that common method variance might have on the research findings if it is not controlled properly (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2010; Tehseen et al., 2017), there are two approaches to control the common method variance: procedural remedies and statistical remedies (Tehseen et al., 2017). The researchers firstly minimised impacts of common method variance by using procedural remedies because when effects of common method variance are not eliminated or reduced then they may appear in the research findings. Then, statistical remedies were applied to control the impacts of common method variance on research findings.

The procedural remedies used in this study are summarised below (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Tehseen et al., 2017). First, data were collected from different samples by posting different survey links in each selected group. Second, the anonymity of the respondents was protected, and the evaluation apprehension was reduced. Also, an effort was made to keep questions simple, specific, and concise. The researcher discussed the scales with branding experts to improve the accuracy and validity of each item in the survey. Further, items of the constructs were mixed and the order of measurement of variables was counterbalanced to neutralise method bias related to items' embeddedness.

Regarding statistical remedies, Harman's single factor test was carried out first, and a marker variable included in the questionnaire was used to examine common method variance. Harman's single factor test is the most common test that is carried out by researchers in their studies (Tehseen et al., 2017). A Harman one-factor analysis is a post hoc procedure that is conducted after data collection to check whether a single factor is accountable for variance in the data (Chang et al., 2010). In this method, all items from every construct are loaded into a factor analysis to check whether one single factor emerges or whether a single general

factor results in most of the covariance among the measures; if no single factor emerges and accounts for the majority of the covariance, this means that common method variance is not a pervasive issue in the study (Chang et al., 2010). Then, the marker variable in the questionnaire (ten items of healthy and balanced diet scale), which were unrelated to the principal constructs of the study and adopted from Zakowska-Biemans et al. (2019), was applied to examine common method variance. This is a statistical remedy that has been widely used in a variety of studies (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Tehseen et al., 2017). The detailed results were presented in section 9.6.

8.6.4 Data manipulations and normality tests

Before conducting the data analysis, some transformations were performed to prepare the data for analysis. Each choice answer of the 7 Likert scales was transformed and recoded, considering 1 as strongly disagree; 2 as disagree; 3 as somewhat disagree; 4 as neither agree nor disagree; 5 as somewhat agree; 6 as agree and 7 as strongly agree.

The next step was to test the normal distribution of the data (see Appendix 10). To check for normality, skewness and kurtosis measures were used. Skewness reflects the symmetry of distribution and kurtosis reflects the peakedness of distribution (Đorić et al., 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2019). The generally accepted values of skewness and kurtosis coefficients are in the (-1, 1) interval (Groeneveld and Meeden, 1984), which suggests no issues with normality. Also, the Histograms' shape of the distribution was analysed to assess normality (Das and Imon, 2016).

The values of the skewness coefficient for all the variables are in the (-1, 1) interval, except the first item of the anti-consumption in general scale which is slightly below -1. Values of the kurtosis coefficient for some variables are slightly outside of the (-1, 1) interval. However, the histograms show an acceptable normal distribution for all the variables. Further, Hair et al. (2006) argue that normality issues may be ignored if the sample size exceeds 200, which is the case for the two samples of this study. Given that the analysis of the skewness and kurtosis coefficients and the histograms do not indicate strong violations of normality, the researcher proceeded to the analysis without transformations.

8.7 Data analysis method

Following the normality assessment, the data was assessed with regard to its applicability for factor analysis. The researcher used several approaches to ensure the appropriateness of the data for the factor analysis, including conducting *Bartlett's test of sphericity, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO)*, and checking the *correlation coefficients*. Following these procedures, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to identify the commonalities within items of the measured variables (Henson and Roberts, 2006; Norris and Lecavalier, 2010; Moretti et al., 2019). Following EFA, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was executed to test the fit of the hypothesised conceptual model (Jackson et al., 2009; Kline, 2015). Lastly, the formulated hypotheses were tested using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (Ramlall, 2016). SPSS and AMOS statistical packages were used to analyse the quantitative data.

Initially, EFA was deemed appropriate as it helps to identify the factor structure for a set of variables, testing measurement integrity and guiding further theory refinement (Henson and Roberts, 2006; Norris and Lecavalier, 2010; Moretti et al., 2019). Factor extraction was conducted to identify the dimensionality or structure of the variables (Costello and Osborne, 2005; Tarka, 2015). The extraction method used was Maximum likelihood, looking for eigenvalues greater than one (Henson and Roberts, 2006). Secondly, factor rotation was executed using the Promax approach. Promax rotation was chosen as the set of loadings with this method frequently reveals simple structure better than do those from the Varimax solution (Finch, 2006).

Then, the measurement models were evaluated through CFA. CFA was used for both the scale development and to assess the whole measurement model before hypothesis testing. CFA is used *'to confirm a particular pattern of relationships predicted based on theory or previous analytic results'* (DeVellis, 2017, p.184). As such, CFA is a method that aims to test the goodness of fit of a model and ensure the unidimensionality of each hypothesised factor (Kline, 2015; Martynova et al., 2018). An analysis of the correlation matrix between factors was first conducted as a way to detect singularity or multicollinearity between factors. The goodness of fit is then evaluated using the Normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF), in combination with the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Hair et al., 2013; Kline, 2015) (see Table 8.4). Absolute Fit Indices (Chi-square, RMSEA) indicate how well the estimated

model reproduces the observed data. Incremental Fit Indices (NFI) indicate how well the estimated model fits some alternative baseline model. CFI and TLI are incremental fit indices, which compare the proposed model with a null or independent model which assumes that the latent variables in the model are uncorrelated (Bentler, 1992; Iacobucci, 2010).

Table 8.4 Assessed model fit indices

Measure	Unacceptable	Acceptable	Excellent
CMIN/DF	Higher than 5	Between 2 and 5	Between 1 and 2
CFI	Lower than 0.90	Between 0.90 and 0.95	Higher than 0.95
NFI	Lower than 0.90	-	Higher than 0.90
TLI	Lower than 0.90	-	Higher than 0.90
RMSEA	Higher than 0.08	Between 0.05 and 0.08	Lower than 0.05

Source: Hair et al. (2013)

In addition to the assessment of the indicators' estimates and the model fit indices, the composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) for constructs included in the model were evaluated. This process was done to analyse the reliability and validity of the measurement model.

The hypothesised relationships included in the structural model were then tested using SEM. SEM is one of the multivariate techniques in statistics, as it handles multiple numerical data, that is large sets of variables (Hair et al., 2013). SEM was deemed to be the most appropriate method given that multiple relationships of dependent and independent variables were being investigated (Chin, 1998; Ramlall, 2016). According to Babin et al. (2008), about half of all submissions in marketing nowadays use SEM and the principal reason for its popularity is its ability to breach theory development, measurement and hypothesis testing. SEM and its application in this research are discussed in detail further in Chapter 10.

8.8 Ethical considerations

Ethics approval was sought from the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow, and the ethics approval number is 400190174. The project adopts an ethical position that assumes the researcher observes and protects the rights of would-be participants and systematically acts to permit participants to exercise those rights. To this end, the researcher endeavour to minimize participants' inconvenience by using online

surveys which they can reply to from places they consider convenient, assure that they are properly informed, free to volunteer without inappropriate inducement, free to opt-out at any time without redress, remain anonymous, and be fully protected regarding safety to the limits of best practice.

Participants were informed about the purpose of the research and the time they are required to complete the questionnaire. Participants will be advised that their anonymity will be preserved, so they will not be identified in any publications related to this research. The researchers will not meet or know the identity of participants, as the questionnaire are collected from online platforms by using anonymous links created by Qualtrics. Due to the nature of the study, which deals with non-intrusive issues, this is not expected to be a problem. Data will be stored in the researcher's computer, which is password protected. The researcher will delete the collected electronic data on receiving the degree of PhD and completing related publications in 2030.

8.9 Chapter summary

The chapter discusses the development of the questionnaire, its structure and administration. The questionnaire was developed based on the conceptual model, which was, in turn, advanced based on the literature review and the qualitative findings. The questionnaire was structured in five sections, and it was pre-tested and then pilot tested to conduct the preliminary assessment of the psychometric characteristics of the measures. The researcher recruited participants through three sources including online anti-brand groups on Facebook, consumer managed brand groups on Facebook and Instagram, and the researcher's contacts on Facebook and LinkedIn to reach people who negatively engage with a brand online. This phase was hosted on Qualtrics. A total of 1386 responses were collected and 431 of them were selected and used in the data analysis.

Once the data were collected, it was divided into two samples: sample 1 (N = 210), used in the scale development process, and sample 2 (N = 221), used to test the formulated hypotheses. The characteristics of each sample are described in the chapter. Treatments for missing data, non-response bias and common method bias were applied, and normality was assessed in preparation for analysis. Lastly, the chapter presents the methodology employed for the analysis of the quantitative data by using EFA, CFA, and SEM.

Chapter 9 Measurement

9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents measures and items used to capture the study's concepts presented in the conceptual model (see Chapter 7), including three layers: antecedents, negative online brand engagement and outcomes. This is an important step to achieve the first research objective (i.e., conceptualise negative online brand engagement) and is the precondition of testing hypotheses in Chapter 10 which is related to the second and third research objectives.

The chapter includes four parts. First, the choice of the adapted/adopted scales of the constructs included in the conceptual model was explained, including six drivers and three outcomes of negative online brand engagement. This section reports the detailed procedures involved in the adaptation (or adoption) and evaluation of measures and explains the reasons for creating each of the measures. The second section details the rationale for developing the scale to measure negative online brand engagement. Then, the four-stage scale development process is presented (i.e., define the construct, item purification, reliability and convergent validity, discriminant validity). Then, the same procedure was used to develop the scales for offline destructive and constructive behaviour, which are identified as outcomes in the conceptual model. The chapter closes with the assessment of the full measurement model using CFA, and an evaluation of the validity and reliability of the measures.

9.2 Choice of adapted/adopted measures

Following the analysis of the qualitative data (Chapter 6) and having identified and defined the constructs included in the conceptual model (Chapter 7), the literature was reviewed to classify and operationalise existing constructs. This section illustrates the process of selecting existing measures for constructs in the conceptual model, including three steps: searching existing scales, benchmarking the items with the construct definition and selecting the scales.

Articles from high-quality journals in marketing and management which have provided valid and reliable scales of constructs in the conceptual model were reviewed. A total of 75 existing scales were evaluated including 54 scales for 6 antecedents and 21 scales for 3 outcomes of negative online brand engagement (see Table 9.1 and Table 9.2).

Table 9.1 Sources of scale items (Antecedences)

Construct	Number of scales	Authors and Number of items
Perceived brand quality	17	Veloutsou et al, 2020 (3 items); Liu et al., 2014 (4 items); Erdem et al., 2006 (2 items); Vera, 2015 (2 items); Aaker, 1996b (3 items); Keller and Aaker, 1992 (3 items); Randrianasolo, 2017 (2 items); Pecot et al., 2018 (2 items); Papadimitriou et al., 2016 (5 items); Muniz et al., 2019 (3 items); Steenkamp, 2003 (2 items); DelVecchio and Puligadda, 2012 (4 items); Boisvert and Ashill, 2011 (3 items); Yang and Lee, 2019 (4 items); Das, 2014 (4 items); Akdeniz et al., 2013 (5 items); Purohit and Srivastava, 2001 (5 items)
Brand failure severity	10	Wang and Zhang, 2018 (3 items); Zhang et al., 2020 (3 items); Weitzl et al., 2018 (3 items); Wang et al., 2011 (3 items); Tsarenko and Tojib, 2012 (4 items); Keiningham et al., 2014 (2 items); La and Choi, 2019 (3 items); Bergel and Brock, 2018 (4 items); Fox et al., 2018 (3 items); Grégoire et al., 2009 (3 items)
Unacceptable brand behaviour	7	Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019 (4 items); Hegner et al., 2017 (4 items); Kim et al., 2019a (3 items); Davies and Olmedo-Cifuentes, 2016 (6 items); Karaosmanoglu et al., 2018 (5 items); Haberstroh et al., 2017 (2 items); Lindenmeier et al., 2012 (3 items)
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty	7	Wang and Zhang, 2018 (3 items); Dessart et al., 2020 (7 items); Aurier and Lanauze, 2012 (4 items); Liang et al., 2020b (4 items); Kuo and Feng, 2013 (4 items); Kuo and Hou, 2017 (6 items)
Anti-consumption in general	5	Oral and Thurner, 2019 (19 items); Ozanne and Ballantine, 2010 (2 items); Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher, 2018 (4 items); Iyer and Muncy, 2009 (8 items); Nepomuceno and Laroche, 2016 (17 items)
Brand disidentification	8	Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002 (3 items); Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019 (5 items); Sarkar et al., 2020 (4 items); Odoom et al., 2019 (5 items); Hegner et al 2017 (5 items); Zagenczyk et al., 2013 (3 items); Wolter et al., 2016 (3 items); Einwiller et al., 2019 (6 items)

Table 9.2 Sources of scale items (Outcomes)

Construct	Number of scales	Authors and Number of items
Intention to participate in anti-brand communities	7	Zhou et al., 2013 (3 items); Algesheimer et al., 2005 (1 item); Pedeliento et al., 2020 (3 items); Klein and Sharma, 2018 (3 items); Agu, 2020 (6 items); Chou, 2019 (3 items); Lee et al., 2018b (3 items)
Brand disloyalty	5	Veloutsou and McAlonan, 2012 (6 items); Harris and Goode, 2004 (16 items); van der Westhuizen, 2018 (7 items); Foroudi et al., 2018 (5 items); Lin et al., 2019 (3 items)
Happiness	9	Zhou et al., 2019 (3 items); Zhan and Zhou, 2018 (3 items); Keyser and Lariviere, 2014 (3 items); Li and Atkinson, 2020 (3 items); Schellong et al., 2019 (6 items); Hwang and Kim, 2018 (5 items); Dennis et al., 2016 (5 items); Aksoy et al., 2015 (3 items); Hsieh et al., 2018 (13 items)

Academic expert reviews assisted in the process of selecting the measurement scales. The aim of seeking academic experts' opinions on the existing scales was threefold: (1) to enhance the face and content validity (Grant and Davies, 1997; Connell et al., 2018); (2) to validate the construct definitions and rate the relevance of each item concerning what is supposed to be measured (DeVellis, 1991; Gilliam and Voss, 2013; McDaniel and Gates, 2016); and (3) to ensure items' conciseness, suitability and clarity (Rossiter, 2002; Hardesty and Bearden, 2004; MacKenzie et al., 2011). Overall, two academic experts in the branding field were approached. Five meetings were held in five weeks, and the average duration of each meeting was about two hours. The experts firstly checked if the constructs were properly defined. Then, they checked if the listed scales could reflect the construct definition. The reliability and validity of the scales were also considered. Finally, the scale for each construct was selected and the experts also helped with revising each item of selected scales to fit the current research context.

The academic expert panel reviews also established items' conciseness and clarity of wording to avoid any misunderstandings when participants filled in the questionnaire. Firstly, the researcher sent the adapted or adopted items to her colleagues, who are native speakers, to check if items exist grammar issues and if they can be easily understood. After revising the grammar issues, two branding practitioners reviewed the revised items and check if it exists redundancy and academic vocabulary which may lead to misunderstanding. Finally, the pre-test and pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted to identify and adjust any possible issues with the design of the questionnaire and detect issues that may have been

missed by the researcher (see Chapter 8).

The following paragraphs explain the rationale for selecting scales to measure variables included in the conceptual model including antecedences and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. Table 9.3 presents the list of selected measures.

Perceived brand quality is consumers' judgment about the overall excellence or superiority of all the brand features (Zeithaml, 1988; Bazi et al., 2020). Veloutsou et al.'s (2020) three-item scale (Cronbach's Alpha, 0.76-0.79) to measure perceived brand quality was adapted for this research. Two items were revised as they used the word 'quality' to measure 'brand quality', thereby it was replaced by its synonyms: 'exceptional' and 'superior' respectively.

Brand failure severity is consumers' perceived intensity of loss from the interactions with focal brands (Fox et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). Based on the review of 10 existing scales, the measurement scale was adapted from Zhang et al.'s (2020) three-item scale according to the construct definition. The test in Zhang et al.'s (2020) study shows that this scale has validity and reliability, with AVE of 0.657, CR of 0.850 and Cronbach's Alpha of 0.839. The researchers modified the tense in the original to the present tense, because participants may not have experienced brand failure.

Unacceptable brand behaviour was conceptualised as consumers perceived unethical, immoral and irresponsible acts carried out by the brand, which is incompatible with their own beliefs and value (Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019; Kim et al., 2019a). Analysis of existing research has yielded 7 potential scales to measure unacceptable brand behaviour (e.g., corporate wrongdoing, brand misconduct) (Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019; Davies and Olmedo-Cifuentes, 2016). Kim et al.'s (2019a) three-item scale to measure perceived moral inequity of corporate behaviour was adopted for this research. The items reflect the construct's definition and Cronbach's Alpha is 0.944 (Kim et al., 2019a).

Oppositional attitudinal loyalty was conceptualised as the consumer's commitment to another brand in the same product category (Liu-Thompkins and Tam, 2013; Dessart et al., 2020). Dessart et al.'s (2020) seven-item scale to measure opposition attitudinal loyalty was adapted for this research. The results of Dessart et al.'s (2020) research evidence the validity and reliability of this scale, with the AVE of 0.58, CR of 0.90 and Cronbach's Alpha of 0.90. The order of the items was adjusted to make it easier to understand.

Table 9.3 Operationalisation of study constructs (existing scales)

Construct	Items	Source
Perceived brand quality	This brand is exceptional. (PBQ1)	Adapted from Veloutsou et al., 2020
	This brand has excellent features. (PBQ2)	
	Compared to other brands in its category, this brand is superior. (PBQ3)	
Brand failure severity	This brand makes mistakes, and it could create many problems for me. (BFS1)	Adapted from Zhang et al., 2020
	The brand mistake could cause me serious inconvenience. (BFS2)	
	The brand mistake can be the source of my major irritation. (BFS3)	
Unacceptable brand behaviour	I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unethical. (UB1)	Adopted from Kim et al., 2019a
	I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unjust. (UB2)	
	I consider the behaviour of the brand to be morally wrong. (UB3)	
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty	There is another brand that I will never betray. (OAL1)	Adapted from Dessart et al., 2020
	There is another brand that I am proud to buy. (OAL2)	
	There is another brand that I feel attached to. (OAL3)	
	There is another brand that is my favourite. (OAL4)	
	There is another brand that I feel confident buying. (OAL5)	
	There is another brand that I believe is fairer. (OAL6)	
	I would feel upset if I had to buy a brand other than the other one that is my favourite one. (OAL7)	
Anti-consumption in general	Before buying an item, I seriously consider whether this item is necessary to me or not. (ACG1)	Adapted from Oral and Thurner, 2019
	Even if I have the money, I try to keep my consumption level at a minimum. (ACG2)	
	By voluntary reducing my level of consumption, I can avoid stress. (ACG3)	
	The less I buy, the better I feel. (ACG4)	
	By living a less materialistic lifestyle, I reduce my level of stress. (ACG5)	
	If I understand the potential damage to the environment that some products can cause, I do not purchase those products. (deleted)	
	I do not buy household products that harm the environment. (deleted)	
	I will not buy a product if I know that the company that sells it is socially irresponsible. (deleted)	
	I do not buy products from companies that I know use sweatshop labour, child labour, or other poor working conditions. (deleted)	

Construct	Items	Source
Consumer brand disidentification	The brand's failures are my successes. (CBD1)	Adopted from Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002
	When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal insult. (CBD2)	
	When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal compliment. (CBD3)	
Intention to participate in anti-brand communities	I intend to be a member of a group that is against the brand. (IP1)	Adapted from Zhou et al., 2013
	If I have opportunity, I would like to participate in the activities of the group that is against the brand. (IP2)	
	I intend to communicate with others from the group of people who are against the brand. (IP3)	
	I probably will be associated with a group of people that oppose this brand. (IP4)	
Brand disloyalty	I will never (re-)purchase the product from this brand. (BDI1)	Adapted from Lin et al., 2019
	I will never purchase other products from this brand. (BDI2)	
	I will never recommend this brand to other consumers. (BDI3)	
	The likelihood that I will (re-)purchase this brand is very low. (BDI4)	
	My willingness to (re-)buy this brand is very low. (BDI5)	
Happiness	My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall happiness at the time of interaction. (H1)	Adapted from Li and Atkinson, 2020
	My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall life's happiness. (H2)	
	My negative online engagement with this brand increased my overall life satisfaction. (H3)	

Anti-consumption in general refers to consumers' reduction of all consumption. A six-item scale from Oral and Thurner (2019) and a four-item scale from Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher (2018) were adapted to measure anti-consumption (with Cronbach's Alpha of 0.760). The measurement includes three aspects of ecological, societal and personal goals. One item from Oral and Thurner's (2019) scale was dropped, as it is not related to anti-consumption. Hence, a total of nine items were used to measure anti-consumption in general. However, the pilot study showed low reliability of this nine-item scale. After discussion with two marketing experts, five items were retained in the final scale.

Consumer brand disidentification was defined as a self-perception based on (1) a cognitive separation between a person's identity and his or her perception of the identity of a brand and (2) a negative relational categorization of the self and the brand (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002). The measurement scale was borrowed from Bhattacharya and Elsbach (2002), which has Cronbach's Alpha of 0.79. The researcher adapted the three items according to the research context. The terms 'NRA' in the three items were revised to 'the brand'.

Consumer's intention to participate in anti-brand communities refers to the degree of consumers' willingness to actively participate in anti-brand communities in the online and offline environment (Zhou et al., 2013). Consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities reflects a higher level of engagement. Three items from Zhou et al.'s (2013) participation intention scale (AVE of 0.769, CR of 0.909, Cronbach's Alpha of 0.850) were adapted to measure the construct. The term 'OBC X' in the original scale was replaced by 'the group that is against the brand' to suit the current research context.

Brand disloyalty was viewed as the consumer's negatively valenced attitude and behaviours to the brand (Harris and Goode, 2004; Lin et al., 2019). To the researcher's best knowledge, very limited literature has assessed this construct empirically. Thus, the review of existing literature was broader in scope and evaluate measurements of brand loyalty. Three items from Lin et al.'s (2019) brand loyalty scale (AVE of 0.66, CR of 0.85, Cronbach's Alpha of 0.91) were reversed to measure the brand disloyalty construct. The term 'never' was added in each item to fit the research context and the construct definition.

Consumer happiness is likely to be a generic concept that includes various positive feelings (Hwang and Kim, 2018). Happiness was viewed as the frequency and degree of consumer positive affect, the absence of consumer negative feelings and the average level of consumer

satisfaction of interacting with the brand in the online environment (Belanche et al., 2013; Hsieh et al., 2018; Li and Atkinson, 2020). Based on this definition, three items from Li and Atkinson's (2020) happiness scale (Cronbach's Alpha of 0.93) were adapted. The term 'book' was replaced by 'my negative online engagement with this brand' to fit the current research context.

9.3 Rationale for developing the negative online brand engagement scale

To provide justification for the scale development for negative online brand engagement, as suggested in the literature (Churchill, 1979), the existing scales on negative and positive consumer engagement were identified and reviewed. The analysis that follows reveals that the existing operationalisations are not capturing the negative online brand engagement conceptual definition of this study (see section 9.4.1) and therefore a scale had to be developed to capture the construct.

9.3.1 Existing scales of negative consumer engagement

Based on the existing literature on negative consumer engagement, only three articles capture negative consumer engagement quantitatively (see Table 9.4). Some scales used to capture negative engagement on different objects, such as social network sites (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016) or online service providers (Azer and Alexander, 2020a), make them inconsistent with the current study's conceptual definition and brand focus. These scales used items coming from multiple previous studies to capture negative behavioural engagement, without adopting a scale development approach, therefore using operationalisation not developed through a thorough scale development process (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2020a; Naumann et al., 2020). The scale adopted by Naumann et al. (2020) to capture consumers' negative cognitive, affective and behavioural engagement with focal brands has limited explanations on the actual nature of the dimensions, for example using only two negative emotions (anger and dislike) and no prior study to clearly define the makeup of the dimension. Based on the above analysis, existing scales on negative consumer engagement cannot be applied in this research.

Table 9.4 Existing scales of negative consumer engagement (CE)

Study	Paper type	Focus	Dimensions of negative CE		
			Cognitive	**Affective**	**Behavioural**
Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016	quantitative	positive, negative CE behaviour	-	-	The behavioural manifestations of CE on social networking sites.
Naumann et al., 2020	quantitative	positive, negative CE	The degree of interest and attention paid to negative information about a service brand or community.	Feelings of anger and dislike towards a service relationship.	The behavioural component of negative CE manifests through the collective complaint and anti-brand activism.
Azer and Alexander, 2020a	quantitative	negative CE behaviour	-	-	Customer contributions of resources negatively affect other actors' knowledge, expectations, and perception about a focal service provider.

9.3.2 Existing scales of positive consumer engagement

The researcher then reviewed all the selected articles (based on the criteria in Chapter 2) on positive consumer engagement to see if positive consumer engagement scales can be transferred into negative. Scales of positive consumer engagement have been developed based on a unidimensional or multidimensional view. Since the definition of negative online brand engagement in this study is based on cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions, scales that do not focus on these three dimensions were not considered. As shown in Table 9.5, only three studies (i.e., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016a; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019) developed scales of consumer engagement based on cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions.

Table 9.5 Studies on positive consumer engagement that develop scales

Study	Focus	Definition	Dimensions of negative consumer engagement and number of items		
			Cognitive	Affective	Behavioural
Algesheimer et al. 2005	community	Customer's intrinsic motivation to interact and cooperate with community members.	-	-	4 items
Sprott et al., 2009	brand	A generalized view of brands in relation to the self, with consumers varying in their tendency to include important brands as part of their self-concepts.	-	brand engagement in self-concept (8 items)	-
Jahn and Kunz, 2012	fanpage	Interactive and integrative participation in the fan-page community.	-	-	5 items
Hollebeek et al., 2014	brand	A consumer's positively valenced brand-related cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity during or related to focal consumer-brand interactions.	**Cognitive processing:** a consumer's level of brand-related thought processing and elaboration in a particular consumer/brand interaction. (3 items)	**Affection:** a consumer's degree of positive brand-related affect in a particular consumer/brand interaction. (4 items)	**Activation:** a consumer's level of energy, effort and time spent on a brand in a particular consumer/brand interaction. (3 items)
Vivek et al., 2014	brand, offering, activity	The level of the customer's (or potential customer's) interactions and connections with the brand or firm's offerings or activities, often involving others in the social network created around the brand/offering/activity.	**Conscious attention:** the degree of interest the person has or wishes to have in interacting with the focus of their engagement. (3 items)	**Enthused participation:** the zealous reactions and feelings of a person related to using or interacting with the focus of their engagement. (4 items)	**Social connection:** enhancement of the interaction based on the inclusion of others with the focus of engagement. (3 items)
Dijkmans et al., 2015	social media activities	(a) consumer's familiarity with a company's social media activities (cognition) and (b) the online following of these activities (behaviour).	Consumer's familiarity with a company's social media activities. (1 item)	-	The online following of these activities. (1 item)
Dessart et al., 2016a	brand and brand community	Varying levels of affective, cognitive, and behavioural manifestations that go beyond exchange situations.	Set of enduring and active mental states that a consumer experiences. **Attention** (2 items); **Absorption** (4 items)	Summative and enduring level of emotions experienced by a consumer. **Enthusiasm** (3 items); **Enjoyment** (3 items)	Behavioural manifestations towards an engagement partner, beyond purchase, which results from motivational drivers. **Sharing** (3 items); **Learning** (3 items); **Endorsing** (4 items)
Schivinski et al., 2016	brand-related social-media content	A set of brand-related online activities on the part of the consumer.	-	-	consumption, contribution, creation (17 items)
Kumar and Pansari, 2016	customer and firm	Customer attitude, behaviour, and level of connectedness among themselves and with the firm.	-	-	Customer purchase, referral, influencer, knowledge behaviour (16 items)

Study	Focus	Definition	Dimensions of negative consumer engagement and number of items		
			Cognitive	Affective	Behavioural
Demangeot and Broderick, 2016	website	The process of developing a cognitive, affective and behavioural commitment to an active relationship with the website.	-	-	Interaction engagement (4 items); activity engagement (3 items); behavioural engagement (4 items); communication engagement (4 items)
Calder et al., 2016	multiple	A psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal object. It is a multidimensional concept subject to a context- and/or stakeholder-specific expression of relevant cognitive, emotional and/or behavioural dimensions.	Interaction; Transportation; Discovery; Identity; Civic Orientation (three studies and different items)		
Thakur, 2016	mobile devices	A psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive customer experiences with a focal object, goes beyond specific purchase transactions resulting from emotional and utilitarian motivational drivers.	Monetary experience (3 items); Social-Facilitation (3 items); Intrinsic enjoyment (3 items); Utilitarian (3 items); Self-Connect (3 items); Time-Filler (4 items)		
Tuškej and Podnar, 2018	social media	Consumer behaviour goes beyond purchase behaviour and manifests in the extent to which individuals actively and consciously participate in brands' activities.	Follow; like or share; check (3 items)		
Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019	social media activation campaigns	The extent of cognitive, affective, and behavioural energies that consumers simultaneously and holistically devote to a campaign.	**Attention:** the extent to which a consumer concentrates on, is attentive to, thinks about, and is absorbed or engrossed in a social media activation campaign. (4 items)	**Interest and enjoyment:** the extent to which consumers become interested in, or excited about a social media activation campaign, as well as the extent to which they derive pleasure and joy from their experiences with it. (4 items)	**Consumption:** the extent to which individuals consume the content provided in a campaign. **Contribution:** the extent to which consumers contribute to a SMAC through activities. **Creation:** the consumers' level of participating in campaign activities. (4 items)

The existing scales to measure cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions of positive consumer engagement cannot reflect the conceptual definitions of these three dimensions in the current study. Although authors have identified the cognitive dimension as cognitive processing, the scales could not reflect the long-term, enduring characteristics of the cognitive process: from getting aware to thinking a lot about the brand (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016). The scales to measure the affection dimension are not specific enough, thereby cannot capture the variety of negative emotions (e.g. anger, frustration, worry) reflected in the literature and qualitative data (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019). The behaviours covered in existing scales cannot be transferred to measure the constructive and destructive behaviours identified in this study (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016).

Some scales were used to capture positive consumer engagement on different objects, such as social media activation campaigns (Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019) or multiple objects including brand and brand community (Dessart et al., 2016), making them inconsistent with the current study's conceptual definition and brand focus. Also, focusing on multiple engagement objects may cause confusion as consumers who negatively engage with the brand may positively engage with the anti-brand community.

Consequently, there is no conceptually adequate and valid scale of negative online brand engagement that could be used or adapted had been published. In addition, existing scales on positive consumer engagement cannot reflect the conceptual definition of the three dimensions of negative online brand engagement identified in the current study. As such, the creation of a dedicated scale to measure the focal concept of the study is needed. The scale development process, applied to generate a valid and reliable scale of the negative online consumer brand engagement, is explained in the following sections.

9.4 Negative online brand engagement scale development process

Following well-established procedures for scale development (Churchill, 1979; Rossiter, 2002; MacKenzie et al., 2011; van Engen, 2017; DeVellis, 2017), a four-step process was adopted (see Table 9.6).

Table 9.6 Scale development process (four-step)

Before data collection	**Step1**	Defined negative online brand engagement and items generation (Literature review and qualitative research)
	Step 2	Item purification (Used expert advice to purify the instrument and ensure the suggested dimensionality appropriateness, and the items' content validity)
After data collection	**Step 3**	Reliability, convergent validity
	Step 4	Discriminant validity

9.4.1 Step 1: Define negative online brand engagement and item generation

The procedures adopted for item generation include three steps. First, the construct of negative online brand engagement was clearly defined through reviewing the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement (see Chapter 2) and conducting a qualitative study (see Chapter 6). Second, items are developed based on existing literature on consumer engagement and findings from the qualitative data. Also, papers on brand love, brand hate and brand polarization were reviewed to help in the item development. Third, each developed item was checked to ensure it reflects the construct definition.

The findings from the literature review show the unidimensional and multi-dimensional view of positive consumer engagement (Kleinaltenkamp et al., 2019). The unidimensional view tends to focus on the behavioural dimension (e.g., Yang et al., 2016; Harmeling et al., 2017; Bruneau et al., 2018; Rabbanee et al., 2020), and the most widely used conceptualisation defines it as customers' behavioural manifestations that have a brand/firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers. However, this approach cannot fully define the consumer engagement concept (van Doorn et al., 2010; Machado et al., 2019). The multidimensional perspective has been widely adopted in the marketing literature (e.g., Connell et al., 2019; Hilton et al., 2020), particularly, the three-dimensional perspective is considered as a rich, multi-faceted and the most widely accepted measure of consumer engagement across the literature on positive consumer engagement (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2016; Dessart et al., 2016a; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; McLean et al., 2021).

Previous studies on positive consumer engagement also mentioned the experiential dimension (e.g., Gambetti et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2012; Hollebeek et al., 2016). Experiential engagement is defined as consumers' multi-sensory elements, cognitions, affects, physical interactions and social experiences (Calder et al., 2009; Gambetti et al., 2012; Schmitt, 2012; Tafesse, 2016; Calder et al., 2016). Accordingly, there are some

overlaps between the experiential dimension and the cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions. Thus, the experiential dimension is not suitable for current research. Other positive consumer engagement literature has mentioned the social dimension and defined it as consumers interact, participate, co-create and share brand-related values or content with other potential or existing consumers (e.g., Gambetti et al., 2012; Vivek et al., 2012, 2014; Hollebeek et al., 2016), which involves a relationship with other consumers rather than with the brand. Therefore, the social dimension is inconsistent with the current research focus.

Existing literature on negative consumer engagement shows some controversies about the definition of negative consumer brand engagement. Many scholars agree with the unidimensional view and define it as consumers' unfavourable brand-related behaviours during interactions (e.g., Dolan et al., 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2018, 2020a, 2020b). Also, negative consumer engagement has been conceptualised with three dimensions from a conceptual paper developed by Hollebeek and Chen (2014) and supported by a very small number of studies employing empirical research (de Villiers, 2015; Bowden et al. 2017; Naumann et al., 2017a; 2020; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2020). Specifically, negative cognitive engagement refers to the intensity of consumers' negative thoughts, absorption and reflection on the brand, negative affective engagement is the degree of consumers' negative emotions and feelings, and negative behavioural engagement is the intensity of consumers' negatively valenced behavioural investment (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Do et al., 2020).

Qualitative data (see Chapter 5) were collected to help in the identification of the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement. The findings from the qualitative phase (see Chapter 6) suggest that negative online brand engagement has three dimensions, and each dimension has two sub-dimensions, including cognitive (attention, thinking), affective (diversity of negative feelings, negative emotion demonstration) and behavioural (online constructive and destructive behaviours) dimensions.

Based on the analysis of the literature and the qualitative data, negative online brand engagement is defined here based on the cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions. Considering the online context and the brand focus, negative online brand engagement is conceptualised as ***consumer negatively valenced brand-related cognition, affection and online behaviour***. In this study, consumers' cognitions and affections are considered to be indistinguishable in the online and offline contexts, while consumers' online and offline engagement behaviours are different (Díaz et al., 2017; Moon et al., 2021). Accordingly, this

definition provides detailed explanations of the differences among the three engagement dimensions in the online context, which have not been discussed in the existing literature. Negative online brand engagement was measured through cognitive (attention, thinking), affective (diversity of negative feelings, negative emotion demonstration) and behavioural (online constructive and destructive behaviours) dimensions.

The next step is to generate items to measure the negative online brand engagement. The generated items from the literature review and the qualitative study were benchmarked with the construct definition, as a result, a group of items (N=160) were generated for the cognitive (44), affective (60) and behavioural (56) dimensions (see Table 9.7).

9.4.2 Step 2: Item purification

The procedures adopted for item purification include two steps. First, meetings with two academic experts were conducted to initially purify items (from 160 to 61) (Table 9.7). Second, 68 academic researchers were asked to report on the definition of negative online brand engagement, the suggested three dimensions, six sub-dimensions, and the specific 61 items in terms of clarity and reflection of the definition.

Table 9.7 Initial item purification of the negative online brand engagement dimensions

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Items before the meetings with experts	Items after the meetings with experts
Cognitive dimension	attention	30	10
	thinking	14	17
Affective dimension	diversity of negative feelings	40	13
	negative emotion demonstration	20	11
Behavioural dimension	constructive	32	5
	destructive	24	5
Total		**160**	**61**

For the initial item purification, thirteen face-to-face meetings with a duration of 60 minutes aiming to purify the dimensionality and items between the researcher and two academic experts working on brand management were held over a period of six weeks. As a result, the three dimensions and six sub-dimensions of negative online brand engagement were retained,

and the originally generated items were purified and organised in the sub-dimension.

Aiming to further purify the instrument and to ensure that the suggested dimensionality was appropriate, and items were valid in terms of their content, the suggested operationalisation was exposed to a panel of academic experts who acted as judges (Rossiter, 2002; DeVellis, 2017; van Engen, 2017). Thus, 68 academic researchers in branding were identified, all publishing in related topics, with some of their works reviewed during step 1, working in universities in 19 different countries (26% in the US, 7% in the UK, 7% in Australia and 7% in the Netherlands). The academics were contacted via a personal e-mail from a senior academic with a link to a Qualtrics-based survey (see Appendix 11). The experts were invited to provide comments both in a structured manner through scales and an unstructured manner through the provision of written comments.

A total of 29 experts responded to the expert survey. For confidentiality purposes, the profile of these academic experts was not asked. Firstly, experts were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the proposed dimensionality of negative online brand engagement. The results show that experts supported the suggested dimensionality. Then, a total of 61 items related to negative online brand engagement were presented to the experts, with 27, 24, and 10 items for the cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions respectively. Items were retained if they met a 75% threshold (above 3.75) on their reflective scores and clarity scores (Hardesty and Bearden, 2004). A total of 29 items were removed, leaving 9, 13, and 10 items for the cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions respectively.

Appendix 12 presents the list of items, sources of items, the statistics of experts' responses to the survey and the retained items after the academic experts' feedback. For a wider test of the statements' clarity, a pre-test of the questionnaire with 20 researchers in the area of marketing was also conducted (see section 8.3.1 for details).

9.4.3 Step 3: Reliability and convergent validity

The third step was to address the reliability and convergent validity checks of the developed scale and included a pilot study and the main study. Before conducting a full-scale survey, a pilot study with 41 responses from a convenience sample recruited through the researcher's network was conducted to identify and adjust any possible issues with the design of the questionnaire (see section 8.3.2). The result shows that the construct of negative online brand

engagement did not have reliability issues and all items were retained.

A sub-sample (N=210) was used to test the measures. With 42 items in the scale development process (32 items for the dimensions of negative online brand engagement and 10 items for the offline constructive and destructive behaviour), the sample size of N= 210 was adopted based on the rule of 5:1 ratio. The suitability of the sample size was also checked through Bartlett's test of sphericity, where the recommended coefficient was $p < 0.05$ (Sun et al., 2020). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) test with a > 0.6 threshold was used to determine the sufficiency of the sample size (Şahan et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2020). Table 9.8 illustrates the results of these two tests.

Table 9.8 Results of the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for core construct scale development

Test	N=210
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.949
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Sig.	0.000

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for the negative online brand engagement scale

Development began with EFA. EFA extracted four factors, each with an eigenvalue higher than one. They explained 78% of the overall variance. The results showed that items of sub-dimensions of the cognition dimension (attention and thinking) loaded in the same factor. Also, the items of sub-dimensions of the affective dimension (diversity of negative feelings and negative emotion demonstration) loaded in the same factor. After reviewing the redaction of items belonging to these dimensions, the researcher judged that the cognitive and affective dimensions should be measured without sub-dimension. For the three dimensions of negative online brand engagement, only the behavioural dimension can be measured with sub-dimensions (online constructive and destructive behaviour). Further, some items were excluded from the analysis due to cross-loadings (NED2, NED3, T3) and low loadings (T4, NED7).

After discussion with two marketing experts, the researcher reconsidered sub-dimensions of behavioural engagement and identified online destructive and constructive behaviour as two separate dimensions of negative online brand engagement. The reasons for this decision are as follows. First, unlike the behavioural dimension of positive brand engagement, which

reflects consumer's positive behavioural manifestations to the brand (e.g., Dessart, et al., 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2020b), the constructive and destructive behaviours identified in the current research reflect different nature, with the former aim to solve problems and sustain the relationship, whereas the latter intends to harm the engagement object (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Kim and Lim, 2020). Therefore, it is not appropriate to group these two behaviours under the same category. Second, existing literature indicates that complex instruments containing sub-dimensions are challenging in terms of construct discrimination. Ferreira et al. (2020) tested Dessart et al.'s (2016) scale and found high correlations among sub-dimensions of the same construct. Also, parsimony is identified as an important criterion when developing a scale (Ferreira et al., 2020). The researcher decided to not use sub-dimensions to better capture information for each dimension. Consequently, negative online brand engagement was measured based on four dimensions including affective (10 items), cognitive (7 items), online destructive behaviour (5 items) and online constructive behaviour (5 items).

Factors loaded on components (1) affective dimension - 10 items loading at 0.753 or above; (2) cognitive dimension -7 items loading at 0.586 or above; (3) online destructive behaviour - 5 items loading at 0.886 or above; and (4) constructive behaviour - 5 items loading at 0.581 or above. Table 9.9 shows the results of the EFA's final pattern matrix. Cronbach's α of each of the sub-dimensions achieves a value above the advocated cut-off point of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2013; Al-Osail et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2019), and all the values are above 0.930, exhibiting good reliability.

Table 9.9 EFA scale development-Pattern Matrix

Measured items	Factor			
Affective (Cronbach's α = 0.968)				
DNF5: I can use many negative words to describe my feelings towards the brand.	**0.921**	-0.044	0.033	0.042
DNF1: This brand arouses intense negative emotions.	**0.915**	-0.074	-0.039	0.041
DNF4: I feel uncomfortable when I think about this brand.	**0.891**	-0.001	-0.045	-0.001
DNF3: I cannot tolerate this brand.	**0.884**	0.030	0.085	-0.087
DNF2: I always feel critical about this brand.	**0.862**	0.002	0.012	-0.015
DNF6: I detest this brand.	**0.839**	0.042	0.084	-0.054
NED1: I experience my negative emotions about this brand very strongly.	**0.832**	0.033	-0.042	0.040
NED6: People can read my negative feelings about this brand.	**0.772**	-0.051	0.033	0.041
NED5: This brand can make me upset.	**0.767**	-0.006	-0.014	0.006
NED4: I cannot hide my negative feelings about this brand.	**0.753**	0.036	-0.047	-0.039
Cognitive (Cronbach's α = 0.937)				
A3: I become aware of anything negative about the brand.	0.005	**0.986**	-0.121	-0.022
A4: I become aware of anything negative about the brand.	0.045	**0.884**	-0.017	0.003
A2: If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to notice it.	0.009	**0.859**	0.012	0.028
T1: I deliberate for a long time about bad information involving this brand.	-0.147	**0.776**	0.005	-0.060
A1: My mind is attracted by anything critical about the brand.	0.045	**0.758**	0.039	0.001
T2: I deliberate deeply about bad information involving this brand.	-0.099	**0.685**	0.051	-0.005
T5: I consider the negative issues related to the brand.	0.141	**0.586**	0.002	0.050
Online destructive behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.964)				
DB2: If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand.	-0.004	-0.031	**0.967**	-0.011
DB4: If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to hurt or damage the brand.	0.055	-0.045	**0.944**	-0.001
DB1: If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand.	-0.043	0.025	**0.936**	-0.015
DB5: If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand.	-0.001	0.008	**0.908**	-0.013
DB3: If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand.	-0.009	0.029	**0.886**	0.006

Measured items	Factor			
Online constructive behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.930)				
CB3: If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments to help or improve the brand.	0.007	-0.035	-0.017	**0.944**
CB2: If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand.	-0.019	-0.009	-0.059	**0.926**
CB4: If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to help or improve the brand.	0.013	-0.056	0.012	**0.920**
CB1: If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to help or improve the brand.	0.000	0.045	-0.064	**0.839**
CB5: If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand to help or improve the brand.	0.243	0.047	0.113	**0.581**

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the negative online brand engagement scale

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to test the dimensionality of the negative online brand engagement scale by estimating the regression coefficients between the items and the latent constructs (Ou et al., 2016). CFA can be used to develop and refine measurement instruments, assess construct validity, identify method effects, and evaluate factor invariance across time and groups (Jackson et al., 2009).

Following the results of EFA, the first step of CFA of the negative online brand engagement scale is run by correlating the 4 dimensions including affective, cognitive, online destructive behaviour and online constructive behaviour. CFA verified that the newly developed scale was unidimensional. The results show that all the factor loadings are above the acceptable standardised regression weights 0.5 thresholds (Hair et al., 2006), signalling that the dimension factors are unidimensional (see Table 9.10).

The model fit indices are then evaluated and initially exhibited poor fit. Model re-specifications are performed based on the modification indices. The modification indices have been used here to delete redundant or irrelevant items. Out of the initial 27 items, 12 of them have been deleted. After these re-specifications, the model exhibited a good fit (see Table 9.11).

Table 9.10 Standardized regression weights (negative online brand engagement)

Items	Estimate
Affective	
This brand can make me upset. (NED5)	0.843
I cannot hide my negative feelings about this brand. (NED4)	0.873
I experience my negative emotions about this brand very strongly. (NED1)	0.893
I feel uncomfortable when I think about this brand. (DNF4)	0.847
This brand arouses intense negative emotions. (DNF1)	0.787
Cognitive	
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to notice it. (A2)	0.889
I tend to observe anything negative about the brand. (A4)	0.901
I consider the negative issues related to the brand. (T5)	0.686
Online constructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (CB2)	0.909
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments to help or improve the brand. (CB3)	0.957
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to help or improve the brand. (CB4)	0.870
Online destructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (DB1)	0.891
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (DB2)	0.947
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (DB3)	0.916
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand. (DB5)	0.923

Table 9.11 Negative online brand engagement (CFA model-model fit indices)

Measure	Estimate
CMIN	92.338
DF	84
CMIN/DF	1.099
CFI	0.996
NFI	0.962
TLI	0.996
RMSEA	0.024

Further tests to assess the reliability and validity of the developed scale were performed. Reliability was evaluated with the composite reliability (CR) index, which measures the constructs' internal consistency (Bacon et al., 1995). Hair et al. (2006) advise that the CR value should exceed 0.7, which is the case for all dimensions of negative online brand engagement, as observed in Table 9.12.

Convergent validity has been assessed using the average variance extracted (AVE), computed for each sub-dimension of the scale. AVE measures how much variance is captured by a construct compared to the variance caused by measurement error, and it should be above 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The AVE values for all dimensions of the negative online brand engagement scale are above the recommended threshold, signalling convergent validity (see Table 9.12).

Table 9.12 Negative online brand engagement CFA model-Discriminant validity

	CR	AVE	Affective	Cognitive	CB	DB
Affective	0.928	0.721	1			
Cognitive	0.869	0.691	0.516	1		
Online constructive behaviour	0.937	0.833	0.153	0.334	1	
Online destructive behaviour	0.956	0.845	0.381	0.519	0.277	1
The square root of the AVE	-	-	**0.849**	**0.831**	**0.913**	**0.919**

9.4.4 Step 4: Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity was determined by comparing the square root of the AVE for each sub-dimension of the scale with the inter-item correlations (Voorhees et al., 2016). It is observed from Table 9.12 that for affective, cognitive, online constructive behaviour and online destructive behaviour, the value of the square root of the AVE is higher than any of the

associated correlations, evidencing the scale's discriminant validity.

9.5 Other developed scales

The review of the literature undertaken to provide appropriate measures for the construct included in the conceptual model failed to identify suitable scales for offline constructive behaviour and offline destructive behaviour. The development of scales follows the same procedures for the development of the core construct measures.

9.5.1 Step 1: Define constructs and item generation

To define the two constructs, the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement was reviewed. Studies on the behavioural dimension of consumer engagement indicate that consumer engagement behaviour represents the degree of consumer's energy, time and effort spent on the brand in specific interactions (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Dwivedi, 2015; Hollebeek, 2019). Research has explained that negative engagement behaviours can be constructive or destructive (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Azer and Alexander, 2018). Naumann (2020) illustrates that the behavioural component of negative consumer engagement manifests through collective complaints and anti-brand activism. It reflects constructive and destructive behaviours, as the consumer may help the company to improve its products or service by providing valuable feedback or developing negative WOM to punish or harm the brand (Weitzl, 2019).

Based on the qualitative data, existing literature and suggestions from two branding experts, the definitions of offline constructive and destructive behaviour should be consistent with the online context. Offline constructive behaviour is defined as the consumer's offline actions aiming to help or improve the brand considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand (Kim and Lim, 2020), while offline destructive behaviour refers to the consumer's offline actions aiming to hurt/damage the brand considering one's own concerns (Plé and Cáceres, 2010).

Due to the consistency of the definitions, the measurements for offline constructive and destructive behaviour are adapted from the two scales of online constructive and destructive behaviour. Thus, the researcher adapted the 3-item scale to measure offline constructive

behaviour and the 4-item scale to measure offline destructive behaviour. The terms 'online' and 'post' were replaced by 'offline' and 'share' respectively to fit the offline context.

9.5.2 Step 2: Item purification

The constructs were subjected to the face and content validity assessment. Three meetings with two branding experts were held for initial item purification purposes. It is suggested that the measurements of offline constructive and destructive behaviour should be consistent with the measurements of online constructive and destructive behaviour identified in the previous section. Therefore, all items remained (see Table 9.13). Table 9.14 reveals the set of items after purification.

Table 9.13 Initial item purification for offline constructive and destructive behaviour

	Items before the meetings with experts	Items after the meetings with experts
Offline constructive behaviour	3	3
Offline destructive behaviour	4	4
Total	**7**	**7**

Table 9.14 Final Set of Items-offline constructive and destructive behaviour

Item	Source
Offline constructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (OCB2)	Kim and Lim, 2020; interview
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments to help or improve the brand. (OCB3)	Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Roy et al., 2018; Hur et al., 2011; interview
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to help or improve the brand. (OCB4)	Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2019; interview
Offline destructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB1)	Weitzl, 2019; interview
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB2)	Weitzl, 2019; interview
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB3)	Romani et al., 2013; interview
If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB5)	Grégoire et al., 2009; Romani et al., 2013; interview

9.5.3 Step 3: Reliability and convergent validity

Before conducting the EFA for the developed items, the suitability of the data was tested (see Table 9.15). The coefficient of Bartlett's test of sphericity is statistically significant at $p < 0.05$, confirming the suitability of the sample size (N=210) (Sun et al., 2020). Further, the result of the KMO test is 0.860, which is above the recommended threshold of 0.6 (Şahan et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2020).

Table 9.15 Results of the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for offline destructive and constructive behaviour

Test	N=210
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.860
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Sig.	0.000

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for offline constructive and destructive behaviour scale

EFA was performed for the offline constructive and destructive behaviour. The extraction method used was Maximum likelihood, looking for eigenvalues greater than one (Henson and Roberts, 2006). As shown in Table 9.16, the constructive dimension has 3 items, and the destructive dimension has 4 items. They explained 81% of the overall variance. Cronbach's α values are above 0.947, which indicates good reliability.

Table 9.16 EFA for offline destructive and constructive behaviour-Final Factor Matrix

Measured items	Factor	
Offline destructive behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.959)		
ODB2: If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand.	**.962**	-0.023
ODB3: If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand.	**.935**	-0.032
ODB5: If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand.	**.876**	-0.031
ODB1: If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand.	**.849**	0.100
Offline constructive behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.947)		
OCB3: If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments to help or improve the brand.	-0.006	**.978**
OCB2: If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand.	-0.032	**.922**
OCB4: If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to help or improve the brand.	0.039	**.900**

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for offline constructive and destructive behaviour scale

The first step of the CFA is run by correlating the two constructs of offline constructive and destructive behaviour. As shown in Table 9.17, all the factor loadings are above the acceptable threshold (0.5), signalling that the dimension factors are unidimensional. The model fit indices are evaluated and exhibit a good fit (see Table 9.18).

Table 9.17 Standardized regression weights (offline constructive and destructive behaviour)

Items	Estimate
Offline constructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (OCB2)	0.910
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments to help or improve the brand. (OCB3)	0.976
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to help or improve the brand. (OCB4)	0.914
Offline destructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB1)	0.880
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB2)	0.954
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB3)	0.924
If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB5)	0.866

Table 9.18 CFA model-model fit indices (Offline constructive and destructive behaviour)

Measure	Estimate
CMIN	17.679
DF	10
CMIN/DF	1.768
CFI	0.998
NFI	0.995
TLI	0.995
RMSEA	0.042

Further tests to assess the reliability and validity of the developed scale were performed. Reliability was evaluated with the composite reliability (CR) index, which should exceed 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006). As shown in Table 9.19, CR values are above 0.949, indicating good reliability of the scale.

Convergent validity has been assessed by using the average variance extracted (AVE), and it should be above 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 9.19 shows that the AVE values are above the recommended threshold, signalling convergent validity.

Table 9.19 Discriminant validity results (Offline constructive and destructive behaviour)

	CR	AVE	1	2
Offline constructive behaviour (1)	0.953	0.872	1	
Offline destructive behaviour (2)	0.949	0.822	0.313	1
The square root of the AVE	-	-	**0.934**	**0.907**

9.5.4 Step 4: Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity was determined by comparing the square root of the AVE for each sub-dimension of the scale with the inter-item correlations (Voorhees et al., 2016). It is observed from Table 9.19 that the value of the square root of the AVE is higher than the associated correlations, evidencing the scale's discriminant validity.

9.6 EFA and CFA on the full measurement model

Before estimating the structural model, the measurement model was assessed to evaluate the links between the latent constructs and their indicators (Westland, 2019). The measurement model was initially evaluated through EFA and then by checking its model fit indices and validity using CFA. A sample (N=221) was used for these processes.

9.6.1 EFA on the full measurement model

The suitability of the sample size was checked through Bartlett's test of sphericity and the KMO. The results in Table 9.20 confirmed the suitability of the data.

Table 9.20 Results of the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the measurement model

Test	N=221
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.914
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Sig.	0.000

Based on the initial results of the conducted factor extraction and factor rotation, one item

was excluded from the analysis due to low loadings (ACG1). The results of EFA showed 11 distinct constructs, six drivers and five outcomes of negative online brand engagement (see Appendix 13). Cronbach's α of each construct achieves a value above the advocated cut-off point of 0.70 (Santos, 1999), indicating good reliability.

Harman's Single-Factor Test was conducted to examine common method variance in this research (Tehseen et al., 2017). All items for every construct were loaded into a factor analysis restricted to one single factor. Since the resulting factor explained 32% of the total variance which is less than 50% of the variance, it means that common method variance is not a pervasive issue in the study (Chang et al., 2010). Then, a ten-item scale of a healthy and balanced diet which was unrelated to the principal constructs of the study was used to examine common method variance. Compared with the measurement model, there is no significant change of the model fit indices in the new model ($\triangle$RMSEA=0.0030, $\triangle$SRMR=0.0033, $\triangle$CFI=0.0220, $\triangle$TLI=0.0240). Therefore, common method bias is not an issue in this study.

9.6.2 CFA full measurement model fit

Factor loadings should exceed 0.5, where the standardized regression weights with lower values should be dropped (Hair et al., 2006). Table 9.21 shows that all the factor loadings are above the acceptable threshold, signalling that these factors are unidimensional.

The model fit indices of the full measurement model were assessed using CFA. The indices initially show poor model fit. Model re-specifications are performed based on the modification indices to delete redundant or irrelevant items. Out of the initial 65 items, 20 of them have been deleted. After these re-specifications, the model exhibited a good fit (see Table 9.22).

Table 9.21 Standardized regression weights (full measurement model)

Items	Estimate
Affective	
This brand can make me upset. (NED5)	0.867
I cannot hide my negative feelings about this brand. (NED4)	0.859
I experience my negative emotions about this brand very strongly. (NED1)	0.863
Cognitive	
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to notice it. (A2)	0.835
I tend to observe anything negative about the brand. (A4)	0.941
I consider the negative issues related to the brand. (T5)	0.895
Constructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (CB2)	0.883
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments to help or improve the brand. (CB3)	0.954
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to help or improve the brand. (CB4)	0.889
Destructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (DB1)	0.944
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (DB2)	0.971
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (DB3)	0.978
Perceived brand quality	
Compared to other brands in its category, this brand is superior. (PBQ3)	0.887
This brand has excellent features. (PBQ2)	0.844
This brand is exceptional. (PBQ1)	0.822
Brand failure severity	
The brand mistake can be the source of my major irritation. (BFS3)	0.803
The brand mistake could cause me serious inconvenience. (BFS2)	0.743
This brand makes mistakes, and it could create many problems for me. (BFS1)	0.854
Unacceptable brand behaviour	
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be morally wrong. (UB3)	0.932
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unjust. (UB2)	0.924
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unethical. (UB1)	0.904
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty	
There is another brand that I feel attached to. (OAL3)	0.937
There is another brand that is my favourite. (OAL4)	0.878
I would feel upset if I had to buy a brand other than the other one that is my favourite one. (OAL7)	0.629
Anti-consumption in general	
The less I buy, the better I feel. (ACG4)	0.705
By voluntary reducing my level of consumption, I can avoid stress. (ACG3)	0.738
Even if I have the money, I try to keep my consumption level at a minimum. (ACG2)	0.706
By living a less materialistic lifestyle, I reduce my level of stress. (ACG5)	0.730
Consumer brand disidentification	
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal insult. (CBD2)	0.893
The brand's failures are my successes. (CBD1)	0.911
When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal compliment. (CBD3)	0.923
Intention to participate in anti-brand community	
I intend to be a member of a group that is against the brand. (IP1)	0.943
I intend to communicate with others from the group of people who are against the brand. (IP3)	0.885
I probably will be associated with a group of people that oppose this brand. (IP4)	0.955

Items	Estimate
Happiness	
My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall life's happiness. (H2)	0.854
My negative online engagement with this brand increased my overall life satisfaction. (H3)	0.903
Brand disloyalty	
The likelihood that I will (re-)purchase this brand is very low. (BDI4)	0.960
My willingness to (re-)buy this brand is very low. (BDI5)	0.937
I will never (re-)purchase the product from this brand. (BDI1)	0.907
Offline destructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB1)	0.881
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB2)	0.964
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB3)	0.918
Offline constructive behaviour	
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to help or improve the brand. (OCB4)	0.919
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments to help or improve the brand. (OCB3)	0.967
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (OCB2)	0.905

Table 9.22 CFA full measurement model-model fit indices

Measure	Estimate
CMIN	1566.140
DF	873
CMIN/DF	1.794
CFI	0.960
NFI	0.914
TLI	0.954
RMSEA	0.043

9.6.3 CFA reliability and validity of the study constructs

The researcher conducted a reliability and validity assessment of the proposed constructs. As observed in Table 9.23, all CR values are above 0.7, signalling the model's composite reliability and the internal consistency of the constructs (Bacon et al., 1995). Regarding convergent validity, the AVE values for all the constructs included in the measurement model are above the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), signalling convergent validity. Further, the square root of the AVE for all constructs is higher than the correlation between them, evidencing the scale's discriminant validity.

Table 9.23 CFA full measurement model-assessment of reliability and validity

	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Negative online brand engagement (1)	0.983	0.824	1											
Perceived brand quality (2)	0.888	0.725	-0.288	1										
Brand failure severity (3)	0.843	0.642	0.715	-0.124	1									
Unacceptable brand behavoiur (4)	0.943	0.847	0.712	-0.324	0.618	1								
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty (5)	0.862	0.682	0.276	0.098	0.189	0.116	1							
Anti-consumption in general (6)	0.811	0.518	0.297	0.051	0.189	0.226	0.088	1						
Consumer brand disidentification (7)	0.935	0.826	0.849	-0.109	0.417	0.362	0.190	0.200	1					
Intention to participate in anti-brand community (8)	0.949	0.862	0.759	-0.230	0.441	0.474	0.245	0.136	0.563	1				
Brand disloyalty (9)	0.954	0.874	0.629	-0.529	0.389	0.549	0.141	0.137	0.314	0.532	1			
Happiness (10)	0.872	0.772	0.539	0.032	0.334	0.192	0.150	0.149	0.496	0.414	0.125	1		
Offline destructive behaviour (11)	0.944	0.849	0.634	-0.149	0.431	0.430	0.151	0.145	0.493	0.592	0.401	0.242	1	
Offline constructive bahaviour (12)	0.951	0.866	0.315	0.026	0.255	0.175	0.278	0.045	0.196	0.208	0.109	0.098	0.354	1
The square root of the AVE			0.908	0.851	0.801	0.920	0.826	0.720	0.909	0.928	0.935	0.879	0.921	0.931

9.7 Chapter summary

The first section of the chapter focused on the process of selecting existing measures for constructs in the conceptual model including the six antecedents and three outcomes of negative online brand engagement. This is followed by an explanation of the rationale for developing the negative online brand engagement scale. The next section shows the development of a reliable and valid scale to measure negative online brand engagement to answer the first research question. The items were generated based on the literature review and qualitative findings. Two experts supported the generation of an initial set of items, and the content validity of these items was ensured with the help of a panel of 29 academic experts. A final pool of 32 items for the negative online brand engagement scale was generated. The items were first purified through EFA and then submitted to CFA analysis. CFA analysis showed adequate goodness of fit indices and good measures of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity.

The chapter also presented the developed scales to measure offline constructive and destructive behaviour included in the conceptual model for which an appropriate existing scale could not be found. Definitions and items to measure offline constructive and destructive behaviour were proposed and validated. The items were first purified through EFA and then submitted to CFA analysis. CFA analysis showed adequate goodness of fit indices and good measures of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity.

Finally, the chapter presented the assessment of the full measurement model and the evaluation of the reliability and validity of measures. Using EFA, items were purified, and CFA analysis confirmed adequate model fit, reliability, convergent and discriminant validity indices for the full measurement model.

Chapter 10 Hypothesis testing

10.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the hypothesis testing process of relationships included in the conceptual model presented in Chapter 7 using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). The results of hypothesis testing are related to the second and third research objectives to identify the significant antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement. The discussion and implications of hypothesis testing results are presented in Chapter 11.

Following the full measurement model's assessment of model fit and reliability and validity of the study constructs using EFA and CFA (see Chapter 9), two models are evaluated in this chapter. The initial structural model (Model 1) was developed from the review of the literature and the analysis of the qualitative data, as explained in Chapter 7. The second model (Model 2) includes additional relationships that enhance model fit, as suggested by the modification indices. This modified model (Model 2) is considered as final. After evaluating the model parameters, the results of hypotheses testing in line with the conceptual model and including additional relationships are presented. The chapter closes with a summary of the results.

10.2 Structural Model Estimation

The analytical approach adopted here uses confirmatory data analysis to test research hypotheses detailed in Chapter 7. The study has examined two sets of hypotheses. The first set is concerned with drivers of the negative online brand engagement and relates to RQ2. The second set of hypotheses confirms the outcomes of the negative online brand engagement, aiming to answer RQ3. SEM was used in the process of testing the developed hypotheses.

The approach to the hypothesis testing process involved a model modification strategy (Klem, 2000). In this approach, an initial theoretically driven model is estimated, followed by the model modification stage, where additional relationships may be added or removed based on the model properties and modification indices. The measurement model (developed using CFA) is transformed into a structural model (SEM) by drawing the causal paths from

independent (exogenous) variables to dependent (endogenous) variables. Independent variables are correlated, while error terms (ε) are added to all the dependent variables. The full measurement model has been estimated in the previous chapter, and the analysis presented below builds on that model.

10.2.1 Model 1

Figure 10.1 below shows the initial structural model. The initial model includes 6 exogenous constructs and 6 endogenous constructs which are linked with 11 relationships. Given that SEM allows simultaneous testing of dependence relationships at multiple levels (Klem, 2000), the focal construct of negative online brand engagement sits in the middle of the model, being preceded by 6 drivers and leading to 5 outcomes.

Figure 10.1 Initial structural model (Model 1)
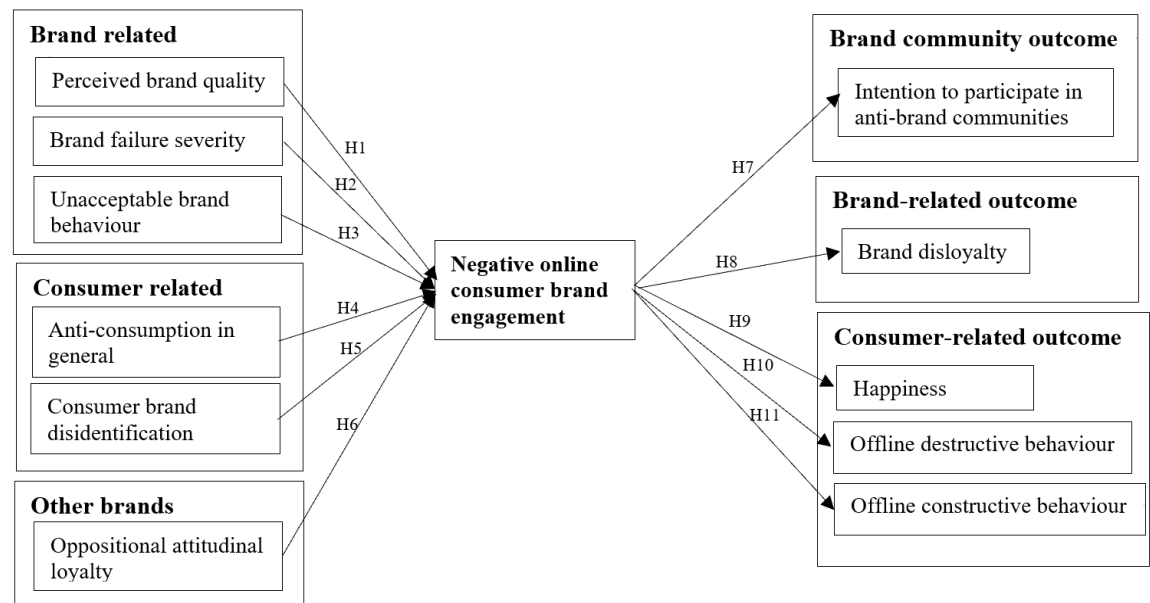
To test the structural model, AMOS software was used. Once the model had been drawn and the hypothesised relationships included in the model, it was estimated using a data set of 221 respondents. The structural model has been estimated using the Maximum Likelihood method. The goodness of model fit was assessed using CMIN/DF, CFI, NFI, TLI and RMSEA (Hair et al., 2013; Kline, 2015) (see section 8.7). Table 10.1 presents values of the model fit indices for the initial structural model, exhibiting a good fit.

Table 10.1 Model fit indices initial structural model (Model 1)

Measure	Estimate
CMIN	1799.434
DF	912
CMIN/DF	1.973
CFI	0.949
NFI	0.901
TLI	0.944
RMSEA	0.048

The initial SEM model is acceptable, and conclusions could be drawn. For the drivers of the negative online brand engagement, six hypotheses were supported (Table 10.2). Specifically, results of model estimation provide support for the H1 (β=0.030; p < 0.001), H2 (β=0.038; p < 0.001), H3 (β=0.032; p < 0.001), H4 (β=0.039; p < 0.05), H5 (β=0.038; p < 0.001), H6 (β=0.029; p < 0.001). The results of hypothesis testing in the initial model concerning the drivers of negative online brand engagement establish that the phenomenon is significantly and positively affected by the following drivers: brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour, anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification and oppositional attitudinal loyalty. The relationship between perceived brand quality and negative online brand engagement (H1) is negative and significant.

Table 10.2 Initial structural model (Model 1)-results of hypothesis testing: drivers of negative online brand engagement

	Hypothesis	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P	Result
Brand-related drivers						
H1	Perceived brand quality → Negative brand engagement	-0.124	0.030	-3.445	***	Supported
H2	Brand failure severity → Negative brand engagement	0.151	0.038	3.513	***	Supported
H3	Unacceptable brand behaviour → Negative brand engagement	0.299	0.032	6.687	***	Supported
Consumer-related drivers						
H4	Anti-consumption in general → Negative brand engagement	0.085	0.039	2.351	0.019	Supported
H5	Consumer brand disidentification → Negative brand engagement	0.550	0.038	12.226	***	Supported
Other brands						
H6	Oppositional attitudinal loyalty → Negative brand engagement	0.126	0.029	3.685	***	Supported

As for the outcomes of negative online brand engagement (Table 10.3), five hypotheses were supported. The estimation of the initial structural model offers support for relationships between negative online brand engagement and the outcome variables intention to participate in the anti-brand communities (H7, β=0.068; p< 0.001), brand disloyalty (H8, β=0.072; p < 0.001), happiness (H9, β=0.062; p < 0.001), offline destructive behaviour (H10, β=0.065; p < 0.001) and offline constructive behaviour (H11, β=0.063; p < 0.001).

Table 10.3 Initial structural model (Model 1)-results of hypothesis testing: outcomes of negative online brand engagement

	Hypothesis	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P	Result
Brand community outcomes						
H7	Negative brand engagement → Intention to participate in anti-brand communities	0.761	0.068	14.633	***	Supported
Brand-related outcomes						
H8	Negative brand engagement → Brand disloyalty	0.611	0.072	11.596	***	Supported
Consumer-related outcomes						
H9	Negative brand engagement → Happiness	0.514	0.062	8.584	***	Supported
H10	Negative brand engagement → Offline destructive behaviour	0.653	0.065	12.178	***	Supported
H11	Negative brand engagement → Offline constructive behaviour	0.286	0.063	5.511	***	Supported

10.2.2 Model 2

The present study follows a model development strategy in the application of SEM, it occurs when the purpose of modelling is to improve a theory through modification of the structural or measurement model (Hair et al., 2019). As such, the modelling effort aimed to improve the initial model framework through the modification of the structural model by considering additional relationships (Hair et al., 2019). Re-specification of the initial model was implemented to improve model fit and better represent relationships between the included constructs (Everitt and Dunn, 2010). Theoretical support for the additional relationships is presented in Chapter 11.

The model development strategy was chosen over a confirmatory modelling strategy, as in the latter a single conceptual model is specified and tested to analyse if it works or not (Hair et al., 2006). Furthermore, competing models strategy is based on estimating and comparing alternative models and drawing a conclusion as to which model best fits the data (Hair et al., 2019). The model development strategy was also preferred over a competing models strategy

since, given the scarcity of literature on negative online brand engagement, testing competing, alternative theories or hypothesised structural relationships were out of the scope of the research (Everitt and Dunn, 2010).

Although the initial model fit is acceptable, modification indices used in the model development strategy suggest that it can be improved. Specifically, the indices suggested three additional pathways that were incorporated into the model. Two new causal relationships involving perceived brand quality were added, including the relationships between this construct and brand disloyalty, and between this construct and happiness. Also, the relationship between offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in anti-brand communities was added.

The modified model (model 2) includes 6 exogenous constructs and 6 endogenous constructs. The exogenous and endogenous constructs are linked with 14 arrows capturing initial and additional relationships. The modified model positions negative online brand engagement in the centre and proposes six drivers and five outcomes. Additionally, three new mentioned relationships are incorporated into the model (see Figure 10.2).

Figure 10.2 Modified structural model (Model 2)
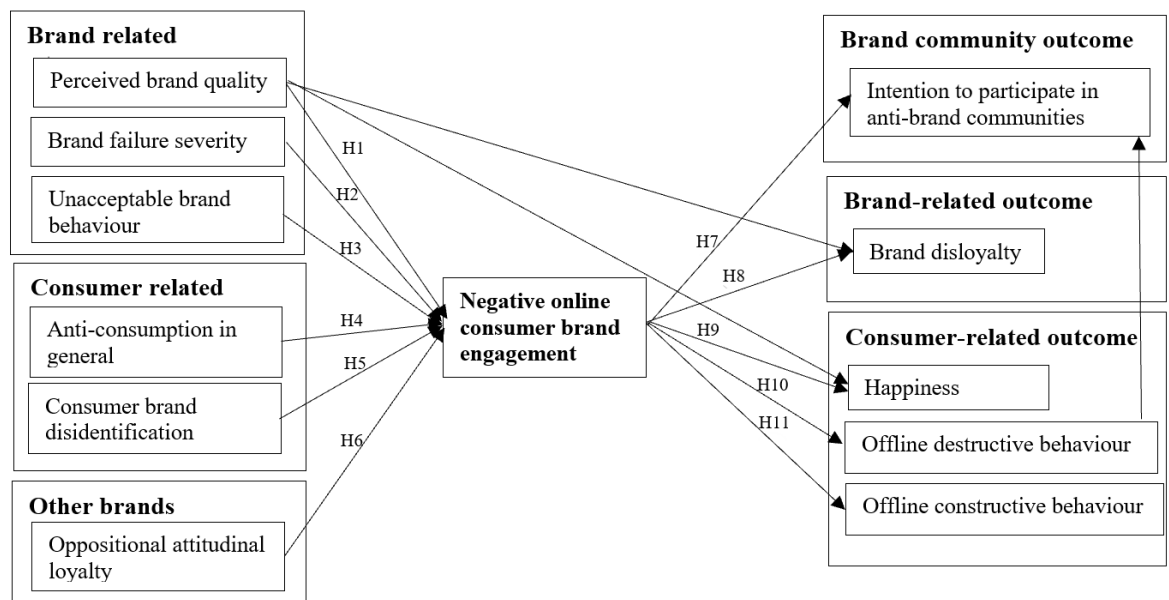
The model was estimated using the Maximum Likelihood method in the same sample (N=221). Compared to model 1, model 2 presents better model fit indices (see Table 10.4).

Model 2 is therefore accepted and treated as the final model, regarding which specific conclusions can be drawn concerning hypothesised relationships.

Table 10.4 Model fit indices modified structural model (Model 2)

Measure	Estimate (Model 1)	Estimate (Model 2)
CMIN	1799.434	1670.053
DF	912	909
CMIN/DF	1.973	1.837
CFI	0.949	0.956
NFI	0.901	0.909
TLI	0.944	0.952
RMSEA	0.048	0.044

10.3 Results of hypothesis testing

The results of the estimation of the final model (model 2) using the sample of $N = 221$ each are presented in Tables 10.5, 10.6 and 10.7. These concern six drivers and five outcomes of negative online brand engagement and the three additional relationships.

10.3.1 Drivers of negative online brand engagement (H1-H6)

The initial group of hypotheses relates to six drivers of negative online brand engagement (Table 10.5). It is observed that five of the relationships between negative online brand engagement and its drivers are positive and significant. Results provide support for H2 ($\beta=0.039$; $p< 0.001$), H3 ($\beta=0.032$; $p< 0.001$), H4 ($\beta=0.039$; $p< 0.05$), H5 ($\beta=0.038$; $p< 0.001$), H6 ($\beta=0.029$; $p< 0.001$). The relationship between perceived brand quality and negative online brand engagement (H1) is negative and significant ($\beta=0.031$; $p< 0.05$).

The results of hypothesis testing regarding drivers of negative online brand engagement establish that the phenomenon is significantly and positively affected by the following drivers: brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour, anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification and oppositional attitudinal loyalty. Perceived brand quality has significant and negative effects on negative online brand engagement. Brand failure severity and anti-consumption in general are the two strongest antecedents of the

negative online brand engagement phenomenon, with a β of 0.039.

Table 10.5 Final structural model (Model 2)-results of hypothesis testing: drivers of negative online brand engagement

	Hypothesis	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P	Result
Brand-related drivers						
H1	Perceived brand quality → Negative online brand engagement	-0.092	0.031	-2.474	0.013	Supported
H2	Brand failure severity → Negative online brand engagement	0.165	0.039	3.802	***	Supported
H3	Unacceptable brand behaviour → Negative online brand engagement	0.294	0.032	6.517	***	Supported
Consumer-related drivers						
H4	Anti-consumption in general → Negative online brand engagement	0.087	0.039	2.391	0.017	Supported
H5	Consumer brand disidentification → Negative online brand engagement	0.563	0.038	12.423	***	Supported
Other brands						
H6	Oppositional attitudinal loyalty → Negative online brand engagement	0.133	0.029	3.851	***	Supported

10.3.2 Outcomes of negative online brand engagement (H7-H11)

All the tested hypothesised relationships between negative online brand engagement and its outcomes were supported (see Table 10.6). Specifically, H7 (β=0.075; p< 0.001), H8 (β=0.065; p< 0.001), H9 (β= 0.065; p< 0.001), H10 (β=0.066; p< 0.001), H11 (β=0.063; p< 0.001) were confirmed. These results indicate a significant and positive effect of negative online brand engagement on intention to participate in the anti-brand community, brand disloyalty, happiness, offline destructive behaviour and offline constructive behaviour. The data analysis indicates that negative online brand engagement has the strongest effect on the intention to participate in the anti-brand community (β=0.075), followed by offline destructive behaviour (β=0.066), brand disloyalty (β=0.065), happiness (β=0.065) and offline constructive behaviour (β=0.063).

Table 10.6 Final structural model (Model 2)-results of hypothesis testing: outcomes of negative online brand engagement

	Hypothesis	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P	Result
	Brand community outcomes					
H7	Negative online brand engagement → Intention to participate in anti-brand community	0.596	0.075	10.381	***	Supported
	Brand-related outcomes					
H8	Negative online brand engagement → Brand disloyalty	0.487	0.065	10.241	***	Supported
	Consumer-related outcomes					
H9	Negative online brand engagement → Happiness	0.593	0.065	9.373	***	Supported
H10	Negative online brand engagement → Offline destructive behaviour	0.627	0.066	11.656	***	Supported
H11	Negative online brand engagement → Offline constructive behaviour	0.290	0.063	5.585	***	Supported

10.3.3 Other relationships

Results of the final model estimation offer support for three additional relationships (see Table 10.7). These relationships were drawn during the model refinement process. The analysis of data indicates the existence of a negative effect of perceived brand quality on brand disloyalty (β=0.050; p< 0.001) and happiness (β=0.044; p< 0.001). Further, the positive effect of offline destructive behaviour on intention to participate in the anti-brand community (β=0.053; p< 0.001) was also evidenced.

Table 10.7 Final structural model (Model 2)-results of hypothesis testing: other relationships

	Hypothesis	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P	Result
N/A	Perceived brand quality → Brand disloyalty	-0.401	0.050	-9.172	***	Supported
N/A	Perceived brand quality → Happiness	-0.227	0.044	4.395	***	Supported
N/A	Offline destructive behaviour →Intention to participate in anti-brand community	0.23	0.053	4.722	***	Supported

10.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the results of the hypothesis testing process. It compared and evaluated two structural models. Model 1 is in line with the conceptual model in Chapter 7. Model 2 includes additional relationships that enhance model fit, as suggested by the modification indices. The second model (Model 2), considered as final, had a satisfactory model fit and was accepted for testing the proposed causal relationships between variables.

Results confirmed the positive influences of brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour, anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification and oppositional attitudinal loyalty on the negative online brand engagement. In addition, perceived brand quality has a significant and negative effect on negative online brand engagement. Particularly, brand failure severity and anti-consumption in general are identified as the two most significant drivers of negative online brand engagement.

The positive influences of negative online brand engagement on all the predicted outcome variables were also supported. The data confirm that negative online brand engagement has the strongest effect on consumers' intention to participate in the anti-brand communities. Further, the analysis revealed additional significant negative effects of perceived brand quality on brand disloyalty and happiness. Also, the positive relationship between offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in the anti-brand community was evidenced.

Chapter 11 Discussion

11.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the implications of the results presented in the scale development in Chapter 9 and hypothesis testing in Chapter 10 and answers the research questions posed in Chapter 2. Specifically, this chapter discusses how the findings of the current research relate to the existing state of knowledge on consumer engagement, particularly on negative brand engagement in the online context. The structure reflects the three research questions.

Firstly, the dimensionality and measurement of negative online brand engagement are addressed. The discussion shows how the developed scale significantly deepens the meaning of existing conceptualisations of negative online consumer engagement and advances its measurement (RQ1). Secondly, findings relating to the research hypotheses are discussed, focusing on antecedents (RQ2) and outcomes (RQ3) of negative online brand engagement. Finally, additional findings regarding the development of measurements for the two outcome constructs and three additional relationships in the structural model are discussed.

11.2 RQ1: Dimensionality of negative online brand engagement

The first research question concerned the dimensionality of negative online brand engagement, the central concept of this research. As discussed in Chapter 2, most scholars focus on positive consumer engagement; however, existing literature offers only limited insight into negative consumer engagement (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Heinonen, 2018). Therefore, further research was needed in order to advance the theoretical conceptualisation of this construct.

To answer RQ1 and elaborate on the nature of negative online brand engagement, a literature review, qualitative (online observation, semi-structured interviews) and quantitative (measurement development) studies were conducted. First, a systematic literature review on positive consumer engagement was conducted. The unidimensional view of consumer engagement tends to focus on the behavioural dimension (e.g., Harmeling et al., 2017; Bruneau et al., 2018; Rabbanee et al., 2020). The multidimensional perspective has been widely adopted in the marketing literature (e.g., Connell et al., 2019; Hilton et al., 2020) and

the three-dimensional perspective (cognitive, affective, behavioural) is considered as rich, multi-faceted and the most widely accepted measure of consumer engagement (e.g., Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Kleinaltenkamp et al., 2019; McLean et al., 2021).

Articles related to negative consumer engagement were reviewed. Based on the existing literature, there are some controversies about the definition of negative consumer engagement. Some scholars (e.g., Dolan et al., 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2018, 2020a, 2020b) agree with the unidimensional view and define it as consumers' unfavourable brand-related behaviours during interactions. Negative consumer engagement has also been conceptualised using three dimensions from a conceptual paper developed by Hollebeek and Chen (2014) and supported by a very small number of studies employing empirical research (de Villiers, 2015; Bowden et al. 2017; Naumann et al., 2020; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2020).

The further exploration of negative online brand engagement began with online observation followed by semi-structured interviews. The key findings from the exploratory study indicate that negative online brand engagement is a multi-dimensional construct, comprising cognitive (attention, thinking), affective (diversity of negative feeling, negative emotion demonstration) and behavioural (online constructive and destructive behaviour) dimensions. Items to measure the three dimensions were developed based on the literature review and the findings from the qualitative phase. Thirteen face-to-face meetings with two academic experts aiming to initially purify the dimensionality and items were conducted. Then, the expert survey was adopted to further purify the instrument. As a result, 32 items were retained.

The EFA results show that sub-dimensions of cognitive and affective dimensions were discarded and the two sub-dimensions (online constructive and destructive behaviours) of the behaviour dimension were considered as two separated dimensions. After the scale development and validation procedure, negative online brand engagement is identified as a multi-dimensional construct that involves cognition, affection, online constructive behaviour and online destructive behaviour. The items closely reflect the dimensions of negative online brand engagement, as supported by good CFA goodness-of-fit indices and indicators, as well as reliability and validity indicators. This approach is different from the widespread understanding that negative consumer engagement manifests itself in three dimensions

(Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2020).

For the cognitive dimension, numerous studies define it as the degree of brand-related thought processing and elaboration in particular brand interaction (Fang, 2017; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Algharabat et al., 2020; Hepola et al., 2020). Regarding a lower intensity of cognitive engagement, this is relevant to the consumer's attention and cognitive thinking regarding the engagement object (Dessart, et al., 2016; 2019; Prentice et al., 2019b; Karjaluoto et al., 2020). In terms of the higher level of intensity, cognitive engagement is related to the consumer's concentration regarding the engagement focus (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Gligor et al., 2019; Loureiro et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020). As such, negative cognitive engagement was defined as the intensity of the consumer's negative thoughts, absorption and reflection regarding the engagement object (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020). The qualitative data explicate that negative cognitive engagement includes two parts: being aware of and concentrating on the brand. After discussion with marketing experts, the cognitive dimension was defined as an evaluation of a consumer's negative valenced brand-related attention and thinking.

The affective dimension denotes the process of developing positive emotions and building bonds with the focal brand (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Stathopoulou et al., 2017; Gligor et al., 2019; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020). In contrast, negative affective brand engagement refers to the extent of a consumer's negatively valenced feelings or emotions exhibited in specific interactions with the brand, which can be active and passive (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann et al., 2017a). Active engagement refers to consumers' strong negative feelings (e.g., hate, anger), whereas passive engagement involves less strong emotional components (e.g., frustration, fear) (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2020). The qualitative findings revealed several negative feelings about the brand. Considering differences between feelings and emotions, negative affective engagement was considered as the degree of a consumer's negative feelings and emotions toward the brand.

Consumer behavioural engagement refers to consumers' voluntary provision of effort, time, money and energy to the engagement object (Hollebeek, 2011b; Hollebeek et al., 2014; Hollebeek, 2019). The negative behavioural engagement represents the degree of consumer negatively valenced energy, time and effort spent on the brand (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). Consumer negative behavioural engagement includes active and passive forms (Naumann et

al., 2017a). Active behaviours involve consumers' active actions against the object, while passive behaviours refer to reduced interactions and lower levels of attack (Naumann et al., 2017a; 2020). Studies explain that negative engagement behaviours can be constructive or destructive (Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b; Kim and Lim, 2020). The qualitative data show that negative behavioural engagement with the brand includes a range of negative behaviours such as complaining and destruction. Based on the qualitative findings and existing literature, two distinct negative engagement behaviours were identified including online constructive and destructive behaviour.

The results of the quantitative study advance the operationalisation of the negative online brand engagement construct, showing that negative online brand engagement is best viewed as a multidimensional rather than unidimensional concept. Using extensive procedures, the study proposes and validates empirical operationalisation of the negative online brand engagement scale, where negative online brand engagement is measured as a second-order latent construct consisting of four dimensions (cognition, affection, online constructive behaviour, online destructive behaviour). Furthermore, measures are characterised by strong psychometric properties, including having satisfied several internal consistency tests and assessment of face, content, convergent and discriminant validity.

To summarise, this study offers a richer and more specific understanding of the meaning, and thus operationalisation of the construct of negative online brand engagement. Empirical validation is achieved, evidencing that each dimension is unique and necessary.

11.3 RQ2: The most prominent drivers of negative online brand engagement

The second research question concerned antecedents of negative online brand engagement. Although antecedents of consumer engagement are investigated in existing literature (e.g., Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; de Villiers, 2015), limited attention is paid to drivers of negative consumer engagement, particularly with the brand in the online context. Three approaches were employed in this research to answer RQ2: the literature review on positive and negative consumer engagement, a qualitative approach (online observation, semi-structured interviews) and a quantitative approach (hypothesis testing).

Previous literature identifies several drivers of positive and negative consumer engagement,

which are grouped into three categories in this study including brand-related, consumer-related and context-related drivers (see Chapter 2). Brand-related drivers are related to the specific brand or firm that consumers engage with (e.g., brand quality, firm actions). Consumer-related drivers refer to factors that are relevant to consumers (e.g., personal traits). Context-related drivers are the general environmental factors that can affect consumer engagement (e.g., political, cultural).

The exploratory findings presented in Chapter 6 provide tentative evidence concerning relevant relationships between negative online brand engagement and its antecedents. The conceptual model in Chapter 7 suggests 6 drivers give rise to negative online brand engagement based on the literature reviews of positive and negative consumer engagement in all contexts and findings in the qualitative study. The first category (brand-related) includes perceived brand quality, brand failure severity and unacceptable brand behaviour. The second category (consumer-related) involves consumers' characteristics of anti-consumption in general and consumer brand disidentification. Additionally, negative online brand engagement can be driven by other brands: oppositional attitudinal loyalty. These tentative relationships are further formalised into an empirical model and tested using quantitative data (see Chapter 10). All insights from the qualitative model were supported in hypothesis testing (Table 11.1).

Table 11.1 Results of hypothesis testing-drivers of negative online brand engagement

	Drivers of negative online brand engagement	Result
H1	Perceived brand quality is negatively related to negative online brand engagement.	Supported
H2	Brand failure severity is positively related to negative online brand engagement.	Supported
H3	Unacceptable brand behaviour is positively related to negative online brand engagement.	Supported
H4	Anti-consumption in general is positively related to negative online brand engagement.	Supported
H5	Consumer brand disidentification is positively related to negative online brand engagement.	Supported
H6	Oppositional attitudinal loyalty is positively related to negative online brand engagement.	Supported

Perceived brand quality and negative online brand engagement (H1)

Perceived brand quality is consumers' judgment about the overall excellence or superiority of all brand features (Zeithaml, 1988; Bazi et al., 2020). This comprises a combination of expectations regarding information about the firm, previous experiences, and the results of each new encounter in which consumers form and modify their beliefs about a brand (Boulding et al., 1999). Also, perceived brand quality is associated with a price premium, price elasticity, brand usage and, remarkably, stock return and is highly correlated with other key brand equity measures including specific functional benefit variables (Aaker, 1996a). Accordingly, consumer perceived brand quality can affect consumer's perception or feelings of the focal brand.

Existing literature provides evidence for the relationship between perceived brand quality and consumer brand engagement (e.g., Franzak et al., 2014; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Bazi et al., 2020). Consumers' positive judgment about the overall excellence or superiority of all the brand features would positively affect consumer engagement (Leckie et al., 2018; Gligor and Bozkurt, 2020). However, previous studies mostly focus on the effect of perceived brand quality on positive consumer engagement. To the researcher's best knowledge, only one qualitative article (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014) mentions the effects of consumer perceived unfavourable brand quality on negative consumer engagement. In addition, there is no evidence suggesting whether perceived favourable brand quality can negatively influence negative consumer engagement, particularly in the online context.

The qualitative data analysis in the current research evidenced that interviewees are more likely to engage negatively with brands that have poor product or service quality, and they prevent negatively engaging with a brand with favourable features. The quantitative data support the results of the qualitative study. The results of hypothesis testing in the quantitative phase confirm the negative relationship between perceived favourable brand quality and negative online brand engagement.

The current study is the first to empirically evidence the strong negative impact of perceived brand quality on negative online brand engagement. Consumers would not tend to engage negatively with a brand that they consider has superior features. Building on this finding, researchers should further explore this relationship by considering specific features of the brand and identifying the important features that can significantly affect negative online brand engagement.

Brand failure severity and negative online brand engagement (H2)

Brand failure severity is consumers' perceived intensity of loss from interactions with the focal brand (Riaz and Khan, 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2018; Fox et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). This reflects the overall failure of the brand. Brand failure severity is not only determined by the product or service problems but also related to individual consumer factors (Tran et al., 2016). Brand failure can be perceived by one person to be more serious than another (Tran et al., 2016). Accordingly, brand failure severity includes two main components: consumer perceived loss; and service or product problems.

The existence of brand failure severity is shown in the findings from the qualitative data, which indicate that consumer perceived product or service issues can lead to negative engagement with the brand. Then, the positive impact of brand failure severity on negative online brand engagement is confirmed in the quantitative phase. It was observed from the quantitative results that brand failure severity represents the strongest driver of negative online brand engagement.

Previous studies discuss that various brand failures (e.g., unfavourable service encounters, inappropriate use of technologies) can lead to negative consumer engagement (Tronvoll, 2011; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a; Hammedi et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). In addition, the more intense or severe the service or product problem, the greater the customer's perceived losses, which will lead to intense negative brand engagement (Wang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). However, to the researcher's best knowledge, no study focuses on the effect of brand failure severity on negative brand engagement in the online environment.

This finding provides important implications for researchers in the field of consumer engagement. Researchers could explore, deeper, the nature of the relationship between brand failure severity and negative online brand engagement. For example, the link between the two constructs may be confirmed using brands belonging to diverse product or service categories or for consumers with different personalities. In addition, this relationship could be tested in different contexts (e.g., online and offline). Also, corresponding remedies to the brand failure deserve further consideration.

Unacceptable brand behaviour and negative online brand engagement (H3)

Unacceptable brand behaviours (e.g., plastic pollution, child slavery) are identified as a driver of negative online brand engagement in the findings of the qualitative study (online observation, semi-structured interviews). In addition, the hypothesis concerning the positive relationship between unacceptable brand behaviour and negative online brand engagement was confirmed in the quantitative phase.

This finding resonates well with the literature that explores the effects of corporate misconduct on negative consumer engagement (e.g., Jaakkola and Alexander, 2014; Hua et al., 2021). Specifically, previous research reveals that corporate wrongdoing or misconduct, which is inconsistent with customer expectations, is an important cause of negative brand engagement (Fetscherin and Sampedro 2019; Kim et al., 2019b). Consumers consider the brand as a person, make a judgement on its behaviours and may, proactively, engage negatively with the brand when they perceive its behaviour as unacceptable (van Doorn et al., 2010; de Villiers, 2015; Naumann et al., 2017a).

Nevertheless, the concept of unacceptable brand behaviour adapted in this research is considered as a more detailed concept than corporate misconduct identified in the existing literature. Unacceptable brand behaviour mainly focuses on consumers' perceived unethical, immoral and irresponsible acts carried out by the brand, which is incompatible with their own beliefs and values (Hegner et al., 2017; Karaosmanoglu and Isiksal, 2018; Fetscherin and Sampedro, 2019). The concept of corporate misconduct may also relate to consumer perceptions of the company's operations and the way it handles specific issues (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Hua et al., 2021).

The prominence of unacceptable brand behaviours may be rooted in the specifics of the chosen research setting. Specifically, the current study mainly focuses on online anti-brand groups, where many people engage negatively with unethical brands, thus enabling the existence of this motivational factor. Researchers in this field could further explore this relationship by considering specific inappropriate behaviours of the brand in various contexts. For example, researchers could look into the effects of different types of brand-related unacceptable behaviours (e.g., socially irresponsible and immoral behaviours) on negative brand engagement in online and offline consumer managed brand-related groups.

Anti-consumption in general and negative online brand engagement (H4)

Anti-consumption in general refers to consumers' reduction of all consumptions (Zavestoski, 2002, Ozanne and Ballantine, 2010; Cherrier et al., 2011). Existing literature shows that anti-consumption behaviour can focus on the reduction of all consumption activities or the purchase of specific products and brands (Ozanne and Ballantine, 2010). Cherrier et al. (2011) indicate that anti-consumption may be taken literally as against consumption in general (i.e., a macro perspective), while, a more practical view (i.e., micro perspective) of anti-consumption focuses on specific acts against consumption. As such, anti-consumption in general is likely to motivate negative consumer engagement with a certain brand.

The qualitative study uncovered the positive relationship between anti-consumption in general and negative online brand engagement. Interviewees, who negatively engage with a certain brand, indicated that they also refuse to purchase products or services from various brands. The relationship between anti-consumption in general and negative online brand engagement was confirmed in the quantitative study. Importantly, the results of hypothesis testing indicate that a consumer's characteristic of anti-consumption is the strongest driver of negative online brand engagement.

To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support to the impact of anti-consumption in general on negative online brand engagement. Consumers' traits are identified as a driver of positive consumer engagement (e.g., Singh, 2016; Hollebeek, 2018; Bento et al., 2018). However, studies on the negative side of consumer engagement have not mentioned any driver of negative consumer engagement that is relevant to personal traits.

Building on these arguments, researchers in the field of consumer engagement could also test the impacts of anti-consumption in specific product categories on negative brand engagement. Previous studies indicate that anti-consumption consumers are less likely than others to use consumption to satisfy self-needs and, instead, cultivate non-materialistic sources of satisfaction and meaning (Zavestoski, 2002; Sharp et al., 2010). Thus, the relationship between anti-consumption in general on other engagement concepts (e.g., consumer disengagement) may need further exploration.

Consumer brand disidentification and negative online brand engagement (H5)

Consumer brand disidentification is a self-perception based on a cognitive separation between a person's identity and his or her perception of the brand identity, and a negative relational categorisation of the self and the brand (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002; Berendt et al., 2018). Previous studies on positive consumer engagement identify self-brand identification as a driver of positive consumer engagement (Bowden and Mirzaei, 2021; Matute et al., 2021; Li and Han, 2021). However, existing studies do not explore the effects of consumer brand disidentification on negative consumer engagement.

The qualitative data suggest a positive relationship between consumer brand disidentification and negative brand engagement. The hypothesis concerning the positive relationship between consumer brand disidentification and negative online brand engagement was confirmed in the quantitative study. Importantly, it is observed from the hypothesis testing results that consumer brand disidentification is the second strongest predictor of negative online brand engagement. The result of hypothesis testing supports findings from the qualitative study that consumer brand disidentification is one of the significant drivers of negative online brand engagement.

The findings indicate that people with strong brand disidentification may try to negatively engage with the brand to show their disagreement with the brand identity. This result is consistent with the disidentification theory which suggests that people may develop their self-concept by disidentifying with brands that are perceived to be inconsistent with their image (Lee et al., 2009). This also helps to explain the phenomenon mentioned in the literature that consumers affirm their identities by categorising brands into groups such as rivals or enemies (Bhattacharya and Elsbach, 2002).

To the researcher's best knowledge, this is the first study to uncover the effects of consumer brand disidentification on negative online brand engagement. Based on this result, researchers could further explore this relationship by considering specific consumer groups and product categories. For example, it would be interesting to explore whether the brand, with certain identities, can affect specific consumer groups to engage negatively with it. Also, the effect of consumer brand disidentification on consumer disengagement may be worth further investigation.

Oppositional attitudinal loyalty and negative online brand engagement (H6)

Oppositional attitudinal loyalty refers to a consumer's commitment to another brand in the same product category (Liu-Thompkins and Tam, 2013; Kuo and Feng, 2013; Dessart et al., 2020). This arises when supporters of a brand take an adversarial view of competitors or rival brands (Ewing et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2020b). Consumers may emphasise the merit of the preferred brand and focus on disparaging information concerning rival brands (Thompson and Sinha, 2008). Accordingly, oppositional loyalty involves consumers defining themselves not only in terms of who they are, but who they are not (Ewing et al., 2013). Thus, consumers with oppositional attitudinal loyalty may engage negatively with brands that are competitors of their supported brand.

The qualitative data show that consumers would always buy another brand in the same product category with the brand they negatively engaged with. The results of hypothesis testing in the quantitative study confirm the positive relationship between oppositional attitudinal loyalty and negative online brand engagement. Existing literature on consumer engagement does not consider the effects of other (i.e., rival) brands on negative consumer engagement. To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support to the impact of oppositional attitudinal loyalty on negative online brand engagement.

The construct of oppositional behavioural loyalty is usually regarded as an outcome of negative consumer engagement (e.g., Dessart et al., 2020). This result illustrates that oppositional attitudinal loyalty can act as a driver of negative consumer engagement, which is different from oppositional behavioural loyalty. Therefore, researchers could further look into the differences between oppositional attitudinal loyalty and oppositional behavioural loyalty and their effects on different engagement constructs such as positive and negative consumer engagement and disengagement.

11.4 RQ3: The most prominent outcomes of negative online brand engagement

To answer RQ3, three stages were employed, including the literature review on positive and negative consumer engagement, a qualitative phase (online observation, semi-structured interviews) and a quantitative phase (hypothesis testing). Although existent research

identifies outcomes of negative consumer engagement (e.g., Relling et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018), compared with research on positive consumer engagement, the extant literature on consequences of negative consumer engagement is very limited, particularly for the empirical research.

Previous literature identifies several outcomes of positive and negative consumer engagement (see Chapter 2), grouped into two categories in this study, including outcomes for brands and consumers. Outcomes for brands are related to the brand or firm that consumers engage with (e.g., firm performance, brand equity). Outcomes for consumers refer to consumers' behaviours, benefits and relationships with the engagement object.

The findings of the qualitative study (see Chapter 6) show possible outcomes of negative online brand engagement. These outcomes were further analysed in relation to the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement and discussed with two brand management academics. Finally, five selected outcomes (i.e., intention to participate in anti-brand communities, brand disloyalty, happiness, offline destructive and constructive behaviour) in the conceptual model (see Chapter 7) were tested in the empirical model discussed in Chapter 10. All relationships concerning outcomes of negative online brand engagement are supported (see Table 11.2).

Table 11.2 Results of hypothesis testing-outcomes of negative online brand engagement

	Outcomes of negative online brand engagement	Result
H7	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to intention to participate in anti-brand communities.	Supported
H8	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to brand disloyalty.	Supported
H9	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to happiness.	Supported
H10	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to offline destructive behaviour.	Supported
H11	Negative online brand engagement is positively related to offline constructive behaviour.	Supported

Negative online brand engagement and intention to participate in anti-brand communities (H7)

Intention to participate in anti-brand communities refers to the degree of the consumer's willingness to actively participate in anti-brand communities in the online and offline

environment (Zhou et al., 2013). Studies indicate that negatively engaged consumers will develop more intense negative participation with brand-related activities (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). This is in line with regulatory engagement theory, which indicates that stronger engagement will make negatively perceived objects more negative (Higgins and Scholer, 2009). However, existing research on negative consumer engagement ignores the effect of negative consumer engagement on consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities.

The results of the qualitative study indicate a positive relationship between negative online brand engagement and the consumer's intention to participate in anti-brand communities. This hypothesis has been strongly supported in the analytical survey and intention to participate in anti-brand communities is the most important outcome of negative online brand engagement. Thus, it confirms that consumers, who engage negatively with a brand, would like to participate in activities in corresponding anti-brand communities.

This significant effect of negative online brand engagement on consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities may be rooted in the chosen online anti-brand groups as one of the main sources of participants for the survey. Many participants of this study actively engage with online anti-brand communities. This finding has important implications for the firm or brand managers. Marketers could join anti-brand communities to gain a better understanding of consumers' perceptions of certain brands, and then develop corresponding strategies to avoid or reduce the negative effects of negative online brand engagement. Researchers in this field could further explore the relationship between negative online brand engagement and other types of participation behaviours, such as online and offline protest and leaflet distribution.

Negative online brand engagement and brand disloyalty (H8)

Brand loyalty is a complex construct that incorporates both behavioural and attitudinal components (Foroudi et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019). In contrast, brand disloyalty is the consumer's negatively valenced attitude and behaviours to the brand. Unlike the favourable effect of positive consumer engagement on consumer relationship quality (i.e., lead to satisfaction, trust, commitment, loyalty), negative consumer engagement may cause

consumer relationships to fade, terminate and become even worse (i.e., brand disloyalty) (Bowden et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018).

Results of the exploratory stage provide tentative evidence that indicates a relationship between negative online brand engagement and brand disloyalty. The hypothesis concerning brand disloyalty as the outcome of negative online brand engagement has been strongly supported and confirmed in the quantitative phase. This research consequently provides dual support for the influence of negative online brand engagement on brand disloyalty through the results of the qualitative and quantitative studies.

Previous research identifies the positive relationship between negative consumer engagement and disloyalty (de Villiers, 2015; Heinonen, 2018). Consumers who negatively engaged with the brand would reduce, or deliberately avoid, purchasing the brand-related products or services, which is related to the consumer's behavioural disloyalty to the brand (Naumann et al., 2017b). However, previous studies focusing on this relationship are mostly qualitative. To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to empirically evidence the strong impact of negative online brand engagement on brand disloyalty.

The current study mainly tested the positive relationship between negative online brand engagement and the consumer's behavioural disloyalty rather than attitudinal loyalty. Based on this finding, researchers could further explore the relationship between negative online brand engagement and specific types of disloyalty (attitudinal and behavioural disloyalty).

Negative online brand engagement and happiness (H9)

Consumer happiness is the frequency and degree of consumer positive affect, the absence of consumer negative feelings and the average level of consumer satisfaction of interacting with the brand in the online environment (Belanche et al., 2013; Hsieh et al., 2018). Studies on positive consumer engagement identify that consumers can gain emotional benefits from positive engagement with the brand (Prentice and Loureiro, 2018; Hollebeek and Belk, 2021). However, existing literature usually links negative brand engagement with negative feelings such as sadness, disappointment and anger (Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018), rather than positive feelings such as happiness and satisfaction.

The qualitative study uncovered the positive relationship between negative online brand engagement and happiness and indicated that consumers feel happy after engaging negatively with the brand online. Surprisingly, the hypothesis concerning the positive relationship between negative online brand engagement and happiness was confirmed in the quantitative study and was identified as the second important outcome of negative online brand engagement. This result implies that consumers feel pleased after interacting with the brand negatively in the online environment.

This significant effect on consumers' happiness might relate to the sample used in the quantitative study, who are mainly from online groups (i.e., anti-brand groups and consumer-managed brand groups). People in online groups are more likely to feel happy as they can find like-minded people to engage negatively with brands together (Zhan and Zhou, 2018). Based on this finding, researchers could further test the effect of negative online brand engagement on happiness by recruiting participants from various sources. In addition, the effects on consumer happiness can be further explored considering specific engagement behaviours. For example, studies could focus on whether interacting with anti-brand communities can enhance consumers' positive feelings. Also, other positive emotions caused by negative online brand engagement can be explored.

Negative online brand engagement and offline destructive behaviour (H10)

Offline destructive behaviour refers to the consumer's offline actions aiming to hurt/damage the brand considering one's own concerns (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). Previous studies show that negatively engaged consumers can develop more intense negative behaviours with the brand (Higgins, 2006; Pham and Avnet, 2009; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Relling et al., 2016). Also, studies on negative consumer engagement classify consumers' negative engagement behaviours into destructive and constructive behaviours (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b; Azer and Alexander, 2018; Naumann et al., 2020). However, the positive effects of negative online brand engagement on consumers' destructive behaviour, particularly in the offline context, are not discussed in the existing literature.

The qualitative data reveal that consumers, who engage negatively with a brand online, also develop offline destructive behaviours related to this brand (e.g., file a lawsuit). The

quantitative results provide support to the positive relationship between negative online brand engagement and offline destructive behaviour and confirm that offline destructive behaviour acts as the second important outcome of negative online brand engagement. To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support for the links between online and offline negative brand engagement.

The specific focus of offline destructive behaviour provides a more detailed classification for consumer engagement behaviour, and it helps to discover links between online and offline negative brand engagement behaviours. Also, this finding has important implications for brand managers where it suggests that managers should consider both online and offline environments when they are monitoring and managing negative consumer engagement. Based on this finding, researchers could look in more detail, identify specific online and offline negative engagement behaviours and explore their links and differences. Also, the effects of specific negative cognitions and affections on offline destructive behaviour are worth further consideration. For example, active and passive feelings may have different effects on consumers' offline destructive behaviours.

Negative online brand engagement and offline constructive behaviour (H11)

Offline constructive behaviour refers to a consumer's offline negative actions to solve the brand's problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand (Kim and Lim, 2020). Existing literature has identified links between negative brand engagement and consumers' behaviours of providing suggestions or feedback on how to improve the products or services (Goode, 2012; Romani et al., 2013; Naumann et al., 2017b). However, no study links online negative brand engagement with consumers' constructive behaviour, particularly in the offline context.

The qualitative data disclosed that consumers who engage negatively with the brand online would develop offline constructive behaviours (e.g., offline petitions, complaints). This hypothesis was confirmed in the quantitative study. These results imply that engaging negatively with the brand offline to help or improve the brand is a result of negative online brand engagement.

To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support

for links between online negative brand engagement and offline constructive behaviour. The specific focus of offline constructive behaviour provides a more detailed classification for consumer engagement behaviour, and it provides novel insights concerning links between online and offline negative brand engagement. Understanding consumers' constructive behaviours can also help managers to understand issues with products or services and find ways to solve them. Building on this finding, researchers could further explore under which situation negative online brand engagement can lead to offline constructive behaviour rather than destructive behaviour. Also, other drivers of consumers' constructive behaviours need further consideration.

11.5 Discussion of additional findings

This section includes two parts. Firstly, the development of measurements for the two outcome constructs (offline constructive behaviour, offline destructive behaviour) is discussed. Then, this section illustrates three additional relationships added after the re-specification of the original structural model in Chapter 10.

11.5.1 Measure development

The current study has also developed new measures for two constructs included in the conceptual model for which suitable scales were not identified in the available literature, including offline destructive behaviour and offline constructive behaviour. Corresponding to the measurement for online destructive behaviour, offline destructive behaviour was measured with four items. Similarly, the scale for offline constructive behaviour also includes three items. The results of the psychometric assessment of scales confirmed that all the new measures are valid and reliable. As explained in section 11.4, offline destructive and constructive behaviours were confirmed to be significant outcomes of negative online brand engagement.

Existing literature identifies scales to measure consumer brand engagement behaviour (e.g., Gong, 2018; Naumann, 2020); however, scales on constructive and destructive behaviours are very limited (e.g., Romani et al., 2013) and studies have not considered the differences

between online and offline constructive/destructive behaviours. The current study advances the understanding of negative consumer engagement behaviours by categorising them into offline constructive and destructive behaviours and developing corresponding measurements. In addition, the development of scales to measure these two constructs was important for successfully testing the conceptual model related to outcomes of negative online brand engagement. This also offers the potential to further explore how these two constructs interact with other marketing constructs.

11.5.2 Additional relationships

Following the re-specification of the original structural model (see Chapter 10), three additional relationships between several research constructs were established. These include negative relationships between perceived brand quality and brand disloyalty, perceived brand quality and happiness, and positive relationship between offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in anti-brand communities. All the relationships are significant at p < 0.05. The additional results based on the model modification process are presented in Table 11.3.

Table 11.3 Additional causal relationships

Relationship	Effect
Perceived brand quality → Brand disloyalty	Negative
Perceived brand quality → Happiness	Negative
Offline destructive behaviour → Intention to participate in anti-brand communities	Positive

Perceived brand quality and brand disloyalty

Perceived high quality has a significant influence on consumer brand loyalty, both directly and indirectly, through satisfaction (Hallak et al., 2018; Nguyen-Phuoc et al., 2021). Studies on various sectors examine the relationship between perceived brand quality and brand loyalty. For example, Shanahan et al., (2019) confirm this relationship in the social media context. Hallak et al. (2018) test the effects of perceived quality on brand loyalty in the context of a tourism destination. However, research covering the negative relationship

between perceived high brand quality and brand disloyalty is scarce and requires further consideration (Pandey and Chawla, 2016).

The results of model modification support the negative relationship between high perceived brand quality and brand disloyalty. This finding suggests that perceived favourable brand quality has negative effects on brand disloyalty. In other words, consumers, who perceive the brand as high quality (e.g., with excellent or superior brand features), are less likely to become disloyal to the brand.

Consumer loyalty and disloyalty lie at opposite ends of a continuum and studying them in conjunction enables marketers to gain a better understanding of switching barriers and customer satisfaction and, thus, help drive customer retention (Rowley and Dawes, 2000; Pandey and Chawla, 2016). Building on this finding, researchers could focus more on the negative side and extend this finding by investigating the effects of perceived low quality and brand disloyalty, where little has been researched.

Perceived brand quality and happiness

Existing literature confirms the link between perceived brand quality and consumers' positive emotions (e.g., pleasure, excitement) (Prayag et al., 2015). Jang and Namkung (2009) indicate that consumers perceived quality of products or services will affect their emotions, which can be either positive or negative. Ribeiro and Prayag (2019) provide support for the relationship between perceived level of quality and consumer emotions, with perceived high quality having positive effects on positive emotions and negative effects on negative emotions.

A negative and significant relationship between perceived high quality and consumers' overall happiness of engaging with the brand negatively online was uncovered by the results of testing the modified model. This relationship could be explained by consumers' expectations about a brand (Kim et al., 2019b). When the quality of the brand meets or exceeds consumers' expectations, they are less likely to feel happy after engaging negatively with the brand.

This result illustrates that the perceived high quality of a certain brand can reduce consumers'

positive feelings caused by negative brand engagement, thereby it may weaken their negative engagement with the brand. This finding is valuable for brand managers to control the effects of negative brand engagement. It is necessary to improve the brand quality and value to meet consumers' needs to make consumers feel unhappy, thereby reducing negative brand engagement. Based on this finding, researchers could further explore this relationship by comparing the differences between the effects of perceived high and low quality on the consumer's overall happiness of engaging negatively with the brand.

Offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in anti-brand communities

Existing literature shows that members of anti-brand communities usually develop destructive behaviours toward the brand (Popp et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2020). Studies indicate that negatively engaged consumers will develop more intense negative participation related to the brand (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; de Villiers, 2015). However, little evidence is found regarding the positive relationship between destructive behaviour and consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities, and the specific focus of the offline environment has not been considered.

Findings of the modified structural model confirm a positive and significant relationship between offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in anti-brand communities. It is then evidenced that consumers with offline destructive behaviours to the brand are more likely to participate in anti-brand communities. This result directly links offline destructive behaviour and participation in anti-brand communities in either the online or offline context, with the latter being little researched. Similar to the construct of online destructive behaviour, which is identified as a dimension of online negative brand engagement in this study, offline destructive behaviour can be regarded as a dimension of offline negative brand engagement.

This result might be associated with the sampling design of the current research (i.e., participants had engaged negatively with certain brands online), as consumers are more likely to participate in anti-brand communities in the online context (Hughes et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2019; Dhaoui and Webster, 2021). Building on this finding, researchers could further explore the relationship between offline negative brand engagement and intention to participate in anti-brand communities by recruiting participants who have engaged

negatively with certain brands in the offline environment.

11.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed findings in light of the three research questions stated at the beginning of this research. The discussion covered the results of both qualitative and quantitative studies, as they relate to the existing literature. The correspondence and deviations from the existing research have been explained. In line with RQ1, the study has confirmed that negative online brand engagement is a four-dimensional construct including cognition, affection, online destructive behaviour and online constructive behaviour. A key contribution of the study is a new measurement scale for negative online brand engagement that reflects the specifics of the phenomenon.

Regarding RQ2, six drivers of negative online brand engagement were identified in the conceptual model. In the hypothesis testing, all six drivers have remained, and five drivers were confirmed as having positive impacts on negative online brand engagement and one has a negative effect on the phenomenon. As such, the findings suggest that the negative online brand engagement phenomenon is driven by brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour, anti-consumption in general, consumer brand disidentification and oppositional attitudinal loyalty, and is negatively affected by perceived brand quality.

Concerning RQ3, negative online brand engagement has a significant positive effect on five outcome variables: intention to participate in anti-brand communities, brand disloyalty, happiness, offline destructive behaviour and offline constructive behaviour. The literature review and the qualitative study suggested these outcome variables and the quantitative study (hypothesis testing) further confirmed the relationships. One of the key contributions of the research is the development of scales to measure two outcomes of negative online brand engagement: offline destructive and constructive behaviour.

Finally, the chapter discussed three additional relationships derived from the modification of the original structural model. These include negative relationships between perceived brand quality and brand disloyalty, perceived brand quality and happiness, and the positive relationship between offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in anti-brand communities.

Chapter 12 Contribution and Direction for Future research

12.1 Introduction

The findings of this research (in Chapter 11) provide contributions to the consumer engagement literature regarding the negative online brand engagement phenomenon. This concerns the conception of negative online brand engagement and its dimensionality, and the identification of its six drivers and five outcomes. Additionally, the study makes theoretical contributions, associated with the development of a new valid and reliable measurement scale for negative online brand engagement to capture the specifics of the phenomenon, and the advancement of measures for the constructs of offline constructive behaviour and offline destructive behaviour. Findings from this research also illustrate the importance of negative online brand engagement for brands and provide several implications for the marketing practice.

This chapter outlines the key contributions of the current research, its limitations, and future research avenues. The chapter is structured as follows: first, the key theoretical contributions are presented. Next, the managerial implications and recommendations for marketing practice are presented. Finally, the chapter addresses the existing limitations of the current research and provides future research directions.

12.2 Theoretical contributions

The study makes several theoretical contributions to the consumer engagement literature and concerns the key development and conceptualisation of a new concept: negative online brand engagement. To the researcher's best knowledge, this is the first study to develop a measurement for negative online brand engagement following extensive procedures and investigation of its drivers and outcomes. Additionally, measures for constructs of the offline constructive and destructive behaviour included in the conceptual model for which suitable scales were not identified in the available literature were developed. All the measures have undergone reliability and validity assessments and could be applied in future studies concerning negative consumer engagement.

The **first** contribution of this research relates to the nature and conception of negative online

brand engagement. Previous research primarily focuses on and analyses the concept of positive consumer engagement (e.g., Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Ferreira et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020). Consumer brand engagement is usually considered as a motivational and context-dependent construct characterised by the consumer's cognitive, affective and behavioural investment in specific interactions with the brand (Hollebeek, 2011a, b; Dessart et al., 2019; Morgan-Thomas et al., 2020). Existing research, using the term negative consumer engagement, does not clearly defined it, and the previous study regards passive negative consumer engagement as consumer disengagement (Naumann et al., 2017a). There are questions on the dimensionality and the approach to negative consumer engagement, which insufficiently exposes the complex nature of the phenomenon.

Through analysis of the literature on positive and negative consumer engagement, this research extends previous findings and theoretically elaborates the concept. The present study advances a definition of negative online brand engagement that describes it as the consumer negatively valenced brand-related cognition, affection and online behaviour. In this definition, consumers' cognitions and affections are considered to be indistinguishable in the online and offline contexts, while consumers' online and offline engagement behaviours are different, which shows more detailed explanations of the online negative brand engagement than the definition proposed by Hollebeek and Chen (2014). This definition reveals three dimensions of negative online brand engagement and identifies the specific online engagement context. The combination of literature review, qualitative and quantitative data all indicate the existence of four dimensions of negative online brand engagement, including cognition, affection, online constructive behaviour and online destructive behaviour.

The current study advances the understanding of negativity by offering a multi-dimensional notion of the concept. The innovation is in the four dimensions of negative online brand engagement. The conception elaborates the cognitive dimension as the level of a consumer's negatively valenced brand-related attention and thinking (Dessart et al., 2015, 2016a). The affective dimension is considered as the degree of a consumer's negative feelings and emotions toward the brand (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014; Naumann, 2020). Online constructive behaviour refers to the consumer's positively oriented online actions to solve the brand's problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand (Kim and Lim, 2020). Online destructive behaviour relates to the consumer's negatively oriented

online actions to harm the brand considering one's own concerns (Plé and Cáceres, 2010). This study divided the behaviour dimension into two dimensions because of the distinct nature of constructive and destructive behaviours.

The **second** theoretical contribution concerns the operationalisation of negative online brand engagement with several achievements. The study makes an important headway in building on the qualitative insight to develop a new scale for the negative online brand engagement construct. In the consumer engagement literature, there is no conceptually adequate and valid scale to capture negative online brand engagement. Existing studies on negative consumer engagement (Bitter and Grabner-Kräuter, 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2020; Naumann et al., 2020) only use items coming from multiple previous studies to capture this construct without adopting a scale development approach. Also, existing scales on positive brand engagement (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016a; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019) cannot reflect the conceptual definition of negative online brand engagement identified in the current study. Hence, the creation of a dedicated scale to measure the focal concept of the study was necessary. To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to advance an innovative, valid and reliable measure of negative brand engagement in the online context by adopting a four-step scale development approach.

This endeavour provides a major contribution to the existing literature on negative consumer engagement measurement which is, to date, extremely limited, particularly in the online context. The study answers the call by Naumann et al. (2020) to expand the contextual application of consumer engagement. The scale development also contributes significantly to empirically validating the so far hesitant understanding of negative online brand engagement dimensionality, with some scholars focusing on the behavioural dimension (e.g., Dolan et al., 2016; Azer and Alexander, 2020a, 2020b) and others supporting the three dimensions comprising cognitive, affective and behavioural (e.g., Bowden et al. 2017; Naumann et al., 2020; Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2020). This newly developed scale with four dimensions (i.e., cognition, affection, online constructive behaviour, online destructive behaviour) provides a potential explanation of the exact meaning and applications of negative online brand engagement.

Considering the different nature of consumers' negative engagement behaviours (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017b; Kim and Lim, 2020), the current study has identified online

destructive behaviour and online constructive behaviour as two separate dimensions of negative online brand engagement. Many studies on negative consumer engagement identify consumers' destructive behaviours (e.g., Bowden et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Naumann et al., 2020). However, existing scholars hold different views on whether constructive behaviour belongs to negative engagement. Studies identify constructive behaviour as a sub-dimension of negative behavioural engagement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017a, b), while Azer and Alexander (2018) indicate that constructive behaviour refers to a positive engagement behaviour rather than negative engagement. In providing a valid and reliable measurement for negative online brand engagement, this study enables academics and practitioners to distinguish the composition of the negative side of engagement behaviours and gain a holistic understanding of the consumer engagement concept.

Third, another important theoretical contribution of this study concerns the development of measurement scales for the two outcomes of negative online brand engagement: offline constructive behaviour and offline destructive behaviour for which existing suitable scales could not be identified in the available literature. Insights from the qualitative study have allowed developing valid and reliable measures that capture the essence of these constructs. Also, the scales of offline constructive and destructive behaviour are consistent with the online constructive and destructive behaviour which are identified as two dimensions of negative online brand engagement in this study.

Fourth, this research contributes to the consumer engagement literature by providing novel and detailed categories of the drivers (brand-related, consumer-related, context-related) and outcomes (for brands, for consumers) of positive and negative consumer engagement in the literature review chapter. Previous research identifies several drivers and outcomes of consumer engagement without putting them into categories (e.g., Hollebeek and Chen, 2014) or only focusing on one category (e.g., Carlson et al., 2019a). The categorisation in the current study helps to understand drivers and outcomes of consumer engagement more systematically.

Fifth, this research advances existing research by evidencing previously largely under-researched drivers of negative online brand engagement. Previous studies identify several drivers of negative consumer engagement that are related to brand failure severity, unacceptable brand behaviour and oppositional attitudinal loyalty such as unfavourable

service encounters, corporate misconduct and oppositional loyalty (Zhang et al., 2018; Dessart et al., 2020; Hua et al., 2021). However, existing literature does not discuss the effect of these factors on negative brand engagement and ignores the online context. Studies confirm the positive relationship between perceived brand quality and positive consumer engagement (Gligor and Bozkurt, 2020). Also, the positive effect of consumers' traits on positive consumer engagement has been identified (Bento et al., 2018). However, these effects are related to positive consumer engagement and are only discussed in positive consumer engagement literature. To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support concerning the impact of perceived brand quality and anti-consumption in general on negative online brand engagement.

The results of the quantitative study further evidence that brand failure severity and anti-consumption in general play the most important roles in inducing the development of negative online brand engagement. This result advances the existing state of consumer engagement literature by providing novel insights into the two significant drivers. This illustrates that factors related to the brand itself (engagement object) and the consumer (engagement subject) tend to cause the appearance of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon to a greater extent than other brands.

Sixth, to the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support for the links between negative online brand engagement and its five outcomes. For example, previous studies focusing on brand disloyalty are mostly qualitative (Naumann et al., 2017b). The current study is the first to empirically evidence the strong impact of negative online brand engagement on brand disloyalty. Also, existing literature usually links negative brand engagement with negative feelings (Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018), rather than positive feelings; thereby, the study provides novel insights concerning links between negative online brand engagement and happiness.

In line with previous literature that links negative participation with negative consumer engagement (van Doorn et al., 2010; Hollebeek and Chen, 2014), this study found that negative online brand engagement has the strongest effect on consumers' intention to participate in anti-brand communities. It also contributes to existing studies on negative consumer engagement by distinguishing the two constructs of participating in anti-brand communities and participating in brand-related activities (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014).

Negatively engaged consumers may negatively participate in brand-related activities but positively participate in anti-brand communities (Dessart et al., 2016a).

The outcome of offline constructive and destructive behaviours extends previous research on constructive and destructive consumer engagement behaviours (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017a; Bowden et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Naumann et al., 2020) by linking online and offline consumer engagement. The specific focus of offline destructive and constructive behaviours also advances the existing state of consumer engagement literature by providing a more detailed classification for consumer engagement behaviour.

Lastly, corresponding to views in the existing literature that people in anti-brand communities usually develop destructive behaviours toward the brand (Popp et al., 2016; Naumann et al., 2020), this study has identified the strong link between offline destructive behaviour and intention to participate in anti-brand communities. This has important implications for studies on negative consumer engagement in the offline context (Naumann et al., 2017a, 2017b), which have been little researched.

The additional findings on perceived brand quality extend existing studies on brand loyalty (e.g., Shanahan et al., 2019; Nguyen-Phuoc et al., 2021). Little evidence is found regarding the negative relationship between perceived brand quality and brand disloyalty, and the specific focus of the online environment has not been considered. Under the unique research focus of negative online brand engagement, the negative relationship between perceived brand quality and happiness has important implications for the literature on negative consumer engagement (e.g., Naumann et al., 2017b; Heinonen, 2018). Perceived high quality of a certain brand can reduce consumers' positive feelings caused by negative brand engagement; thereby, it may weaken their negative brand engagement.

12.3 Managerial implications

This research offers several implications for marketing practice. Understanding the nature of negative online brand engagement, its drivers and outcomes can be advantageous for brand managers and moderators of online anti-brand groups.

First, the current thesis confirms the importance of negative online brand engagement, by

illustrating its consequent role in strengthening consumer disloyalty and offline negative engagement behaviours with the brand. Negative online brand engagement can bring negative consequences to the brand, such as reduced purchase and disloyalty, and may even lead to offline harmful behaviours and bring further damage to the brand (Naumann et al., 2017b; de Villers, 2015). Understanding negative online brand engagement would allow managers to specify remedies to avoid the negative effects. For instance, managers can communicate with consumers who post negative comments online, solve their issues, give compensation, and avoid them developing further harmful behaviours to the brand.

Second, negative online brand engagement can also benefit companies. Consumers' online constructive behaviour, such as complaining and providing feedback, can be used to diagnose emerging issues and gain insights into how to avoid undesired outcomes (Min et al., 2019). It would be a valuable resource for managers to understand consumers' preferences and potential issues related to the product or service. It could help managers to have a better focus when developing and implementing the brand's marketing strategies and tactics.

Third, the set of valuable guidelines for managers also concerns the key brand and consumer-related drivers that motivate negative online brand engagement. This research shows that brand behaviours and consumer characteristics are the strongest predictors of negative online brand engagement. On this ground, several ways to effectively prevent negative online brand engagement can be envisaged. For example, timely remedies for brand failure should be undertaken to avoid negative online brand engagement (Raithel et al., 2021). In addition, the company should avoid all unethical behaviours and strengthen CSR (e.g., make matching donations) (Vargo, 2016; Mattila et al., 2016). Since consumers with the feature of anti-consumption are more likely to engage negatively with the brand, managers should monitor these consumers' online behaviours and avoid negative effects. Additionally, the results have evidenced a significant relationship between consumer brand disidentification and negative online brand engagement. Thus, the segmentation of consumers based on their self-concept and traits should be considered. For example, managers should understand consumers' beliefs and values and target consumers who agree with the brand value.

Fourth, this study confirms the intention to participate in anti-brand communities as a

significant result of negative online brand engagement. Specifically, it shows that negatively engaged consumers are more likely to actively participate in activities of online anti-brand communities (e.g., posting and sharing brand-related comments). Therefore, online anti-brand communities could be valuable resources for managers to learn about consumers' information, preferences and issues related to the products or services; thereby, corresponding appropriate marketing and branding strategies can be developed to avoid and manage the effects of negative online consumer engagement.

Finally, this study can help moderators of online anti-brand communities to get a better understanding of their members, thereby appropriate strategies to manage the anti-brand groups can be developed. For example, the results of this research confirmed that negatively engaged consumers are willing to engage in online anti-brand communities. Also, brand failure severity is identified as the strongest driver of negative online brand engagement. Therefore, moderators of online anti-brand communities could focus on posting information related to the brand failure in their groups which could attract negatively engaged consumers who are more likely to join these online anti-brand groups and interact actively to contribute to the development of their groups.

12.4 Limitations and future research directions

As an initial effort aimed at the understanding of the nature, drivers and outcomes of the negative online brand engagement phenomenon, this research acknowledges several limitations which could be addressed in future studies. Limitations concern the type of data collected, sampling approach, qualitative data analysis, generalisability of results, as well as the limitations inherent to the conceptual scope of the study. Several suggestions are made to advance research in this emerging domain.

First, this study has the limitation concerning the type of data collected. All the hypotheses are tested based on a cross-sectional design. Such data is being collected at one point in time, and it is impossible to indicate the sequence of events (Saunders et al., 2012). The results, therefore, only indicate a relationship between the variables; they do not confirm causality, but only covariance. To tackle causality more explicitly, follow-up studies could be carried out and longitudinal data should be collected to fully understand the causal relationships

between negative online brand engagement, its antecedents and outcomes.

Second, another limitation is associated with the sampling approach. In the qualitative phase, interview data were collected from moderators and members of Facebook anti-brand groups without considering censorship. Future research could focus on posts or comments that are deleted by the group moderators or Facebook if they are sensitive or aggressive, which could be an opportunity to get a further understanding of negative consumer engagement. In the quantitative phase, to recruit more participants and gain a rich insight into negative online brand engagement, the researcher approached participants from various sources (i.e., anti-brand groups on Facebook, consumer managed brand groups on Facebook and Instagram, and the researcher's contacts on Facebook and LinkedIn). However, the adoption of non-probability sampling reduces the generalisability of the findings. In addition, the current study only used one sample in the hypothesis testing. To enhance the validity and reliability of the results, future research should replicate this study in a more naturalistic setting (e.g., using two samples for hypothesis testing with one recruiting participants from online anti-brand communities and the other from consumer managed brand groups).

Third, the qualitative data collected from three sources (i.e., online observation, semi-structured interviews with moderators and members of online anti-brand groups) were analysed holistically rather than separately for each. Future research should further explore the differences of negative consumer engagement in various online platforms and from consumers' and managers' perspectives by analysing the three sources of qualitative data separately.

Fourth, the generalisability of the study could be enhanced in several ways. The study focused on negative brand engagement in the online context. One way to extend this study's findings and enhance its generalisability would be to consider the offline context. This study is based on a conscious choice to focus on the online anti-brand communities and consumer managed brand groups; however, negative brand engagement can thrive in other formats and environments such as anti-brand groups in the offline environment. Different contexts afford different interactive functionalities, which could impact the way consumer engagement is enacted (Hollebeek et al., 2014). Future studies may try to identify offline anti-brand groups and investigate the differences between online and offline engagement.

This study also paved the way in exploring negative online brand engagement across cultures,

focusing on English-speaking people from various countries. However, the focus of one language does not allow drawing strong conclusions on the cross-cultural validity of a test (Cadogan, 2010). To further the cross-cultural applicability of the model, scholars need to collect data from countries in different languages. Focusing on western culture is a first step in showing the cross-cultural validity of the study, but further confirmation is needed concerning more culturally diverse nations.

A final possibility to extend this work further is to reconsider the conceptual frame. The conceptual model presented, here, builds on key studies in the positive and negative consumer engagement literature to generate a conceptual framework. Necessarily, the number of antecedents is small and finite and other antecedents and outcomes of negative online brand engagement may need to be explored in future research. The paper on positive and negative brand engagement has identified possible connections between negative brand engagement and other constructs (Hollebeek and Chen, 2014). As empirical research that aims to validate these relationships is only emerging slowly, consumer engagement scholars should seek to further validate connections that link negative online brand engagement to other constructs.

Other engagement objects should also be considered. The developed measure of negative online engagement in this study has only been applied to one engagement object: the brand. It would be worthwhile testing the generalisability of the scale to other relevant engagement objects such as the brand community, community members and other consumers. Qualitative research on negative consumer engagement highlights the interplay that occurs between negative brand engagement and negative brand community engagement (Bowden, et al., 2017). Scholars should seek to further validate the relationships that link negative online brand engagement and negative engagement with other objects.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Journals selected and the number of articles in each

No.	Journal title	Journals in ABS list Marketing (all)	Journals in Scopus		No. count	No. capture
			Marketing (top 25%)	**SM (top 20%)**		
1	Journal of Consumer Psychology	√	√	×	21	13
2	Journal of Consumer Research	√	√	×	14	3
3	Journal of Marketing	√	√	×	12	7
4	Journal of Marketing Research	√	√	×	14	7
5	Marketing Science	√	√	×	4	0
6	International Journal of Research in Marketing	√	√	×	17	8
7	Journal of Retailing	√	√	×	6	2
8	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	√	√	×	14	13
9	European Journal of Marketing	√	×	×	24	21
10	Industrial Marketing Management	√	√	×	14	13
11	International Marketing Review	√	√	×	3	2
12	Journal of Advertising	√	√	×	8	6
13	Journal of Advertising Research	√	×	×	7	7
14	Journal of Interactive Marketing	√	√	×	20	20
15	Journal of International Marketing	√	√	×	5	2
16	Journal of Public Policy and Marketing	√	√	×	1	0
17	Marketing Letters	√	×	×	4	3
18	Marketing Theory	√	√	×	1	0

No.	Journal title	Journals in ABS list Marketing (all)	Journals in Scopus Marketing (top 25%)	SM (top 20%)	No. count	No. capture
19	Psychology and Marketing	√	√	×	18	10
20	Quantitative Marketing and Economics	√	×	×	1	1
21	Electronic Markets	×	√	×	1	1
22	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Service	×	√	×	40	38
23	Journal of Business Research	×	√	×	56	53
24	Journal of Product and Brand Management	×	√	×	31	29
25	Journal of Services Marketing	×	√	×	24	23
26	International Journal of Bank Marketing	×	√	×	10	9
27	International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management	×	√	×	7	6
28	Journal of Marketing Management	×	√	√	22	21
29	Academy of Management Journal	×	×	√	1	0
30	Tourism Management	×	×	√	1	1
31	Journal of Product Innovation Management	×	×	√	9	1
32	California Management Review	×	×	√	2	1
33	Management Science	×	×	√	1	1
34	Journal of Service Management	×	×	√	18	16
35	Journal of Service Theory and Practice	×	×	√	1	1
36	New Technology, Work and Employment	×	×	√	1	1
Total	**36**	**20**	**8 added**	**8 added**	**433**	**340**

Appendix 2. Data collection methods

Method	Sample	Timeframe
Online observation	481 online reviews of Samsung products and 173 online reviews of Apple products	July - September 2019
Semi-structured interviews	10 moderators and 15 members of anti-brand communities on Facebook	September - December 2019
Expert survey	29 experts in the field of consumer engagement	January - February 2021
Pre-test	a small group of 20 researchers at the University of Glasgow	April - May 2021
Pilot test	41 completed surveys, people who engage negatively with brands online	April - May 2021
Main data collection	431 completed surveys, people who engage negatively with brands online	May -September 2021

Appendix 3. Interbrand and BrandZ Top 100 Most Valuable Global Brand 2018

No.	Brand Name	Category	Rank in Interbrand	Rank in BrandZ
1	Apple	Technology	1	2
2	Google	Technology	2	1
3	Amazon	Retail	3	3
4	Microsoft	Technology	4	4
5	Coca Cola	Soft Drinks	5	14
6	Samsung	Technology	6	33
7	Toyota	Cars	7	36
8	Mercedes-Benz	Cars	8	46
9	Facebook	Technology	9	6
10	McDonald's	Fast Food	10	8
11	Intel	Technology	11	38
12	IBM	Technology	12	11
13	BMW	Cars	13	47
14	Disney	Entertainment	14	19
15	Cisco	Technology	15	57
16	GE	Conglomerate	16	28
17	Nike	Apparel	17	29
18	Louis Vuitton	Luxury	18	26
19	ORACLE	Technology	19	45
20	HONDA	Cars	20	97
21	SAP	Technology	21	17
22	Pepsi	Soft Drinks	22	98
23	Chanel	Luxury	23	-
24	American Express	Payments	24	35
25	Zara	Apparel	25	42
26	J.P.Morgan	Global Banks	26	73
27	IKEA	Retail	27	76
28	Gillette	Personal Care	28	85
29	UPS	Logistics	29	16
30	HM	Apparel	30	-
31	Pampers	Baby Care	31	64
32	Hermes	Luxury	32	39
33	Budweiser	Beer	33	40
34	Accenture	Technology	34	32
35	Ford	Cars	35	96
36	HYUNDAI	Cars	36	-
37	Nescafe	coffee	37	-
38	ebay	Retail	38	88
39	Gucci	Luxury	39	54
40	NISSAN	Cars	40	-
41	Volkswagen	Cars	41	-
42	Audi	Cars	42	-
43	Philips	Personal Care	43	-
44	Goldman Sachs	Financial Company	44	-
45	Citi	Global Banks	45	58
46	HSBC	Global Banks	46	50
47	AXA	Insurance	47	-
48	LOREAL	Personal Care	48	44
49	Allianz	Financial Company	49	-
50	adidas	Apparel	50	100
51	Adobe	Technology	51	75
52	Porsche	Cars	52	-

No.	Brand Name	Category	Rank in Interbrand	Rank in BrandZ
53	Kellogg's	Food	53	-
54	hp	Technology	54	89
55	Canon	Technology	55	-
56	Siemens	Technology	56	82
57	Starbucks	Fast Food	57	23
58	Danone	Food	58	-
59	Sony	Technology	59	-
60	3M	Innovation	60	-
61	VISA	Payments	61	7
62	Nestle	Food	62	-
63	Morgan Stanley	Financial Company	63	-
64	Colgate	Personal Care	64	71
65	Hewlett Packard Enterprise	Technology	65	-
66	Netflix	Entertainment	66	61
67	Cartier	Luxury	67	-
68	Huawei	Technology	68	48
69	Santander	Global Banks	69	-
70	Mastercard	Payments	70	15
71	Kia	Cars	71	-
72	FedEx	Logistics	72	56
73	PayPal	Payments	73	30
74	Lego	Entertainment	74	-
75	Salesforce	Technology	75	78
76	Panasonic	Technology	76	-
77	Johnson & Johnson	Personal Cares	77	-
78	Land Rover	Cars	78	-
79	DHL	Logistics	79	62
80	Ferrari	Cars	80	-
81	Discovery	Entertainment	81	-
82	Caterpillar	Manufacturer	82	-
83	Tiffany & Co.	Luxury	83	-
84	Jack Daniel's	Whiskey	84	-
85	Corona	Beer	85	-
86	KFC	Fast Food	86	87
87	Heineken	Beer	87	-
88	John Deere	Manufacturer	88	-
89	Shell	Oil & Gas	89	63
90	BMW MINI	Cars	90	-
91	Dior	Luxury	91	-
92	Spotify	Entertainment	92	-
93	Harley-Davidson	Motor Company	93	-
94	Burberry	Luxury	94	-
95	Prada	Luxury	95	-
96	Sprite	Soft Drinks	96	-
97	Johnnie Walker	Whiskey	97	-
98	Hennessy	Cognac	98	-
99	Nintendo	Entertainment	99	-
100	Subaru	Cars	100	-
101	Tencent	Technology	-	5
102	Alibaba Group	Retail	-	9
103	AT&T	Telecom Providers	-	10
104	Verizon	Telecom Providers	-	12
105	Marlboro	Tobacco	-	13
106	Wells Fargo	Regional Banks	-	18

No.	Brand Name	Category	Rank in Interbrand	Rank in BrandZ
107	The Home Depot	Retail	-	20
108	China Mobile	Telecom Providers	-	21
109	ICBC	Regional Banks	-	22
110	Xfinity	Telecom Providers	-	24
111	T Mobile	Telecom Providers	-	25
112	Spectrum	Telecom Providers	-	27
113	Walmart	Retail	-	31
114	Moutai	Alcohol	-	34
115	Vodafone	Telecom Providers	-	37
116	Baidu	Technology	-	41
117	Ping An	Insurance	-	43
118	China Construction Bank	Regional Banks	-	49
119	YouTube	Technology	-	51
120	RBC	Regional Banks	-	52
121	Movistar	Telecom Providers	-	53
122	NTT	Telecom Providers	-	55
123	JD.COM	Retail	-	59
124	HDFC BANK	Regional Banks	-	60
125	Orange	Telecom Providers	-	65
126	TD	Regional Banks	-	66
127	CHASE	Regional Banks	-	67
128	Commonwealth Bank	Regional Banks	-	68
129	Agricultural Bank of China	Regional Banks	-	69
130	Subway	Fast Food	-	70
131	Costco	Retail	-	72
132	ExxonMobile	Oli & Gas	-	74
133	Bank of America	Regional Banks	-	77
134	China Life	Insurance	-	79
135	USbank	Regional Banks	-	80
136	UBER	Transport	-	81
137	Linked in	Technology	-	83
138	Bank of China	Regional Banks	-	84
139	AIA - The Real Life Company	Insurance	-	86
140	SF Express	Logistics	-	90
141	Instagram	Technology	-	91
142	ANZ	Regional Banks	-	92
143	ALDI	Retail	-	93
144	BT	Telecom Providers	-	94
145	Lowe's	Retail	-	95
146	BCA	Regional Banks	-	99

Source: Interbrand (2018) and Brandz (2018)

Appendix 4. Selected anti-brand pages or groups (by 30/6/2019)-large

Brand category	Brand	Facebook pages/groups 2019			Last post time
		Name	Member	Like	
Technology	Google	I hate Google	174	174	22.02.2019
		I hate Google.	286	286	03.09.2018
	Facebook	I HATE FACEBOOK	1941	1968	24.01.2019
		I hate the new facebook sidebar chat	22920	24152	20.06.2018
		We hate facebook	461	460	01/01/2019
	Instagram	I hate Instagram (group)	276	-	19.12.2018
	IBM	IBM sucks	837	836	26.08.2018
	Samsung	I Hate Samsung (product/service)	3892	3942	11.02.2019
		I hate Samsung (electronics)	1903	1911	11.02.2019
		Samsung phones are absolutely shit	1090	1121	04.10.2018
		We hate Samsung smartphones	177	176	18.08.2018
	Microsoft	I Hate Windows	1032	1085	31.01.2018
		I Hate Microsoft Word	371	375	11.02.2019
		I Hate Microsoft.	315	319	28.02.2019
		Microsoft sucks	1134	1183	20.02.2019
	Apple	I Hate Apple (group)	4452	-	01.03.2019
		I Hate Apple (product/service)	1667	1696	01.03.2019
		I hate Apple	16976	21997	22.07.2018
		Apple Sucks	8978	9245	27.02.2019
		Anti Apple (brand)	3370	3479	25.02.2019
		I Hate Apple. Apple is Bullshit	1331	1357	11.02.2019
		I Hate Apple Products	150	155	11.02.2019
		I hate iphone	2516	2556	07.02.2019
		Apple is Shit	965	962	27.02.2019
		I Love Samsung. I Hate Apple.	108	110	22.01.2019
	HP	I Hate HP	1559	1608	23.10.2018
	Sony	SONY SUCKS	1212	1235	31.10.2018
		Sony Sucks	1955	1954	05.09.2018
Telecom provider	Verizon	I Hate Verizon	385	390	18.01.2019
	Spectrum	I Hate Spectrum (group)	218	-	13.07.2019
	Vodafone	I Hate Vodafone Australia	8581	8843	27.01.2019
		Hate Vodafone	113	115	24.03.2018
		We hate Vodafone India	142	142	03.02.2019
		I Hate Vodafone India	540	540	19.10.2018
		Vodafone IS SHIT	956	971	14.10.2018
	BT	I Hate BT	123	129	07.03.2018
		I hate BT (British Telecom)	447	460	01.03.2019
		I hate BT (group)	523	-	19.02.2019
		We hate BT broadband speed/openreach (group)	803	-	28.02.2019
Food and Beverage	Starbucks	I hate starbucks	2513	2556	26.07.2018
		I hate STARBUCKS	974	986	28.05.2018
		I hate starbucks	184	186	19.04.2018
	McDonald	I hate McDonald's	5730	5994	16.02.2019
	KFC	I Hate KFC Chicken	336	337	27.06.2018
	Coca Cola	I hate Coca Cola	177	177	25.02.2019
	Pepsi	Pepsi Sucks	951	954	07.12.2018
	Nestle	Boycott Nestle	3143	3015	24.06.2019
		Boycott Nestlé	1026	1033	08.06.2019
		Nestlé boycott (INBC)	13182	13269	21.11.2018
		Anti nestle!!! no nestle!!	2894	2900	09.11.2018
		Say NO to Nestlé this Christmas	367	349	24.06.2019
		ANTI Nestlé	1411	1410	22.05.2019
		Nestle Boycott	942	-	29.06.2019
		STOP NESTLE!!!	235	-	28.06.2019
		Boycott Nestle products!	122	-	23.04.2019
		Boycott Nestle	371	-	05.04.2019
		Boycott Nestle	371	-	17.06.2019

Brand category	Brand	Facebook pages/groups 2019			Last post time
		Name	Member	Like	
Apparel	Nike	I Hate Nike	752	765	24.02.2019
		Boycott Nike	330	332	17.02.2019
		Boycott Nikes Racism	287	282	02.06.2018
		Boycott Nike until they drop VICK	2140	2169	28.02.2019
		The REAL No Way Nike- No Michael Vick	8716	10040	29.06.2019
Retail	Walmart	I Hate Walmart	41406	42645	27.02.2019
		I Hate Walmart With A Passion	1549	-	05.01.2019
		Why I hate Walmart, but still shop there (group)	104	-	27.02.2019
		We Hate Wal-Mart	785	798	27.01.2019
		I hate Wal-Mart!	3028	3100	25.12.2018
		Boycott Walmart NOW	489	494	02.12.2018
		Boycott Walmart	315	317	22.12.2018
		Boycott Walmart	130	131	21.06.2019
		Anti-Walmart Supercenter	158	-	25.06.2019
		Boycott Walmart Now!	1005	-	22.06.2019
	Amazon	I Hate Amazon (group)	141	-	29.12.2018
		Anti-Amazon, We Hate Amazon	349	346	20.11.2017
		Boycott Amazon the tax avoiding pricks	285	-	26.02.2019
		Boycott Amazon	287	279	26.06.2019
	IKEA	I Hate IKEA	196	199	24.02.2019
		I hate IKEA (group)	508	-	24.02.2019
		IKEA SUCKS	302	311	17.04.2018
	Lowe's	I Hate Lowes	169	162	27.01.2019
		Lowe's sucks	162	165	05.05.2019
		I Hate Lowes (group)	139	-	05.11.2018
Transport	Uber	Uber Sucks (cause)	3478	3462	10.02.2019
		Uber Sucks (community)	210	202	01.03.2019
		Uber Haters	171	168	24.11.2018
		Anti-Uber UK	112	106	08.10.2018
		Anti-Uber	1415	1401	14.06.2019
		Boycott Uber	101	103	31.08.2018
		We Love/hate Uber Drivers Glasgow	145	-	12.06.2019
Payment	PayPal	I Hate PayPal	1589	1627	17.02.2019
		PayPal Sucks	54767	57916	01.03.2019
		Boycott PayPal	110	-	13.11.2018
Regional Banks	Wells Fargo	I hate Wells Fargo	812	808	03.11.2018
		I HATE WELLS FARGO BANK!!!	948	994	31.01.2019
		I Hate Wells Fargo	387	396	04.03.2018
		Wells Fargo Complaints	150	150	24.12.2018
		Fuck Wells Fargo.	513	519	20.04.2019
		I HATE WELLS FARGO!	104	-	03.03.2019
	Chase	I Hate Chase Bank	100	104	04.12.2018
		Why I Hate Chase	395	398	29.04.2019
		I Hate Chase Bank	218	-	15.07.2019
	Bank of America	I Hate Bank of America	314	317	07.09.2018
		I Hate Bank Of America	296	306	03.12.2018
		Bank of America Sucks	3213	3327	09.04.2019
		Bank of America Sucks	121	119	03.04.2019
Entertainment	Disney	I HATE DISNEY	2697	2732	03.01.2019
		I Hate Disney Channel	459	464	21.04.2018
		anti-disney	1673	1676	14.02.2019
		Boycott Disney - for Lucasarts	886	881	17.01.2019
		Boycott Disney	374	382	20.05.2019
		Boycott Disney Now!	264	-	14.12.2018
	Netflix	I Hate Netflix	116	119	03.10.2018
		Boycott Netflix	175	176	10.08.2018
		Boycott Netflix	112	112	20.02.2018
	Spotify	I hate Spotify	116	119	04.04.2018

Brand category	Brand	Facebook pages/groups 2019			Last post time
		Name	Member	Like	
Cars and Motors	Toyota	I HATE TOYOTA	1814	1842	11.11.2018
		I hate the Toyota Prius	579	587	31.10.2018
		Anti-Prius	888	894	22.02.2019
	Honda	I HATE HONDA CIVIC HATCHBACKS	879	911	10.01.2019
		I hate Hondas	465	465	27.07.2018
	Nissan	I hate Nissan	533	541	30.04.2018
		I Hate Nissan Micra Drivers!!	247	251	02.03.2018
	Subaru	Subaru Sucks	719	723	19.02.2018
		I Hate Subaru Drivers (group)	218	-	06.03.2019
	Ford	I hate Fords Fanpage	12093	11780	26.02.2019
		I hate Fords fanpage	1096	1063	28.02.2019
		I Hate Chevy Fanpage	9135	9001	08.01.2019
		Ford haters	45936	45990	06.01.2019
		FORD Haters	566	560	09.05.2018
		Hate Fords	3556	3567	29.06.2018
		I Hate Ford's	36406	36207	01.03.2019
		I Hate FORDS	477	479	08.06.2018
		We hate ford	740	735	15.02.2019
		We hate Fords	434	432	19.11.2018
		I hate fords	6683	6687	21.02.2019
		I hate ford page	846	828	27.04.2018
		I Hate Ford Trunks	1600	1553	15.02.2019
		Screw ford	596	595	21.05.2018
		Fords SUCK memes	3278	3188	21.02.2019
		Anti Ford Memes	876	869	28.06.2019
		I Hate Fords Fanpage (group)	10555	-	03.03.2019
		I Hate Ford Fan Page (group)	200	-	21.02.2019
		I Hate Fords Fan Page 2.0	194	-	21.05.2019
		I Hate Ford Fanpage (group)	25342	-	01.03.2019
		I Hate Ford Fan Page (group)	1831	-	03.03.2019
		Anti Ford Memes	1895	-	15.07.2019
	Harley-Davidson	I hate Harleys	928	946	26.06.2018
		I Hate Harleys	145	141	08.04.2019
Logistics	FedEx	I Hate Fedex	1243	1255	30.01.2019
		I Hate FedEx	116	118	01.03.2018
		FedEx Sucks	129	126	03.05.2018
		FedEx Sucks (Company)	1837	1887	26.02.2019
		FedEx Sucks (Community)	1639	1612	26.02.2019
		FEDEX Complaints	675	675	08.02.2019
	DHL	I HATE DHL	293	296	09.12.2018
		DHL service sucks	243	251	26.10.2018
		Anti-DHL Paket	244	239	13.03.2019
Total	40	107	350,595	332,640	-

Appendix 5. Selected anti-brand pages or groups (by 30/6/2019)-small

Brand category	Brand	Facebook pages/groups 2019			Last post time
		Name	Member	Like	
Technology	Samsung	I hate samsung (group)	45	-	11.03.2019
	Microsoft	I Hate Microsoft	41	41	18.06.2019
	Apple	I hate Apple products	25	24	31.01.2019
Telecom provider	Spectrum	I Hate Spectrum (because venting is better than breaking your TV!)	18	-	11.05.2019
	Vodafone	I Hate Vodafone	68	-	20.06.2019
Food and Beverage	McDonald	I Hate Mcdonald's on South East Side 106th	125	-	12.06.2019
		I hate Mcdonalds of Rising Sun	62	-	02.04.2019
	Nestle	Boycott Nestle Worldwide	81	-	09.06.2019
		Boycott Nestlé	73	-	17.02.2019
Apparel	Nike	Boycott Nike	60	59	14.04.2019
Retail	Wal-Mart	Boycott Wal-Mart!	40	-	01.03.2019
	Amazon	Boycott Amazon.	26	26	01.03.2019
		Boycott Amazon	80	79	17.06.2019
		Boycott Amazon	88	86	22.04.2019
	IKEA	I Hate IKEA	15	14	15.03.2019
Transport	Uber	I hate Uber and This Is Why......	39	-	30.06.2019
Payment	PayPal	We hate PayPal support group...	12	-	10.01.2019
		PayPal sucks! Boycott PayPal	71	-	09.06.2019
Regional Banks	Well Fargo	Wells Fargo Sucks	78	77	12.02.2019
		I hate Wells Fargo	83	79	10.05.2019
Entertainment	Disney	Boycott Disney Channel	37	36	09.06.2019
	Netflix	Boycott Netflix	16	-	05.07.2019
Cars and motor	Nissan	I Hate Nissan Navaras	15	15	01.05.2019
	Subaru	Subaru Hate Club	58	-	06.2019
Total	18	24	1256	536	-

Appendix 6. Semi-structured interview guide 1 (For moderators)

Objectives:

To understand negative online consumer brand engagement from the perspective of managers in online anti-brand communities.

Interview guide

How are you? Thank you very much for your help.

I'm Xinyu, a PhD researcher at the University of Glasgow. My research is about people engagement in online groups. I would like to talk with you about your group and the members of this group. May I record this discussion?

Part 1: History of the anti-brand community

1. What is this group about?

2. How was the group created?

3. For how long has it existed?

4. What is happening in this group? What normally happened in this group? It there any interesting or memorable things happened in this group?

Part 2: The role of a manager in the anti-brand community

1. What about your role in this group?

2. What do you usually do in the group? How do you choose sth to post or not post in this group?

Part 3: Members in the anti-brand community

1. This group has xxx members. Could you tell me some characteristics of members of the group?

2. Why do they join this group?

3. What do you think of members' views of the group?

4. What do you think of members' feelings about the group?

5. What do they usually do in this group?

6. How often do they post or comment in this group?

7. What are the main contents of their posts or comments?

8. How do the members in this group interact with each other? Are there any conflicts between members?

9. What do you think of members' views of the brand?

10. What do you think of members' feelings about the brand?

11. What do they do to express their thoughts and feelings to the brand?

12. Are all members of the group similar? Is there anyone different from others?

13. Is there anything you would like to add?

Part 4: Demographics

Age; Job; Social media usage (years); Membership in the anti-brand community (years); Membership to other brand and anti-brand group (years); Daily time on anti-brand community (hours); Frequency of interaction

Appendix 7. Semi-structured interview guide 2 (For members)

Objectives:

To conceptualise negative online consumer brand engagement.

To explore the dimensionality of negative online consumer brand engagement.

To understand negative consumer engagement with brands in online anti-brand communities.

To explore the antecedents and outcomes of negative online consumer brand engagement.

Introduction

- Hi, I'm Xinyu Dong, a PhD student at the University of Glasgow. My research is about people engagement in online groups, particularly in anti-brand groups. As a member of the 'brand name' (e.g. Apple) anti-brand group, I would like to talk with you about the 'brand name' (e.g. Apple), about this group and members in this group. May I record this discussion?

Part 1: Regarding the brand you engage with

1. How do you know this brand?

- What parts of the brand attract your attention?

- Over the years, what were your memorable experiences with the brand from the beginning to now?

2. Have you ever owned any product of this brand? Have you had it recently? Why do you buy it?

3. What are the first five things come to your mind when you think about the brand? What do you mean?

- What makes you have these in your mind?

4. How does this brand make you feel?

- What makes you feel like that? Please give me some examples.

5. What have you done in the online environment to express your thoughts and feelings to the brand?

- How often do you do this?

Part 2: Regarding the anti-brand community you participate in

1. How did you find and join this group?

- When did you join this group?

- Could you please tell me why do you join this group?

2. Could you please describe the group that you are a part of?

-What are the first five things come to your mind when you think about the group? What do you mean? Why?

- What makes you have these in your mind?

- What kinds of value/benefit have you got from this group?

3. How does the group make you feel?

- What makes you feel like that? Please give me some examples.

4. What do you usually do in this group? Why?

- What have you done in this Facebook group to express your thoughts and feelings to the brand?

5. Is there anything that makes this group special?

- What is happening in this group that is interesting and important?

- Over the years, what were your memorable experiences with the group from the beginning to now?

Part 3: Regarding other members in the anti-brand community

1. Do you know other members of this group?

- What are the first five things come to your mind when you think about them?

- How do they make you feel?

- What do they do inside and outside of the group?

- How do you interact with them inside and outside of the group?

2. What do you think their assessment/views to the group?

3. What do you think their assessment/views to the brand?

4. Is there anything you would like to add about the brand, the group and group members?

Part 4: Demographics

Age; Gender; Social media usage (years); Membership in the anti-brand community (years); Membership to other brand and anti-brand communities (years); Daily time on anti-brand community (hours); Frequency of interaction; The role in the anti-brand community

Appendix 8. Example of thematic analysis

Theme	Sub-theme	Quote
Cognition	attention	'I got to sort of late teens and I started to find out about issues, and then I became aware of the baby milk. So, I guess that's probably the first time I was aware of them as a…as a brand' (Member 11, 58)
		'First, I think well…the milk feeding advertising is first one. I kind of…I must admit it's one of the very first things that come to my head' (Member 6, 67)
		'Attracted my attention…I first started to hate Walmart and I know hate is a very strong word. But when I learned about their employment practices, they purposely hire people who they do not employ full time' (Member 2, 42)
	thinking	'I'm mainly interested in it because of some traumatic experiences I've mentioned in the bottle-feeding advertising campaign. But since then, I've just been coming more and more aware of this company… I become aware of the way that they are privatizing water' (Member 6, 67)
		'I would think Apple should change their strategy to focus more on product quality, rather than searching after profits. So, that was not Steve Jobs' way, of course, cared about money, but he was not just chasing after profits. He had a vision. I feel the company has lost its vision and it should search define the true meaning of its existence' (Member 14, 31)
		'I think the owners of Walmart should be taxed heavily, as any other billionaires should be taxed heavily in America and they're not being taxed at all' (Member 1, 48)
		'I think it's unethical. I think that there could be better treatment of the people, of the workers that they employ to provide these products. I think it could be done in a much safer, more morally sound position' (Member 13, 22)
		'They thought that the overall storytelling was so poor, that it needs to be recognized that it was poor storytelling.' (Moderator 4, 30)

Appendix 9. Final survey instrument

Welcome

You are invited to participate in a survey conducted by members of the Adam Smith Business School of the University of Glasgow. The research team consists of Xinyu Dong (PhD researcher), Prof. Cleopatra Veloutsou, and Prof. Anna Morgan-Thomas.

The survey questions concern yourself and your attitudes, feelings and behaviours towards a brand, including online and offline activities. There is no right or wrong answer: we are looking for your personal views.

The survey should take around 30 minutes to complete. Your response is anonymous and follows the University of Glasgow ethics code. You may leave this survey at any time. For more details on the survey please click on the Participant Information Sheet. By clicking the 'Next' below, you consent to participate in the survey.

1. Please indicate your age:

Under 14	15-17	18-24	25-34	35-44
45-54	55-64	65-74	75 or older	I am over 18 but prefer not to answer

Disqualification We are sorry but you must be 18 years or above to answer this survey. Thank you for your interest anyway!

Have you interacted negatively online with a brand (e.g. reading, writing or posting negative comments about the brand online)?

Yes	No

Disqualification We are sorry but you must have interacted negatively online with a brand to answer this survey. Thank you for your interest anyway!

In this survey, you will be asked to answer questions on five different topics:

(1) you and your thinking patterns

(2) your feelings about shopping

(3) your thinking about shopping

(4) your online and offline current behaviour

(5) your online and offline future behaviour

Let's start with some general information about your shopping habits and values that guide them.

2. Shopping habits:

Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Before buying an item, I seriously consider whether this item is necessary to me or not.							
Even if I have the money, I try to keep my consumption level at a minimum.							
By voluntary reducing my level of consumption, I can avoid stress.							
The less I buy, the better I feel.							
By living a less materialistic lifestyle, I reduce my level of stress.							
I should buy local products.							
I should buy local products, don't let others get rich off us.							
I shouldn't buy foreign, it hurts business.							

3. Values that guide your shopping habits:

Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying foreign puts workers out of work.							
Some of my friends think that I am hot-headed.							
When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want.							
I rarely find myself agreeing with other people.							
When people annoy me, I tell them what I think.							
When frustrated, I let my irritation show.							
Given enough provocation, I may hit another person.							
Expressing my negative feelings/views in public makes me feel more social power over other people.							
Expressing my negative feelings/views in public makes me feel that I have authority over other people.							
Expressing my negative feelings/views in public makes me feel more influential over others.							
Expressing my negative feelings/views in public makes me feel that I have charisma over other people.							
When I express my negative feelings/views in public, I feel that I have achieved success in my life.							
When I express my negative feelings/views in public, I feel that I achieved a good social position.							
Expressing my negative feelings/views in public helps to preserve my public image.							
Expressing my negative feelings/views in public indicates a symbol of wealth.							

CMV: Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I choose food that is nutritious.							
I choose food that keeps me healthy.							
I avoid sugary drinks.							
I choose food that contains a lot of vitamins & minerals.							
I choose food that contains natural ingredients.							
I choose food that contains no additives.							
I try to have a balanced diet.							
I choose food that contains no artificial ingredients.							
I choose whole grains products.							
I limit my salt usage.							

4. Please tell us a brand you have interacted negatively online (For example, writing or posting negative comments about the brand online). You will be asked many questions in relation to the brand you are selecting. _____

5. Please indicate where you interacted negatively with the brand online: _____

6. How long ago did you interact negatively with the brand online?

Less than a week ago	Between 1 and 4 weeks ago	Between 1 and 3 months ago	Between 3 and 6 months ago	More than 6 months ago

7. How many times have you interacted negatively with the brand online?

Only once	2-5 times	6-10 times	More than 10 times

8. Have you ever bought any product or service of this brand?

Yes	No

9. Have you ever used any product or service of this brand?

Yes	No

10. Have you ever owned any product or service of this brand?

Yes	No

11. Have you interacted negatively online with other brands?

Yes	No

Keep this brand in mind and consider your online interaction, thoughts and feelings about this chosen brand – that will all be described with the word "engagement".

12. Please indicate your feelings after interacting with the brand negatively (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My negative online engagement with this brand is very pleasing.							
I think I did the right thing when I decided to negatively engage with this brand online.							
Overall, I feel fulfilled with my negative online engagement with this firm.							
My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall happiness at the time of interaction.							
My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall life's happiness.							
My negative online engagement with this brand increased my overall life satisfaction.							

The following questions are about your feelings towards the brand.

Display Q13 when the answer of Q8 or Q9 is 'Yes'.

13. Keeping in mind the brand you reported you interacted negatively with online, rate your extent of agreement for the following statements (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At some point in the past, I felt that this is one of the best brands I could have bought/used.							
At some point in the past, I felt that I am satisfied with my decision to buy/use this brand.							
At some point in the past, I felt that my choice to buy/use this brand was a wise one.							
If I could do it again, I'd buy/use the same brand.							
I felt good about my decision to buy/use this brand.							
I was happy that I bought/used this brand.							
I was sure it was the right thing to buy/use this brand.							

13 (1). Keeping in mind the brand you reported you interacted negatively with online, rate your extent of agreement for the following statements (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand arouses intense negative emotions.							
I always feel critical about this brand.							
I cannot tolerate this brand.							
I feel uncomfortable when I think about this brand.							
I can use many negative words to describe my feelings towards the brand.							
I detest this brand.							
I experience my negative emotions about this brand very strongly.							
My negative feelings about this brand could show on my face.							
People can tell my negative feelings about the brand from my face, body or voice.							
I cannot hide my negative feelings about this brand.							
This brand can make me upset.							
People can read my negative feelings about this brand.							
I could react aggressively (i.e. throw things, shout or scream) to express my negative feelings about this brand.							
The brand's failures are my successes.							
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal insult.							
When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.							

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Please do not answer this question if you are reading this.							

The following questions are about your perceptions of the chosen brand. Please remember there is no such thing as a right or wrong answer as we are looking for your perspective.

14. Please rate the extent to which the following statements describe the brand you chose above (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand is exceptional							
This brand has excellent features							
Compared to other brands in its category, this brand is superior.							
This brand clearly differentiates itself from other brands							
This brand clearly distinguishes itself from other brands							
Compared to other brands this brand is distinct							
Most people who use this kind of service have heard of this brand							
Most people who use this kind of service are quite familiar with this brand							
Most people who use this kind of service can recognize this brand among other brands							
I am knowledgeable about the activities of this brand							
I am able to describe this brand to others							
I have a good understanding of what the brand stands for							
I am informed about this brand							
I have a good understanding of what this brand has done in the past							
I have a good understanding of what this brand is currently doing							
I understand the purpose of this brand							
I have never heard of this brand							
The brand has a clear image							
The brand has an image that is easy to understand							
I can clearly describe what the brand stands for							
In the past, today, and in the future, the values behind this brand will not change							
This brand has a long-lasting nature							
Over time, what this brand stands for has not changed							
In the past, and today this brand has the same characteristics							
The values of this brand have endured time							
Over time, the nature of this brand is unwavering							
Over time, this brand and its values are steadfast							
The characteristics of this brand have remained the same over time							

15. Please indicate on a scale from 1 (completely agree with the option on the left) to 7 (completely agree with the option on the right) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To me, this is a global brand.								To me, this is a local brand.
I do think consumers overseas buy this brand.								I do not think consumers overseas buy this brand.
This brand is sold all over the world.								This brand is sold only in the local market.

16. Then, you will be asked about how you think about the brand. Please rate your extent of agreement for the following statements (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My mind is attracted by anything critical about the brand.							
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to notice it.							
I become aware of anything negative about the brand.							
I tend to observe anything negative about the brand.							
I deliberate for a long time about bad information involving this brand.							
There are 75 minutes in one hour.							
I deliberate deeply about bad information involving this brand.							
When I hear the brand name, I start to think negatively.							
I am immersed in anything negative about this brand.							
I consider the negative issues related to the brand.							

17. The following questions are about your perceptions on brand behaviours. Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unethical.							
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unjust.							
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be morally wrong.							
This brand makes mistakes and it could create many problems for me.							
The brand mistake could cause me serious inconvenience.							
The brand mistake can be the source of my major irritation.							

You're doing great! You are halfway through the survey!

We are now moving on to the next portion of the survey, where you will be asked about your intended online and offline behaviours.

18. On average, how many hours per day do you spend online?

0-1	2-3	4-5	6-7	8+

19. Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The online environment seemed to me "somewhere I visited" rather than "something I saw".							
I felt I was more in the "online world" than the "real world" around me when I am on the internet.							
I forgot about my immediate surroundings when I am on the internet.							
When I am excited about the online information, I felt like I came back to the "real world" after a journey.							
I have never heard of Facebook							

20. The following questions are about your intended **online behaviours** towards the brand you indicated you have interacted negatively online. Rate your extent of agreement for the following statements (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand.							
There are 10 days in a calendar week.							
If I have the opportunity, I express publicly online my negative feelings about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express publicly online my negative thoughts about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share publicly online negative comments I noticed about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand. (e.g. join anti-brand communities, sign online petition, "like" posts against the brand).							
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings about the brand with the firm privately.							
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts about the brand with the firm privately.							
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed about the brand with the firm privately.							
If I have the opportunity, I send online my negative views about the brand to the firm in a private message.							
If I have the opportunity, I act negatively towards the brand alone (e.g. view, read, search, learn, watch videos, follow posts against the brand).							
I can ask the brand online to provide any information I need.							
I can ask the brand online a lot of questions about this brand.							
I can give my opinion to the brand about its products or services.							

21. The following questions are about your intended **offline behaviours** towards the brand you indicated you have interacted negatively online. Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand to help or improve the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to hurt or damage the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand.							
Everyone in the world has purple hair.							
If I have the opportunity, I express publicly offline my negative feelings about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I express publicly offline my negative thoughts about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share publicly offline negative comments I noticed about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views about the brand.							
If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand. (e.g. join offline anti-brand communities, sign offline petition).							
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings about the brand with the firm privately.							
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts about the brand with the firm privately.							
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed about the brand with the firm privately.							
If I have the opportunity, I send offline my negative views about the brand to the firm in a private mail.							
If I have the opportunity, I act negatively towards the brand alone (e.g. view, read, search, learn, watch videos).							

The following questions are about your future behaviours toward this brand and other related brands.

22. Keeping the same brand and the specific memorable interactions with the brand you indicated you have interacted negatively online in mind. Please rate your extent of agreement for the following statements (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will never (re-)purchase the product from this brand.							
I will never purchase other products from this brand.							
I will never recommend this brand to other consumers.							
The likelihood that I will (re-)purchase this brand is very low.							
The probability that I will consider (re-)buying this brand is very low.							
My willingness to (re-)buy this brand is very low.							
There are 700 days in a year.							
My general intention to be a member of a group of people that oppose this brand is high.							
I think about being a member of a group of people who oppose this brand.							
I will join a group of people that oppose this brand in the future.							
I probably will be associated with a group of people that oppose this brand.							
I intend to be a member of a group that is against the brand.							
If I have opportunity, I would like to participate in the activities of the group that is against the brand.							
I intend to communicate with others from the group of people who against the brand.							

23. Thinking of other brands in the same product category and answer the following questions (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is another brand in this product category that I always buy.							
There is another brand in this product category that I am willing to buy products from other categories if available.							
There is another brand in this product category that I recommend to other consumers.							
There is another brand that I will never betray.							
There is another brand that I am proud to buy.							
There is another brand that I feel attached to.							
There is another brand that is my favourite.							
There is another brand that I feel confident buying.							
There is another brand that I believe is fairer.							
I would feel upset if I had to buy a brand other than the other one that is my favourite one.							

You're doing great! Keeping the same brand in mind, the following questions are about the online anti-brand groups/pages.

24. Are you a member of an online group/page that against the brand (i.e. anti-brand group)?

Yes	No

If "no" is selected ——▶ the end of the block

25. For approximately how long have you been a member of this group?

Less than a year	1-5 years	5-10 years	above 10 years

26. How often do you actively visit the anti-brand group?

Multiple times a day	Once a day	A few times a week	A few times a month	Less than once a month	Not at all

27. How often do you check information or news from this anti-brand group?

Multiple times a day	Once a day	A few times a week	A few times a month	Less than once a month	Not at all

28. On average, how much time do you spend on information and activities related to this anti-brand group/page per week?

Less than 1 hour	1-3 hours	4-6 hours	7-9 hours	10-12 hours	Over 13 hours

29. Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am very attached to the other people who oppose this brand in the anti-brand group.							
Other people who oppose this brand in the anti-brand group and I share the same objectives.							
The friendships I have with other people who dislike the brand in the anti-brand group mean a lot to me.							
I see myself as part of this group of people that do not support this brand.							
If this group of people planned something, I'd think of it as something "we" would do rather than something "they" would do.							

Demographics

30. What is your gender?

Male	Female	Others (please specify)	Prefer not to say

31. What is your dominant nationality? [dropdown with all countries]

32. What is your country of residence? [dropdown with all countries]

33. What is the highest qualification you have obtained?

High school
Technical/vocational training
Professional qualification/diploma
Undergraduate degree
Postgraduate degree
Other (please specify)

34. What is your employment status?

Student
Self-employed
Working full-time
Working part-time
Out of work but looking for a job
Out of work and not looking for a job
Retired
Other (please specify)

If 'Student', 'Out of work' or 'Retired' is selected, skip to the end of the block

35. Please indicate your job title: _____

36. Would you like to be entered into a draw for £20 voucher?

Yes	No

If 'No' is selected, skip to the end of the survey

37. Please enter your first name: ____

38. Please enter your email: ____

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.

Appendix 10. Normality assessment

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Anti-consumption in general 1	5.43	1.574	-1.411	1.383
Anti-consumption in general 2	4.57	1.731	-0.362	-1.105
Anti-consumption in general 3	4.52	1.677	-0.454	-0.951
Anti-consumption in general 4	3.64	1.604	0.254	-0.996
Anti-consumption in general 5	4.32	1.590	-0.220	-0.986
Consumer brand disidentification 1	2.87	1.655	0.705	-0.421
Consumer brand disidentification 2	2.99	1.633	0.651	-0.445
Consumer brand disidentification 3	3.18	1.648	0.478	-0.719
Perceived brand quality 1	3.52	1.725	0.078	-1.094
Perceived brand quality 2	3.65	1.747	-0.089	-1.257
Perceived brand quality 3	3.51	1.713	0.045	-1.166
Unacceptable brand behaviour 1	4.19	1.974	-0.123	-1.237
Unacceptable brand behaviour 2	4.34	1.915	-0.222	-1.173
Unacceptable brand behaviour 3	4.29	1.924	-0.179	-1.166
Brand failure severity 1	4.00	1.784	0.011	-1.061
Brand failure severity 2	4.04	1.780	-0.087	-0.987
Brand failure severity 3	4.00	1.757	-0.086	-0.963
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 1	3.82	1.565	-0.016	-0.670
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 2	4.23	1.655	-0.291	-0.811
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 3	4.23	1.617	-0.271	-0.737
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 4	4.34	1.633	-0.308	-0.684
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 5	4.55	1.597	-0.569	-0.479
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 6	4.62	1.583	-0.519	-0.470
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty 7	3.91	1.582	-0.140	-0.857
Happiness 1	3.82	1.543	-0.004	-0.774
Happiness 2	3.31	1.551	0.276	-0.822
Happiness 3	3.32	1.587	0.258	-0.857
Offline constructive behaviour 1	3.84	1.737	-0.069	-1.119
Offline constructive behaviour 2	3.84	1.679	-0.069	-1.026
Offline constructive behaviour 3	3.83	1.668	-0.100	-0.994
Offline constructive behaviour 4	3.86	1.666	-0.088	-0.969
Offline constructive behaviour 5	3.63	1.634	0.003	-1.043
Offline destructive behaviour 1	3.41	1.749	0.315	-1.028
Offline destructive behaviour 2	3.32	1.699	0.378	-0.940
Offline destructive behaviour 3	3.34	1.686	0.339	-0.967
Offline destructive behaviour 4	3.27	1.698	0.424	-0.856
Offline destructive behaviour 5	3.12	1.650	0.505	-0.751
Brand disloyalty 1	4.60	1.919	-0.361	-1.123
Brand disloyalty 2	4.50	1.914	-0.246	-1.181
Brand disloyalty 3	4.71	1.910	-0.430	-1.042
Brand disloyalty 4	4.81	1.880	-0.525	-0.957
Brand disloyalty 5	4.88	1.890	-0.607	-0.855
Intention to participate in anti-brand community 1	3.50	1.766	0.272	-0.951
Intention to participate in anti-brand community 2	3.40	1.780	0.287	-1.028
Intention to participate in anti-brand community 3	3.44	1.735	0.221	-1.018
Intention to participate in anti-brand community 4	3.59	1.781	0.157	-1.035
Diversity of negative feelings 1	4.16	1.754	-0.016	-1.090

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Diversity of negative feelings 2	4.26	1.775	-0.129	-1.136
Diversity of negative feelings 3	3.88	1.813	0.106	-1.082
Diversity of negative feelings 4	3.88	1.828	0.068	-1.120
Diversity of negative feelings 5	4.18	1.802	-0.111	-1.112
Diversity of negative feelings 6	3.99	1.809	0.029	-1.077
Negative emotion demonstration 1	3.93	1.789	0.050	-1.077
Negative emotion demonstration 2	3.79	1.765	0.120	-1.123
Negative emotion demonstration 3	3.85	1.780	0.017	-1.132
Negative emotion demonstration 4	3.84	1.770	0.086	-1.101
Negative emotion demonstration 5	3.87	1.768	0.017	-1.155
Negative emotion demonstration 6	3.92	1.769	-0.034	-1.131
Negative emotion demonstration 7	2.77	1.631	0.858	-0.103
Attention 1	3.71	1.634	0.101	-0.949
Attention 2	4.04	1.648	-0.241	-0.939
Attention 3	4.14	1.627	-0.285	-0.932
Attention 4	4.01	1.661	-0.149	-0.991
Thinking 1	3.72	1.624	-0.011	-0.941
Thinking 2	3.61	1.651	0.110	-0.981
Thinking 3	3.98	1.748	-0.117	-1.065
Thinking 4	3.35	1.595	0.401	-0.679
Thinking 5	4.05	1.682	-0.257	-0.985
Online constructive behaviour 1	4.12	1.710	-0.202	-1.056
Online constructive behaviour 2	4.10	1.678	-0.229	-1.027
Online constructive behaviour 3	4.06	1.656	-0.219	-0.993
Online constructive behaviour 4	4.04	1.658	-0.212	-1.023
Online constructive behaviour 5	3.67	1.731	0.054	-1.135
Online destructive behaviour 1	3.17	1.650	0.583	-0.667
Online destructive behaviour 2	3.13	1.636	0.573	-0.680
Online destructive behaviour 3	3.19	1.704	0.554	-0.767
Online destructive behaviour 4	3.18	1.708	0.567	-0.737
Online destructive behaviour 5	3.14	1.695	0.620	-0.636

Appendix 11. Expert survey

Introduction

My supervisors Prof. Cleopatra Veloutsou and Prof. Anna Morgan-Thomas have suggested that I contact you for help in the expert review of the new measurement scale.
Adam Smith Business School at the University of Glasgow are involved in research on the negative brand engagement in the online context. We are targeting high profile academics who are experts in the field to assist in the development of the research instrument. Since you are very knowledgeable in branding, I am hoping that you could be willing to scrutinize the instrument.

If you choose to participate, you will be invited to answer a few questions about the completeness and clarity of the variables and of the items that intend to measure them. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. For more details on the survey please click on the Participant Information Sheet below.

Your feedback will inform the scale development process and measure constructs and will be used for academic purposes only. Your inputs and responses will be of great value in developing appropriate scales to measure negative brand engagement in the online context. I hope you will be willing to assist us.

Participant information sheet
Read the Participant Information Sheet

Do you consent to participate in this survey?

Yes	No

You have been approached because we are developing a research instrument and need your expert advice concerning:

(1) definition of negative brand engagement in the online context

(2) definitions of dimensions and sub-dimensions of negative brand engagement in the

online context

(3) measurement items for negative brand engagement in the online context

Items mentioned in this survey have been developed through a combination of literature review, online observation and interviews. We will now begin with definitions related to the conceptualisation of negative brand engagement in the online context.

1. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of negative online brand engagement is.

Negative online brand engagement is defined as brand-related and negatively valenced cognition, affection and online consumer behaviour.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the definition of negative brand engagement in the online context: ___

Brand engagement is expected to have three dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioural. First, let's look at the cognitive dimension of negative brand engagement in the online context.

2. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the cognitive dimension of online negative brand engagement is.

Cognitive dimension is defined as an evaluation of a consumer's brand-related and negatively valenced attention and thinking.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the cognitive dimension definition: ___

3. On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement as to whether each of the following sub-dimensions reflects cognitive dimension, defined as an evaluation of a consumer's brand-related and negatively valenced attention and thinking.

	1	2	3	4	5
Attention: the extent that a consumer notices negativity about the brand in the online or offline environment. (extent: the amount of time and volume of information; notice: observe and retain the information)					
Thinking: the depth of a consumer's unfavourable brand-related consideration. (consideration: concentrate on and process the information)					

Comments on the appropriateness of the attention and thinking sub-dimensions: ___

4. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the attention is.

Attention is defined as the extent that a consumer notices negativity about the brand in the online or offline environment. (extent: the amount of time and volume of information; notice: observe and retain the information)

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

5. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the thinking is.

Thinking is defined as the depth of a consumer's unfavourable brand-related consideration. (consideration: concentrate on and process the information)

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the definitions of the attention and thinking: ___

6. **Attention** is defined as the extent that a consumer notices negativity about the brand in the online or offline environment. (extent: the amount of time and volume of information; notice: observe and retain the information)

On a scale from 1(Low) to 5(High) please indicate the clarity of each item and to which extent it reflects the definition of the construct.

	Level of Clarity					Level of reflection of the definition				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I want to get all the bad news about this brand.										
I want to get a lot of bad news about this brand.										
I spend a lot of time looking for negative information involving this brand.										
Time flies when I am looking for negative information involving this brand.										
My mind is attracted by anything critical about the brand.										
I am really drawn to anything critical about this brand.										
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to notice it.										
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to keep it.										
I become aware of anything negative about the brand.										
I tend to observe anything negative about the brand.										

Comments on the clarity and reflections of the items, or suggested items we might be missing for the attention sub-dimension: ___

7. **Thinking** is defined as the depth of a consumer's unfavourable brand-related consideration. (consideration: concentrate on and process the information)

On a scale from 1(Low) to 5(High) please indicate the clarity of each item and to which extent it reflects the definition of the construct.

	Level of Clarity					Level of reflection of the definition				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
I deliberate for a long time about bad information involving this brand.										
I deliberate deeply about bad information involving this brand.										
When I hear the brand name, I start to think negatively.										
I think negatively about the brand a lot.										
The information makes my thoughts about the brand more negative.										
When I am negatively preoccupied with the brand, I forget everything else around me.										
When I am negatively preoccupied with the brand, I get carried away.										
When I am negatively preoccupied with the brand, it is difficult to detach myself.										
I block out things around me when I am negatively preoccupied with the brand.										
I lose myself in the unfavourable information about the brand.										
When I find anything negative about the brand, my mind is occupied.										
Anything negative about the brand takes my mind off other things.										
Nothing can distract me when I reflect on anything negative about this brand.										
I am usually absorbed when I am critically considering the brand.										
I negatively focus a lot on this brand.										
I am immersed in anything negative about this brand.										
I consider the negative issues related to the brand.										

Comments on the clarity and reflections of the items, or suggested items we might be missing for the thinking sub-dimension: ___

We are now moving on to the affective dimension of negative brand engagement in the online context.

8. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the affective dimension of online negative brand engagement is.

Affective dimension is defined as the degree of a consumer's negative feelings toward the brand.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the affective dimension definition: ___

9. On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement as to whether each of the following sub-dimensions reflects affective dimension, defined as the degree of consumer's negative feelings to the brand.

	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity of negative feelings: the different types of the consumer's negative feelings toward the brand.					
Negative emotion demonstration: the extent to which consumers display their negative emotions.					

Comments on the appropriateness of the variety/diversity of negative feelings and negative emotion demonstration sub-dimensions: ___

10. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the variety/diversity of negative feelings is.

Diversity of negative feelings is defined as the different types of the consumer's negative feelings toward the brand.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

11. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the negative emotion demonstration is.

Negative emotion demonstration is defined as the extent to which consumers display their negative emotions.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the definitions of the variety/diversity of negative feelings and negative emotion demonstration: ___

12. **Diversity of negative feelings** is defined as the different types of the consumer's negative feelings toward the brand.

On a scale from 1 (Low) to 5 (High) please indicate the clarity of each item and to which extent it reflects the definition of the construct.

	Level of Clarity					Level of reflection of the definition				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
This brand makes me feel bad in many ways.										
My overall perception of the brand is negative.										
This brand arouses intense negative emotions.										
I always feel critical about this brand.										
This brand sucks.										
This brand makes me feel bad.										
When I encounter this brand, I feel hostile.										
I cannot tolerate this brand.										
I feel uncomfortable when I think about this brand.										
I can use many negative words to describe my feelings towards the brand.										
This brand messes me up.										
This brand screws me up.										
I detest this brand.										

Comments on the clarity and reflections of the items, or suggested items we might be missing for the variety/diversity of negative feelings sub-dimension: ___

13. **Negative emotion demonstration** is defined as the extent to which consumers display their negative emotions.

On a scale from 1 (Low) to 5 (High) please indicate the clarity of each item and to which extent it reflects the definition of the construct.

	Level of Clarity					Level of reflection of the definition				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
My negative brand feelings burn my chest.										
My negative emotions about this brand can make my body react (e.g. blood pressure, heartbeat).										
I experience my negative emotions about this brand very strongly.										
My negative feelings about this brand could show on my face.										
People can tell my negative feelings about the brand from my face, body or voice.										
My negative emotions about the brand can make me cry.										
I cannot hide my negative feelings about this brand.										
This brand can make me upset.										
People can read my negative feelings about this brand.										
I could react aggressively (i.e. throw things, shout or scream) to express my negative feelings about this brand.										
I have a tough time controlling my negative feelings about this brand.										

Comments on the clarity and reflections of the items, or suggested items we might be missing for the negative emotion demonstration sub-dimension: ___

We are now moving on to the behavioural dimension of negative brand engagement in the online context.

14. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the behavioural dimension of online negative brand engagement is.

Behavioural dimension is defined as brand-related and negatively valenced actions in the online environment. Examples of such online actions could be boycotting, blogging, sharing comments, complaining, discussion, or viewing, reading and searching negative brand-related information.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the behavioural dimension definition: ___

The **behavioural dimension** can be conceptualised through its deviation into **constructive** and **destructive** behaviours. We are now moving on to the definitions of constructive and destructive behaviours, their measurement items.

15. On a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement as to whether each of the following sub-dimensions reflects behavioural dimension.

	1	2	3	4	5
Constructive behaviour: the consumer's online actions aiming to help or improve the brand considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand.					
Destructive behaviour: the consumer's online actions aiming to hurt or damage the brand considering one's own concerns.					

Comments on the appropriateness of the constructive and destructive sub-dimensions: ___

16. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the constructive behaviour is.

Constructive behaviour is defined as the consumer's online actions aiming to help or improve the brand considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

17. On a scale from 1-5 indicate how clear, comprehensive and capturing the essence of the construct the following definition of the destructive behaviour is.

Destructive behaviour is defined as the consumer's online actions aiming to hurt or damage the brand considering one's own concerns.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Not at all Clear						Very Clear
Not at all Comprehensive						Very Comprehensive
Not at all capturing the Essence of the construct						Very much capturing the Essence of the construct

Comments on the definitions of constructive and destructive behaviour: ___

18. **Constructive behaviour** is defined as the consumer's online actions aiming to help or improve the brand considering one's own concerns as well as those of the brand.

Help/improve the brand: for example, activities that aim to improve performance, effectiveness, quality, new products, improve reputation or any other actions that can support the brand.

On a scale from 1(Low) to 5 (High) please indicate the clarity of each item and to which extent it reflects the definition of the construct.

	Level of Clarity					Level of reflection of the definition				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to help or improve the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments to help or improve the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to help or improve the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand to help or improve the brand										

Comments on the clarity and reflections of the items, or suggested items we might be missing for the **constructive behaviour** sub-dimension: ___

19. **Destructive behaviour** is defined as the consumer's online actions aiming to hurt or damage the brand considering one's own concerns. Hurt/damage the brand: for example, activities that aim to attack, punish, sabotage, discredit, cause inconvenience to the brand or any other actions that can destroy the brand.

On a scale from 1(Low) to 5(High) please indicate the clarity of each item and to which extent it reflects the definition of the construct.

	Level of Clarity					Level of reflection of the definition				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to hurt or damage the brand										
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand										

Comments on the clarity and reflections of the items, or suggested items we might be missing for the **destructive behaviour** sub-dimension: ___

20. Do you want to be informed about publications or presentations related to this project?

Yes	No

21. Do you want to be acknowledged in the PhD dissertation as an expert contributing to the scale development process by your name?

Yes	No

22. Please provide your name below: ___

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.

Appendix 12. Item purification of the negative online brand engagement dimensions (experts)

Item	Source	Mean/Std. Deviation		Retained
		reflection	clarity	
Cognitive dimension (Attention)				
My mind is attracted by anything critical about the brand. (A1)	Kosiba et al., 2018	4.11/1.023	4.17/1.098	√
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to notice it. (A2)	Leckie et al., 2018	4.06/0.802	4.06/0.998	√
I become aware of anything negative about the brand. (A3)	Interview; online observation	4.06/0.802	4.28/0.826	√
I tend to observe anything negative about the brand. (A4)	Interview; online observation	4.28/0.826	4.33/0.840	√
I want to get all the bad news about this brand.	Naumann, 2020	3.44/1.338	3.83/1.249	x
I want to get a lot of bad news about this brand.	Hollebeek et al., 2014	3.22/1.555	3.72/1.487	x
I spend a lot of time looking for negative information involving this brand.	Dessart et al., 2016a	3.67/1.283	4.33/1.085	x
Time flies when I am looking for negative information involving this brand.	Dessart et al., 2016a; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019; Chung et al., 2018	3.06/1.392	3.67/1.455	x
I am really drawn to anything critical about this brand.	Chung et al., 2018	3.44/1.423	3.61/1.335	x
If there is anything damning about the brand, I tend to keep it.	Leckie et al., 2018; interview	3.22/1.263	3.28/1.526	x
Cognitive dimension (Thinking)		reflection	clarity	
I deliberate for a long time about bad information involving this brand. (T1)	Naumann, 2020	4.00/1.085	4.06/1.056	√
I deliberate deeply about bad information involving this brand. (T2)	Naumann, 2020	3.89/0.963	4.06/0.998	√
When I hear the brand name, I start to think negatively. (T3)	Hollebeek et al., 2014; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020	4.11/1.079	4.22/1.215	√
I am immersed in anything negative about this brand. (T4)	So et al., 2016	3.78/1.166	3.78/1.060	√
I consider the negative issues related to the brand. (T5)	Interview; online observation	4.00/1.138	4.06/1.162	√
I think negatively about the brand a lot.	Glavee-Geo et al., 2020	3.47/1.179	3.06/1.519	x
The information makes my thoughts about the brand more negative.	Glavee-Geo et al., 2020	2.83/1.339	3.17/1.543	x
When I am negatively preoccupied with the brand, I forget everything else around me.	Dessart et al., 2016a	3.44/1.381	3.83/1.150	x
When I am negatively preoccupied with the brand, I get carried away.	Dessart et al., 2016a	3.22/1.263	3.44/1.294	x
When I am negatively preoccupied with the brand, it is difficult to detach myself.	Dessart et al., 2016a	3.22/1.263	3.50/1.249	x
I block out things around me when I am negatively preoccupied with the brand.	Chung et al., 2018	3.44/1.199	3.67/0.970	x
I lose myself in the unfavourable information about the brand.	Chung et al., 2018	3.28/1.364	3.50/1.249	x
When I find anything negative about the brand, my mind is occupied.	Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019	3.39/1.378	3.44/1.381	x
Anything negative about the brand takes my mind off other things.	Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019	3.71/1.312	3.83/1.295	x

Item	Source	Mean/Std. Deviation		Retained
Nothing can distract me when I reflect on anything negative about this brand.	Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019	3.28/1.074	3.33/1.138	x
I am usually absorbed when I am critically considering the brand.	Dwivedi, 2015; Kosiba et al., 2018; Chung et al., 2018	3.56/1.413	3.59/1.417	x
I negatively focus a lot on this brand.	So et al., 2016	3.61/0.979	3.56/1.097	x
Affective dimension (Diversity of negative feelings)		reflection	clarity	
This brand arouses intense negative emotions. (DNF1)	Interview; online observation	4.35/0.786	4.33/0.840	√
I always feel critical about this brand. (DNF2)	Hollebeek et al., 2014; Dessart et al., 2016a; So et al., 2016; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020	3.83/1.150	4.06/1.211	√
I cannot tolerate this brand. (DNF3)	Hegner et al., 2017; Banerjee and Goel, 2020	3.89/1.023	4.17/1.043	√
I feel uncomfortable when I think about this brand. (DNF4)	Zhang and Laroche, 2020	4.00/1.085	4.11/1.183	√
I can use many negative words to describe my feelings towards the brand. (DNF5)	Weitzl, 2019	4.22/1.003	4.39/0.698	√
I detest this brand. (DNF6)	online observation	3.89/1.183	4.17/1.249	√
This brand makes me feel bad in many ways.	Interview; online observation	3.72/1.406	3.72/1.565	x
My overall perception of the brand is negative.	So et al., 2016; interview	3.44/1.580	4.28/1.274	x
This brand sucks.	interview; Dessart et al., 2016a	3.18/1.667	3.59/1.698	x
This brand makes me feel bad.	Hollebeek et al., 2014; Glavee-Geo et al., 2020; Dessart et al., 2016a	3.44/1.464	3.50/1.543	x
When I encounter this brand, I feel hostile.	Vivek et al., 2014; Mirbagheri and Najmi, 2019	3.72/1.227	3.72/1.274	x
This brand messes me up.	Zhang and Laroche, 2020	2.94/1.211	3.00/1.414	x
This brand screws me up.	Penza-Clyve and Zeman, 2002	2.88/1.317	2.71/1.448	x
Affective dimension (Negative emotion demonstration)		reflection	clarity	
I experience my negative emotions about this brand very strongly. (NED1)	Gross and John, 1995; Sarkar et al. 2020	4.17/1.150	4.06/1.162	√
My negative feelings about this brand could show on my face. (NED2)	Gross and John, 1995	4.11/1.183	4.22/1.114	√
People can tell my negative feelings about the brand from my face, body or voice. (NED3)	Bedwell et al., 2019	4.17/1.098	4.39/0.979	√
I cannot hide my negative feelings about this brand. (NED4)	Gross and John, 1995; Kring et al., 1994	4.44/0.705	4.61/0.608	√
This brand can make me upset. (NED5)	Zhang and Laroche, 2020; Penza-Clyve and Zeman, 2002	4.11/1.132	4.44/0.856	√
People can read my negative feelings about this brand. (NED6)	Vallerand et al., 2003	4.11/0.900	4.28/0.826	√
I could react aggressively (i.e. throw things, shout or scream) to express my negative feelings about this brand. (NED7)	Interview; online observation	3.76/1.348	4.28/1.018	√

Item	Source	Mean/Std. Deviation		Retained
My negative brand feelings burn my chest.	Dessart et al., 2016a	3.44/1.381	3.56/1.247	x
My negative emotions about this brand can make my body react (e.g. blood pressure, heartbeat).	Gross and John, 1995	3.39/1.243	3.94/1.110	x
My negative emotions about the brand can make me cry.	Gross and John, 1995	3.72/1.274	4.22/0.943	x
I have a tough time controlling my negative feelings about this brand.	Vallerand et al., 2003	3.56/1.294	3.89/1.231	x
Behavioural dimension (Constructive behaviour)		reflection	clarity	
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to help or improve the brand. (CB1)	Weitzl, 2019; interview	4.00/1.138	4.33/0.840	√
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (CB2)	Kim and Lim, 2020; interview	4.06/1.162	4.33/0.840	√
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments to help or improve the brand. (CB3)	Kumar and Pansari, 2016; Roy et al., 2018; Hur et al., 2011; interview	4.17/1.150	4.50/0.786	√
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to help or improve the brand. (CB4)	Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2019; interview	4.17/1.150	4.44/0.784	√
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand to help or improve the brand. (CB5)	Romani et al., 2013; interview	3.94/1.162	3.72/1.406	√
Behavioural dimension (Destructive behaviour)		reflection	clarity	
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (DB1)	Weitzl, 2019; interview	4.50/0.514	4.44/0.616	√
If I have the opportunity, I express online my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (DB2)	Weitzl, 2019; interview	4.50/0.514	4.44/0.616	√
If I have the opportunity, I share online negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (DB3)	Romani et al., 2013; interview	4.56/0.511	4.69/0.479	√
If I have the opportunity, I post online negative views to hurt or damage the brand. (DB4)	Romani et al., 2013; interview	4.53/0.514	4.50/0.786	√
If I have the opportunity, I take part in online movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand. (DB5)	Grégoire et al., 2009; Romani et al., 2013; interview	4.39/0.698	4.28/0.895	√

Appendix 13. EFA measurement model-Final Pattern Matrix

Measured items	Factor											
Intention to participate in anti-brand communities (Cronbach's α = 0.971)												
I probably will be associated with a group of people that oppose this brand. (IP4)	0.990											
I intend to be a member of a group that is against the brand. (IP1)	0.963											
If I have opportunity, I would like to participate in the activities of the group that is against the brand. (IP2)	0.939											
I intend to communicate with others from the group of people who are against the brand. (IP3)	0.856											
Brand disloyalty (Cronbach's α = 0.975)												
The likelihood that I will (re-)purchase this brand is very low. (BDI4)		1.012										
My willingness to (re-)buy this brand is very low. (BDI5)		0.967										
I will never (re-)purchase the product from this brand. (BDI1)		0.902										
I will never purchase other products from this brand. (BDI2)		0.817										
I will never recommend this brand to other consumers. (BDI3)		0.789										
Oppositional attitudinal loyalty (Cronbach's α = 0.938)												
There is another brand that is my favourite. (OAL4)			0.926									
There is another brand that I feel confident buying. (OAL5)			0.909									
There is another brand that I am proud to buy. (OAL2)			0.893									
There is another brand that I feel attached to. (OAL3)			0.889									
There is another brand that I believe is fairer. (OAL6)			0.789									
There is another brand that I will never betray. (OAL1)			0.765									
I would feel upset if I had to buy a brand other than the other one that is my favourite one. (OAL7)			0.577									
Offline destructive behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.948)												
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB2)				0.956								
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments I noticed to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB3)				0.927								
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative feelings to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB1)				0.844								
If I have the opportunity, I take part in offline movements against the brand aiming to hurt or damage the brand. (ODB5)				0.816								

Measured items	Factor					
Happiness (Cronbach's α = 0.848)						
My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall happiness at the time of interaction. (H1)	0.840					
My negative online engagement with this brand contributed to my overall life's happiness. (H2)	0.822					
My negative online engagement with this brand increased my overall life satisfaction. (H3)	0.699					
Offline constructive behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.953)						
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative comments to help or improve the brand. (OCB3)		0.979				
If I have the opportunity, I express offline my negative thoughts to help or improve the brand. (OCB2)		0.930				
If I have the opportunity, I share offline negative views to help or improve the brand. (OCB4)		0.881				
Anti-consumption in general (Cronbach's α = 0.796)						
By voluntary reducing my level of consumption, I can avoid stress. (ACG3)			0.784			
Even if I have the money, I try to keep my consumption level at a minimum. (ACG2)			0.715			
The less I buy, the better I feel. (ACG4)			0.678			
By living a less materialistic lifestyle, I reduce my level of stress. (ACG5)			0.630			
Brand failure severity (Cronbach's α = 0.893)						
The brand mistake could cause me serious inconvenience. (BFS2)				1.010		
This brand makes mistakes, and it could create many problems for me. (BFS1)				0.779		
The brand mistake can be the source of my major irritation. (BFS3)				0.729		
Unacceptable brand behaviour (Cronbach's α = 0.943)						
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unjust. (UB2)					0.910	
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be unethical. (UB1)					0.895	
I consider the behaviour of the brand to be morally wrong. (UB3)					0.891	
Perceived brand quality (Cronbach's α = 0.887)						
Compared to other brands in its category, this brand is superior. (PBQ3)						0.879
This brand is exceptional. (PBQ1)						0.836
This brand has excellent features. (PBQ2)						0.799

Measured items	Factor
Consumer brand disidentification (Cronbach's α = 0.889)	
When someone criticizes this brand, it feels like a personal compliment. (CBD3)	0.906
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal insult. (CBD2)	0.883
The brand's failures are my successes. (CBD1)	0.609

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Appendix 14. Conference paper

Dong, X.Y., Veloutsou, C. and Morgan-Thomas, A. 2019. Negative Consumer Engagement. Presented in the 14th Global Brand Conference, Berlin, Germany.

Dong, X.Y., Veloutsou, C. and Morgan-Thomas, A. 2022. Negative Online Brand Engagement Scale Development Process: Structured Abstract. Presented in the 2022 AMS Annual Conference, Monterey, CA.

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