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Individual Differences in Participations of a Brand Community: A Validation of the Goal-Directed Behavior Model

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Previous studies have been neglected the behavior of the owners who are non-members when discussing brand community (BC), even though they are substantially larger. This study purposely discuss what are the differences between the two by using model of goal-directed behavior (MGB) and uses the findings as a way to recruit non-members in BC activities. This study also proposes some refinements to the original concept of MGB. This survey-based study, conducted with 201 active members and 226 non-members of a motor club in Indonesia, employs structural equation modeling methodology which supports the proposed model. The findings suggest that non-members have a stronger effect of positive anticipated emotions on attitude and desire to participate, which could be the starting point for marketers to recruit them. While for non-members, the perceived behavioral control and attitude toward BC activities have greater effects. The findings and discussion lead to some managerial and research implications.

Keywords: Brand community, members/non-members, model of goal-directed behavior (MGB)

Introduction

Highly competitive markets require organizations to retain existing customers through relationship marketing (RM) (Palmatier et al., 2006). However, it is not always efficient to maintain one-to-one relationships with customers when there are huge base numbers of them (e.g., Cova and Pace, 2002). A new concept for RM, brand community (BC), carries some important

functions on behalf of the brand, such as sharing information, perpetuating the history and culture of the brand, and providing assistance to potential customers (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). A brand community is "a specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a brand" (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001, p. 412). Brand community considers the relationship between the owners and the brand,

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and has received attention from marketers as a successful RM program, such as in the case of the Harley Owners Group (e.g., Schouten and McAlexander, 1995) or with Jeep (e.g., McAlexander, Schouten, and Koenig, 2002).

Since being first introduced, the BC concept has attracted many scholars from different fields. Many reasons underlie this interest, including the ability of brand communities to influence members' perceptions and behaviors (e.g., Muniz and Schau, 2005); to rapidly propagate information and consumer evaluations of new features (e.g., Brown et al., 2003); and to optimize chances to engage and collaborate with very loyal customers (e.g., Füller, Jawecki, and Mühlbacher, 2007). In the highly competitive market environment, many marketers believe that facilitating the formation of a brand community is both a cost efficient and effective way to recruit new and retain existing customers (Algesheimer, Dholakia, and Hermann, 2005).

One group of studies has applied social identity theory (e.g., Algesheimer et al., 2005; Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001) to determine the social influence on BC phenomena. Another group has applied theories that focus on individual perspective, such as Theory of Planned Behavior (e.g., Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a, 2006b) or motivation theory (e.g., Sukoco and Wu, 2010, Wu and Sukoco, 2010). However, these two perspectives only examine the commonalities of the existing BC's members and the consequences for marketers. The owners who are non-members of a BC substantially outnumber the members, but are largely neglected. Therefore, further evaluations are required to investigate factors which might persuade owners to join and participate in a BC. Moreover, the results could be useful for marketers to understand under what kind of circumstances they have greater probability to encourage and recruit non-members, a matter which has mostly been

neglected by previous studies.

This study intentionally uses the model of goal-directed behavior (MGB) which was developed by Bagozzi and colleagues (e.g., Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a, 2006b; Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001, 2004) to examine whether members and non-members behave differently. Moreover, this study asserts that anticipated emotions are part of consumers' affect (Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer, 1999) which could contribute to the formation of attitude (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). Therefore, this study proposes that attitude will mediate the effects of anticipated emotions on desire and intention to participate in BC activities. Furthermore, this study examines the proposition of Bagozzi and colleagues (e.g., Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001, 2004) that desire fully mediates the effects of attitude toward intention, by stating that cognitive attitude also has a direct effect on intention in the formation of BC. This study argues that by focusing on individual perspectives under MGB, marketers can have better understanding of how owners' behavioral intention to participate in BC activities could be predicted, while at the same time this study also offers some revisions to the MGB.

Moreover, most of previous studies are conducted in a western context (e.g., Muniz and Schau, 2005; Algesheimer et al., 2005), but the concept of brand community should be normally regarded as boundary-less (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001), and thus it needs to be applied in other contexts to be validated. This study tests the concept in Honda Tiger Motor Club in Indonesia, and might offer a different perspective on this issue.

Literature Review

Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB)

Conventional attitude theory posits that intentions to act are functions of individual

and normative influences (e.g., Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). The theory of planned behavior (TPB) suggests that one's personal intention to enact behavior is a function of the individual's attitude toward the behavior (i.e., the behavior's evaluation), his/her subjective norms (i.e., the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behavior), and perceived behavioral control (i.e., the perception of how easy or difficult it is to perform the behavior). The TPB has been used extensively because of its parsimony (Ajzen, 1991).

The Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB) subsumes the TPB and has been recently shown to have better predictive and explanatory power than TPB (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001; Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002). In addition to the constructs in the TPB, the MGB introduces three classes of individual basis to better explain purposive behavior and its affective implications. One addition to the TPB under the MGB is the incorporation of *anticipated emotions*—pre-factual appraisals where the individual imagines the affective consequences of goal attainment and goal failure before deciding to act (Gleicher, Boninger et al., 1995)—as predictors. The second addition to the TPB is the *role of past behavior*. However, this study will not include this construct, because of the difficulties of measuring the role of past behavior.

The third additional construct in MGB is the desires which mediate the effects of all the components to intention. Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006a) proposed that desires foster the motivation into intentions to act, and attitude and other antecedents in decision making work through desires enroute to influencing intentions (Bagozzi, 1992). According to Perugini and Bagozzi (2001), there are two kinds of desires which depend on the context and the individuals. *First*, volitive desires refer to reasons for acting is taken into account to form a self-commitment to act (Davis, 1984a). The individuals'

attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control are major reasons for specific action by forming a self-commitment to act (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001). *Second*, appetitive desires (Davis, 1984b), reasons for acting will liberate an obscure desire related to biological needs, such as food, sex, or safety.

In the context of BC, this study posits that owners' volitive desire provide a basis for committing to participate in BC activities. Previous studies reported that volitive desires influence the decision-making in the contexts of exercising, dieting and studying (e.g., Bagozzi and Edwards, 1998; Leone, Perugini, and Ercolani, 1999). This study operationalizes the desire from Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) and asserts that owners' desires are turned into intention (motivation) to participate in BC activities.

The Effects of Attitude

According to Eagly and Chaiken (1993), attitudes are evaluative (cognitive) reactions to an action and are thought to reflect predispositions to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Thus, when a person has reacted to a particular action, attitudes can be triggered automatically when they are exposed to the action or think about it (Fazio, 1995). Referring to Perugini and Bagozzi (2001), attitudes serve as a basis for desire to form the commitment to act. This study asserts that owners' favorable or unfavorable evaluation of BC activities will have an effect on desire. In the context of brand community, Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006a) indicated that attitude is a strong predictor of the desire to participate in the community.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) postulates that behavioral intentions are always explained by attitudes as individual-level reasons for performing a personal act. This study uses intention to represent a person's motivation to behave

in a certain manner (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993), particularly the intention to participate in brand community activities. Using open source software communities (Linux), Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006b) reported that users' attitude has a significant effect on the intention to participate in communities' activities. Consistent with this view, this study asserts that attitudes toward a BC are viewed as predictors of owners' desire and intention to participate in such activities. The effect of attitude is stronger for members than non-members, because they already have experienced with BC activities. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H1. Owners' attitudes toward a BC will have a positive impact on (a) desire and (b) intention to participate in BC activities. The effects will be greater for members than non-members of a BC.

The Effects of Anticipated Emotions

According to the MGB, anticipated emotions, defined as forward-looking affective reactions where the owners imagine the emotional consequences of participating or not participating, are also important drivers of intention to participate in BC activities (Bagozzi et al., 1998). The effects occur through a particular form of counterfactual thinking that Gleicher et al. (1995) termed "prefactual appraisals," where "... individuals may think about imaginary alternatives to events in terms of the implications of these events for the future" (p. 284), leading to positive and negative emotions. Note that regardless of the reasons for being (or not being) able to participate, these emotions are motivating, leading to intention to participate in BC activities (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002). This postulate is consistent with the proposition of Frijda (1986) that behavior can be stimulated by the anticipated emotions regarding something

that could happen in the future. Thus, when owners examine the emotional implications of both participating and not participating in BC activities, their decision will be motivated or demotivated by the positive and negative anticipated emotions (Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Pieters, 1998).

Recent research shows that negative anticipated emotions have a greater influence on the individual's intentions than other variables of TPB. For instance, Bagozzi et al. (1998) found that both positive and negative anticipated emotions influence volitions to exercise and diet. Another recent study indicated that these anticipated emotions can influence consumers to participate in certain communities (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a, 2006b). This study posits that the effects of anticipated emotions are stronger for members than non-members. Based on that, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H2. The owners' desire to participate in BC activities will be influenced by (a) positive and (b) negative anticipated emotions. The effects will be greater for members than non-members.

The Mediating Effects of Attitude

Previous discussion tends to negate the fact that anticipated emotions are highly correlated with attitudes (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2002, 2006a), arguing that anticipated emotions are different from attitudes in three ways, namely the referents, underlying theoretical processes, and manner of measurement (e.g., Perugini and Bagozzi 2001, Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a), but this study argues that anticipated emotions are merely one dimension of affect in the multicomponent model of attitude (Eagly and Chaiken (1993). The affect itself is "an umbrella for a set of more specific mental processes including emotions, moods, and (possibly) attitudes" (Bagozzi et al., 1999).

This definition asserts that emotion is part of affect, which serve as basis for the formation of attitude. Moreover, referring to the Associative Propositional Evaluation Model (APE Model) from Gawronski and Bodenhausen (2007), affective reaction could form the attitudes.

The discussion leads to the tentative assumption that owners' anticipated emotions should process further into a favorable attitude before having effects on desire and intention to participate in BC activities. The reason that owners have the desire and intention to participate is because originally they have a favorable attitude toward BC activities, which serve as mechanisms to process the anticipated emotions. Based on that, this study proposes that anticipated emotions could be mediated by attitudes to have influence on intention to participate. Since the members have greater favorable attitude than non-members, the mediation effects of attitudes on them will be greater than on non-members. Based on that, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H3. Positive and negative anticipated emotions of owners from participating in the BC activities will be mediated by attitudes. The effects will be greater for members than non-members.

The Effects of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)

Perceived behavioral control (PBC) is defined as the consumers' perception of control over his or her actions, that is, how difficult or easy participation in the community is viewed to be (Ajzen, 1991). The evaluation of self behavioral control is rooted in the beliefs that individuals have the necessary resources and opportunities to perform the behavior successfully (Ajzen, 1988). In the context of BC, participating in the activities requires high motivation to internalize and execute the intention, and

thus perceived behavioral control indeed has a salient role. In the study of Linux user groups, Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006b) reported that desires to participate in the community were influenced by perceived behavioral control. For members, this study assumes that they have higher perceived behavioral control, leading to stronger effects on the desire to participate in BC activities. Thus,

- H4. Perceived behavioral control of owners will have a positive impact on desire to participate in BC activities. The effects will be greater for members than non-members.

The Effects of Subjective Norms

The subjective norm is a central component of TRA and TPB and has been included in numerous studies across a large number of different settings (Thorbjornsen, Pedersen, and Nysveen, 2008). Subjective norms reflect the impact of expectations from other people, which are largely based on the need for approval, and which Kelman (1974) termed as social influence and compliance. The subjective norms have shown significant influence on the intention to participate in Linux user groups' community (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006b). In the case of members, this study expects that they will be highly influenced by the opinion of others. Thus, the effects of subjective norms are greater for members than non-members. Based on this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H5. Subjective norms will have a positive impact on desire to participate in BC activities. The effects will be greater for members than non-members.

Research Method

Object

The study focuses on the community of Tiger owners in East Java, Indonesia. Tiger is a 200 cc motor cycle produced and distributed by Astra Honda Motor Company, Indonesia, since 1994. The majority of motorcycles in the country are between 100 to 125 cc. Positioned in the market as a youthful product, Tiger is popular among the young generation. Tiger has sold more than 20,000 units annually, with the total motor market in Indonesia over than five million vehicles a year. Currently, there are more than 3,000 owners who have joined various clubs that are tied exclusively with Tiger in Indonesia. The Tiger community has been in existence since 1995, and is one of the largest brand communities in Indonesia (Hidayat, 2007).

Measurement

The measurements are adapted from existing research to suit with the context of this study. For positive and negative emotions (five items), subjective norms (three items), and perceived behavioral control (three items), questionnaire items are adapted from Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006a). The items of attitude toward brand community activities (four items) are adapted from Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006a), Fitzmaurice (2005), and Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). The items of desire (two items) are adopted from Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006) and Fitzmaurice (2005). The intention items (two items) are from Algesheimer et al. (2005) and Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006). In order to maximize functional and conceptual equivalence during the translation process, the questionnaire was written in English and was then translated into Indonesian using a double translation method. Following the procedure of Harkness (2003), this

study pretested the initial questionnaire to 24 members and 40 non-members and revised based on their feedbacks.

Participant Recruitment

In recruiting participants, the researchers identified and targeted all chapters of the Tiger Motor Club located in East Java, which consist of 12 chapters in nine regions. For each chapter, each leader was requested to provide a list of their members and there were 321 people at the time of the study. In order to reach Tiger owners' who were not club members, this study contacted two leading Honda motor dealers in the same region to provide the owners' data from the last two years. The reason for only selecting the current owners is because most of the members of the community have the new version of Tiger, and thus the response can assume similarity between members and non-members. Moreover, as a practical consideration, the address data of current owners was more up to date than the old ones. This study targeted a total of 1,000 Tiger owners who were non-club members.

The survey for members of brand community was completed in two waves. The survey was distributed through mail together with a cover letter, a gift with the university logo, and a postage-paid return envelope. Of the participants who completed the survey, this study randomly chose ten to receive door prizes equal to \$11 each to increase the response rate. After four weeks, the remaining potential participants were contacted through each leader, and asked to return the questionnaires. Of the 321 Tiger club members that we contacted, 148 completed the first wave of the survey (a response rate of 46.11%), and a total of 257 completed both waves. However, 40 responses were unusable since some data were missing, and thus the final effective response rate was 67.60%. From 1,000 non-member owners, this study received

226 usable questionnaires (originally 327, but some were dropped because of missing data), which yielded a response rate of 22.60%.

Respondents Characteristics

The following are respondents' characteristics as presented in Table 1: there were only seven female respondents, while more than 98% were male. Forty two percent of respondents were aged from 18 to 25 years old, while nearly forty five percent were 26 to 35. Most respondents were educated to senior high level (57.6%), followed by university students (35.2%), junior high school (6.5%), and graduate students (0.7%). The respondents' job characteristics were diverse: 9% were high school students, 23.7% college students, entrepreneurs 37.7%, 7.2% government officials, private employees 17.8%, and others 4.5%. Only 33.9% had riding experience of less

than 5 years, while 18.3% had more than 10 years. Furthermore, there were 40% of respondents who had never joined any kind of motor club, and most respondents (37.2%) had joined the club for less than three years. Finally, more than forty percent of respondents had never participated in the Tiger community, while the hardcore (members who had participated more than six times in the last three months) were only 13.8%.

Result and Discussion

Measurement Results

Common Method Assessment. Because the same respondents are used to collect information on the independent and dependent variables, a common method bias may occur. Following Podsakoff et al. (2003), this study assesses whether a common method bias exists by performing a Harman one-factor test that loads all the

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Items	Frequency	Percentage
Status	- Members	- 217	- 49%
	- Non-members	- 226	- 51%
Sex	- Male	- 435	- 98.4%
	- Female	- 7	- 1.6%
Age	- 18-25	- 187	- 42.2%
	- 26-35	- 198	- 44.7%
	- 36-50	- 53	- 11%
	- More than 50	- 5	- 1.1%
Education	- Senior high	- 284	- 64.1%
	- Bachelor	- 156	- 35.2%
	- Master	- 3	- 0.7%
Job	- Student	- 40	- 9%
	- College student	- 105	- 23.7%
	- Entrepreneur	- 167	- 37.7%
	- Government officer	- 32	- 7.2%
	- Private employee	- 79	- 17.8%
	- Others	- 20	- 4.5%
Motor experience	- Less than 5 years	- 150	- 33.9%
	- 5 - 10 years	- 212	- 47.9%
	- More than 10 years	- 81	- 18.3%
Years joining club	- Never	- 177	- 40%
	- Less than 3 years	- 165	- 37.2%
	- 3 - 6 years	- 83	- 18.7%
	- More than 6 years	- 18	- 4.1%
Participation in club activities in the last 3 months	- Never	- 181	- 40.9%
	- Less than 3 times	- 136	- 30.7%
	- 3 - 6 times	- 65	- 14.7%
	- More than 6 times	- 61	- 13.8%

variables into a principal component factor analysis. According to this test, if either (a) a single factor emerges from the factor analysis, or (b) several factors emerge but one factor accounts for the majority of the variances, then a common method bias is a concern. For our data, a factor analysis of all the measurement items reveals a solution that accounts for 74.05% of the total variance, and factor 1 account for 22.67% of the variance. Because a single factor did not emerge and one factor did not explain most of the variance, common method bias is unlikely to be a concern in our data.

Construct Validity. Prior to the analysis of our hypotheses, we assessed the construct validity of our measures following the guidelines outlined by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), *First*, our exploratory factor analysis for all the items of multi-item scales resulted in factor solutions, as expected theoretically. *Second*, we computed the reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) for each scale, and each coefficient was greater than 0.70, exceeding the acceptable standards of reliability. *Third*, we used confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of

the measures. Although measurement quality is sometimes assessed by factor, each multiple-item indicator was considered simultaneously to provide for the fullest test of convergent and discriminant validity. All loadings exceed .60 and each indicator *t*-value exceeds 10 ($p < .001$), which satisfies the criteria of CFA (Hair et al., 2006), Coefficient α exceeds .80 for each factor. The overall fit supports the measurement model. The χ^2 fit statistic is 874.465 with 231 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$), The root mean squared error (RMSE) is .079, the comparative fit index (CFI) is .935, and the χ^2/df is 3.786. All results support the overall measurement quality given a large sample and number of indicators (Gerbing and Anderson, 1992) and these measures demonstrate adequate convergent validity and reliability.

There are three steps for testing the discriminant validity. *First*, compare the variance-extracted percentages for any two factors with the square of the correlation estimate between these two factors (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 3 reports the interfactor correlation and its squared value. Each of the variance-extracted estimates from Table 2 was greater than the corre-

Table 2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Indicator	Construct	Standardized Loading	Unstandardized Loading	SE	t-value	p	AVE	α
Att1	←	.858	.970	.038	25.651	***		
Att2	←	.894	1.000					
Att3	←	.884	.983	.036	27.389	***	83.458	.934
Att4	←	.897	.993	.035	28.285	***		
PE1	←	.857	1.000					
PE2	←	.866	.843	.035	24.030	***		
PE3	←	.856	.849	.036	23.546	***	78.501	.930
PE4	←	.845	.855	.037	23.013	***		
PE5	←	.853	.958	.041	23.372	***		
NE1	←	.762	.835	.044	1.182	***		
NE2	←	.870	.965	.040	23.843	***		
NE3	←	.856	.978	.042	23.188	***	74.820	.916
NE4	←	.860	1.000					
NE5	←	.794	.899	.044	20.457	***		
SN1	←	.813	.942	.047	20.042	***		
SN2	←	.882	.961	.043	22.477	***	80.825	.880
SN3	←	.838	1.000					
PBC1	←	.766	.975	.052	18.706	***		
PBC2	←	.851	1.00			***	77.499	.853
PBC3	←	.831	.981	.046	21.147	***		
Des1	←	.936	1.000					
Des2	←	.873	.963	.036	26.887	***	90.869	.899
Par1	←	.955	1.000				93.314	.928

Note: $\chi^2 = 874.465$, $df = 231$, $CFI = .935$, $RMSEA = .079$

sponding interfactor squared correlation estimates (i.e., values below the diagonal) in Table 3. *Second*, all of the correlations among the latent constructs were significantly less than one, which also provides evidence of discriminant validity. *Third*, the χ^2 -difference test was performed for each pair of factors (a total of 45 tests in the overall data), which in every case resulted in a significant difference, again suggesting that all measures of constructs in the measurement model achieve discriminant validity (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006). Therefore, the results show that each factor has no problems with discriminant validity. Moreover, the correlations between factors were consistent and indicate nomological validity.

Furthermore, since this study employs diverse respondents to increase the external validity of the results, these might be affected by the diversity. Therefore, this study includes some personal information as control variables: age and education. The results show that the correlation between research and control variables is mostly insignificant. Moreover, the results indicate that there are no significant differences between members and non-members with regard to age and education, which further validates that this study has no problem with a non-response bias. In other words, there are no significant differences between members and non-members in terms of age and education in this study.

Factor Structure Invariance

The research objectives require testing theoretical models on the overall sample and on split samples examining relationships among only members and non-members. Therefore, construct validity must be tested over the entire sample and across members/non-members to test the factor structure (Bandalos and Benson, 1990; Byrne, 1988).

Factor structure invariance was tested by comparing the results of a confirmatory model fitting separate models for members and non-members. Initially, model coefficients were freed, such that separate loading estimates were computed for each sub-sample. Next, the model was retested adding the constraint that the matrix of factor loadings remains invariant across samples. A comparison of the two fits enables an assessment of factor structure invariance. The overall χ^2 for the two sample model is 1,507 with 592 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$; CFI = .908) for the "totally free" model and 1,593 with 611 degrees of freedom for the constrained model. The χ^2 difference statistic between these two models is 85 with 19 degrees of freedom and is significant at $p > .003$. In addition, the model was examined with the added constraint that Φ , the matrix of interfactor correlations, remains invariant across sub-samples. The χ^2 difference resulting from a comparison of this model, with the model constraining only

Table 3. Correlation Table

	Mean		t-value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Members	Non-members										
Attitude	6.16 (1.00)	5.35 (1.41)	7.01	.91								
Positive emotions	6.05 (1.02)	5.21 (1.41)	7.21	.71**	.89							
Negative emotions	4.41 (1.52)	3.70 (1.71)	4.59	.41**	.45**	.87						
Subjective norms	5.30 (1.25)	4.71 (1.47)	4.56	.60**	.64**	.52**	.89					
Perceived behavioral control	5.56 (1.32)	4.60 (1.56)	6.97	.60**	.68**	.57**	.73**	.88				
Desire	6.06 (1.02)	4.95 (1.58)	8.73	.70**	.69**	.45**	.62**	.72**	.95			
Intention to Participate	6.00 (1.09)	4.92 (1.57)	8.40	.70**	.70**	.43**	.65**	.66**	.70**	.96		
Age	2.27 (.58)	2.25 (.64)	.29	.06	.09	.00	-.01	.02	.03	.10*	1.0	
Education	3.13 (1.28)	3.27 (1.40)	1.14	.08	.11*	.07	.09	.06	.10*	.09	.10*	1.0

Note: - * represents $p < 0.05$; ** represents $p < 0.01$

- The diagonal elements are square roots of the AVE. The lower-left triangle elements are the correlations among the latent variables (Φ).

factor loadings, was 214 with 46 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$). A significant difference provides preliminary evidence that members and non-members differences among construct relationships might exist.

In addition, this study presents the mean-level differences of each research construct in Table 3, although no hypotheses are proposed specifically to mean-level differences. The results indicate that differences between members and non-members do exist, and this provides additional evidence that members and non-members respond differently to each research construct.

Structural Model Results

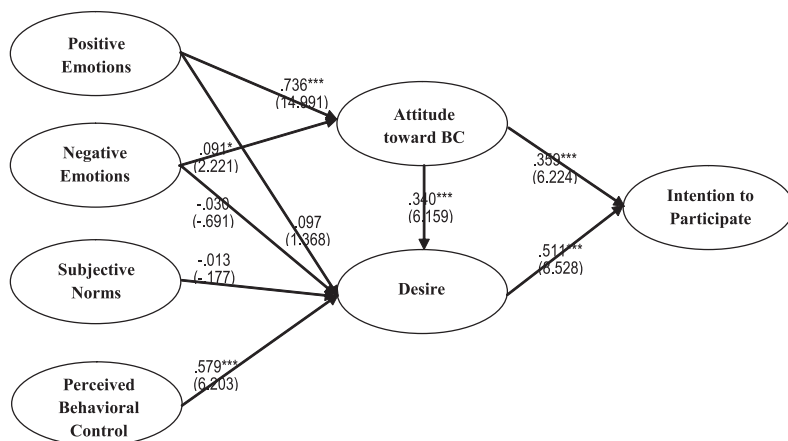
This study uses a first order factor model, since all the hypotheses require that each dimension is tested individually.

The overall model results. The proposed model is tested with the combined sample (both members and non-members, $n = 443$). The resulting χ^2 is 936.744 with 237 degrees of freedom; CFI = .929; RMSEA = .082, which suggests that the model fits the data. Meanwhile, the original model of MGB, which is regarded as an alternative model

(attitude has no direct effect on intention, and anticipated emotions has direct effects on desires), also generates an acceptable fit, CFI = .927; RMSEA = .083; χ^2 is 950.409 with 236 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the results indicate that the proposed model performs slightly better than the alternative model (Figure 1). In general, the results were consistent with expectations that owners' anticipated emotions are mediated by the attitude. Interestingly, there is no significant effect of subjective norms on desire, while perceived behavioral control has strong effect on desire ($\gamma = .579, p < .001$). Even though desire has a significant direct effect on intention to participate ($\gamma = .511, p < .001$), the attitude also has a significant direct effect on intention to participate in BC activities ($\gamma = .359, p < .001$).

Split sample analyses. Multisample analyses were conducted to examine potential differences in relationships across owners who are members and non-members of the BC. The proposed model was used to test any differences between members and non-members, and the results indicate an adequate fit ($\chi^2 = 1397.741; df = 474; CFI = .910; RMSEA = .066$).

Figure 1. Proposed model with overall data



Note: $\chi^2 = 949.472, df = 237, CFI = .927, RMSEA = .082$
 Values in parentheses represent t-value of coefficients

H1 predicts that attitudes toward BC have positive effects on desire and intention to participate, while the effects are stronger for members than non-members. The results show the predicted effects that members experience greater effects on desire ($\gamma = .384$ vs. $.277$) and intention to participate ($\gamma = .472$ vs. $.316$). However, the differences between the members and non-members only exist for the paths of attitudes to intention ($t = 2.306$), while the paths of attitudes to desire have no significant differences ($t = 1.111$). These results suggest that the magnitude of influence from attitudes to intention toward BC is significantly higher for members than non-members. Thus, this study partially confirms H1.

H2 predicts that anticipated emotions have positive effects on desire, and the effects are stronger for members than non-members. However, the results indicated that there are no significant effects of anticipated emotions on desire, which disconfirmed H2. As predicted by H3, that attitude will mediate the effects of anticipated emotions on desire, the results showed that the mediation effects exist only for positive emotions, while negative emotions are not

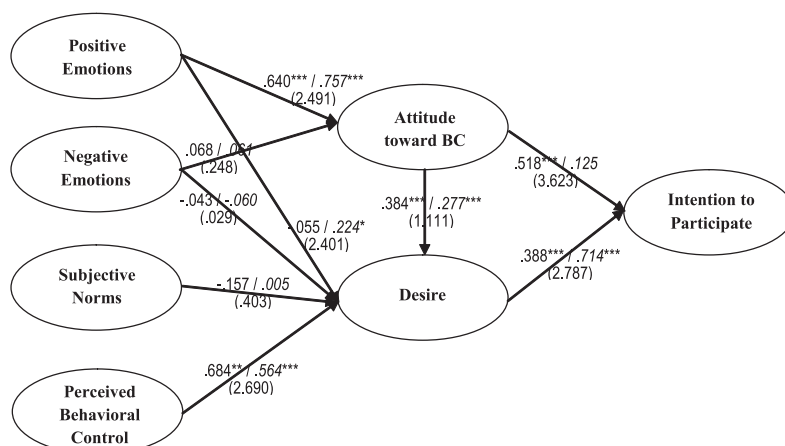
mediated by the attitude. Since in this study the perceived negative anticipated emotions are pretty low for both members and non-members, the effect of negative anticipated emotions is not shown. Thus, H4 only partially supported.

H5 suggests that perceived behavioral control has a significant effect on desire. The results support the prediction that the expected effects do exist, and the members experience stronger effects than non-members ($\gamma = .684$ vs. $.564$) in a significant manner ($t = 2.690$). Thus, H5 is supported in this study. H6 predicts that subjective norms have positive effects on desire, and the effects are greater for members than non-members. Similar with the proposed model, there was no significant effect of subjective norms on desire, which disconfirmed H6.

Conclusion

This study examines the individual differences of members and non-members in the formation of brand community based on the MGB. Moreover, it hypothesized that positive and negative emotions will

Figure 2. Proposed model with split data for members vs. non-members



Note: $\chi^2 = 1397.741$, $df = 474$, $CFI = .910$, $RMSEA = .066$

- The italic values refer to coefficients for non-members; the values in parentheses refer t-values between members and non-members.

be mediated by the attitude rather than directly influence the desire to participate in BC activities. The results tend to support this assumption that emotions are part of affect, which might contribute to the formation of attitude (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). Therefore, these results tend to disconfirm the proposition of MGB (e.g., Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a, 2006b; Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001, 2004) that anticipated emotions are independent constructs which contribute to desire. This finding expects to contribute on the extension of MGB that even though anticipated emotions are necessary to form desire, but anticipated emotions should be further processed by attitudes before they impact desire.

These results imply that forming a favorable attitude among non-members regarding BC activities could have a remarkable impact which can serve as the basis for a desire to participate, since the results indicate that the positive anticipated emotions of non-members have a stronger relationship with attitude and desire than they do for members. It is thus essential for marketers to promote BC activities to elicit emotions toward BC activities from non-members, such as providing knowledge about how to use the PDA's functions in the case of Apple Newton (Muniz and Schau, 2005) or discussing new food recipes, such as in the case of Nutella (Cova and Pace, 2006) or new software applications, such as in the case of Linux (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006b). Moreover, marketers could explicitly promote how wonderful the communal feeling among brand owners is, such as in the case of Harley-Davidson (e.g., Schouten and McAlexander, 1995).

Furthermore, this study also finds strong support for the idea that perceived behavioral control has a significant direct effect on desire, which confirms prior studies (e.g., Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006a, 2006b). The study results indicate that non-members' perceptions of how easy or

difficult it is to participate in BC activities strongly influences their desire to become members. In other words, if non-members have the necessary resources and at the same time opportunities are available, they might have greater desire to participate in BC activities. If the problems are rooted in the unavailability of time, marketers should encourage non-members to join BC activities online, which might reduce the time constraints they have. If the problems are rooted in the lack of resources, marketers could share some costs with the community to minimize the expense of the activities. However, the support should be undertaken carefully in order to avoid the feeling of some existing members that the company is intervening with the independence of the community, and thus, being used (e.g., Brown et al., 2003; Cova and Pace, 2006).

Interestingly, this study finds no support for the effects of subjective norms on intention to participate. Both members nor non-members indicate that the need for social approval has little implications on the desire to participate in BC activities. Given that approximately 87% of the respondents are aged between 18 and 35, they maybe more independent toward others opinion, in other words, they have less subjective norms. The results are in line with the findings of Armitage and Conner (2001) in their meta-analytic review that subjective norms are generally a weak predictor of intentions. These results are also in line with some researchers which doubts the sufficiency of the subjective norm component in TPB (e.g., Terry, Hogg, and White, 1999; Mannetti, Pierro, and Livi, 2002). In Thorbjørnsen et al. (2007), the effects of subjective norms are mediated by social identity expressiveness before having an impact on the desire or intention to participate in a community. This implies that creating BC activities as enjoyable experiences, such as the transcendent customer experience of the Jeep Jamboree (Schouten et al., 2007) as a

way to express social identity, could transform existing subjective norms into a stronger desire to participate in BC activities.

Another contribution of this study is that desire does not fully mediate the effect of attitude on the intention to participate in BC activities. As proposed by Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) and Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006a, 2006b), desire is viewed as the full mediator of these effects. However, the results tend to complement existing views that attitude and desire contribute equally to the formation of behavioral intention. Therefore, attitude could be as strong as desire in forming the intention to participate in BC activities. These results imply that as well as promoting strong arguments for owners to participate in BC activities, creating a favorable attitude toward such activities is also important. This is because creating a favorable image of the community also has a direct effect on driving non-members to participate in BC activities. The results further validate the proposition that members' attitude has a more significant effect on in-

tention to participate, while non-members' attitude has no significant effect.

Although the above research results are compelling, several limitations exist in this study. These limitations suggest areas and directions for further research. *First*, as this study adopts a cross-sectional research design which examines respondents' opinions at one point in time, a longitudinal study could better capture the transformation from non-members to members. *Second*, as the respondents of this study only consist of motor owners who are members and non-members of a community in Indonesia, different contexts might confirm the validity and generalizability of these findings. *Third*, this study mainly emphasizes the proposed framework for motor club. With reference to Cova and Pace (2006), the brand community might exist along the continuum of niche product (e.g., Harley Davidson) to mass marketed product (e.g., Nutella). Therefore, the use of other types of products or brands could confirm the generalizability of these findings.

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