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THEORY/CONCEPTUAL

A resource-based perspective on customer engagement behaviors: A typology, conceptual framework, and research avenues

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Abstract
Numerous forms of customer engagement behaviors (CEBs) have surfaced, highlighting the need for finding common conceptual ground to explore different CEBs. From a resource-based perspective, this paper presents a typology of CEBs that is derived conceptually and a framework that expounds on how customers develop perceptions of engagement value that shape their likelihood to perform different types of CEBs. More specifically, their perceptions of benefits, costs, and risks differ in affecting perceived customer engagement value (CEV) and subsequent intention to perform CEBs. We also examine two boundary conditions based on the attributes of resources. The paper concludes with managerial implications and future research opportunities, encouraging practitioners to consider how firms can utilize customer resources effectively and what resources they can provide to foster and stimulate CEBs.

Keywords Resources · Service-dominant (S-D) logic · Value co-creation · Customer engagement behavior (CEB) · Conservation of resources (COR) theory · Social exchange theory

In the past decade, numerous forms of customer engagement behaviors (CEBs) have surfaced, which go beyond the point of purchase. Customers now provide brand innovation ideas, recommend new products to their social circles, help fellow members in brand communities, or invite other individuals to join the communities. While scholars have proposed typologies that classify CEBs, the existing literature largely focuses on observable factors for typology development but falls short of elucidating the underlying conceptual similarities among various types of CEBs (Hollebeek et al., 2019). Further, prior conceptualizations of CEBs have primarily focused on customers' investment or contributions of their owned resources such as time, effort, and knowledge during brand interactions (e.g., Harmeling et al., 2017; Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014), neglecting customers' utilization of resources from other parties such as companies and fellow customers. Therefore, it is imperative to direct attention to resource integration and devote effort to delineate not only resource investment but also resource utilization by customers in their engagement with companies.

The *first objective* of this paper is to introduce a resource-based approach in defining and categorizing a myriad of CEBs based on resource investment *and* resource utilization. The concept of resources is ingrained in service-dominant (S-D) logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), and its crucial role has been recognized in the S-D logic–informed engagement literature (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2019). Building on the proposed typology, the *second objective* is to offer a conceptual framework that links different customer motivations with various types of CEBs. Despite some research examining the general effects of perceived benefits and costs (e.g., Cheema & Kaikati, 2010; Hoyer et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014), there still remains a lack of a systematic conceptual framework that outlines the underlying customer motivations (and boundary conditions) driving intentions to perform different CEBs. To fill the gap, we

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propose a conceptual framework from a resource-based perspective, which explains how customers' perceptions of benefits, costs, and risks differentially influence perceived customer engagement value (CEV) and subsequently customers' intentions to perform CEBs. We also explore two boundary conditions.

Theoretically, we underscore the significance of both resource investment and utilization, offering a valuable foundation for marketing scholars to leverage resource-based theories (for a review, see Dorsch et al., 2017). Importantly, we present a conceptual framework that explains and clarifies the underlying motivations for different types of CEBs and puts forth a list of research propositions along with new avenues for future research on CEBs. Customers are endowed with, currently own, or potentially utilize resources from personal networks and marketplace interactions. Resource integration, as seen through the lens of S-D logic, serves as a means to value co-creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). By combining and applying their individual and other resources, customers create value, which reflects the effective investment and utilization of resources. The dual focus on resource investment and utilization is consistent with engagement research in non-marketing disciplines. Such consistency enables academic cross-fertilization and facilitates the borrowing of insights from other fields to advance knowledge creation. For example, civic engagement involves the investment of material and cognitive resources (Galston, 2001) and the utilization of social networks within communities (Putnam, 1993). Similarly, employee engagement entails the investment of energy and skills and the utilization of interpersonal and organizational support within the workplace (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Customer engagement research can borrow ideas from civic and employee engagement research by considering the similarities and differences in the resources that are invested and utilized by these different types of engagement.

Practically, adopting a resource-based perspective enables managers to handle corporate resources differently in different situations. Not all CEBs are equivalent, and distinct CEBs necessitate customers to employ various types of resources. Different motivations influence their proclivity to engage with brands. When customers contemplate performing different types of CEBs, they may consider different benefits, costs, and risks. Practitioners need to understand not only whether but also to what extent different benefits and costs affect the intention to engage. Their engagement strategies should be tailored to accommodate customers' varying expectations. Our research provides a comprehensive understanding of how to leverage customer resources and what resources firms can offer to customers to foster and stimulate a myriad of CEBs. At the end of this paper, we present real-world examples to substantiate this assertion.

A new perspective to categorize CEBs

An overview of engagement typologies

Our focus is on CEBs, the behavioral aspect of customer engagement, where "customer" refers to individual customers rather than businesses. Customer engagement is a multidimensional construct that includes cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions (Brodie et al., 2011). Over the past decade, there has been extensive research in marketing on customer engagement (e.g., Brodie et al., 2011, Harmeling et al., 2017, Hollebeek et al., 2019, and van Doorn et al., 2010). We conducted a literature review of engagement typologies using Google Scholar to identify patterns and gaps in prior literature while acknowledging that the review was not exhaustive. We focused on articles that (a) discuss "engagement" and its variations such as "customer engagement," "consumer engagement," "consumer engagement behavior," "customer engagement behavior," "engagement behavior," and "social media engagement," (b) were published in English between 2010 (when the customer engagement research field began to grow; Hollebeek et al., 2021, 2022) and 2022 in peer-reviewed marketing journals, and (c) relate to the categorization of general CEBs and CEBs in specific contexts (e.g., social media).

Table 1 presents a representative, not exhaustive, overview of typologies of customer engagement in the marketing discipline. Multiple bases exist for classifying CEBs. For instance, Brodie et al. (2013) and Evans and McKee (2010) examine CEBs from a process perspective by identifying engagement processes and sub-processes. Steinhoff et al. (2022) categorize CEBs along two dimensions: interaction partner (companies vs. other customers) and interaction audience (private vs. public). Vivek et al. (2012) focus on the initiator of CEBs, noting that both customers and firms may initiate the engagement process. Other scholars accentuate the different ways of customer-firm interactions (e.g., Eigenraam et al., 2018; Harmeling et al., 2017; Verleye et al., 2014). Another basis for categorizing CEBs is related to their value or benefits for customers (e.g., Braun et al., 2016; Hollebeek et al., 2019) and their consequences for firms (e.g., Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014; Kumar et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010). Prior research has primarily classified CEBs based on observable factors (e.g., process, initiator, partner, value), but offers limited conceptual analysis of the *fundamental* similarities across CEBs. A well-constructed typology should include clearly defined concepts and their interrelationships, lead to testable predictions, and offer potential for theoretical and empirical development beyond a mere classification system (Doty & Glick, 1994).

A typological approach to CEBs organizes a wide range of engagement phenomena into different categories by

Table 1 Representative typologies of CEBs in prior research

Year	Author(s)	Typologies	Bases for classifying CEBs	Resource-based perspective?
2010	Evans and McKee	content consumption (reading reviews), curation (commenting, tagging), creation (participating in contests), and collaboration (replying to others' comments)	the process of building strong social media customer engagement	no
2010	Kumar et al.	customer purchasing behavior (repeat purchases), customer referral behavior (incentivized referrals), customer influencer behavior (WOM), and customer knowledge behavior (offering ideas for firm innovations and improvements)	the value customers create for firms: customer lifetime value, customer referral value, customer influencer value, customer knowledge value	no
2010	van Doorn et al.	positive (negative) customer engagement exerting short-term or long-term positive (negative) consequences on firms	consequences for firms	no
2012	Vivek et al.	provider-initiated offerings (engaging with firm-offered gadgets), customer-initiated offerings (yard sales and flea markets), provider-initiated activities (participating in skill development programs), and customer-initiated activities (blogging)	two dimensions: (a) interaction with offerings versus more general activities and (b) initiation by customer versus provider	no
2013	Brodie et al.	learning, sharing, advocating, socializing, and co-developing	consumer engagement process in the online community	no
2014	Jaakkola and Alexander	augmenting behavior (inventing new product uses), codeveloping behavior (providing ideas for product innovation), influencing behavior (blogging), and mobilizing behavior (convincing other customers)	the value customers co-create with firms	value co-creation through customers' resource contributions to companies and/or other stakeholders (i.e., resource investment)
2014	Verleye et al.	cooperation (cooperating with frontline employees), feedback (for firms and employees), compliance (complying with organizational rules), helping other customers, and positive WOM	the ways for customers to interact with firms and their employees	no
2016	Braun et al.	value creation-focused, customer-to-customer interaction-focused, and online-focused customer engagement	benefits of CEBs: social, relationship, autonomous, economic, altruistic, and self-fulfillment benefits	no
2016	Schivinski et al.	consumption, contribution, and creation of social media content	level of interaction or customer activeness	customers' utilization of their own resources to engage with brands
2017	Harmeling et al.	task-based engagement (review writing, customer referrals, supporting other customers) and experiential engagement (branded events)	the ways for firms to enact customer engagement marketing initiatives	firms' utilization of resources invested by customers

Table 1 (continued)

Year	Author(s)	Typologies	Bases for classifying CEBs	Resource-based perspective?
2018	Eigenraam et al.	having fun (participating in contests), learning (signing up for updates), working for a brand (making ads for brands), providing customer feedback (suggesting ideas for product improvements), and talking about a brand (recommending brands)	the ways for customers to engage with brands online	no
2019	Hollebeek et al.	customer individual- and interpersonal operant resource development, and value co-creation	the benefits perceived by consumers after and/or during their focal interactions	customers' resource investment in their brand interactions
2022	Steinhoff et al	private customer-to-company interaction, public customer-to-company interaction, private customer-to-customer interaction, public customer-to-customer interaction	two dimensions: (a) interaction partner and (b) interaction audience	no

identifying commonalities among core elements of engagement behaviors, thereby paving the way for theory development, new research directions, and a parsimonious explanation of CEBs and their relationships. Unlike a taxonomy, which is empirical and data-driven, a typology is conceptually derived and grounded in theory (Bailey, 1994). As Bailey (1994) comments, "a well-constructed typology … can transform the complexity of apparently eclectic congeries of diverse cases into well-ordered sets of a few rather homogenous types, clearly situated in a property space of a few important dimensions … forms a solid foundation for both theorizing and empirical research" (p. 33). Therefore, the first step in developing a solid typology is finding a sound conceptual cornerstone. Customer engagement is the overarching core construct. Drawing from the dictionary definition of "engage" (https://www.dictionary.com/browse/engage?s=t), the core idea of engagement is that one's attention or efforts are occupied. We extend this idea to the context of CEBs and expand personal efforts (later categorized as physical resources) to include other forms of resources. In other words, resources could serve as a common ground for unpacking different types of CEBs. The concept of resources is also prominent in Vargo and Lusch's (2004, 2016) work on S-D logic, on which the current research builds. Value co-creation is central to the S-D logic discourse and such value is achieved in use and through experience (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2016).

Some scholars have broached the role of resources in categorizing CEBs. For example, Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) consider resource investment, where value co-creation is achieved through customers' contributions of resources to companies and/or other stakeholders. Based on the degree to which customers utilize their own resources to engage with brands, Schivinski et al. (2016) divide social media engagement into consumption, contribution, and creation of social media content. From the firm perspective, Harmeling et al. (2017) relate CEBs to firms' utilization of customer-owned resources, that is, resource investment from the customer perspective. Similarly, Hollebeek et al.'s (2019) categorization of CEBs also integrates customers' resource investment in their brand interactions. These articles, while insightful and provocative, present a one-sided view of CEBs, and they emphasize resource investment but are mute on resource utilization. According to S-D logic, customers, as resource integrators, draw on and deploy resources from various sources (Arnould et al., 2006; Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2016), and they mobilize those resources to maximize engagement value in the process of undertaking CEBs. They voluntarily *invest* their owned resources and *utilize* the resources provided by companies. To perform CEBs, customers need to integrate resources (as a means to achieve goals) from themselves and the marketplace primarily through interactions with companies and other customers.

Thus, we incorporate both the investment and utilization of resources in the following definition and typology of CEBs.

Defining CEBs from the perspective of resources

From the resource-based perspective, we aim to establish a conceptually derived typology that enables a detailed evaluation of the connection between resources and CEBs. To serve this purpose, we first articulate a resource-based definition of CEBs below. Consistent with a set of seminal articles (e.g., Brodie et al., 2011; Kumar et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010), we treat CEBs as behaviors that have a brand or firm focus. Recent research (e.g., Brodie et al., 2019) suggests understanding multiple actors or resource integrators (e.g., customers, employees, citizens, business partners, non-human actors) in service ecosystems. However, we focus exclusively on current and future customers as essential elements of CEBs. Moreover, our definition follows a relational approach that falls under the relationship marketing paradigm, which, as described by Sheth and Parvatlyar (1995), "goes beyond repeat purchase behavior" (p. 256). In the context of relational marketing, resources involve both economic and non-economic aspects (Dorsch et al., 2017).

> *CEBs are constructive activities voluntarily performed by customers that go beyond economic transactions and reflect customers' resource integration by way of (a) customer-invested resources (e.g., skills and social networks) and (b) customer-utilized resources (e.g., technologies and brand communities) in their brand-related interactions with companies and other customers (including prospects) toward mutual value co-creation.*

CEBs are constructive, meaning that customers undertake CEBs with positive intentions and co-create value with companies (even when the valence may be negative). For instance, customers may provide unfavorable but constructive feedback to companies, with the good intention of improving brand performance. In keeping with the principle of value co-creation, CEBs have positive connotations, aiming to benefit all parties involved. Although customers may perform CEBs for fun or self-interest, the ultimate beneficiaries of such behaviors are companies or brands. Contrary to co-destructive behaviors such as boycotts against and litigations over brands, CEBs aim to create value without causing harm *intentionally* to brands. The example of providing negative feedback is comparable to engagement with negative valence, a concept proposed by Juric et al. (2016). This concept foregrounds value co-creation while admitting a negative valence. Constructive activities, as opposed to just pointing out mistakes and venting frustration, focus on future improvement by offering solutions.

CEBs are characterized as being voluntary and interactive, with customers proactively engaging in interactive processes rather than being coerced into interacting with brands. This engagement allows customers to have interactive experiences and is grounded in the act of mutual benefit. CEBs are conceptually distinct from customer participation (CP), which Dong and Sivakumar (2017) elaborate on in the service context by dividing it into three types: mandatory CP, replaceable CP, and voluntary CP. Mandatory CP is an inseparable part of service delivery, voluntary CP refers to behaviors "performed at customers' discretion to improve their service experience," and replaceable CP is conceptualized as "customer activities/resources that are essential for service provision … but can also be performed by the service provider" (Dong & Sivakumar, 2017, pp. 950–951). In the haircut example given by Dong and Sivakumar (2017), customers must be present for a haircut (mandatory CP) and may choose to research suitable hairstyles to enhance their experience (voluntary CP) or replace an employee by doing the hair styling themselves (replaceable CP). In the example, customers participate because such participation may benefit them. If they suggest good ideas to the hair salon, their behavior is CEB, not CP. Similar to voluntary CP, CEBs also include voluntary behaviors. But, CEBs create value for both parties (e.g., customers and the hair salon), not just customers themselves. The ultimate goal of CEBs is value co-creation, where actors in interactions jointly create value.

The notion of resources lies at the core of our definition of CEBs. At the individual level, resources are defined as "objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies" (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). In the strategic management literature, the discussion of corporate resources has been extensive, particularly in articles drawing upon the resource-based theory (Araujo & Easton, 1999). These resources are valuable to firms and relate to competitive advantage due to their rarity, inimitability, and lack of substitutability (Barney, 1991; Hunt & Morgan, 1995). Moreover, firm resources are also beneficial to customers as they provide unique resources and thus advantages (Dorsch et al., 2017). S-D logic distinguishes between operand and operant resources. Operand resources such as natural resources are enablers or facilitators, and they need some operation to be performed on them to generate value; whereas operant resources such as technology[1] and human skills are actors or

[1] According to Lusch and Nambisan (2015), technology, broadly defined as the application of knowledge, plays a dual role and can function as both an operand resource (as an enabler facilitating business effectiveness) and an operant resource (as an actor initiating improvement). Along the operand-and-operant-resource continuum, we position technology as an operant resource that facilitates resource integration and instigates changes. This perspective aligns with today's marketing realities. Because of high costs, technology is not a market offering for most companies but often employed as a medium (Kozinets & Gretzel, 2021).

initiators, and they produce effects by acting on operand and other operant resources (Constantin & Lusch, 1994; Lusch & Nambisan, 2015).

With the shift to value co-creation in marketing, operant resources become more practically purposeful than operand resources (Arnould et al., 2006; Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2016). Only through the application of operant resources can operand resources unveil their value and become meaningful. Managerially, being mindful of customer operant resources, firms could "anticipate customers' desired values" and "create value in use," as the life goals of customers "are a configuration of operant resources" (Arnould et al., 2006, p. 93). Operant resources are "the fundamental source of competitive advantage" (Vargo & Lusch, 2016, p. 8) and "determine which firm resources customers are going to draw on" (Arnould et al., 2006, p. 93). Therefore, the success of CEBs depends heavily on operant resources (Hollebeek et al., 2019). As a result, we use operant resources as a supportive concept to categorize CEBs.

Four types of resources to categorize CEBs

As depicted in Fig. 1, CEBs are classified based on four types of resources: customer-invested cultural resources, customer-utilized cultural resources, customer-invested social resources, and customer-utilized social resources. Drawing from the nomenclature of Arnould et al. (2006), operant resources comprise physical, cultural, and social resources. Physical resources encompass sensorimotor endowment, energy, emotions, and strength, and the stock of customers' physical resources shapes their utilization of resources (Arnould et al., 2006). Although physical resources are important, they should not serve as a primary and substantial differentiator among CEBs. Engaged customers devote at least some physical resources (if not all of them) such as energy, regardless of the type of CEBs. Therefore, physical resources are essential for engagement but are not a key factor in distinguishing between different types of CEBs. To more effectively differentiate among CEBs, it is necessary to focus on other types of operant resources, such as cultural and social resources, which can play a more significant role in shaping the customer experience and generating unique value. By leveraging these types of resources, firms can better understand the complex and multifaceted nature of customer engagement.

Consistent with the principle of value co-creation and the notion of resource integration, we spotlight both resource investment and resource utilization. Customer-invested (or actor-provided) resources are operant resources that are innate to or possessed by the customer as a central actor. On the other hand, customer-utilized (or other-provided) resources are acquired from external sources such as companies, communities, and other customers. Although relationships can be initiated by either party, our attention is directed toward the customer.

Cultural (operant) resources customers invest and utilize Cultural resources are related to knowledge of cultural schemas (Arnouldet al., 2006) and involve competency-based resources such as knowledge, skills, and creativity (see Harmeling et al., 2017; Hollebeek et al., 2019). Additionally, cultural resources consist of customer resources based on tastes and values (Arnouldet al., 2006; Bourdieu, 1984; Holt, 1998). A cultural good "is a constituted taste … charged with the legitimizing, reinforcing capacity" (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 231). In summary, when considering cultural resources in a broader sense, it becomes evident that both customer-invested and customer-utilized cultural resources should be construed based on competence, tastes, and values. They all together are positively related to orientations toward "abstraction, subjectivity, and self-expression" (Arnouldet al., 2006, p. 94; Holt, 1998). Customers, growing as "cultural creatives" (Ray & Anderson, 2000), seek to express their lifestyles and tastes when interacting with brands. They are increasingly interested in engaging with firms through brand stories, in addition to engagement through technology and platforms. Therefore, broadly defining cultural resources can provide insights into emerging trends, allowing firms to stay relevant and competitive in the dynamic landscape of CEBs.

Cultural resources that customers *invest* in CEBs include generic or brand-specific knowledge, brand experience, context-relevant skills, informed opinions, distinctive tastes, hobbies, values, and endowed or learned beliefs. Cultural resources that customers *utilize* incorporate resources based on firm competence and values, and they mainly include (a) business competencies, such as technologies, platforms, technological know-how, market intelligence, skills of managers and workers, etc., and (b) value-based firm characteristics, such as corporate cultures, corporate reputation, brand images, brand stories, controlling and coordinating systems, etc.

Social (operant) resources customers invest and utilize Rooted in relationships, social resources arise from social roles and positions and require mobilization through social connections (Arnould et al., 2006). In Putnam's thesis (1993), the term "social capital" is used to describe community moral resources, and it crystallizes into social relations that exist in civic engagement and integrates social obligations and positive values such as trust. Similarly, Bourdieu (1986, p. 249) interprets social capital as "a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition," and he presumes that social ties are useful for increasing social power. Consumer research literature has also explored social resources. For example, virtual communities generate social capital or resources, "from which instrumental

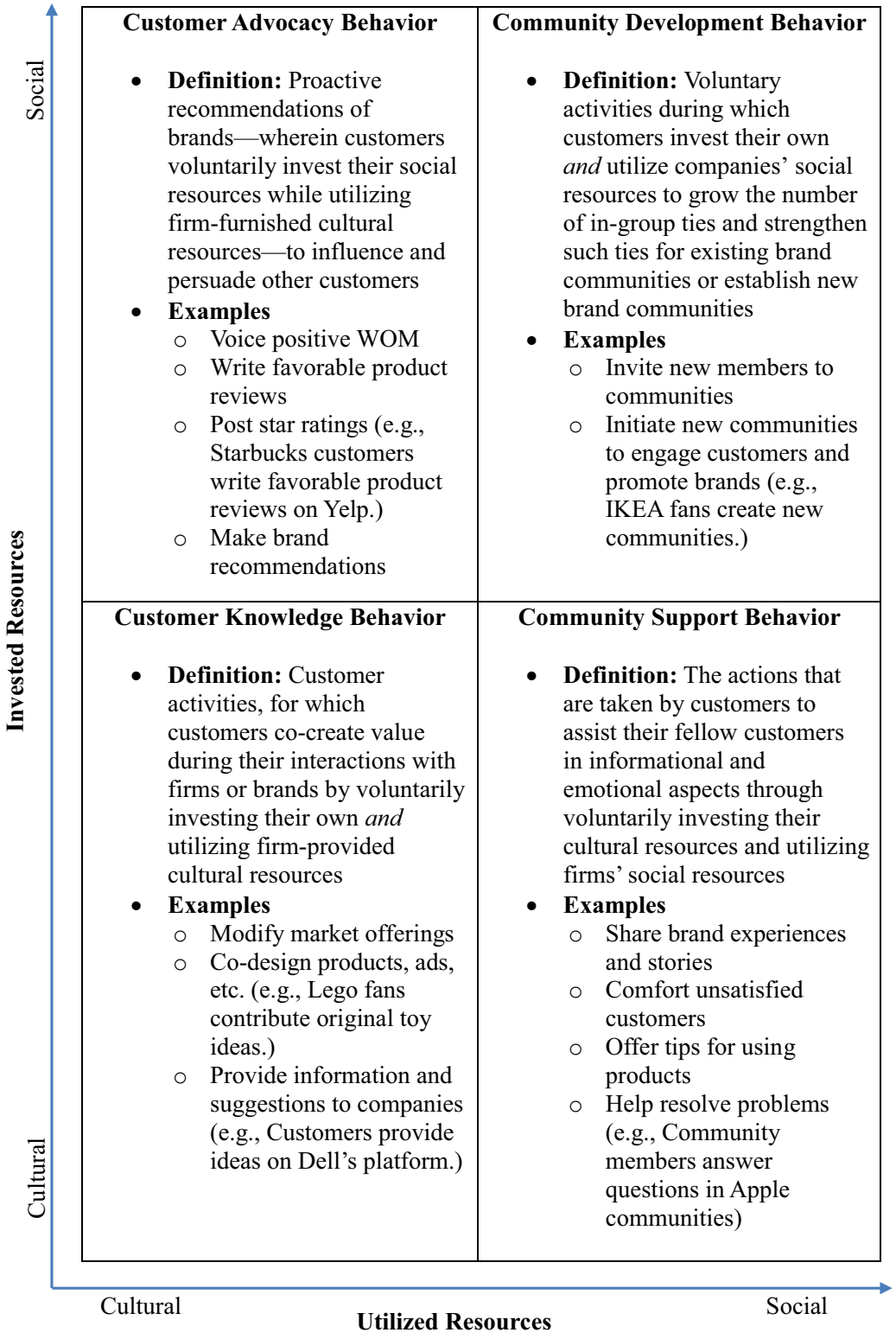

Fig. 1 A resource-based typology of CEBs

and expressive benefits will flow," and those resources are "governed by relational norms of voluntarism, reciprocity, and social trust" (Mathwick et al., 2008, pp. 833–834). Based on these arguments, social resources required for CEBs involve the relationships cemented by shared identities, reciprocity, trust, social values, and obligations. Individuals connect with others based on proximity in terms of lineage (e.g., parents), work (e.g., colleagues), location (e.g., neighbors), religion (e.g., church members), education (e.g., alumni), memberships (e.g., club members), romantic relationships (e.g., significant others), etc. Social resources provide support in the forms of companionship, information sharing, and ameliorating stress (Granovetter, 1973).

The social resources that customers *invest* in CEBs can be their ties with family, relatives, friends, colleagues, alumni, social media followers, and others. These resources are similar to Arnould et al. (2006, p. 6) "traditional demographic groupings (families, ethnic groups, social class)" and some of the emergent groupings such as sub-cultures and friendship groups. Likewise, firms accrue social resources through their social networks, and those resources can be derived from inter-organizational relationships with other organizations and interpersonal relationships among stakeholders such as employees and customers (Araujo & Easton, 1999; Barney, 1991). However, not all stakeholders are equally relevant to CEBs. Customers who undertake CEBs often have more opportunities to get involved at the interpersonal (vs. inter-organizational) level, interacting with a firm's employees and customers (vs. other stakeholders such as its business partners). Thus, in some sense, firm-provided social resources that customers *utilize* mainly refer to the harmonious relationships firms have with their employees and customers. The relationships can be formed through brand communities (which are relevant to "emergent groupings" in Arnould et al., 2006). The customers in these communities are not just loyal customers but also encapsulate ordinary customers and even prospects. For instance, in restaurants and similar shared service settings, customers—including regular diners and first-time visitors—interact with each other both online, through brand communities, and in person, such as at neighboring tables. Restaurants facilitate the process of inter-customer interactions by providing customers with social resources through close-knit brand communities. Customers in the community utilize restaurant-provided social resources to engage with restaurants by helping other diners, sharing their dining experiences, and more.

A typology of CEBs

Utilizing the definition of CEBs and their associated resources from the preceding discussion, we propose a typology of CEBs. As illustrated in Fig. 1, social and cultural resources (whether invested or utilized) are situated along a continuum rather than being strictly categorical. The typology can help advance the theoretical understanding of CEBs and provide marketers with a structured framework to classify these behaviors, which can, in turn, inform the development of effective engagement strategies.

Customer knowledge behavior Consistent with our definition of CEBs, Customer Knowledge Behavior refers to customer activities, for which customers co-create value during their interactions with firms or brands by voluntarily investing their own *and* utilizing firm-provided cultural resources. As for this type of engagement behavior, customers, as information providers or co-developers, contribute to firms' knowledge development process for purposes such as product or service improvements and innovations (Kumar et al., 2010). Customers work together with companies to create products, marketing content, or idea-centric solutions. Engaged customers *invest* their cultural resources, such as skills, knowledge, experience, personal tastes, informed opinions, etc. The resources that customers *utilize* for their knowledge behaviors are company-provided cultural resources, such as corporate policies, employees' skills, coordinating systems, technology platforms, brand stories, etc. Customer Knowledge Behavior has become one of the major sources for companies to glean information and ideas from customers. Specific engagement forms include the modification of market offerings, co-design of products and ads, and provision of ideas and suggestions to companies (Brodie et al., 2013; Eigenraam et al., 2018; Kumar et al., 2010; Verleye et al., 2014). For instance, Lego fans and users contribute their original toy ideas.

Customer Knowledge Behavior is different from two related concepts: co-production and crowdsourcing. Co-production refers to the involvement of customers in the creation or delivery of a product or service (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). In the IKEA case, the buyer, as a co-producer, is required to perform assembly tasks as a means of completing the product, thereby necessitating their participation in the production process and the investment of cultural resources, such as assembling skills. Co-production lacks "a broader interactive character as is associated with CEB" (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014, p. 248). Assembling furniture from IKEA is limited to following the instructions and tools provided by the company, and there is little room for interactivity. Unlike co-production, CEBs allow for a more continuous and interactive relationship. Product or service creation in Customer Knowledge Behavior enables customers to create interactive brand experiences, which are "beyond the selection of predetermined options" (van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 254). Crowdsourcing pertains to participation in tasks such as user-oriented ideation for new product development, functional design solutions for product improvement, and creative ideas for marketing initiatives

(Allen et al., 2018; Thompson & Malaviya, 2013). While overlapping somewhat with crowdsourcing, Customer Knowledge Behavior has a narrower range of participants, being limited to customers. In contrast, the core of crowdsourcing is to utilize the wisdom of crowds, including organizations, citizens, experts, professionals, everyday consumers, etc. Additionally, CEBs are essentially voluntary activities, whereas crowdsourcing is often incentivized by firms through various forms, such as the "Crash the Super Bowl" contest where customers create ads for Doritos.

Customer advocacy behavior This engagement type is defined as proactive recommendations of brands—wherein customers voluntarily invest their social resources while utilizing firm-furnished cultural resources—to influence and persuade other customers. Customers who act as non-paid brand loyalists engage in activities such as spreading positive word-of-mouth (WOM), writing favorable product reviews on online platforms, and making offline or online brand recommendations (Berger, 2014; Brodie et al., 2013; Eigenraam et al., 2018; Eisingerich et al., 2015; van Doorn et al., 2010; Verleye et al., 2014). Customer Advocacy Behavior is organic without the direct influence of marketers, and brands may be more easily accepted by potential customers. This concept differs from incentivized referral behaviors, which are transactional. Customers who participate in incentivized referral programs are extrinsically motivated by rewards such as gift cards and financial incentives from companies (Kumar et al., 2010).

Customers *invest* their own social resources, such as family relationships and social media followers, and those who possess ample social resources within a social network are considered influential customers or opinion leaders. Engaged customers also *utilize* company-furnished cultural resources, such as brand images, corporate reputation, brand stories, and competencies in delivering satisfactory offerings. For instance, when recommending iPhones, customers mobilize their networks, such as family members or friends (i.e., invested social resources), while also leveraging Apple's reputation for security and quality (i.e., utilized cultural resources). In the process of WOM and recommendations, brand and marketing messages are conveyed to other people through social ties (Berger, 2014). When performing Customer Advocacy Behavior, customers invest their social resources. Their relationships with others can range from strong ties, such as close friends, to weak ties, such as acquaintances. The tie strength is indicated by the frequency and importance of interactions (Granovetter, 1973). Since social ties are built on trust and reputation (Eisingerich et al., 2015; Putnam, 1993), Customer Advocacy Behavior assumes social risks, such as the possibility of damaging one's reputation due to ill-considered recommendations.

Both types of CEBs above require firms to provide cultural resources that can be utilized by engaged customers. Two other types of CEBs require social resources provided by the company, which are networked relationships between customers and the company, as well as between customers and other customers. Social resources and group membership are closely intertwined, and individuals' access to social resources is affected by their membership in certain social groups (Bourdieu, 1986). By identifying with a particular social group, they develop a sense of belonging and shared identity. Intragroup support and intergroup persuasion are two approaches that help sustain and reinforce social identity. Intragroup support, as exemplified in Community Support Behavior, pertains to providing social support for members within one's group. For example, a group of iPhone enthusiasts may offer advice to one another. On the other hand, intergroup persuasion, as reflected in Community Development Behavior, involves the use of social influence to convince members from other groups.

In the context of CEBs, companies' social resources are centered around a specific brand. Those resources are positive relationships with customers, such as brand admirers and early adopters, who are often organized by physical or virtual brand communities. This is why the term "community" is used in Community Support Behavior and Community Development Behavior. Brand communities can be hosted or sponsored by companies, managed by third parties, or initiated by customers. Another way to categorize communities is to distinguish between organic brand communities (where local fans share stories about their brand interactions) and company-facilitated brand communities (where community events are officially sponsored by companies). It should be noted that although company-run communities themselves are cultural resources, they aid in the governance of social resources. Community members share traditions, values, responsibilities, and intrinsic connections (Muniz & O'guinn, 2001). Brand communities allow customers to engage with other customers and the company in a triadic relationship that goes beyond the traditional customer-company dyad (Muniz & O'guinn, 2001).

Community support behavior Based on the resource-based perspective, Community Support Behavior refers to the actions that are taken by customers to assist their fellow customers in informational and emotional aspects through voluntarily investing their cultural resources and utilizing firms' social resources. Owing to similar or complementary interests, customers who perform Community Support Behavior share brand-related stories and experiences, comfort unsatisfied customers, offer tips for product use and practical instructions on new gadgets, and help resolve problems and conflicts. Engaged customers *invest* their competence-based cultural resources, such as knowledge, and

taste-based cultural resources, such as hobbies, tastes, values, and beliefs. In brand communities, they share ideas and information and contribute solutions to product problems (Mathwick et al., 2008). For instance, members of Apple communities answer questions raised by other users and clear up brand-related problems to enhance Apple's reputation. The community members also create community rituals or post brand stories on sharing sites like Pinterest. When undertaking Community Support Behavior, customers *utilize* a company's social resources. In return, this helps to safeguard these resources from being diluted and contributes to the accumulation of more cultural and social resources for the company. For example, sharing brand-related stories and experiences is conducive to maintaining "the legacy and thus survival of brand cultures," and "reinforces consciousness of kind between brand members" (Muniz & O'guinn, 2001, p. 423). Peer support can provide customers with a sense of connection and belonging within networks, leading to the preservation and enhancement of corporate social resources.

Customers' utilization of firms' community-based social resources sets Community Support Behavior apart from customer citizenship behavior (CCB). CCB involves voluntary customer behaviors, such as helping other customers, that are not obligatory for completing a transaction with a company or brand, yet they can positively impact the well-being of the business or other customers (Groth, 2005; Yi & Gong, 2013). Both Community Support Behavior and CCB involve a "brand" element and inter-customer helping. Community Support Behavior is centered on utilizing social resources provided by brand communities, such as shared knowledge and experiences. In contrast, the use of social resources is not always necessary for CCB. CCB can occur in contexts that are not necessarily associated with brand communities, such as in a physical store or through customer service interactions. An example of CCB could be when a customer who is not an employee voluntarily helps another customer carry heavy bags in a grocery store. This helping behavior is not necessarily motivated by participation in a brand community but rather a general act of kindness between individuals.

Community development behavior Both Customer Advocacy Behavior and Community Development Behavior aim to persuade others. However, the latter behavior focuses on advocating or recommending brand communities, rather than just products or brands. Community Development Behavior involves voluntary activities, during which customers invest their own *and* also utilize companies' social resources to strengthen existing brand communities or to establish new ones. Corporate social resources include amicable relationships with employees and customers. Communities play a role in generating social resources (Mathwick et al., 2008) and bring together customers who have a strong attachment to specific brands (Muniz & O'guinn, 2001). It is likely that customers enact Community Development Behavior within their networks and engage with familiar community members, while drawing on companies' social resources, such as brand enthusiasts, to establish strong user bases for new communities.

The concepts of ingroups and outgroups are central to understanding community development. There are two primary methods for expanding existing brand communities: strengthening social cohesion among ingroup members and increasing community appeal to outgroup members. Aside from providing intragroup support, it is equally imperative for current community members to persuade individuals from outside the community to join. To maintain self-sufficiency within the community, it may be more effective to rely on existing members (rather than companies) to recruit new members. Acquiring new members is a critical responsibility of community members (Muniz & O'guinn, 2001), and it also serves to maintain overall cohesion within the social categories to which customers belong.

Customers can create new brand communities on their own without any involvement or assistance from companies (O'Sullivan et al., 2011). Those who are dedicated and knowledgeable may be concerned about the absence of existing brand communities that fulfill their specific needs. As a result, they may initiate new communities and set up rules to enable smooth interactions between members around admired brands (Amine & Sitz, 2004). Examples of this include the creation of IKEAhackers and HDTalking by fans of IKEA and Harley-Davidson, respectively. Community initiators in these instances typically have a substantial following (i.e., personal social resources) and devote their own social resources to establishing and maintaining fledgling communities.

A conceptual framework of CEBs based on resource characteristics

Instead of simply describing particular engagement phenomena, the foregoing typology explicates the meaning of CEBs and delineates four dimensions related to resources. The notion of "resources" is pivotal in categorizing a broad spectrum of CEBs. We contend that the attributes of resources can further serve as a foundation for relevant theories to guide the development of conceptual frameworks. Fundamental attributes of resources include scarcity, investibility, and exchangeability (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). Inferred attributes of resources encompass instrumentality, accumulability, and status communicability. We present a conceptual framework (see Fig. 2) of customers' intention to undertake CEBs.

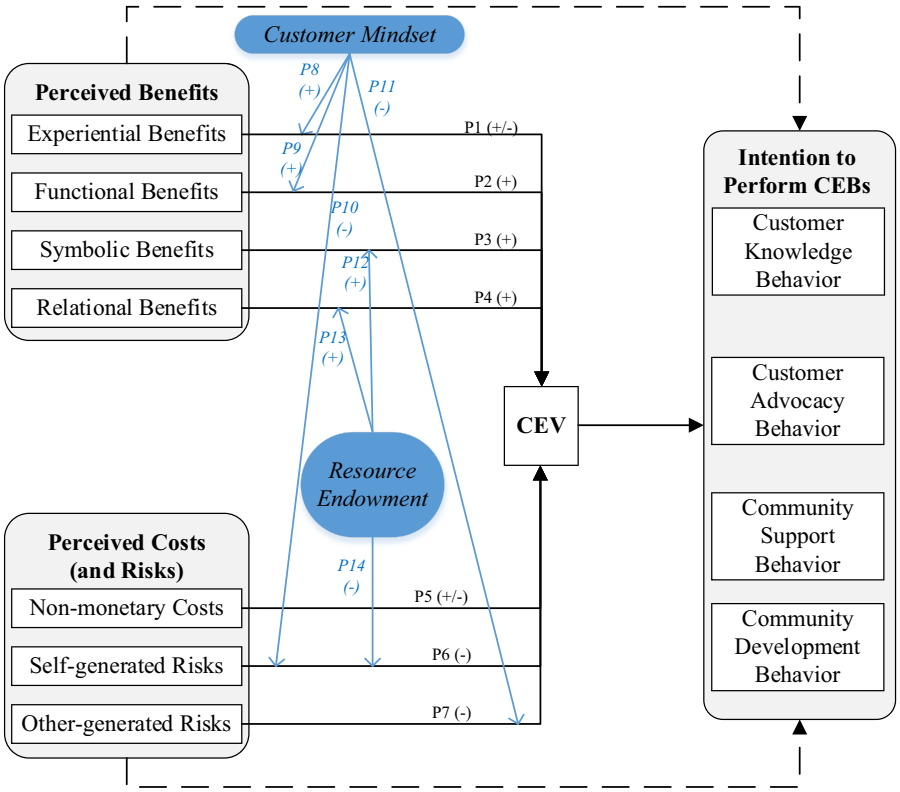

Fig. 2 A resource-based conceptual framework of CEBs. Note. —The long-dotted lines denote possible direct paths that were not discussed conceptually in the framework

Fundamental resource attributes → antecedents in the framework

According to the tenets of the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001), valuable resources are scarce and limited, thus individuals are miserly in expending personal resources and tend to conserve their resources and acquire new resources. Consequently, expending resources implies a loss for customers, whose proclivity toward engagement is thus susceptible to potential costs and risks associated with CEBs. Despite resource scarcity, individuals are willing to invest their resources. This is because resources serve as a means in pursuit of goals (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) and can be invested to attain objectives (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Resources are meaningful in social exchanges in that they flow between parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The investibility and exchangeability of resources signify that they bring benefits that satisfy customer needs and wants. The scarcity, investibility, and exchangeability of resources align with the principles of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which posits that resource flow is ongoing, and an individual's relationship decision is driven by the perceived overall worth based on the costs and rewards of the relationship (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Social exchanges appertain to one party's long-term social obligations to the other party, denoting that the party does not expect immediate rewards but often relies on the goodwill of the other party (Blau, 1964). However, risks associated with the social context and the other party may also arise, such as social disapproval and mutual distrust, albeit in a subtle manner. (The conceptual differences between costs and risks will be detailed later.) Therefore, social exchange theory informs a cost–benefit analytic approach in which customers strive to maximize equity and valued benefits in the long term. Bagozzi (1974) has extended the theory to the marketing domain and expanded the scope of social exchanges beyond an interpersonal level. Firms, like consumers and salespersons, are also social actors who define an exchange system (Bagozzi, 1974). Social exchange models differ from economic exchange models, such as a one-off purchase transaction (Bagozzi, 1974), and hence align with the relational approach we adopt to define CEBs. According to social exchange theory (Bagozzi, 1974; Blau, 1964), customers' decision to undertake CEBs involves a relational choice, where they undergo a cost–benefit analytic process that considers not only transactional benefits. Customers' comparison of benefits and costs alludes to perceived value (Zeithaml, 1988).

Our definition of CEBs implies that value can be derived from CEBs through customers' resource integration.[2] A large body of literature has established a positive (negative) relationship between perceived benefits (costs) and value (Pandža Bajs, 2015). Value, in turn, influences purchasing and other behavioral intentions (Pandža Bajs, 2015; Zeithaml, 1988). Thus, perceived customer engagement value or CEV may be one mechanism that explains how perceived benefits, costs, and risks affect customers' intention to perform CEBs. In this research, based on Zeithaml's (1988) definition of value, perceived CEV refers to the overall worth of engagement activities, and it involves a cognitive comparison of both the potential benefits and costs associated with undertaking CEBs. Customers are unlikely to perform CEBs unless the perceived benefits of CEBs exceed the perceived costs and risks. Prior engagement research (e.g., Cheema & Kaikati, 2010; Hoyer et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014) has discussed customers' perceived engagement benefits and costs. However, it remains unclear how different types of benefits, costs, and risks affect customers' tendency to undertake different types of CEBs. Below, we will explore the distinctive effects of four perceived benefits (including experiential, functional, symbolic, and relational benefits) and three perceived costs and risks (including non-monetary costs, self-generated risks, and other-generated risks).

Perceived benefits associated with CEBs

Derived from the expectations of fulfilling one's needs, perceived benefits are commonly classified into three categories (namely, experiential, functional, and symbolic), as identified in multiple domains, such as products or services (e.g., Gwinner et al., 1998; Woods, 1960), brands (e.g., Park et al., 1986), and activities (e.g., Maimaran & Fishbach, 2014). While the three categories may be labeled slightly differently, they serve as a general framework for categorizing benefits. We expand on the previous categorization in the context of CEBs and also examine customers' perceived relational benefits. This is because our research takes a relational perspective on CEBs that entail dyadic or triadic relationships.

[2] The S-D logic framework embraces "value-in-use", meaning that value is co-created, derived, and determined by beneficiaries (usually customers) during their use of resources (Vargo & Lusch, 2006, 2016). Different from the term "utility" which is often equivalent to "embedded value," value in S-D logic "cannot be embedded through manufacturing (value-in-exchange)" (Vargo & Lusch, 2006, p. 44). Firms "cannot deliver value; they can only offer a value proposition as an invitation to engage with the firm (and potentially other actors) for the cocreation of value" (Lusch & Nambisan, 2015, pp. 159–160; Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Perceived experiential benefits They satiate customer needs for hedonistic pleasure and sensory experiences, such as enjoyment, excitement, curiosity, variety, and novelty. These benefits "are an integral part of the activity itself and are realized at the time of pursuing the activity … the experience … forms its end … the activity is intrinsically motivated" (Maimaran & Fishbach, 2014, p. 643). Therefore, customers derive experiential benefits from the process or experience of engagement activities. In other words, experiential benefits are process-related and offer entertainment value, activating customers' intrinsic motivation and increasing their engagement intention. Since all CEBs involve interactions and experiential processes, perceived experiential benefits have similar effects across the four types of CEBs. Thus, we present the following proposition (P).

P1 Perceived experiential benefits will heighten perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The positive effects will be similar (not significantly different) across the four types of CEBs.

Perceived functional benefits They fulfill functional needs, which, according to Park et al. (1986), are externally generated by the goals of resolving customers' existing problems or avoiding potential losses or risks. Perceived functional benefits represent utilitarian value and help customers reach their desired goals of successfully addressing such problems. Examples of functional benefits include co-designed ads, customized products, and increased popularity of brand communities. These benefits are roughly equivalent to Maimaran and Fishbach's (2014) instrumental benefits, which are linked to the outcomes of activities, rather than the enjoyment derived from them. To summarize, functional benefits are driven by goals and outcomes and can result in instrumental value.

The nature of functional benefits is consistent with CEBs that are driven by private goals such as obtaining customized products (rather than social goals such as solving other customers' problems). Private goals are often implicit when customers invest in and utilize cultural resources, as opposed to social resources. Customer-invested cultural resources involve intelligence, knowledge, skills, experience, values, and so on. Through endowed intelligence, individuals acquire specialized knowledge, context-specific skills, or expertise in specific tasks (e.g., co-design). Hobfoll (1989) conceptualizes knowledge-based resources as energy resources that can be converted into desired states or objects, such as personalized products with desirable features. Therefore, perceived functional benefits will have a greater impact on the CEBs that require customers to *invest* their own cultural resources and *utilize* company-provided cultural resources, i.e., Customer Knowledge Behavior. We use "relative to" in the following propositions to indicate a greater likelihood in comparison

to the other categories. This corresponds to our earlier point that engagement types (see Fig. 1) are positioned along a continuum from cultural resources to social resources.

P2 Perceived functional benefits will heighten perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The positive effects will be greater for performing Customer Knowledge Behavior relative to three other types of CEBs.

Perceived symbolic benefits They address symbolic needs, which, according to Park et al. (1986), are internally determined and involve "self-enhancement, role position, group membership, or ego-identification" (p. 136). In other words, perceived symbolic benefits are associated with personal expression, self-image, self-esteem, and social approval. Through CEBs, customers can express their pride in recommending favorite brands, show their mastery of certain skills, or gain prestige and social esteem via advising fellow community members. Symbolic benefits indicate expressive value by associating customers with their desired images or roles. The expressive nature of symbolic benefits aligns with the facilitative nature of CEBs in expressing the positive self. Self-expression oftentimes operates through cultural resources (Arnould et al., 2006; Bourdieu, 1986; Holt, 1998) that primarily involve knowledgeability and competence. These merits are central to one's self-concept (Bandura, 1986; Tafarodi & Swann, 1995), which refers to a sum of perceptions, thoughts, and attitudes about oneself as an object (Rosenberg, 1979; Sirgy, 1982). However, personal knowledge that can demonstrate competence is generally private and unobservable to other people (Berger, 2014). Customers may attempt to signal their capabilities by undertaking certain engagement behaviors that make the covert positive "self" more overt. Compared to private contexts, social contexts (e.g., communities)—where companies' social resources play a role—may be more effective in enabling individuals to signal their competence to others. That is, by leveraging social (vs. cultural) resources that companies provide, customers more easily enrich and reinforce their self-concept through their owned cultural resources. Thus, perceived symbolic benefits may be more likely to be valued when customers perform CEBs that require investing cultural resources and utilizing company-provided social resources, i.e., Community Support Behavior.

P3 Perceived symbolic benefits will heighten perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The positive effects will be greater for performing Community Support Behavior relative to three other types of CEBs.

Perceived relational benefits They are derived directly from relationships and have been widely discussed in the realm of services. Relational benefits refer to "those benefits customers receive from long-term relationships above and beyond the core service performance" (Gwinner et al., 1998, p. 102). That is, benefits resulting from core offerings, such as timely service delivery, are not considered relational benefits. Our research modifies Gwinner et al. (1998) definition, and proposes that relational benefits germane to CEBs are those that arise from customers' amicable relationships with companies or other customers. By meeting customers' social needs for developing and maintaining relationships, perceived relational benefits contribute to the creation of CEV and, consequently, increase customers' intention to perform CEBs. The positive impact of relational benefits may vary across different types of CEBs. CEB-generated relational benefits can be developing bonds and affiliations with favorite companies or brands, harvesting and intensifying friendships (with employees or other customers), obtaining social support (e.g., being encouraged and cared for), and feeling a sense of belongingness or social connections to brand communities.

The realization of these benefits is reliant on social contexts, whether they be inter-customer or customer-employee interactions, and customers, as beneficiaries, must engage in a social process. Social resources embody certain values such as respect and come with social obligations such as reciprocity (Bourdieu, 1986; Putnam, 1993). When performing CEBs that integrate social (vs. cultural) resources, customers are more likely to be affected by perceived relational benefits. Customers who have invested in social resources create social networks and are motivated to expand them by seeking social support from company-provided social resources, that is, customer relationships. In essence, the impact of perceived relational benefits may be greater on CEBs in which customers *invest* and *utilize* social resources, i.e., Community Development Behavior.

P4 Perceived relational benefits will heighten perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The positive effects will be greater for performing Community Development Behavior relative to three other types of CEBs.

Perceived costs and risks associated with CEBs

The potential benefits of CEBs are often accompanied by costs and risks that are imposed on customers. Costs are those monetary or non-monetary sacrifices (e.g., financial payments and energy expended) incurred to acquire products or services (Zeithaml, 1988), whereas risks are related to negative outcomes or uncertainty (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001; Sheth & Parvatlyar, 1995). Perceived risks are a matter of probability of occurrence. The risks associated with performing CEBs are mostly caused by customers' (a) concerns for or fears of undesired outcomes (with a probability of occurrence) of engagement tasks and (b) uncertainty

about negative events that may occur during the process of task completion.

Perceived non-monetary costs Zeithaml (1988) defines costs in terms of sacrifices in the purchase situation. We adapt this definition to describe costs specific to CEBs and only consider non-monetary costs of CEBs, which are mostly concerned with physical resources such as time and energy. As noted earlier, given physical resources are inherent in all CEBs, they do not provide a consequential basis for distinguishing between different types of CEBs. Since non-monetary costs are mainly incurred by expending physical resources, they are not unique to a particular type of CEB. Non-monetary costs are experienced by all engaged customers, and all CEBs face similar non-monetary costs. For example, Customer Knowledge Behavior (e.g., creating ads) or Customer Advocacy Behavior (e.g., writing product reviews) both entail time and effort, irrespective of the type of behavior being performed. Therefore, the impacts of non-monetary costs are indistinguishable across CEBs.

P5 Perceived non-monetary costs will decrease perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The negative effects will be similar (not significantly different) across the four types of CEBs.

Perceived self-generated risks Within the consumption context, scholars have extensively documented a broad array of perceived risks that consumers may encounter, such as performance, functional, financial, social, and psychological risks (Dholakia, 2001; Greenleaf & Lehmann, 1995). Our research narrows the scope of perceived risk types to specifically address the context of CEBs. Some risks, such as physical safety (as a functional risk), are deemed largely irrelevant to CEBs as these behaviors rarely lead to injuries or put customers in danger. Thus, the focus of our research is on psychological and social risks. Psychological risks are viewed as negative post-purchase emotions, such as regret and disappointment, and social risks refer to concerns for "the adverse consequences associated with unfavorable opinions of significant other people on account of purchase and use of the product" (Dholakia, 2001, p. 1342). Greenleaf and Lehmann (1995) group psychological and social risks into the same risk type. They are both outcome-related risks that involve negative psychological reactions to the consequences of purchase behavior, resulting in damage to positive self-perception or others' perception of oneself. These risks are considered self-generated vulnerabilities that arise due to customers' own actions. So, we broadly treat psychological and social risks as self-generated risks.

Self-generated risks specific to CEBs are potential psychological discomforts that result from engagement activities and include embarrassment, social disapproval, loss of confidence, and so on. For example, in co-design tasks, customers may feel depressed about design failures or experience anxiety over the loss of their reputation within their social networks. In other words, self-generated risks are related to the potential loss of self-image. Relative to social resources, cultural resources, which aid in self-expression (Arnould et al., 2006; Holt, 1998), are more closely related to the self, as they are connected with self-concept. Our argument is supported by research on competence and taste, which are cultural resources. Competence resides centrally in self-concept (Bandura, 1986; Tafarodi & Swann, 1995). Taste can be viewed as (a) "a device for affiliation" that signals preferences and boundaries or (b) "a standard for discriminating the laudable from the pedestrian" that showcases power and status (McQuarrie et al., 2013, p.139). Both functions of taste are connected with self-concept. In short, customers may be more vulnerable to self-generated risks when deciding to invest personal cultural (vs. social) resources in CEBs. Thus, we suggest that perceived self-generated risks play a more decisive role in Customer Knowledge Behavior and Community Support Behavior than in Customer Advocacy Behavior and Community Development Behavior.

P6 Perceived self-generated risks will decrease perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The negative effects will be greater for Customer Knowledge Behavior and Community Support Behavior, relative to (a) Customer Advocacy Behavior and (b) Community Development Behavior.

Perceived other-generated risks In addition to self-generated risks, customers are also vulnerable to other-generated risks that are process-related and arise from uncertainties during the process of *utilizing* company-furnished resources. In this process, other-generated risks stem from customers' concerns about corporate technologies, competencies, policies, and so forth. Privacy breaches, for instance, raise doubts about companies' customer data protection policies (i.e., cultural resources). Customers worry about corporate privacy practices, as well as policies governing transparent information exchange and free expression of ideas (Malhotra et al., 2004). Conversely, companies' social resources primarily consist of current and potential customers bonded by brand communities. A vibrant brand community requires conformity to social norms and values, along with the fulfillment of community responsibilities (Muniz & O'guinn, 2001). During the process of utilizing companies' social resources, other-generated risks involve violations of interpersonal etiquette and protocols, such as dishonesty, rudeness, and boundary transgressions in brand communities. Self-generated risks pertain to the trust directed to companies (including their employees) and other customers. Customers assess the risks based on the expected practices of other parties.

CEBs are generally discussed in the relationship marketing area (Vivek et al., 2012), with trust being a fundamental concept that is closely linked to risk (Mitchell, 1999). Other-generated risks can be considered trust-based risks. The breakdown of interactions within a complex social network can make trust more vulnerable. Social resources that customers invest in CEBs complicate the patterns of social networks, resulting in heterogeneous networks. Regarding CEBs that necessitate the investment of social resources, customers engage in a triadic relationship characterized by interactions among customers and between the focal company and its current and potential customers. The company and its employees act as intermediaries for customers. The customer-company dyad is embedded into the customer-company-other-customer triad. Customers in the triadic (vs. dyadic) relationship may encounter more ambiguities or uncertainties. Trust becomes even more crucial when interactions are variable and routines are lacking (Palmatier et al., 2013). In a triad (vs. dyad), distrust can arise from various sources, such as the focal company and other customers, making customer trust more fragile and vulnerable. A similar argument can be found in Wuyts et al. (2004) research on the buyer-vendor-supplier triad. In this triad, aside from the ties with their vendors, buyers are also concerned with the vendor-supplier tie (Wuyts et al., 2004). That is, buyers have more concerns for the buyer-vendor-supplier triad than the buyer-vendor dyad. Therefore, we anticipate a greater effect of perceived other-generated risks in triads (where customers invest social resources) compared to dyads (where customers invest cultural resources). The more complex the social network in which CEBs operate, the greater the role that perceived other-generated risks play in affecting customers' engagement intention.

P7 Perceived other-generated risks will decrease perceived CEV and, hence, customers' intention to perform CEBs. The negative effects will be greater for Customer Advocacy Behavior and Community Development Behavior, relative to (a) Customer Knowledge Behavior and (b) Community Support Behavior.

Thus far, our propositions have addressed the main effects of perceived benefits, costs, and risks on perceived CEV, and subsequently on customers' intention to perform various CEBs. Value perceptions involve an overall assessment of benefits and costs (Zeithaml, 1988) and are essentially subjective. Perceived value hinges on the specific situations and contexts in which individuals make evaluations (Pandža Bajs, 2015). The current research does not aim to offer an all-encompassing list of circumstances but rather focuses on two boundary conditions derived from the inferred attributes of resources.

Inferred resource attributes → moderators in the framework

Customer mindset

Resources are investible and exchangeable (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). The corollary to these attributes is that resources are motivational and instrumental in goal pursuits. Humans are intrinsically motivated to maintain and enhance their current personal resources and gain new ones (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). The value of resources is manifested in their capability to safeguard and procure valuable resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This, in turn, enables individuals to pursue their intrinsic and extrinsic objectives, leading to the attainment of desired end-states. The perceived value of goal pursuit can be derived from the process or outcome of achieving the goal. An individual's focus on process versus outcome may influence how they perceive the value of their engagement in that pursuit. Based on implicit theories (Dweck et al., 1995), growth and fixed mindset individuals (also referred to as incremental and entity theorists) tend to focus on the process and the outcome respectively (Butler, 2000; Mathur et al., 2016). Therefore, the customer mindset may serve as a potential moderator.

Individuals with a growth mindset perceive human attributes (e.g., intelligence) to be dynamic, flexible, and malleable, whereas those subscribing to a fixed mindset view these attributes as fixed and unchangeable (Butler, 2000; Dweck et al., 1995). Customer mindset plays a crucial role in shaping value judgments based on the available information (Butler, 2000). In the case of co-designing products, which is one form of Customer Knowledge Behavior, Mathur et al. (2016) suggest that the process-related value may derive from the enjoyment that arises from the process of designing an innovative product, while the outcome-related value may come from the product itself, which satisfies creators' special needs. When assessing CEV, customers with different mindsets may exhibit varying sensitivities to perceived benefits, costs, and risks. Of the four types of perceived benefits discussed earlier, experiential benefits, such as the fulfillment of excitement, are more closely associated with the *process* of undertaking CEBs, whereas functional benefits, such as personalized products, are more closely related to the *outcome* of the engagement activities. With regard to perceived risks, we distinguish between self-generated and other-generated risks. As illuminated above, self-generated risks are pertinent to the possibility of an undesired *outcome* arising from CEBs, such as disappointment with design failures, while other-generated risks involve concerns related to the *process* of performing CEBs, such as corporate privacy policies that ensure the smooth execution of CEBs. Thus, we posit:

P8 The positive effects of perceived experiential benefits on perceived CEV will be greater for growth (vs. fixed) mindset customers who are process focused.

P9 The positive effects of perceived functional benefits will be greater for fixed (vs. growth) mindset customers who are outcome focused.

P10 The negative effects of perceived self-generated risks will be greater for fixed (vs. growth) mindset customers who are outcome focused.

P11 The negative effects of other-generated risks on perceived CEV will be greater for growth (vs. fixed) mindset customers who are process focused.

Resource endowment

The investibility and instrumentality of resources suggest that they can be accumulated over time. Customers acquire new resources through investment and resource exchange based on their current resource reserves. A resource-based perspective should take into account the store of customers' existing resources prior to their CEBs. Through these resources, customers can obtain and integrate more target resources. Therefore, resource endowment is another potential moderator, which refers to the volume of total pre-existing resources that customers possess before they engage with companies. Possession of resources means owning and having control over them, as opposed to temporary access enabled by external sources. Customers with more cultural resources tend to be more knowledgeable, skilled, and highly educated, with refined hobbies and tastes and richer brand experience. Those with more social resources have a larger number of social ties and affiliations.

Possessing rich resources enables individuals to attain a sense of social status. Belk (1988) articulates that "having possessions functions to create and to maintain a sense of self-definition" (p. 146). Hobfoll (1989) contends that "[resources] help to define for people who they are" (p. 517). Through possessing objects or resources (i.e., "having"), individuals communicate their identities (i.e., "being"). In other words, they use their possessions as a means of expressing who they are and how they see themselves, as well as how they want others to perceive them. By amassing more resources, they may perceive themselves as having a higher social status. In summary, resources facilitate the process of defining oneself and communicating social status. This view is consistent with the fundamental tenet of Bourdieu's (1984) field theory. In particular, individuals accumulate and employ resources to compete for distinction and relative positions within specific social arenas or institutional domains, including but not limited to politics, arts, religion, academia, business, and consumption, where they strive to establish authority and power over others (Bourdieu, 1984; Holt, 1998). As a result, those with fewer resources tend to seek social approval and are more motivated by perceived symbolic benefits, while those with more resources have already satisfied their symbolic needs and are less sensitive to these benefits.

P12 The positive effects of perceived symbolic benefits on perceived CEV will be greater for customers with fewer resources.

The possession of abundant resources may reduce individuals' reliance on social relationships, which is consistent with previous research findings. Those who possess significant cultural resources tend to disengage from mass culture and seek unique opportunities to maintain the status distinction from the mainstream. Conversely, individuals with fewer cultural resources tend to seek association with dominant social groups that possess greater cultural resources, and they are more inclined to engage in group activities, such as gardening and hiking, to establish social interactions with peers rather than individual expressions of achievement (Holt, 1998). Social resources themselves fulfill the need for connecting with others to obtain support. Therefore, we contend that customers with fewer resources have a stronger desire for social connections and relational benefits than those with more resources. Put differently, perceived relational benefits exert a stronger effect on those customers with fewer (vs. more) resources.

P13 The positive effects of perceived relational benefits on perceived CEV will be greater for customers with fewer resources.

Resource constraints may induce a sense of environmental ambiguity and lower individuals' tolerance for unpredictability (Hamilton et al., 2019), which leads to feelings of insecurity and a reduced level of perceived control over the environment. These constraints may stem from limited access to financial resources, lack of skills or knowledge, or social barriers such as discrimination. Individuals lacking resources are more likely to feel powerless and may engage in compensatory consumption to restore their perceived reduced power and boost their status and self-esteem (Rucker & Galinsky, 2008). Thus, we anticipate that customers with fewer (vs. more) resources may be more vulnerable to self-generated risks such as damaged self-image.

P14 The negative effects of perceived self-generated risks will be greater for customers with fewer resources.

General discussion

We propose a resource-based conceptualization and classification of CEBs and then explore the drivers and moderators that influence engagement intentions. The resource-based typology and conceptual framework provide managerial implications.

Conceptualization and classification of CEBs

Prior work on customer engagement, such as Jaakkola and Alexander (2014) and Harmeling et al. (2017), has touched upon the notion of customer-owned resources. In keeping with the principle of resource integration, a fundamental tenet of S-D logic (Vargo and Lusch), our research advances this notion by emphasizing the significance of both resource investment and utilization in defining CEBs. This dual emphasis is also evident in engagement research across disciplines. For example, individuals *invest* their skills and also *utilize* organizational support to undertake civic engagement (Galston, 2001; Putnam, 1993) and employee engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This multidisciplinary approach supports inquiry from diverse perspectives and enables researchers to explore theories and arguments across various fields. Furthermore, we contribute to the understanding of operant resources and their role in CEBs. Cultural and social operant resources are used to distinguish various CEBs. We expand the scope of cultural resources beyond competence-based qualities to encapsulate customer tastes, values, and beliefs. This expansion may facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of CEBs and stimulate engagement research.

The typology of CEBs, which is inspired by theory, serves not only as a classification system but also as a framework built on well-developed supportive concepts, such as resources, operant resources, and resource integration. We propose a typology of CEBs based on four types of resources. A conceptually derived typology can reduce the complexity of different types, facilitating both reasoning and empirical investigation (Bailey, 1994; Doty & Glick, 1994). Our typology offers a parsimonious description and explanation of complex engagement forms, which is one of our key contributions. Such parsimony can help scholars to examine the characteristics of different CEBs, test the differences between them empirically, and further resource-relevant theories for CEBs.

A parsimonious typology is likely to generalize across different situations and help guide managerial decision-making in various customer engagement scenarios. Companies primarily provide cultural resources for Customer Knowledge Behavior and Customer Advocacy Behavior, which may include advanced technological tools, trustworthy policies, employees' skills, and brand history and stories. For instance, Lush, a UK-based cosmetics retailer, relies on customer advocacy and attributes its success to its cultural authenticity and competent employees rather than a large advertising budget (Jones & Manktelow, 2017). Tiffany enhances customer engagement on social media by sharing its design history (https://twitter.com/tiffanyandco). Practitioners could also create distinctive brand memories and convey purposeful brand meanings, such as Harley-Davidson's creation of a rebellious image to meet customers' need for self-distinctiveness. Based on our typology, companies provide social resources to cultivate Community Support Behavior and Community Development Behavior. These resources involve current and potential customers who are usually bonded by brand communities. Firms have more control over communities operated by them than those managed independently. Companies could make efforts to build shared consciousness and responsibility in their brand communities but should refrain from excessively interfering in customer-run community matters.

A conceptual framework of CEBs

From the customer's perspective, our research investigates four types of engagement benefits—experiential benefits, functional benefits, symbolic benefits, and relational benefits—and three types of engagement costs and risks—non-monetary costs, self-generated risks, and other-generated risks. Some of them have been considered by a handful of researchers, such as Cheema and Kaikati (2010) and Zhang et al. (2014). It is of concern that four types of CEBs have distinct attributes. We contribute by unpacking their complexities and examining their impacts on customers' engagement intentions. Our work discusses both commonalities and differences in terms of the impacts on engagement likelihood. Our findings have implications for marketers seeking to understand CEBs.

Proposition 5 posits that non-monetary costs (e.g., time and energy) negatively affect customers' intention to perform all types of CEBs. To facilitate effective resource integration, companies should avoid overly "exploiting" customers and create supportive environments. As Proposition 1 elucidates, experiential benefits are of vital importance to all CEBs. To enhance customer experiences, companies can offer cultural resources to customers, such as entertaining tools like interactive gamification that incorporate game design elements. Companies could also furnish social resources and facilitate inter-customer interactions by eliminating abuse and social spam and elevating playfulness in community settings. This approach allows customers to connect more closely with one another, thereby enhancing their brand experiences. A clear understanding of how customers leverage their own and firm resources is strategically

important and enables firms to reflect on the resources they can offer to customers (Arnould et al., 2006). Firms can provide resources that customers may be lacking, which could impede their ability to engage in CEBs. Below, we elaborate on how firms can use our typology and propositions to identify the resources necessary for CEBs.

Customers invest cultural resources in performing *Customer Knowledge Behavior*. Propositions 2 and 6 suggest that the intention of customers to engage in Customer Knowledge Behavior (relative to three other types of CEBs) is more influenced by perceived functional benefits (e.g., tailored products) and self-generated risks (e.g., face threat). To encourage customers to invest their cultural resources, marketers should prioritize functional benefits. For instance, they can label posted ideas as "Acknowledged" or "Implemented" and indicate the possibility of implementing some of them. Besides, marketers can use face-enhancing responses, such as compliments, to buffer the negative effect of embarrassment for customers whose ideas were not adopted, thereby reducing potential self-generated risks (Fombelle et al., 2016). Compared to other types of CEBs, *Customer Advocacy Behavior* is more likely to be affected by perceived other-generated risks (Proposition 7), which are trust-based and often process-related. They mainly involve a lack of reliable company technologies and policies that safeguard data privacy and security. Adopting trust-building strategies and privacy policies can help reduce these risks. For example, Lush's transparency about its supply chain operations and product sourcing has helped to build customer advocacy (Jones & Manktelow, 2017).

Proposition 3 suggests that *Community Support Behavior* is more influenced by symbolic benefits, such as personal expression and self-esteem, when customers invest their cultural resources. To encourage customers to undertake this type of behavior, companies could create opportunities for self-expression and self-enhancement. For example, a grading system can be employed to recognize highly engaged community members based on the problems they solve and the number of "likes" on their solutions. The members of the Apple Support Community can become Top Participants on Leaderboards by helping their fellows, and their reputation can grow if their answers are marked as "Helpful" by posters or other community members. Compared to other types of CEBs, *Community Development Behavior* is more susceptible to perceived relational benefits and other-generated risks (see Propositions 4 and 7). Relational benefits fulfill the needs for identity signaling, belonging, and social support, and community identity is built on shared emotions and experiences. To encourage social networking, companies could add social features to their hosted communities and provide diversified communication channels. The Harley Owners Group (HOG) communities are a quintessential example. In these motorcycle clubs, members have immense opportunities to connect with their peers and help acquire new members. HOGers can develop interpersonal connections in the Harley-Davidson Museum through features such as custom-inscribed rivet walls. They can also join rallies, HOG chapters, small meet-ups, or special groups (e.g., Ladies of Harley). Other-generated risks result from distrust, oftentimes caused by violations of social etiquette and interpersonal boundaries. To reduce these risks, companies should preserve trust by espousing honest conversations and protecting the privacy of community members. For instance, Harley-Davidson allows customers to share ride stories on the HOG members-only website.

The moderators (i.e., customer mindset and resource endowment) provide clues about the effective segmentation and targeting of appropriate messages to customers. Engagement strategies come into play only when they resonate with effective communication strategies. Marketers should communicate the right messages to the right customers and differentiate messages that are communicated to different customers. Propositions 8–11 outline the role of the *first* moderator (i.e., customer mindset). Perceived benefits, costs, and risks do not influence all customers equally. Perceived experiential benefits (e.g., novel experiences) and other-generated risks (e.g., rudeness in brand communities) of CEBs have stronger impacts on growth (vs. fixed) mindset customers. It may be more effective to motivate growth mindset customers by emphasizing what they can learn from the process of CEBs and by communicating corporate policies to safeguard their rights. Fixed (vs. growth) mindset customers, on the other hand, are more likely to be affected by perceived functional benefits (e.g., task completion) and self-related risks (e.g., frustration). To encourage fixed mindset customers to engage, marketers could use flyers and videos that present finished products and highlight the message, "You can do it!" Since customer mindset can be situationally induced (Dweck et al., 1995), marketers could also prime mindset in their engagement-soliciting communications to elevate customers' sensitivity to certain benefits.

The *second* moderator (i.e., resource endowment) is explicated in Propositions 12–14. Firms can differentiate their engagement strategies based on the customers' resource endowment. In almost every industry, marketers strive to target resource-abundant customers, such as market mavens (i.e., individuals with extensive marketplace expertise; Feick & Price, 1987) and opinion leaders or influentials (i.e., individuals possessing rich product-specific experiences and significant social connections; Feick & Price, 1987), due to their abundant resources that companies can leverage. These individuals are very attractive because they possess abundant resources that companies can leverage. Nonetheless, while prioritizing resource-abundant customers, marketers should not overlook the significance of resource-scarce customers. Based on Propositions 12 and 13, communicating the

symbolic and relational benefits (e.g., self-expression and friendship) of CEBs may be more effective for customers with fewer (vs. more) resources. As Proposition 14 suggests, since resource-scarce customers are more prone to perceived self-generated risks, their potential concerns regarding self-image should be handled with caution.

Future engagement research avenues

This paper serves as a rich repository for spawning research ideas. By exploring a resource-based perspective on CEBs, this research paves the way for future engagement research opportunities (shown in Table 2) focused on two major themes related to resources: (a) dimensions of customer resources and (b) theories about resources. Table 2 also provides a summary of the articles discussed in this paper that may inform future research.

Theme 1: Dimensions of customer resources

Resources can be investigated along several dimensions such as type (cultural vs. social) and volume (fewer vs. more). Our research identifies four types of resources that differentiate between various CEBs. Future research could dive deeper into distinct CEBs and validate the typology using surveys, in-depth interviews, focus groups, or case studies to ascertain the different types of resources required for specific engagement activities. Additionally, researchers could create categorical variables to capture the four types of CEBs based on operant resource types (i.e., cultural and social). Some previous research has measured CEBs using items that imply physical and social resources. For example, the measurement employed by Jessen et al. (2020) reflects the input of physical resources such as time, energy, and emotion: "feel immersed in the experience/task" and "enjoy the experience/task" (p. 90). Vivek et al., (2014, p. 412) measure customer engagement in terms of conscious attention (e.g., "I pay a lot of attention to anything about …"), enthused participation (e.g., "I spend a lot of my discretionary time …"), and social connection (e.g., "I love … with my friends."). To measure and explore different types of CEBs empirically, future research might also consider cultural resources.

Furthermore, the inclusion of both cultural and social resources may lead to an improved approach to measuring the levels or depth of CEBs. Shawky et al. (2020) measure four levels of engagement in social media contexts through indicators from the number of views and comments to the number of actors who interact within and outside networks. This measurement indicates one's deployment of social

Table 2 Resources and research avenues for CEBs

Themes	Research avenues	Supportive articles in literature
Dimensions of customer resources: type, volume, variety, availability, etc	• Dive deeper into distinct CEBs and validate our proposed typology using surveys, interviews, focus groups, and case studies to ascertain the different types of resources required for specific engagement activities • Examine how the volume of firm resources can play a part in CEBs • Consider cultural resources when measuring and empirically exploring different types of CEBs • Improve the existing measures of engagement depth • Subject the constellation of propositions to empirical testing by focusing on certain parts of the associations between lower-order constructs, defined by a few operational measures	Arnould et al. (2006); Bagozzi (1974); Bakker and Demerouti (2007); Belk (1988); Blau (1964); Bourdieu (1984); Constantin and Lusch (1994); Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005); Dorsch et al. (2017); Granovetter (1973); Harmeling et al. (2017); Hobfoll (1989); Hobfoll (2001); Holt (1998); Jessen et al. (2020); Hollebeek et al. (2019); Sabbagh and Levy (2012); Putnam (1993); Shawky et al. (2020); Vargo and Lusch (2004); Vargo and Lusch (2016); Vivek et al. (2014)
Theories about resources	• Explore engagement research areas that can be grounded on resource theories • Examine how companies provide resources to foster customer engagement during resource-constrained times such as the COVID-19 crisis • Investigate how marketers can balance the input of resources from all parties involved in CEBs • Examine how firms should match resources to meet customers' needs for particular resources • Explore how AI-powered technologies facilitate value co-creation and customer engagement, as well as how they pose potential barriers to effective engagement	Arnould et al. (2006); Bagozzi (1974); Barney (1991); Belk (1988); Blau (1964); Bourdieu (1984); Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005); Dorsch et al. (2017); Granovetter (1973); Hamilton et al. (2019); Hobfoll (1989); Hobfoll (2001); Hollebeek et al. (2019, 2021, 2022); Hunt and Morgan (1995); Kozinets and Gretzel (2021); Longoni and Cian (2022); Perez-Vega et al. (2021); Putnam (1993); Rucker and Galinsky (2008); Sabbagh and Levy (2012); Vargo and Lusch (2004); Vargo and Lusch (2016); Vivek et al. (2014)

resources. Likewise, in the business world, Twitter, for instance, uses social media engagement metrics that count the number of times a user has interacted with brand-related posts (see https://developer.twitter.com/en/docs/twitter-api/enterprise/engagement-api/overview for further details). While these metrics are easy to execute and monitor with algorithms, they neglect the variety of resources integrated into CEBs. One research opportunity is to improve the existing measures of engagement depth by including the dispersion of various integrated resources, rather than solely the total volume of integrated resources. As customers integrate more varied resources, the levels of CEBs may increase.

Theme 2: Theories of resources

This research draws on some attributes and theories of resources. We shine the spotlight on the nuances of resources and selected resource theories, which are the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) and social exchange theory (Bagozzi, 1974; Blau, 1964). Both theories lead to the cost- (and risk-) benefit analytic approach employed in our research. We drill down on different benefits, costs, and risks and explain why and how they differ in their impacts. In addition, based on the attributes of resources, this research sheds light on the "when" question by examining potential moderators. The next step is to subject the constellation of propositions to empirical testing. To achieve this, it may be more feasible to test certain parts of the associations between lower-order constructs, defined by a few operational measures, rather than the entire conceptual framework proposed in this paper.

Opportunities also exist in the engagement research areas that can be based on other resource theories. A plethora of resource attributes and theories have been proposed in various fields, including economics, psychology, and business management (Dorsch et al., 2017; Sabbagh & Levy, 2012). In this paper, we have focused on resource endowment. Another relevant but broader concept is resource availability. In addition to endowed resources, resources can also be acquired from other sources. As one attribute of resources, resource availability refers to the extent to which individuals access the resources when needed (Dorsch et al., 2017) and encompasses both the volume of resources they possess and their ability to obtain the resources (Sabbagh & Levy, 2012). One practical matter that merits attention is how companies can increase customers' resource acquisition ability and foster high levels of customer engagement. This issue becomes even more imperative during crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, which has eroded customers' ability to acquire resources, thereby creating a resource-deprived situation where customers confront constraints and uncertainties stemming from economic and socio-cultural pressures. Scholars may investigate how marketers can balance the input of resources from all parties involved in CEBs and match resources to meet customers' needs for particular resources.

The resource-based theory of the firm posits that corporate resources should be rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable to gain competitive advantages (Barney, 1991; Hunt & Morgan, 1995). These attributes can also create value for customers and affect their behavior (Dorsch et al., 2017). Individuals seek unique resources from the market and others to increase their performance (Dorsch et al., 2017). An emerging research area concerns the role of artificial intelligence (AI) in customer engagement (Hollebeek et al., 2021, 2022; Perez-Vega et al., 2021). Based on our classification of firm resources, AI-enabled tools, such as intelligent agents, recommender systems, the Internet of Things, and face and voice recognition, are considered cultural operant resources. These tools are regarded as operant resources that produce effects, meaning that AI technologies are platforms or intermediaries that help integrate resources, rather than products or services offered to a market. This differentiation is important and tied to marketing realities. Although "a firm can customize an AI offering or its outputs without altering its core algorithms … most marketers in the world today do not produce or control it"; this is because "[c]reating and maintaining algorithms and AI is a complicated, expensive process that requires skilled personnel and continual monitoring and adjustment" (Kozinets & Gretzel, 2021, p. 156). Technology, as an operant resource, is pivotal in value co-creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2016).

Although a growing number of articles discuss AI, less is known about how AI-powered technologies influence customer engagement (Hollebeek et al., 2021, 2022; Perez-Vega et al., 2021). On the one hand, AI creates digital touchpoints and new forms of customer-firm interactions and in some situations replaces human agents to represent firms (Kozinets & Gretzel, 2021; Longoni & Cian, 2022). On the other hand, AI "fundamentally alters the opportunities for relationship building and customer contact" and "imposes a layer between marketers and customers that may lead to disconnection as well as distraction" (Kozinets & Gretzel, 2021, p. 157). This layer can act as a barrier that may hinder effective communication and lead to the failure of AI-powered customer engagement strategies. An important research avenue is to investigate the positive and negative ways in which AI-powered technologies, as cultural operant resources, influence customer engagement. Researchers could explore how these technologies facilitate value co-creation and customer engagement, as well as how they pose potential barriers to effective engagement.

In conclusion, we define and categorize CEBs and propose a conceptual framework based on resource attributes with a set of research propositions. This lays the groundwork for future customer engagement research.

Additionally, we provide a discussion on the managerial implications of our findings and potential avenues for future research.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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