Running head: OTHER-CUSTOMER CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

**The Impact of Other Customers on Customer Citizenship Behavior**

Youjae Yi\*

College of Business Administration

Seoul National University

599 Gwanak-ro, Gwanak-gu, Seoul, 151-916, Republic of Korea

Phone: +82-(0)2-880-6941

Fax: +82-(0)2-878-3154

Email: youjae@snu.ac.kr

Taeshik Gong

Department of Marketing in Strathclyde Business School

University of Strathclyde

Stenhouse Building, 173 Cathedral Street

Glasgow, G4 0RQ, United Kingdom

Email: taeshik.gong@strath.ac.uk

Hyojin Lee

Fisher College of Business, Ohio State University

Fisher Hall, 2100 Neil Avenue, Columbus, OH 43210, USA

Email: lee.4878@osu.edu

December 2012

**Keywords**: customer citizenship behavior, informational influence, normative influence, social informational processing theory, interpersonal influence theory.

**Acknowledgements**

This research was supported by the Institute of Management Research at Seoul National University.

\* Corresponding author

**The Impact of Other Customers on Customer Citizenship Behavior**

**ABSTRACT**

Despite extensive research on the antecedents of customer citizenship behavior, the influence of other customers remains a neglected area in service research. Drawing on social information processing and interpersonal influence theories, this article investigates how citizenship behavior of focal customers is shaped by citizenship behavior of other customers. This study also examines how informational influence in the form of other-customer credibility and normative influence in the form of customer social identity moderate this relationship. Using qualitative and quantitative data, this study shows that other-customer citizenship behavior drives focal customer citizenship behavior. This link is also moderated by informational influence (other-customer credibility) and normative influence (social identity). From a theoretical standpoint, the findings provide preliminary evidence that other-customer focus is critical to an understanding of customer citizenship behavior. This study also identifies the boundary conditions for these relationships. From a practical standpoint, the findings suggest that managers need to identify and pay attention to customers who exhibit citizenship behavior so that customer citizenship behavior is reciprocated and extended to other customers in the service encounter.

**Keywords**: customer citizenship behavior, informational influence, normative influence, social informational processing theory, interpersonal influence theory.

**Introduction**

Customer citizenship behavior has received considerable attention from both academics and practitioners and continues to be a popular topic in service research (Bettencourt, 1997; Groth, 2005; Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007). Customer citizenship behavior refers to “helpful, constructive gestures exhibited by customers that are valued or appreciated by the firm, but not related directly to enforceable or explicit requirements of the individual's role” (Gruen, 1995, p. 461). These actions constitute extra-role behavior, comprising positive, voluntary, helpful, and constructive behavior toward other customers and the firm (Bove, Pervan, Beatty, & Shiu, 2009). For example, customers may share their positive experience with other customers, drive by more convenient outlets to shop at their favorite store, treat service employees in a pleasant manner, report service problems to employees (Bettencourt, 1997), recommend a firm's service to others, provide suggestions for improving a firm's service, help service providers, and assist other customers during service delivery, all of which are actions conducive to effective firm functioning (van Doorn et al., 2010).

Customer citizenship behavior also enables customers to communicate anticipated problems proactively (e.g., making a cancellation even when it is not required), to put up with or be patient with a service failure, and to willingly adapt to situations beyond their control, which keeps the firm running smoothly. Services typically take place in a social setting, and customer citizenship behavior benefits both the firm and its customers. While many services are performed and delivered in social settings, some services are not provided and consumed in the presence of other consumers. (e.g., professional tax advice, investment advice, some medical care services, or delivery and installation of a refrigerator). Thus, this research will examine customer citizenship behavior in the context of services (consumption situations) that are social (or public), as opposed to private. The more citizenship behavior creates a pleasant social context, the more likely customers are to enjoy and gain from the service experience (Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb, & Inks, 2000). In addition, customer citizenship behavior disseminates information related to the firm and brand, so that it influences firm revenues and profits by contributing to brand recognition and firm reputation (van Doorn et al., 2010). In general, customer citizenship behavior can create a competitive advantage.

The importance of customer citizenship behavior has led to the extensive study of its antecedents. For example, customers perform citizenship behaviors when they are loyal to employees and perceive employees to be benevolent (Bove et al.,2009; Groth, 2005; Gruen, Summers, & Acito, 2000), and employee characteristics such as personality lead to customer citizenship behavior through customer–company identification (Aherne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005). Employee citizenship behavior has indirect effects on customer citizenship behavior through its influence on customer satisfaction and commitment (Yi & Gong, 2008b).

Interestingly, very little research to date has examined the influence of other customers on a customer’s citizenship behavior. Nevertheless, Rosenbaum and Massiah (2007) emphasize the influence of other customers on perceived value and customer satisfaction in the service encounter, and Gruen, Osmonbekov and Czaplewski (2007) maintain that customer-to-customer interactions play an extensive role in value creation. In addition, the quality of communication among customers reduces the level of uncertainty about the firm and its service, which relates to increased profits for the firm (Adjei, Noble, & Noble, 2010). Given that other customers constitute one of the most salient aspects of the social environment, it is important to understand whether and when other customers can influence customer citizenship behavior.

This research examines the extent to which other customers shape customer citizenship behavior. More specifically, this study focuses on other-customer citizenship behavior as a predictor of customer citizenship behavior. Investigations have consistently shown that individual behaviors are directly influenced by another individual or group behaviors. For instance, the dysfunctional behavior of a group is a significant predictor of an individual's dysfunctional behavior (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Similarly, customer dysfunctional behavior, such as incivility, may lead to employee dysfunctional behavior (van Jaarsveld, Walker, & Skarlicki, 2010). Additionally, prior studies have established the presence of contagion or spill-over effects associated with individual behaviors (Gremler & Brown, 1999). To capture this interactive nature of individual behaviors, this investigation focuses on other-customer citizenship behavior as an antecedent of customer citizenship behavior.

This article investigates (1) how other-customer citizenship behavior affects focal customer citizenship behavior and (2) how these relationships are affected by certain moderators (other-customer credibility and customer social identity). The results of this study should provide guidance for managers regarding resource allocation to increase customer citizenship behavior. The influence of customer engagement in citizenship behavior can have far-reaching implications, because a customer exhibiting citizenship behavior may encourage other customers to display citizenship behaviors, starting a chain of voluntary actions. Understanding the nature of these chain relationships can assist managers in fostering customer citizenship behavior. Figure 1 presents an overview of the theoretical framework and specific constructs. In the next section, theory and hypotheses will be discussed.

-------------------------------

Insert Figure 1 about here

-------------------------------

**Theory and hypotheses**

Both social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and interpersonal influence theory (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955) serve as the theoretical foundation. Recent studies highlight the importance of these theories in explaining individual behavior (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003; Glomb & Liao, 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Because customer behavior and customer-to-customer interaction often occur in social contexts, a theoretical perspective that accounts for the impact of the social environment seems useful for examining its antecedents. The following section assesses the applicability of social information processing theory and interpersonal influence theory to the crucial role that other customers’ citizenship behaviors play in increasing focal customer citizenship behavior.

**Social Information Processing Theory**

Social information processing theory holds that “individuals, as adaptive organisms, adapt attitudes, behavior, and beliefs to their social context” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978, p. 226). According to the theory, individuals rely on information from their social environment to develop expectations about appropriate behavior, and a possible underlying cause for individual behaviors is salient information that the social context provides (Blau & Katerberg, 1982). Aspects of the social environment that serve as behavioral cues might include other customers in the service encounter. These individuals function as filters for incoming information and help customers interpret their social context, which in this study is the service co-creation environment (Eby, Lockwood, & Butts, 2006). Social information is acquired through interactions with or observation of others. This definition suggests that individuals may behave according to the observed consequences of other individuals’ behavior (Ferguson & Barry, 2011). The social context provides not only “information about what a person’s attitudes and opinions should be [but] also . . . norms and expectations” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978, pp. 226–227). Therefore, by affecting thoughts and emotions, the social context influences how individuals shape their own behaviors (Bommer et al., 2003; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998).

This perspective implies that in service encounters, customers will “use information about values, norms, expectations, and behavior outcome contingencies gathered from others in their social environment to guide behavior” (Glomb & Liao, 2003, p. 487). Social information processing theory, which emphasizes saliency as an important element of information that shapes individual behavior, can thus explain why customers exhibit citizenship behavior in a service encounter. In service encounters where customer-to-customer interactions are evident, the most salient information that individuals might use to shape their own behavior is information gathered from other customer behaviors (Ferguson & Barry, 2011). Customers who observe other customers displaying citizenship behavior may develop an attitude that such behaviors are normal and appropriate, and they are likely to reproduce this behavior. As customers notice each other, they are influenced by each other’s behavior. Therefore, customers’ citizenship behavior may result from their exposure to other-customer citizenship role models. Accordingly, this study hypothesizes that perceptions of other-customer citizenship behavior induce subsequent citizenship behavior by an individual customer.

According to social information processing theory, other customers’ citizenship behavior becomes part of the social environment from which focal customers draw cues about normal and appropriate behavior that in turn produce similar behavior. Other-customer citizenship behavior (OCCB) refers to the extent to which customers observe other customers exhibiting citizenship behavior during service delivery. To the extent that this kind of behavior acts as a model, witnesses may perceive OCCB as being not only within the bounds of acceptable behavior but also normatively appropriate for members of the customer group (Ferguson & Barry, 2011). That is, if customers see other customers displaying citizenship behavior, they may think that this kind of behavior is normal, acceptable, and even worthy of mimicry, so they are likely to exhibit similar behavior. Prior research on the social process shows that an act of individual behavior, which may initially involve only a few individuals, can elicit consequences that reach well beyond the original actor and target (Ferguson & Barry, 2011; Porath & Erez, 2009).

Although prior studies have not adequately separated customer citizenship behaviors on the basis of their beneficiaries, previous research suggests that target-based citizenship behaviors can have different antecedents or psychological processes and thus should be distinguished (Lee & Allen, 2002; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Consequently, CCB is separated into (a) behavior toward the customer (e.g., helping other customers), and (b) behavior toward the firm (e.g., making constructive suggestions to improve the firm service).

One might argue that OCCB toward the firm should be considered just like CCB toward the firm. However, in practice, it is almost impossible for the respondents to know the extent to which other customers give a company their full cooperation or say positive things about a company to others, which means another form of OCCB toward the firm. One cannot figure out how a respondent can ascertain this kind of information in an accurate manner. Thus, this study will focus on citizenship behaviors that are directed toward other customers, and all hypotheses only apply to other-customer citizenship behavior (OCCB) that are directed toward other consumers, not to those directed toward the firm.

On the basis of this target-based conceptualization of CCB, this study argues that when a customer witnesses other-customer citizenship behaviors, customer citizenship behaviors toward both the customer and the firm are affected:

**H1:** A positive relationship exists between the level of other-customer citizenship behavior and the level of customer citizenship behavior toward the customer.

**H2:** A positive relationship exists between the level of other-customer citizenship behavior and the level of customer citizenship behavior toward the firm.

There are important reasons to suspect that different psychological processes are responsible for CCB directed at different beneficiaries. Social exchange theory predicts that individuals will direct their reciprocation efforts more to the source of benefits that they receive than to a source from which they receive no benefit. Therefore, when individuals feel they get help from other individuals, they should direct their citizenship activities more toward other individuals than toward the firm (Dholakia, Blazevic, Wiertz, & Algesheimer, 2009; Lee & Allen, 2002; McNeely & Meglino, 1994). This principle applies to the customer-to-customer interaction context. Because other-customer citizenship behavior specifically deals with processes involved in getting assistance from other customers, it is expected to be more correlated with citizenship behavior toward specific customers than with citizenship behavior toward the firm.

**H3:** Other-customer citizenship behavior contributes more to the prediction of customer citizenship behavior toward the customer than of customer citizenship behavior toward the firm.

**Interpersonal Influence Theory**

Interpersonal influence theory suggests that the influence of the interpersonal or social context can be informational or normative (Bearden, Netemeyer, & Teel, 1989; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Hoffmann & Broekhuizen, 2009). Informational influence is “an influence to accept information obtained from another as evidence about reality,” whereas normative influence is “an influence to conform to the positive expectations of another” (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955, p. 629). Informational influence may occur if information from others, through learning about services by passively observing or actively seeking information from others, increases the individual's knowledge about the social environment, helping to form accurate interpretations about reality and correct behavior (Bearden et al. 1989; Hoffmann & Broekhuizen, 2009; Park & Lessig, 1977).

Reference individuals with high credibility, such as those having a high level of presumed expertise, are expected to serve as sources of information-based influence for uncertain individuals (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Childers & Rao, 1992). In fact, “[F]aced with uncertainty, an individual will seek information. From the many sources available, the most likely to be accepted are those viewed as credible” (Bearden & Etzel, 1982, p. 184). In a service encounter, other customers can provide information to the customer in ambiguous situations (Mangleburg, Doney, & Bristol, 2004). For example, when customers face uncertainty (e.g., through role ambiguity), they will actively seek credible information sources, looking at the behavior of other customers for clues as to how to behave. Customers who observe citizenship behavior of credible others may enact similar citizenship behavior.

The framework indicates that informational influence in terms of other-customer credibility moderates the relationship between OCCB and CCB. That is, the greater the informational influence, the stronger the relationship between OCCB and CCB. Informational influence is based on the source credibility model (Ohanian, 1990), which was originally designed to explain the conditions under which the source (in this study, other customers) is persuasive (McCracken, 1989). Although studies have investigated the source credibility of a spokesperson, celebrity endorser, or other individual communicating a message (Newell & Goldsmith, 2001; Ohanian, 1990), other-customer credibility has received little attention.

The source credibility model includes three operational dimensions: attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise (Ohanian, 1990), and other-customer credibility is the extent to which customers feel that other customers are attractive, trustworthy, and expert. Other-customer attractiveness is defined as the degree to which the customer believes that other customers possess an appealing and pleasing physical appearance (Ahearne, Gruen, & Jarvis, 1999). This study focuses on physical attractiveness because prior research indicates that the beauty and attractiveness of other customers play an influential role in customer behavior during a service delivery (Argo, Dahl, & Morales, 2008). Additionally, the effectiveness of a message mainly depends on physical attractiveness (McGuire, 1985). Physical appearance is an important cue in customers’ judgments of other customers, because attractiveness can enhance positive attitude change (Ohanian, 1990). Also, because attractiveness is closely related to greater group acceptance and popularity, it exerts social power and influence on group members (Dommeyer, 2008). Thus, the more attractive the source is perceived, the more persuasive and influential the source is. This perspective suggests that customers’ perception of other customers as attractive increases the likelihood that customers might follow a role model who exhibits citizenship behavior.

Other-customer trustworthiness refers to customers’ degree of confidence in other customers’ intent to communicate the assertions they consider most valid. Trustworthiness is associated with “the listener’s degree of confidence in and level of acceptance of the speaker and the message” (Ohanian, 1990, p. 41). The more customers perceive other customers as trustworthy, the more they reduce uncertainty and increase understanding toward other customers. When customers perceive other customers to be trustworthy, the message of other customers (i.e., their citizenship behavior) becomes more effective in changing attitude and behavior (Ohanian, 1990). Similarly, when other-customer trustworthiness is low, attribution theory suggests that customers will discount the influence of OCCB. As a result, the impact of other customers on CCB will be lower than when other-customer trustworthiness is high (Eagly & Chaiken, 1975).

Other-customer expertise is the extent to which customers perceive other customers to be a source of valid assertions (Ohanian, 1990). Literature in social psychology and marketing shows that sources with high expertise are more persuasive than sources with low expertise, and lead to more positive attitude change (Braunsberger & Munch, 1998; Ohanian, 1990). These responses are justified on the basis of cognitive response formulation. When individuals are presented with a persuasive appeal, they initially rehearse their preexisting issue-relevant thoughts (Sternthal, Dholakia, & Leavitt, 1978). Those opposed to the appeal review counterarguments to the message and will reject the appeal. However, if a highly expert source inhibits counterarguing, the persuasive power of the expert is expected to prevail. Similarly, when customers perceive other customers as experts, they perceive other-customer behaviors as more persuasive, leading to a favorable attitude toward citizenship behavior and in turn to more citizenship behavior. Therefore,

**H4:** The relationship between other-customer citizenship behavior and customer citizenship behavior directed toward the customer is moderated by other-customer credibility in such a way that the higher other-customer credibility, the stronger the relationship.

**H5:** The relationship between other-customer citizenship behavior and customer citizenship behavior directed toward the firm is moderated by other-customer credibility in such a way that the higher other-customer credibility, the stronger the relationship.

The second form of interpersonal influence, normative influence, can be separated into value-expressive and utilitarian influences (Bearden et al., 1989; Deutsch & Gerald, 1955; Park & Lessig, 1977). Value-expressive influence refers to “the individual's desire to enhance self-image by association with a reference group. [It] is motivated by the individual's desire to enhance or support his or her self-concept through referent identification. Value-expressive influences operate through the process of identification, which occurs when an individual adopts a behavior …of another because the behavior …is associated with satisfying a self-defining relationship” (Bearden et al., 1989, p. 474). Additionally, value-expressive influence is described as the need for psychological affiliation with a reference group and an attempt to resemble that reference group (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Childers & Rao, 1992).

Accordingly, the framework indicates that a normative influence in terms of social identity positively moderates the relationship between OCCB and CCB. Social identity is defined as the “self-awareness of [the] individual’s membership in a group and the emotional and evaluative significance of this membership” (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006, p. 48). On the basis of this definition, this study assumes that three components may contribute to an individual's social identity: a cognitive component (cognitive awareness of one's membership in a social group), an evaluative component (positive or negative value connotation attached to the group member), and an emotional component (emotional involvement with the group) (Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999). The central tenet of social identity is that an individual’s inclination to behave in terms of group membership depends on the extent to which the individual identifies with a social group. In other words, social identity occurs when individuals form a psychological connection with a social group, such as other customers, by incorporating into their own self-concept the attributes that define that social group (Hughes & Ahearne, 2010). Social identity delivers to individuals the expectations, obligations, and sanctions of social groups through self-awareness of their membership in a group (Ellemers et al., 1999).

One might wonder whether customers meaningfully identify with other customers or want to do so even though they are not formal customer group members. Although most research has examined social identity in formal membership contexts, social identification research suggests that identification with other customers can occur in short-lived and transient groups and even in the absence of a formal group (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Fombelle, Jarvis, Ward, & Ostrom, 2012). Customers can affect one another both indirectly, simply by being part of the same environment, and directly, through specific interpersonal encounters (Huang, Lin, & Wen, 2010). Moreover, service encounters are typically characterized by the presence of multiple customers who share the servicescape and consequently influence each other (Grove & Fisk, 1997). If focal customers perceive other customers enacting important social identities, they tend to believe that other customers are like them and thus can develop a sense of oneness with other customers (Fombelle et al., 2012). Just as “companies represent and offer attractive, meaningful social identities to consumers that help them satisfy important self-definitional needs,” other customers may also constitute valid targets for identification because other customers can satisfy the need for social identity and self-definition (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003, p. 77).

This investigation posits that customers’ social identity arising from group membership induces them to model citizenship behavior, because group membership intrinsically motivates them to behave on behalf of their group interests (Hughes & Ahearne, 2010). Social identity theory also contends that identification makes customers psychologically attach to and care about other customers and the firm, motivating them to expend voluntary effort such as positive interaction with other customers (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). On the basis of these findings and the related literature, the following is proposed:

**H6:** The relationship between other-customer citizenship behavior and customer citizenship behavior directed toward the customer is moderated by social identity in such a way that the higher the social identity, the stronger the relationship.

**H7:** The relationship between other-customer citizenship behavior and customer citizenship behavior directed toward the firm is moderated by social identity in such a way that the higher the social identity, the stronger the relationship.

**Study Overview**

For a rigorous investigation of these hypotheses, this investigation employed multiple methods—a field interview, a field survey, and a laboratory experiment. The research design incorporated triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods for a balance of internal and external validity as well as robust findings. Triangulation yields completeness because quantitative and qualitative research methods complement each other, providing richness that would be unavailable from one method alone.

Study 1 comprised in-depth interviews with service customers, affording customers ample opportunities to explain how other customers displayed citizenship behavior to them and to describe their own behaviors in subsequent service encounters. Study 2 tested the hypotheses in a field setting for the external validity of the model and examined data obtained from customers of major department stores. All measures were assessed through a self-administered questionnaire. Study 3 relied on scenario-based experiments in which OCCB was manipulated and customers’ subsequent perceptions were measured. Study 3 tested the causal effects of OCCB on customer attitude and behavioral intention as well as the internal validity of the model.

**Study 1**

**Research Method**

Because prior studies documented relatively little on this topic, this study first conducted in-depth interviews. An advantage of the in-depth interview is flexibility. Not only does it provide more detailed information than what is available through other data collection methods, but it also reduces the likelihood of misinterpretations on the part of both the interviewer and informant. Furthermore, in-depth interviewing does not constrain the informant’s answer, but instead tries to capture and develop the informant’s perspective on key issues. This aspect is particularly helpful for gleaning customer perceptions of other customer behaviors and their corresponding behaviors in their own words (Harris & Reynolds, 2003; Keh & Pang, 2010; McCracken, 1988).

Four well-trained researchers conducted in-depth interviews with 30 customers in Korea, which constituted a sufficient sample size in previous research (di Mascio, 2010). Using a snowballing technique, each interviewer randomly approached customers in a wide range of service providers (e.g., shopping malls, hospitals, hair salons, etc.). This procedure was used because subjects were cooperative for a face-to-face interview when referred to the research team by friends, family members or community members (Puri, Adams, Ivey, & Nachtigall, 2011). Of all informants, 40% were male. Informants’ ages ranged from 24 to 56 years, with a mean of 37 years.

The interviews were conducted individually (one on one), and participants were invited to a more private place for the interview (e.g., café or private lounge). Participants were informed that the interview pertained to their experiences with service and were assured that their identity would remain confidential. Interviews began with a conversation to elicit the informant’s demographics (McCracken, 1988; Thompson, Rindfleisch, & Arsel, 2006), and then proceeded to open-ended questions about the informant’s current service experience, including observation of other customers who exhibited citizenship behavior toward customers and the firm as well as the informant’s behaviors in response to those customer behaviors. Probes elicited a deeper understanding of whether the informant engaged in similar citizenship behavior and what influenced these behaviors mimicked. Additional questions clarified exactly what the informants meant and drew out examples and more details. To minimize the risk of interviewer-induced bias, interviewers avoided using leading questions that might reveal the interviewer’s personal viewpoints (di Mascio, 2010) and adopted careful phrasing of the questions to extract informants’ responses in a nondirective manner (McCracken, 1988). At the close of the interview, informants received small gifts in acknowledgement of their participation and were debriefed and dismissed. The interviews, which lasted from 60 to 90 minutes, were recorded and transcribed.

The theoretical model provided a framework for structuring the in-depth interview. Given the goals of this study, a positivistic approach to field research was followed (Homburg, Workman, & Jensen, 2000; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). This approach is characterized as “the first stage leading to a quantitative phase or a catalyst for the development or refinement of a positivistic model or framework … [and] uses a dialectic interaction between field observations and existing theory to reconstruct theory” (Workman, Homburg, & Gruner, 1998, p. 26).

Researchers performed a content analysis by reading each transcript repeatedly to gain insights into how other-customer citizenship behavior affected focal customers’ citizenship behavior. The analysis highlighted key phrases demonstrating the reciprocal nature of customer citizenship behavior. The analysis revealed three key themes. First, OCCB was frequently observed in service encounters. Second, OCCB affected focal customers, who exhibited similar behaviors that were targeted at the firm or at other customers. Third, customers’ perception of other-customer credibility and identification with other customers meaningfully drove customer-to-customer interactions. Quotations from the interview data illustrate the findings of the study.

**Findings**

*Customer citizenship behavior toward the customer.* Most participants mentioned that they experienced other customers’ citizenship behavior toward themselves during the service encounter. They also mentioned that they had performed similar citizenship behavior toward another customer in response to OCCB. Consider the following comment from Kevin:

I was newly registered in a swimming program at a sports center. On the first day of my swimming class, I was wondering what I should do in the swimming pool. However, another customer in the same class approached me and kindly let me know how to prepare for the class and gave me helpful information. I really appreciated his kindness. After several visits, I saw a new customer who had just joined this class. I remembered how embarrassed I was when I first attended the class as well as how thankful I was when someone helped me. Therefore, I approached the customer and tried to help him feel comfortable in this class.

Jane also performed citizenship behavior toward customers after receiving other-customer citizenship behavior herself:

After picking up what I wanted in the market, I stood in a long line to pay. A couple approached me and asked if I would like to use a discount coupon that they were not eligible to use. I decided to use it. . . . After that, I visited another shopping mall and I had an extra parking voucher. I gave it to another customer based on the experience of getting help from other customers in the market.

*Customer citizenship behavior toward the firm.* Several participants mentioned that when they were exposed to citizenship behavior by other customers, they tended to engage in citizenship behavior toward the firm. Consider the following statement from Kathy:

When I visited XYZ beauty salon, a customer next to me recommended a specific hair style that would suit me. I accepted that comment and [the style] really worked. I appreciated [other customer’s interest] and XYZ beauty salon. Since then, I always recommend XYZ beauty salon to other customers.

Matthew had a similar experience:

I attend a sports center everyday and exercise for two or three hours. I always see people helping other customers. For example, some customers willingly help other customers when . . . there are no employees available. I really like the atmosphere and this good feeling of the sports center, so in turn I exhibit similar voluntary behaviors toward the firm. For example, I make suggestions for the service improvement of this center, and I try to follow the rules and cooperate with the employees.

*Other-customer credibility.* Several participants emphasized other-customer credibility in modeling citizenship behavior. Consider the following statement from Scott:

When Jane found out that I was on diet, she recommended the product of XYZ Company. She mentioned that this product is excellent and very effective. Actually, Jane was very thin and had good skin. In other words, she was beautiful. In addition, she had a lot of knowledge about beauty products [and] worked at a cosmetics company. Her appearance and expertise [encouraged me to adopt a] similar recommendation behavior, so that I actively tended to recommend the good quality of the product or service to others.

Frank talked about a similar experience in a department store.

When I visited the department store, I chose the shoes I liked and tried them on. An old woman, another customer, told me the shoes really suited me well. Actually, she looked very rich and elegant. Given her appearance, she looked trustworthy. Her qualities impressed me. Therefore, when I [later] saw customers trying to choose products, I voluntarily approached them, gave my opinions and recommended products I was familiar with.

*Social identity.* Participants also mentioned the importance of social identification with other customers. When customers shared a social identity with other customers, they were more likely to perform citizenship behavior. Consider the following statement from Sarah:

I usually visit XYZ to shop for food. One day, I was choosing fruit, and another customer next to me suddenly told me that this particular fruit is very tasty. Based on her recommendation, I bought that fruit. The other customer who helped me choose the fruit was also a 50-year-old housewife who was shopping for dinner. Her lifestyle and demographic characteristics were very similar to mine, so I thought her identity overlapped with mine. Further, I thought that I was one of the customers of XYZ department store. After that experience, whenever I observed other customers choosing fruit, I advised them on how to choose and which ones were best for them. Because they were like me, I felt like helping them.

As these examples show, this qualitative study confirmed the spill-over effects of OCCB on focal customer citizenship behavior as well as the moderating effect of informational and normative influence regarding this relationship. Customers performed citizenship behavior when other customers exhibited citizenship behavior toward them. In addition, the study highlighted the importance of other-customer credibility and social identity.

**Study 2**

**Participants and Sampling Procedure**

The context of this study was a shopping service environment, specifically, a large department store. Students at a major university were recruited and trained as data collectors, and a total of 40 students served as data collectors for extra credit. Each student approached and distributed the questionnaires to five respondents who had visited at least one department store within the last six months using a screening question. The age and sex of respondents were controlled by a quota sampling method. To enhance recall of the particular encounter, this study specifically defined OCCB and CCB for the respondents and then asked about their latest encounters that might be relevant. The respondents were asked to describe the encounters in detail when responding to the items and to write down their thoughts and feelings during the encounter. Additionally, respondents named the department store and the things they had recently bought, and described the frequency of their visits to the department store. After answering open-ended questions, respondents continued to the closed-ended questions about their shopping experience. Altogether, the students approached 200 individuals and collected 182 completed surveys from respondents, who ranged in age from 20 to 60 years, with a median age of 35 years and 48% male.

**Measurement**

The measures were adapted from previous research to suit the context of this study. Item measurement consisted of a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). Measurement scales for all constructs are summarized in the appendix.

*Other-customer citizenship behavior*. Groth’s (2005) instrument was adapted to measure OCCB directed at the individual customer. The items measured respondents’ perception of the extent to which other customers performed citizenship behavior toward themselves in the form of helping. The respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they observed other customers engaging in citizenship behaviors (e.g., “Please indicate the number of times you have observed other customers exhibit the following behaviors”). The responses were provided in a seven-point format (1=never, 7 = very frequently).

*Other-customer credibility*. The measure of other-customer credibility was based on the source credibility scale: other-customer attractiveness, trustworthiness, and expertise (Ohanian, 1990). Other-customer attractiveness was measured by four items. Respondents were asked to rate on seven-point, bipolar scales the overall attractiveness of other customers. The scales were anchored with “attractive/unattractive, classy/not classy, beautiful/ugly, and elegant/plain.” Other-customer trustworthiness was measured via five semantic differential scales: dependable/undependable, honest/dishonest, reliable/unreliable, sincere/insincere, and trustworthy/untrustworthy. Other-customer expertise was assessed via four semantic differential scales: expert/not an expert, experienced/inexperienced, knowledgeable/unknowledgeable, and qualified/unqualified.

*Social identity*. This aspect was assessed with items relating to cognitive, affective, and evaluative identity (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006). Cognitive social identity was measured by two items describing the extent of respondents’ awareness of their membership in the other-customer social group. Affective social identity was measured by two items describing the extent of respondents’ sense of emotional involvement with the other-customer social group. Evaluative social identity was measured by two items describing the extent to which a positive or negative value connotation was attached to the other-customer social group.

*Customer citizenship behavior*. Customer citizenship behavior was conceptualized in terms of the intended target of this behavior. CCB toward the customer was obtained by asking participants to indicate how often they had performed citizenship behavior toward the customer by checking one of seven response alternatives (1= never, 7 = very frequently). CCB toward the firm was measured in the same manner**.** The items were rephrased to gauge the respondents’ assessment of their citizenship behavior toward the firm.

**Data Analysis**

Partial least squares (PLS) were used to estimate measurement and structural models. PLS is an iterative combination of principal components analysis and ordinary least squares path analysis, and its purpose is to maximize the prediction of endogenous constructs. The PLS technique has the advantage of accommodating a relatively small sample because the model parameters are estimated in blocks and do not require the assumption of multivariate normality. Furthermore, as PLS does not lead to estimation problems such as improper or nonconvergent results, it can handle complex models, such as those that include the addition of moderator variables (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009).

To test the moderating hypotheses, the product indicator approach was adopted. Following the procedure proposed by Chin, Marcolin, and Newsted (2003), the indicators of main and moderating variables were first standardized via mean-centering, which facilitates the interpretation of the interaction model results. Second, pair-wise product indicators were created by multiplying each indicator of the main construct with each indicator of the moderating construct. Finally, the product indicators were used to reflect the interaction construct.

The model was estimated using Smart PLS 2.0 M3 (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005). The standard bootstrapping procedure in the Smart PLS software was used, and a robust standard error and t-statistic were generated.

**Results**

Because only one source was used (i.e., the customer who provided his or her assessment of the dependent and independent variable), common method bias might be an issue. Thus, the possibility of common method bias was checked by using Liang, Saraf, Hu, and Xue’s (2007) procedure, which is based on Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff’s (2003) idea that if method factor loadings are insignificant and items’ substantive variances are substantially greater than their counterpart method variances, common method bias is not a serious concern. The results indicated that the average substantive variance of the items was .51, while the average method variance was .01. Thus, the ratio of substantive variance to method variance was about 72:1. In addition, method factor loadings were insignificant, indicating the absence of common method bias.

Composite reliability for each construct was greater than .7, and the average variance extracted was greater than .5. All items significantly loaded on their corresponding construct and all factor loadings were larger than .6, demonstrating convergent validity. The square roots of the average variance extracted for each construct were greater than the correlation among constructs, showing discriminant validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

The percentages of explained variance for the CCB toward the customer and CCB toward the firm were .30 and .33, respectively, indicating a good fit of the model to the data. To establish the significance of parameter estimates, t-values using 1,000 bootstrap samples were computed (Henseler et al., 2009). Because directional hypotheses were offered, one-tailed significance tests were conducted. Table 1 provides the path estimates.

As H1 and H2 predicted, OCCB had a positive and significant effect on CCB toward the customer (*β* = .28, *p*< .001) and the firm (*β* = .11, *p*< .05). From a conceptual point of view, these findings supported the relevance of social information processing theory to CCB.

To test H3, the strength of the standardized path coefficients across the relevant paths was compared. In addition, the significance of the difference between coefficients associated with two paths was tested. The path difference was calculated by PLS, and standard deviations were generated through the bootstrap resampling procedure. If one of the path coefficients is larger than the path of the other counterparts and the result of the *t*-test is significant, then the research hypotheses regarding differences in the strengths of multiple paths are supported. H3 stated that the effect of OCCB on CCB toward the customer would be stronger than the effect of OCCB on CCB toward the firm. The results showed that H3 was supported (Δ*β* = .18, *p*< .01).

Regarding results related to moderating effects of informational influences, H4 predicted that other-customer credibility would positively moderate the impact of OCCB on CCB toward the customer. H5 predicted that other-customer credibility would positively moderate the impact of OCCB on CCB toward the firm. The results showed that, as was expected, the interaction effects were positive. More specifically, consistent with H4, the greater other-customer credibility, the greater the impact of OCCB on CCB toward the customer (*β* = .22, *p*< .05). In addition, the greater other-customer credibility, the greater the impact of OCCB on CCB toward the firm (*β* = .26, *p*< .01), which was consistent with H5.

With respect to normative influence, it was predicted that social identity would positively moderate the effect of OCCB on CCB toward the customer (H6) as well as the effect of OCCB on CCB toward the firm (H7). Such an effect would indicate that the greater the normative influence, the greater the impact of OCCB on CCB. Regarding H6, a significant interaction effect was found (*β* = .33, *p*< .01), supporting the prediction that the greater the customer social identity, the greater the impact of OCCB on CCB toward customer. However, with respect to H7, a non-significant interaction effect was observed (*β* = .16, *p*> .05). Therefore, tests did not support the prediction that the greater the customer social identity, the greater the effect of OCCB on CCB toward the firm. This result might have occurred probably because customers could more easily relate to other customers, as opposed to being able to relate to a firm (marketer, store, service provider, or business).

To assess a possible omitted variable bias, several control variables (i.e., customer age and gender, length of relationship with the firm, length of relationship with the employee, and employee citizenship behavior) were included in the structural model. This inclusion did not alter the substantive findings in any way, indicating the absence of omitted variable bias.

--------------------------------

Insert Table 1 about here

--------------------------------

**Discussion**

Study 2 provided the survey evidence for the influence of other customers on CCB. All hypotheses related to main effects were supported, but one hypothesis related to moderating effects was not supported. Specifically, customer social identity did not have a significant effect on the relationship between OCCB and CCB toward the firm. One explanation for the lack of this interaction effect might be that exhibiting citizenship behavior toward the firm is indirectly related to customer-to-customer interactions, and the impact of social identity is more closely related to other customers than to the firm. Therefore, modeling CCB toward the firm relates to the relationship between the customer and the firm. Customers do not have to be concerned about the negative impact of violation of social identity, which is expected not to moderate the link between OCCB on CCB toward the firm.

**Study 3**

**Method**

The limitation of Study 2 was that OCCB was measured in a survey rather than manipulated, precluding the making of meaningful causal inferences. Study 3 tested the hypotheses more stringently by experimentally manipulating OCCB with scenarios. Study 3 employed a 2 🞨 2 🞨 2 between-subjects design, using the context of shopping service. The levels of OCCB (high vs. low), other-customer credibility (high vs. low), and customer social identity (high vs. low) were manipulated. Participants in Study 3 were 305 students (49.5% male, average age 21.8 years).

Participants read a scenario in which they were told to assume that they were buying a product (e.g., clothes) in a department store and that they could watch other customers talking and behaving and had a chance to interact with other customers during shopping. In the high OCCB condition, participants were told that they could get product-related information from other customers. In the low OCCB condition, participants were told that they could not get any useful product-related information from other customers.

In the high other-customer credibility condition, other customers were described as individuals with extensive experience in the area of customer issues, who were recognized experts whose advice was widely sought. These other customers were depicted as being very trustworthy as well as attractive. In contrast, in the low other-customer credibility condition, other customers were portrayed as individuals with no special expertise. In addition, other customers were described as untrustworthy as well as unattractive.

In the high customer social identity condition, participants were told that they were very proud of themselves because as customers they enjoyed a sort of membership status at this department store. They were also told that they had formed a deep emotional attachment to other customers in this department store and that their personal identities or images were quite similar to those of other customers. In contrast, participants in the low customer social identity condition were induced to see themselves as individual customers who shared few values and interests with other customers in this department store. They were further told that they had no long-term relationship with this department store and its customers, so they had no emotional attachment to other customers and did not think of themselves as having any kind of membership status with other customers.

To eliminate any possible order effect, the order of the presentation of other-customer credibility and customer social identity scenarios was counterbalanced. After reading the scenario, participants completed a questionnaire containing the measures and manipulation check. The measures in Study 3 were the same as those in the previous study, except for CCB. In Study 3, the CCB scale was modified to measure CCB intention. In addition, OCCB was operationalized using a dichotomous variable (i.e., -1 = low level of OCCB, 1 = high level of OCCB). The questionnaire also included realism check items: “The situation described was realistic” and “I had no difficulty imaging myself in the situation.” PLS was employed because it permits the use of non-multivariate nominal data, which was needed to assess the effects of OCCB.

**Results**

The manipulation check was successful. The main effects of the manipulated variables were significant for OCCB toward the customer (*M*high-OCCB = 5.43 vs. *M*low-OCCB = 2.07; *F*(1, 303) = 995.66, *p*< .001), for other-customer credibility (*M*high-credibility = 4.97 vs. *M*low-credibility = 2.74; *F*(1, 303) = 617.58, *p*< .001), and for customer social identity (*M*high-identity = 5.03 vs. *M*low-identity = 3.06; *F*(1, 303) = 638.17, *p*< .001). No other main or interaction effects were significant. The realism of the experimental design was also checked. The results suggested that participants perceived the experimental design as realistic (*M* = 5.74, *SD* = .92).

Composite reliability, the average variance extracted for each construct, and the correlation among constructs were examined, and these tests provided evidence of reliability and validity. The percentages of explained variance for CCB toward the customer and CCB toward the firm were .46 and .45, respectively, indicating a good fit of the model to the data. To establish the significance of parameter estimates, the *t*-values using 1,000 bootstrap samples were computed. As directional hypotheses were offered, one-tailed significance tests were conducted. Table 1 provides the path estimates.

As predicted by H1, OCCB had a positive and significant effect on CCB toward the customer (*β* = .82, *p*< .001). Similarly, H2 was supported, as OCCB had a positive and significant effect on CCB toward the firm (*β* = .22, *p*< .001). To test H3, the strength of the standardized path coefficients across the relevant paths was compared. The results showed that H3 was supported (Δ*β*= .59, *p*< .001).

Regarding the moderating effect of informational influences, the interaction of OCCB × other-customer credibility had a positive and significant effect on CCB toward the customer (*β* = .13, *p*< .01), supporting H4. In addition, the greater other-customer credibility, the greater the impact of OCCB on CCB toward the firm (*β* = .11, *p*< .05), which was consistent with H5.

With respect to normative influence, a moderating effect of social identity on the link between OCCB on CCB toward the customer was found (*β* = .10, *p*< .05), supporting H6. At the same time, social identity moderated the relationship between OCCB on CCB toward the firm (*β* = .17, *p*< .05), supporting H7.

**Discussion**

Study 3 provided experimental evidence of positive OCCB contagion. As expected, if customers saw other customers engaging in citizenship behavior, they reciprocated with similar behaviors toward the firm and customers. Results also revealed that the link between OCCB and CCB was moderated by the informational and normative influences. The results were quite similar to the results of Study 2, which demonstrated the robustness of findings and provided evidence of external validity. Furthermore, the results revealed that the multiple-method findings in this article were far more compelling than single-method outcomes (Davis, Golicic, & Boerstler, 2011).

**General discussion and implications**

**Theoretical Contributions**

The present study shows that when customers engage in citizenship behavior, they foster citizenship behaviors among other customers. In other words, a few good citizens in a service encounter can stimulate citizenship behaviors among the entire customer group. This result is consistent with previous research. For example, Gremler and Brown (1999) show that if customers benefit from other customers who exhibit citizenship behavior, they themselves also tend to engage in similar behaviors. This research obviously shows that customers who exhibit citizenship behavior help generate additional benefits (e.g., recommendation, helping, tolerance, and feedback) (Yi & Gong, in press) through their own behaviors as well as their influences on other customers who are expected to show similar behaviors. Therefore, this research introduces and proves the far-reaching influence of customer citizenship behavior.

Little theoretical or empirical work has examined the boundary conditions behind these relationships. This research begins that examination on the basis of social information processing theory and interpersonal influence theory, and the findings provide preliminary evidence that other-customer focus is important for understanding CCB in a service setting. To explain CCB, researchers have usually drawn on social exchange theory or reciprocity. This study introduces another motivation for CCB, focusing on the social influence of other customers and highlighting the role that other customers play in a social context.

The results show that informational and normative influence strongly affect the relationship between OCCB and CCB, an effect in line with the informational and normative influence mechanism proposed by the theory of interpersonal influence (Bearden et al., 1989; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Hoffmann & Broekhuizen, 2009). The introduction of informational and normative influence to the service encounter would be an important extension in this area. This research provides evidence that under specific conditions, OCCB is strongly related to CCB. Source credibility appears to be an important contingency framework linking OCCB to CCB.

This research supports social identity as a moderator of the relationship between OCCB and CCB. A firm’s efforts to increase CCB will pay off better when considering normative influence. In particular, this study focuses on the customer’s social identification with other customers. Previous research explicitly considers customers’ social identification with the firm (Aherne et al., 2005; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003) and the brand (Lam, Ahearne, Hu, & Schillewaert, 2010). However, investigators have given little attention to customers’ social identification with other customers in the service encounter (Fombelle et al., 2012). The qualitative and quantitative studies show that customers actually perceive social identification with other customers in the service encounter, even when they do not have formal group membership with them. This study therefore contributes to the burgeoning literature on social identity and, more specifically, on customer identity with the internal and external publics of the firm from a social identity perspective.

This study also has a number of implications for CCB research. Previous research on CCB emphasizes the importance of individual and environmental factors in predicting CCB (Yi & Gong, 2008a). Most notably, environmental factors are described primarily as firm- and employee-level phenomena. However, the findings show that other-customer influence presents another environmental variable to be explored. Because of its centrality to the individual–firm interface, an understanding of other customers is critical to an understanding of CCB.

The model also demonstrates that CCB can be distinguished on the basis of target-based conceptualization. Interestingly, the data suggest that the relative impact of OCCB on the two types of CCB is different. Specifically, OCCB has a stronger impact on CCB toward the customer than on CCB toward the firm. This finding is particularly interesting, because most research has not conceptualized CCB on the basis of its beneficiaries.

Overall, the three studies in this multiple-method research (an in-depth interview, a field survey, and a lab experiment) provide largely consistent and convergent evidence, indicating the robustness and generalizability of the findings. Given that a single-method design has limitations, the reassuring pattern of convergence in this study should be noted. This empirical result contributes to a clearer understanding of OCCB and its implications for focal CCB.

**Managerial Contributions**

The results of this investigation have important practical implications. This study offers managers useful insights into how to facilitate CCB. This study shows that citizenship behavior of other customers begets citizenship behavior of a target customer. In other words, OCCB exerts a contagion effect, which means that customers reflect and behave in unison with others’ citizenship behaviors. Citizenship behavior of other customers can be perceived by customers. The customer imitates the citizenship behaviors of other customers and then behaves in parallel with these behaviors and in turn affects the overall firm’s customer citizenship behavior. Thus, this research implies that managers should be more cautious of how customers who exhibit citizenship behavior are modeled and promoted, and therefore would need to examine the imitative process carefully.

Introducing customers who perform citizenship behavior to a customer group may well create more citizenship behavior. Managers may also want to facilitate positive interactions among customers to increase CCB, perhaps by providing and maintaining venues for their customers to stimulate the diffusion of CCB. Additionally, managers can foster a kind of informal community in physical and virtual space among customers to facilitate customers’ communication with each other. Improving psychological climates by rewarding attractive and knowledgeable customers as well as by instituting special programs to improve customer social identity with other customers may help to build a citizenship-oriented culture. This effort could increase CCB, which will eventually enhance firm performance.

Managers may find it useful to monitor customers who exhibit CCB and then make customer selection and resource allocation decisions accordingly. Given that customer citizenship behaviors ultimately contribute to firm profitability, customer relationship managers should consider CCB when making a decision on which customers to target and select for the firm’s loyalty program. Similarly, managers may want to promote practices that highlight CCB role models so that CCB is likely to be reciprocated or amplified. For instance, managers might find ways to identify customers who engage in high levels of citizenship behavior. In addition, managers might consider rewarding customers who repeatedly exhibit citizenship behaviors by giving them personal and public recognition as well as special treatment such as better price, extra service, and higher priority. Managers should use the framework of this research to examine whether lack of OCCB or informational and normative influence may hinder firm performance.

Given the significance of informational influence, marketers should promote customer credibility. A firm might identify high-credibility customers and then foster long-term relationships with them, perhaps by awarding incentives. To improve customer credibility, managers could provide guidelines to customers on how to increase their credibility, such as through management of their physical appearance or by helping them acquire necessary knowledge and increase expertise. To improve customer credibility, managers could initiate reward schemes to recognize reputable contributors. These various efforts definitely better equip customers to exhibit better citizenship behavior.

Further, managers need to help customers develop a strong identity with other customers by incorporating other-customer identity into their own self-identity and by developing a strong emotional bond with other customers. In addition, managers need to devise ways for customers to identify with other customers so that customers can easily find a common identity and share among themselves, which bolsters the mimicking of citizenship behaviors. Managers also need to stimulate customer-to-customer identification actively.

**Limitations and Future Research**

The present study has some limitations. Although this study focuses on other customers as a source of citizenship behavior, employees may also serve as citizenship behavior role models for customers, or employees may consider customer behavior as a model for their own citizenship behavior. Thus, a promising avenue for further research might be to investigate these alternative sources of citizenship behavior.

On the basis of informational and normative influences of other customers, this research examined how OCCB stimulates CCB. However, the mere presence of other people could enhance CCB, because increased public self-awareness increases a socially appropriate behavior (Gibbons, 1990). It might be worthwhile to test this idea in future research.

In Study 3, participants in the low OCCB condition were told that they could not get any information from other customers. However, there might be a difference between simply not mentioning any CCB in the scenario and explicitly saying that other customers were not willing to help customers, which might create a negative tone that results in a number of other consequences that have nothing to do with the research questions. Therefore, future research might manipulate social influence with a research confederate who does or does not engage in CCB and compare the effect between two manipulations.

Furthermore, having customers view real people and their OCCB (or at least view a video of OCCB behaviors) would provide a stronger test of hypotheses. Experimenters might have had difficulties in controlling over the content of the images subjects were imagining, although the use of scenarios is well established in service research (Bitner, 1990).

This study measured OCCB by customer ratings, but future research should collect more reliable measures of citizenship behavior to eliminate the possibility that hypothesized associations are inflated due to common method variance. The model of this study also provides a context for examining individual difference variables. Customer characteristics such as personality and empathy might increase or decrease the path coefficients. In such cases, moderated mediation or mediated moderation analysis could provide important implications for theory and practice.

**References**

Adjei, M. T., Noble, S. M., & Noble, C. H. (2010). The influence of C2C communications in online brand communities on customer purchase behavior. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38, 634-653.

Ahearne, M., Gruen, T. W., & Jarvis, C. B. (1999). If looks could sell: Moderation and mediation of the attractiveness effect on salesperson performance. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 16, 269-284.

Ahearne, M., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Gruen, T. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of customer-company identification: Expanding the role of relationship marketing. Journal of Applied Psychology, 90, 574-585.

Argo, J. J., Dahl, D. W., & Morales, A. C. (2008). Positive consumer contagion: Response to attractive others in a retail context. Journal of Marketing Research, 45, 690-701.

Bagozzi, R. P., & Dholakia, U. M. (2006). Antecedents and purchase consequences of customer participation in small group brand communities. International Journal of Research in Marketing, 23, 45-61.

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 16, 74-94.

Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer-company identification: A framework for understanding consumers’ relationships with companies. Journal of Marketing, 67, 76-88.

Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. Journal of Consumer Research, 15, 473-481.

Bearden, W. O., & Etzel, M. J. (1982). Reference group influence on product and brand purchase decisions. Journal of Consumer Research, 9, 183-194.

Bettencourt, L. A. (1997). Customer voluntary performance: Customers as partners in service delivery. Journal of Retailing, 73, 383-406.

Bhattacharya, C.B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer-company identification: A framework for understanding consumers' relationships with companies. Journal of Marketing, 67, 76-88.

Bitner, M. J. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surroundings and employee responses. Journal of Marketing, 54, 69-82.

Blau, G. J., & Katerberg, R. (1982). Toward enhancing research with the social information processing approach to job design. Academy of Management Review, 7, 543-550.

Bommer, W. H., Miles, E. W., & Grover, S. L. (2003). Does one good turn deserve another? Coworker influences on employee citizenship. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24, 181-196.

Bove, L. L., Pervan, S. J., Beatty, S. E., & Shiu, E. (2009). Service worker role in encouraging customer organizational citizenship behaviors. Journal of Business Research, 62, 698-705.

Braunsberger, K., & Munch, J. M. (1998). Source expertise versus experience effects in hospital advertising. Journal of Services Marketing, 12, 23-38.

Childers, T. L., & Rao, A. R. (1992). The influence of familial and peer-based reference groups on consumer decisions. Journal of Consumer Research, 19, 198–211.

Chin, W. W., Marcolin, B. L., & Newsted, P. R. (2003). A partial least squares latent variable modeling approach for measuring interaction effects: Results from a monte carlo simulation study and voice mail emotion/adoption study. Information Systems Research, 14, 189-217.

Davis, D. F., Golicic, S. L., & Boerstler, C. N. (2011). Benefits and challenges of conducting multiple methods research in marketing. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39, 467-447.

Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influences upon individual judgment. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51, 629-636.

Dholakia, U. M., Blazevic, V., Wiertz, C., & Algesheimer, R. (2009). Communal service delivery: How customers benefit from participation in firm-hosted virtual P3 communities. Journal of Service Research, 12, 208-226.

di Mascio, R. (2010). The service models of frontline employees. Journal of Marketing, 74, 63-80.

Dommeyer, C. J. (2008). The effects of the researcher’s physical attractiveness and gender on mail survey response. Psychology & Marketing, 25, 47-70.

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1975). An attributional analysis of the effect of communicator characteristics on opinion change: The case of communicator attractiveness. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 136-144.

Eby, L. T., Lockwood, A. L., & Butts, M. (2006). Perceived support for mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68, 267-291.

Ellemers, N., Kortekaas, P., & Ouwerkerk, J. W. (1999). Self-categorisation, commitment to the group and group self-esteem as related but distinct aspects of social identity. European Journal of Social Psychology, 29, 371-389.

Ferguson, M., & Barry, B. (2011). I know what you did: The effects of interpersonal deviance on bystanders. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16, 80–94.

Fombelle, P. W., Jarvis, C. B., Ward, J., & Ostrom, L. (2012). Leveraging customers’ multiple identities: Identity synergy as a driver of organizational identification. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 40, 587-604.

Gibbons, F. X. (1990). Self-attention and behavior: A review and theoretical update. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 23, pp. 249-303). New York: Academic Press.

Glomb, T. M., & Liao, H. (2003). Interpersonal aggression in work groups: Social influence, reciprocal, and individual effects. Academy of Management Journal, 46, 486-496.

Gremler, D. D., & Brown, S. W. (1999). The loyalty ripple effect: Appreciating the full value of customers. International Journal of Service Industry Management, 10, 271-291.

Groth, M. (2005). Customers as good soldiers: Examining citizenship behaviors in internet service deliveries. Journal of Management, 31, 7-27.

Grove, S. J., & Fisk, R. P. (1997). The impact of other customers on service experiences: A critical incident examination. Journal of Retailing, 73, 63-85.

Gruen, T. W. (1995). The outcome set of relationship marketing in consumer markets. International Business Review, 4, 447-469.

Gruen, T. W., Osmonbekov, T., & Czaplewski, A. J. (2007). Customer-to-customer exchange: Its MOA antecedents and its impact on value creation and loyalty. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 35, 537-549.

Gruen, T. W., Summers, J. O., & Acito, F. (2000). Relationship marketing activities, commitment, and membership behaviors in professional associations. Journal of Marketing, 64, 34-49.

Harris, L. C., & Reynolds, K. L. (2003). The consequences of dysfunctional customer behavior. Journal of Service Research, 6, 144-161.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. In R. R. Sinkovics & P. N. Ghauri (Eds.), Advances in international marketing (Vol. 20, pp. 277-319). Bingley, United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Hoffmann, A. O. I., & Broekhuizen, T. L. J. (2009). Susceptibility to and impact of interpersonal influence in an investment context. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 37, 488-503.

Homburg, C., Workman, J. P., & Jensen, O. (2000). Fundamental changes in marketing organization: The movement toward a customer-focused organizational structure. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28, 459-478.

Huang, W., Lin, Y., & Wen, Y. (2010). Attributions and outcomes of customer misbehavior. Journal of Business and Psychology, 25, 151-161.

Hughes, D. E., & Ahearne, M. (2010). Energizing the reseller’s sales force:The power of brand identification. Journal of Marketing, 74, 81–96.

Keh, H. T., & Pang, J. (2010). Customer reactions to service separation. Journal of Marketing, 74, 55-70.

Kohli, A. K., & Jaworski, B. J. (1990). Market orientation: The construct, research propositions, and managerial implications. Journal of Marketing, 54, 1-18.

Lam, S. K., Ahearne, M., Hu, Y., & Schillewaert, N. (2010). Resistance to brand switching when a radically new brand is introduced: A social identity theory perspective. Journal of Marketing, 74, 128-146.

Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 131-142.

Lengnick-Hall, C. A., Claycomb, V., & Inks, L. W. (2000). From recipient to contributor: Examining customer roles and experienced outcomes. European Journal of Marketing, 34, 359-383.

Liang, H., Saraf, N., Hu, Q., & Xue, Y. (2007). Assimilation of enterprise systems: The effect of institutional pressures and the mediating role of top management. MIS Quarterly, 31, 59-87.

Mangleburg, T. F., Doney, P. M., & Bristol, T. (2004). Shopping with friends and teens’ susceptibility to peer influence. Journal of Retailing, 80, 101-116.

McCracken, G. (1988). The long interview. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the celebrity endorser? Cultural foundations of the endorsement process. Journal of Consumer Research, 16, 310-321.

McNeely, B. L., & Meglino, B. M. (1994). The role of dispositional and situational antecedents in prosocial organizational behavior: An examination of the intended beneficiaries of prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 836-844.

Newell, S. J., & Goldsmith, R. E. (2001). The development of a scale to measure perceived corporate credibility. Journal of Business Research, 52, 235-247.

Ohanian, R. (1990). Construction and validation of a scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. Journal of Advertising, 19, 39-52.

Park, C. W., & Lessig, V. P. (1977). Students and housewives: Differences in susceptibility to reference group influence. Journal of Consumer Research, 4, 102-110.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommendation remedies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 879-903.

Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2009). Overlooked but not untouched: How rudeness reduces onlookers' performance on routine and creative tasks. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 109, 29-44.

Puri , S., Adams, V., Ivey, S., & Nachtigall, R. D. (2011). There is such a thing as too many daughters, but not too many sons: A qualitative study of son preference and fetal sex selection among Indian immigrants in the United States. Social Science & Medicine, 72, 1169–1176.

Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2005). Smart PLS (Version 2.0 M3) [Computer software].

Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. Academy of Management Journal, 41, 658-672.

Rosenbaum, M. S., & Massiah, C. A. (2007). When customers receive support from other customers: Exploring the influence of intercustomer social support on customer voluntary performance. Journal of Service Research, 9, 257-270.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. Administrative Science Quarterly, 23, 224-253.

Sternthal, B., Dholakia, R., & Leavitt, C. (1978). The persuasive effect of source credibility: Tests of cognitive response. Journal of Consumer Research, 4, 252-260.

Thompson, C. J., Rindfleisch, A., & Arsel, Z. (2006). Emotional branding and the strategic value of the doppelganger brand image. Journal of Marketing, 70, 50-64.

van Doorn, J., Lemon, K. N., Mittal, V., Nass, S., Pick, D., Pirner, P., & Verhoef, P. C. (2010). Customer engagement behavior: Theoretical foundations and research directions. Journal of Service Research, 13, 253-266.

van Jaarsveld, D. D., Walker, D. D., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2010). The role of job demands and emotional exhaustion in the relationship between customer and employee incivility. Journal of Management, 36, 1486-1504.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17, 601-617.

Workman, J. P., Homburg, C., & Gruner. K. (1998). Marketing organization: An integrative framework of dimensions and determinants. Journal of Marketing, 62, 21-41.

Yi, Y., & Gong, T. (2008a). The effects of customer justice perception and affect on customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. Industrial Marketing Management, 37, 767-783.

Yi, Y., & Gong, T. (2008b). If employees “go the extra mile,”do customers reciprocate with similar behavior? Psychology & Marketing, 25, 961-986.

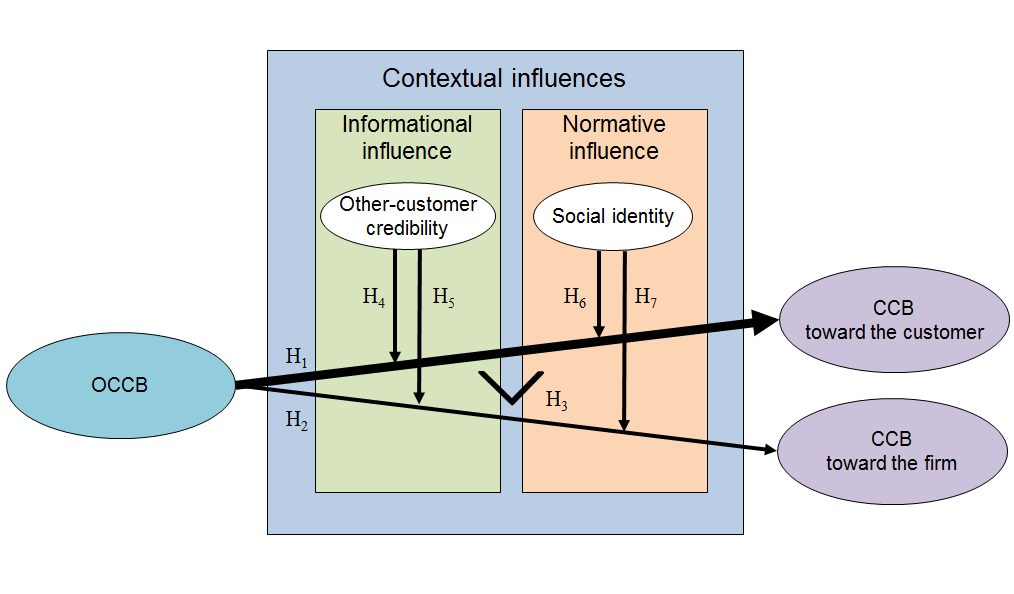
Yi, Y., & Gong, T. (in press), Customer value co-creation behavior: Scale development and validation, Journal of Business Research.

Yi, Y., Nataraajan, R., & Gong, T. (2011). Customer participation and citizenship behavioral influences on employee performance, satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. Journal of Business Research, 64, 87-95.

**Table 1. PLS Results for the Structural Model**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  | Study 2 | | Study 3 | |
| Dependent variables | | | CCB toward the customer | CCB toward the firm | CCB toward the customer | CCB toward the firm |
| Main effects | | | | | | |
| Other-customer citizenship behavior | | | .28\*\*\* | .11\* | .82\*\*\* | .22\*\*\* |
| Other-customer credibility | | | .19\*\*\* | .18\*\*\* | .31\*\*\* | .26\*\*\* |
| Customer social identity | | | .13\* | .43\*\*\* | .87\*\*\* | .32\*\*\* |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Interaction effects | | | | | | |
| OCCB × Other-customer credibility | | | .22\* | .26\*\* | .13\*\* | .11\* |
| OCCB × Customer social identity | | | .33\*\* | .16 | .10\* | .17\* |

\* *p*< .05, \*\**p*< .01, \*\*\* *p*< .001, one-tailed, CCB = customer citizenship behavior, OCCB = other-customer citizenship behavior.



**Figure 1.** Conceptual framework and hypothesized relationships

**Appendix**

Scale Items for Construct Measures

|  |
| --- |
| Construct |
| **Other-customer citizenship behavior toward the customer**: (seven-point scales anchored with “never” and “very frequently,” based on Groth, 2005)  OCC1 Other customers assist me in finding products.  OCC2 Other customers help me with my shopping.  OCC3 Other customers teach me how to use the service correctly.  OCC4 Other customers explain to me how to use the service correctly. |
|  |
| **Other-customer credibility**: (seven-point, bipolar semantic differential scales based on Ohanian, 1990)  **Other-customer attractiveness**  Other customers are …  ATT1 Attractive-Unattractive  ATT2 Classy-Not classy  ATT3 Beautiful-Ugly  ATT4 Elegant-Plain |
| **Other-customer trustworthiness**  Other customers are …  TRU1 Dependable-Undependable  TRU2 Honest-Dishonest  TRU3 Reliable-Unreliable  TRU4 Sincere-Insincere  TRU5 Trustworthy-Untrustworthy  **Other-customer expertise**  Other customers are …  EXP1 Expert-Not an expert  EXP2 Experienced-Inexperienced  EXP3 Knowledgeable-Unknowledgeable  EXP4 Qualified-Unqualified |
|  |
| **Social identity** (based on Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006)  **Cognitive social identity**  CSI1 How would you express the degree of overlap between your personal identity and the identity of the other customers you shopped with? (8-point graphical “not at all–very much” scale)  CSI2 Please indicate to what degree your self-image overlaps with the identity of other customers you had shopped with (7-point “not at all–very much” scale)  **Affective social identity**  ASI1 How attached are you to the other customers you mentioned above? (7-point “not at all attached–attached very much” scale)  ASI2 How strong would you say your feelings of belongingness are toward the other customers? (7-point “not at all strong–very strong” scale)  **Evaluative social identity**  ESI1 I am a valuable member of the XYZ customers (7-point “does not describe me at all–describes me very well” scale)  ESI2 I am an important member of the XYZ customers (7-point “does not describe me at all–describes me very well” scale) |
| **Customer citizenship behavior toward other customers**: (seven-point scales anchored with “never” and “very frequently,” based on Groth, 2005)  CBC1 I assist other customers in finding products.  CBC2 I help others with their shopping.  CBC3 I teach someone how to use the service correctly.  CBC4 I explain to other customers how to use the service correctly. |
| **Customer citizenship behavior toward the firm**: (seven-point scales anchored with “never” and “very frequently,” based on Yi, Nataraajan, & Gong, 2011)  CBF1 I make constructive suggestions to this company on how to improve its service.  CBF2 I give the company my full cooperation.  CBF3 I say positive things about this company to others. |