



**The Effect of Self-efficacy, Role Clarity, and Trust on
Customer Well-being and Loyalty through Value
Co-creation: The Case of Fitness Centres**

**being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in the University of Hull**

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to:

My dear parents,

My beloved wife, Leila,

My lovely kids, Sina and Parsa,

and

My brothers, sisters, and the late grandmother.

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I offer great appreciation to ALLAH for giving me the blessings, strength, and courage to bring the PhD journey to the end, and for providing me with the patience, guidance, inspiration, and perseverance needed throughout my PhD studies.

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Abstract

Nowadays, there are two critical concerns in societies such as British: customer defection in the sport clubs and the reduction of well-being. Therefore, sport clubs need to deliver programmes that are helpful to retain existing customers as well as improve customer well-being. Participation in value co-creative behaviours can be supposed as a means of obtaining the mentioned aims. However, literature review revealed that although there are a number of studies regarding the effect of customer participation on loyalty, the findings are debateable. More importantly, the review also indicated a scant research regarding the relationship between value co-creation and well-being (e.g., sport life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction).

Further, customers need different types of abilities to contribute to the service delivery process. Identifying and improving influential abilities can help to foster customer service participation. Another knowledge gap in the marketing literature is that determinants of customer value co-creation are not well-documented, especially in the sport service sector. Reviewing of the relevant literature indicated that self-efficacy as an individual factor and role clarity and trust as relational factors may influence participative behaviours. Given the mentioned arguments, a conceptual model was suggested to investigate antecedents and consequences of value co-creation in the sport sector through the lens of service-dominant logic perspective.

Moreover, at first a questionnaire was designed by reviewing of the relevant literature to assess the research constructs. Next, as the pre-testing stage 20 informants reviewed and gave feedback about the questionnaire. Then, in the pilot-testing stage 60 fitness club members answered the questionnaire. Data analysis indicated that the designed questionnaire is appropriate for collecting data in the main study stage. As the target population for the main study, data was collected among 346 members of fitness centres through convenience sampling, but only 343 completed questionnaires were usable.

Furthermore, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling were used to analyse data. The results of structural model by AMOS confirmed that all intended antecedents (self-efficacy, role clarity, trust) significantly and positively influence value co-creation dimensions (compliance, advocacy, helping other members), except for the effect of self-efficacy on compliance. Role clarity also significantly influenced customer trust. In addition, of the three dimensions of value co-creation only advocacy had significant effect on customer loyalty. As well, while compliance and advocacy had significant impacts on sport life satisfaction, the effect of helping other members on sport life satisfaction was insignificant. Finally, both customer loyalty and overall life satisfaction were significantly and positively influenced by sport life satisfaction.

This study contributes to the limited body of empirical research on value co-creation, particularly within the sport service sector. Theoretical implication of the study is that it responds to the research calls to identify determinants and outcomes of customer value co-creation. Importantly, this study not only applies sport life satisfaction as a new concept in the sport marketing research but also reveals that this construct has a mediation effect in the relationship between the research constructs. Therefore, the sport club managers should have special attention to this factor. Another important application of this study for the managers is that customer participation in helping behaviours does not lead to positive outcomes in the context of this study.

In sum, the current research investigates a set of factors that enhance customer loyalty and well-being, which nowadays their reduction is a concern in societies. The findings of this study help the fitness centre managers and policy makers to know how to improve customer value co-creation, which dimension of value co-creation is more important, and the mechanism in which customer loyalty and well-being increase.

Table of Contents

Dedication.....	I
Acknowledgments	II
Publications/Award	III
Abstract.....	IV
Table of Contents.....	VI
List of Tables	X
List of Figures	XI
CHAPTER 1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Research Background	1
1.3 Sport Sector in the UK.....	7
1.4 Value Co-creation in the Sport Sector	9
1.5 Research Aim, Question, and Objectives.....	11
1.6 Significance of the Research	12
1.6.1 Customer Loyalty Improvement.....	12
1.6.2 Customer Well-being Improvement.....	13
1.7 Research Contribution	16
1.8 Research Outline.....	18
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	20
2.1 Introduction	20
2.2 Services in the Sport Context.....	21
2.3 Value Co-creation	24
2.3.1 Value and Value Creation	24
2.3.2 Service-dominant Logic	28
2.3.3 Value Co-creation Definition	33
2.3.4 Value Co-creation Dimensions	41
2.3.4.1 Compliance.....	41
2.3.4.2 Advocacy	44
2.3.4.3 Helping other Members.....	46

2.4 Self-efficacy	48
2.5 Role Clarity	54
2.6 Customer Trust	59
2.7 Customer Loyalty	62
2.8 Customer Well-being	68
2.8.1 Sport Life Satisfaction	77
2.8.2 Overall Life Satisfaction	79
CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT	82
3.1 Introduction	82
3.2 Research Conceptual Model	83
3.3 Self-efficacy and Value Co-creation	85
3.4 Role Clarity and Value Co-creation	91
3.5 Role Clarity and Customer Trust	95
3.6 Customer Trust and Value Co-creation	97
3.7 Value Co-creation and Customer Loyalty	100
3.8 Value Co-creation and Sport Life Satisfaction	103
3.9 Sport Life Satisfaction and Customer Loyalty	110
3.10 Sport Life Satisfaction and Overall Life Satisfaction	112
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	117
4.1 Introduction	117
4.2 Research Paradigm	117
4.3 Research Approach	121
4.4 Data Collection Method	122
4.4.1 Questionnaire Design	122
4.4.1.1 Control Variables	124
4.4.1.2 Self-efficacy	124
4.4.1.3 Role Clarity	125
4.4.1.4 Trust	125
4.4.1.5 Compliance	126
4.4.1.6 Advocacy	126

4.4.1.7 Helping other Members	127
4.4.1.8 Sport Life Satisfaction	127
4.4.1.9 Overall Life Satisfaction.....	128
4.4.1.10 Loyalty	129
4.4.2 Pre-testing Stage	130
4.4.3 Pilot-testing Stage	132
4.4.4 Main Study Stage.....	144
4.4.4.1 Research Population and Sample	144
4.4.4.2 Sample Size	146
4.4.4.3 Sampling Technique	147
4.4.4.4 Data Collection Method	148
4.5 Ethical Considerations	149
CHAPTER 5 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	151
5.1 Introduction	151
5.2 Data Preparation.....	151
5.2.1 Missing Data	151
5.2.2 Outliers	153
5.2.3 Normality.....	156
5.2.4 Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Multicollinearity.....	157
5.2.5 Non-response Bias.....	158
5.3 Sample Profile	159
5.4 Factor Analysis	161
5.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis	162
5.4.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Value Co-creation Antecedents..	162
5.4.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Value Co-creation Dimensions ...	166
5.4.1.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Value Co-creation Consequences	170
5.4.1.4 Formative versus Reflective Indicator Measurement Models	173
5.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis	174
5.4.2.1 Goodness-of-fit Indices	175
5.4.2.2 Convergent and Discriminant Validity	182
5.4.2.3 Common Method Bias	185

5.5 Structural Equation Modelling Results	187
5.5.1 Direct Effects	188
5.5.2 Indirect Effects.....	191
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS	195
6.1 Introduction	195
6.2 Importance of the Research Constructs	195
6.2.1 Importance of Self-efficacy	195
6.2.2 Importance of Role Clarity.....	199
6.2.3 Importance of Trust.....	202
6.2.4 Importance of Value Co-creation	205
6.2.5 Importance of Sport Life Satisfaction	210
CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS	215
7.1 Introduction	215
7.2 Review of Aim, Objectives, and Findings of Study	216
7.3 Theoretical Implication	217
7.4 Managerial Implication	227
7.5 Limitations and Future Research Directions.....	232
7.5.1 Research Limitations	232
7.5.2 Future Research Directions	233
References	239
Appendix A.....	A
Appendix B.....	I
Appendix C.....	M
Appendix D.....	P
Appendix E	Q
Appendix F	R
Appendix G.....	S

List of Tables

Table 2.1 Foundational Premises of Service-dominant Logic.....	28
Table 2.2 Characteristics of Different Concepts	32
Table 2.3 Value Co-creation Definitions	35
Table 2.4 Dimensions of Customer Value Co-creation	47
Table 2.5 Self-efficacy Definitions.....	50
Table 2.6 Changing the Role of Customers	55
Table 2.7 Role Clarity Definitions	57
Table 2.8 Customer Trust Definitions	60
Table 2.9 Relationship Marketing Definitions.....	63
Table 2.10 Customer Loyalty Definitions	65
Table 2.11 Strategic Planning among Three Groups of Marketing Approaches	70
Table 2.12 Subjective Well-being Definitions	73
Table 2.13 Life Satisfaction Definitions.....	80
Table 3.1 Adapted Definitions of the Research Constructs	85
Table 4.1 Factor Loadings and Reliability for Value Co-creation Antecedents.....	134
Table 4.2 Factor Loadings and Reliability for Value Co-creation Dimensions	135
Table 4.3 Factor Loadings and Reliability for Value Co-creation Consequences...	136
Table 4.4 Research Statements and Relevant Sources	138
Table 5.1 Outlier and Normality of Self-efficacy.....	154
Table 5.2 Outlier and Normality of Role Clarity	154
Table 5.3 Outlier and Normality of Trust	154
Table 5.4 Outlier and Normality of Compliance	155
Table 5.5 Outlier and Normality of Advocacy	155
Table 5.6 Outlier and Normality of Helping other Members.....	155
Table 5.7 Outlier and Normality of Sport Life Satisfaction	155
Table 5.8 Outlier and Normality of Loyalty	156
Table 5.9 Outlier and Normality of Life Satisfaction	156
Table 5.10 Profile of Survey Respondents	160
Table 5.11 Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Reliabilities for Value Co-creation Antecedents	164

Table 5.12 KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Value Co-creation Antecedents..	165
Table 5.13 Total Variance Explained for Value Co-creation Antecedents	165
Table 5.14 Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Reliabilities for Value Co-creation Dimensions.....	168
Table 5.15 KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Value Co-creation Dimensions ...	168
Table 5.16 Total Variance Explained for Value Co-creation Dimensions.....	169
Table 5.17 Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Reliabilities for Value Co-creation Consequences	171
Table 5.18 KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Value Co-creation Consequences	172
Table 5.19 Total Variance Explained for Value Co-creation Consequences	172
Table 5.20 Descriptive Statistics, Factor Loadings, and Reliability of Factors and Variables.....	179
Table 5.21 Convergent Validity Assessment for Measures	183
Table 5.22 Discriminant Validity Assessment for Measures.....	184
Table 5.23 Comparison of Nine-latent and One-latent-factor Models	187
Table 5.24 Summary of Structural Equation Modelling Results for the Proposed Models.....	191
Table 5.25 Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect of Research Factors.....	193

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Customer Defection in the Sport Clubs in the UK (2008-2012).....	8
Figure 2.1 Service/Product Continuum.....	23
Figure 3.1 The Research Conceptual Model	84
Figure 5.1 Scree Plot for Value Co-creation Antecedents.....	166
Figure 5.2 Scree Plot for Value Co-creation Dimensions	170
Figure 5.3 Scree Plot for Value Co-creation Consequences.....	173
Figure 5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results	177
Figure 5.5 Structural Equation Modelling Results	190
Figure 5.6 The Research Results	194

CHAPTER 1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

This chapter explains background of the research to have a better understanding of the thesis. At first, this chapter introduces the central concept used in the current study (i.e., value co-creation) and some research gaps related to the concept in the literature. Next, the chapter describes the sport sector in the UK and the importance of value co-creation in the sector. Then, this part of the thesis introduces aim, question, and objectives of the study. Another section of the chapter discusses the significance of the study that relates to customer loyalty and well-being improvement. Contribution of the study is another section that clarifies theoretical and managerial implications. Lastly, all chapters of the thesis are outlined.

1.2 Research Background

Vargo and Lusch (2004) have introduced Service-dominant Logic that relates to the supplier-customer relationship and service management. Value co-creation by multiple actors, rather than by a single actor, is emphasised in this logic. In comparison with goods-dominant logic that emphasises physical resources, service-dominant logic underscores knowledge and skills (Chandler and Vargo, 2011). Service-dominant logic has 10 foundational premises. One of the most important premises of the logic is the premise six that refers to “the customer is always a cocreator of value” (Vargo and Lusch, 2008b, p.7, Vargo, Maglio and Akaka, 2008, p.148).

Grönroos (2012, p.1520) defines value co-creation as “joint activities by parties involved in direct interactions, aiming at contributing to the value that emerges for

one or both parties". Customer co-creation is becoming more and more popular in the recent years (Gustafsson, Kristensson and Witell, 2012) because customer collaboration and participation in the service encounter is necessary in order to accomplish value creation (Moeller, Ciuchita, Mahr, Odekerken-Schroder and Fassnacht, 2013). To clarify the value co-creation concept, it is worthwhile to mention that this concept is considered as the positive side of customer engagement in the current study. Vivek, Beatty and Morgan (2012) state that customer engagement means to what extent a customer participates in the organisational activities and/or connects with the organisation's offerings, which either the customer or the organisation initiate. It should be noted that customers may engage in service process positively (e.g., customer advocacy) and/or negatively (e.g., negative word of mouth).

By accepting customer as value co-creators, it can be asked what factors enable customers to participate in the service delivery process. One important factor is self-efficacy. Drawn on social cognitive theory, self-efficacy refers to the belief in a person has to perform a given task (Bandura, 1997). According to Ford and Dickson (2012), low self-efficacy leads to weak effort and high self-efficacy results in much effort to perform a task. Another factor that may enable customer value co-creation is role clarity. According to Meuter, Bitner, Ostrom and Brown (2005), role clarity refers to understanding of what to do. Grounded on role theory (Solomon, Surprenant, Czepiel and Gutman, 1985), role clarity helps customers to know their responsibilities and authorities, as well as to recognise what is expected of them and how to deal with the employees.

Furthermore, a firm and a customer evaluate their interactions with each other through trust (Walz and Celuch, 2010). Trust means a customer's point of view about the reliability of the service provider (Gregoire, Tripp and Legoux, 2009). Reviewing of the literature indicates that any environmental conflict and uncertainty in roles negatively influences customer trust (e.g., Davies, Lassar, Manolis, Prince and Winsor, 2011, Geyskens, Steenkamp and Kumar, 1998). With regard to the consequences of customer engagement, customer loyalty is regarded in this study as the value co-created for the fitness centres. The concept is operationalised in the current thesis based on the definition by Gremler and Brown (1996, p.173): "the degree to which a customer exhibits repeat purchasing behaviour from a service provider, possesses a positive attitudinal disposition toward the provider, and considers using only this provider when a need for this service arises". The effect of customer engagement on loyalty is debateable in the marketing literature since there are inconsistent findings.

Additionally, Diener and Seligman (2004) contend that the purpose of services is the improvement of well-being; so policymakers should focus on this concept. According to Williams and Lee (2006), improving consumers' welfare and quality of life have recently been focused in the consumer research. Well-being studies related to customers have attracted many consumer researchers, macromarketers, and marketing scholars who research public policy (Sirgy, 2008). Indeed, nowadays we are the witness of a growing interest of researchers who study customers' welfare and quality of life (Lee, Sirgy, Larsen and Wright, 2002, Williams and Lee, 2006).

There is a growing consensus that organisations must embrace value co-creation approach in order to succeed in the competitive market. Indeed, firms should not view value creation only during manufacturing process, but also throughout consumption process by customers. Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) specify customer value co-creation as one of the most important topics in marketing.

Although there are a number of studies related to value co-creation, some issues exist in the literature that are argued in this section. First, according to Gambetti and Graffigna (2010), despite the interest of the academic and professional marketing communities towards customer engagement, there is a need for more profound knowledge and understanding of the concept. Indeed, value co-creation has not received enough attention by researchers. Particularly, van Doorn, Lemon, Mittal, Nass, Pick, Pirner and Verhoef (2010) draw attention to the need for more exhaustively identification of antecedents of customer engagement behaviours as well as articulating relationships between the antecedents.

Similarly, Hollebeek (2011b, p.801) notes that “insights into the specific drivers of customer brand engagement are limited to date, as well as any interactions between these variables [drivers], which may be illuminated in future research”. Another research call proposed by Brodie, Hollebeek, Juric and Ilic (2011, p.263) is that: “which particular concepts act as CE [customer engagement] antecedents and/or consequences in specific contexts?” Therefore, this study is intended to contribute to the sport marketing knowledge through exploring determinants and outcomes of value co-creation.

As noted by Gambetti and Graffigna (2010) and Meuter et al. (2005), the second issue in the literature is that reviewing of the customer engagement literature reveals that most researchers have studied customer engagement in the internet (online) contexts or in the self-service settings. Appendix A not only confirms this point of view of the mentioned scholars above but also illustrates that there is a scant research that explores the antecedents and consequences of customer participative activities in the sport service sector. Based on this review, it is apparent that the relevant literature lacks theoretical and experimental evidence related to the sport sector. Hence, this study also attempts to bridge this gap.

Third, extant literature on customer value has been questioned because it has focused on the value of customers to the firms, rather than the value of the customers to themselves (Chen, Drennan and Andrews, 2012). Similarly, Moeller et al. (2013) argue that many studies in value creation focus on the firms' benefits, rather than the customers' benefits. These scholars emphasise the necessity of the revision of traditional views of marketing and value creation in which customers consume value created by companies. Therefore, the important issue is that most studies have investigated the benefits of customer participation for the firms, rather than for the customers themselves. Subjective well-being is considered as the value co-created for customers in the present study.

Given well-being as an important factor in our lifetime, the fourth issue is that a few studies have explored the effect of service participation on customer well-being (e.g., Guo, Arnould, Gruen and Tang, 2013, Mende and van Doorn, 2014). Actually, "little empirical research has addressed the customer's role in value co-creation and

its subsequent effect on important customer outcomes, such as quality of life” (McColl-Kennedy, Vargo, Dagger, Sweeney and van Kasteren, 2012, p.375). Scholars such as Day and Montgomery (1999) and Lee and Sirgy (2004) emphasise the need for studying non-consumption aspects of marketing (e.g., customer quality of life).

However, it is maintained that there is an inadequate empirical research that explores the effect of marketing on social concepts such as customer well-being or both customer loyalty and well-being. For example, Dagger and Sweeney (2006, p.15) convey that “limited research has addressed the social outcome of service provision or the simultaneous impact of service provision on both economic and social outcomes”. So, the fifth issue is that there is a scant empirical research that discovers the effect of service participation on firms’ and customers’ benefits simultaneously. In the present study, it is regarded that customer loyalty is an essential outcome for the fitness centres and that well-being is an important outcome for the centres’ members.

Last issue is that reviewing of the relevant literature (see Appendix A) indicates that the majority of researchers (e.g., Hedlund, 2014, Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014, Polo Pena, Frias Jamilena and Rodriguez Molina, 2014, Vega-Vazquez, Angeles Revilla-Camacho and Cossio-Silva, 2013) have applied customer participation or value co-creation as a whole construct, rather than a multi-dimensional construct, to explore its antecedents and consequences. Needless to say that consideration of more dimensions of the construct helps to have more generalizable model that reflects different aspects of customers’ behaviours. This research has regarded three

dimensions of value co-creation behaviours, including compliance, advocacy, and helping other members.

In sum, most mentioned issues above are also underscored by Vega-Vazquez et al. (2013), who designate three concerns. First, few studies have explored value co-creation from the customers' perspective. Second, if so, just partial aspects of the customers' engagement behaviours have been focused. Third, consequences of value co-creation are not well-documented by scholars. These three concerns have been considered in this study, hence the respondents of the research are the fitness clubs' customers and their well-being is investigated, three aspects of value co-creation behaviours have been measured, and consequences of value co-creation behaviours (i.e., customers' well-being and loyalty) have been explored. Therefore, this study is going to fill these gaps by identifying the antecedents and consequences of value co-creation.

1.3 Sport Sector in the UK

People in the UK have different leisure activities. Gambling is the most popular leisure activity, followed by eating out in restaurants, drinking in pubs/bars, and eating out in pubs. Other slightly less popular activities are going to cinema and public leisure centres, swimming pools, and health and fitness clubs (Intel, 2015b). Intel (2015a) also reports the growth of health and fitness clubs in the UK. According to the report, the number of the clubs in 2010 was 2660, while it is estimated that the figure changes to 2997 in 2015.

However, an issue in the UK is the reduction of members in the sport clubs. For example, Mintel (2012) reports that adult membership in some sport clubs has decreased since 2008 (Figure 1.1) and that 63% of UK adults aged over 15 are inactive. According to Mintel, 64% of the sport clubs face the challenge of recruitment and retention of playing members. The issue of customer reduction in the fitness clubs is also mentioned by other researchers (e.g., Ferrand, Robinson and Valette-Florence, 2010, Gonçalves, Biscaia, Correia and Diniz, 2014).

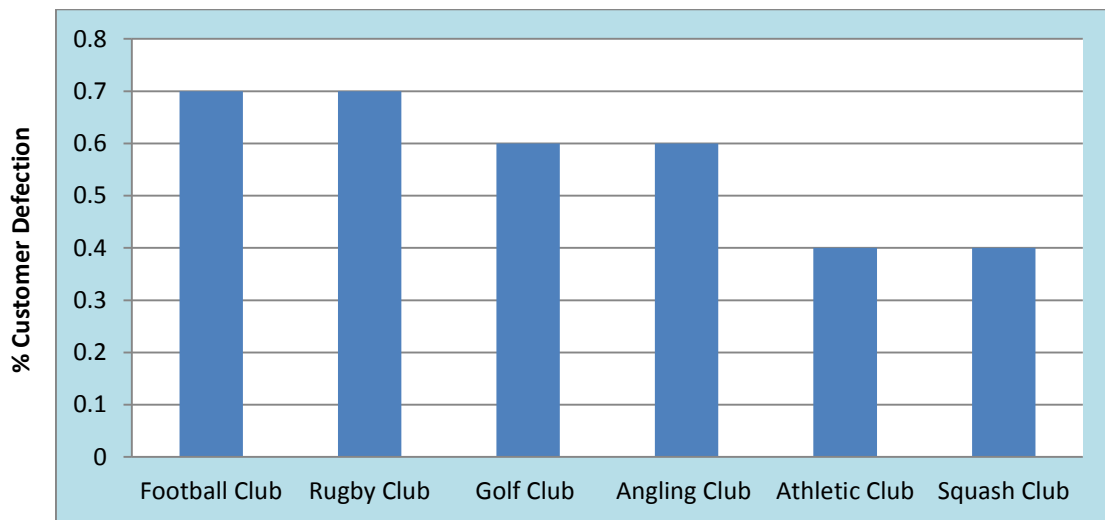


Figure 1.1 Customer Defection in the Sport Clubs in the UK (2008-2012)

Furthermore, Kim and Trail (2011) emphasise the highly competitive market of sport sector due to customer defection and specify three reasons for this issue: increasing cost of participation, attention change of players and sport organisations from fans to money, and new technology growth. Based on the aforementioned challenge, sport organisations need to attract new customers as well as retain the existing ones, which both are critical for a long-term economic success (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner and Gremler, 2002). Therefore, thorough knowledge about the motives of customer loyalty is an important issue for the managers of sport organisations (Bodet, 2012).

The current study is intended to identify influential factors on customer loyalty in the fitness centres.

1.4 Value Co-creation in the Sport Sector

Health-related sectors such as fitness clubs are service organisations that sell experiences (de Barros and Gonçalves, 2009). As such, Woratschek, Horbel and Popp (2014) indicate that goods-dominant logic is not able to clarify many phenomena in sport management. For instance, in addition to the firm, other stakeholders such as politicians, journalists, and fans must contribute to the event to produce a sport event. This study is going to contribute to the body of sport marketing knowledge through the lens of service-dominant logic that proposes customers are value co-creators (Vargo and Lusch, 2008b, Vargo et al., 2008).

According to Aggarwal and Basu (2014, p.322), “physical activity is a classic example of a cocreated service”. Actually, in the current study it is assumed that the fitness industry is appropriate to identify the determinants and outcomes of value co-creation through the logic. With regard to the sport sector, it is mentioned that fitness centres are value facilitators (Aggarwal and Basu, 2014) and customers are co-creators of value (Stieler, Weismann and Germelmann, 2014). Aggarwal and Basu (2014) contend that identifying influential factors on value co-creation in the fitness clubs is fruitful not only for the members but also for the healthcare service entities (e.g., physicians, clinics and hospitals, and even governments). However, a few studies are conducted to identify the determinants and outcomes of value co-creation in the sport clubs, particularly in the fitness centres.

For instance, Yoshida, Gordon, Nakazawa and Biscaia (2014) conduct a study regarding the antecedents and consequences of fan engagement. They find that the effect of prosocial activities such as interaction with other fans and sharing information with them on purchase intention is not significant. Aggarwal and Basu (2014) also reveal that the quality of interactions between the fitness clubs' members and the staff has positive impact on customer effort in value co-creation. As such, ritual behaviours in professional sports as fan engagement increases fans' satisfaction (e.g., McDonald and Karg, 2014). Further, Hedlund (2014) also find that participation in sport fan consumption communities significantly influences attendance intentions and merchandise purchase intentions.

Importantly, it should be mentioned that the sport sector, more particularly the fitness industry, is chosen for the current research because:

- A scant research is conducted in the sport sector (e.g., Hedlund, 2014, Yoshida et al., 2014). Most of the relevant studies are on technology-based self-services, online activities, or healthcare sector (see Appendix A).
- Given this research emphasise on direct interactions to conceptualise value co-creation, fitness centres are a highly participative environment and many interactions and information exchange occur there.
- Following instructions is important to prevent any hazardous consequences for customers themselves as well as for the other customers in the centres.

- Customer defection in the sport clubs, including the fitness centres, is an issue nowadays (Ferrand et al., 2010, Gonçalves et al., 2014, Mintel, 2012).

1.5 Research Aim, Question, and Objectives

To address the aforementioned issues and gaps, this study aims: To identify the antecedents and consequences of customer value co-creation in the sport service sector. Consequently, based on the main aim, the following research question emerges:

To what extent do self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust influence customer well-being and loyalty through value co-creation?

Given the mentioned aim and question above, the objectives of the thesis are as follows:

- To identify the effect of self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust on value co-creation.
- To explore the effect of role clarity on trust.
- To determine the effect of value co-creation on loyalty and sport life satisfaction.
- To investigate the effect of sport life satisfaction on loyalty and overall life satisfaction.

1.6 Significance of the Research

Previous sections have explained the constructs of the thesis and introduced the extant knowledge gaps in the marketing research. They have also described the sport sector, value co-creation in the sector, and the research aim and objectives. This section indicates the importance of the research. Nowadays, we are the witness of two critical concerns in societies: customer defection in the sport clubs (Ferrand et al., 2010, Gonçalves et al., 2014, Mintel, 2012) and the reduction of people's well-being (Helliwell, Layard and Sachs, 2015). Given the mentioned concerns, the importance of the research is explained in the following sections.

1.6.1 Customer Loyalty Improvement

It is already mentioned that customer defection is an issue for the sport club managers. Pedragosa and Correia (2009) contend that the role of customer loyalty is critical for the sport organisations because it not only provides economic supports but also establishes a platform for other objectives of the organisations. As such, customer loyalty is an important goal in marketing (Reichheld and Schefter, 2000) because it leads to more revenue, spend less time and attention to customers, get customer-service mishaps forgiveness, and receive positive word-of-mouth from their customers (Yang and Peterson, 2004). By having loyal customers a service provider would have not only more profits (Cronin, Brady and Hult, 2000) but also less cost to serve the customers (Reichheld and Sasser, 1990). According to Eriksson and Vaghult (2000), an essential strategy issue in order to develop business relationship is customer retention.

As a result, if the customers of a sport club switch to another club compensation of the loss for the club that has lost its customers is not easy, especially that firms need to spend seven times (Jones, 2010) or five to ten times (Gummesson, 1994) more costs to acquire a new customer than to retain the existing one. The mentioned argument indicates the importance of customer loyalty for the sport club managers. Consequently, marketing researchers in the sport service sector should develop models that can explain customer loyalty. According to Palmer (1994), organisations should focus on not only how to acquire new customers but also how to develop loyalty from the existing consumers. One of the main objectives of this study is to find the antecedents of loyalty of the extant customers. Given that customer defection is an issue for the sport club managers, the importance of identifying influential factors on customer loyalty would be helpful for the managers to sort out the issue. This study is intended to explore the influential factors.

1.6.2 Customer Well-being Improvement

Well-being is defined as “an overarching evaluation of the quality of a person’s life from his or her own perspective” (Lucas and Lawless, 2013, p.872). Well-being is an important concept that should be considered to develop the world (D'Acci, 2011). Different groups of scholars from various disciplines have studied well-being and its components. For example, the link between life satisfaction, as a component of well-being, and many factors such as spirituality, work satisfaction, perceived health and perceived discrimination (e.g., Ojeda and Pina-Watson, 2013), job satisfaction (e.g., Chacko, 1983), social skills (e.g., Ozben, 2013), having iPod (e.g., Cockrill, 2012), nonwork satisfaction, neuroticism, nonwork hassles, job satisfaction, nonwork

uplifts, extraversion, work hassles, and work uplifts (e.g., Hart, 1999), general self-concept (e.g., Leung and Leung, 1992), perceived employability (e.g., De Cuyper, Van der Heijden and De Witte, 2011), hours of paid work (e.g., Della Giusta, Jewell and Kambhampati, 2011), individualism and collectivism (e.g., Xiao and Kim, 2009), and a lower likelihood of marital separation, job loss, starting a new job, and relocating, and a higher likelihood of marriage and childbirth (e.g., Luhmann, Lucas, Eid and Diener, 2013) is confirmed by scholars. The mentioned associations above between a component of well-being and the other factors indicate the importance of research on society well-being and its determinants.

These days, focus on well-being is more important because there are more mental (e.g., anxiety and depression) and social (e.g., social relationships) problems in societies as they become wealthier (Diener and Seligman, 2004). In spite of its importance, people's well-being is decreasing in societies. For instance, World Happiness Record from 2005-2007 to 2012-2014 indicates that happiness of many societies such as British, American, and French has decreased within the mentioned period of time. According to this most recent report, the average happiness of people living in the United Kingdom is 6.867 (out of 10), which has decreased 0.019 in comparison with 2005-2007. The report also illustrates that United Kingdom has the place of 21 in happiness among the 158 studied countries (Helliwell et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the effect of lifestyle on people's health is important. For instance, Pedragosa and Correia (2009) mention that lifestyle is really important in societies because inactive people may face problems such as poor health quality, a high risk of hospitalisation due to obesity, prostate cancer, osteoporosis, diabetes,

hypertension, breast cancer, heart diseases, bone fractures, colon cancer, and psychiatric diseases. These scholars point out that participation in the sport activities results in better flexibility, bone densitometry, physical resistance, muscle strength, weight control, as well as lower blood pressure. Therefore, encouraging people to have active lifestyle, in particular through participation in the sport activities, would be a good solution to prevent the noted issues above.

Moreover, there are a number of studies related to the relationship between sport participation and well-being dimensions. For example, researchers have found positive link between sport participation and well-being dimensions such as happiness (e.g., Bettingen and Luedicke, 2009, Hills and Argyle, 1998), life satisfaction (e.g., Kleiber, Hutchinson and Williams, 2002, Lung Hung, Mei-Yen, Yun-Ci, Tung, Chih-Fu and Shen, 2012, Stubbe, de Moor, Boomsma and de Geus, 2007), and quality of life (e.g., Brauninger, 2012, Hui, Chui and Woo, 2009). This study is going to contribute to the body of literature by identifying the effect of participation in the service delivery process on customer subjective well-being (i.e., sport life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction) in the sport sector. Further, psychologists, gerontologists, economists, policy makers, and social scientists have always been interested to study well-being of societies and tried to explore its antecedents (De Neve, Christakis, Fowler and Frey, 2012, Fischer and Boer, 2011, Spagnoli, Caetano and Silva, 2012). Findings of the current study would be interesting for the aforementioned groups of scholars, especially policy makers, and even the managers and members of the sport clubs as well. The importance of the present

research is that it identifies factors that lead to customer well-being, which not well-documented by scholars.

1.7 Research Contribution

The present research is a combination of different concepts grounded on service-dominant logic (value co-creation), social cognitive theory (self-efficacy), role theory (role clarity), relationship marketing theory (trust and loyalty), and well-being marketing (sport life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction). Therefore, the first offering of this thesis is that it contributes to the literature of customer readiness, value co-creation, as well as customer well-being and loyalty by showing how these streams are connected together. Indeed, this study develops a model that includes different determinants and outcomes of value co-creation through a number of important theories.

Moreover, Baron, Warnaby and Hunter-Jones (2014) specify two research approaches: traditional service research and transformative service research. While traditional service research focuses on identifying influential factors on firms' profitability such as customer loyalty, transformative service research is interested in understanding of the roles that customers have in services to influence their well-being. The second contribution of this research is that it has used both mentioned approaches above together by exploring factors that enhance customer loyalty and well-being. It is already stated that nowadays the reduction of people's well-being and customer loyalty are two issues in societies. In other words, this study contributes to the extant marketing knowledge via presenting a model in which the benefits for both the service provider and the customer are simultaneously

investigated. In particular, there is a paucity of research regarding the extent in which service participation influences well-being (see Appendix A).

The third contribution of the study is that it presents a new concept in the research model, namely, sport life satisfaction, as well as identifies its direct and mediation effects on customer loyalty and well-being. Although scholars have explored antecedents, consequences, and mediating and moderating roles of customer satisfaction in their research models, majority of them have conceptualised customer satisfaction as satisfaction with services, rather than as satisfaction with a domain of life (e.g., sport life satisfaction). Application of sport life satisfaction in the research model is helpful to understand the mechanism in which service participation influences loyalty and overall life satisfaction.

Finally, the fourth contribution is also related to the application of sport life satisfaction in the study. Scholars specify two approaches regarding the position of subjective well-being as an antecedent or as a consequent factor: top-down approach and bottom-up approach. While the top-down approach assumes that subjective well-being is the antecedence of life circumstances, the bottom-up approach proposes this concept as the outcome of life events (Gana, Bailly, Saada, Joulain, Trouillet, Herve and Alaphilippe, 2013). Actually, the top-down model posits that it is people's subjective interpretation of events that influences their subjective well-being, rather than objective circumstance (Feist, Bodner, Jacobs, Miles and Tan, 1995). In contrast, the bottom-up model assumes that the primary predictor of well-being is life circumstance, and that situational factors such as family and community influence life satisfaction (Cockrill, 2012). To the best of the author's knowledge, it

is the first study that employs sport life satisfaction as a domain of life satisfaction to contribute to the bottom-up approach of subjective well-being.

In sum, this study contributes to the limited body of empirical research on value co-creation, particularly within the sport service sector. This thesis responds to the research calls to identify the determinants and outcomes of customer value co-creation. Importantly, this investigation reveals a set of factors that enhance customer loyalty and well-being, which nowadays their reduction is a concern in societies. Findings of the research assist the fitness club managers to know how to improve customer value co-creation, which dimension of value co-creation is more important, and the mechanism in which customer loyalty and well-being increase. Particularly, this thesis indicates that role clarity is a very important factor in order to enhance customer trust, value co-creation, loyalty, and well-being. Furthermore, the study reveals that advocacy is the most important dimension of value co-creation that remarkably influences loyalty and well-being. In contrast, helping other members is not an important factor to have customers who are more loyal and satisfied with their sport life and overall life in the context of the present study.

1.8 Research Outline

The current thesis is organised into seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the significance of the research and a brief background of the study. It also presents existing issues and gaps in the literature, as well as the research aim, question, and objectives. Chapter 2 lays the foundation for development of the research theoretical framework through reviewing of the relevant literature and background of the study. It explains value co-creation, self-efficacy, role clarity, trust, customer

loyalty, and well-being concepts. Actually, the logic and theories related to this study are detailed in the chapter to have a better understanding of the foundations of the research conceptual model.

Then, Chapter 3 presents a number of hypotheses and a conceptual model that are based on the review of the literature and the findings of other scholars. Chapter 4 explains the research designs and methodology. Research paradigm and context, sampling, data collection and data analysis method, as well as ethical consideration are described in this chapter. In Chapter 5, the results of data analysis are mentioned. Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the study and relates them to the results of other scholars and theories underpinning the concepts. Finally, Chapter 7 concludes the findings of the research through suggesting some theoretical and managerial implications as well as obtaining the research limitations and future research directions.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the constructs of the current research and introduces theoretical background of them. At first, the concept of service and its characteristics in the sport context are explained because this study is conducted in the sport service sector. Then, value co-creation and its related concepts are described as value co-creation is the central construct of the research. Scholars such as Brodie et al. (2011), Ashley, Noble, Donthu and Lemon (2011), McDonald and Karg (2014), and Brodie, Ilic, Juric and Hollebeek (2013) point out that the theoretical foundation of value co-creation is service-dominant logic. Therefore, this chapter also clarifies this logic to have a better understanding of the focal construct of the thesis.

Next, antecedents of customer participative behaviours in the service delivery process are described. Scholars consider customer role readiness (e.g., self-efficacy and role clarity) as an essential enabler in order to participate in service delivery (e.g., Verleye, Gemmel and Rangarajan, 2013, Yoo, Arnold and Frankwick, 2012). Customer role readiness means a customer has enough confidence and knowledge to engage in value co-creation behaviours (Verleye et al., 2013). Similarly, Yoo et al. (2012) argue that a lack of customer role readiness to engage in service delivery leads to inappropriate role behaviours which may negatively influence service output. Therefore, two important determinants of the behaviours, namely, self-efficacy and role clarity, are explained. In addition, given the importance of

customer trust in the relationships between a service provider and a customer, this construct is also regarded and introduced as an antecedent of value co-creation.

Next, consequences of value co-creation are specified, which include customer loyalty and well-being. Customer loyalty is defined and described through relationship marketing theory. Relationship marketing tries to identify the effect of relationships and interactions between parties (Gronroos, 1994), where it may lead to loyalty (Bowden, 2009a, Lindgreen, 2001). Similarly, Rafiq, Fulford and Lu (2013) contend that customer loyalty is the concern of relationship marketing. Lastly, customer well-being is detailed in the current chapter, which consists of sport life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction. To do so, well-being marketing and transformative service research perspective are applied.

2.2 Services in the Sport Context

Service means applying competences such as knowledge and skills by one party for the benefit of another party (Vargo et al., 2008). Actually, service is doing anything on behalf of somebody else (Harness and Harness, 2007). Gallan, Jarvis, Brown and Bitner (2013) also define service as the process in which service providers and customers integrate their resources such as skills and knowledge within their interactions in order to obtain benefits. As well, Lovelock and Gummesson (2004, p.20) note that “services offer benefits through access or temporary possession, instead of ownership, with payments taking the form of rentals or access fees”. According to the mentioned scholars above, services can be categorised into different groups: physical acts to customers’ bodies (e.g., passenger transport, healthcare), physical acts to owned objects (e.g., freight transport, laundry and

cleaning), nonphysical acts to customers' minds transport (e.g., entertainment, education), and processing of information (e.g., Internet banking insurance, research).

The first category of services relate to physical acts to customers' bodies such as health clubs. Customers are hopeful to obtain tangible changes in themselves or their possessions by purchasing these services. These tangible outcomes such as physical well-being can be temporary or permanent and irreversible. In line with the Lovelock and Gummesson's (2004) services classification, Harness and Harness (2007) specify four defining characteristics for the services products in the sport setting: inseparability, perishability, heterogeneity, and intangibility:

Inseparability: Inseparability means that the firm produces a service and the customer consumes it simultaneously. It also means that the customer is a co-producer of service delivery. One of the characteristics of service is that the customer and the supplier have direct contact.

Perishability: Perishability means that the service provider cannot produce and store the service for future use. Therefore, it is important that the capacity of the supply matches the demand for the service.

Heterogeneity: Heterogeneity relates to the variability of the service every time that it is performed or delivered. This variability is inevitable because different factors such as actions of individuals and groups as well as the operating environment influence the delivery of the services.

Intangibility: Intangibility means that the customer cannot see, touch, taste, or smell the service offering prior to purchase. For instance, salt and a consultation with a doctor can be specified as a pure physical good and a pure service, respectively. A car can be viewed as in between each of these offerings. In the sport context, replica sports shirt is close to pure product and credit card sports TV is close to pure service. Based on Figure 2.1 (Harness and Harness, 2007, p.162), sport-related places such as health clubs and stadiums provide services, rather than products.

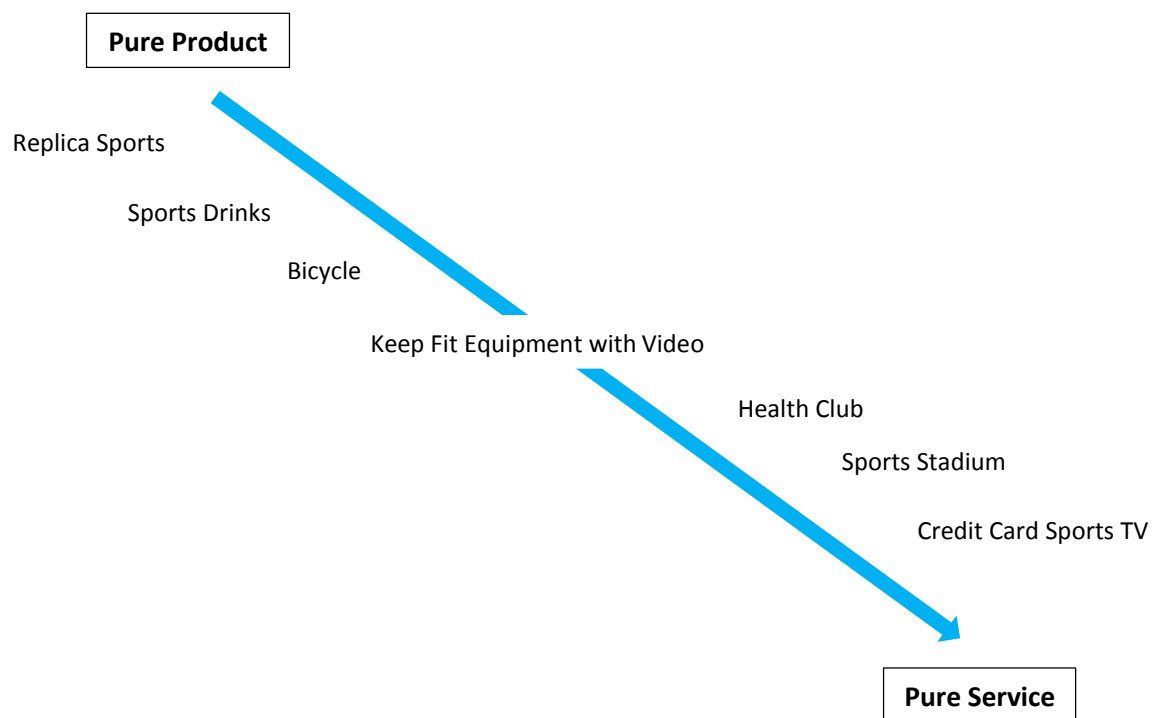


Figure 2.1 Service/Product Continuum

Scholars such as Payne, Storbacka and Frow (2008) and Brodie et al. (2011) emphasise the importance of context when evaluating marketing outcomes. Likewise, Oyedele and Simpson (2011) stress the determinant role of context to participate in citizenship behaviours. Drown on the discussion above and Figure 2.1, it can be concluded that sport centres are a sort of health and sport facility providers that mostly offer services, rather than products. In this regard, de Barros and Gonçalves (2009) assert that health-related clubs are service organisations, where experiences, not goods, are sold. This proposition also supports the mentioned notions: “FP 2: Service is the fundamental basis of exchange in sport” (Woratschek et al., 2014, p.14). Next section discusses the meaning of value co-creation and related concepts.

2.3 Value Co-creation

The central construct of this study is value co-creation. Before explaining this central construct and its dimensions, other related concepts such as value and value creation and service-dominant logic are described in this section to have a better understanding of the construct.

2.3.1 Value and Value Creation

According to Grönroos (2012), value creation is a fundamental cornerstone of the service perspective. Vargo et al. (2008) declare that while value and value creation are at the heart of service, value is an elusive term. In line with these scholars, Gummerus (2013) indicates that value in marketing continues to be ambiguous to define, classify and measure. He goes on to specify three issues related to the value concept, including a lack of clarity about the concept, the new notion regarding how

this concept can be created, and the interrelationship between value creation and value perceptions. Value is defined as an “interactive relativistic preference experience” (Gronroos and Voima, 2013, p.135). It also refers to “an evaluative judgement that is an outcome, not an output, of service. It can be multiple, mutable, and separated from the service and other actors temporally and spatially” (Hilton, Hughes and Chalcraft, 2012, p.1515).

In addition, Vargo et al. (2008) classify value meanings into two perspectives: value-in-exchange and value-in-use perspectives. While the value-in-exchange perspective argues that producers create and distribute value and customers consume it, the value-in-use perspective supposes that value is co-created by both producers and customers jointly through the interactions and integration of resources. Thus, while producers and customers have distinct roles in the value-in-exchange perspective, the roles in the value-in-use perspective is not distinct. In the present research, the co-created value (i.e., customer well-being and loyalty) is viewed through the lens of value-in-use perspective.

Moreover, Sullivan, Peterson and Krishnan (2012) specify four themes on value creation in the marketing literature. According to them, value creation is a competence, a boundary spanning relational activity, a customer perception, or co-created by a supplier and a customer. The last theme is the focus of the current study. Gummerus (2013) also divides value creation studies in service research into two main categories: value creation process and value outcome determination. Value creation process explores activities and interactions to create value, how value comes to be, and how activities and interactions create value. This category

discusses firm-created, co-created, and customer-created value. In relation to this part of value theory categorisation, this study is going to contribute to the co-creation part of value creation studies.

Furthermore, value outcome determination argues how much value is gained, and how customers assess value and react to it. This type of investigation has four sub-groups approaches: mean-ends, benefits/sacrifices, experience, and phenomenological. Amongst these sub-groups, phenomenological approach relates to the well-being, which is considered in this study. In this regard, Vargo et al. (2008) point out that one of the most important purposes of service-dominant logic is improvement of customers' well-being through service. As a result, this research's contribution is development of service-dominant logic and Gummerus's (2013) categorisation by exploring the effect of service participation on customer well-being. As such, Grönroos (2008) underscores the difficulty of defining and measuring of value and go on to contend that value for customers means that they feel better after receiving the service.

The previous discussion is related to the value for customers. However, in value co-creation literature it is assumed that both parties, the firm and the customer, benefit from the outcomes of activities. Reviewing of the literature indicates that customer retention can be considered as the value created for organisations, which is very important for them (Reichheld and Schefter, 2000). It is because customer loyalty leads to more revenue (e.g., Gremler and Brown, 1998, Lam, Shankar, Erramilli and Murthy, 2004, Yang and Peterson, 2004), less time and attention to customers, customer-service mishaps forgiveness (e.g., Yang and Peterson, 2004), lesser

needed information and cost to serve (e.g., Reichheld and Sasser, 1990), and lower price elasticity and willing to pay more (e.g., Reichheld and Sasser, 1990, Srinivasan, Anderson and Ponnnavolu, 2002). In this regard, Gummerus (2013) introduces benefits/sacrifices value determination as one of the approaches that leads to behavioural intentions. Therefore, customer loyalty is regarded as the value co-created for the fitness clubs through customer participation.

Moreover, in consistent with Gronroos and Voima (2013) and Chen et al. (2012), Moeller et al. (2013) specify three spheres of value creation: provider sphere, joint sphere, and customer sphere. These scholars mention a lack of interaction between the customer and the provider as well creation of value for the customer as the characteristics of the provider sphere. In the joint sphere, there is a direct interaction between the provider and the customer, and the customer creates value. In the customer sphere, interaction occurs between customers or with the facilities of the provider, but the service provider has no active and personal involvement. Based on this value creation classification, the current research considers the two later categories of value creation, namely, the joint sphere and the customer sphere, which is in line with other studies (e.g., Moeller et al., 2013).

Lastly, according to Vargo and Lusch (2004, p.7), unlike goods-dominant logic that claims “value is determined by the producer”, service-dominant logic argues that “value is perceived and determined by the customer on the basis of value-in-use”. As a result, target population of this study is fitness club customers to find out the effect of their service participation on their well-being and loyalty perception.

2.3.2 Service-dominant Logic

Several years ago, Vargo and Lusch (2004) published an article regarding relationships and service management and introduced a perspective so-called Service-dominant Logic. In their seminal introduction, these authors specified eight foundational premises. Then, these scholars modified the premises and added two new ones to the logic perspective in 2008. Foundational premises of service-dominant logic and their explanations are listed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Foundational Premises of Service-dominant Logic

FPs	Modified/New Foundational Premises	Comment/Explanation
FP1	Service is the fundamental basis of exchange.	The application of operant resources (knowledge and skills), “service,” as defined in S-D logic, is the basis for all exchange. Service is exchanged for service.
FP2	Indirect exchange masks the fundamental basis of exchange.	Because service is provided through complex combinations of goods, money, and institutions, the service basis of exchange is not always apparent.
FP3	Goods are a distribution mechanism for service provision.	Goods (both durable and non-durable) derive their value through use – the service they provide.
FP4	Operant resources are the fundamental source of competitive advantage.	The comparative ability to cause desired change drives competition.
FP5	All economies are service economies.	Service (singular) is only now becoming more apparent with increased specialization and outsourcing.
FP6	The customer is always a cocreator of value.	Implies value creation is interactional.
FP7	The enterprise cannot deliver value, but only offer value propositions.	Enterprises can offer their applied resources for value creation and collaboratively (interactively) create value following acceptance of value propositions, but can not create and/or deliver value independently.

Table 2.1 Continued

FPs	Modified/New Foundational Premises	Comment/Explanation
FP8	A service- centred view is inherently customer oriented and relational.	Because service is defined in terms of customer-determined benefit and co created it is inherently customer oriented and relational.
FP9	All social and economic actors are resource integrators.	Implies the context of value creation is networks of networks (resource integrators).
FP10	Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary.	Value is idiosyncratic, experiential, contextual, and meaning laden.

Sources: Adapted from Vargo and Lusch (2004, p.6-11), Vargo et al. (2008, p.148), and Vargo and Lusch (2008b, p.7)

As shown in the table above, the importance of intangibles such as skills, knowledge, and processes are highlighted by service-dominant logic, instead of the exchange of tangible goods (Payne, Storbacka, Frow and Knox, 2009). In addition, foundational premises one, three, six, seven, nine and 10 are related to value creation and co-creation (Gronroos, 2011b), which are the focus of this study. As an evidence of the importance of the logic, many scholarly articles, particularly in the special issues of Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (e.g., Arnould, 2008, Vargo and Lusch, 2008b) and International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences (e.g., Gummesson, Lusch and Vargo, 2010) have been disseminated regarding service-dominant logic.

Furthermore, the concept of service-dominant logic caused that its authors, Vargo and Lusch (2004), to win the award of winning article in the Journal of Marketing at that time. Moreover, Baron et al. (2014) specify service-dominant logic as a very influential school of thought that makes available assumptions that support the

studies of service systems. In addition, Abela and Murphy (2008) specify a number of effects of service-dominant logic on business, which include:

- a) The logic improves the tension between consumer choice and consumer protection by emphasising the benefits of skills and competences, instead of goods.
- b) It changes the role of customer from the recipient of goods to the co-creator of service, which results in decreasing tensions. In fact, tension between consumer autonomy and marketing effectiveness reduces by stressing the value of active consumer participation.
- c) As the logic changes value determination from the producer to the consumer, the tensions between societal marketing concept and profit maximization, and between consumer welfare and price discrimination are solved.
- d) As customer relationships are supposed to be valuable and worthwhile to invest, service-dominant logic reduces the tension between satisfying current customers and pursuing incremental revenues.

Importantly, most scholars have supported service-dominant logic. For instance, Williams and Aitken (2011) point out that the logic tries to resolve the depersonalising effect of specialisation since it focuses on relationships and brings the human beings at the centre as the active participant. Further, Abela and Murphy (2008) maintain that the logic positively influences marketing ethics since it is consumer-centric and that is fruitful to facilitate integrating ethical accountability

into marketing decision-making. As a result, many opportunities for interdisciplinary research (e.g., food, energy, transportation, water, information, banking, healthcare, buildings, retail, education, government) have been provided by the logic (Baron et al., 2014). As such, Ballantyne, Williams and Aitken (2011) contend that although service-dominant logic was not a new thesis, the importance of the Vargo and Lusch's articles was presenting the foundational premises, challenging traditional marketing assumptions, and stressing the role of value. The mentioned scholars above suggest an eleventh fundamental premise:

“FP11: Value co-creation is the result of differential desires of economic actors, which are in turn a result of the (a) differential access to resources and (b) differential values of actors” (p.451).

Moreover, as a paradigm and reaction against goods-dominant logic, service-dominant logic highlights the role of intangible resources (e.g., skills and knowledge) and interactions to create value (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). In fact, there are some challenges about traditional goods-dominant logic of marketing, which result in referring to service-dominant logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). It is important to note that the sport sector is considered as a specific context for service-dominant logic (McDonald and Karg, 2014). According to Woratschek et al. (2014), goods-dominant logic is not able to clarify many phenomena in sport management. For instance, in addition to the firm, other stakeholders such as politicians, journalists, and fans must contribute to the event to produce a sport event. Table 2.2 demonstrates characteristics of goods-dominant logic, transactional concept, and service-dominant logic.

Table 2.2 Characteristics of Different Concepts

Goods-dominant Logic Concept	Transitional Concept	Service-dominant Logic Concept
Goods	Service	Service
Products	Offerings	Experiences
Feature/attribute	Benefit	Solution
Value-added	Co-production	Co-creation of value
Profit maximization	Financial engineering	Financial feedback/learning
Price	Value delivery	Value proposition
Equilibrium systems	Dynamic systems	Complex adaptive systems
Supply chain	Value chain	Value-creation network
Promotion	Integrated marketing communications	Dialogue
To market	Market to	Market with
Product orientation	Market orientation	Service orientation

Source: Adapted from Lusch and Vargo (2006, p.286)

In line with Table 2.2, Williams and Aitken (2011) and Vargo et al. (2008) specify some differences between goods-dominant logic and service-dominant logic. For example, while goods-dominant logic emphasises creation of value by firms, service-dominant logic stresses creation of value by firms, network partners, and customers. As well, according to goods-dominant logic, the role of firms is production and distribution of value, and the role of customers is use of the value created by the firms. In contrast, service-dominant logic suggests that value is co-created through the integration of resources by all the actors participating in services.

Further, unlike goods-dominant logic, service-dominant logic underscores the roles of producers and consumers in service delivery, where these roles are less distinct (Vargo et al., 2008). According to service-dominant logic, more specifically

foundational premises nine, resources can be integrated through the roles of all economic and social actors (Vargo and Lusch, 2008a). In addition, while in goods-dominant logic elements of customer contacts and firm-customer interactions are ignored, in service-dominant logic it is emphasised that not only firms need resources to make promises about value for customers but also they have to mobilise such resources (Grönroos, 2006).

Lastly, central proposition of service-dominant logic is value co-creation (Payne et al., 2008). According to the logic, value starts when a supplier understands customer value-creating processes and supports co-creation activities (Payne et al., 2009). Given the foundational premise six that indicates “The customer is always a cocreator of value”, value co-creation is regarded as the focal construct of the current study. Next sections define value co-creation and introduce its dimensions.

2.3.3 Value Co-creation Definition

Ravald and Grönroos (1996) underscore that companies should provide superior value to their customers as a successful strategy. Grönroos (2008) describes value for customer as feeling better than before after getting resources or interactive processes. He also mentions that value creation received more attentions during the 1990s and continued into the 2000s in the marketing literature. According to Rod, Lindsay and Ellis (2014), customers can create value in organisations through different ways such as: a) transaction-based value or value-in-exchange: traditional, transactional value creation, which is firm-centred, b) value facilitation: engagement in value-generating processes, where organisations create the opportunities, and c) co-production of value: involvement in the production process and service provision.

As well, Moller (2006) specifies three levels of value creation: a) proprietary value, where the firm creates value for its own benefit, rather than for its customers, b) exchange value, where the firm develops an offering and its customers consume it, and c) relational value, where value is created through relationships. Furthermore, although the aim of marketing is value creation, especially for customers, more recently reciprocal value creation (creating value jointly) is identified as the aim of business and marketing (Gronroos, 2011a). O'Cass and Ngo (2011) argue that value offerings based on only products (e.g., performance value and pricing value) do not differentiate firms. Rather, firms need to develop relational centric form such as co-creation of value and relationship building value. Similarly, Ramaswamy (2008) contends that an emerging strategy to create value is co-creative interactions.

Given the argument, an important way to create value is value co-creation through relationships. Value co-creation studies reflect service-dominant logic perspective (Moeller et al., 2013), in which foundational premises one, three, six, seven, nine and 10 relate to value creation and co-creation (Gronroos, 2011b). Grönroos (2012, p.1520) defines value co-creation as “joint activities by parties involved in direct interactions, aiming at contributing to the value that emerges for one or both parties”. Given the definitions here (Table 2.3), value co-creation is considered as the positive side of customer engagement since customer may also negatively engage in service process (e.g., negative worth-of-mouth).

Table 2.3 Value Co-creation Definitions

Author(s)	Definition
Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a, p.8)	The process during which consumers take an active role and cocreate value together with the company
Kristensson, Matthing and Johansson (2008, p.475)	Collaboration with customers for the purposes of innovation
Ramaswamy (2009, p.11)	The process by which products, services, and experiences are developed jointly by companies and their stakeholders, opening up a whole new world of value
Ertimur and Venkatesh (2010, p.258)	It implies that consumers become part of the collection of partners with whom the firm has to cooperate with in order to create value
Zwass (2010, p.13)	The participation of consumers along with producers in the creation of value in the marketplace
Ostrom, Bitner, Brown, Burkhard, Goul, Smith-Daniels, Demirkan and Rabinovich (2010, p.24)	Collaboration in the creation of value through shared inventiveness, design, and other discretionary behaviours
Ballantyne et al. (2011, p.180)	A form of experiential interaction, suggesting purposeful intent between suppliers and customers, actual or hoped for, likewise with all kinds of inter-institutional connections, as well as between individuals and groups of individuals
Gronroos (2011a, p.243)	A joint value creation process, which requires the simultaneous presence of both customer and supplier
Ramaswamy (2011, p.195)	The process by which mutual value is expanded together, where value to participating individuals is a function of their experiences, both their engagement experiences on the platform, and productive and meaningful human experiences that result
McColl-Kennedy et al. (2012, p.370)	Benefit realized from integration of resources through activities and interactions with collaborators in the customer's service network
Chen et al. (2012, p.4)	Joint activities by parties involved in dyadic direct interactions aimed at contributing to the value that emerges for one or both parties or all parties in a larger network
Grönroos (2012, p.1523)	The joint collaborative activities by parties involved in direct interactions aiming to contribute to the value that emerges for one or both parties
Chathoth, Altinay, Harrington, Okumus and Chan (2013, p.13)	Involving a high level of customer participation in customising the product or service, which requires collaboration with customers for the purpose of innovation
Ind, Iglesias and Schultz (2013, p.9)	An active, creative, and social process based on collaboration between organizations and participants that generates benefits for all and creates value for stakeholders

Table 2.3 Continued

Author(s)	Definition
Roser, DeFillippi and Samson (2013, p.23)	An interactive, creative and social process between stakeholders that is initiated by the firm at different stages of the value creation process
Galvagno and Dalli (2014, p.644)	The joint, collaborative, concurrent, peer-like process of producing new value, both materially and symbolically
Nysveen and Pedersen (2014, p.808)	Co-creation of customer value together with the brand, co-creation of new value with the brand, and co-creation of value together with other customers within the context of the brand.
Stieler et al. (2014, p.72)	The process of collaborative value creation between different actors
Heidenreich and Handrich (2015, p.46)	The joint creation of value by the company and the customer, which occurs during service delivery and consumption
Hsiao, Lee and Chen (2015, p.47)	The meaningful and cooperative participation of customers during the process of service delivery
Sweeney, Danaher and McColl-Kennedy (2015, p.2)	The set of cognitive and behavioral activities carried out by the customer and motivated by the value proposition

Additionally, there are four principles of co-creation mentioned by Ramaswamy and Gouillart (2010). These principles indicate that stakeholders will engage more in value co-creative activities if they perceive that this engagement leads to value for them. For example, if customers find out that participation in the service delivery process results in their enhanced well-being they would be motivated to engage in the process. Another stress of the principles is on the stakeholders' experiences within service delivery. A customer may advocate a company if he/she has experiences. In addition, interactions, particularly direct ones, amongst all stakeholders are highlighted by the authors of the principles. It is also suggested that companies should provide platforms so that stakeholders would be able to interact with each other and share their experiences.

Furthermore, the process of value co-creation includes the activities that customers perform to attain special goals (Payne et al., 2008). According to the value co-creation approach, customers become partners and firms should cooperate with them in order to create value (Ertimur and Venkatesh, 2010). In this process, customers participate in service production and delivery (Finsterwalder and Tuzovic, 2010). In relation to the importance of value co-creation activities in organisations, Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000) underscore that companies should recognise customers as partners in creating value and that they should learn how to harness their customers' competences (e.g., by means of their engagement in co-creating personal experiences). As such, learning how to manage value co-creation has competitive advantage for firms (Payne et al., 2008). Indeed, value starts when a supplier understands customer value-creating processes and learns how to support customers' co-creation activities (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

Moreover, value co-creation is a symbiotic relationship between a firm and its clients and means value creation by a customer and a provider jointly (Ostrom et al., 2010, Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004c). Strong relationships between service providers and customers are solely not enough to create value, but customers may need to influence the business system to co-create personalised consumption (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004c). Accordingly, firms and customers receive mutual benefits from value co-creation. The benefits of participation for customers are better services, more customisation, and improved service quality (Xie, Bagozzi and Troye, 2008). According to Ramaswamy and Gouillart (2010), customers benefit from their service engagement through improved experiences, enhanced

psychological value (e.g., higher self-esteem, greater satisfaction and feelings of appreciation), and increased economic value (e.g., the acquisition of skills opportunities to advance, higher earnings). As such, other customer-related advantages of service engagement are enhanced ability to fulfil personal needs and interests (Di Gangi and Wasko, 2009), fit with consumer needs, relationship building, and satisfaction (Hoyer, Chandy, Dorotic, Krafft and Singh, 2010).

On the other hand, Hoyer et al. (2010) also report that firm-related benefits are effectiveness, efficiency, and increased complexity. Pini (2009) contends that customer participation in co-creation activities results in increased interest in the firm and reduced communication and new product development costs. In the virtual consumer environment, it is contended that co-creation between organisations and customers is one of the most promising areas of development (van Dijk, Antonides and Schillewaert, 2014). In addition, it is revealed that value co-creation helps to achieve competitive advantages (Payne et al., 2008, Zhang and Chen, 2008) and fulfil personalised demands (Zhang and Chen, 2008). It also provides a new source of competence for businesses strategies (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004c). As a foundational aspect in marketing and competitive strategy (Khalifa, 2004, Lindgreen and Wynstra, 2005, Sheth and Uslay, 2007) as well as in relationship management (Payne and Holt, 2001), value co-creation helps service providers to extend their market offerings (Gronroos, 2011a).

As well, a firm is able to understand its customers' point of view, wants, and needs by means of customer value co-creative activities. This type of activities assists the firm to produce needed products and services (Payne et al., 2008). As such,

productivity and increased customer satisfaction are the other benefits for the firm (Mills and Morris, 1986). Ramaswamy and Gouillart (2010) also specify higher productivity, new business insights, increased revenue and profit, lower costs and risks, smaller asset or capital base, and the chance to do social good as the other outcomes of customer participation in value co-creation practices for the firm.

Also, co-creation activities enhance customer willingness to pay for products (Chung, Kyle, Petrick and Absher, 2011, Franke, Keinz and Steger, 2009, Franke and Piller, 2004, Schreier, 2006), as well as firm revenues and profits (Ostrom et al., 2010). Co-creation results in productivity and effectiveness, which both are two important sources of competitive advantages (Hoyer et al., 2010). Customer participation also influences customer behaviours such as service usage and enhances firm efficiency, revenues, and profits (Bolton and Saxena-Iyer, 2009). As such, reduced research and development costs and increased product relevance and performance are the results of co-creation (van Dijk et al., 2014).

Evidences show that the focus on value co-creation and related topics is growing in the customer research literature (Payne et al., 2009) because of its important role in marketing achievement (Dong, Evans and Zou, 2008) and competitive effectiveness (Bendapudi and Leone, 2003, Vargo and Lusch, 2004). In addition, it is suggested that value co-creation needs more investigations by researchers (e.g., MSI, 2010, Ostrom et al., 2010, Payne et al., 2009). In fact, research on value co-creation is in an early stage (Zhang and Chen, 2008) and there are many aspects of the construct could be understood (Hoyer, et al., 2010). In line with Woodruff and Flint (2006) and Moeller et al. (2013), Payne et al. (2008, p.83) convey that

"relatively little is known about how customers engage in co-creation". They point out that it is necessary to provide frameworks for organisations on how to manage the co-creation process. In addition, Salomonson, Aberg and Allwood (2012, p.146) note that "most research on value creation with an interaction view is conceptual [...] or draw[s] on anecdotal data [...]". Actually, it is apparent that the extant marketing literature has not fully explored the co-creation concept.

Furthermore, it is necessary to identify antecedents and consequences of value co-creation. In fact, deeper understanding of the concepts related to co-creation is essential for service practitioners and service researchers. In particular, Di Gangi and Wasko (2009) declare that little quantitative research has examined the key factors that influence co-created value creation. But, the extant findings related to determinants and outcomes of customer engagement are also sometimes inconsistent, as will be mentioned in Chapter 3.

Lastly, Payne et al. (2008) and Gronroos (2011b) emphasise the influence of research context on co-creation opportunities and the findings of studies. Similarly, Brodie et al. (2011, p.263) introduce this research question: "which particular concepts act as CE [customer engagement] antecedents and/or consequences in specific contexts?" and call for conducting studies in different contexts. Despite the importance of the sport service sector, few studies have been conducted to determine the status of value co-creation and its determinants and outcomes in the sport setting (see Appendix A). This study attempts to contribute to the knowledge of value co-creation in the sport marketing literature.

2.3.4 Value Co-creation Dimensions

This section of the thesis explains three dimensions of value co-creation intended for the present study, including compliance, advocacy, and helping other customers. It should be mentioned that there are other value co-creation activities in the fitness clubs that can be studied, such as information seeking (Yi and Gong, 2013, Yoo et al., 2012), information sharing (Brodie et al., 2013, McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012), giving feedback (Bijmolt, Leeflang, Block, Eisenbeiss, Hardie, Lemmens and Saffert, 2010, van Doorn et al., 2010), and tolerance (Bettencourt, 1997, Yi and Gong, 2013). However, the three mentioned dimensions are chosen to consider different interactions between different parties: the fitness member and the service provider (compliance), the fitness member and others (advocacy), and the fitness member and other members (helping other members).

2.3.4.1 Compliance

Compliance refers to the degree to which customers follow organisational rules and procedures (Verleye et al., 2013). Guo et al. (2013) point out that compliance is the extent in which customers adhere to the requests and policies of a service provider. Payan and McFarland (2005, p.72) also state that compliance means “the target acting in accordance with an influence attempt from the source”. In addition, the concept refers to conformation and adaption of others’ wishes, rules, or necessities (Bowman, Heilman and Seetharaman, 2004). It is also following the directions and instructions established by a service provider (Spanjol, Cui, Nakata, Sharp, Crawford, Xiao and Watson-Manheim, 2015). Compliance is the outcome of commitment,

motivation, and cognitive processes, where these processes cause one party decides to do what the other party wants (Davies et al., 2011).

In the service contexts, customer compliance means to what extent a customer follows instructions and advice from a service provider (Lin and Hsieh, 2011). Yi and Gong (2013) operationalise compliance as responsible behaviours and declare responsible behaviours occur if customers do their duties and responsibilities. In fact, compliance is respecting and dealing with the organisation's instructions and recommendations. As responsible value co-creators, customers need to cooperate with organisations, observe rules, accept directives, and perform instructions and required tasks.

Additionally, it is mentioned that complying with the instructions of a service provider is a basic compliance in organisations (e.g., Dellande, Gilly and Graham, 2004, McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012). The importance of compliance in healthcare services is emphasised by scholars (e.g., Dellande et al., 2004, Petty and Cacioppo, 1996). For instance, Dellande et al. (2004) maintain that today's major societal problems such as poor physical fitness are due to poor healthcare choices made by people.

Similarly, Petty and Cacioppo (1996) point out that Americans at risk can reduce the rate of death through the change in five behaviours, consisting of noncompliance with healthful behaviours, poor diet, lack of exercise, smoking, and alcohol and drug abuse. Further, customers will benefit from healthcare services if they comply with the instructions and rules established by the service providers. Dellande et al. (2004)

contend that while only 50% of customers follow prescribed medications, people even have less compliance with instructions to lose weight or stop smoking.

In the high-contact services, firms need that their customers comply with their instructions (Lin and Hsieh, 2011). According to Dellande and Nyer (2013), in the healthcare management noncompliance is one of the greatest concerns, in particular it may lead to dissatisfaction. Accordingly, to achieve planned outcomes in the high-contact services customer compliance is critical (Bowman et al., 2004). Services co-production literature related to compliance is sparse (Spanjol et al., 2015). By determining the antecedents of customer compliance, firms would be able to provide plans in order to improve customer compliance, and then enhance customer satisfaction and retention (Bowman et al., 2004).

Moreover, it is important for service providers to have customers who consider rules and policies, accept directions, as well as who are cooperative, respectful, and polite in the service delivery processes (Bettencourt, 1997). Verleye et al. (2013) maintain that customer compliance is important to successfully participate in the service processes. In line with other studies (e.g., Auh, Bell, McLeod and Shih, 2007, Guo et al., 2013), compliance is considered as a value co-creation dimension in the present study. Identifying the determinants and outcomes of compliance is important because many people simply do not comply with the rules and policies of organisations (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach, 2000, Verleye et al., 2013).

2.3.4.2 Advocacy

One of the best ways to do marketing is customer advocacy because it is an ethical and honest way (Urban, 2005). This construct is defined and operationalised by scholars in different ways. For instance, Yi and Gong (2013) and Fullerton (2005) indicate that advocacy refers to the recommendation of business (e.g., a firm or employees) to others such as friends or family. This concept is also defined as “informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers” (Westbrook, 1987, p.261). As such, Garma and Bove (2011) point out that advocacy refers to customer commitment to a service provider through promoting and recommending it. Word-of-mouth communication is one of the most utilized concepts in order to estimate customer advocacy (Walz and Celuch, 2010).

On the other hand, scholars such as Walz and Celuch (2010) mention that advocacy can encompass more behaviours than word-of-mouth in that customers say positive things about the firm. According to these scholars, this concept includes not only the promotion of a firm but also defence of a firm against critics. It is consistent with the notion mentioned by Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) that customers may defend a firm and its actions especially when non-members attack the firm.

In addition, Fullerton (2005) introduces advocacy as combinations of marketing resources that consists of activities such as voluntarily word-of-mouth referrals, information sharing, marketing research support, and even increased re-patronage intention. Urban (2004) introduces an advocacy pyramid in which the foundation is total quality management and customer satisfaction. In addition, this scholar specify

some elements of customer advocacy, which include transparency, quality of products and services, product comparison, alignment of incentives, partnering, cooperative design, supply chain, and comprehensiveness. Customer advocacy is supported by relationship marketing in the pyramid.

Furthermore, being an advocate for a firm (i.e., promoting the service to others and defending it against attackers) is the ultimate test of the relationship that a customer has with a firm (Bendapudi and Berry, 1997). This point of view is also confirmed by Roberts and Alpert (2010). In this regard, Roberts and Alpert (2010) specify five levels of customer engagement in services that include purchasing services, re-purchasing services, purchasing other services, recommending services to others, and lastly advocating services. These scholars also depict a loyalty ladder in which the journey stages are respectively awareness, interest, preference, purchase, experience, retention, affinity, recommendation, and finally advocacy.

In 2005, Urban anticipated that customer advocacy would be the dominant marketing strategy over the next ten years. The importance of advocacy in the current service-related study is remarkable, since positive word-of-mouth is more critical for customers of services in comparison with customers of goods (Bendapudi and Berry, 1997). In line with Walz and Celuch (2010) and Bhattacharya and Sen (2003), customer advocacy is operationalised as recommending the sport clubs to others and defending them against critics in the current study.

2.3.4.3 Helping other Members

With regard to the participative activities, there are varied forms of helpful activities such as volunteering (Groeneveld, 2009) and engaging in an experience provided by a supplier, self-servicing, problem-solving, co-designing a product, and engaging in advertising and promotional activities (Bendapudi and Leone, 2003, Payne et al., 2008). Importantly, value co-creation studies have focused on the business-to-business or the business-to-customer settings, rather than the customer-to-customer one. In fact, customer-to-customer relationships (e.g., helping the other members) is not sufficiently investigated.

As a specific form of value co-creation, customer-to-customer interaction refers to the situation in which two or more customers involve in each other's practices (Uhrich, 2014). Verleye et al. (2013) specify interactions with other customers and helping them as a way of customer engagement that entail activities such as expressing empathy to other customers, encouraging others to show appropriate behaviours, and helping others to get better service experiences.

Helping other customers is defined by Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281) as "customer behaviour aimed at assisting other customers". With respect to the ways that customers are able to help each other, Yoo et al. (2012) contend that customers can exchange their knowledge, concerns, complaints, contacts, stories, or recommendations through their interactions, which can be the sources of information. Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb and Inks (2000) underscore the importance of cohort groups in service interactions, since customers can help each other, for instance, when using shared fitness equipment in service consumption.

Moreover, Yoo et al. (2012) specify three types of roles that a customer is able to act in service engagement, including help seeker, proactive helper, and reactive helper. As a help seeker, a customer actively searches information from others in order to obtain the service goals. A proactive helper is eager to give advice to others. Lastly, a reactive helper advises others when they ask him/her. One of the contributions of the current study is that it has regarded the interactions between the fitness club members as a dimension of value co-creation.

Based on the aforementioned argument, the three dimensions of customer value co-creation and their sources are listed in Table 2.4. It should be mentioned that the current study has viewed customer compliance as an intra-role behaviour (Yi and Gong, 2013) and customer advocacy and helping other members as extra-role behaviours (Johnson and Rapp, 2010, Yi and Gong, 2013).

Table 2.4 Dimensions of Customer Value Co-creation

Dimension	Source
Compliance	Auh et al. (2007, p.361); Guo et al. (2013, p.556); McColl-Kennedy et al. (2012, p.378); Sweeney et al. (2015, p.4); Vega-Vazquez et al. (2013, p.1949); Verleye et al. (2013, p.71); Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281)
Advocacy	Bijmolt et al. (2010, p.342); Brodie et al. (2013, p.110); Eisingerich, Auh and Merlo (2014, p.45); Garma and Bove (2011, p.640); Sashi (2012, p.259); Tripathi (2009, p.134); van Doorn et al. (2010, p.262); Vega-Vazquez et al. (2013, p.1949); Verhoef, Reinartz and Krafft (2010, p.249); Verleye et al. (2013, p.71); Wei, Miao and Huang (2013, p.317); Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281)
Helping other members	Algesheimer, Dholakia and Herrmann (2005, p.21); Echeverri and Skalen (2011, p.369); Pervan and Bove (2011, p.552); van Doorn et al. (2010, p.262); Vega-Vazquez et al. (2013, p.1949); Verleye et al. (2013, p.71); Vernet and Hamdi-Kidar (2013, p.552); Wei et al. (2013, p.317); Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281)

2.4 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is grounded on social cognitive theory (Yi and Gong, 2008). Social cognitive theory focuses on how people perceive themselves and others in different social situations. According to the theory, people actively think and respond to the external environment based on their goals and expectations in order to achieve their aims (Kim, Kim and Hwang, 2009). The mentioned theory also assumes that forethought regulates human motivation and actions (Luszczynska, Scholz and Schwarzer, 2005b). Further, it helps researchers to identify in what manner human behaviours are formed through causal relationships (Kim et al., 2009).

Furthermore, social cognitive theory assumes that there is a strong correlation between confidence in abilities and effort to perform a particular behaviour (McKee, Simmers and Licata, 2006). The theory indicates that there are two related expectancies when a person wants to deal with a situation. The first expectation is outcome expectancy that means individual's belief about the outcomes of a behaviour. The second expectation is self-efficacy that implies the ability to do a behaviour. In the current research self-efficacy is considered as an antecedent of value co-creation because it is considered as the core concept in social cognitive theory (Yi and Gong, 2008) and as the main factor and the crucial and proximal predictor of individuals' behaviours (Luszczynska et al., 2005b).

Scholars have applied different types of efficacy in their studies to investigate the role of efficacy on human behaviours. One type of efficacy is collective efficacy, which defined as "a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainment"

(Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martinez and Schaufeli, 2003, p.45). Collective efficacy is individual's confidence to hold a work group that he/she belongs (Schaubroeck, Lam and Xie, 2000). According to Fernandez-Ballesteros, Diez-Nicolas, Caprara, Barbaranelli and Bandura (2002), collective social efficacy is concerned with people's beliefs regarding the ability to obtain desired outcomes in society through collective voice.

Moreover, Tierney and Farmer (2011, p.277) designate creative self-efficacy as a type of self-efficacy and define it as the belief that "one has the ability to produce creative outcomes". It should be mentioned that this type of efficacy is different from general self-efficacy, which the later reflects overall belief in one's capability across domains (Tierney and Farmer, 2002). Person's knowledge and skills that enable creativity shape creative self-efficacy (Gong, Huang and Farh, 2009). Further, Strieter and Celuch (1999) conceptualise efficacy perceptions into two categories: personal efficacy and organisational efficacy. According to these scholars, while personal efficacy relates to a manager's ability to effectively use a particular type of market intelligence, organisational efficacy refers to the ability of a manager's company to effectively use the same type of market intelligence.

Also, Fernandez-Ballesteros et al. (2002) introduce three types of efficacy in their paper: personal efficacy, individual social efficacy, and collective social efficacy. While personal self-efficacy is individuals' ability to manage their own life circumstances, individual social efficacy is the beliefs that people have to be able to bring about social changes by their actions. These two types of efficacy are individual, but may be exercised differently. The focus of this study is on individual self-efficacy.

Bandura (1997, p.3) defines individual self-efficacy as “the belief in one’s capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to produce given attainments”.

More definitions of self-efficacy are presented in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Self-efficacy Definitions

Author(s)	Definition
Bandura (1986, p.391)	People’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. It is concerned not with the skills one has, but with judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses
Gist (1987, p. 472)	One’s belief in one’s capability to perform a task
Wood and Bandura (1989, p.408)	Beliefs in one’s capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands
Gist, Stevens and Bavetta (1991, p.838)	A belief in one’s capability to mobilize the cognitive resources, motivation, and courses of action needed to meet task demands
Bandura (1991, p.257)	People’s beliefs about their capability to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives
Riggs and Knight (1994, p.755)	Judgments that individuals make concerning their ability to do whatever is required to successfully perform their jobs
Eden and Zuk (1995, p.629)	Generalized trait consisting of one’s overall estimate of one’s ability to effect requisite performances in achievement situations
Judge, Erez and Bono (1998, p.170)	Individuals’ perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations
Schwarzer, Mueller and Greenglass (1999, p.145)	Optimistic beliefs about being able to cope with a large variety of stressors
Brown, Ganesan and Challagalla (2001, p.1043)	Individuals’ beliefs that they have the ability and resources to succeed at a specific task
Eccles and Wigfield (2002, p.110)	Individuals’ confidence in their ability to organize and execute a given course of action to solve a problem or accomplish a task
Luszczynska et al. (2005b, p.439)	People’s beliefs in their capabilities to perform a specific action required to attain a desired outcome

Table 2.5 Continued

Author(s)	Definition
Luszczynska, Gutierrez-Dona and Schwarzer (2005a, p.80)	The belief in one's competence to tackle novel tasks and to cope with adversity in a broad range of stressful or challenging encounters.
Luszczynska et al. (2005b, p.439)	The belief in one's competence to cope with a broad range of stressful or challenging demands or people's beliefs in their capabilities to perform a specific action required to attain a desired outcome
Oyedele and Simpson (2007, p.292)	An individual's perception of his/her own capabilities in dealing with any situation.
Liu and LaRose (2008, p.311)	A person's judgment of his or her capability to organize and execute the actions required to attain designated types of performances
Schreurs, van Emmerik, Notelaers and De Witte (2010, p.60)	People's beliefs about their capabilities for exercising control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives
Ford and Dickson (2012, p.180)	An individual's belief in his/her capability to perform a task
Sung, Muller, Ditchman, Phillips and Chan (2013, p.156)	An individual's belief in his or her own competence to successfully perform a particular task or reach a specific goal
Hsiao et al. (2015, p.46)	Having the confidence to complete challenging tasks with utmost dedication and effort

As the majority of the definitions in Table 2.5 indicate, self-efficacy is the beliefs that a person has to perform a given task. In fact, the beliefs give the person a sense of competency, which results in efforts to do a task. This is the reason that self-efficacy plays a vital role in performance (McKee et al., 2006). In fact, higher efficacy causes the perception of more positive outcomes and fewer negative outcomes (Luszczynska et al., 2005b). As well, Ford and Dickson (2012) contend that low self-efficacy leads to weak effort while high self-efficacy results in much effort to perform a task. According to Bandura (1982), engagement in a given behaviour needs the confidence of ability to do it. Indeed, people more likely engage in a

behaviour that offers them mastery experience when they feel more efficacious to do a role (Tucker and McCarthy, 2001).

In addition, self-efficacy powerfully motivates people to perform a task. So, a reason to less likely to engage in activities is being not confident to successfully engage in these activities due to low self-efficacy (Sung et al., 2013). Self-efficacy is what I believe that I can do with my skills under certain conditions (Maddux, 2002). Therefore, it differentiates people based on how they feel, think and act (Schwarzer et al., 1999). According to Bandura (1997, p.43), “Can is a judgment of capability; Will is a statement of intention. Perceived self-efficacy is a major determinant of intention, but the two constructs are conceptually and empirically separable.”

Likewise, self-efficacy concept assumes that the most important factor that causes people engage in challenging efforts is their beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects (Maddux, 2002). Wang, Harris and Patterson (2013a) point out that emotional drivers are not the only determinants of behavioural intentions, but cognitive drivers also are important. Based on social cognitive theory, self-efficacy is an important cognitive determinant of human behaviour. Moreover, self-efficacy concept is related to the antecedents and consequences of ability that is task-specific. It postulates that customers respond to the service participation based on their beliefs about their ability (McKee et al., 2006).

Further, social cognitive theory argues that self-efficacy motivates the efforts of people and their desire of completing tasks (Yi and Gong, 2008). It arises from individuals' experiences about their capabilities. For instance, people decide about

their abilities to conduct a specific task based on the information they have regarding their capabilities (Ford and Dickson, 2012). According to Yi and Gong (2008), human behaviour is regulated by self-efficacy through effort motivation. Self-efficacy also helps people to engage more in tasks, especially difficult ones (Bandura, 1977) and influences attitudes and behaviours (Ellen, Bearden and Sharma, 1991). In contrast, feeling less efficacy results in a lesser amount of participation (McKee et al., 2006). As such, people do not engage in activities when they guess that they are incapable to perform them, even if they are aware that it is a better choice (Seltzer, 1983).

In the marketing literature, researchers have employed social cognitive theory to interpret behaviours such as resistance to technology (e.g., McDonald and Siegall, 1996), response to advertising (e.g., Snipes, LaTour and Bliss, 1999), and salesperson performance (e.g., Brown, Cron and Slocum, 1998). McKee et al. (2006) emphasise the importance of customer self-efficacy because consumers sometimes need to engage in the service development and delivery processes, as well interact with employees and even other customers and service technologies. The effect of self-efficacy on behaviours in different settings such as complaint intentions (e.g., McKee et al., 2006), self-service technologies (e.g., Meuter et al., 2005, Oyedele and Simpson, 2007, Wang et al., 2013a), presumption intention (e.g., Xie et al., 2008), and student engagement (e.g., Sun and Rueda, 2012) is studied.

In this study, self-efficacy is used because there is a scant study concerning the impact of self-efficacy on value co-creation activities in the fitness centres. Another reason is that extant studies have not paid attention to the effect of self-efficacy on

the activities with different levels of difficulties. In the current research, compliance is regarded as a passive activities, followed by advocacy that is a more difficult performance. Helping other members is more challenging than the other dimensions of value co-creation. Application of different behaviours with different levels of difficulties helps to have a better interpretation about the role self-efficacy on customers' participative actions.

Having efficacy is not enough to participate in services. Customers also need to know what to do. In fact, the clarity of customers' role is also essential to participate. Next section details this important point through role theory, especially the vital role of role clarity.

2.5 Role Clarity

Nowadays, customers have important roles in the service delivery process in organisations. Some firms try to employ the talents of their customers and have a better partnership with them by engaging them in different roles in the service delivery process. This policy helps them to make benefits from their customers in comparison with their competitors (Bettencourt, 1997). According to social role theory, role is "an organised set of prescriptions and/or expected activities that can be associated with a given position" (Seiling, 2008, p.130). It also refers to the behaviours that we expect people act in particular social positions (Colton, 1987). As well, Moeller et al. (2013, p.474) define role as "total of cultural patterns associated with a particular status, which include or are influenced by shared cultural values, norms, and beliefs". Nowadays, we are the witness of increasing

value of customer roles, beyond their specified roles, in organisations (Pervan and Bove, 2011). Chronological change of customers' role over time is shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Changing the Role of Customers

Era	Customer Roles
Early 1980s	<p>The customer is an average statistic; groups of buyers are predetermined by the company.</p> <p>Products and services are created without much feedback.</p> <p>One-way communication</p>
Late 1980s and early 1990s	<p>The customer is an individual statistic in a transaction.</p> <p>Shift from selling to helping via help desks, call centers, and customer service programs; identify problems from customers, then redesign products and services based on that feedback.</p> <p>Database marketing; two-way communication</p>
1990s	<p>Lifetime bonds with individual customers</p> <p>Providing for customers through observation of users; identify solutions from lead users, and reconfigure products and services based on deep understanding of customers</p> <p>Relationship marketing; two-way communication and access</p>
Beyond 2000	<p>The customer is not only an individual but also part of an emergent social and cultural fabric.</p> <p>Customers are developers of personalized experiences. Companies and lead customers have joint roles in education, shaping expectations, and co-creating market acceptance for products and services.</p> <p>Active dialogue with customers to shape expectations and create buzz.</p> <p>Multilevel access and communication</p>

Sources: Mukhtar, Ismail and Yahya (2012, p.290) and Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000, p.80)

As shown in Table 2.6, the importance of customers' role is increasing in organisations. Nowadays, customers have the role of decision makers in organisations and managers should use this important resource in the service delivery processes. Kelley, Donnelly and Skinner (1990) suggest that organisations need to trust their customers in the production and delivery of services. But, customers' role must be clear to use them as the resources for organisations. The

present study has employed role theory to find out the importance of clarity of roles in customer participation behaviours. Role theory is “the study of the degree to which a particular part is appropriately acted as determined by the reactions of fellow actors and observers” (Yoo et al., 2012, p.1314).

Moreover, in relationship marketing, scholars benefit from role theory through its contribution to a better understanding of marketing exchange and its offerings to analyse the degrees of interactivity in service performance (Broderick, 1998). Solomon et al. (1985) maintain that role theory has some advantages in the service settings. For instance, it influences firms to adopt an interactive approach, takes into account the interactions between customers and providers, and improves general principles in different services across individual role performers (Solomon et al., 1985).

Furthermore, nowadays in customer service management the notion is that firms what can do with their customer, rather than what can do for their customers. Actually, customer’s role has changed from isolated, unaware, and passive to connected, aware, and active (Saarijärvi, 2012). Although role theory is not recently arrived in marketing (Solomon et al., 1985), McKee et al. (2006) assert that researchers have paid little attention to customer role in services, despite the support for the reciprocal involvement of providers and customers in service encounters. Meuter et al. (2005) specify role clarity as a dimension of customer readiness and go on to mention that role clarity means knowledge and understanding of what to do. In other words, role clarity occurs when a customer is

knowledgeable about what must be performed (Dellande et al., 2004). Further definitions of role clarity are mentioned in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Role Clarity Definitions

Author(s)	Definition
Donnelly Jr and Ivancevich (1975, p.72)	The extent to which required information is communicated and understood
Teas, Wacker and Hughes (1979, p.355)	The degree to which required information is provided about how the employee is expected to perform his or her job
Kelly and Hise (1980, p.124)	The extent to which an individual receives and understands information required to do the job
Dellande et al. (2004, p.79)	Understanding the role that must be performed
Meuter et al. (2005, p.64)	The consumer's knowledge and understanding of what to do
van Beuningen, de Ruyter and Wetzels (2011, p.115)	Having information about how you are expected to perform your job
Yoo et al. (2012, p.1315)	A customer's clear understanding of the role that s/he must perform
Guo et al. (2013, p.552)	Understanding the task to be performed

According to the role clarity definitions shown in Table 2.7, customers need some information about their roles in the sport clubs. For example, they need to know how to use the club facilities, what is expected of them, how much authority they have, what responsibilities they have, how to deal with the employees and so forth. In sum, it is important that customers be familiar with their roles in the clubs.

While the clarity of role is very important to engage in service delivery process, other role-related factors such as role conflict and role ambiguity have negative effect on customer participative behaviours (Yoo et al., 2012). Therefore, these variables are briefly introduced in this section. Many years ago, Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) emphasised the negative act of role conflict and role ambiguity on dysfunctional

individual and organisational consequences. These scholars emphasised the importance of role theory in human resource management. Atuahene-Gima and Li (2002) also contend that customer role ambiguity leads to decreased trust.

As well, House and Rizzo (1972, p.474) define role conflict as “the degree of incongruity or incompatibility of expectations associated with the role” and role ambiguity as “the lack of clarity and predictability of the outcomes of one's behavior”. Similarly, role conflict refers to “logically incompatible demands made upon an individual by two or more persons” and role ambiguity is “the discrepancy between the amount of information that a person has and the amount that he requires to perform the role adequately” (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998, p.91).

Further, while role conflict is congruency-incongruency or compatibility-incompatibility in the requirements of the role, role ambiguity is the predictability of the outcome or responses to one's behaviour and the clarity of behavioural requirements, often in terms of inputs from the environment (Rizzo et al., 1970). It is supposed that role ambiguity is the reverse concept of role clarity (Yoo et al., 2012). In the service marketing context, Yoo et al. (2012, p.1315) define role conflict as “incongruity across perceptions of a customer's role expectations”. According to these scholars, customers may face role conflict when they receive inconsistent directives by service personnel or other customers. Such a role conflict has significant and negative effect on customer participation. Role clarity is one of the most effective components of customer role readiness (Yoo et al., 2012) and customer readiness (Meuter et al., 2005) in the marketing literature. Thus, this

concept is considered for the current study in order to identify enablers of value co-creation.

The current investigation has applied role clarity because the influence of this variable on value co-creation behaviours in the fitness centres is not well-documented. Another reason is that literature review indicates that scholars have considered the importance of role clarity on participative behaviours theoretically (e.g., Bolton and Saxena-Iyer, 2009, Kotze and Du Plessis, 2003) or if there are quantitative studies (e.g., Dong et al., 2008, Yoo et al., 2012) the effect of role clarity on different activities is not regarded. By comparing the correlations between role clarity and different value co-creation dimensions it can be understood that which type of activities need more role clarification.

2.6 Customer Trust

Customer trust is viewed as a key relational variable (Morgan and Hunt, 1994), a key concept in relationship quality (Rafiq et al., 2013), and the foundation of relationship marketing (Berry, 1995). Trust in other partners is also important in relational exchange, since it assures partner reciprocity and non-opportunistic behaviours (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Furthermore, Walz and Celuch (2010) specify this factor as a filter through which interactions between parties can be evaluated. Lacey and Morgan (2009, p.4) define trust as “a customer’s belief that a firm is reliable, stands by its word, fulfils its promised obligations, and is sincere”. More definitions of customer trust are listed in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Customer Trust Definitions

Author(s)	Definitions
Moorman, Deshpande and Zaltman (1993, p.82)	A willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence
Morgan and Hunt (1994, p.23)	When one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity
Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995, p.712)	The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party
Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998, p.395)	A psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another
Jap, Manolis and Weitz (1999, p.305)	The belief that the seller is motivated to act in the buyer's interests and would not act opportunistically if given the chance to do so
Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001, p.82)	The willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function
Dirks and Ferrin (2001, p.451)	An expectation or belief that one can rely upon another person's actions and words, and/or that the person has good intentions toward oneself
Miyamoto and Rexha (2004, p.314)	One's confidence in another that the other behaves or responds in a predictable and mutually acceptable manner
Kim et al. (2009, p.40)	The belief that the promise of the other party can be relied upon and that, in unpredictable circumstances, the other will act with goodwill and benignly toward the trustor
Lee and Back (2009, p.32)	A generalized expectancy of how an exchange partner will perform in the future
Gregoire et al. (2009, p.20)	Confidence that a firm is dependable and can be relied on
Chang and Wong (2010, p.263)	A belief that firm makes an effort to fulfill commitments, is honest, and does not seek to take unfair advantage of opportunities.
Nguyen, Leclerc and LeBlanc (2013, p.99)	The level of reliability ensured by one party to another within a given exchange relationship
Sloan and Oliver (2013, p.1836)	The willingness to rely on another's actions in a situation involving the risk of opportunism

As specified by Porter, Devaraj and Sun (2013), trust is formed in three processes: prediction, intentionality, and capability. The prediction process of trust describes an individual's belief about the ability to forecast a firm's future actions. Further, while the intentionality process is related to an individual's ability to interpret the benevolence resulted from firm's prior actions, the capability process pertains to an individual's ability to assess the firm's competency to meet obligations to customers.

Moreover, trust is an important factor in the relationships between customers and organisations. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) specify trust as an essential factor in successful service relationships. Trust between parties can result in lower opportunism, more service usage, and more collaborative, interactive exchange relationships (Grayson, Johnson and Chen, 2008). Customers' beliefs about the trust aspects such as reliability, safety, and honesty of firms are also important to have an optimal relationship. Customers trust an organisation when they confide the organisation authorities who behave or respond in a mutually acceptable manner (Miyamoto and Rexha, 2004).

Further, customer trust in an organisation means that they are confident that the organisation will provide satisfactory services (Randall, Gravier and Prybutok, 2011). Trust is necessary to maintain workable relationships in networks (Fyrberg and Jürriado, 2009), especially when customers feel vulnerable (Randall et al., 2011). Hwang and Burgers (1997) also maintain that trust supports cooperation through reducing the risk of being victimized as well as losing a trustworthy partner. Sashi (2012) contends that the focus of customer engagement is on customer satisfaction through building trust and commitment. Therefore, it can be concluded that trust is

especially important in the sport and health clubs where not only the members have close interactions with the service provider and other customers but also the actions in the clubs directly relate to the members' health and well-being.

Importantly, customer trust is used for this research because it is considered as an outcome of customer engagement by a number of scholars such as Vivek et al. (2012), Dabholkar and Sheng (2012), and Brodie et al. (2013). However, it might rather be regarded as an antecedent of participative activities since it influences subsequent customer engagement levels (van Doorn, 2011). As such, Brodie et al. (2011) suggest that customer trust should be regarded as an antecedent when studying existing customers, like the current investigation.

2.7 Customer Loyalty

It is argued that successful marketing emphasises on how to gain new customers as well as how to develop the loyalty of the extant consumers (Palmer, 1994). The focus of the present study is on the loyalty of existing customers. At first, relation marketing theory is explained here since customer loyalty is drawn on this theory. As a key development of modern marketing science, relationship marketing has attracted researchers' interest to study the effect of relationships and interactions between parties (Gronroos, 1994). Some definitions of relationship marketing are shown in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9 Relationship Marketing Definitions

Author(s)	Definition
Gummesson (1994, p.5)	Marketing seen as relationships, networks and interaction
Morgan and Hunt (1994, p.22)	All marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges
Lee and Sirgy (2004, p.48)	An integrated effort to identify, maintain, and build up a network with customers and various stakeholders for mutual benefits over a long time
Gronroos (2011a, p.245)	The process of establishing, maintaining and enhancing, and when necessary terminating relationships with customers, for the benefit of all involved parties, through a process of making and keeping promises

Attention to relationship marketing has increased from 1990s (Chattananon and Trimetsoontorn, 2009, Fernandes and Proença, 2008, Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995). Therefore, the period can be recalled to the mind as relationship marketing decade in the business history (Jap et al., 1999). According to relationship marketing perspective, the relationship between parties results in additional value for customers and service providers (Gronroos, 2000). Lindgreen (2001) points out that relationship marketing leads to customer satisfaction and loyalty. Likewise, Rafiq et al. (2013) contend that the main concern of relationship marketing is customer loyalty.

According to relationship marketing, firms should invest in development of long-lasting relationships with customers, rather than short-term transactions. The reason for this is that customers may show willingness to pay further for services, purchase more, exhibit higher trust and attachment to the firm, and recommend the firm to others due to the developed relationships (Rafiq et al., 2013). Nowadays, customer relationship is a priority for companies and if firms ignore non-

transactional behaviour of their customers they may lose values generated through co-creation (Verhoef et al., 2010).

Due to the issues such as highly competitive market and customer defection in the sport sector (Kim and Trail, 2011), there is a shift from traditional exchange paradigm to relationship paradigm in the sport context (Harris and Ogbonna, 2008, Gladden and Sutton, 2009, Mullin, Hardy and Sutton, 2000). Therefore, like other sectors, improving relationship marketing in the sport service sector is imperative in order to overcome the challenges such as the reduction of members of the sport clubs.

Further, Kim and Trail (2011, p.58) define relationship marketing in the sport consumer sector as “a set of marketing activities to establish, enhance, and maintain a relationship with sport consumers for the mutual benefit of both the sport organisations and the sport consumers”. Surprisingly, while relationship is one of the most important aspects of sport marketing and customers are often highly involved in sports, “research and theory development have not focused on relationship marketing in sport” (Bee and Kahle, 2006, p.102).

Based on the mentioned discussion, one of the most important reasons for paying attention to relationship marketing is having loyal customers. Bowen and Chen (2001) underscore the difficulty of defining customer loyalty. In the literature, there are different definitions for customer loyalty. For instance, Gremler and Brown (1996, p.173) define customer loyalty as “the degree to which a customer exhibits repeat purchasing behaviour from a service provider, possesses a positive

attitudinal disposition toward the provider, and considers using only this provider when a need for this service arises". More definitions of customer loyalty are shown in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10 Customer Loyalty Definitions

Author(s)	Definitions
Jacoby and Chestnut (1978, p.80-81)	The biased behavioural response expressed over time by some decision making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of set of such brands, as a function of evaluative psychological processes
Assael (1992, p.87)	A favourable attitude toward a brand resulting in consistent purchase of the brand over time
Oliver (1999, p.34)	A deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronage a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour
Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol (2002, p.20)	An intention to perform a diverse set of behaviours that signal a motivation to maintain a relationship with the focal firm, including allocating a higher share of the category wallet to the specific service provider, engaging in positive word of mouth (WOM), and repeat purchasing
Michels and Bowen (2005, p.6)	A deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future
Eisingerich and Bell (2006, p.89)	Consumers' intent to stay with an organization
Da Silva and Syed Alwi (2008, p.124)	The biased behavioural response, expressed over time, by some decision making unit, with respect to one store out of a set of stores, which is a function of psychological (decision making and evaluative) processes resulting from commitment
Gemmel and Verleye (2010, p.79)	Customer behaviour characterized by a positive buying pattern during an extended period (measured by means of repeat purchases, frequency of purchase, wallet share or other indicators) and driven by a positive attitude towards the company and its products and services
Jain, Malhotra and Guan (2012, p.1006)	The strength of the relationship between an individual's relative attitude and their repeat patronage

Table 2.10 Continued

Author(s)	Definitions
Olsen, Tudoran, Brunso and Verbeke (2013, p.306)	Frequency of purchases or the relative amount of purchases over time
Picón, Castro and Roldán (2014, p.747)	The degree to which customers intend to repeat their purchases in the future (intention of future behaviour), express a positive attitudinal willingness toward the provider (affective loyalty), and consider this provider the sole option for future transactions (cognitive loyalty)

Nowadays, an essential business enquiry is to identify the best strategy to gain loyal customers as well as to prevent customer switching to competitors (Olsen et al., 2013). It is mentioned that customer loyalty is an important goal in marketing (Reichheld and Schefter, 2000). Similarly, Yang and Peterson (2004) argue that loyal customers assist firms to have more revenue, spend less time and attention to customers, get customer-service mishaps forgiveness, and receive positive word-of-mouth from their customers. As such, companies would have better revenues due to having loyal customers (Lam et al., 2004). Marketing scholars argue that increasing customer retention and decreasing customer defection lead to profits for service providers (Cronin et al., 2000).

Eriksson and Vaghult (2000) also indicate that customer retention is an essential strategy issue in order to develop business relationship. In comparison with non-loyal ones, loyal customers make more purchase and are less likely to switch because of price. Loyal customers can also help firms as part time employees. The advantage of these customers is that they need less information since they know

the products, which leads to less cost to serve (Reichheld and Sasser, 1990). Likewise, Gremler and Brown (1998) contend that attracting and satisfying customers are not sufficient in businesses, but developing long-term relationships with them is also critical. These scholars maintain that customer loyalty causes more firms' revenues, ability to predict sales and profit, and the possibility of purchasing additional goods and services.

According to Srinivasan et al. (2002), customer e-loyalty positively influences willingness to pay more. Further, firms need to spend more money to acquire a new customer than to retain the existing one (Bodet, 2008). In this regard, Jones (2010) remarks seven times and Gummesson (1994) notes five to ten times more costs. The importance of customer loyalty in the service firms is more important than the goods ones because there are more person-to-person interactions in services and perceived risk is often greater (Gremler and Brown, 1996).

With respect to the sport context, Pedragosa and Correia (2009) highlight the critical role of customer loyalty in the sport organisations because loyalty not only provides economic supports but also establishes a platform for all the objectives of the organisation. These scholars go on to mention that marketing researchers in the sport service sector should develop models that can explain customer loyalty to health and fitness clubs. Furthermore, Liu-Thompkins and Tam (2013) contend that identification of loyalty drivers helps organisations to properly allocate resources among marketing tactics. It also assists to create customised marketing programmes in order to maximise effectiveness. Therefore, the present study is planned to identify determinants of customer loyalty in the fitness clubs.

There are two main reasons that customer loyalty is chosen in this study. First, as already mentioned, nowadays customer defection is a concern for the sport club managers. Actually, identification of influential factors on customer loyalty can help the managers to deal with the issue. Second, literature review reveals that the effect of value co-creation activities on loyalty is debateable since there are a number of inconsistent findings in this regard (e.g., Dabholkar and Sheng, 2012, Eisingerich and Bell, 2006, Gruen, Osmonbekov and Czaplewski, 2006, Gruen, Osmonbekov and Czaplewski, 2007, Gummerus, Liljander, Weman and Pihlström, 2012, Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014).

2.8 Customer Well-being

Well-being means “optimal psychological functioning and experience” (Chiu, Cheng, Huang and Chen, 2013, p.542). Well-being is a popular concept in the psychology research and a significant part of human life (Akin, 2012). Diener and Seligman (2004) and Lucas and Lawless (2013) point out that well-being should be considered at organisations when making decisions for policies. Well-being is important due to its influence on people’s life. For example, Diener and Seligman (2004) specify the advantages of higher well-being in different domains of people’s life. These domains are society (e.g., better democratic governance), work (e.g., better organisational citizenship, more satisfied customers), physical health (e.g., increased longevity), mental disorders (e.g., lower psychopathology), and social relationships (e.g., increased numbers of friends and social support). Similarly, well-being results in better health and longevity (Diener and Chan, 2011). Therefore, identifying factors that improve individuals’ well-being is an important contribution to societies.

Grounded on societal marketing introduced by Kotler (1986), well-being marketing is different from other marketing approaches such as transactional marketing and relationship marketing (see Table 2.11). For example, well-being marketing is an ethical extension of relationship marketing (Sirgy and Lee, 2008). Similarly, Lee and Sirgy (2004) argue that quality of life marketing is a new paradigm to improve other marketing paradigms such as relationship marketing. Whilst transactional marketing and relationship marketing are largely economic concepts, well-being marketing is a moral concept. In addition, transactional marketing highlights purchase intentions of new customers and relationship marketing focuses on developing satisfaction, trust, and commitment of current customer. In contrast, well-being marketing tries to enhance consumers' quality of life (Sirgy and Lee, 2008). According to Lee and Sirgy (2004, p.44), well-being marketing is:

“Marketing practice designed to enhance customer well-being while preserving the well-being of other stakeholders (e.g., stockholders, distributors, suppliers, employees, the local community, and the environment)”.

Table 2.11 Strategic Planning among Three Groups of Marketing Approaches

Domain	Transactional Marketing	Relationship Marketing	Well-being Marketing
Ethical philosophy	Consumer sovereignty	Stakeholder theory	Duty of beneficence and non-maleficence
Major strategic objectives	Financial goals (short term)	Financial goals (long-term)	Financial and societal goals (long-term)
Strategy	Developing marketing programs designed to enhance brand preference and purchase	Developing marketing programs designed to enhance customer satisfaction, trust, and commitment	Developing marketing programs designed to enhance consumer well-being
Target market	Focus on developing brand preference and purchase intentions of new customers	Focus on developing satisfaction, trust, and commitment of current customer	Focus on developing well-being of consumers whose quality of life can be significantly enhanced through product adoption, and doing this safely to consumers, other publics, and the environment

Source: Adapter from Sirgy and Lee (2008, p.385)

Dagger and Sweeney (2006) contend that although the importance of quality of life (e.g., happiness and life satisfaction) has always been inherent to society the focus of marketing has changed to improvement of this factor. Day and Montgomery (1999) also emphasise that marketing needs to contribute to societal welfare, in addition to organisational performance, in order to progress its discipline. It is also mentioned that social marketing concepts such as quality of life do not compete with other objectives of marketing (e.g., financial and growth-oriented objectives). But, it helps to understand the potential of marketing activities through increasing

our information regarding the effect of service provision on customer well-being (Dagger and Sweeney, 2006).

In 2010, Ostrom et al., specified 10 research priorities that one of them emphasised the improvement of consumer and societal welfare through service, namely, improving well-being through transformative service. These scholars argued that there is little study regarding the transformative aspects of services in marketing literature. Transformative consumer research approach tries to identify the effect of service consumption on customer well-being. Similarly, Anderson, Ostrom, Corus, Fisk, Gallan, Giraldo, Mende, Mulder, Rayburn and Rosenbaum (2013) contend that transformative service research is related to employee and customers' well-being. In fact, objectives of consumer well-being and quality of life underpin transformative service research (Baron et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the primary concern of both the quality of healthcare and the outcome of healthcare evaluation is quality of life (Pavot and Diener, 2008). Moreover, Bagozzi and Natarajan (2000) declare that human happiness is the ultimate aim of marketing. Marketers assume that firms can attract customers to products by making customer happy (Mogilner, Aaker and Kamvar, 2012). Although the concept of quality of life has attracted attentions, there is no consensus to define it yet (Moons, Budts and De Geest, 2006). Quality of life can be evaluated as an overall measure or a variety of life domains such as work, personal health, family, consuming, and leisure. Overall quality of life is people's subjective evaluation of their current life circumstance (Dagger and Sweeney, 2006).

Additionally, Jones and Felps (2013), Dagger and Sweeney (2006), and Yuan (2001) regard quality of life, happiness, subjective well-being, life satisfaction, welfare, and utility as synonym terms. Diener, Oishi and Lucas (2003) declare that subjective well-being is a measure to assess quality of life. As well, George (2010) maintains that the terms subjective well-being, happiness, psychological well-being, positive affect, and morale are often used interchangeably. But, Higgs and Dulewicz (2014) declare that subjective well-being and psychological well-being should be differentiated since the former is a combination of life satisfaction and positive and negative affect, and the latter is a sense of meaning and full engagement with life.

Keyes, Shmotkin and Ryff (2002) also contend that although both subjective and psychological well-being assess well-being, the former is globally evaluation of affect and life quality, and the latter is the perception of thriving vis-a-vis the existential challenges of life. Additionally, it is indicated that subjective well-being focuses on hedonic perspectives such as positive affect, lack of negative affect, and life satisfaction, while psychological well-being emphasises eudaimonic perspectives such as personal growth and purpose in life (Chiu et al., 2013). Subjective well-being is explained in this section since the concept is the focus of this study.

Subjective well-being is the evaluative reaction of a person to his or her life that can be partitioned into cognitive components such as life satisfaction and affective components such as happiness (Stubbe et al., 2007). Subjective well-being is defined by Diener, Lucas and Oishi (2002, p.63) as “a person’s cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life”. In fact, this type of well-being is the reflection of people’s perception of their lives in terms of their social functioning and affective

states (Keyes and Lopez, 2002). More definitions of this concept are mentioned in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12 Subjective Well-being Definitions

Author(s)	Definitions
Veenhoven and Jonkers (1984, p.22)	The degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of her or his life as a whole in a favourable way
Diener (1994, p.108)	The global experience of positive reactions to one's life, and includes all of the lower-order components such as life satisfaction and hedonic level
Keyes et al. (2002, p.1007)	Evaluation of life in terms of satisfaction and balance between positive and negative affect
Zhang and Leung (2002, p.84)	A person's evaluative reactions to his or her life
Diener and Seligman (2004, p.1)	Peoples' positive evaluations of their lives, includes positive emotion, engagement, satisfaction, and meaning
Sirgy and Lee (2008, p.381)	Feelings of satisfaction/dissatisfaction the consumer experiences in a manner that contributes to his or her quality of life.
McDowell (2010, p.70)	Contentment, satisfaction, or happiness derived from optimal functioning. This need not imply perfect function; it is subjective and is a relative, rather than an absolute, concept
Busseri and Sadava (2011, p.298)	An integrated system of components in which LS [life satisfaction], PA [positive affect], and NA [negative affect] are organized within individuals in terms of distinct configurations
Diener and Chan (2011, p.2)	People's evaluations of their lives, which can be judgments such as life satisfaction, evaluations based on feelings, including moods and emotions
Hellen and Saaksjarvi (2011, p.937)	The combination of a cognitive judgment of life satisfaction and the balance of the frequency of positive and negative emotions
Garma and Bove (2011, p.635)	An individuals' appraisal of their overall life situation
Fischer and Boer (2011, p.164)	The subjective evaluation of one's life, including emotional reactions to personal or general events, mood states and any judgment concerning satisfaction and fulfilment in various domains of life

Table 2.12 Continued

Author(s)	Definitions
Lucas and Lawless (2013, p.872)	An overarching evaluation of the quality of a person's life from his or her own perspective
Bendayan, Blanca, Fernandez-Baena, Escobar and Victoria Trianes (2013, p.36)	A conscious cognitive judgment of life in which individuals compare their life circumstances with a self-imposed standard

Subjective well-being is an umbrella term regarding the opinion we have about our lives (Dolan, Peasgood and White, 2008). This type of well-being can be instrumental to improve our lives (Bendayan et al., 2013). According to Diener et al. (2002), subjective well-being is a broad concept that consists of experiencing high life satisfaction, low negative moods, and high pleasant emotions. So, having positive experiences (i.e., high subjective well-being) is essential for positive psychology. Subjective well-being also reflects to what extent people have a desirable and rewarding life (Diener, 2012). In addition, scholars such as Thoits and Hewitt (2001), Steel, Schmidt and Shultz (2008), and Nicolao, Irwin and Goodman (2009) categorise life satisfaction and happiness as two components of well-being because well-being essentially stresses pleasant emotional experience (Danna and Griffin, 1999).

In line with Diener et al. (2002) and Duffy, Bott, Allan and Torrey (2013), Pavot and Diener (2008) mention that it is accepted that subjective well-being is a three component structure, including positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction. Pavot and his colleague also contend that life satisfaction and affective aspects of subjective well-being are partially independent. Further, in line with McDowell (2010), Luhmann, Hofmann, Eid and Lucas (2012) maintain that subjective well-

being can be divided into two distinct components: affective well-being and cognitive well-being. Affective well-being (e.g., happiness) refers to the presence of pleasant affect and the absence of unpleasant affect, whilst cognitive well-being (e.g., global life satisfaction) relates to the cognitive evaluation of overall life. In the present study, life satisfaction is investigated that relates to the cognitive part of well-being.

In the marketing context, Sirgy and Lee (2008, p.381) define subjective well-being as “feelings of satisfaction/dissatisfaction the consumer experiences in a manner that contributes to his or her quality of life”. In contrast, objective well-being refers to experts’ objective assessment of consumers’ experiences in the particular stage of the consumers’ life cycle (Lee and Sirgy, 2004). While subjective well-being is kind of well-being that psychologically experienced, objective well-being is related to observable factors such as richness, health, and tangible goods (D'Acci, 2011).

Moreover, Sirgy and Lee (2008, p.381) define customer well-being as “a state of objective and subjective well-being involved in the various stages of the consumer/product life cycle in relation to a particular consumer good”. This construct also refers to “consumer’s perception of the extent to which a brand (a consumer good or service) contributes to positive affect in various life domains creating an overall perception of the quality of life impact of that brand” (Grzeskowiak and Sirgy, 2007, p.291). According to Sirgy, Lee and Rahtz (2007), there are various conceptualisations and measures of customer well-being such as the materialism model, the need satisfaction model, the bottom-up spillover model, the cost of living model, the consumption equity model, the community model, the

marketer's orientation model, the quality model, the possession satisfaction model, the acquisition/possession model, the globalization model, the consumer/product life cycle model, and the perceived quality of life impact model. The latest model is applied in the current study.

Justification for applying customer life satisfaction in the present study is to find out the factors that improve the well-being of the fitness club members since a concern in societies is the reduction of individuals' well-being (Helliwell et al., 2015). Identifying the factors that positively influence customer well-being helps the fitness club managers to contribute to the quality of life of their members through improving the factors. Another justification is that there is a very scant research (e.g., Sweeney et al., 2015) that simultaneously identifies the effect of value co-creation on customer benefits (e.g., well-being) and firm benefits (e.g., loyalty).

Importantly, it is worthwhile to note that life satisfaction is regarded in the present study because it is the most suitable approach in order to define quality of life. For instance, reviewing of different conceptual approaches by Moons et al. (2006) reveals that life satisfaction is the most appropriate conceptualisation of quality of life since it addresses existent conceptual problems in health-related quality of life. Consequently, sport life satisfaction, as a domain of overall life satisfaction, and overall life satisfaction are chosen to assess customer well-being in this study.

As well, it should be mentioned that life satisfaction, rather than happiness, is considered in the present study because the influence of good and bad event on happiness is temporary, it is difficult to define or measure happiness, and life

satisfaction is a more precise construct to assess subjective well-being (Dittmar, 2008). The next sections describe two concepts related to life satisfaction, including sport life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction perceptions. Sport life satisfaction is viewed in this study as a domain-specific satisfaction with life (i.e., sport), and overall life satisfaction is regarded as global satisfaction with life.

2.8.1 Sport Life Satisfaction

Hwang and Han (2014, p.247) define customer well-being perception as “the extent to which a brand positively contributes to a quality of life enhancement”. It is mentioned that well-being perception is a very important criterion for customers when purchasing services (Hwang and Hyun, 2012, Kim, Jeon and Hyun, 2012). Consumer well-being can be enhanced through marketing policies such as providing services that improve customer quality of life. Kotler, Adam, Brown and Armstrong (2003) argue that one of the application of marketing should be submission of superior value to customers so that it results in the improvement of consumers and the society well-being.

Ostrom et al. (2010) also underscore the necessity of focusing on service outcomes, especially customer well-being, since customers are often vulnerable. According to the scholars, transformative service research “seeks to better the quality of life of present and future generations of consumers and citizens through services and the impact of consumers’ service experiences on well-being” (p.9). While well-being marketing is intended to enhance customer well-being, there is a limited understanding of its strategic implications and implementation.

Vargo et al. (2008) define value for service systems as an improvement in system well-being. These scholars do not limit value co-creation activities to one exchange or a dyad of service systems. But, they indicate that value co-creation is the integration of existing resources that results in the well-being of the systems. Wherever there are interactions between customers and employees, especially in co-creative activities, customers experience situations that influence their well-being. In fact, any action of service entities (e.g., a service employee, an organisation) may positively or negatively influence customer well-being (Anderson et al., 2013).

Moreover, Gonzalez, Coenders, Saez and Casas (2010) point out that satisfaction has a central role to research on psychological well-being. Nowadays, researchers try to find out when and why people are satisfied with their life (Liu and LaRose, 2008). According to perceived quality of life theory, we can evaluate customer well-being by assessing the effect of a particular product consumption on consumers' positive affect in various life domains (Grzeskowiak and Sirgy, 2007). As such, Dagger and Sweeney (2006) indicate that life satisfaction perceptions can be influenced in services that alter customer lifestyles. These scholars specify services such as healthcare, fitness, and weight loss as the most relevant services to quality of life perceptions. The reasons for their relevancy are that these services are characterised by centrality to lifestyle, and that positive or negative service evaluations may influence the customers' perception of quality of life.

Furthermore, Diener, Suh, Lucas and Smith (1999) introduce four components for subjective well-being including pleasant affect, unpleasant affect, life satisfaction, and domain satisfaction. These scholars specify a number of domains such as work,

family, leisure, health, and finances that people may have different satisfaction with them. Based on the mentioned guideline above and given the present research context, sport life satisfaction is viewed for the purposes of this study as the level of satisfaction that customers have with this specific domain of their life, resulted from participation in the fitness club services.

Finally, quality of sport life is an important factor that may be influenced by participation in the fitness clubs. But, one may ask whether satisfaction with this domain of life impacts overall life satisfaction. This question is also answered in the current study.

2.8.2 Overall Life Satisfaction

As previously mentioned, Diener et al. (1999) categorise subjective well-being into four components: pleasant affect, unpleasant affect, life satisfaction, and domain satisfaction. Based on these scholars' classification, life satisfaction encompasses desire to change life, satisfaction with current life, satisfaction with past, satisfaction with future, and significant others' views of one's life. In the present research overall life satisfaction (life satisfaction hereafter) is considered to assess the hypotheses of the study. Diener (1994, p.108) defines life satisfaction as "a conscious global judgment of one's life". As such, Moons et al. (2006) also argue that life satisfaction is positively evaluation of quality of life that depends on fulfilment of personal needs. More definitions of life satisfaction have been listed in Table 2.13. Definitions mentioned in Table 2.13 indicate that life satisfaction is an overall evaluation of life. The table also demonstrates that this evaluation is cognitive.

Table 2.13 Life Satisfaction Definitions

Author(s)	Definitions
Pavot, Diener, Colvin and Sandvik (1991, p.150)	A global evaluation by the person of his or her life
Babin and Boles (1998, p.82)	The degree to which people judge the quality of their lives favourably
Zhang and Leung (2002, p.85)	A person's overall evaluation of their quality of life based upon self-selected standards
Zhang (2005, p.190)	People's global evaluation of the quality of their life
McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg and Kinicki (2005, p.62)	Global assessment of a person's quality of life
Moons et al. (2006, p.894)	The degree to which a person positively evaluates the overall quality of his/her life
Stubbe et al. (2007, p.149)	The global assessment of a person's quality of life according to a person's own subjective judgment
Martikainen (2009, p.722)	The degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his/her life as a whole favourably
McDowell (2010, p.70)	The persons' internal subjective assessment of their overall quality of life
Lewis, Huebner, Malone and Valois (2011, p.250)	A cognitive appraisal of individuals' overall quality of life based on their own standards
Ozben (2013, p.205)	A distinct construct representing a cognitive and global evaluation of the quality of one's life as a whole as well as the cognitive component of subjective well-being

Life satisfaction is important because it protects people against depression and substance use (Ojeda and Pina-Watson, 2013) and assists to facilitate adaptive development (Antaramian, Huebner and Valois, 2008). According to Lewis et al. (2011), people who have higher life satisfaction feel better, fight off illness, live longer, and make more money. These scholars point out that this type of satisfaction also causes greater job satisfaction, positive social relationships and productivity, as well as lower levels of psychopathology. In fact, life satisfaction can reflect what is happening well or badly in the community (Diener, Inglehart and Tay, 2013). Therefore, improvement of life satisfaction in societies is essential for policy makers.

In sum, reviewing of the marketing literature demonstrates that researchers have viewed customer engagement outcomes from the perspective of organisations and firms, rather than customers. As an evidence, Dagger and Sweeney (2006, p.3) highlight the central role of quality of life in marketing and convey that “until recently, however, marketers have remained quiet on the value of quality of life as an outcome of consumer processes and, specifically, service delivery”. This study is intended to develop a comprehensive model that integrates the effect of customer engagement on both societal (i.e., customer well-being) and economic (i.e., customer loyalty) outcomes.

CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

Self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust are supposed as the antecedents of value co-creation in this thesis. As such, customer loyalty and well-being are regarded as the consequences of value co-creation. Some theories such as social cognitive theory, role theory, relationship marketing, and well-being marketing, in addition to service-dominant logic, are employed in order to develop the conceptual model of this thesis. The research conceptual model is interesting as van Doorn (2011, p.281) states that “given the dynamic nature of customer engagement, exploring the causal relations between customer engagement and related constructs is an exciting direction for future research”.

In this chapter, at first the research conceptual model is introduced in order to make easier understanding of the research hypotheses and reminding their underpinning theories. Next, the effect of self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust on value co-creation are argued based on the relevant literature. Specially, related to value co-creation antecedents there is a concern mentioned by Eisingerich and Bell (2006) and Wu (2011) that customer participation enablers are not well-developed. As well, Hollebeek (2011b) contend that there are limited insights about the specific drivers of customer engagement. Then, the consequences of value co-creation are discussed that comprise customer well-being and loyalty. Vega-Vazquez et al. (2013) also mention that the consequences of value co-creation are not well-documented.

In sum, this chapter reviews the findings of other scholars, identifies knowledge gaps, and theorise hypotheses that will be tested in the next chapters.

3.2 Research Conceptual Model

It is mentioned that different theories are used to explain the antecedents and consequences of value co-creation. Based on the research hypotheses mentioned in this chapter, the following conceptual model (Figure 3.1) is supposed. In this part of the thesis, Section 3.2 hypothesises the effect of self-efficacy on value co-creation (H1a-H1c) by linking social cognitive theory with service-dominant logic. Section 3.3 theorises the influence of role clarity on value co-creation (H2a-H2c) through associating role theory and service-dominant logic. Further, role theory and relationship marketing are used in Section 3.4 to correlate role clarity and customer trust (H3). The impact of customer trust on value co-creation (H4a-H4c) is described in Section 3.5 to link relationship marketing with service-dominant logic.

As such, Section 3.6 proposes H5a-H5c, which is the effect of value co-creation on customer loyalty. This section makes a link between service-dominant logic and relationship marketing. H6a-H6c are considered in Section 3.7 to theorise that value co-creation influences sport life satisfaction, where service-dominant logic and well-being marketing are connected. As well, Section 3.8 suggests the relationship between sport life satisfaction and loyalty (H7), which means the association between well-being marketing and relationship marketing. Finally, H8 developed in Section 3.9 supposes that sport life satisfaction influences overall life satisfaction.

This last section of the thesis relates to subjective well-being and more precisely the bottom-up approach of subjective well-being.

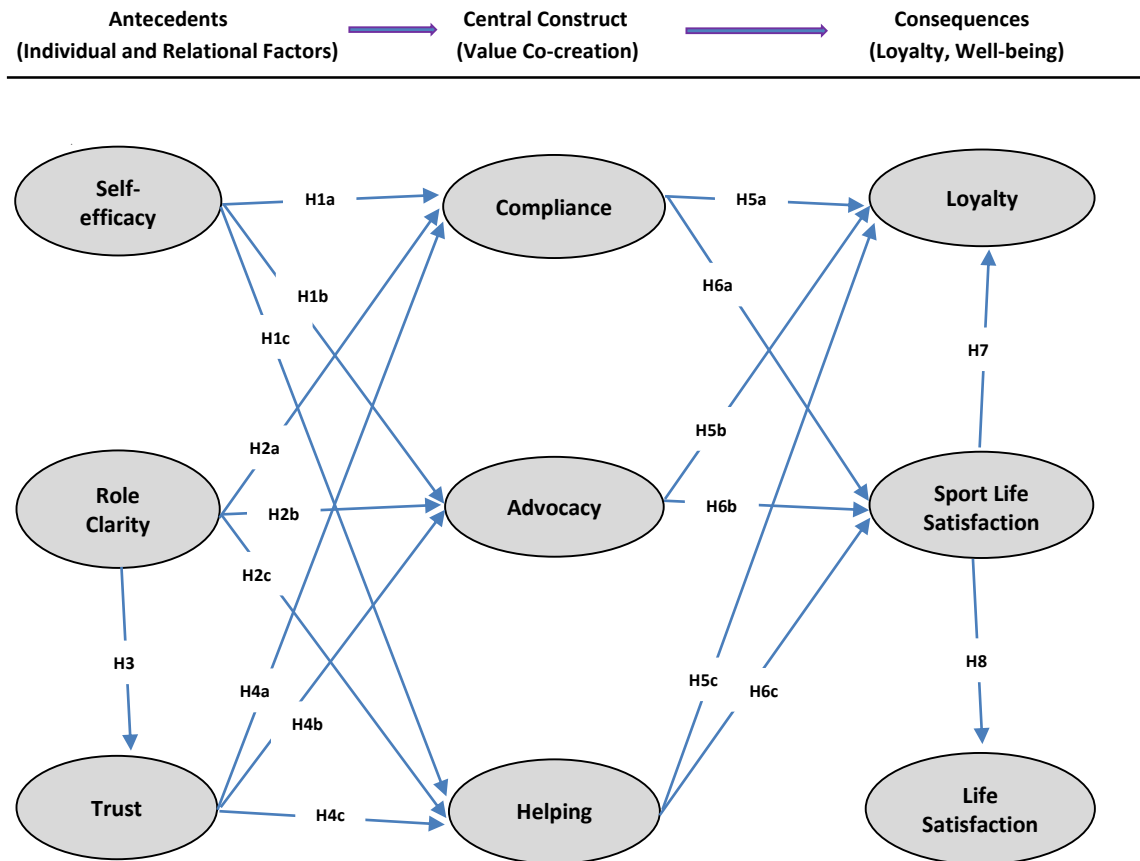


Figure 3.1 The Research Conceptual Model

Before developing the research hypotheses it would be helpful to review the adapted definitions of the research constructs based on their main sources. The definitions are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Adapted Definitions of the Research Constructs

Construct	Definitions	Main Source
Self-efficacy	The fitness centre members' beliefs in their capabilities to participate in collaborative behaviours to attain the desired outcome	Luszczynska et al. (2005b, p.439)
Role clarity	The fitness centre members' knowledge and understanding of what to do in the centres	Meuter et al. (2005, p.64)
Trust	The fitness centre members' confidence that the centres are dependable and can be relied on	Gregoire et al. (2009, p.20)
Compliance	The degree to which the fitness centre members comply with organisational rules and procedures in the centres	Verleye et al. (2013, p.70)
Advocacy	Informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of the fitness centres	Westbrook (1987, p.261)
Helping other members	The fitness centre members' behaviours aimed at assisting the other members	Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281)
Sport life satisfaction	Positive psychological perceptions related to sport life that the fitness centre members gain as a result of participation in value co-creation activities	Beard and Ragheb (1980, p.22)
Life satisfaction	Conscious global judgment of the fitness centre members' life	Diener (1994, p.108)
Loyalty	The degree to which the fitness centre members exhibit repeat purchasing behaviours from the centres, possess positive attitudinal disposition toward the centres, and consider using only the service providers when a need for this service arises	Gremler and Brown (1996, p.173)

3.3 Self-efficacy and Value Co-creation

There are some essential resources that customers need to engage in value co-creative activities in services, such as information, skills, and knowledge (Payne et al., 2008) and ability (Bowen, 1986). It is also mentioned that the clarity of a task and the ability to do a work are key factors in affective co-production system (LengnickHall, 1996, Lovelock and Young, 1979). Social cognitive theory is used in this research to identify the determinant role of self-efficacy in service delivery

engagement. This theory can provide a theoretical framework in order to understand human behaviours and social interactions (Liu and LaRose, 2008). Self-efficacy positively influences goal progress (Lent, Singley, Sheu, Gainor, Brenner, Treistman and Ades, 2005) and more motivation to engage in challenging tasks (Schwarzer et al., 1999). It also changes behaviours because self-efficacy expectations motivate people to engage in an effort and persist it when facing difficulties (Leganger, Kraft and Roysamb, 2000)..

Further, while self-efficacy is positively associated with positive valued traits such as satisfaction and achievement motivation, it is negatively related to negative valued behaviours such as helplessness and shyness (Leganger et al., 2000). Accordingly, our beliefs about our capabilities influence our involvement in different social activities. People with high self-efficacy explore their environment, engage in more challenging tasks, and believe their competence to deal with all kinds of demands (Luszczynska et al., 2005a). According to y Monsuwé, Dellaert and De Ruyter (2004), higher self-efficacy also leads to more attempts to attain desired outcomes. The following examples reflect the importance of customers' abilities, in particular self-efficacy, in conducting their behaviours.

Given complaining and giving feedback as value co-creative activities (van Doorn et al., 2010, Verleye et al., 2013, Yi and Gong, 2013), it seems that self-efficacy can be an enabler of these behaviours. For instance, McKee et al. (2006) find the positive effect of self-efficacy on complaining intentions. These scholars conclude that a lack of self-confidence causes customers do not complain in the service context.

Moreover, Thøgersen, Juhl and Poulsen (2009) reveal the effect of self-efficacy on complaining. According to these researchers, the probability of complaining depends on its costs (e.g., effort and time) and the economic loss suffered by a customer.

Similarly, the effect of self-efficacy on personal initiative (i.e., actively self-starting behaviours and persisting it to overcome difficulties) is confirmed by Bledow and Frese (2009). In fact, when customers believe that they are efficacious in a specific role, they more likely engage in the problem-solving strategies (Bouffard-Bouchard, 1990). Particularly, customer engagement entails risks such as psychological, social, physical, financial, performance, and time related risks, which results in a lack of inclination to participate in the service delivery process (McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012). Therefore, self-efficacy as a predictor of behaviours (Maddux, Norton and Stoltenberg, 1986) may enable customers to engage in the service processes.

In relation to information seeking and information sharing, as other customer engagement behaviours (van Doorn et al., 2010, Verleye et al., 2013, Yi and Gong, 2013), scholars have mentioned relationship between self-efficacy and these behaviours. For example, a study conducted by Brown et al. (2001) reveals that employees who have higher self-efficacy engage in information seeking more than individuals with fewer self-efficacy. The importance of self-efficacy on job search activity as an information seeking behaviour is also supported by researchers (e.g., Eden and Aviram, 1993, Saks and Ashforth, 1999). For example, Saks and Ashforth (1999) unfold the effect of job search self-efficacy on job search behaviours such as

preparatory and active job search activity, as well as job search intensity. Oh (2012) also reveals that self-efficacy is one of the most important motivations that encourages people to share their knowledge through providing health-related answers in the Web 2.0 environments.

Furthermore, the club members who do exercise need to comply with the programmes recommended by the sport experts. In this regard, Luszczynska et al. (2005b) confirm the regulatory function of self-efficacy in different health domains such as adoption of a physically active lifestyle. They go on to note that people who have more self-efficacy may more likely engage in the healthy behaviours and maintain them. In the service setting, Dellande et al. (2004) unfold that customers' ability results in their motivation, which in turn leads to increased customer compliance. Brown et al. (1998) also disclose that self-efficacy has a strong effect on salespersons' performance and goal setting levels directly and indirectly.

If we suppose customers as the partial employees (e.g., McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012), self-efficacy may have an important role in assisting the other consumers. Customers can enhance their knowledge and competency through customer-to-customer know-how exchange. According to norm of reciprocity, "one should help those who have helped him/her in the past and retaliate against those who have been detrimental to his/her interests" (Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi and Ercolani, 2003, p.252). By employing motivation, opportunity and ability theory, Gruen et al. (2006) conclude that ability has significant effect on customer-to-customer know-how exchange. It is also proposed that self-efficacy leads to enhanced satisfaction

with social relations (Luszczynska et al., 2005a). Given the review, it can be concluded that higher self-efficacy leads to more helping activities.

Reviewing of the literature indicates two issues in the marketing literature. The first issue is that most studies concerning the effect of self-efficacy on customer participation have focused on technology-based self-services, online activities, or healthcare context (see Appendix A). The second issue is that there are some inconsistent findings regarding the effect of self-efficacy on the relevant factors. With respect to the first issue, for example, findings regarding resistance to technological innovations reveal that behavioural respond to the product can be affected by person's perceived ability to use a product (Ellen et al., 1991).

Also, research related to self-service technologies confirms that self-efficacy increases customers' future usage intention of technology-based self-service (e.g., van Beuningen, de Ruyter, Wetzels and Streukens, 2009), engagement in trial of self-service technologies (e.g., Meuter et al., 2005), and intention to use self-service technologies at supermarket self-checkout kiosks (e.g., Wang et al., 2013a). Additionally, the effect of ability on future co-creation on customer intention toward future co-creation (e.g., Dong et al., 2008) and the impact of self-efficacy on online shopping (e.g., y Monsuwé et al., 2004) is supported.

Based on this argument, it is necessary to conduct a study that explores the effect of self-efficacy on customers' behaviours in a context in which there are more direct interactions between the customers and a second party such as the employees or the other customers exist. The second issue is that unlike the aforementioned

findings that confirm the important role of self-efficacy on behaviours, there are some results that show there is no significant impact of self-efficacy on customers' behaviours. For instance, a study conducted by Oyedele and Simpson (2011) reveals that self-efficacy has no significant effect on some customer citizenship behaviours in the retailing context. The behaviours are completing customer survey, participating in customer focus group, helping to select new cell phone features, and returning shopping cart to sidewalk and shirt back to the correct rack. Also, Zhao, Mattila and Tao (2008) demonstrate that post-training self-efficacy has no significant effect on the intent of using the self-service machine in the future.

Additionally, Oyedele and Simpson (2007) find that the effect of self-efficacy on self-service technology intention is not significant in the shopping and library settings. Moreover, unlike Bates and Khasawneh (2007), Sun and Rueda (2012) reveal insignificant relationship between self-efficacy and student engagement. Lassar, Manolis and Lassar (2005) unfold of three internet efficacies, including intensity of web usage, length of web usage, and comfort of web usage, only intensity of web usage significantly influences online banking adoption. The reasons for these inconsistent findings might be application of different research populations and contexts.

The present study not only explores the effect of self-efficacy on customers' behaviours in a rarely-investigated population and context, but also discovers the importance of self-efficacy on value co-creation activities in a highly interactions environment. In line with Hoyer et al. (2010), Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer

(2012) draw attention to the necessity of validation of extant theoretical models in customer co-creation and call for exploring the importance of individual difference variables (e.g., customer self-efficacy): “we call for more research on individual difference variables that might be drivers of customer co-creation activities” (p.1491). As a result of the mentioned review, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 1: Customer self-efficacy is positively related to (a) compliance (b) advocacy, and (c) helping other members.

3.4 Role Clarity and Value Co-creation

A better understanding of the fundamental dimensions of customer behaviour assists the managers of sport organisations to manage customers’ relationship, attendance, and retention (Bee and Kahle, 2006). In this regard, Guo et al. (2013) declare that it is neglected that how firms can motivate customers to co-produce service delivery. As such, Bolton and Saxena-Iyer (2009) and Bowen (1986) emphasise the importance of customer role clarity to engage in service delivery since it would be very helpful to understand customer participative behaviours in the interactive services. Guo et al. (2013) also contend that consumers who have higher role clarity may know more required and effective functions in organisations.

According to role theory, role clarity enhances through eliminating conflicting directives. In fact, knowing desired behaviours improves customer ability to participate in service delivery (Yoo et al., 2012). In this regard, Larsson and Bowen (1989) argue that when customers do not know their roles in the service delivery processes, it may result in less participation. Accordingly, when confronting with

incompatible expectations and multiple tasks, a person may face role conflict. This situation can be a potential barrier to participate in value creation activities (Moeller et al., 2013).

As well, Yoo et al. (2012) indicate the possibility of role conflict due to inconsistent directives from the service personnel or other customers throughout interactions. It should be mentioned that while role clarity causes more value co-creation, role conflict leads to destruction of value. For instance, Plé and Cáceres (2010) maintain that one type of misuse of resources (accidentally or intentionally) in the service systems which may result in value destruction is role conflict. These scholars explain that while customers are eager to have enough time through their interactions with firms and expect to talk to the knowledgeable employees to solve their issues in the first call, firms ask their service employees to minimize the amount of time spent with individual customers and hurry through calls. Hence, many customers think firms do not understand or care about them. This role conflict in the employee side may lead to negative output for the firms.

Further, Thøgersen et al. (2009) argue that customers may have no experience of complaining, or if they have it may be from different situations, when facing service deficiency. Therefore, it results in uncertainty on how to behave in a specific situation. In other words, being familiar with their roles in organisations, customers can behave properly. Additionally, customers need information and knowledge to participate in services (Payne et al., 2008). Verleye (2015) points out that if firms want to have co-creating customers they should invest in communication and

guidance for their customers. Taheri, Jafari and O'Gorman (2014) also demonstrate that prior knowledge strongly influences visitors' level of engagement with tourist attractions.

As such, a study by Hausman (2004) unfolds that communication between patients and their physicians significantly enhances patient compliance with physicians' advice. The examples written in the following paragraphs also show the importance of role clarity to engage in service delivery. It should be mentioned that the examples are in line with the notion indicated by Yi, Nataraajan and Gong (2011) that communication can be fruitful to yield successful customer behaviour management. As well, it is indicated that three important facilitators of co-creation of value-in-use are relationship development, communicative interaction, and knowledge renewal (Ballantyne and Varey, 2006).

A study by Verleye et al. (2013) shows that customer role readiness in the nursing home sector has a positive effect on all forms of customer engagement behaviours such as compliance, cooperation, positive word-of-mouth, and helping other customers. But, these scholars have considered role readiness as a limited construct which includes three items, while it can comprise more elements such as role clarity, motivation, and ability (Meuter et al., 2005), or optimism, innovativeness, discomfort, and insecurity in technology usage (Parasuraman, 2000).

According to Bolton and Saxena-Iyer (2009), when services are complex, customised, and delivered over time engaging in extra-role behaviours is more important. Therefore, firms need to clarify their customers' role to facilitate their participation

in this type of activities. The impact of role clarity on co-creation experience (e.g., Verleye, 2015) and customer participation (e.g., Yoo et al., 2012) is also confirmed by researchers. Selmer, Jonasson and Luring (2013) find that group relational conflict negatively influences behavioural, cognitive, and emotional engagement. Likewise, in the self-service technology setting the effect of role clarity on customer intention toward future co-creation (e.g., Dong et al., 2008) and use of self-service technologies (e.g., Meuter et al., 2005) is supported.

As well, Dellande et al. (2004) find that customer compliance as a dimension of value co-creation is influenced by role clarity in the healthcare sector. So, these scholars point out that compliance is less likely if there is low role clarity. Yoo et al. (2012) also confirm positive effect of role clarity on customer participation in the healthcare context. In general, it seems that the influence of role clarity on customer co-production and value co-creation behaviours is remarkable. This is the reason that Dong et al. (2008) draw attention to this important point that if managers are eager to engage customers in their services, especially recovery strategies, they need to improve their customers' role clarity.

Despite the stated arguments above, there are some issues to be mentioned. First, reviewing of the marketing literature indicates that most studies regarding the function of role clarity have been conducted in self-service technologies context (e.g., Dong et al., 2008, Meuter et al., 2005) or healthcare sector (e.g., Dellande et al., 2004, Yoo et al., 2012). Then, there are inconsistent findings in some cases. For instance, while the effect of role clarity on compliance is confirmed in the context

of debt management programmes, its impact on individual initiative is not significant (e.g., Guo et al., 2013). Lastly, literature review reveals that there are few studies exploring the effect of role clarity on different dimensions of value co-creation (see Appendix A). In this study three dimensions of value co-creation, including compliance, advocacy, and helping other members, have been considered to have more contribution to the marketing knowledge.

Based on the aforementioned argument, it seems that the clarity of role is important to participate in the fitness club services. For example, customers need to know what responsibilities and how much authority have during participating in the clubs. A lack of role clarity may result in undesirable outcomes. Therefore, this research is proposed to contribute to the extant knowledge of customer engagement, particularly value co-creation determinants, by testing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Role clarity is positively related to (a) compliance (b) advocacy, and (c) helping other members.

3.5 Role Clarity and Customer Trust

Customer trust is necessary to have an influential management of relationship marketing (Wei et al., 2013). It has a very important role in the relationship between a leader and a follower so that trusted leaders have a potential advantage over not trusted ones (Goodwin, Whittington, Murray and Nichols, 2011). As a very important factor, trust comes from communicating values (Mumford and Gray, 2010). Further, it is highlighted that trust is a cornerstone for knowledge-sharing

interactions (Karpen, Bove and Lukas, 2012). Thus, the success of communities depends on trust (Achrol and Kotler, 2012).

In contrast, conflict has a significant and negative effect on customer trust (Davies et al., 2011). According to Mele (2011), resolution of conflicts may result in enhanced trust, which in turn leads to capability for value co-creation. A meta-analysis study by Geyskens et al. (1998) reveals that environmental uncertainty negatively influences trust. In the marketing systems, development of trust is obviously specific (Williams and Aitken, 2011). According to Urban (2005), marketers need to pay attention to the determinants of trust since advocacy depends on trust. Likewise, Bowden (2009a) contends that increased certainty and reduced risk are two important outcomes when customers trust in service providers. Although customers are a source of competence within value co-creation processes, they are also as potential competitors (Bolton and Saxena-Iyer, 2009).

Consequently, trust results in decreasing perceived risks within interactions and opportunistic behaviours (Bruhn, Schnebelen and Schaefer, 2014). Indeed, brand attitudes are very important to build relationship between a consumer and a firm (Fullerton, 2005). Specially, customers need trust to quickly deal with a new situation in social interactions (Mumford and Gray, 2010). To build and sustain relationship between a customer and a firm trust is necessary (Fuller, Muhlbacher, Matzler and Jaweck, 2009).

Reviewing of the literature confirms the mentioned argument. For example, it is indicated that trust positively influences compliance (e.g., Davies et al., 2011, Payan

and McFarland, 2005), helping behaviours (e.g., Choi, 2006), customer engagement (e.g., van Doorn et al., 2010), academic staff engagement (e.g., Selmer et al., 2013), value co-creation (e.g., Bharti, Agrawal and Sharma, 2014, See-To and Ho, 2014), and work engagement (e.g., Agarwal, 2014). Given the literature review, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 3: Role clarity is positively related to customer trust.

3.6 Customer Trust and Value Co-creation

Trust is important in the relationship between a service provider and a consumer. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004b, p.11) state that “the firm and the consumer are both collaborators and competitors- collaborators in co-creating value and competitors for the extraction of economic value”. Therefore, customers evaluate others’ capacity for action through trust (Mumford and Gray, 2010). According to Etgar (2008), customers need a lack of opportunistic behaviour by their partners such as termination of their best offers or change of the conditions of the exchange. Opportunism in the participative behaviours means activities that defy the conventionally accepted behaviour during co-creating value process and that negatively affect mutual expectations between the parties (Ertimur and Venkatesh, 2010). Thus, trust is critical to sustain individual and organisational effectiveness as well as it influences the behaviour of each party toward the other one (Goodwin et al., 2011).

Furthermore, with respect to the important role of customer trust it can be noted that when interacting with a service provider, customers need trust and

confidentiality (Rauyruen and Miller, 2007). A provider's reliable behaviours cause that customers feel less perceived risk, which results in more customers' confidence in the provider's future behaviours (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). Vivek et al. (2012) also point out that when customers engage in services they feel the firm cares about them. There are different studies regarding the advantages of trust in organisations, but there is not agreement on how these benefits occur (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). This study is going to identify the facilitating role of trust to participate in the fitness club services.

In line with Gronroos (2011b), interactivity is considered here as an important factor in order to conceptualise value co-creation. In fact, parties who engage in co-creative activities need trust because of the collaborative nature of participative behaviours (Abela and Murphy, 2008). The relationship between a customer and a service provider is a platform for engagement, but trust is necessary to foster such a relationship (Chathoth, Ungson, Altinay, Chan, Harrington and Okumus, 2014). Randall et al. (2011) also point out that firms need to embrace transparency in order to co-create value with their products. Therefore, the level of service participation depends on the customers' perception of the firm (Hilton et al., 2012).

In addition, customer attitudes such as trust importantly impact customer engagement (van Doorn et al., 2010). Etgar (2008) maintains that customers participate more in co-production processes when they feel trust and a lack of opportunistic behaviour. Different parties who engage in business create opportunities to facilitate value creation through their interactions (Aarikka-

Stenroos and Jaakkola, 2012). To co-create value trust is considered as a prerequisite (See-To and Ho, 2014). Selmer et al. (2013) contend that trust and behavioural engagement are positively related. The following findings support the mentioned discussion above.

For instance, it is revealed that relational trust is critical in co-creation value (e.g., Natti, Pekkarinen, Hartikka and Holappa, 2014), cooperative strategies (e.g., Day, Fawcett, Fawcett and Magnan, 2013), and engagement in service delivery and advocacy of the firm (e.g., Sashi, 2012). Trust also facilitates participation in compliance (e.g., Davies et al., 2011), helping behaviours at the group level (e.g., Choi, 2006), word-of-mouth in the virtual community (e.g., Porter et al., 2013), leisure activities in virtual communities (e.g., Frey and Luethje, 2011), e-marketplace (e.g., Chang and Wong, 2010), and work engagement (e.g., Agarwal, 2014).

Moreover, trust in the other party leads to the reduction of negative effect of conflict between the partners and enhancement of cooperation (Davies et al., 2011). Customers may recommend a firm when they have confidence in the firm (de Matos and Vargas Rossi, 2008). Further, perception of care and personal connection influences customer trust, which in turn affects advocacy (Gremler, Gwinner and Brown, 2001, Payan and McFarland, 2005). In the fitness clubs, it is shown that the quality of interactions between the members and the club's staff has positive impact on customer effort in value co-creation (Aggarwal and Basu, 2014).

However, a study by Fuller et al. (2009) in the new product development context does not confirm significant effect of trust on intention of future participation.

Likewise, trust in top management and trust in team members have no significant effect on work engagement among research scientists (Chughtai and Buckley, 2013). Based on the mentioned review, it can be supposed that trust may increase value co-creation behaviours because the fitness club members would not be worried about being exploited by others and that they hope that their helps may be reciprocated by the beneficiary (Choi, 2006). As a result, it is supposed that:

Hypothesis 4: Customer trust is positively related to (a) compliance (b) advocacy, and (c) helping other members.

3.7 Value Co-creation and Customer Loyalty

It is emphasised that all stakeholders should benefit from the value co-created through service participation (Lusch and Webster, 2011). As an important factor, customer loyalty is a strategic business objective for organisations. Therefore, scholars have tried to identify variables that lead to loyalty formation (Polo Pena et al., 2014). Particularly, nowadays it is more complex than ever before to retain customers (Carter, 2008). One of the objectives of the present study is to find out whether customer engagement leads to loyalty. Reviewing of the literature reveals that the direct effect of customer engagement on loyalty is debateable. A notable number of studies confirm the link between engagement and loyalty.

For instance, the impact of customer participation (e.g., Eisingerich and Bell, 2006), value co-creation (e.g., Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014), customer-to-customer exchange (e.g., Gruen et al., 2007), visitor engagement (e.g., Bryce, Curran, O'Gorman and Taheri, 2015), and customer engagement (e.g., So, King and Sparks,

2014) on customer loyalty is significant and positive. As well, customer loyalty is related to the degree of co-creation (e.g., Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012), co-creative activities in service recovery (e.g., Roggeveen, Tsiros and Grewal, 2012), customer compliance in high-contact services (e.g., Lin and Hsieh, 2011), and value co-creation in information and communications technology setting (e.g., Polo Pena et al., 2014).

In this regard, Sweeney et al. (2015) maintain that when customers engage in the service delivery process they feel having more control of it. Therefore, this feeling leads to the sense of responsibility and more positive perceptions regarding the service outcome, which in turn results in loyalty to the firm. Similarly, Polo Pena et al. (2014) contend that participation in the service development process causes the feeling of allegiance to the organisation and positively influences behaviours.

The rationale for proposing the direct effect of value co-creation activities such as helping other customers on loyalty intentions is the norm of reciprocity. According to the norm “one should help those who have helped him/her in the past and retaliate against those who have been detrimental to his/her interests” (Perugini et al., 2003, p.252). Actually, when a customer receives help from another customer it leads to an obligation to him/her. Thus, this obligation causes that the customer feels that he/she would lose this important relationship with others if he/she leaves the organisation. It results in the feeling of continuing membership in order to repay the debt of the obligation (Gruen et al., 2006). Consequently, it can be supposed

that fitness club members who have good relationships with the other members and help them may be more interested to continue their membership.

In contrast, a remarkable part of the relevant studies indicate a weak or a lack of link between customer participation and loyalty. For example, Ennew and Binks (1999) find weak impact of customer participative behaviour on loyalty. As such, van Dijk et al. (2014) conclude that co-creation has marginally significant effect on behavioural intention. With respect to a lack of relationship, it is confirmed that engagement in a Facebook brand community (e.g., Gummerus et al., 2012), participation in customer-to-customer know-how exchange (e.g., Gruen et al., 2006), and engagement in online product recommendation agents (e.g., Dabholkar and Sheng, 2012) have no significant effect on loyalty.

Likewise, Gummerus et al. (2012) demonstrate that two types of customer engagement (i.e., community and transactional engagement) have no direct effect on customer loyalty. So et al. (2014) also display that customer engagement as a second-order construct significantly impacts loyalty. However, when the effect of individual dimensions on loyalty is considered two (identification and interaction) of the five dimensions do not have significant influence.

Moreover, in the sport sector, Stieler et al. (2014) find that fan engagement activities such as prosocial behaviours (helping other customers here) have a negative but not significant effect on purchase intention. Hedlund (2014) also unfolds that participation in sport fan consumption communities significantly influences attendance intentions and merchandise purchase intentions.

In sum, empirical research about co-creation outcomes related to organisations' benefits is scarce (Verleye, 2015). Nysveen and Pedersen (2014) suggest that value co-creation should be carefully considered by managers to gain competitive advantages since it may negatively influence customer loyalty. This study is going to contribute to the marketing literature by testing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: (a) Compliance (b) advocacy, and (c) helping other members are positively related to customer loyalty.

3.8 Value Co-creation and Sport Life Satisfaction

Reviewing of the literature reveals the importance of both economic and social outcomes of marketing. However, "limited research has addressed the social outcome of service provision or the simultaneous impact of service provision on both economic and social outcomes" (Dagger and Sweeney, 2006, p.15). Therefore, this research also examines the effect of value co-creation behaviours on customers' well-being to bridge this gap. This section is considered to theorise the link between value co-creation and sport life satisfaction, as a domain of overall life satisfaction.

Psychologists have always tried to identify influential factors on individuals' positive versus negative life evaluation (Duffy et al., 2013). Studying of the causes of subjective well-being helps psychologist to identify which life circumstances should be improved to enhance people's subjective well-being (Lucas and Lawless, 2013). It should be mentioned that happiness studies show genetic factors are significantly influential on individual subjective well-being (e.g., De Neve et al., 2012, Lykken and

Tellegen, 1996). For instance, it is declared that the human genetic programme influences 50% of people's life satisfaction (Bettingen and Luedicke, 2009).

Furthermore, Lyubomirsky, Sheldon and Schkade (2005) specify three primary types of factors that influence happiness: set point, life circumstances, and intentional activity. Happiness set point, with 50% proportion, is fixed and determined by genetics. Demographic factors (e.g., age, gender, and ethnicity) and happiness-relevant circumstances (e.g., national, geographical, and cultural region) determine 10% of happiness. In relation to the intentional activities (40% proportion), they are actions that people can choose to engage, and that they need some afford to enact. Consequently, it can be concluded that the intentional activities (e.g., value co-creation behaviours) have a remarkable role in individuals' well-being.

Additionally, Diener et al. (2002) contend that according to both needs theorists and activity theorists, the conditions of people's lives influence their subjective well-being. For instance, approaching goals and engaging in interesting activities lead to positive subjective well-being. But, they go on to mention that this conclusion is not always accepted, since it is indicated that stable personality dispositions affect subjective well-being. The possible reason for stability of subjective well-being is genetic.

As well, Lent (2004) specify five main factors that influence life satisfaction: a) self-efficacy, b) environmental supports and resources, c) personality traits and affective dispositions, d) outcome expectations, and e) participation/progress in goal directed activity. Diener et al. (2002) also declare that cognitive and emotional reactions to

life circumstances influence subjective well-being. In addition, Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) underscore the positive effect of engagement in intentional activities on human well-being. The following empirical studies support this proposition.

Harlow and Cantor (1996) demonstrate that social participation activities (e.g., community service/helping friends or neighbours, unpaid professional or technical work) are the strong predictors of life satisfaction and controlling for health. Sheldon, Ryan and Reis (1996) find that engagement in activities for intrinsic reasons make people happier. In this regard, the effect of voluntary activities on well-being (e.g., Hecht and Boies, 2009, Thoits and Hewitt, 2001), psychological well-being and self-reported health (e.g., Piliavin and Siegl, 2007), stress reduction and self-evaluation enhancement (e.g., Hecht and Boies, 2009), and happiness (e.g., Borooah, 2006) is documented. Stutzer and Frey (2006) reveal that people feel better well-being when they have the opportunity for political participation. However, a study conducted by Weitz-Shapiro and Winters (2011) in Latin American countries does not confirm the effect of voting participation on happiness.

Further, Lee and Sirgy (2004) point out that understanding the antecedents of quality of life marketing not only would be helpful for future empirical studies but also would assist marketers to have practical guidelines that develop marketing programmes to enhance customer well-being and preserve the well-being of other stakeholders. Although limited, the predictors of customer well-being in the marketing literature are investigated. For example, the effect of belongingness to a brand community on customer well-being in coffee consumption setting is

significant (e.g., Grzeskowiak and Sirgy, 2007). As well, it is concluded that consumer attitude towards marketing has significant influence on their life satisfaction (e.g., Peterson and Ekici, 2007). However, a study demonstrates that there is no a strong link between marketing activities (e.g., investment in networks, advertising expenditure, retailing system) and subjective well-being (Pan, Zinkhan and Sheng, 2007).

According to Pan et al. (2007), the effect of marketing practices such as advertising expenditure and retailing indices on quality of life and life satisfaction may be positive or negative. For instance, these practices may lead to materialism cultivation and irritation as negative effects. Or, they may facilitate the delivery of products, which results in a positive impact on society as a whole. Moreover, customers' suggestions may result in customer satisfaction and welfare (e.g., van Doorn et al., 2010).

As well, there are a number of studies that indicate participation in value creation activities leads to satisfaction, although this satisfaction mostly relates to satisfaction with services. For instance, the effect of value co-creation activities (e.g., Sashi, 2012) and customer participation (e.g., Cermak, File and Prince, 2011, Dellande et al., 2004, Ennew and Binks, 1999, Gallan et al., 2013) on customer satisfaction is confirmed by scholars. Further, the link between participation and satisfaction is concluded in different contexts and sectors such as virtual brand community (e.g., Brodie et al., 2013), healthcare (e.g., Trede and Higgs, 2003), the beauty parlour and personal care sector (e.g., Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013), service

innovation (e.g., Chathoth et al., 2013), online brand community (e.g., Wirtz, den Ambtman, Bloemer, Horvath, Ramaseshan, van de Klundert, Canli and Kandampully, 2013), service recovery (e.g., Dong et al., 2008, Roggeveen et al., 2012), financial services (e.g., Yim, Chan and Lam, 2012), and service delivery (e.g., Meuter et al., 2005). However, little is known about the extent in which customer engagement in the service delivery processes influences subjective well-being.

With respect to the sport sector, studies support the effect of sport participation on well-being. For instance, Stubbe et al. (2007) and Kleiber et al. (2002) indicate the effect of participation in leisure and physical activities on life satisfaction. Among common leisure activities such as sport/exercise, music, church, and watching TV soaps, Hills and Argyle (1998) unfold that only sport/exercise participation enhances happiness. Dancing (e.g., Hui et al., 2009) and dance movement therapy (e.g., Brauning, 2012) also influence quality of life. In the sport service sector, Bettingen and Luedicke (2009) point out that happiness is correlated to active involvement in the sports and leisure activity levels. This study contributes to the current literature through identifying the effect of service participation on well-being when attending at the sport clubs.

Reviewing of the marketing literature indicates some issues that necessitate conduction of studies like the current research. First and foremost, scholars have frequently focused on the effect of customer engagement on the firms' benefits (e.g., Eisingerich and Bell, 2006, Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012, So et al., 2014), rather than the customers' benefits. According to Pan et al. (2007), despite

the importance of consumers' well-being, the contribution of the marketing literature to individuals' subjective well-being is little.

Importantly, nowadays the need to find out the link between marketing practices and customer well-being is more important than ever since there are some criticisms for unethical practices of marketers such as misleading advertising and poor-quality product designing (Lee and Sirgy, 2004). In this regard, Ostrom et al. (2010) call for undertaking researches that examine well-being outcomes (e.g., life satisfaction) as a result of service consumption. Likewise, Moschis (2012) remarks that we have little knowledge regarding the effect of specific consumer behaviours on their well-being. Anderson et al. (2013) also suggest this research question for future study: "how does the nature of co-creation influence consumer and employee well-being?"

Second, most of the researches devoted to the effect of marketing on customer well-being are conceptual or have been conducted in the goods consumption settings, rather than the service contexts. For instance, Sirgy and Lee (2008) not only discuss well-being marketing and its ethical philosophy for consumer goods firms but also look at consumer well-being through the lens of goods consumption and life cycle of products. Similarly, Leelanuithanit, Day and Walters (1991) demonstrate that while satisfaction with material possessions has a significant influence on overall life satisfaction, satisfaction with acquisition/consumption has no effect on life satisfaction.

Related to the mentioned issue above, Pancer and Handelman (2012) criticise customer well-being literature because researchers have measured consumer well-being based on the economic principles, rather than the societal orientation. This concern is also mentioned by Dagger and Sweeney (2006) who emphasise the impact of marketing on social outcomes such as quality of life in the service context, in addition to the marketing of goods and industries. As well, Leelanuithanit et al. (1991) recommend studies that identify the effect of the emerging marketing concepts on customer well-being. As previously mentioned, value co-creation is an emerging research construct in the marketing literature that can be related to this suggestion.

Third, the findings regarding the correlation between engagement and well-being in the relevant literature are not consistent. For instance, a study in the middle schools indicates that while student cognitive engagement has significant relationship with life satisfaction, emotional and behavioural engagement have no such a correlation (Lewis et al., 2011). As well, Guo et al. (2013) consider compliance and individual initiative as two types of consumer co-production behaviours in the context of debt management programmes. Their findings indicate that while compliance positively influences consumer financial well-being, individual initiative has no any significant effect on consumer well-being.

Lastly, while there are many studies related to life satisfaction and its antecedents in a variety of contexts and groups such as college students (e.g., Ojeda, Flores and Navarro, 2011), unemployed population (e.g., Duffy et al., 2013), signature

strengths (e.g., Forest, Mageau, Crevier-Braud, Bergeron, Dubreuil and Lavigne, 2012), and Italian teachers (e.g., Lent, Nota, Soresi, Ginevra, Duffy and Brown, 2011), there is a scant research, if any, concerning the link between value co-creation activities in the sport club services and customer well-being. As a result of this argument, and given a suggestion by Gummerus et al. (2012) regarding the necessity of further investigations to find the relationship between customer engagement behaviours and satisfaction (e.g., life satisfaction and sport satisfaction), this thesis intends to identify the effect of value co-creation on sport life satisfaction:

Hypothesis 6: (a) Compliance (b) advocacy, and (c) helping other members are positively related to sport life satisfaction.

3.9 Sport Life Satisfaction and Customer Loyalty

In line with Fennell (1987), Dagger and Sweeney (2006) emphasise the need for applying other measures, besides quality of life measures, when researching customers' behaviour outcomes. Therefore, customer loyalty has been considered as the consequence of value co-creation in this research. This section of the thesis discusses the impact of sport life satisfaction perception on customer loyalty in order to suggest a hypothesis that proposes satisfaction with sport life results in customer loyalty.

Although the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty is still debatable (Pont and McQuilken, 2005), their link is confirmed by numerous studies (Ferrand et al., 2010, Yang and Peterson, 2004). According to Fullerton (2005), it is generally agreed that brand satisfaction has positive effect on customer retention.

However, the effect of subjective well-being on customer loyalty has been ignored in the literature (Chiu et al., 2013). Specially, there is a scant research, if any, regarding the effect of a sport-related life satisfaction domain on customer loyalty.

As mentioned earlier, customer well-being perception is related to consumers' experiences towards the effect of services on their well-being. When customers feel that participation in the service delivery processes positively influences their sport well-being, the feeling satisfies parts of their needs. Then, it may cause an increase in repurchase intention toward the brand (Hwang and Han, 2014). Empirical studies support the relationship between well-being perception and consumer loyalty. For instance, the mentioned correlation in the contexts such as luxury cruise industry (e.g., Hwang and Han, 2014), social life in Facebook (e.g., Chiu et al., 2013), chain restaurants (e.g., Kim et al., 2012), shopping (e.g., El Hedhli, Chebat and Sirgy, 2013), and luxury restaurants (e.g., Hwang and Hyun, 2012) is confirmed by scholars.

Moreover, Chiu et al. (2013) reveal that shopping well-being significantly and positively influences mall loyalty. Leisure life satisfaction also significantly impacts revisit intention (e.g., Kim, Woo and Uysal, 2015). Further, Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) show that degree of co-creation positively increases customer satisfaction, which in turn enhances loyalty. It is also concluded that well-being related to personal transportation positively influences customer loyalty through vehicle satisfaction (e.g., Sirgy, Lee and Kressmann, 2006). However, Hwang and Hyun (2012) find that well-being perception in the luxury restaurant context does not significantly influence behavioural intentions.

In the context of sports, customer satisfaction with spectator and participative sports (e.g., Cronin et al., 2000) and satisfaction with transaction (e.g., Bodet and Bernache-Assollant, 2011) have positive and significant effect on loyalty. As well, a study by Wang, Min and Kim (2013b) in the sport spectator setting discloses the effect of well-being on sport spectator revisit intention and word-of-mouth recommendations. Ferrand et al. (2010) suggest further exploration of the effect of customer satisfaction on loyalty in the fitness industry since unlike most relevant studies they conclude insignificant relationship between the constructs. Importantly, it should be mentioned that this study has an important contribution to the marketing literature as it is one of the first studies that discovers the effect of customer sport life satisfaction on customer loyalty, where especially this satisfaction is influenced by value co-creation behaviours.

Given the literature, it can be supposed that the members who feel service participation at the fitness clubs contributes to their life satisfaction are more likely to experience positive emotions. As a result, this positive outcome motivates them to continue their membership. Drown on this discussion, it can be theorised that:

Hypothesis 7: Sport life satisfaction is positively related to customer loyalty.

3.10 Sport Life Satisfaction and Overall Life Satisfaction

There are two approaches regarding the position of subjective well-being as an antecedent or as a consequent factor: top-down approach and bottom-up approach. While the top-down approach assumes that subjective well-being is the antecedence of life circumstances, the bottom-up one proposes this construct as

the outcome of life events (Gana et al., 2013). Actually, the top-down model posits that it is people's subjective interpretation of events that influences their subjective well-being, rather than objective circumstance (Feist et al., 1995). Cockrill (2012) also argues that the top-down theory deems that personality or dispositional factors (e.g., self-esteem and optimism) influence life satisfaction. In contrast, the bottom-up model assumes that having happy moments in life results in life satisfaction. According to the model, the primary predictor of well-being is life circumstance, and that situational factors such as family and community influence life satisfaction.

Moreover, Lee et al. (2002) point out that marketers can apply the bottom-up approach in order to develop policies to enhance the well-being of the target customers. According to these scholars, the advantage of this model is that it helps marketers to specify concrete sub-dimensions of well-being (e.g., perception of well-being in the sport domain of life in this study) needed to enhance well-being. This approach is employed by scholars such as Lung Hung et al. (2012), Gana et al. (2013), and Lee et al. (2002). Based on this discussion, life satisfaction has been regarded through the lens of the bottom-up approach in this study. In other words, it is assumed that higher satisfaction in a specific domain of life, namely sport life satisfaction, may lead to higher overall life satisfaction.

In addition, it is important to note that satisfaction with sport life is viewed as a domain of subjective well-being perception in the current study. In this regard, Liang, Yamashita and Brown (2013) contend that the focus of leisure studies have recently shifted from objective definitions (e.g., frequency of leisure activity participation) to

subjective perceptions of leisure (e.g., satisfaction with leisure experience). Likewise, the important role of subjectively perception of well-being on global life satisfaction is stated by Diener et al. (1999). These scholars also mention that a research finds that while there is no a direct effect of objective health perception on overall life satisfaction, subjective health perception influences life satisfaction.

Further, scholars have found that satisfaction with different domains of life leads to overall life satisfaction. For instance, Leelanuithanit et al. (1991) find that satisfaction with life domains such as family life, material possessions, and self-development positively influence overall life satisfaction. As well, satisfaction with iPad ownership (e.g., Cockrill, 2012) and with other students, co-workers, or neighbours (e.g., Lent et al., 2005) influence overall life satisfaction.

Related to the context of this research, Agyar (2014) discusses that investigating the link between leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction became common in literature when researchers accepted that leisure satisfaction is an important life domain. Beard and Ragheb (1980, p.22) define leisure satisfaction as “the positive perceptions or feelings which an individual forms, elicits, or gains as a result of engaging in leisure activities and choices”. According to these scholars, this domain of life satisfaction consists of different types such as psychological, educational, social, relaxation, physiological, and aesthetic.

Additionally, the effect of leisure satisfaction on the experience of stress-related growth (e.g., Chun, Lee, Kim and Heo, 2012) and happiness and quality of life domains (e.g., Spiers and Walker, 2009) is confirmed. Unlike Neal, Uysal and Sirgy

(2007) who find that leisure life satisfaction has no significant effect on overall life satisfaction, Kim et al. (2015) show that leisure life satisfaction significantly influences quality of life. In the sport service sector, Lung Hung et al. (2012) reveal that satisfaction with event and perceived service quality positively influences life satisfaction.

Further, significant relationship between psychological, social, physiological, and aesthetic subscales of leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction is concluded (e.g., Agyar, 2014). Wang, Chen, Lin and Wang (2008) also find that while relationship between physiological and aesthetic dimensions of leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction is positively significant, there is a negative significant link between the educational dimension and life satisfaction. As such, Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (1999) discover that the effect of leisure satisfaction on life satisfaction is not significant. Nationality may also affects the relationship between leisure satisfaction and life satisfaction. For instance, a study suggests that while leisure satisfaction is positively associated with quality of life in South Korean group, this result is not supported in Chinese and Japanese groups (e.g., Liang et al., 2013).

Although the effect of leisure satisfaction on life satisfaction is studied, there is no any study that particularly determines to what extent sport well-being perception influences overall life satisfaction. Additionally, this part of the research is going to respond to a research call by Fournier and Mick (1999) that suggest developing the bottom-up model by exploring consumer satisfaction. It is also a respond to a research need suggested by Grzeskowiak and Sirgy (2007) with respect to exploring

the relevant product-related experiences that make a positive and a significant difference in the customers' life. The following hypothesis is drawn on the mentioned argument:

Hypothesis 8: Sport life satisfaction is positively related to overall life satisfaction.

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

One of the concerns of researchers is the selection of an appropriate method to conduct a study. The author of this thesis has also been aware the importance of paying attention to the all aspects of a quantitative research, particularly the factors that may negatively influence this type of research. This chapter details the research design and justification for the methods used to conduct the study. It, at first, describes the paradigm and approach applied to the research, followed by introducing the designed questionnaire in order to collect data. Then, the chapter argues three stages of data collection and ethical considerations related to the research.

4.2 Research Paradigm

Scholars need to conduct researches in order to understand different phenomena. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) define research as the process of systematically collecting and analysing information to have a better understanding of the phenomena. To conduct a research scholars apply paradigm to attain their aims. Paradigm is defined as “the entire constellation of beliefs, values, and techniques shared by the members of a given community” (Tronvoll, Brown, Gremler and Edvardsson, 2011, p.563). It is also a cluster of beliefs that causes scholars choose what should be studied, how to conduct a research, and how to interpret a research findings (Bryman, 2012).

Further, Tronvoll et al. (2011) emphasise the importance of analysing paradigmatic foundation of disciplines (e.g., service research) and specify ontology, epistemology, and methodology as important elements of a paradigmatic foundation. The present study contributes to the marketing knowledge through objectivist ontology, positivist epistemology, and quantitative research method. It is in line with Tronvoll et al.'s (2011) assertion that researches on marketing and services have their dominant roots in this type of paradigm. Characteristics of different elements of the research paradigm are mentioned as follows.

Ontology is related to the basic assumptions concerning what counts for reality (Partington, 2000). Ontological assumptions are important because they influence the researcher's decision on how to formulate a study questions and how to conduct a research (Bryman, 2012). Two important aspects of ontology are objectivism and subjectivism. Objectivists assume that social phenomena exist in reality external to social actors concerned with their existence. In contrast, subjectivists suppose that social entities are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of those social actors concerned with their existence (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007). Cunliffe (2011) contends that while factors such as behaviours, processes, actions, and structures are emphasised in objectivism, the focus of subjectivism is on how people interact with and give meaning to their word.

Moreover, epistemology pertains to how knowledge of the reality may be established (Partington, 2000) and the nature and origin of knowledge and how we perceive the word (Tronvoll et al., 2011). With respect to epistemological positions,

if researchers adopt the philosophical stance of the natural scientist, they are positivist. Actually, positivism relates to work with observable social realities. Therefore, it is proposed that credible data can be produced by observable phenomena. In the service research, there are some characteristics of positivistic paradigm that include employing quantifiable measures, using formal propositions, testing hypotheses, and concluding results from a sample as a representative of population. In contrast, interpretivists explore interrelationships among phenomena through a detailed examination of a small number of cases. They explicitly interpret the meanings and functions of actions (Saunders et al., 2007).

Additionally, Malhotra and Birks (2007) specify more characteristics of the mentioned approaches. According to them, while the positivist approach views reality as an objective phenomenon, the interpretivist approach considers it subjectively. Relationship between the researcher and the participant is independent in positivism. An interaction, however, is supposed between the two parties in interpretivism. Further, relationship between factors are cause and effect in positivism, whilst interpretivism assumes that many elements may influence a factor. Lastly, questionnaire is an important instrument to collect data amongst a large sample in the positivist approach. In the interpretivist approach, case studies are used to identify the nature of multiple effects of phenomena.

Another element of paradigm is methodology that discusses how to conduct a research. It is the study of the epistemological assumptions and relates to how scholars acquire knowledge (Tronvoll et al., 2011). It should be noted that there are

some differences between research methodology and research method. Methodology relates to the mentioned argument above. But, the term research method refers to the techniques applied to collect (e.g., survey, interview) and analyse (e.g., statistical, nonstatistical) data. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) contend that two main research methods are quantitative method and qualitative method. They argue that the quantitative researches focus on testing hypotheses and theories, predicting and explaining correlations, and using statistics to analyse data. In contrast, the qualitative studies emphasise propositions and theory generation, relationship exploration, and qualitative analysis methods. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), a quantitative study has some advantages and strengths in comparison with the qualitative studies (see Appendix B for more details). For instance, it is useful to:

- Test and validate already constructed theories,
- Generalise research findings,
- Eliminate the influence of other variables in order to more credibly assess cause-and-effect relationships,
- Collect and analyse data relatively quickly,
- Provide precise, numerical data,
- Have results that are independent of the researcher, and
- Study a large number of people.

Importantly, remarkable part of studies regarding customer value co-creation are theoretical or qualitative (see Appendix A). Further, Tronvoll et al. (2011) suggest that service researchers should use different epistemological views to gain more knowledge regarding various phenomena. Given the advantages of quantitative research method, as mentioned above, and to validate the theories and conceptual models related to value co-creation in the marketing literature, the quantitative method is employed to obtain the objectives of the present study.

4.3 Research Approach

There are two research approaches in the literature, including deductive approach and inductive approach. While the researcher develops a clear theoretical position prior to data collection in the deductive approach, theory development happens after collecting data in the inductive approach. In other words, researchers who apply the deductive approach use the literature to identify theories and ideas. In contrast, the induction approach scholars explore their data and then develop theories from them. As such, while the deductive approach applies well-developed theories, little or no theoretical framework is employed in the inductive approach.

The current study has employed the deductive approach. The aim of this study is to verify correlations between the research constructs through the existing theories such as role theory, social cognitive theory, relationship marketing theory, well-being theory, and service-dominant logic. Further, the data is collected by a questionnaire among a large sample to generalise the findings.

4.4 Data Collection Method

The following parts of the thesis detail the procedures used to collect the research data. At first, an extensive review of literature was applied to obtain a variety of relevant statements to assess the research constructs. The statements were employed in order to design the research questionnaire. Next, in the pre-testing stage, a panel of experts viewed and gave feedback regarding the designed questionnaire. Then, a pilot-testing study was conducted to minimise the potential problems when using the questionnaire for the main study. Lastly, data was collected through the main study stage in order to test the research hypotheses.

4.4.1 Questionnaire Design

It was discussed that the present study has applied a quantitative method. Given the characteristics of the respondents, type and number of the questions, and sample size, a questionnaire was used to collect data by asking participants to answer to the questions in a predetermined order. As well, Gratton and Jones (2010) specify some advantages for data collection by questionnaire which include the reduction of potential bias, anonymity, structured quantitative data, and completion of the survey at a convenient time. Given the advantages and the rationale behind this quantitative study, the author has used a questionnaire in order to collect the needed data.

Moreover, the questionnaire in the present study included four questions related to participants' characteristics, and 58 statements to assess the research constructs (dependent and independent variables). Questions with different categories

(Saunders et al., 2007) were used to assess the participants' characteristics. The questions consisted of gender, age, the number of months being a member of the centre, and the frequency of club participation per week. In this section of the survey, respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire if they had at least one month membership at the clubs.

Furthermore, literature review was used to obtain relevant statements to assess the research constructs. The measures were slightly changed from their main sources to make them more consistent with the characteristics of the research setting. Further, there are different types of scaling techniques such as Likert scale and semantic differential to assess the point of view of the research respondents (cf. DeVaus, 2002, Weathington, Cunningham and Pittenger, 2012). Likert scale was used because it was easier for the researcher to manage the scale as well as for the respondents to answer it. Therefore, the survey items were scored on a Likert scale.

Additionally, it is suggested that self-administered questionnaires, as used in the current study, should have no more than five response categories (Saunders et al., 2007). In the same vein, Parasuraman (2000) proposes five response categories for Likert scale and notes that there is no any advantage for more categories. As well, while Malhotra and Birks (2007) suggest five to nine categories of Likert scale, they argue that fewer categories should be used if the respondents are not knowledgeable about the objects.

Sekaran (2003) also contends that a five-point scale is just as good as others and points out that adding more points does not improve the reliability of the ratings.

As a result, a five-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree) was used in the current research. The measures used to collect data and their sources have been mentioned in the following sections.

4.4.1.1 Control Variables

In consistent with other scholars (e.g., Auh et al., 2007, Guo et al., 2013, Verleye et al., 2013), gender, age, and relationship length were intended as control variables. This part of the questionnaire had categorical questions (Saunders et al., 2007). Gender was assessed by two categories: male and female. Four categories were considered to estimate respondents' age, the number of months being a member of the clubs, and participation in the clubs per week.

In this part of the survey, respondents were also asked to continue completing the survey if they had at least one month membership at the centre. In other words, all participants of the current study had at least one month membership at the fitness clubs.

4.4.1.2 Self-efficacy

It is emphasised that the assessment of self-efficacy must be specific to a given task (McKee et al., 2006) and that it should be tailored to the domain of the study (Gist, 1987). Likewise, Luszczynska et al. (2005a) and Salanova et al. (2003) argue that application of domain-specific self-efficacy is more preferable than general one. According to these scholars, the reasoning is that self-efficacy beliefs are domain specific, as well as that more robust results may be obtained when assessing domain-specific self-efficacy.

As a result, domain-specific self-efficacy is used in the current research, based on the definition by Luszczynska et al. (2005b, p.439): “people’s beliefs in their capabilities to perform a specific action required to attain a desired outcome”. Main sources to adopt and modify the relevant statements were Yim et al. (2012), van Beuningen et al. (2011), and Meuter et al. (2005). Having confidence and skills, being proud of abilities and skills, and applying previous experiences to participate in services were the focus of the statements in this part of the questionnaire.

4.4.1.3 Role Clarity

The statements used to measure role clarity concept were based on this definition: “the consumer’s knowledge and understanding of what to do” (Meuter et al., 2005, p.64). Therefore, six items from previous works by Meuter et al. (2005), Yoo et al. (2012), Dong et al. (2008), and Fonner and Timmerman (2009) were applied to assess this predictor variable. The respondents were asked to indicate their agreement/disagreement level with statements related to their feelings about the certainty of their responsibilities, authorities, and roles in the fitness clubs.

4.4.1.4 Trust

Customer trust means: “confidence that a firm is dependable and can be relied on” (Gregoire et al., 2009, p.20). To operationalise customer trust measures were borrowed and modified from Akamavi, Mohamed, Pellmann and Xu (2015), Kim, Trail and Ko (2011), Moliner, Sanchez, Rodriguez and Callarisa (2007), and Roberts, Varki and Brodie (2003). This construct targets reliability, honesty, promises, and trustworthiness of the club.

4.4.1.5 Compliance

Compliance in the present study means “the degree to which customers comply with organisational rules and procedures” (Verleye et al., 2013, p.70). So, activities such as performing all required tasks and expected behaviours as well as fulfilling responsibilities were considered to find out how much the members comply with the club rules. To do this, extant literature (e.g., Lin and Hsieh, 2011, Verleye et al., 2013, Yi and Gong, 2013) was used to operationalise the measures related to compliance in the study.

4.4.1.6 Advocacy

Advocacy is defined as “informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services and/or their sellers” (Westbrook, 1987, p.261). Similarly, Yi and Gong (2013) and Fullerton (2005) mention that advocacy refers to the recommendation of a business to others (e.g., friends or family). In addition, the concept can cover not only recommendation but also activities such as defence of a firm against critics (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, Walz and Celuch, 2010).

By following the guidelines, four references consisting of Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996), Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross and Maroco (2013), Walz and Celuch (2010), and Doyle, Filo, McDonald and Funk (2013) were employed to find out the level of advocacy by the research respondents. The respondents needed to indicate the level of their participation in saying positive things regarding the centre, recommending it to others, and defending the club against critics.

4.4.1.7 Helping other Members

Rihova, Buhalis, Moital and Gouthro (2013) criticise service-dominant logic literature since value co-creation is mostly conceptualised in terms of provider-to-customer interactions. These scholars maintain that value co-creation taken place throughout customers' interactions is under-explored. Therefore, helping other customers is considered as a component of value co-creation in the current study. The concept means "customer behaviour aimed at assisting other customers" (Yi and Gong, 2013, p.1281).

Four items from Yi and Gong (2013) and two items from Verleye et al. (2013) were adapted for the current study to assess this concept. Assistance and delivery of advice to the other members have been the focus of this construct. An issue in the literature is that scholars have not paid attention to validate the measures of customer helping behaviours (Johnson and Rapp, 2010).

4.4.1.8 Sport Life Satisfaction

Reviewing of the relevant literature designates that there are two life satisfaction conceptual frameworks: multidimensional model and one-dimensional model. The multidimensional model indicates that life satisfaction can be assessed through reports from different life domains. In this research, sport life satisfaction perception is viewed as customers' satisfaction with one domain of their life, that is, their satisfaction with sport life. Moreover, Beard and Ragheb (1980, p.22) define leisure satisfaction as "the positive perceptions or feelings which an individual forms, elicits, or gains as a result of engaging in leisure activities and choices". In the

present study, this meaning is adopted and modified to define sport life satisfaction as well.

Therefore, sport life satisfaction means positive psychological perceptions related to sport life that a club member gains as a result of participation in value co-creation activities. Given the objectives of this study, it is important to note that psychological component of leisure satisfaction scale validated by Beard and Ragheb (1980) was adapted here to measure four items of sport satisfaction. In addition to these four measures, three measures from Hwang and Han (2014) and one measure from Neal et al. (2007) were also used for this part of the survey.

4.4.1.9 Overall Life Satisfaction

It is previously mentioned that there are two life satisfaction conceptual frameworks: multidimensional model and one-dimensional model. The one-dimensional model proposes that different levels of life satisfaction can be designated by a total score. Actually, overall life satisfaction means: “a conscious global judgment of one's life” (Diener, 1994, p.108). The most reputed scale to quantify individuals’ overall life satisfaction is Satisfaction with Life Scale (Bettingen and Luedicke, 2009). Therefore, in this research, life satisfaction is measured by Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin, 1985), derived from the one-dimensional global model. Many scholars have mentioned the validity and reliability of the scale in order to assess life satisfaction (e.g., Diener et al., 1999, Huppert, Marks, Clark, Siegrist, Stutzer, Vitterso and Wahrendorf, 2009, Spagnoli et al., 2012).

In this regard, Steel et al. (2008) specify Satisfaction with Life Scale as one the top three scales to assess life satisfaction. According to Bendayan et al. (2013), the scale as one of the most commonly administered life satisfaction surveys is clear, simple, and brief. These scholars contend that it is easy to apply it and that it has good psychometric properties measurement invariance across gender. Another advantage of the scale is that it is a useful measure to assess life satisfaction of people with a wide range of ages and groups (Pavot and Diener, 2008). Furthermore, two extra items from Sirgy, Kruger, Lee and Yu (2011) were also employed for this study to assess life satisfaction.

4.4.1.10 Loyalty

Customer loyalty is conceptualised in this study based on its definition by Gremler and Brown (1996, p.173): “the degree to which a customer exhibits repeat purchasing behaviour from a service provider, possesses a positive attitudinal disposition toward the provider, and considers using only this provider when a need for this service arises”. In addition to two measures suggested by Zeithaml et al. (1996), more measures from the other studies conducted by Akamavi et al. (2015), Bodet (2012), and Pritchard, Havitz and Howard (1999) were used to assess the level of loyalty of the club members. Original measures used in this study with their sources are presented in Appendix C.

Moreover, the following actions are necessary to maximise response rates, as well the validity and reliability of the survey: careful design of each question, clear layout, explanation of the research aims, and carefully administration of data collection

stage (Saunders et al., 2007). These instructions were dealt with prior to collecting the data. In addition, pre-testing and pilot-testing stages were completed to make sure that respondents would have no problems in answering the questions when conducting the main study. These stages are explained in the following sections.

4.4.2 Pre-testing Stage

Although the questionnaire measures were carefully selected and modified for the current study, they needed to be reviewed and commented by knowledgeable specialists. In this respect, Saunders et al. (2007) suggest that at first researchers should use an expert or a group of experts' comments regarding the representativeness and suitability of the survey questions. It helps to establish content validity of the survey (Johnson and Rapp, 2010) and make necessary amendments in questions. Content or face validity refers to the extent to which a survey's measures cover the investigative questions and the different aspects of the concept (De Vaus, 2002).

Saunders et al. (2007) designate two ways to evaluate content validity. One way is defining the research through the careful review of the literature and discussing it with others. Another way is to employ a panel of individuals to evaluate the survey. This view is regarded in this study to evaluate the content validity of the questionnaire. In this stage, important aspects of the questionnaire such as wording, form and layout, question content, sequence, instructions, and question difficulty should be regarded (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

To follow the mentioned guideline a feedback form (Appendix D), along with the research questionnaire, was created and sent to 20 informants from four groups: two marketing academics, two fitness club managers, four fitness club staff, and 12 PhD students to get feedback regarding the designed questionnaire. The form comprised a short introduction about the researcher and some survey-related questions such as sufficiency of time to fill out, layout, sequence of statements, any vague word or statement, suitability of statements to assess the research constructs, and clarity of how to fill out.

In addition, the informants were asked to write any other comment related to the questionnaire through an open-ended question. All feedback received within the pre-testing stage was considered in order to improve the questionnaire. For instance, needed time to complete the questionnaire and few words were changed as proposed by the informants. Another suggestion was offering a reward for the prospect respondents. Therefore, as a token of appreciation and to motivate the centre members to participate in the study a cash prize (£25) was intended for two participants who were selected by drawing. The intended prize was also announced in the cover letter. Thus, interested respondents were asked to write their email address or phone number at the end of the questionnaire.

According to Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2014), it is necessary to conduct a study on a small group of subjects who are similar to the main study respondents to make sure that the designed questionnaire is appropriate to collect data. After the

pre-testing stage and to follow the suggestion by Hair et al., the pilot-testing stage was also conducted as described in the next section.

4.4.3 Pilot-testing Stage

After pre-testing stage and dealing with the feedback obtained from the evaluators, it is argued that pilot study should be completed through collecting data from a group as similar as possible to the final population of the research (Saunders et al., 2007). Thus, this process was followed in order to make better the quality of collected data, especially through selecting the respondents who had similar characteristics of the final sample as much as possible. This stage is called pilot-testing. Pilot-testing means testing the questionnaire on a small group of research participants in order to improve the designed questionnaire. It helps to refine the questionnaire to prevent potential problems when respondents are going to answer the questionnaire in the main study stage. It is also fruitful for researchers who are going to analyse the data and evaluate the constructs' reliability.

Further, there are different factors influencing the number of respondents for pilot study. The factors consist of the research questions and objectives, the size of the research, how well questionnaire have initially been designed, and available time and money (Saunders et al., 2007). In this regard, while Malhotra and Birks (2007) propose 15 to 30 respondents as the appropriate sample size, Saunders et al. (2007) and Kolb (2008) suggest a minimum number of 10 participants. The sample size for the pilot study was 60 respondents who were the members of the fitness centres. All respondents were the members of a fitness centre in Hull in the UK. Moreover,

convenience sampling was used for this stage since it is mentioned that this type of sampling is appropriate for pilot studies (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Conducting the pilot-testing stage indicated that respondents were able to understand all the research statements. The stage also revealed that intended time was enough to complete the questionnaire. As such, according to Hair et al. (2014), researchers should delete factors that do not behave statistically as expected in the pilot-testing stage. Exploratory factor analysis showed that the researcher can apply all the questionnaire factors for the main study. Although five items of 58 items from different factors (Hel1, Hel2, Spo5, Tru7, and Loy5) had issues such as cross-loading, in general all constructs were reliable to use in the next stage of study. The results of pilot-testing analysis are presented in Table 4.1 to Table 4.3.

Table 4.1 Factor Loadings and Reliability for Value Co-creation Antecedents

Factors/ Variables*	Loadings	CITC**	α / (AIID) ***
Self-efficacy			.93
Eff1	.632	.776	.919
Eff2	.822	.884	.904
Eff3	.957	.858	.909
Eff4	.896	.801	.916
Eff5	.892	.726	.925
Eff6	.775	.731	.926
Role Clarity			.87
Rol1	.702	.544	.863
Rol2	.626	.736	.830
Rol3	.772	.749	.829
Rol4	.849	.682	.840
Rol5	.872	.694	.838
Rol6	.632	.579	.859
Trust			.93
Tru1	.860	.767	.922
Tru2	.952	.835	.913
Tru3	.824	.869	.911
Tru4	.789	.823	.916
Tru5	.898	.809	.919
Tru6	.743	.724	.928

* Eff=Efficacy, Rol=Role Clarity, Tru=Trust

** CITC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, *** AIID= Alpha if Item Deleted

Table 4.2 Factor Loadings and Reliability for Value Co-creation Dimensions

Factors/ Variables*	Loadings	CITC**	α / (AIID) ***
Compliance			.78
Com1	.641	.550	.748
Com2	.627	.526	.754
Com3	.713	.623	.738
Com4	.842	.726	.709
Com5	.545	.472	.768
Com6	.715	.379	.789
Advocacy			.89
Adv1	.732	.675	.882
Adv2	.870	.796	.866
Adv3	.740	.630	.886
Adv4	.920	.808	.856
Adv5	.837	.768	.863
Adv6	.761	.695	.878
Helping			.87
Hel3	.866	.706	.848
Hel4	.915	.772	.818
Hel5	.811	.698	.850
Hel6	.765	.747	.827

* Com=Compliance, Adv=Advocacy, Hel=Helping other Members

** CITC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, *** AIID= Alpha if Item Deleted

Table 4.3 Factor Loadings and Reliability for Value Co-creation Consequences

Factors/ Variables*	Loadings	CITC**	α / (AIID) ***
Sport Life Satisfaction			.89
Spo1	.543	.629	.879
Spo2	.694	.696	.870
Spo3	.733	.730	.868
Spo4	.621	.714	.870
Spo6	.795	.689	.871
Spo7	.872	.765	.861
Spo8	.890	.608	.882
Loyalty			.92
Loy1	.817	.814	.893
Loy2	.914	.748	.907
Loy3	.907	.838	.889
Loy4	.799	.805	.896
Loy6	.795	.741	.908
Life Satisfaction			.85
Lif1	.766	.638	.831
Lif2	.570	.502	.850
Lif3	.874	.750	.815
Lif4	.665	.587	.839
Lif5	.776	.593	.844
Lif6	.657	.632	.835
Lif7	.775	.693	.824

*Spo=Sport Life Satisfaction, Loy=Loyalty, Lif=Life Satisfaction

** CITC=Corrected Item-Total Correlation, *** AIID= Alpha if Item Deleted

Table 4.4 shows the last version of the designed questionnaire in order to collect data in the main study after conducting the pre-testing and pilot-testing stages. Furthermore, it should be noted that all the previously mentioned sources in order to design the research questionnaire were the main sources. In addition to those, there were more sources to support the measures, which presented in the following table as well.

Moreover, a cover letter was used with the designed questionnaire to make sure that the research respondents receive necessary information about the study. The letter introduced the researcher and his email. It also mentioned estimated time to complete the questionnaire and the study aims. Respondents were also assured through the letter that the data is confidential and anonymous.

Table 4.4 Research Statements and Relevant Sources

Factor/Measures	More Source(s)
Role Clarity	
I feel certain about how to effectively participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Dellande et al. (2004, p.89); Dong et al. (2008, p.134); van Beuningen et al. (2011, p.119); Verleye et al. (2013, p.77)
I feel certain about how much authority I have to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Dellande et al. (2004, p.89); Dong et al. (2008, p.134); Guo et al. (2013, p.556); Kohli and Jaworski (1994, p.92); Teas et al. (1979, p.368); van Beuningen et al. (2011, p.119); Yoo et al. (2012, p.1315);
I know what is expected of me if I participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Donnelly Jr and Ivancevich (1975, p.73); Teas et al. (1979, p.368)
I know what my responsibilities are to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Guo et al. (2013, p.556); Teas et al. (1979, p.368)
The club's information is clear about how to participate in the service delivery process.	van Beuningen et al. (2011, p.119)
I am aware of what is my role as a service recipient in the club.	Fonner and Timmerman (2009, p.252)
Self-efficacy	
I have confidence in my ability to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	van Beuningen et al. (2009, p.424); van Beuningen et al. (2011, p.119); Dabholkar and Bagozzi (2002, p.199); Riggs and Knight (1994, p.766); Watson, Chemers and Preiser (2001, p.1060)
I have excellent skills and ability to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Riggs and Knight (1994, p.766); Watson et al. (2001, p.1060)
I am proud of my skills and ability to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	

Table 4.4 Continued

Factor/Measures	More Source(s)
I do not doubt my ability to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Riggs and Knight (1994, p.766)
I think my performance in participation in the service delivery process in the club is optimal.	van Beuningen et al. (2009, p.424)
My past experiences increase my confidence to participate in the service delivery process in the club.	Jones (1986, p.279)
Compliance	
I perform all required tasks in the club.	Guo et al. (2013, p.556); Verleye et al. (2013, p.75)
I adequately complete all the expected behaviours in the club.	Verleye et al. (2013, p.75)
I fulfil my responsibilities in the club.	
I follow the club employees' instructions.	Gallan et al. (2013, p.353); Guo et al. (2013, p.556); Lin and Hsieh (2011, p.616)
I help the club's employees with those actions that are required.	Verleye, Gemmel and Rangarajan (2014, p.75)
I always accept advice from the club's employees.	Lin and Hsieh (2011, p.616)
Advocacy	
I say positive things about the club to other people.	Carreira, Patricio, Jorge and Magee (2014 p.45); Karjaluoto, Jayawardhena, Leppaniemi and Pihlstrom (2012, p.647); Pont and McQuilken (2005, p.349); So, King, Sparks and Wang (2013 p.35)
I recommend the club to someone who seeks my advice.	Baqer (2006, p.70); Bodet (2008, p.159); Bodet (2012, p.36); Eisingerich et al. (2014, p.45); Kim (2008, p.118); Mols (1998, p.198); So et al. (2013 p.35); Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281)

Table 4.4 Continued

Factor/Measures	More Source(s)
I encourage friends and relatives to do business with the club.	Bettencourt (1997, p.395); Jain et al. (2012, p.1010); So et al. (2013 p.35)
I defend the club against critics, even if its services are not satisfying.	Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor (2000, p.742); Neale and Funk (2006, p.317)
I defend the club when someone says something negative about it.	Walz and Celuch (2010, p.102)
I would not cancel my membership, even if my friends recommend me another sport club.	Biscaia et al. (2013, p.293)
Helping other Members	
I assist the club's customers if they need my help.	Groth (2005, p. 15); Yen, Hsu and Huang (2011, p.119)
I help the club's customers if they seem to have problems.	Verleye et al. (2013, p.77); Yen et al. (2011, p.119)
I teach the club's customers how to correctly use the club's facilities.	Groth (2005, p. 15); Yen et al. (2011, p.119)
I give advice to the club's customers when needed.	Yi and Gong (2013, p.1281)
I assist the club's customers in finding the facilities.	
I explain to the club's customers which services are provided by the club.	
Sport Life Satisfaction	
The club satisfies my overall sport needs.	El Hedhli et al. (2013, p.860); Grzeskowiak and Sirgy (2007, p.301);
The club plays an important role in enhancing the quality of my sport life.	Hwang and Hyun (2012, p.669); Kim et al. (2012, p.414)

Table 4.4 Continued

Factor/Measures	More Source(s)
I am generally happy with the quality of my leisure time in the club.	Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (2004, p.255)
My sport activities in the club are very interesting to me.	Agyar (2014 p.5); Berg, Trost, Schneider and Allison (2001, p.40); Broughton and Beggs (2007 p.7); Lysyk, Brown, Rodrigues, McNally and Loo (2002, p.89); Spiers and Walker (2009 p.92)
My sport activities in the club give me self-confidence.	
My sport activities in the club give me a sense of accomplishment.	
I use many different skills and abilities in my sport activities in the club.	
Trust	
I can count on the club.	Bansal, Irving and Taylor (2004, p.241); Dant, Weaven and Baker (2013, p.301); Kim (2008, p.110); Moliner et al. (2007, p.1404); Morgan and Hunt (1994, p.35); Rafiq et al. (2013, p.516); Roberts et al. (2003, p.186)
I can trust the club.	Bansal et al. (2004, p.241); De Canniere, De Pelsmacker and Geuens (2010, p.92); Lewis and Soureli (2006, p.23)
The club is reliable.	Akamavi et al. (2015, p.537); Bansal et al. (2004, p.241); De Canniere et al. (2010, p.92); Karjaluoto et al. (2012, p.647); Kim (2008, p.110); Kim and Cha (2002, p.326); Ndubisi (2007, p.837); Rafiq et al. (2013, p.516)
The club is honest.	Bansal et al. (2004, p.241); Dant et al. (2013, p.301); Kim and Cha (2002, p.326); Miyamoto and Rexha (2004, p.318); Ndubisi (2007, p.837); Vesel and Zabkar (2010, p.1364)
The club have always kept its promises.	Abosag and Naude (2014, p.893); Bansal et al. (2004, p.241); Nguyen et al. (2013, p.102); Roberts et al. (2003, p.186)
The club is concerned about my well-being.	Dant et al. (2013, p.301); Karjaluoto et al. (2012, p.647)
Most of the club says about its services is true.	Akamavi et al. (2015, p.537)

Table 4.4 Continued

Factor/Measures	More Source(s)
Life Satisfaction	
In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	Cockrill (2012, p.409); Compton, Smith, Cornish and Qualls (1996, p.408); Diener and Fujita (1995, p.929); Forest et al. (2012, p.1240); Hart (1999, p.570); Lung Hung et al. (2012, p.255); Schimmack, Radhakrishnan, Oishi, Dzokoto and Ahadi (2002, p.852); Sindik and Rendulić (2012, p.55); Spagnoli et al. (2012, p.139); Swami, Stieger, Voracek, Dressler, Eisma and Furnham (2009, p.396); Thogersen-Ntoumani, Fox and Ntoumanis (2005, p.614)
The conditions of my life are excellent.	
I am satisfied with my life.	
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	
Although I have my ups and downs, in general, I feel good about my life.	Dolnicar, Lazarevski and Yanamandram (2013, p.727); Neal et al. (1999, p.163); Neal et al. (2004, p.255); Neal et al. (2007, p.158)
I lead a meaningful and fulfilling life.	
Loyalty	
I consider the club as my first choice to have a membership in a sport club.	Abosag and Farah (2014, p.2275); Akamavi et al. (2015, p.537); Bodet (2008, p.159); Bodet (2012, p.36); Bove and Mitzzifiris (2007, p.511); Carreira et al. (2014 p.45); Da Silva and Syed Alwi (2008, p.129); Gummerus et al. (2012, p.876); Jain et al. (2012, p.1010); Karjaluoto et al. (2012, p.647); Lam et al. (2004, p.309); Pont and McQuilken (2005, p.349); Rafiq et al. (2013, p.516); Roggeveen et al. (2012, p.789); Schmitt, Zarantonello and Brakus (2009, p.64); So et al. (2013 p.35); Zeithaml et al. (1996, p.38)
I will do more business with the club in the future.	Akamavi et al. (2015, p.537); Carreira et al. (2014 p.45); So et al. (2013 p.35)

Table 4.4 Continued

Factor/Measures	More Source(s)
I probably will renew my membership.	Auh et al. (2007, p.363); Bodet (2008, p.159); Eisingerich and Bell (2006, p.92)
I consider myself as loyal to the club.	Akamavi et al. (2015, p.537); Leverin and Liljander (2006, p.241)
I consider myself as a regular customer of the club.	Demoulin and Zidda (2009, p.397)
I prefer to be a member of the club as opposed to competitors.	Karjaluoto et al. (2012, p.647); Lewis and Soureli (2006, p.23); Martos-Partal and Gonzalez-Benito (2013, p.355); Yim, Tse and Chan (2008, p.754); Harris and Goode (2004, p.154)

4.4.4 Main Study Stage

In this section, the methods applied to collect the data and their rationales are presented. This section also explains the research population and sample, sample size and sampling method, and procedures in order to collect the data.

4.4.4.1 Research Population and Sample

In consistent with Malthouse and Calder (2011), Gummerus et al. (2012) contend that customer engagement can be understood through customer experience. Therefore, it was assumed that the best target population for the present study is the customers of the sport clubs. A population includes all the elements who have some common set of characteristics (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). According to Bryman (2012), population is the universe of units that a researcher chooses the sample from it. The term unit means that sampling can be done from a universe of cities, firms, regions, and so forth. Target population of this research was the members of the fitness centres. The sampling frame of the research, which represents the elements of the target population, was the customers of the fitness centres (both male and female groups) who had at least one month membership at the centres.

Moreover, the following reasons underpin the selection of fitness centres for this research. First, Bitner, Faranda, Hubbert and Zeithaml (1997) underscore the importance of customer participation in service delivery in the services such as healthcare, personal fitness, and weight loss. Similarly, Buettgen, Schumann and Ates (2012) argue that sport activities such as health-related strength training need

a high level of customer coproduction. One reason for highly participative environment is that customers need to provide information about their physical condition and comply with the training programmes. Another reason is that participation in the fitness clubs needs to follow all instructions advised by the staff to prevent any hazardous consequences for customers themselves as well as for the other customers.

Second, it is noted in Chapter 1 that an issue related to the sport clubs is customer defection. Therefore, identifying factors that improve customer loyalty, as well customer satisfaction and advocacy, in the fitness centres is necessary. Third, fitness centres are chosen because many interactions and information exchanges occur between the customers and the staff, as well as between the customers themselves. It is consistent with the definition of value co-creation in this research where the emphasis is on direct and high interactions between the actors. Last but not least, in spite of the importance of the context, reviewing of the literature indicates that a few studies are conducted regarding the contribution of sport clubs' members in the service delivery processes and its determinants and outcomes (see Appendix A).

Additionally, data was collected only in the fitness clubs since "the choice of a single industry for sampling purposes is less problematic than sampling firms from diverse industries (Polo Pena et al., 2014, p.1048). Furthermore, application of many types of sport participation services to test a conceptual model may result in much variance and affect the results negatively (Bodet, 2012). Fitness industry has been

focused by other researchers such as Ferrand et al. (2010), Pedragosa and Correia (2009), de Barros and Gonçalves (2009), Iwasaki and Havitz (2004), and Park (1996).

4.4.4.2 Sample Size

Sample size means the number of elements participated in a study. It is an important issue for researchers to properly decide how many respondents are needed for their studies. Different factors such as the number of variables, the nature of the research and analysis, the importance of the decision, completion rates, sample sizes used in similar studies, and resource limitations influence sample size (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In this respect, Yuksel, Yuksel and Bilim (2010) also draw attention to this point that structural equation modelling is sensitive to sample size and suggest the minimum sample size of 200 respondents.

Similarly, Malhotra and Birks (2007) propose minimum size of 200 participants and typical range of 300 to 500 respondents as the appropriate sample size in the marketing studies. Further, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest at least 300 cases with low communalities. Ho (2006) and Hair et al. (2014) also argue that sample size should be at least five times more than the number of research indicators (58 items in this research). Given these guidelines, the number of respondents (sample size) intended for this research was 346 fitness centre members. This number is consistent with other relatively similar studies conducted by Verleye et al. (2013) and Guo et al. (2013) that include 301 and 364 respondents, respectively.

4.4.4.3 Sampling Technique

There are two groups of sampling techniques: probability or representative sampling and non-probability or judgemental sampling. While in the probability sampling sample elements are selected by chance, in the non-probability sampling selection of the elements relies on the researcher's personal judgement (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Scholars have specified different sampling techniques related to each mentioned group. For example, Shukla (2008) points out that the probability technique includes simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling.

On the other hand, the non-probability technique encompasses convenience sampling, purposive (judgement) sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling. As stated by Saunders et al. (2007), researchers need to use the non-probability sampling techniques when they are not able to construct a sampling frame for their studies. This limitation has also influenced the current research. Because of the limitation, convenience sampling was used to collect the data due to a lack of access to any database of members in the fitness clubs. This method is used by other researchers in marketing studies as well (e.g., Pollack, 2009, Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012, Yuksel et al., 2010). To be selected for the current study respondents must have at least one month membership at the club. At least one month membership was the criterion to make sure that the members had some interaction experiences with the club staff and the other members. Attending the clubs, meeting the respondents face-to-face, and explaining the criteria for participation in the study was helpful to decrease sampling bias. In addition, it is

mentioned above that convenience sampling was used to select respondents due to a lack of access to any database. Despite this restriction, the researcher carefully selected the respondents to reduce sampling errors, such as:

- Selecting the maximum number of respondents, given the available time and resources.
- Attending at the fitness clubs at different times of the day and selecting respondents randomly (taken at intervals) when entering the clubs over a period of time.
- Choosing respondents from different clubs, especially the most popular ones, in a wide area.

4.4.4.4 Data Collection Method

At first, a letter (Appendix E), along with a copy of the University Research Ethics Committee Approval (Appendix F) and the designed questionnaire (Appendix G), was sent to the managers of fitness centres to get permission for collecting data. The letter introduced research aims, the researcher and his supervisor, and their emails. Some of the managers arranged meetings to get more information regarding the researchers and the research. Data was collected by the designed questionnaire after providing needed information to the managers and getting permission. Furthermore, it is mentioned that the researcher's attempt for having access to the members' database in the fitness clubs in order to randomly selection of the sample was in vain. Therefore, data was collected by referring to the fitness centres and

inviting the members to contribute to the research. For this stage of the study, four fitness centres located in different parts of Hull in the UK were selected.

Saunders et al. (2007) specify two types of questionnaires: interviewer-administered questionnaire and self-administered questionnaire. The interviewer-administered questionnaire includes telephone questionnaire and structured interviews. On the other hand, the self-administered questionnaire comprises Internet-mediated, postal, and delivery and collection questionnaire. In the current study, delivery and collection method was employed. The members of the fitness centres were contacted in the centres and invited to complete the study questionnaire. Thus, the members received the questionnaire and most of them answered it in the centres. Before submitting the questionnaire to the respondents, it was mentioned that they must have at least one month membership at the centres.

4.5 Ethical Considerations

This study has employed human participants. Hence, consideration of ethical issues was very important. It is suggested that researchers should make sure that all individuals participating in the research are free from harm. For instance, van Deventer (2009) maintains that participants should be free from any physical, emotional and psychological harm, and that their right to privacy should be insured. The scholar also claims that if a participant feels any encroachment into his/her private life during the data collection, he/she can withdraw participation in the study.

Likewise, it is emphasised by Brewis and Wray-Bliss (2008) that researchers should guarantee confidentiality and anonymity of data, and a lack of pressure on the respondents as ethical considerations during the research processes. Saunders et al. (2007) also specify some general ethical issues in different stages of research such as voluntary nature of participation and consent, embarrassment and stress, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity, harm, discomfort, and quality of research.

Further, Baarts (2009) assert that researcher's scientific knowledge on the topic and his/her perception of the role of the topic in society are significant research ethics. Commitment to the research is also important (Liberman, 1999). In the current study, these ethical issues have been considered in different stages.

CHAPTER 5 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explains data analysis methods and findings of the study. At first, it describes data preparation procedure which includes identification of missing data, outliers, and normality. Next, it presents sample profile and the results of factor analysis consisting of exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Lastly, this chapter ends with reporting the relationships among the research factors through a structural model.

5.2 Data Preparation

Data imputed into SPSS was analysed to ensure the accuracy of the result. To do so, missing data, outliers, distribution of variables, linearity, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and non-response bias were examined. This section presents more details regarding the data preparation.

5.2.1 Missing Data

Missing data refers to a part of information about the phenomena which is not available for analysis. Dealing with the missing data is important because it not only hinders the researchers' ability to understand and explain the phenomena they explore but also affects generalisability and statistical inference (McKnight, McKnight, Sidani and Figueredo, 2007). There are different reasons for the missing data. For example, a respondent might be not eager to answer a question, do have no any opinion, or have missed a question by mistake (Saunders et al., 2007). Guidelines suggested by Hair et al. (2014) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) were used to deal with cases and variables that had the missing data.

The initial analysis indicated that maximum missing data related to the study variables was 1.2%. However, three respondents had the missing data more than 10%. Hair et al. (2014) argue that the missing data can be ignored if it is under 10% for an individual observation (variable) or a case (respondent). As a result, the three respondents who had the missing data more than 10% were deleted from the data set. Another data analysis was run using the remaining participants (n=343). It was concluded that maximum missing data related to the variables was 1.2% and pertained to the cases was 5%.

Further, there are two approaches to analyse the data that is incomplete: use of only the valid data or replacement of values for the missing data. The later approach was selected through imputing data since complete data was needed in order to use AMOS. In the imputation process, missing values are estimated based on the valid values of other variables and/or cases in the sample. To impute the missing data, one option is application of known replacement values methods, so-called implicit modelling methods. It includes methods such as cold deck imputation, hot deck imputation, substitution, case substitution, and composite methods. Another option is calculation of replacement values, so-called explicit modelling methods. It consists of methods such as mean substitution and regression imputation (Little and Rubin, 2002). Although mean substitution method is widely used by researchers (e.g., Antaramian et al., 2008, Bove and Mitzzifiris, 2007, Brown, Barry, Dacin and Gunst, 2005, Lewis et al., 2011), it has several disadvantages.

For instance, Hair et al. (2014) specify weaknesses such as understated variances, distorted actual distribution of values, and depressed observed correlation as the

disadvantages of mean substitution method. Hair and colleagues also suggest application of regression imputation method if there are relationships between the factors. The preliminary analysis of the data with the missing ones illustrated moderate correlations among the research constructs. Hence, regression imputation method (Byrne, 2010) was used by AMOS in order to replace the missing data. The shape of the distribution and the deviation from the mean are preserved by using the regression imputation method (Johnson and Rapp, 2010). All subsequent analysis processes were based on the complete data.

5.2.2 Outliers

An outlier is an observation with extreme value on one variable, or two or more variables that may distort statistics (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In fact, outliers are distinctly different from the other observations (Stevens, 2009). Excluding outliers is important since they cause Type I and Type II errors and a lack of generalisability of the research findings (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In this study, at first the data entered in SPSS was checked by viewing the figures to avoid any possible error when entering the data. However, no any error was found. Then, possible outliers were explored by two methods: boxplots and 5% Trimmed Mean (Pallant, 2005). Boxplots help to check the distribution of the scores of the research variables. Application of the method indicated that there was no issue related to possible outliers.

In addition, mean and 5% Trimmed Mean were used to make sure that the data is clean from outliers. To do so, the gap differences between mean and 5% trimmed mean in descriptive analysis were compared. According to Pallant (2005), outliers are

not a threat if the differences between the original mean and 5% trimmed mean are small. As shown in Table 5.1 to Table 5.9, the two means were very similar and all estimated differences were small. As a result, all of the variables were retained for the next stage of the data analysis.

Table 5.1 Outlier and Normality of Self-efficacy

Statistics	Eff1	Eff2	Eff3	Eff4	Eff5	Eff6	Composite
Mean	3.89	3.71	3.70	3.73	3.63	3.76	3.72
5% Trimmed Mean	3.95	3.73	3.73	3.76	3.67	3.81	3.73
Skewness	-.57	-.30	-.14	-.43	-.34	-.51	-.18
Kurtosis	.27	-.32	-.65	-.10	.24	-.02	-.26

Table 5.2 Outlier and Normality of Role Clarity

Statistics	Rol1	Rol2	Rol3	Rol4	Rol5	Rol6	Composite
Mean	3.74	3.60	3.78	3.83	3.77	3.83	3.74
5% Trimmed Mean	3.77	3.62	3.82	3.87	3.81	3.88	3.76
Skewness	-.34	-.27	-.52	-.62	-.55	-.62	-.34
Kurtosis	.20	-.18	.43	.66	.10	.37	.34

Table 5.3 Outlier and Normality of Trust

Statistics	Tru1	Tru2	Tru3	Tru4	Tru5	Tru6	Tru7	Composite
Mean	3.79	3.88	3.99	3.93	3.77	3.60	3.94	3.89
5% Trimmed Mean	3.82	3.89	4.00	3.95	3.80	3.62	3.97	3.90
Skewness	-.50	-.34	-.17	-.25	-.24	-.08	-.50	-.005
Kurtosis	.79	.33	-.20	-.31	-.11	-.41	.45	-.33

Table 5.4 Outlier and Normality of Compliance

Statistics	Com1	Com2	Com3	Com4	Com5	Com6	Composite
Mean	3.85	4.19	4.18	4.36	3.86	4.10	4.07
5% Trimmed Mean	3.91	4.27	4.22	4.45	3.92	4.18	4.11
Skewness	-.75	-1.20	-.81	-1.54	-.45	-1.05	-.73
Kurtosis	.64	2.05	1.06	2.99	-.04	.87	1.18

Table 5.5 Outlier and Normality of Advocacy

Statistics	Adv1	Adv2	Adv3	Adv4	Adv5	Adv6	Composite
Mean	4.07	4.02	3.76	3.27	3.47	3.58	4.04
5% Trimmed Mean	4.12	4.06	3.82	3.29	3.49	3.63	4.09
Skewness	-.69	-.62	-.53	-.14	-.25	-.39	-.69
Kurtosis	.58	.39	.01	-.26	-.18	-.48	.95

Table 5.6 Outlier and Normality of Helping other Members

Statistics	Hel1	Hel2	Hel3	Hel4	Hel5	Hel6	Composite
Mean	3.90	3.91	3.27	3.51	3.80	3.40	3.66
5% Trimmed Mean	3.95	3.96	3.28	3.54	3.84	3.42	3.68
Skewness	-.82	-.62	-.12	-.44	-.71	-.21	-.44
Kurtosis	1.11	.46	-.54	-.38	.41	-.47	.58

Table 5.7 Outlier and Normality of Sport Life Satisfaction

Statistics	Spo1	Spo2	Spo3	Spo4	Spo5	Spo6	Spo7	Spo8	Composite
Mean	3.94	4.17	4.20	4.16	4.05	4.11	4.18	3.90	4.13
5% Trimmed Mean	4.00	4.22	4.25	4.20	4.10	4.15	4.21	3.95	4.15
Skewness	-.74	-.60	-.82	-.70	-.68	-.65	-.66	-.62	-.37
Kurtosis	.35	.03	.97	1.10	.66	.56	.72	.06	.21

Table 5.8 Outlier and Normality of Loyalty

Statistics	Loy1	Loy2	Loy3	Loy4	Loy5	Loy6	Composite
Mean	3.84	3.87	3.89	3.94	4.16	3.78	3.86
5% Trimmed Mean	3.90	3.92	3.97	4.00	4.19	3.85	3.90
Skewness	-.75	-.60	-.92	-.86	-.62	-.73	-.71
Kurtosis	.53	.19	.66	1.33	.56	.68	1.18

Table 5.9 Outlier and Normality of Life Satisfaction

Statistics	Lif1	Lif2	Lif3	Lif4	Lif5	Lif6	Lif7	Composite
Mean	3.55	3.65	3.88	3.60	3.27	3.95	3.92	3.84
5% Trimmed Mean	3.58	3.69	3.94	3.64	3.29	4.00	3.98	3.88
Skewness	-.36	-.49	-.82	-.60	-.36	-.80	-.77	-.85
Kurtosis	-.08	.23	.56	.14	-.80	.94	.78	1.11

5.2.3 Normality

One essential requirement for application of structural equation modelling is normality of the data. Normality refers to the normal distribution of each variable and all linear combinations of the variables. Hair et al. (2014) underscore the normal distribution of data in multivariate analysis because without normality results are invalid. But, these scholars declare that a concern about non-normal variables decreases when sample size is large. Further, there are different methods such as Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests as well as evaluation of skewness and kurtosis of distribution to assess the normality (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013).

It is contended that Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests are not appropriate for large sample. The reason is that they are powerful tests and show significant values of non-normality when the sample size is large (Meyers et al., 2013, Pallant,

2005). As a result, skewness and kurtosis measures were assessed by IBM SPSS (version 22) to determine the normality of distribution in the current study. While skewness illustrates the degree of asymmetry of scores distribution, kurtosis demonstrates that distribution is compressed or flattened. Both of the measures can be positive or negative. Data analysis indicated that skewness and kurtosis measures were less than +3 and more than -3 (Table 5.1 to Table 5.9). It refers to the normality of sample distribution (Byrne, 2010, Dong et al., 2008, Kline, 2011).

5.2.4 Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Multicollinearity

Another assumption of structural equation modelling is linearity as this type of analysis cannot presents nonlinear effects in the correlation value (Hair et al., 2014). Linearity means that there is a linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2005). Application of residual plots illustrated that linearity was not a concern in the current study. The plots demonstrated that there are straight-line associations between the dependent variable scores and the independent ones.

Further, homoscedasticity refers to “the assumption that dependent variable(s) exhibit equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variable(s)” (Hair et al., 2014, p.72). In fact, homoscedasticity is accepted if wide range of the independent values explain the dependent variable’s variance. Inspection of the graph of residual scatter plots indicated that the dots tended to be equally distributed around the horizontal line of zero. It means that the assumption of homoscedasticity was supported.

In addition, Hair et al. (2014) emphasise a lack of multicollinearity among the predictor factors. This issue exists when data analysis indicates that two or more predictors are highly correlated in a model (Field, 2009). Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) are two values to assess multicollinearity. To have a model without multicollinearity tolerance should be more than 0.1 and VIF should be less than 10 (Pallant, 2005). Performing standard multiple regression revealed that tolerance ranged between .490 and .908 and VIF varied between 1.102 and 2.042. Therefore, there was no concern regarding collinearity among the independent factors.

In addition to evaluating the mentioned assumptions above, Durbin–Watson test also performed in order to assess serial correlations between errors in regression models. The test gives values between 0 and 4, where a value of 2 refers to a lack of correlation between the residuals. There would be a concern if the value is less than 1 or greater than 3 (Field, 2009). Running the test showed that this assumption was supported as well.

5.2.5 Non-response Bias

Non-response bias is an important issue in researches. This type of bias relates to whether respondents and non-respondents of research survey differ substantially in terms of their responses (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Saunders et al. (2007) specify different reasons for non-response issue. For instance, a person may refuse to respond the survey or not eligible to respond. In addition, researcher sometimes cannot locate the respondent, or if a respondent is located the researcher is not able to contact the respondent. Consistent with a suggestion by Burkell (2003), the

author of the current thesis tried to attract the research participants' trust, reduce the social costs of participation in the study, and offer the reward to the participants to minimise the non-response bias. All of the mentioned solutions above were considered and clarified in the cover letter of the research questionnaire. Additionally, other action was making sure that there were minimum ambiguous words, statements, and instructions in the questionnaire through undertaking the pre-testing stage of the study.

Moreover, there are different methods to estimate the non-response bias such as comparison with known values for a population, subjective estimates, and extrapolation methods (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). One of the most commonly used methods to determine the non-response bias is comparing early and late respondents by an independent t-test to assess mean differences. In consistent with Joshi and Sharma (2004) and Berghman, Matthyssens and Vandenbempt (2006), the data obtained from the first one-third of respondents as the early group (n=115) was compared with the last one-third group as the late respondents (n=115) to assess the bias. Findings of independent t-test revealed a lack of difference between the groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that the non-response bias is not a threat in the current study.

5.3 Sample Profile

After entering the data into SPSS software and preparing it for analysis, descriptive analysis was run as the first stage of statistical analysis. In the descriptive analysis stage, the data is summarised and presented. As mentioned by Kolb (2008), this type of analysis helps researchers to find out the patterns of the collected data. This part

of the thesis explains the descriptive statistics of research participants. The statistical values of respondents' background are shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Profile of Survey Respondents

Demographic Aspect	Variable	Useable Cases	Response Rate (%)
Gender	Male	215	62.7
	Female	127	37.0
Age	18-22 years	160	46.9
	23-27 years	93	27.3
	28-35 years	47	13.8
	> 35 years	41	12.0
Membership lenght	1-6 month(s)	171	49.9
	7-11 months	31	9.0
	One-one and half year	58	16.9
	> One and half year	81	23.6
Participation frequency (per week)	Once	17	5
	Twice	72	21
	Three times	120	35
	Four times or above	126	36.7

Table 5.10 demonstrates that most of the respondents were male (62.7%). The reason for this is that the male members of the fitness centres were more than the female group. It is also presented that the majority of the respondents (74.2%) aged between 18 and 27 years. As well, the table illustrates that although half of the participants had one to six months membership, 71.7% (35+36.7%) of them participate in the clubs three or more times a week.

Importantly, it should be noted that data analysis by independent t-test and ANOVA showed that only few variables had significant mean differences when comparing different groups based on gender, age, and relationship length. In addition,

wherever these differences were found significant, calculating effect sizes revealed that Eta squared was small (Pallant, 2005). Outputs of t-test demonstrated that there was no any significant difference between the male and female groups, excluding for advocacy ($p < .05$). However, eta squared was .015, which means small amount of the eta (Pallant, 2005).

Moreover, ANOVA demonstrated that there was no significant difference among different age groups, except for compliance ($p < .05$). Similarly, eta squared was .029, which is small. With regard to the four groups with different relationship length, ANOVA showed significant difference only for role clarity, compliance, and loyalty. Again, eta squared (.029, .033, .039 respectively) indicated that there is no any issue in these cases as they are small amount. Given these results, this study has tested the hypotheses among whole sample, rather than among the different groups.

5.4 Factor Analysis

This study has used 58 variables to estimate the research constructs. Factor analysis was used to specify the research factors and their relations. Factor analysis can be divided into two main types: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was run in order to identify the underlying structure among the variables. This type of analysis helps to find out the interrelationships among a large number of variables through identification of sets of highly correlated variables (Hair et al., 2014). Actually, exploratory factor analysis gives a few representatives factors drawn on a large number of intercorrelated measures (Ho, 2006). As such, confirmatory factor analysis was run to test a theory

regarding latent processes (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Next sections explain different phases of factor analyses and their results.

5.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

5.4.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Value Co-creation Antecedents

After data collection in the main study factor analysis by IBM SPSS version 22 was run to find the underlying structure among the predictor variables. To do so, Principal Components factor analysis with Oblique (Promax) rotation was used, as suggested by Chen, Mak and Li (2013). Principal Components factor analysis was used because the aim of the analysis was the reduction of data to minimum number of factors (Hair et al., 2014, Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In addition, Promax rotation was employed because it was expected that the intended factors are correlated (Hair et al., 2014, Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

Additionally, two main criteria were considered to retain the variables: communalities and factor loadings. Communality refers to the sum of squared loadings (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Further, communality is the variance of a variable shared with the other variables that represent the same factor and should be more than 0.5 to retain the variable (Hair et al., 2014). Factor loading is the relationship between a variable and the related factor and should be ± 0.5 to be considered significant (Hair et al., 2014). The initial factor analysis indicated that one of the variables related to role clarity had low communality. Therefore, the variable was excluded and factor analysis was run again.

Table 5.11 depicts that then all of the variables of the study met the mentioned criteria about communality and factor loading. It also demonstrates that all of the three constructs had high reliability. Reliability is an indicator of a measure's internal consistency and means different attempts of measuring result in the same result (Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin, 2012). In fact, a reliable measurement gives the same results if the researcher repeats the measurements (De Vaus, 2002, Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In fact, reliability refers to the consistency of the findings within the data analysis procedures (Saunders et al., 2007).

Table 5.11 Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Reliabilities for Value Co-creation Antecedents

Factor	Variable*	Loading	Communality	Reliability (α)
Self-efficacy	Eff1	.590	.601	.892
	Eff2	.882	.752	
	Eff3	.904	.745	
	Eff4	.896	.727	
	Eff5	.673	.563	
	Eff6	.704	.590	
Role Clarity	Rol1	.798	.628	.882
	Rol2	.828	.742	
	Rol3	.834	.723	
	Rol4	.828	.710	
	Rol5	.775	.589	
Trust	Tru1	.736	.638	.905
	Tru2	.835	.733	
	Tru3	.841	.752	
	Tru4	.898	.744	
	Tru5	.854	.684	
	Tru6	.741	.510	
	Tru7	.681	.534	

*Eff=Efficacy, Rol=Role Clarity, Tru=Trust

As well, according to Field (2009), the Kaiser-Myer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Field 2003) are two important measures about appropriateness of factor analysis. As shown in Table 5.12, the value of KMO measure was equal to .905, with significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p=.000$). The result confirmed intercorrelations among the variables (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 5.12 KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Value Co-creation Antecedents

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.905
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3922.423
	df	153
	Sig.	.000

Lastly, three criteria were used to determine the number of factors for extraction. The criteria were eigenvalue, percentage of variance, and scree test (Hair et al., 2014). It is illustrated in Table 5.13 that the three extracted factors had eigenvalue more than 1 and the percentage of variance for the three factors was 66.469%. The inspection of the scree plot (Figure 5.1) also supported the mentioned criteria.

Table 5.13 Total Variance Explained for Value Co-creation Antecedents

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7.457	41.426	41.426	7.457	41.426	41.426	5.488
2	3.121	17.338	58.764	3.121	17.338	58.764	5.506
3	1.387	7.705	66.469	1.387	7.705	66.469	5.732
4	.755	4.192	70.661				
5	.639	3.552	74.213				
6	.587	3.262	77.474				
7	.551	3.062	80.537				
8	.493	2.736	83.273				
9	.479	2.663	85.936				
10	.425	2.359	88.295				
11	.379	2.108	90.403				
12	.366	2.031	92.434				
13	.301	1.671	94.105				
14	.270	1.502	95.607				
15	.232	1.290	96.898				
16	.212	1.176	98.074				
17	.197	1.092	99.166				
18	.150	.834	100.000				

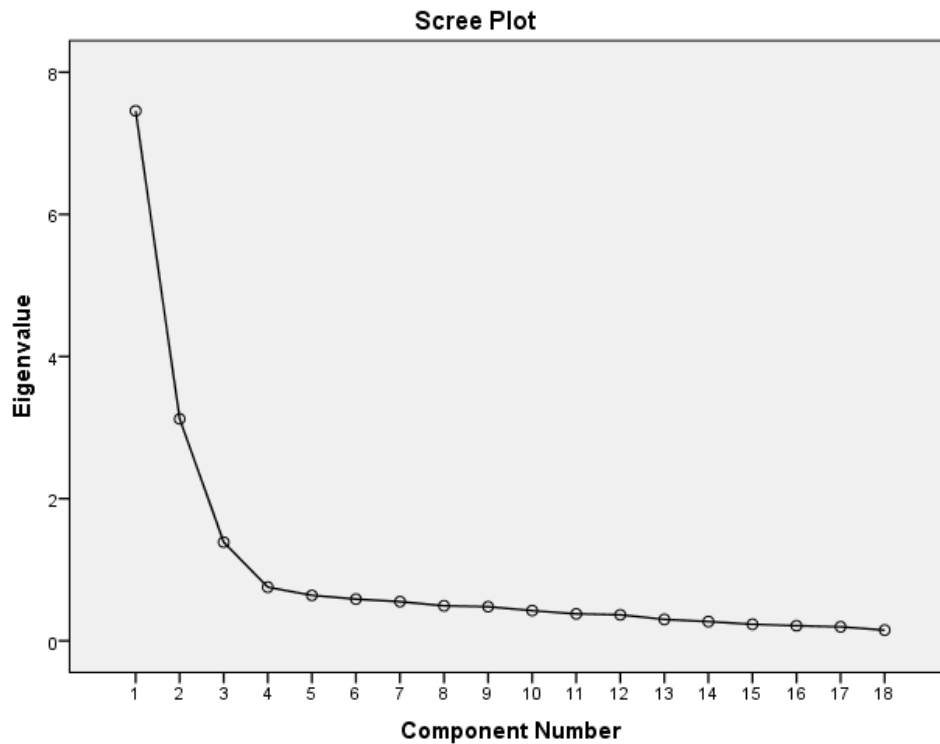


Figure 5.1 Scree Plot for Value Co-creation Antecedents

5.4.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Value Co-creation Dimensions

As mentioned previously, 18 research statements were borrowed and modified from the relevant literature to estimate the three dimensions of value co-creation. These dimensions were compliance, advocacy, and helping other members. Dimensionality of each factor was determined by factor analysis. Factor analysis was run due to a lack of pre-existing scales related to customer value co-creation in the context of fitness clubs. Another reason was that value co-creation in the current study was supposed to have different dimensions. Therefore, factor analysis could help to specify the dimensions.

Again, Principal Components factor analysis was used because the aim of the analysis was the reduction of the data to minimum number of factors (Hair et al.,

2014, Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). It was consistent with other studies conducted by Ennew and Binks (1999), Gustafsson et al. (2012), Ennew and Binks (1999) Johnson and Rapp (2010), and Yi and Gong (2013). In addition, Promax rotation was employed because it was supposed that the value co-creation dimensions might be correlated (Hair et al., 2014, Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). This method was also in line with other researches' strategy such as Verleye et al. (2013) and Guo et al. (2013).

Running the preliminary factor analysis for individual constructs confirmed unidimensionality of two constructs: advocacy and helping other members. However, compliance divided into two sub-dimensions. Conducting reliability test revealed that one of the compliance sub-dimensions was not reliable. Therefore, it was excluded from the next factor analysis process. Then, all of the remaining variables related to the three dimensions of value co-creation were factor analysed together. Findings indicated that one variable related to advocacy had low communality. Consequently, it was deleted from the analysis. The result of rerunning the last factor analysis is demonstrated in Table 5.14. The table shows that loadings and communalities of the remaining variables were acceptable. It also demonstrates that the dimensions of value co-creation were highly reliable.

Table 5.14 Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Reliabilities for Value Co-creation Dimensions

Factor	Variable*	Loading	Communality	Reliability (α)
Compliance	Com1	.822	.683	.759
	Com2	.829	.703	
	Com3	.787	.616	
Advocacy	Adv1	.751	.612	.832
	Adv2	.755	.664	
	Adv3	.697	.527	
	Adv4	.824	.608	
	Adv5	.826	.653	
Helping other Members	Hel1	.693	.526	.857
	Hel2	.801	.652	
	Hel3	.791	.596	
	Hel4	.814	.665	
	Hel5	.780	.610	
	Hel6	.714	.550	

* Com=Compliance, Adv=Advocacy, Hel=Helping

Moreover, Table 5.15 illustrates that KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were both acceptable since the value of KMO measure was .810 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (Field 2003). It means that the variables were intercorrelated (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 5.15 KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Value Co-creation Dimensions

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.810
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	22028.786
	df	91
	Sig.	.000

Furthermore, other criteria related to the number of extractable factors were investigated. It is illustrated in Table 5.16 that the three extracted factors had

eigenvalue more than 1 and percentage of variance for the three factors was 61.892%. The scree plot (Figure 5.2) also confirmed the findings.

Table 5.16 Total Variance Explained for Value Co-creation Dimensions

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	4.628	33.057	33.057	4.628	33.057	33.057	3.881
2	2.469	17.639	50.696	2.469	17.639	50.696	3.555
3	1.567	11.196	61.892	1.567	11.196	61.892	2.577
4	.853	6.093	67.985				
5	.788	5.632	73.617				
6	.639	4.564	78.181				
7	.578	4.127	82.308				
8	.533	3.809	86.117				
9	.426	3.045	89.162				
10	.388	2.768	91.931				
11	.334	2.383	94.313				
12	.295	2.105	96.418				
13	.270	1.928	98.346				
14	.232	1.654	100.000				

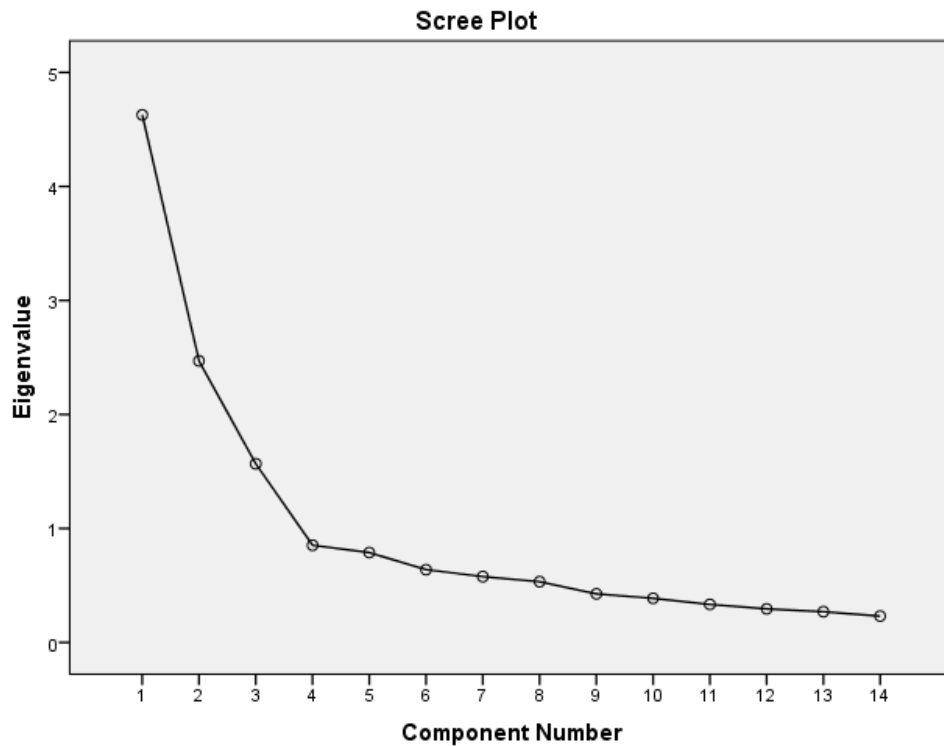


Figure 5.2 Scree Plot for Value Co-creation Dimensions

5.4.1.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis for Value Co-creation Consequences

Factor analysis was also run for consequences of value co-creation, including sport life satisfaction, life satisfaction, and loyalty. Like the other conducted factor analyses for the antecedents and value co-creation dimensions, Principal Component factor analysis with Promax rotation was used. The results of the factor analysis demonstrated that one of the variables of loyalty must be deleted because of low loading. In addition, two variables of sport life satisfaction and two variables of life satisfaction had low communalities. Thus, they were also excluded from the data analysis. Table 5.17 illustrates that all of the loadings and communalities of the variables retained for the next stage of the data analysis were greater than 0.5, as

the cut-off point (Hair et al., 2014). Reliability of the factors was also high, ranged from 0.814 to 0.875.

Table 5.17 Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Reliabilities for Value Co-creation Consequences

Factor	Variable*	Loading	Communality	Reliability (α)
Sport Life Satisfaction	Spo2	.685	.578	.856
	Spo3	.801	.646	
	Spo4	.640	.542	
	Spo5	.747	.566	
	Spo6	.844	.629	
	Spo7	.801	.580	
Life Satisfaction	Lif2	.709	.541	.875
	Lif3	.884	.750	
	Lif4	.814	.662	
	Lif6	.842	.716	
	Lif7	.837	.710	
Loyalty	Loy1	.785	.642	.814
	Loy3	.733	.590	
	Loy4	.803	.696	
	Loy6	.870	.661	

*Spo=Sport Life Satisfaction, Lif=Life Satisfaction, Loy=Loyalty

Additionally, the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Table 5.18) indicated sufficient correlation amongst the variables. Moreover, Table 5.19 illustrates that the three extracted factors had eigenvalue more than 1 and percentage of variance for the factors was 63.378%. The scree plot (Figure 5.3) also depicts that three factors can be extracted from the variables used in the factor analysis.

Table 5.18 KMO and Bartlett's Test Results for Value Co-creation Consequences

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.851
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2459.803
	df	105
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.19 Total Variance Explained for Value Co-creation Consequences

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.200	34.664	34.664	5.200	34.664	34.664	4.369
2	2.891	19.276	53.939	2.891	19.276	53.939	3.637
3	1.416	9.438	63.378	1.416	9.438	63.378	3.702
4	.873	5.822	69.200				
5	.673	4.487	73.687				
6	.648	4.317	78.003				
7	.556	3.705	81.708				
8	.531	3.540	85.248				
9	.423	2.820	88.068				
10	.371	2.475	90.544				
11	.329	2.193	92.736				
12	.319	2.126	94.862				
13	.272	1.814	96.676				
14	.262	1.748	98.424				
15	.236	1.576	100.000				

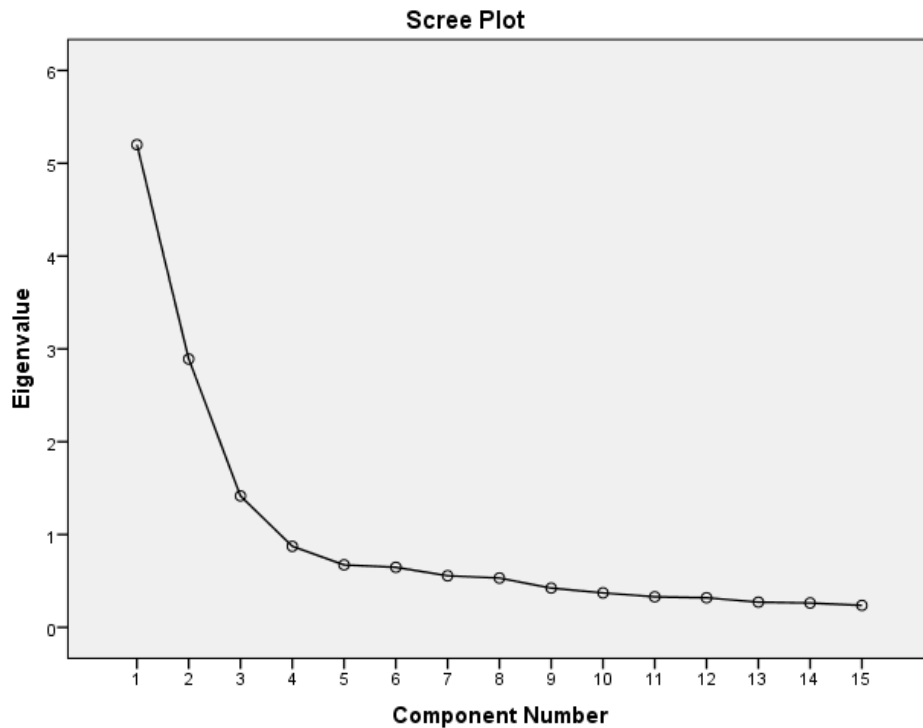


Figure 5.3 Scree Plot for Value Co-creation Consequences

5.4.1.4 Formative versus Reflective Indicator Measurement Models

Before discussing confirmatory factor analysis and the results of structural model it is worthwhile to mention that this study has applied reflective measurement method. A theoretical model can be divided into two parts. The first part postulates relationships between theoretical constructs and the second part designates relationship between a construct and its measures. In research a construct or a factor refers to a phenomenon of theoretical interest. Further, measures or indicators are multi-item operationalisation of a construct that are observable and quantifiable. The relationship between constructs and their measures is specified by a measurement model (Kim, 2011).

Moreover, there are two theories concerning the measurement models: reflective measurement method and formative measurement method. The reflective

measurement method assumes that a latent factor causes measured variables. In contrast, according to the formative measurement method, the measured variables cause a construct (Hair et al., 2014). More criteria argued by Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003) and Petter, Straub and Rai (2007) about the mentioned theories are as follows. While in the formative measures the direction of causality is from the variables to the construct, in the reflective measures the direction is from the construct to its variables. As well, other difference is the necessity of existing relationships between the variables in the reflective models. In addition, while changing a construct leads to alteration of its indicators in the reflective measures, it does not happen in the formative measures. Next sections present the reliability and validity of the constructs and the structural model evaluated to test the hypotheses of the research.

5.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As discussed earlier, exploratory factor analysis was used to identify the dimensions of value co-creation and their related indicators. It was also applied to determine variables underlying the other factors as the antecedents and consequences of value co-creation. This method helped to determine how many factors represent the data based on the loadings and communalities. It was done to make sure that the findings are in line with the literature. According to Hair et al. (2014), confirmatory factor analysis assists researchers to find out how well the factors are theoretically close to reality. As a result, confirmatory factor analysis was run after obtaining the number of factors and their related variables.

There are two main criteria to assess the adequacy of confirmatory factor analysis measurement model: Goodness-of-fit indices and convergent and discriminant validity (Akamavi et al., 2015). These criteria and other issues related to the measurement model are discussed in the following sections.

5.4.2.1 Goodness-of-fit Indices

Goodness-of-fit indices designate how well the indicators' covariance matrix is reproduced by a model. Hair et al. (2014) categorise goodness-of-fit indices into three groups: absolute, incremental, and parsimony. Absolute fit indices are goodness-of-fit (GOF) index, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), root mean square residual (RMR), and standardized root mean residual (SRMR). Indices such as normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI) are incremental fit indices. Parsimony type includes adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI).

In the current study the guideline suggested by Hair et al. (2014) was used to assess the model fit and report it. According to these scholars, three or four indices are enough to make sure that a model is fit. These specialists also suggest scholars to report at least one absolute index and one incremental index, in addition to chi-square (χ^2) value and the degree of freedom (df). Given the guideline, the author has considered χ^2 value, df, RMSEA, CFI, IFI, and AGFI to confirm the model fit. In other words, these indices are chosen among all of the three groups of the goodness-of-fit indices.

With respect to the cut-off values, the literature suggests that the model is fit when χ^2/df is less than 5, CFI and IFI exceed 0.9, AGFI is higher than 0.8, and RMSEA is less than 0.08 (Akamavi et al., 2015, Chang and Wong, 2010, Fuller et al., 2009, Hair et al., 2014, Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The results of confirmatory factor analysis for all factors indicated acceptable fit indices ($\chi^2 = 881.773$, $df = 491$, $RMSEA = .048$, $CFI = .935$, $IFI = .936$, $AGFI = .839$). To have such acceptable fit indices some other criteria were also regarded. For example, variables with the following characteristics were deleted from the model: factor loadings less than 0.5 or standardized residual covariances more than <2.58 (Al-Qeisi, Dennis, Alamanos and Jayawardhena, 2014, Byrne, 2010). Figure 5.4 illustrates the outcome of confirmatory factor analysis by AMOS.

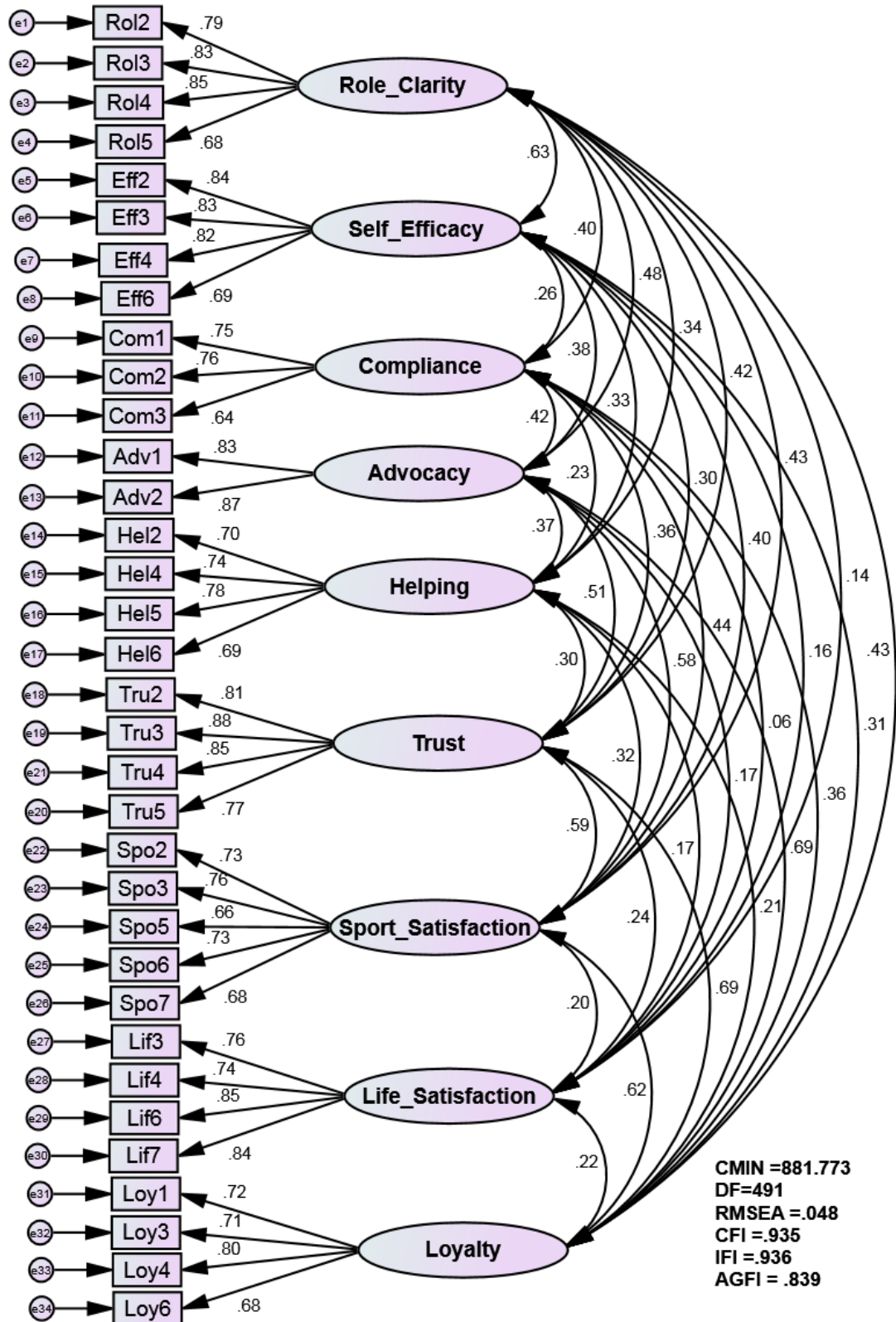


Figure 5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Figure 5.4 shows that overall 34 variables were retained to manifest nine constructs after running confirmatory factor analysis on the data obtained from 343 respondents. Descriptive statistic, factor loadings, and reliability of the factors and variables are presented in Table 5.20. Descriptive statistics indicated that while sport life satisfaction had the highest average (4.13), the lowest average (3.65) belonged to helping other customers. As such, the highest and lowest reliability pertained to trust ($\alpha = .893$) and compliance ($\alpha = .759$), respectively.

As well, Hair et al. (2014) and Hall, Snell and Foust (1999) suggest that three or four variables are enough to assess a construct. Figure 5.4 and Table 5.20 show that the number of variables per construct is in line with the suggestions mentioned above. But, the only exception is advocacy that had two indicators.

Table 5.20 Descriptive Statistics, Factor Loadings, and Reliability of Factors and Variables

Construct/ Variables	Descriptive Statistics		Factor Loading	Reliability	
	Mean	SD		CITC*	α / CAIID**
Role Clarity					.864
I feel certain about how much authority I have to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.60	.866	.789	.722	.823
I know what is expected of me if I participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.78	.815	.834	.746	.814
I know what my responsibilities are to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.83	.807	.852	.769	.806
The club's information is clear about how to participate in collaborative behaviours.	3.77	.893	.679	.626	.864
Self-efficacy					.869
I have excellent skills and ability to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.71	.877	.845	.769	.814
I am proud of my skills and ability to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.70	.895	.829	.758	.818
I do not doubt my ability to participate in the collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.73	.885	.817	.742	.825
My past experiences increase my confidence to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	3.76	.925	.687	.622	.873
Compliance					.759
I perform all required tasks in the club.	3.85	.910	.751	.613	.652
I adequately complete all the expected behaviours in the club.	4.19	.833	.757	.619	.643
I fulfil my responsibilities to the club.	4.18	.775	.645	.544	.728

Table 5.20 Continued

Construct/ Variables	Descriptive Statistics		Factor Loading	Reliability	
	Mean	SD		CITC*	α / CAIID**
Advocacy					.840
I say positive things about the club to other people.	4.07	.795	.833	.725	---
I recommend the club to someone who seeks my advice.	4.02	.783	.870	.725	---
Helping Customers					.815
I help the other members of the club if they seem to have problems.	3.91	.813	.697	.604	.784
I give advice to the other members of the club when needed.	3.51	.984	.739	.651	.761
I assist the other members of the club in finding the facilities.	3.80	.898	.784	.693	.741
I explain to the other members of the club which services are provided by the club.	3.40	1.000	.695	.606	.784
Trust					.893
I can trust the club.	3.88	.719	.805	.743	.870
The club is reliable.	3.99	.667	.879	.797	.853
The club is honest.	3.93	.736	.851	.803	.848
The club has always kept its promises.	3.77	.814	.772	.729	.880
Sport Life Satisfaction					.84
The club plays a very important role in my leisure well-being.	4.17	.736	.619	.615	.811
The club plays an important role in enhancing the quality of my sport life.	4.20	.744	.764	.674	.795

Table 5.20 Continued

Construct/ Variables	Descriptive Statistics		Factor Loading	Reliability	
	Mean	SD		CITC*	α / CAIID**
My sport activities in the club are very interesting to me.	4.05	.786	.676	.593	.818
My sport activities in the club give me self-confidence.	4.11	.749	.797	.685	.792
My sport activities in the club give me a sense of accomplishment.	4.18	.716	.747	.631	.807
Life Satisfaction					.872
I am satisfied with my life.	3.88	.925	.761	.711	.844
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	3.60	.943	.743	.694	.852
Although I have my ups and downs, in general, I feel good about my life.	3.95	.800	.845	.758	.827
I lead a meaningful and fulfilling life.	3.92	.852	.842	.757	.825
Loyalty					.814
I consider the club as my first choice to have a membership in a sport club.	3.84	.937	.721	.630	.768
I probably will renew my membership.	3.89	1.004	.707	.600	.785
I consider myself as loyal to the club.	3.94	.856	.798	.694	.743
I prefer to be a member of the club than to be a member of other competitor clubs.	3.78	.955	.679	.622	.772

* CITC= Corrected Item-Total Correlation, ** CAIID= Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted

5.4.2.2 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

The second criterion for the adequacy of confirmatory factor analysis measurement model is validity that includes convergent validity and discriminant validity (Akamavi et al., 2015). Validity of the measurement is an important concern for researchers. Validity means how much a measurement reflects the features of the phenomenon under investigation (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). It is also the extent to which a survey is able to yield the results that are relevant to the research and refers to the accuracy of the research process (Sreejesh, Mohapatra and Anusree, 2014).

Additionally, a valid questionnaire has content and construct validity. Content or face validity refers to the extent to which a survey's indicators cover the investigative questions. Saunders et al. (2007) contend that carefully selection of questionnaire's statements and employment of a panel to evaluate the survey are fruitful to improve content validity. As stated in the previous chapter, these procedures were considered in order to develop the research questionnaire.

On the other hand, construct validity means how much a survey indicators actually measure those constructs that the researcher is going to investigate them (Saunders et al., 2007). This type of validity includes two important categories: convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity refers to the positive correlation of a scale with the other measurements of the same construct (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend three criteria for obtaining convergent validity: factor loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) greater

than 0.5, and the construct reliability greater than 0.7. Table 5.21 demonstrates that this study measures met the mentioned criteria.

Table 5.21 Convergent Validity Assessment for Measures

Construct	Mean	SD	Number of Items	Factor Loading Range	AVE*	Construct Reliability
Role Clarity	3.74	.71	4	.679-.852	.626	.869
Self-efficacy	3.72	.76	4	.687-.845	.635	.874
Compliance	4.07	.69	3	.645-.757	.518	.762
Advocacy	4.04	.73	2	.833-.870	.725	.841
Helping Customers	3.65	.74	4	.695-.784	.532	.820
Trust	3.89	.64	4	.772-.879	.685	.897
Sport Life Satisfaction	4.13	.59	4	.619-.797	.508	.804
Life Satisfaction	3.84	.75	4	.743-.845	.639	.876
Loyalty	3.86	.75	4	.679-.798	.529	.818

*Average Variance Extracted

As such, discriminant validity is “the extent to which a measure does not correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ” (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, p.359). Two main criteria in order to assess discriminant validity for constructs are the correlation matrix and square root of AVE. To have discriminant validity each construct should have the square root of AVE larger than its highest correlation with other constructs (Akamavi et al., 2015, Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2013). Findings confirmed discriminant validity of the measures in the present study (Table 5.22).

Table 5.22 Discriminant Validity Assessment for Measures

Constructs	α	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Role Clarity	.864	.626	.79								
2. Self-efficacy	.869	.635	.64**	.80							
3. Compliance	.759	.518	.40**	.26**	.72						
4. Advocacy	.840	.725	.48**	.38**	.42**	.85					
5. Helping Customers	.815	.532	.34**	.33**	.23**	.37**	.73				
6. Trust	.893	.685	.42**	.30**	.36**	.51**	.30**	.83			
7. Sport Life Satisfaction	.795	.508	.44**	.40**	.42**	.53**	.29**	.55**	.71		
8. Life Satisfaction	.872	.639	.14*	.16*	.06	.17**	.17**	.24**	.20**	.80	
9. Loyalty	.814	.529	.43**	.31**	.36**	.69**	.21**	.69**	.59**	.21**	.73

Diagonal elements (in bold) are the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

5.4.2.3 Common Method Bias

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) indicate the potential of common method bias in studies. The issue is especially important when the research measures are gathered through a questionnaire (Karpen, Bove, Lukas and Zyphur, 2015) and type of the study is cross-sectional as well as self-report data is used in investigations (Groth, 2005, Yen et al., 2011). Common method bias refers to the fact that correlations between constructs are artificial (Buettgen et al., 2012, Zhang and Chen, 2008). The bias occurs when:

- Respondents purposely answer to questions in a socially desirable manner.
- There are too many questions to answer.
- A single respondent at each firm is selected to provide answers to questions.
- The questions are ambiguous (Zhang and Chen, 2008).

Consequently, to prevent common method bias the following actions were regarded (cf. Buettgen et al., 2012, Hsiao et al., 2015, Gallan et al., 2013, Verleye et al., 2013):

- Measures were carefully selected among the existing scales. It was tried to use the best extant scales published in the highly ranked articles to choose the research questionnaire measures.
- Ambiguous statements were improved through the pre-testing study. In the pre-testing stage informants were asked to indicate any vague word or statement in the questionnaire. All of the received comments regarding

complex, difficult, ambiguous, and double-barrelled words and statements were considered for the main study.

- The arrangement of research factors in the designed questionnaire was different from the research model. For instance, the level of respondents' self-efficacy and role clarity were requested after asking their level of emgagaemnt in value co-creation behaviours in the questionnaire.
- Respondents were assured that their answers would be analysed anonymously and treated confidentially.
- The titles of the variables and dimensions were deleted in the questionnaire so that the respondents did not understand what was being tested.

Additionally, common method bias was investigated by two statistical tests: Harman's Single Factor test (Jayachandran, Sharma, Kaufman and Raman, 2005, Jha, Deitz, Babakus and Yavas, 2013) and Common Factor test (Jha et al., 2013, Kandemir, Yaprak and Cavusgil, 2006). By applying Harman's Single Factor test, findings demonstrated that nine factors together accounted for 71.248% of the total variance. The first factor also accounted for 28.328% of total variance. Likewise, By using confirmatory factor analysis approach, common factor test suggested that goodness-of-fit indices are much better in a nine-latent-factor model, in comparison with a one-latent-factor model (Table 5.23). In sum, the results disclosed that common method bias is not a threat in the current study.

Table 5.23 Comparison of Nine-latent and One-latent-factor Models

n=343	CMIN	DF	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	AGFI
Nine-latent-factor model	1112.590	509	.059	.900	.901	.813
One-latent-factor model	3798.527	527	.135	.458	.461	.479

5.5 Structural Equation Modelling Results

Structural equation modelling was used to identify the relationships amongst the study constructs. Structural equation modelling is a growing statistical method in order to assess the associations between the research factors. It has also been called as covariance structure modelling, causal modelling, and latent variable modelling (Hoyle, 2012). The method is chosen for data analysis in the current study because it “provides the appropriate and most efficient estimation technique for a series of separate multiple regression equations estimated simultaneously” (Hair et al., 2014, p.19).

Moreover, Jha et al. (2013) suggest using latent variable scores to have a model that is free from measurement error and common method variance, especially when indirect effects are also estimated in the model. As a result, latent variable scores, rather than composite scores, were used in order to analyze data. Another important point is that it is already mentioned that the current study applies value co-creation as a multidimensional construct to have a better understanding of the phenomenon. All of the value co-creation dimensions, rather than a composite construct as value co-creation, were used in the structural model to avoid a critic mentioned by Edwards (2001, p.145): composite factors are “conceptually ambiguous, explain less variance than explained by their dimensions taken

collectively, and confound relationships between their dimensions and other constructs". Therefore, correlations of all value co-creation dimensions with their antecedents and consequences were explored to sort out the mentioned critics. By doing so, data analysis helped to determine the roles of individual dimensions in the proposed model.

Further, AMOS IBM SPSS version 22 was used to examine the proposed model using path analysis. Before examining the relationships among the constructs, goodness-of-fit indices (χ^2 , df, RMSEA, CFI, IFI, AGFI) were investigated. The results confirmed that the indices were acceptable ($\chi^2 = 1112.590$, df=509, RMSEA=.059, CFI=.900, IFI=.901, AGFI=.813).

5.5.1 Direct Effects

Structural equation modelling results revealed that 14 paths of the structural model were significant with $p < .05$. However, four paths were not significant. Findings confirmed that while the effect of self-efficacy on advocacy ($\beta = +.13$ with $p < .05$) and helping other members ($\beta = +.19$ with $p < .01$) were positively significant, its impact on compliance was not significant ($\beta = +.04$ with $p > .05$). It means that H_{1b} and H_{1c} were supported and H_{1a} was not supported. Further, role clarity had significant and positive effect on compliance ($\beta = +.28$ with $p < .001$), advocacy ($\beta = +.25$ with $p < .001$), and helping other members ($\beta = +.17$ with $p < .05$). This refers to the support for H_{2a} - H_{2c} . Role clarity also influenced trust positively and significantly ($\beta = +.42$ with $p < .001$). It means that H_3 was also supported.

As well, it was confirmed that trust positively influences all dimensions of value co-creation: compliance ($\beta=+.26$ with $p<.001$), advocacy ($\beta=+.49$ with $p<.001$), and helping other members ($\beta=+.19$ with $p<.01$). Therefore, the findings advocate H_{4a} - H_{4c} . Additionally, data analysis indicated that value co-creation dimensions function differently on customer loyalty. In this regard, while advocacy ($\beta=+.60$ with $p<.001$) had remarkable effect on loyalty, the impact of compliance ($\beta=+.06$ with $p>.05$) and helping other members ($\beta=-.08$ with $p>.05$) on loyalty were not significant. Consequently, it can be concluded that H_{5b} was supported, and H_{5a} and H_{5c} were rejected. The research results also supported H_{6a} and H_{6b} that proposed compliance ($\beta=+.25$ with $p<.001$) and advocacy ($\beta=+.50$ with $p<.001$) positively influence sport life satisfaction. However, helping other members had no significant effect ($\beta=+.11$ with $p>.05$) on this domain of life satisfaction, referring to the rejection of H_{6c} .

In confirmation of H_7 , sport life satisfaction had significant and positive effect on customer loyalty ($\beta=+.24$ with $p<.05$). Lastly, it is proposed in H_8 that sport life satisfaction influences overall life satisfaction. Data analysis confirmed the hypothesis since the effect was significant and positive ($\beta=+.21$ with $p<.001$). Figure 5.5 depicts the relationships among the factors as the output of AMOS.

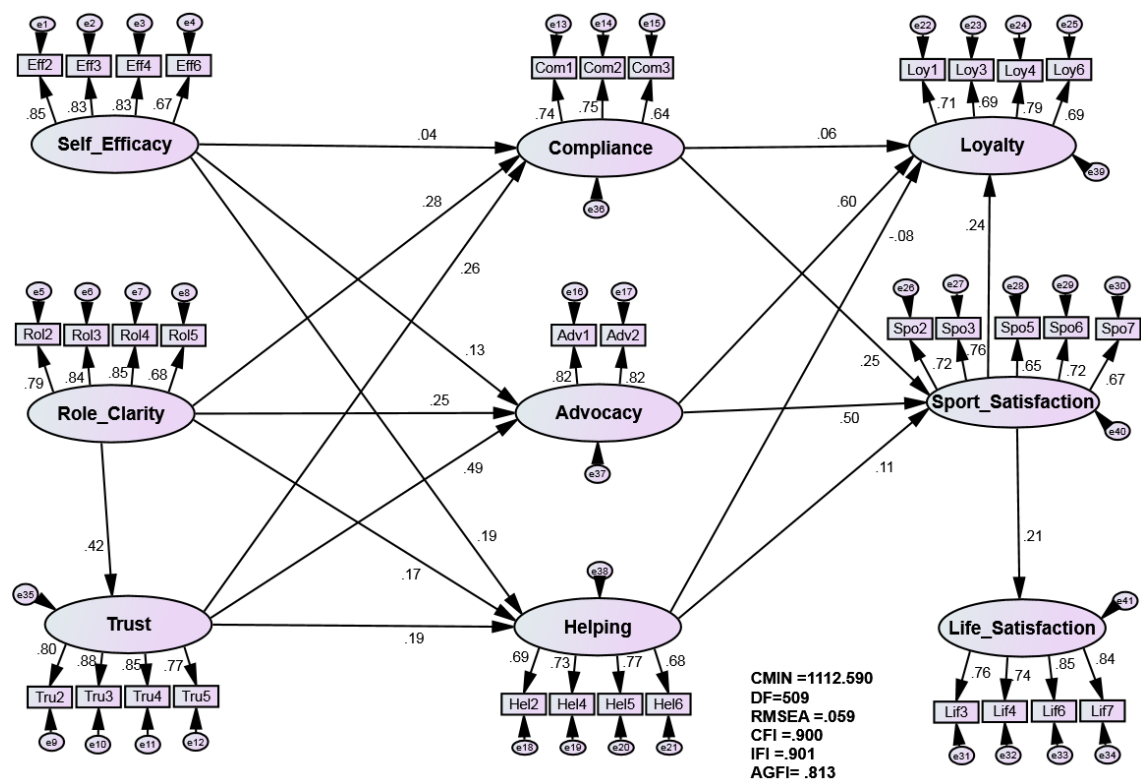


Figure 5.5 Structural Equation Modelling Results

A summary of structural equation modelling results regarding the preceding model is listed in Table 5.24. The table illustrates that the majority of the hypothesised relationships between the research factors were significant (14 of 18 hypotheses). It is also shown in the table that the highest relationship was related to the effect of advocacy on loyalty ($\beta = +.60$ with $p < .001$) and sport life satisfaction ($\beta = +.50$ with $p < .001$), followed by the impact of trust on advocacy ($\beta = +.49$ with $p < .001$). As such, while four insignificant correlations were concluded, the lowest significant link pertained to the effect of self-efficacy on advocacy ($\beta = +.13$ with $p < .01$).

Table 5.24 Summary of Structural Equation Modelling Results for the Proposed Models

Predictor Factor	Criterion Factor	Hypothesis	Standardised Coefficient	Result
Self-efficacy	Compliance	H _{1a}	.04	Not supported
	Advocacy	H _{1b}	.13*	Supported
	Helping	H _{1c}	.19**	Supported
Role clarity	Compliance	H _{2a}	.28***	Supported
	Advocacy	H _{2b}	.25***	Supported
	Helping	H _{2c}	.17*	Supported
	Trust	H ₃	.42***	Supported
Trust	Compliance	H _{4a}	.26***	Supported
	Advocacy	H _{4b}	.49***	Supported
	Helping	H _{4c}	.19**	Supported
Compliance	Loyalty	H _{5a}	.06	Not supported
	Sport life satisfaction	H _{6a}	.25***	Supported
Advocacy	Loyalty	H _{5b}	.60***	Supported
	Sport life satisfaction	H _{6b}	.50***	Supported
Helping	Loyalty	H _{5c}	-.08	Not supported
	Sport life satisfaction	H _{6c}	.11	Not supported
Sport life satisfaction	Loyalty	H ₇	.24**	Supported
	Overall life satisfaction	H ₈	.21***	Supported

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

5.5.2 Indirect Effects

In addition to the direct effects, indirect effects and total effects were also computed to identify the mediating roles of the study factors. To do so, following other scholars such as Bruhn et al. (2014), Mende and van Doorn (2014), Preacher and Hayes (2008), Sweeney et al. (2015), Wang et al. (2013b), and Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010), a bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% confidence interval was run to assess the mediation effects.

As shown in Table 5.25 and Figure 5.6, advocacy had the highest total effect on customer loyalty, while remarkable part of the effect is through its mediation effect. The indirect effects of role clarity and trust were also considerable to improve customer loyalty. Likewise, advocacy, trust, and role clarity had a modest indirect influence in increasing overall life satisfaction. Moreover, role clarity, trust, and self-efficacy indirectly influenced sport life satisfaction through the mediation effects of value co-creation dimensions, especially compliance and advocacy.

Furthermore, sport life satisfaction had a full mediation effect on the relationship between compliance and customer loyalty. It had a full mediating role because while the direct effect of compliance on loyalty was insignificant, the impact of compliance on sport life satisfaction and then the influence of sport life satisfaction on loyalty were significant (cf. Little, Bovaird and Card, 2007). Sport life satisfaction also partially mediated the effect of advocacy on loyalty.

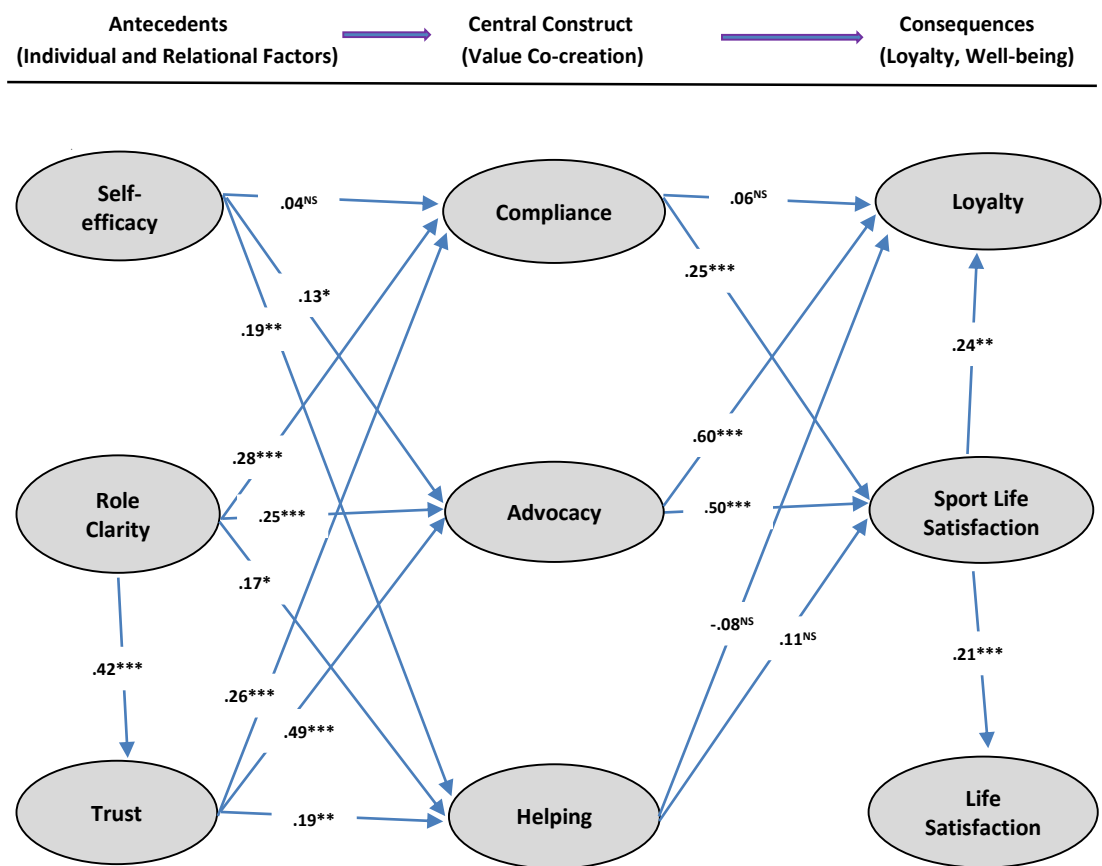
Lastly, in addition to its important direct impact, the indirect effect of role clarity on value co-creation, especially on advocacy, through trust was remarkable. In sum, service participation notably mediates the effects of its enablers such as self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust on customer life satisfaction and loyalty through increasing sport life satisfaction.

Table 5.25 Direct, Indirect, and Total Effect of Research Factors

Criterion Factor	Predictor Factor	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect ^a	Total Effect
Customer loyalty	Sport life satisfaction	.24**	---	.24
	Compliance	---	.06*	.06
	Advocacy	.60***	.12*	.72
	Trust	---	.37**	.37
	Role clarity	---	.36***	.36
Overall life satisfaction	Sport life satisfaction	.21***	---	.21
	Compliance	---	.05**	.05
	Advocacy	---	.10**	.10
	Helping	---	.02*	.02
	Trust	---	.07**	.07
	Role clarity	---	.08**	.08
	Self-efficacy	---	.02*	.02
Sport life satisfaction	Compliance	.25***	---	.25
	Advocacy	.50***	---	.50
	Trust	---	.33**	.33
	Role clarity	---	.35**	.35
	Self-efficacy	---	.10*	.10
Helping	Role clarity	.17*	.08**	.25
Advocacy	Role clarity	.25***	.20***	.45
Compliance	Role clarity	.28***	.11**	.39

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

^a In line with Akamavi et al. (2015), Challagalla and Shervani (1996), and Chen et al. (2013), indirect effects were computed only when the relevant structural parameters were statistically significant.



* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; NS=Not Significant

Figure 5.6 The Research Results

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses this research findings and links them with the results of other studies. It also associates this study findings with the relevant theories. Given the objectives and the hypotheses of the study, the importance of the research constructs are argued in the following sections based on their existence in the conceptual model of the research. At first the effect of self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust on subsequent factors is argued. Then, the impact of value co-creation dimensions on customer loyalty and well-being is discussed. Lastly, the influence of sport life satisfaction on loyalty and overall life satisfaction is explained.

6.2 Importance of the Research Constructs

6.2.1 Importance of Self-efficacy

The current research has theorised that self-efficacy positively influences value co-creation. Findings partially confirmed the hypothesis since while the effect of self-efficacy on compliance was not significant, its impact on advocacy and helping other members was significant and positive.

It is previously mentioned that the results revealed insignificant effect of self-efficacy on compliance ($\beta=+.04$ with $p>.05$). It means that the sense of having skills and ability to contribute to the participative activities is not related to performing required tasks and completing expected behaviours and responsibilities in the sport centres. This result is consistent with some other findings (e.g., Kim, Yang and Park, 2014, Scherer and Bruce, 2001). For example, Scherer and Bruce (2001) reveal that

patient self-efficacy has no significant effect on total compliance with prescribed medical regimen among adults with asthma. Similarly, another study by Kim et al. (2014) confirms a lack of significant relationship between self-efficacy and compliance with the information security policy in organisations. In addition, there are other contexts in which self-efficacy is not influential to participate in the service delivery process. Some examples are student engagement (e.g., Sun and Rueda, 2012), intent of using the self-service machine in the future (e.g., Zhao et al., 2008), and self-service technology in shopping and library settings (e.g., Oyedele and Simpson, 2007).

However, the insignificant impact of self-efficacy on compliance is inconsistent with the results obtained by Dellande et al. (2004) in the healthcare services, Hsiao et al. (2015) in the organisational setting, and Chen, Tsai, Lin, Shih and Chen (2010) in patients with epilepsy. This inconsistency can be explained by application of different research populations and contexts. As well, another possible reason is that in this study compliance is considered as a passive behaviour that includes performing in-role activities such as performing required tasks and responsibilities (Yi and Gong, 2013). It differentiates the construct from advocacy and helping other members that are extra-role behaviours (Johnson and Rapp, 2010, Keh and Teo, 2001). Indeed, self-efficacy is important when the task is challenging (Luszczynska et al., 2005a, Schwarzer et al., 1999) and difficult (Bandura, 1977). As an evidence, it is shown that self-efficacy has no significant effect on low-challenge and not difficult activities such as completing customer survey, returning shopping cart to

sidewalk and shirt back to the correct rack, and participating in customer focus group (e.g., Oyedele and Simpson, 2011).

As such, Maddison and Prapavessis (2004) reveal that task efficacy is important in exercise compliance when the levels of exertion increase. In fact, only attending at the exercise programme is not related to efficacy, but the needed level of exertion determines the importance of self-efficacy. Even, reviewing of the effect of self-efficacy on advocacy and helping other members indicates that the effect of this predictor on helping other members was more than advocacy because helping other members is more challenging and difficult than advocacy. Lastly, the psychological characteristics of the customers may also play a role in this case. For instance, Guo et al. (2013) find that task mastery is not related to compliance in low-dependence consumers of a debt management programme. Consequently, although not examined in this study, one reason can be low level of respondents' dependency on the service provider in the context of this research.

In contrast, this research findings demonstrated significant and positive effect of self-efficacy on advocacy ($\beta=+.13$ with $p<.05$) and helping other members ($\beta=+.19$ with $p<.01$). In other words, the perception of confidence to participate in service delivery assists the fitness centre members to say positive things about the centres and even help other members. So, this study confirms the results of other studies that indicate customer ability is necessary for consumer engagement. For instance, it is revealed that ability has significant effect on customer-to-customer know-how exchange among Internet users (e.g., Gruen et al., 2006) and conference attendees

(e.g., Gruen et al., 2007). As well, it is shown that customer ability is related to participative behaviours (e.g., Bolton and Saxena-Iyer, 2009, Dong, Sivakumar, Evans and Zou, 2015, Kotze and Du Plessis, 2003, Yen et al., 2011), consumer engagement (e.g., Sun and Rueda, 2012), value co-creation (e.g., Bharti et al., 2014), future co-creation on customer intention toward future co-creation (e.g., Dong et al., 2008), co-creation experience (e.g., Verleye, 2015), trial use of self-service technologies (e.g., Meuter et al., 2005), and online shopping (e.g., y Monsuwé et al., 2004).

This research also supports investigations that show self-efficacy influences customer intention to prosumption activities (e.g., Xie et al., 2008), use of self-service technologies (e.g., Dabholkar and Bagozzi, 2002), complaining (e.g., McKee et al., 2006), willingness to co-create (e.g., Heidenreich and Handrich, 2015), and student engagement (e.g., Bates and Khasawneh, 2007). In the organisational context, Hsiao et al. (2015) demonstrate that advocacy and helping are affected by employee self-efficacy. This study replicates the findings in the customer participation setting.

Moreover, the results of the current study is in line with social cognitive theory. This theory is helpful to determine how human behaviour is formed through causal relationships (Kim et al., 2009). Grounded on social cognitive theory, it is supposed that self-efficacy plays a vital role in performance (McKee et al., 2006). Accordingly, while weak effort is related to low self-efficacy, high self-efficacy leads to much effort to perform a task (Ford and Dickson, 2012). An important factor that

encourages people to participate in challenging efforts is their beliefs about their capabilities to perform the task (Maddux, 2002).

Given the theory, it was proposed that customers who feel higher self-efficacy are more likely to engage in value co-creation behaviours. This assumption was partially confirmed as the results of this study showed the significant effect of self-efficacy on advocacy and helping other members. The contribution of the current study is that it not only explores the impact of self-efficacy on customer participative behaviour in a rarely-investigated population and context but also discovers the effect of self-efficacy on three different value co-creating activities. In addition, the remarkable indirect effect of self-efficacy on sport life satisfaction through value co-creation behaviours is also confirmed. In general, the results are in line with social cognitive theory since the direct effect of self-efficacy on advocacy and helping other members was significant.

6.2.2 Importance of Role Clarity

The second and the third hypotheses of the research were related to the outcomes of role clarity. The second hypothesis proposed that role clarity positively influences value co-creation. This hypothesis was fully confirmed because the impact of role clarity on compliance ($\beta=+.28$ with $p<.001$), advocacy ($\beta=+.25$ with $p<.001$), and helping other members ($\beta=+.17$ with $p<.05$) was significant. Of the three consequences, compliance and then advocacy received more influence by role clarity. Given these results, it can be concluded that if the members of the fitness centres are aware of their authorities and responsibilities and have clear

information about how to participate in collaborative behaviours they will comply with the centres' rules, advocate the centres and even assist the other members to use the facilities.

These findings is consistent with other studies that confirm role clarity influences compliance (e.g., Dellande et al., 2004), customer value co-creation (e.g., Bharti et al., 2014), consumer participative behaviours (e.g., Bolton and Saxena-Iyer, 2009, Kotze and Du Plessis, 2003, Yoo et al., 2012), customer participation in service recovery (e.g., Dong et al., 2008), and trial use of self-service technologies (e.g., Meuter et al., 2005). Furthermore, literature indicates that customer role readiness is important for compliance, advocacy, and helping other customers (e.g., Verleye et al., 2013), as well co-creating value in new product development (e.g., Verleye, 2015). It is also shown that task conflict negatively affects compliance (e.g., Davies et al., 2011, Guo et al., 2013) and academic staff engagement (e.g., Selmer et al., 2013).

As the third hypothesis, it was supposed that trust is positively influenced by role clarity ($\beta=+.42$ with $p<.001$). This hypothesis was also supported strongly. Reviewing of the literature indicates that scholars have not paid enough attention to the link between role clarity and trust. But, it is pointed out that environmental uncertainty and conflict have negative impact on customer trust (e.g., Davies et al., 2011, Geyskens et al., 1998). The contribution of this part of the study is a respond to a research call by Hollebeek (2011b) and van Doorn et al. (2010) who recommend researchers to identify the interactions between antecedents of customer

engagement behaviours. Likewise, Urban (2005) highlights exploring determinants of customer trust since advocacy depends on trust.

Interestingly, role clarity had notable indirect effect on the other factors. For instance, in addition to the mentioned direct effect of role clarity on all dimensions of value co-creation, this factor indirectly influenced the dimensions through trust as well. As such, the indirect effect of role clarity on loyalty, sport life satisfaction, and then life satisfaction was remarkable. It supports the notion pointed out by Mele (2011) that resolution of conflicts results in enhanced trust, which in turn leads to capability for value co-creation. Gremler et al. (2001) also maintain that perception of care and personal connection influence customer trust, which results in advocacy. Trust in other party also causes the reduction of negative effects of conflict between partners and enhancement of cooperation (e.g., Davies et al., 2011).

The findings of this part of the study is in line with role theory and more specifically role clarity concept. As one of the most effective components of customer role readiness, role clarity happens when a consumer knows what he or she must perform as a customer (Dellande et al., 2004). Accordingly, a lack of awareness of roles may lead to less customer participation (e.g., Larsson and Bowen, 1989) and any ambiguity of consumers' role negatively influences their participation (e.g., Yoo et al., 2012). Furthermore, customers need information and knowledge to engage in the value co-creative activities (Payne et al., 2008). Actually, customers do actions that they know what are expected of them. The significant effect of prior knowledge

on visitors' level of engagement with tourist attractions (e.g., Taheri et al., 2014) and the positive influence of communication between patients and their physicians on patient compliance with instructions (e.g., Hausman, 2004) confirm the proposition. Verleye (2015) also suggest firms to invest in communication and guidance for their customers in order to facilitate customer co-creation.

In sum, drawing on role theory, this study specified the importance of consumer role clarity to enhance trust in the fitness clubs, comply with the required tasks and responsibilities, have positive word-of-mouth, and help the other members of the clubs. Additionally, the results of this study indicated that role clarity has higher effect, in comparison with self-efficacy, on value co-creation dimensions. It is in line with the findings of another study by Meuter et al. (2005) who concluded that role clarity is the dominant consumer readiness variable to try self-service technologies.

6.2.3 Importance of Trust

The fourth hypothesis of the research was: trust is positively related to value co-creation. This hypothesis was also fully supported since the effect of trust on compliance ($\beta=+.26$ with $p<.001$), advocacy ($\beta=+.49$ with $p<.001$), and helping other members ($\beta=+.19$ with $p<.01$) was positive and significant. The most important effect was related to advocacy, and then compliance. In fact, the feeling of that the fitness club centres are reliable and honest and that they keep their promises leads to dealing with the clubs' rules and staff's instructions, recommending the centres to others and positive worth-of-mouth, and helping the other members.

The findings of the study confirmed the findings of other researchers. The relevant literature indicates that trust has positive and significant effect on compliance. For example, Davies et al. (2011) unfold that integrity trust and competence trust positively influence compliance in the franchised automobile repair service. It is also concluded that trust influences helping behaviour at the group level (e.g., Choi, 2006). With respect to the impact of trust on advocacy, Porter et al. (2013) reveal that benevolence trust and integrity trust and word-of-mouth in the virtual community are significantly correlated. Further, trust influences e-marketplace participation (e.g., Chang and Wong, 2010), participate in leisure activities in virtual communities (e.g., Frey and Luethje, 2011), academic staff engagement (e.g., Selmer et al., 2013), and work engagement (e.g., Agarwal, 2014).

In addition, this study showed that trust indirectly influences sport life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction through value co-creation. It supports a conceptual model suggested by van Doorn et al. (2010) in which trust affects customer satisfaction through customer engagement. The findings also confirmed a quantitative study by So et al. (2014) that unfolds trust influences customer engagement, which in turn results in customer satisfaction and then brand loyalty. Moreover, indirect impact of trust on customer loyalty is important in the research conceptual model. In particular, Polo Pena et al. (2014) propose a theoretical model indicating trusting beliefs (e.g., benevolence, competence, integrity) influence purchase intention through value co-creation.

According to Williams and Aitken (2011), trust is obviously specific in marketing system development. For instance, customers need trust to quickly deal with a new situation in social interactions (Mumford and Gray, 2010). Trust is also important in cooperative strategies (Day et al., 2013) because it results in decreasing the perceived risks within interactions and opportunistic behaviour (Bruhn et al., 2014). de Matos and Vargas Rossi (2008) point out that customers may recommend a firm when they have confidence in the firm.

Furthermore, trust is important in the relationship between a service provider and a consumer and “is a prerequisite for value co-creation” (See-To and Ho, 2014, p.188). According to Etgar (2008), customers need lack of opportunistic behaviour by their partners such as termination of their best offers or change the conditions of the exchange. Opportunism in the participative behaviours means activities that defy the conventionally accepted activities during co-creating value process. Opportunism also negatively affects mutual expectations between the parties (Ertimur and Venkatesh, 2010).

As well, Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004b) maintain that a customer and a firm are collaborators to create value together and competitors to obtain economic value. Thus, the customer evaluates the firm through trust (Mumford and Gray, 2010). In this regard, Chathoth et al. (2014) point out that the relationship between a customer and a service provider is a platform for engagement, but trust is necessary to foster such a relationship. In sum, this part of the findings supported the literature and demonstrated the importance of customer trust to obtain positive outcomes.

6.2.4 Importance of Value Co-creation

The fifth hypothesis of the study posited that value co-creation positively influences customer loyalty. Findings of the study illustrated that only advocacy has significant effect on loyalty ($\beta=+.60$ with $p<.001$). However, the influence of compliance ($\beta=+.06$ with $p>.05$) and helping other members ($\beta=-.08$ with $p>.05$) on loyalty was insignificant. According to the findings, the members who say positive things about the centres and recommend them will consider the centres as their first choice to have a membership in a fitness centre, renew their membership, and in general deem themselves loyal customers. In contrast, complying with the clubs' rules and staff's instructions and assisting the other members were not related to loyalty.

On the one hand, insignificant effect of value co-creation is in line with the remarkable part of the relevant literature in which participative activities are not related to loyalty. For instance, scholars have found a lack of significant effect of participation in customer-to-customer know-how (e.g., Gruen et al., 2006) and participation in using online product recommendation agents (e.g., Dabholkar and Sheng, 2012) on future purchase intentions. As such, it is revealed that community engagement and transactional engagement in a Facebook brand community have no significant impact on loyalty (e.g., Gummerus et al., 2012).

Further, So et al. (2014) discover that customer engagement as a second-order construct significantly affects loyalty. However, when the effect of individual dimensions on loyalty is considered two- including identification and interaction- of five dimensions do not have significant impact. As well, in the sport setting, Stieler

et al. (2014) find that fan engagement activities such as prosocial behaviour (helping other customers here) have no significant effect on purchase intention. Like the findings of the current study, a negative insignificant relationship is concluded in the mentioned study.

On the other hand, in consistent with the significant effect of advocacy, literature supports the influence of value co-creation (e.g., Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014), value co-creation in ICT setting (e.g., Polo Pena et al., 2014), customer participation (e.g., Eisingerich and Bell, 2006), degree of co-creation (e.g., Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer, 2012), customer engagement (e.g., So et al., 2014), and customer-to-customer exchange (e.g., Gruen et al., 2007) on customer loyalty. As such, co-creative activities in service recovery lead to repurchase intentions (e.g., Roggeveen et al., 2012) and visitor engagement results in visitor loyalty (e.g., Bryce et al., 2015). Lin and Hsieh (2011) find that customer compliance in high-contact services influences anticipated future interaction. Hedlund (2014) also unfolds that participation in sport fan consumption communities significantly impacts attendance intentions and merchandise purchase intentions.

In line with Ennew and Binks (1999) and van Dijk et al. (2014), the results of this study delineated that direct impact of value co-creation on loyalty is marginal. The difference between the results of this study and others' findings may arise from structural characteristics of the service itself. For examples declare that type of the service is an important factor that influences the effect of customer participation on

future intentions. These scholars find that while participation in non-profit firms positively influences future intentions, this link in legal and financial firms is negative.

Additionally, it was supposed that value co-creation is positively related to sport life satisfaction, as the sixth hypothesis. Like the previous hypothesis, the relationship between helping other members and sport life satisfaction was not significant ($\beta=+.11$ with $p>.05$). However, the effect of compliance ($\beta=+.25$ with $p<.001$) and advocacy ($\beta=+.50$ with $p<.001$) on sport life satisfaction was positive and significant. Reviewing of the literature indicates that there is no any study towards the link between value co-creation and sport life satisfaction as a domain-specific satisfaction with life. But, it is reported that coproduction positively and significantly influences objective financial well-being (e.g., Mende and van Doorn, 2014) and customer effort in value co-creation activities significantly impacts quality of life (e.g., Sweeney et al., 2015).

Moreover, the significant effect of compliance on sport life satisfaction confirms the findings of other related studies. For example, Johnson, Veazie, Kochevar, O'Connor, Potthoff, Verma and Dutta (2002) show that patients' satisfaction increases if they comply with treatment. Likewise, the mentioned link is supported by Guo et al. (2013), Dellande et al. (2004), and Lin and Hsieh (2011). Furthermore, it is found that participation in value co-creation activities (e.g., Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014, Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013) and in online product recommendation agents (e.g., Dabholkar and Sheng, 2012), engagement in a Facebook brand community (e.g., Gummerus et al., 2012), and the degree of co-creation (e.g., Grisseemann and Stokburger-Sauer,

2012) result in customer satisfaction with services. Ritual behaviours in professional sports as fan engagement also increases fans' satisfaction (e.g., McDonald and Karg, 2014).

Surprisingly, the results of this study did not support the important role of customer-to-customer interactions (i.e., helping other members) in order to enhance customer sport life satisfaction and loyalty. Huang and Hsu (2010) maintain that the quality of customer-to-customer interactions is important to have satisfied customer. In other words, the quality of interactions is more important than the quantity of them. Another possible reason for insignificant effect can be due to unclear expectations that the club members have about customer-to-customer interactions within the service delivery period. For instance, the sport club members are likely not aware of how their experience and impression of the business may be influenced by other customers' behaviours until they receive positive or negative experience when interacting with the other members (Huang and Hsu, 2010).

In addition, with regard to the effect of helping behaviours on sport life satisfaction, there are two important factors that should be considered, according to Oarga, Stavrova and Fetchenhauer (2015). First, if the helping behaviours are driven by the expectation of reciprocity, rather than intrinsically motivated, then the influence of helping on well-being may weaken or even completely disappear when the helper has a high belief in reciprocity. Indeed, lower individual's beliefs in reciprocity leads to higher relationship between helping behaviours and well-being. The reason for

this is that lower reciprocity expectations means that people who participate in this type of behaviours are intrinsically motivated, rather than extrinsically.

Second, according to conformity with social norms perspective, external rewards such as social approval and recognition are important in driving helping behaviours. Actually, the link between helping activities and well-being is stronger if the benefits of social conformity (e.g., social approval) is higher. If engagement in helping behaviours is socially accepted then participants feel good about their contribution and about themselves. They also feel that their participation is in accordance with the ideal life. As a result, the mentioned factors may influence the link between offering helping and sport life satisfaction, although they are not assessed and analysed in the current study.

Additionally, the negative, but not significant, effect of helping other members on loyalty can be explained by the research context, as customer engagement is often determined by context (Bryce et al., 2015). Accordingly, attending at the fitness clubs means engaging in physical activities. Therefore, helping the other members needs pausing activities and planned fitness programmes, which in turn may result in negative outcomes. Yet, not much is known regarding the importance of customer-to-customer interactions in co-creation of value and its determinants and outcomes.

According to Brodie et al. (2013) and Vivek et al. (2012), customer engagement is related to relationship marketing. Relationship marketing is one of the most important concepts in marketing that determines the outcomes of relationships and

interactions between parties (Gronroos, 1994). In this respect, Lindgreen (2001) maintains that relationship marketing leads to customer satisfaction and customer delight. Relationship marketing posits that additional value for a customer and a service provider would be created through relationships (Gronroos, 2000). Therefore, firms need to hold relationships with their customers, otherwise they may lose values generated through co-creation (Verhoef et al., 2010).

One important issue in the sport context is that relationship marketing has not received enough attention by scholars (Bee and Kahle, 2006). This study has tried to bridge the gap by identifying the effect of value co-creation on customer loyalty and sport life satisfaction. It is already mentioned that value co-creation has little effect on loyalty, which is in line with some other studies. With regard to customer satisfaction, this effect is more important. Bowden (2009b) points out that customer satisfaction is one of the most fundamental constructs in the marketing theory and practice. Actually, the focus of customer engagement is on satisfying customers (Sashi, 2012). But, satisfaction obtained through value co-creation should be beneficial for both the fitness clubs and the members of the clubs, which is discussed in the following section.

6.2.5 Importance of Sport Life Satisfaction

Through the seventh hypothesis it was posited that sport life satisfaction positively influences customer loyalty. Findings supported the hypothesis because it was concluded that the relationship between sport life satisfaction and loyalty is significant ($\beta=+.24$ with $p<.05$). Based on the result, when the members of the

fitness centres feel that the service provider contributes to their leisure well-being and the quality of their sport life as well as attending at the centres enhances their self-confident and sense of accomplishment they prefer to stay with the service provider.

Although scholars have not paid enough attention to the effect of subjective well-being on customer loyalty (Chiu et al., 2013), the results of the present study is in line with the extant service literature. For example, the obtained significant association between sport life satisfaction and loyalty supports other relevant studies in which the effect of shopping well-being on mall loyalty (e.g., Chiu et al., 2013) and the impact of leisure life satisfaction on revisit intention (e.g., Kim et al., 2015) is significant and positive.

Additionally, the impact of customer satisfaction on loyalty is confirmed in different studies (e.g., Ferrand et al., 2010, Yang and Peterson, 2004). According to Fullerton (2005), it is generally agreed that brand satisfaction has positive effect on customer retention. In the sport sector, Cronin et al. (2000) find that customer satisfaction in spectator and participative sports has positive and significant effect on loyalty. As such, consumer satisfaction with transaction in the sport context positively influences attitudinal loyalty (e.g., Bodet and Bernache-Assollant, 2011).

This study contributes to a concern mentioned by Ferrand et al. (2010) regarding the necessity of further exploration on the effect of customer satisfaction on loyalty in the fitness industry. Furthermore, Pont and McQuilken (2005) note that although customer satisfaction and loyalty are very important issues for service providers,

their relationship is still debatable. The results of the current study delineate that the relationship between sport life satisfaction and loyalty is notable. Given the findings, it can be said that the members who feel that the fitness clubs contribute to their sport life satisfaction are more likely to experience positive emotions that motivate them to continue their membership.

Moreover, Pont and McQuilken (2005) point out that customer satisfaction is not enough for firms. But, it is useful when it leads to economic success. It is already mentioned that sport life satisfaction mediates the effect of value co-creation on loyalty. Other studies have also found the mediating role of customer satisfaction. For instance, it is concluded that well-being related to personal transportation positively influences customer loyalty through vehicle satisfaction (e.g., Sirgy et al., 2006).

As well, Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer (2012) find that the degree of co-creation positively increases customer satisfaction, which in turn enhances loyalty. Findings also confirm the results of another study by Nysveen and Pedersen (2014) who conclude that value co-creation influences brand satisfaction, which in turn leads to brand loyalty. Ennew and Binks (1999) also demonstrate that satisfaction as an outcome of participation significantly impacts loyalty. Unlike the findings of this study, Ennew and Binks find low relationship between participation and satisfaction. The reason can be application of difference forms of participation and different sample groups and context.

The last hypothesis of the study was: sport life satisfaction is positively related to overall life satisfaction. Like its effect on loyalty, sport life satisfaction had positive and significant impact on overall life satisfaction ($\beta=+.21$ with $p<.001$). Thus, being happy of this domain of subjective well-being results in enhanced overall satisfaction with life. Reviewing of the literature indicates that there is a scarce research that determines the effect of sport-related domains of life satisfaction on overall life satisfaction. Unlike Neal et al. (2007) who find a lack of significant effect of leisure life satisfaction on overall life satisfaction, Kim et al. (2015) show that leisure life satisfaction significantly impacts quality of life. Service satisfaction also positively and significantly influences quality of life (e.g., Dagger and Sweeney, 2006).

This part of the study is a reply to a research priority suggested by Ostrom et al. (2010) in which the improvement of consumer welfare through transformative service is emphasised. Transformative service research is related to the employee and customers' well-being (Anderson et al., 2013, Baron et al., 2014). Additionally, given that subjective well-being includes top-down approach and bottom-up approach, the later approach was used to identify overall life satisfaction formation. It is in line with the other research conducted by Gana et al. (2013), Lee et al. (2002), and Lung Hung et al. (2012). According to Gana et al. (2013), the bottom-up approach supposes that overall life satisfaction is the outcome of life events. Lee et al. (2002) also argue that the bottom-up approach is useful to develop policies to enhance customer well-being. Given the approach, it is theorised and supported that higher satisfaction in a specific domain of life, namely, sport life satisfaction, causes higher overall life satisfaction.

Lastly, it is emphasised that all stakeholders should benefit from the co-created value (Lusch and Webster, 2011). Although customers are not committed to improve their quality of life (Devezer, Sprott, Spangenberg and Czellar, 2014), Bagozzi and Natarajan (2000, p.6) state that “the ultimate aim of marketing is human happiness, both as a goal to be reached and a process of pursuit”. However, there is a paucity of research on customer well-being. This study is one of the first empirical studies to identify the effect of customer engagement behaviours on well-being. Nevertheless, the moderate effect of sport life satisfaction on overall life satisfaction indicates that there are many other factors around customers that influence their life satisfaction (cf. Sirgy et al., 2011).

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The central element of marketing is value creation (Ertimur and Venkatesh, 2010). It reflects the importance of creation of value in the service marketing. Therefore, the main purpose of this research was to investigate the antecedents and consequences of value co-creation. Service-dominant logic was used because it is a very influential school of thought in marketing and that it has provided perspectives and assumptions that underpin studies on the service systems (Baron et al., 2014). In addition, value co-creation has attracted attention of researchers who work on service-dominant logic (Hilton et al., 2012).

Further, the emphasis of value co-creation in the present study is on direct interactions (Hilton et al., 2012). As a result, compliance, advocacy, and helping other members were considered as the three important dimensions of value co-creation. Then, several hypotheses were proposed based on social cognitive theory, role theory, relationship marketing theory, well-being marketing, and service-dominant logic. Further, quantitative approach was chosen because most of the studies related to the service-dominant logic are at conceptual level (Baron and Warnaby, 2011). To obtain the research objectives, the data was collected amongst the members of the fitness centres by a survey. Then, the research hypotheses were tested through structural equation modelling using AMOS.

Importantly, although customer engagement in service delivery is studied, a lack of the empirical evidence in support of the models in the sport sector is a knowledge

gap in the marketing literature. Similarly, Woratschek et al. (2014) contend that although remarkable studies have explored customer behaviour in the sport settings, the role of the customer in the value-creation process is ignored. Therefore, an empirical research on value co-creation in the sport context was supposed to be necessary to advance the body of customer engagement knowledge.

The current chapter at first reviews the main aim, objectives and findings of the study. Next, it suggests theoretical and managerial implications in terms of the findings of this thesis. Then, the chapter argues some limitations of the conducted investigation. Last section introduces some directions for future studies.

7.2 Review of Aim, Objectives, and Findings of Study

It is already mentioned that two critical concerns in societies such as British are customer defection in the sport clubs and reduction of well-being. It was proposed that participation in value co-creative behaviours may positively influence customer loyalty and well-being. In addition, literature review indicated that determinants of value co-creation are not well-documented. Therefore, the main aim of the study was to investigate antecedents and consequences of value co-creation in the sport sector through the lens of service-dominant logic perspective. Furthermore, an objective of the study was to explore the effect of customer self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust on value co-creation. Identifying the impact of role clarity on trust was also one of the goals of the research. Another objective was to examine the impact of value co-creation on sport life satisfaction and loyalty. Last objective was to identify the effect of sport life satisfaction on loyalty and overall life satisfaction.

To obtain the objectives, a questionnaire for data collection was designed and developed through reviewing of the relevant literature, a pre-testing stage and a pilot-testing stage. Data was collected among 346 members of the fitness centres through the convenience sampling, but only 343 completed questionnaires were usable. Furthermore, the results of structural model using AMOS confirmed that all intended antecedents (self-efficacy, role clarity, trust) significantly and positively influence value co-creation dimensions (compliance, advocacy, helping other members), except for the effect of self-efficacy on compliance. Role clarity also significantly influenced customer trust. In addition, of the three dimensions of value co-creation only advocacy had significant effect on customer loyalty. As well, while compliance and advocacy had significant impacts on sport life satisfaction, the effect of helping other members on sport life satisfaction was insignificant. Finally, both customer loyalty and overall life satisfaction were significantly and positively influenced by sport life satisfaction.

7.3 Theoretical Implication

This study is a respond to the research calls by a number of marketing scholars. For instance, Hollebeek (2011b) and van Doorn et al. (2010) call to determine antecedents of customer engagement behaviours and interactions between the determinants. Similarly, Brodie et al. (2011) underscore the need for identifying antecedents and consequences of customer engagement in specific contexts. In addition, Dong et al. (2015) contend that there is a need for more research regarding the boundary conditions of customer engagement since the extant findings about the outcomes of customer participation are inconsistent. Further, this investigation

responds to the other research calls that recommend the need for identification of drivers (e.g., trust) of customer participation (Brodie et al., 2011, Dabholkar and Sheng, 2012, Polo Pena et al., 2014) as well as outcomes of value co-creation, particularly on the customer side (Brodie et al., 2011, Polo Pena et al., 2014).

As such, this research is a respond to two important research priorities suggested by Ostrom et al. (2010, p.4): “improving well-being through transformative service” and “enhancing the service experience through cocreation”. The importance of customer well-being and service experience and related research themes are also reviewed by Baron et al. (2014) and Kunz and Hogueve (2011). Additionally, the contribution of this study findings is to the concern of scholars such as Pedragosa and Correia (2009) who invite marketing researchers in the sport service sector to develop the models in which customer loyalty to the fitness clubs is explained. Given the mentioned justification for conducting the current study, different objectives and hypotheses were established and tested in this thesis.

One important implication of the research relates to the context of the study as customer engagement is often determined by context (Bryce et al., 2015). Researchers have been recommended by Meuter et al. (2005) to investigate customer engagement behaviours beyond the self-service setting. In addition, a systematic literature review by Galvagno and Dalli (2014) indicates that most of the empirical and theoretical studies on value co-creation have focused on the business-to-business setting. For this study the sport service sector and more precisely the

fitness industry was chosen because it is ignored by scholars who have explored customer engagement.

As such, not only the business-to-customer setting is considered but also different value co-creation interactions are also regarded, which are related to the customer and the service provider (compliance), the customer and others (advocacy), and the customer and the other customers (helping other members). Moreover, there is a scant empirical research on determinants of customer participation (Wu, 2011), particularly related to customer-to-customer relationships (Finsterwalder and Kuppelwieser, 2011).

In addition to customer self-efficacy and trust, the research findings particularly highlight the importance of customer role clarity since it not only directly and indirectly influences value co-creation, but also indirectly impacts sport life satisfaction, life satisfaction, and loyalty. In other words, role clarity positively and significantly influences all of the subsequent constructs. As a result, the findings shed light on the marketing theory that one of the most influential approaches in relationship marketing is clarification of customer's role. Additionally, previous studies have confirmed the direct and positive effect of customer trust on value co-creation (e.g., Choi, 2006, Davies et al., 2011, Payan and McFarland, 2005, Porter et al., 2013). This research not only supports the previous findings but also extends our understanding of this relationship through the effect of role clarity on customer trust as well.

Furthermore, Flores, Vasquez-Parraga and Biswas (2015) maintain that customer engagement in service delivery is rewarding when consumer participation simultaneously creates value for both the customer and the firm. Although there are remarkable studies on value co-creation as a process of value creation, an unanswered key question is that “what is actually being co-created” (Minkiewicz, Evans and Bridson, 2014, p.30). In this study, it is supposed that loyalty is the value co-created for the firm and well-being is the value co-created for the customer. It is already mentioned that nowadays one issue for the sport managers is customer retention. In other words, the managers need to find factors that positively influence customer loyalty. Given the research findings, one solution is facilitating and encouraging customer participation in value co-creation activities, especially engaging in advocacy activity. Enhancing customers’ self-efficacy, clarifying their roles, and improving their trust are also other important actions in order to have more loyal customers.

On the other hand, marketers have a critical task to create value for customers (Smith and Colgate, 2007). However, the issue is that while there are a number of studies regarding the link between value co-creation and loyalty (e.g., Bryce et al., 2015, Gummerus et al., 2012, Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014, Polo Pena et al., 2014, Sweeney et al., 2015), the benefits of service participation for customers are not well-documented. According to Dagger and Sweeney (2006), while both the economic and social outcomes of marketing are important, social outcomes have received limited attention by scholars. Similarly, Malhotra (2006) emphasises the

need for studying customer well-being through theories such as consumer behaviour and marketing.

It is also recommended by Leelanuithanit et al. (1991) to find the effect of marketing concepts (e.g., value co-creation) on customer well-being. The most important contribution of the current study is that it identifies the factors that enhance customer well-being. It means that the value co-created for the fitness centre members is enhanced well-being in the current research. Actually, this research contributes to the service science research priority suggested by Ostrom et al. (2010) through identifying the influential factors on consumer well-being. It is found that direct effect of customer advocacy and indirect impact of role clarity and trust are remarkable in order to enhance satisfaction with sport life. In turn, sport life satisfaction significantly improves overall life satisfaction. Given the stated discussion, one theoretical implication of this thesis is that the benefits for the both parties, the service provider and the customer, are regarded in the research conceptual model.

In addition, Vega-Vazquez et al.,’s (2013) suggest identification of consequences of customer satisfaction resulted from the value creation process. This research not only deals with the mentioned suggestion above but also it confirms the importance of customer satisfaction as a mediator factor to obtain important aims such as customer loyalty and well-being. In line with Dabholkar and Sheng (2012), the current study revealed that value co-creation does not directly influence loyalty but does so indirectly via satisfaction. Therefore, the present thesis contributes to the

customer participation literature by finding the mechanism through which value co-creation impacts loyalty. In particular, unlike most studies in which the focus is on service satisfaction (e.g., Dabholkar and Sheng, 2012, Gummerus et al., 2012, Nysveen and Pedersen, 2014, Sweeney et al., 2015), satisfaction with one domain of life satisfaction, namely sport life satisfaction, is regarded here. It seems that this study is one of the first studies that applies satisfaction with sport life to identify the relationships among the marketing concepts.

Also, Dagger and Sweeney (2006) encourage scholars to explore the effect of satisfaction with various life subdomains (e.g., leisure satisfaction) on quality of life. This study not only responds to the mentioned research call but also contributes to the body of research on well-being via introducing and applying a new construct of life satisfaction subdomain, namely, satisfaction with sport life. In this respect, another theoretical implication of the thesis is that it identifies antecedents of sport life satisfaction as a subdomain of life satisfaction by combining service-dominant logic perspective and transformative service approach. The noted approach is particularly related to services such as healthcare in which firms and consumers contribute to individuals' and societal well-being (Sweeney et al., 2015).

The notion that customers are able to co-create value in organisations is increasingly accepted in the marketing literature. But, Nysveen and Pedersen (2014) underscore that value co-creation should be carefully considered by managers to gain competitive advantages since it may negatively influence customer loyalty. Although not significant, this point of view was confirmed in the present study since

helping other members negatively influenced loyalty. The reasons for this negative relationship were already mentioned.

Importantly, although there are remarkable studies related to customer engagement and value co-creation, researchers have not determined which dimensions of customer engagement are more effective in the service science (Vivek et al., 2012). This study conceptualises value co-creation as both in-role (i.e., compliance) and extra-role (i.e., advocacy and helping other members) behaviours. By doing this, value co-creation activities is regarded as an interactive process in which the club, the customer, and other people are engaged in the interactions. The explanation for this type of conceptualisation is that it was supposed that different value co-creation dimensions may differently be influenced by their antecedents. As an evidence, Groth (2005) and Yen et al. (2011) find that in-role and extra-role behaviours are differently influenced by their predictors.

In addition, two dimensions of value co-creation pertaining to extra-role behaviours were selected here. The reason was that although there are remarkable studies about customer behaviour, extant research has paid a limited attention to behaviours that are beyond the customers' responsibility (Groth, 2005). In general, the findings of this study revealed that of the three dimensions of value co-creation, advocacy has the most important role in order to enhance customer loyalty and well-being.

Actually, this research model and findings significantly contribute to have a better understanding of value co-creation and its antecedents and consequences by

looking at different forms of value co-creation activities. Particularly, the study has considered a largely overlooked form of value co-creation behaviour, namely, compliance, while it is very crucial for the firms' performance (Verleye et al., 2013). In addition, the research empirically fills in two gaps in the service marketing literature mentioned by Guo et al. (2013). First, scholars have neglected to investigate how to engage customers in service delivery. Second, there is no empirical studies concerning how to improve customer well-being.

Also, according to Meuter et al. (2005), in some situations there is the possibility of data misinterpretation due to ignoring the mediating role of research constructs. The study has considered mediation effects as well. For example, the findings revealed that compliance has no any direct effect on loyalty. Therefore, the conclusion could be a lack of importance of compliance in loyalty improvement. However, it is found that compliance has a significant effect on sport life satisfaction, which in turn increases loyalty. In other words, compliance indirectly impacts loyalty.

In sum, this research empirically tests theoretical propositions and qualitative studies conducted by other scholars. For example, Bolton and Saxena-Iyer (2009) theorise a model that presents customer role clarity and capability influence participative behaviours, which lead to repurchase. This study also tests conceptual models suggested by Hollebeek (2011b), Kotze and Du Plessis (2003), and van Doorn et al. (2010), who recommend empirically investigation of their models. As such, the empirical results of the thesis demonstrate that the effect of the study constructs flows from value co-creation determinants to value co-creation dimensions, then to

loyalty and well-being. Specifically, this research determines the effect of an individual factor (self-efficacy) and two relational factors (role clarity and trust) on value co-creation, which in turn lead to benefits for both the customer and the service provider, that is, well-being and loyalty respectively. This is a noteworthy contribution to the marketing knowledge.

Theoretical implications of the current study relate to the sport marketing knowledge, in particular, to the fitness industry. Sport marketing is defined as “all activities designed to meet the needs and wants of sports consumers through exchange processes” (Mullin et al., 2000, p.5). With respect to marketing in the sport sector, Smith (2008) points out that marketing in sports is different from other sectors due to two important issues. First, sport products are often highly inconsistent and unpredictable (e.g., the outcome of a match). Second, sport products highly lead to emotional attachment and personal identification. Although antecedents and consequences of value co-creation in other sectors are studied, it is not well-documented in the sport sector, especially in the fitness industry context. In general, the theoretical implication of this research to the sport marketing literature is that this study:

- Responds to a number of research calls in the marketing literature (e.g., Hollebeek, 2011b, van Doorn, 2011) to identify the determinants and outcomes of customer value co-creation. Particularly, this investigation is conducted in a rarely investigated context, namely, the fitness industry.

- Offers a new concept, i.e., sport life satisfaction, to the sport marketing literature and identifies simultaneously its benefits for both the fitness clubs and the fitness club members.
- Develops the bottom-up approach of subjective well-being, in which it is supposed that satisfaction with domains of life (sport life satisfaction here) leads to overall life satisfaction.
- Explores the antecedents of customer well-being that identifying them is emphasised (e.g., Day and Montgomery, 1999, McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012, Ostrom et al., 2010).
- Shows that marketing actions such as value co-creation application in the fitness clubs should carefully be chosen. For example, the research findings reveal that activities such as helping other members does not lead to important outcomes.
- Regards different value co-creation interactions in the conceptual model: the customer and the service provider (compliance), the customer and others (advocacy), and the customer and the other customers (helping other members). It helps to make a better decision when deciding marketing actions in the fitness centres.

The research findings have also some implications for the managers of the fitness clubs, for the policy makers in the health-related areas, and for the customers who

want to improve further their psychological well-being through participation in the sport club services. These implications are explained in the next section.

7.4 Managerial Implication

Managers cannot ignore the significance of value creation in their business relationships (Baumann and Le Meunier-FitzHugh, 2014). In fact, companies need value creation programmes to survive (Lindgreen, 2001). Further, customer value co-creation has gradually become necessary for the service organisations that seek for sustainability (Hsiao et al., 2015). The mentioned argument indicates that why value and value creation have had a prominent role in the marketing studies (Haas, Snehota and Corsaro, 2012).

Essentially, researchers and managers have always tried to study the creation of value in businesses. One of the most recent approaches to create value is understanding value-creating processes through relationships (Haas et al., 2012). In this respect, it is stated that businesses need the customers who co-create value to gain competitive advantages (Payne et al., 2008, Zhang and Chen, 2008). But, Wu (2011) points out that it is difficult to manage customer participation because managers generally cannot reward and/or reprimand customers.

With regard to the sport sector, Uhrich (2014) contends that the knowledge of value co-creation practices is helpful to shape co-creation platforms that facilitate the execution of value creating practices. There are a number of important implications for the fitness club management through the model and findings of this study. The

research findings provide evidence in favour of applying value co-creation as an element in the fitness industry to improve customer well-being and loyalty.

Moreover, Aggarwal and Basu (2014) contend that identifying influential factors on value co-creation in the fitness clubs is fruitful not only for the members but also for the healthcare service entities (e.g., physicians, clinics and hospitals, and even governments). Indeed, the fitness club managers need to identify and improve the determinants of customer value co-creation to make sure that the positive outcomes will be obtained. In this regard, this research findings particularly show the importance of customer role clarity, in addition to customer self-efficacy and trust, in customer service participation. It is consistent with Yoo et al.'s (2012) suggestion that managers and employees need to clarify their customers' roles and give necessary information to consumers in order to engage them in the service process.

The important role of customer self-efficacy and role clarity on enhancing value co-creation is in line with the findings of Chathoth et al. (2014) who reveal that important barriers of customer engagement in the tourism service interactions are risk perception and a lack of information sharing. Given the findings, the fitness club managers should communicate with their customers, share needed information, and clarify the customers' roles to motivate the members to participate in the service delivery process. In fact, the clubs need a planned communication to enhance their relationships with their members. Grönroos (2004) specifies elements

such as direct and interactive communication, sales activities, mass communication activities, and public relations as planned communication.

In addition, one important function of role clarity is enhancing trust, which in turn facilitates service participation. According to Berry (1995, p.242), trust is “perhaps the single most powerful relationship marketing tool available to a company”. Trusting a firm and following it based on the established trust is a risky behaviour (Porter et al., 2013). Firms have a very important role in trust formation. For instance, a study by Porter et al. (2013) in the virtual communities indicates that firm-sponsored efforts have stronger effect on trust formation than member-generated information variables. Accordingly, trust in other party is necessary to invest into the relationships. As well, trust prevents opportunistic behaviour and actions for short-term advantages (Baumann and Le Meunier-FitzHugh, 2014). Given these arguments, the fitness club managers should focus on the improvement of both customer role clarity and trust to have positive outcomes of these enablers.

As well, one of the most important findings of the present study for the fitness centre managers is the role of customer-to-customer interactions to help each other at the centres. Given the context, it was revealed that helping other members not only has no any significant effect on sport life satisfaction but also negatively influences customer loyalty. Service-dominant logic assumes that the interactions between the service actors result in creating value. There are some controversies on the outcomes of such interactions. For example, Fyrberg and Jürriado (2009)

reveal that an interaction does not always result in creating value. Rather, it is the quality of interactions that determines the outcomes.

Also, it is pointed out that customer-to-customer interactions sometimes lead to value destruction (Chan, Yim and Lam, 2010, Echeverri and Skalen, 2011, Plé and Cáceres, 2010). Given the discussion and the research call by Vargo and Lusch (2008b) about developing service-dominant logic in marketing, this research contributes to the mentioned logic through its findings related to the outcome of helping other customers. As a result, it is not suggestible to the sport club managers to focus on this dimension of value co-creation due to its non-important role.

Further, one of the interests of relationship managers is the loyalty intentions of their existing customers (Gruen et al., 2006). Customer loyalty is a strategic business objective for organisations. Therefore, scholars have tried to identify factors that lead to loyalty formation (Polo Pena et al., 2014). Particularly, nowadays identification of influential factors on customer loyalty is very important since it is more complex than ever before to retain customers (Carter, 2008). Nevertheless, empirical studies about co-creation outcomes related to organisations (e.g., customer loyalty) is scarce (Verleye, 2015).

Related to the current study context, it is already mentioned that the fitness centre managers are struggling with customer defection. Consequently, a managerial implication of the study is that customer advocacy such as positive word-of-mouth has an essential role to enhance customer loyalty in the centres. As such, the research findings confirmed that self-efficacy, role clarity, and trust have

remarkable impact on advocacy. Considering the results, it can be recommended that the managers of fitness centres should have a strategy to increase these important determinants of loyalty as well.

The findings of the thesis also highlight the importance of customer satisfaction in order to obtain positive outcomes. It is already mentioned that sport life satisfaction has a mediating role in the research conceptual model to link value co-creation with loyalty. As a result, people who manage the fitness centres should have special attention to improvement different aspects of customer satisfaction. Lastly, understanding the value of quality of life resulted from service delivery is fundamental to broaden the scope of marketing (Dagger and Sweeney, 2006).

Accordingly, being aware that customers are able to improve their well-being through value co-creation behaviours is important not only for the customers themselves but also for the managers of service firms (Sweeney et al., 2015). The findings of the current study is in line with the recommendation by Lung Hung et al. (2012) that the managers of sport organisations should provide a situation in which customers can experience services. By doing so, two important outcomes of service participation would be customer loyalty and well-being, which mentioned that both are the issues in societies nowadays.

In sum, main practical implications of the current study for the fitness centre managers are as follows:

- Value co-creation is helpful for the fitness centres. So, the fitness club managers should apply this marketing phenomenon.
- Role clarity and customer advocacy are very important to have positive outcomes. Improving these variables leads to more benefits for the fitness centres.
- In contrast, helping behaviour is not suggestible. Accordingly, the fitness clubs should have enough staff to assistance the members, so that the members do not need the other members' help.
- Sport life satisfaction has an important role to have a better outcomes from value co-creation activities. So, the managers should have special attention to it.

7.5 Limitations and Future Research Directions

7.5.1 Research Limitations

Although this study offers significant insights into the antecedents and the consequences of value co-creation in the sport services context, like most studies it includes several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the hypothesised sequence of the effects should be tested through a longitudinal study since cross-sectional data can be tenuous (Eisingerich and Bell, 2006). But, cross-sectional study was used because of time and fund constraints.

Second, due to a lack of access to the database of the fitness club members for randomly selection of the sample, the non-probability sampling technique (i.e., convenience sampling) was applied. As a result, the sample population may not have been the representative of the entire population of the fitness club members. It may influence the generalisability of the results (Hedlund, 2014). Third, the current research has studied customer value co-creation from the customer's perspective, whilst the fitness centres (e.g., managers, staff) and other entities (e.g., governments, organisations, marketers) can also co-create value in the service delivery process by integrating resources.

Lastly, an issue in value co-creation studies to identify relationships is that research participation is a sort of engagement in value creation. It may lead to the reduction of sample variance since very low co-creating people do not return the surveys. As a result, the variance will be restricted and relationships would be difficult to be interpreted (Guo et al., 2013). But, the issue does not seem to be a threat in the current study. The reason is that not only four intended relationships were insignificant but also activities such as helping the other members had a very low effect on its outcomes (cf. Guo et al., 2013).

7.5.2 Future Research Directions

Given the limitations of the present study and an extensive review of the relevant literature, some recommendations for future research are mentioned as follows. In this thesis only the fitness centres were studied to avoid possible systematic and random noise resulted from different sport clubs, as well as to construct the internal

validity of the suggested model (Eisingerich and Bell, 2006). It would be interesting to extend the study to the other sport contexts to obtain additional support and enhance the generalisability of the findings.

Furthermore, in this study behavioural dimensions of value co-creation are applied. An interesting path for the future research is the study of other dimensions of customer engagement such as cognitive and emotional engagement (Brodie et al., 2011, Hollebeek, 2011a, Vivek, 2009). In addition, there are further dimensions of behavioural value co-creation that are worthwhile to be considered. For instance, identifying antecedents and consequences of information seeking (Yi and Gong, 2013, Yoo et al., 2012), information sharing (Brodie et al., 2013, McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012), giving feedback (Bijmolt et al., 2010, van Doorn et al., 2010), and tolerance (Bettencourt, 1997, Yi and Gong, 2013) helps to contribute further to the customer engagement knowledge. Similarly, examining different dimensions of trust and loyalty, and different domains of life satisfaction can be suggested.

Moreover, this research has explored customer engagement from a positive perspective. However, some scholars indicate the possibility of devaluation processes (e.g., Jaworski and Kohli, 2006, Woodruff and Flint, 2006) and value co-destruction (e.g., Echeverri and Skalen, 2011, Gregoire et al., 2009, Plé and Cáceres, 2010, Worthington and Durkin, 2012) during consumer engagement. For instance, consumers may have negative word-of-mouth (Bijmolt et al., 2010, Plé and Cáceres, 2010, Smith, 2013, van Doorn et al., 2010, Verhoef et al., 2010, Wei et al., 2013), complain to a third party (Bijmolt et al., 2010, Plé and Cáceres, 2010, Pont and

McQuilken, 2005, Smith, 2013, van Doorn et al., 2010, Zeithaml et al., 1996), or switch to another company (Plé and Cáceres, 2010, Smith, 2013, van Doorn et al., 2010, Zeithaml et al., 1996). In the sport sector customers may destroy value through protesting against perceived unfairness, highlighting perceived injustice, or refusing to comply with requests (Mackellar, 2015). As a result, future research is valuable to investigate antecedents and consequences of the mentioned negative engagement behaviours as value destructive activities.

In addition, scholars have focused on customer engagement so far. A knowledge gap in the literature is that customer disengagement and its antecedents and consequences are not well-explored (Bowden, Gabbott and Naumann, 2015). In fact, it is interesting to find out why customers do not contribute to services and what the outcomes of this disengagement are, even if a service provider tries to engage its customers in the service delivery process. Similarly, another worthwhile research stream is the study of negative consequences of value co-creation. For example, Gebauer, Fueller and Pezzeri (2013) conclude that perceived unfairness and dissatisfaction with the outcome of online innovation participation lead to negative behaviour such as negative word-of-mouth.

As well, although there are remarkable studies regarding the antecedent predictors of value co-creation, identification of further firm-related enablers can help managers to have a better understanding of their marketing policies. In this regard, a recently introduced concept so-called service-dominant orientation (Karpen et al., 2012) can be suggested. This concept consists of six subconstructs including

relational, ethical, individuated, empowered, developmental, and concerted interaction capabilities. These capabilities enable organisations to co-create value through service exchanges with their partners (Karpen et al., 2015). Therefore, future research should investigate the effect of these firm-related capabilities on customer engagement behaviours.

Further, scholars have notably investigated the importance of customer engagement in the service delivery process. However, the effect of customer engagement, particularly different types of participative behaviours, on employees is not well-documented. For instance, it is illustrated that while customer participation behaviours significantly influence employees' satisfaction, customer citizenship behaviours have no such a significant impact (Yi et al., 2011). Therefore, studies that investigate the effect of customer engagement on employees may have remarkable contribution to the marketing literature, especially if the studies differentiate the impact of different types of engagement behaviours. As such, in line with Bolton and Saxena-Iyer (2009) and Yi et al. (2011), it can be mentioned that it is interesting to determine the effect of customer participation on firm performance such as sales, profits, revenues, shareholder value, financial performance, and market share.

Moreover, Huang and Hsu (2010) point out that customer-to-customer interactions in service experience is not well-explored by the marketing scholars yet. According to Uhrich (2014), the first step for the development of the approaches that involve team sports firms in customer-to-customer value co-creation is identifying and

classifying customer-to-customer value co-creation platforms. Customer-dominant logic is a recently emerged logic by scholars such as Heinonen, Strandvik and Voima (2013), Heinonen, Strandvik, Mickelsson, Edvardsson, Sundstrom and Andersson (2010), and Rihova et al. (2013). According to Rihova et al. (2013), the logic is helpful to understand customer-to-customer value co-creation in the service delivery process.

As well, related to this study setting, customer-dominant logic advances further service-dominant logic's view of the value created from the social experiences and practices among consumers. Given the application of helping other customers as a dimension of value co-creation, the current study can bridge service-dominant logic and customer-dominant logic. By considering the importance of context on the outcomes of customer-to-customer interactions, further studies on different contexts and customer segments are needed to explore the consequences of this type of interactions.

Additionally, Heinonen et al. (2010) mention notable theoretical and managerial challenges resulted from adopting customer-dominant logic. The challenges consist of scope of customer experience, company involvement, visibility of value creation, company control in co-creation, and character of customer experience. Consequently, future studies can further discover the contribution of customer-to-customer interactions in service participation using both service-dominant logic and customer-dominant logic.

Lastly, customer life satisfaction is investigated in the present research as a positive aspect of customer well-being. Future studies should identify the effect of value co-creation on other positive aspects of subjective well-being such as positive affect (Busseri and Sadava, 2011). Similarly, it is worthwhile to study negative aspect of customer well-being such as negative affect (Busseri and Sadava, 2011).

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Appendix A

Outline of the Literature Related to Customer Participation

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Ennew and Binks (1999)	Banking				Personal interaction Information sharing Responsible behavior	Customer satisfaction ^{Con.}	Customer retention ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links
Keh and Teo (2001)	Shopping setting				Customer participation Customer cooperation	Satisfaction	Loyalty		Theoretical model development	---
(Scherer and Bruce, 2001)	Medical Regimen	Self-efficacy ^{Ant.}			Compliance				Quantitative	Insignificant link
Johnson et al. (2002)	Healthcare				Patient compliance	Satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant link
Kotze and Du Plessis (2003)	Education setting	Ability ^{Ant.}	Role clarity ^{Ant.}		Participation	Overall satisfaction ^{Con.}	Loyalty ^{Con.}		Theoretical model development	---
Dellande et al. (2004)	Healthcare services	Ability ^{Ant.}	Role clarity ^{Ant.}		Compliance	Customer satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant links
Meuter et al. (2005)	Use of self-service technologies	Ability ^{Ant.}	Role clarity ^{Ant.}		Trial use of self-service technologies				Quantitative	Significant links
Eisingerich and Bell (2006)	Financial services				Customer participation		Loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant link
McKee et al. (2006)	Healthcare plan	Self-efficacy ^{Ant.}			Compliant intention				Quantitative	Significant link
Choi (2006)	Electronics company			Trust ^{Ant.}	Helping behaviour				Quantitative	Significant link

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Gruen et al. (2006)	Internet user forum	Ability ^{Ant.}			Customer-to-customer know how exchange		Repurchase intention ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant link, except for the link between know how exchange and repurchase intention
Gruen et al. (2007)	Conference attendance	Ability ^{Ant.}			Customer-to-customer exchange		Loyalty intentions ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links
Dong et al. (2008)	Service recovery	Customer's ability for future co-creation ^{Con.}	Customer's role clarity for future co-creation ^{Con.}		Customer participation in service recovery	Satisfaction with service recovery ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant links, except for the link between participation and ability
Xie et al. (2008)	Food presumption	Self-efficacy ^{Ant.}			Prosumption intention				Quantitative	Significant link
Fuller et al. (2009)	New product development			Trust ^{Ant.}	Intention of future participation				Quantitative	Insignificant link
Westjohn, Arnold, Magnusson, Zdravkovic and Zhou (2009)		Technology readiness ^{Ant.}			Technology usage				Quantitative	Significant link
Bolton and Saxena-Iyer (2009)	Interactive services	Capabilities ^{Ant.}	Role clarity ^{Ant.}		Consumer participative behaviours		Repeat purchase ^{Con.}		Theoretical model development	---

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Verhoef et al. (2010)	---				Word of mouth Co-creation Blogging Rating		Customer retention ^{Con.}		Theoretical model development	Significant link
van Doorn et al. (2010)	---			Trust ^{Ant.}	Customer engagement	Satisfaction ^{Ant.}			Theoretical model development	---
Hoyer et al. (2010)	New product development				Degree of cocreation	Relationship satisfaction ^{Con.}			Theoretical model development	---
Garma and Bove (2011)	---				Customer citizenship behaviour			Service employee well-being ^{Con.}	Qualitative	Significant links
Hollebeek (2011b)	---			Trust ^{Con.}	Customer brand engagement	Satisfaction ^{Con.}	Loyalty ^{Con.}		Theoretical model development	---
Yen et al. (2011)	Online community of consumption	Technology readinss ^{Ant.}			Customer participation (in-role, extra-role)				Quantitative	Significant links
Yi et al. (2011)	Household electronic firm				Customer participation behaviour Customer citizenship behaviour	Employee satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant links, except for the link customer citizenship behaviour and satisfaction
Cermak et al. (2011)	Charitable trusts				Customer participation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}	Future intention ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Lin and Hsieh (2011)	High-contact services				Customer compliance	Satisfaction ^{Con.}	Future interaction ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links
Wu (2011)	Tourism				Customer participation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Insignificant links
Lewis et al. (2011)	Education setting				Student engagement (behavioral, emotional, cognitive)			Life satisfaction ^{Con.}	Quantitative	Only significant link between cognitive engagement and life satisfaction
Davies et al. (2011)	Franchised automobile repair service		Conflict ^{Ant.}	Trust ^{Ant.}	Compliance	Satisfaction ^{Ant.}			Quantitative	Significant links
Vivek et al. (2012)	Different industries and groups			Trust ^{Con.}	Customer engagement		Loyalty ^{Con.}		Qualitative	---
Yoo et al. (2012)	Hospital setting		Role clarity ^{Ant.}		Customer Participation	Service encounter satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant links
Gummerus et al. (2012)	Facebook brand community				Engagement Behaviours (community and transactional)	Customer satisfaction ^{Con.}	Loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Only significant link between community engagement and satisfaction
Griseemann and Stokburger-Sauer (2012)	Tourism industry				Degree of co-creation	Satisfaction with the company ^{Con.}	Loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links
McColl-Kennedy et al. (2012)	Healthcare				Value co-creation			Quality of life ^{Con.}	Qualitative	---

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Sun and Rueda (2012)	Distance education	Computer self-efficacy ^{Ant.}			Student engagement (behavioural, emotional, cognitive)				Quantitative	Insignificant links
Roggeveen et al. (2012)	Airport service recovery				Co-creation in service recovery	Recovery process Satisfaction ^{Con.}	Repurchase intentions ^{Con.}		Scenario-based experiments	Significant links
Dabholkar and Sheng (2012)	Online product recommendation agents			Trust ^{Con.}	Customer participation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}	Purchase Intention ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links, except for the link between participation and purchase intention
Guo et al. (2013)	Financial services	Task mastery ^{Ant.}	Role clarity ^{Ant.}		Compliance	Customer satisfaction ^{Con.}		Financial Well-being ^{Con.}	Quantitative	Significant links
Wirtz et al. (2013)	Online brand community				Online brand community engagement	Online brand community satisfaction ^{Con.} Brand satisfaction ^{Con.}	Online brand community loyalty ^{Con.} Brands loyalty ^{Con.}		Theoretical model development	---
Brodie et al. (2013)	Virtual brand community			Trust ^{Con.}	Consumer engagement	Customer satisfaction ^{Con.}	Loyalty ^{Con.}		Qualitative	---
Vega-Vazquez et al. (2013)	Beauty parlor and personal care sector				Value co-creation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant link
Gallan et al. (2013)	Healthcare				Customer participation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant link
McDonald and Karg (2014)	Professional sports				Ritual behaviours	Fan satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant link

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Selmer et al. (2013)	Education setting		Group relational conflict ^{Ant.} Task conflict ^{Ant.}	Trust ^{Ant.}	Academic staff engagement				Quantitative	Significant links
Porter et al. (2013)	Virtual communities			Trust (benevolence, integrity, judgement) ^{Ant.}	Customer advocacy				Quantitative	Significant links, except for the link between judgement trust and advocacy
Chughtai and Buckley (2013)	Scientific research			Trust (in top management, in team memebrs) ^{Ant.}	Work engagement				Quantitative	Insignificant links
Verleye et al. (2013)	Nursing home Sector		Customer role readiness ^{Ant.}		Customer engagement behaviours				Quantitative	Significant link
So et al. (2014)	Hotel and airline settings				Customer engagement		Behavioral intention of loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant link
Eisingerich et al. (2014)	Financial services				Participation Word of mouth	Customer satisfaction ^{Ant.}			Quantitative	Significant links
Bharti et al. (2014)	---	Ability ^{Ant.}	Customer role clarity ^{Ant.}	Trust ^{Ant.}	Value co-creation				Qualitative	---
See-To and Ho (2014)	Social network sites			Trust ^{Ant.}	Value co-creation		Purchase Intention ^{Con.}		Theoretical model development	---
Polo Pena et al. (2014)	Rural tourism sector				Value co-creation		Loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant link

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Nysveen and Pedersen (2014)	Banking context				Co-creation	Brand satisfaction ^{Con.}	Brand loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links
Aggarwal and Basu (2014)	Fitness industry				Customer effort as value co-creation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant link
Yoshida et al. (2014)	Spectator sport				Fan engagement (prosocial behaviour)		Purchase intention ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Insignificant link
Hedlund (2014)	Sport fan consumption communities				Fan participation		Purchase intentions ^{Con.} Attendance intentions ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links
Agarwal (2014)	Manufacturing and pharmaceutical organisations			Trust ^{Ant.}	Work engagement				Quantitative	Significant link
Mende and van Doorn (2014)	Financial counseling				Customer coproduction			Objective financial well-being ^{Con.}	Quantitative	Significant link
Heidenreich and Handrich (2015)	Mobile apps	Self-efficacy ^{Ant.}			Willingness to co-create				Quantitative	Significant link
Park and Ha (2015)	Hotel reservation failure				Evaluation of co-creation experience		Loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant links through effect and equity factors
Verleye (2015)	New product and service development		Customer Role Readiness ^{Ant.}		Co-Creation Experience Overall Co-Creation				Quantitative	Significant links, except for the hedonic experience

Appendix A Continued

Source	Context	Self-efficacy	Role Clarity	Trust	Participation Behaviour	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Well-being	Research Method	Results
Hsiao et al. (2015)	Tourism (Hotel)	Employee Self-efficacy ^{Ant.}			Responsible Behaviour (Compliance) Advocacy Helping				Quantitative	Significant links
Dong et al. (2015)	Internet setup	Perceived ability ^{Ant.}			Customer participation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}			Quantitative	Significant links
Bryce et al. (2015)	Tourism				Visitor engagement		Visitor Loyalty ^{Con.}		Quantitative	Significant link
Sweeney et al. (2015)	Healthcare				Customer effort in value co-creation	Satisfaction ^{Con.}	Behavioural intention ^{Con.}	Quality of life ^{Con.}	Quantitative	Significant links

Ant.= Antecedent of Customer Participation, Con.=Consequence of Customer Participation

Appendix B

Strengths and Weaknesses of Quantitative Research

Strengths:

Testing and validating already constructed theories about how (and to a lesser degree, why) phenomena occur.

Testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data are collected. Can generalize research findings when the data are based on random samples of sufficient size.

Can generalize a research finding when it has been replicated on many different populations and subpopulations.

Useful for obtaining data that allow quantitative predictions to be made.

The researcher may construct a situation that eliminates the confounding influence of many variables, allowing one to more credibly assess cause-and-effect relationships.

Data collection using some quantitative methods is relatively quick (e.g., telephone interviews).

Provides precise, quantitative, numerical data.

Data analysis is relatively less time consuming (using statistical software).

The research results are relatively independent of the re-searcher (e.g., effect size, statistical significance).

It may have higher credibility with many people in power (e.g., administrators, politicians, people who fund programs).

It is useful for studying large numbers of people.

Weaknesses:

The researcher's categories that are used may not reflect local constituencies' understandings.

The researcher's theories that are used may not reflect local constituencies' understandings.

The researcher may miss out on phenomena occurring because of the focus on theory or hypothesis testing rather than on theory or hypothesis generation (called the confirmation bias).

Knowledge produced may be too abstract and general for direct application to specific local situations, contexts, and individuals.

Source: Adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.19)

Strengths and Weaknesses of Qualitative Research

Strengths:

The data are based on the participants' own categories of meaning.

It is useful for studying a limited number of cases in depth.

It is useful for describing complex phenomena.

Provides individual case information.

Can conduct cross-case comparisons and analysis.

Provides understanding and description of people's personal experiences of phenomena (i.e., the "emic" or insider's viewpoint).

Can describe, in rich detail, phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local contexts.

The researcher identifies contextual and setting factors as they relate to the phenomenon of interest.

The researcher can study dynamic processes (i.e., documenting sequential patterns and change).

The researcher can use the primarily qualitative method of "grounded theory" to generate inductively a tentative but explanatory theory about a phenomenon.

Can determine how participants interpret "constructs" (e.g., self-esteem, IQ).

Data are usually collected in naturalistic settings in qualitative research.

Qualitative approaches are responsive to local situations, conditions, and stakeholders' needs.

Qualitative researchers are responsive to changes that occur during the conduct of a study (especially during extended fieldwork) and may shift the focus of their studies as a result.

Qualitative data in the words and categories of participants lend themselves to exploring how and why phenomena occur.

One can use an important case to demonstrate vividly a phenomenon to the readers of a report.

Determine idiographic causation (i.e., determination of causes of a particular event).

Weaknesses:

Knowledge produced may not generalize to other people or other settings (i.e., findings may be unique to the relatively few people included in the research study).

It is difficult to make quantitative predictions.

It is more difficult to test hypotheses and theories.

It may have lower credibility with some administrators and commissioners of programs.

It generally takes more time to collect the data when compared to quantitative research.

Data analysis is often time consuming.

The results are more easily influenced by the researcher's personal biases and idiosyncrasies.

Source: Adapted from Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.20)

Appendix C

Original Measures and Sources

Factor/Measures	Sources
Role Clarity	
I feel certain about how to effectively use the SST.	Meuter et al. (2005)
I know what is expected of me if I use the SST.	Meuter et al. (2005)
I feel certain about how much authority I have for using hospital services.	Yoo et al. (2012)
I know what my responsibilities are for using hospital services.	Yoo et al. (2012)
When I am at the hospital, explanations of what has to be done are clear.	Yoo et al. (2012)
Directions are vague regarding how to use this SST.	Dong et al. (2008)
Self-efficacy	
I have confidence in my ability to participate effectively.	Yim et al. (2012)
I have excellent participation skills and ability.	Yim et al. (2012)
I am proud of my participation skills and ability.	Yim et al. (2012)
I do not doubt my ability to participate effectively.	Yim et al. (2012)
I think my performance in this online training is optimal.	van Beuningen et al. (2011)
My past experiences increase my confidence that I will be able to successfully use the SST.	Meuter et al. (2005)
Compliance	
I performed all the tasks that are required.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I adequately completed all the expected behaviors.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I fulfilled responsibilities to the business.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I follow the service provider's instructions.	Lin and Hsieh (2011)
I always accept advice from the service provider.	Lin and Hsieh (2011)
I/FMs help the organization with those things that are required.	Verleye et al. (2014)
Advocacy	
Say positive things.	Zeithaml et al. (1996)
Recommend company.	Zeithaml et al. (1996)

Appendix C Continued

Factor/Measures	Sources
I encouraged friends and relatives to use XYZ.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I would be willing to defend <team name> publicly, even if it caused controversy.	Biscaia et al. (2013)
Defend _____ when someone says something negative.	Walz and Celuch (2010)
Even if my close friends recommended following another team, I would not stop following [Team name].	Doyle et al. (2013)
Helping other Members	
I assist other customers if they need my help.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I help other customers if they seem to have problems.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I teach other customers to use the service correctly.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I give advice to other customers.	Yi and Gong (2013)
I/FMs assist other customers in finding their way within the NH.	Verleye et al. (2013)
I/FMs explain to other customer which services are provided by the organization	Verleye et al. (2013)
Sport Life Satisfaction	
This luxury cruise met my overall well-being needs.	Hwang and Han (2014)
This luxury cruise played a very important role in my social well-being.	Hwang and Han (2014)
This luxury cruise played an important role in my travel wellbeing.	Hwang and Han (2014)
This luxury cruise played an important role in enhancing my quality of life.	Hwang and Han (2014)
My leisure activities are very interesting to me.	Beard and Ragheb (1980)
My leisure activities give me self-confidence.	Beard and Ragheb (1980)
My leisure activities give me a sense of accomplishment.	Beard and Ragheb (1980)
I use many different skills and abilities in my leisure activities.	Beard and Ragheb (1980)
Trust	
I trust the (Team Name).	Kim et al. (2011)
The (Team Name) is reliable .	Kim et al. (2011)

Appendix C Continued

Factor/Measures	Sources
I can count on the (Team Name).	Kim et al. (2011)
In my experience, the LCA is very reliable.	Akamavi et al. (2015)
Most of what the LCA says about its products is true.	Akamavi et al. (2015)
It has always kept its promises.	Moliner et al. (2007)
The club is concerned about my well-being.	Moliner et al. (2007)
Life Satisfaction	
In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	Diener et al. (1985)
The conditions of my life are excellent.	Diener et al. (1985)
I am satisfied with my life.	Diener et al. (1985)
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	Diener et al. (1985)
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	Diener et al. (1985)
Although I have my ups and downs, in general, I feel good about my life.	Sirgy et al. (2011)
I lead a meaningful and fulfilling life.	Diener et al. (1985)
Loyalty	
Consider XYZ your first choice to buy services.	Zeithaml et al. (1996)
Do more business with XYZ in the next few years.	Zeithaml et al. (1996)
The probability that I will renew my membership is ...	Bodet (2012)
I consider myself to be a loyal patron of XYZ airline.	Pritchard et al. (1999)
I consider myself as a regular customer of the LCA.	Akamavi et al. (2015)
I prefer to fly with this LCA as opposed to competitors.	Akamavi et al. (2015)

Appendix D

Dear Sir/Madam,

As a PhD student in Sports Marketing at the University of Hull, I need to validate the attached questionnaire in order to collect data among my research participants who are the fitness club members. I would be grateful if you kindly give me feedback regarding the following aspects of the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your time and comments.

Best regards,

Javad

No.	Comment
1	Do you think 10-15 minutes time is enough to fill out the questionnaire? If no, please indicate your comment.
2	Do you think the questionnaire has proper layout? If no, please indicate your comment.
3	Is the sequence of statements proper? If no, please indicate your comment.
4	Is it clear how to fill out the questionnaire? If no, please indicate your comment.
5	Is any vague word in the questionnaire? If yes, please indicate.
6	Is any vague statement in the questionnaire? If yes, please indicate.
7	Are the statements suitable to assess the research constructs? If no, please indicate your comment.
8	If there is any additional, useful comment, please indicate it.

Appendix E

Hull University Business School
Hull, UK, HU6 7RX
Email: businessschool@hull.ac.uk
Tel: 01482 346311

To whom it may concern,

Ref.: Research Survey

I am Javad, a Doctoral student in Sport Marketing under the supervision of Dr. Akamavi at the University of Hull. My research study explores the level of customer's role clarity and self-efficacy in value co-creation, consequently their effects on well-being and loyalty. Value co-creation is a new topic in marketing so that nowadays many organisations, firms and companies try to apply it in order to create value for themselves and their customers. However, this concept is not well-documented in the sport context. Hence, this study aims to collect data from sport club members. Therefore, I am seeking your support to access your club members for this survey. Your club members' views/opinions are very important in order to achieve the objectives of my study and at data analysis stage.

Moreover, my research is approved by the University Research Ethics Committee. I would be grateful if you kindly give me the opportunity to collect a part of my data at your club. As my appreciation for your help, I will give you a summary of the findings in order to understand more customers' behaviours and attitudes. Hopefully, your help and the research's results contribute to a better service delivery knowledge in the sport setting. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor (Tel: 01482 463494). My supervisor (Dr. Akamavi) and I are the only people who will have access to the gathered data for academic purposes. The data will be kept confidentially and analysed anonymously.

Yours Sincerely,
Javad Yousefian
Email: J.Yousefian@2011.hull.ac.uk

Supervisor's Endossement:

Appendix F



Mr Javad Yousefian

Hull University Business School
Research and Enterprise Office
T +44(0)1482 463536
E h.carpenter@hull.ac.uk

Ref: HUBSREC 2012/30

5 December 2012

Dear Javad

Re: Customer Engagement in the Sport Service Sector: Antecedents and Consequences of Value Co-creation and Value Co-destruction.

Thank you for your research ethics application.

I am pleased to inform you that on behalf of the Business School Research Ethics Committee at the University of Hull, Dr Wen-Ling Liu has approved your application on 5 December 2012.

I wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely,

Hilary Carpenter
Secretary,
Research Ethics Committee



Hull University Business School
University of Hull
Hull, HU6 7RX
United Kingdom

School reception
+44 (0) 1482 347500
www.hull.ac.uk/hubs

Appendix G

ENGAGEMENT IN THE SERVICE DELIVERY PROCESS IN THE SPORT CLUBS

Antecedents and Consequences of Value Co-creation Behaviours



Hull University Business School
Hull, UK, HU6 7RX
Email: businessschool@hull.ac.uk
Tel: 01482 346311

Dear Club's Member,

I am a PhD student in Sports Marketing at the University of Hull. I need your help in my study to identify potential enablers and outcomes of customer engagement behaviours in the service delivery process in the sport clubs. Studies indicate the reduction of British citizens' well-being and customer defection in the sport clubs in the UK. Given these concerns, this research rationale is to identify a practical manner to deal with these issues.

Your responses to this questionnaire should take you around 10 minutes. I would be grateful if you kindly return the completed questionnaire to the sport club you take it by 20/12/2014.

Your answers will be treated entirely confidential, analysed anonymously, and used for my PhD degree research.

As a token of my appreciation, it is intended to offer £25 to two participants who will be selected through drawing. If you would like this offer, please write your email address or phone number at the end of this questionnaire. Moreover, if you would like to receive a summary of the research's findings or you have any questions, please contact me via email at J.Yousefian@2011.hull.ac.uk.

Yours Sincerely,
J. Yousefian

Important: Please note that to fill out this questionnaire you must have at least one month membership at a sport club.

Part 1: Please mark the right choice.

1. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Age: Less than 22 years ☐ 22 - 27 years ☐ 28 - 35 years ☐ More than 35 years ☐
3. How long have you been a member of the club? 1-6 month(s) ☐ 7-11 months ☐
(It must be at least one month) One- One and half year ☐ More than one and half year ☐
4. How often per week do you go to the club? Once ☐ Twice ☐ Three times ☐ Four times or above ☐

Part 2: Please circle the appropriate number to indicate your agreement or disagreement level with the statements that are related to the level of your participation in collaborative behaviours in the sport club you have a membership.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I perform all required tasks in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I adequately complete all the expected behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I fulfil my responsibilities to the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I follow the club staff's instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
I help the club's staff with those actions that are required.	1	2	3	4	5
I always accept advice from the club's staff.	1	2	3	4	5
I say positive things about the club to other people.	1	2	3	4	5
I recommend the club to someone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5
I encourage friends and relatives to do business with the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I defend the club against critics, even if its services are not satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5
I defend the club when someone says something negative about it.	1	2	3	4	5
I would not cancel my membership, even if my friends recommend me another sport club.	1	2	3	4	5
I assist the other members of the club if they need my help.	1	2	3	4	5
I help the other members of the club if they seem to have problems.	1	2	3	4	5
I teach the other members of the club on how to correctly use the club's facilities.	1	2	3	4	5
I give advice to the other members of the club when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
I assist the other members of the club in finding the facilities.	1	2	3	4	5
I explain to the other members of the club which services are provided by the club.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 3: Given the mentioned behaviours in the previous part (Part 2), please circle the appropriate number to indicate your agreement or disagreement level with the statements.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel certain about how to effectively participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel certain about how much authority I have to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I know what is expected of me if I participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I know what my responsibilities are to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
The club's information is clear about how to participate in collaborative behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5
I am aware of what is my role as a service recipient in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I have confidence in my ability to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I have excellent skills and ability to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I am proud of my skills and ability to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not doubt my ability to participate in the collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I think my performance in participation in collaborative behaviours in the club is optimal.	1	2	3	4	5
My past experiences increase my confidence to participate in collaborative behaviours in the club.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 4: Please circle the appropriate number to indicate your agreement or disagreement level with the statements.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
The club satisfies my overall sport needs.	1	2	3	4	5
The club plays a very important role in my leisure well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
The club plays an important role in enhancing the quality of my sport life.	1	2	3	4	5
I am generally happy with the quality of my leisure time in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
My sport activities in the club are very interesting to me.	1	2	3	4	5
My sport activities in the club give me self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
My sport activities in the club give me a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5
I use many different skills and abilities in my sport activities in the club.	1	2	3	4	5
In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5
The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5
So far, I have gotten the important things I want in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5
Although I have my ups and downs, in general, I feel good about my life.	1	2	3	4	5
I lead a meaningful and fulfilling life.	1	2	3	4	5
I can count on the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I can trust the club.	1	2	3	4	5
The club is reliable.	1	2	3	4	5
The club is honest.	1	2	3	4	5
The club have always kept its promises.	1	2	3	4	5
The club is concerned about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
Most of what the club says about its services is true.	1	2	3	4	5
I consider the club as my first choice to have a membership in a sport club.	1	2	3	4	5
I likely will use more services/programmes of the club in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
I probably will renew my membership.	1	2	3	4	5
I consider myself as loyal to the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I consider myself as a regular member of the club.	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to be a member of the club to be a member of other competitor clubs.	1	2	3	4	5

If you would like the token of my appreciation (£25), please write your email address or phone number:

Thank you very much for your participation in this study.