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Effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on user-generated content

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User-generated content where content is created and shared among consumers is of key importance to marketers. This study investigates consumer intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to understand why people create user-generated branded video content. Specifically, we examine the role of altruism (individual difference – intrinsic motivation), social benefits (extrinsic reward), and economic incentives (extrinsic reward) on intentions to create user-generated content. Results show that extrinsic rewards (economic incentives) result in more positive intentions to create user-generated content than intrinsic motivations. However, an effect for altruism is also evident revealing that high altruism consumers are more likely to create positive user-generated content. The implication of these findings is that marketers wanting to encourage user-generated content about their brands should target high altruism consumers and offer economic incentives for content creation.

Keywords: user-generated content; intrinsic motivation; extrinsic motivation; word of mouth

User-generated content is a growing media trend where consumers develop content and share it with others online (Niederhoffer, Mooth, Wiesenfeld, & Gordon, 2007). User-generated content is created by consumers rather than paid professionals (Daugherty, Eastin, & Bright, 2008), involves a variety of online channels, and can be branded or unbranded. In this research, we examine branded user-generated content using digital video (e.g., YouTube clips created by consumers featuring brands). The declining reach of many traditional media is recognized as a key driver for practitioner interest in user-generated content (Niederhoffer et al., 2007). Marketers are reaching out to new information channels to expand the reach of brand communications, which now includes channels controlled by consumers. In addition to changes in traditional media, the rapid emergence of user-generated content online has made this newly popular media of key interest to scholars and practitioners (Libai, Muller, & Peres, 2009). Researchers are recognizing the importance of user-generated content, while also identifying the lack of literature in the area (Burmam, 2010; Stockl, Rohrmeier, & Hess, 2008).

The proliferation of user-generated content is especially recognized by marketers, who have now lost the ability to completely control how a brand is presented in an online context (Bloom, 2005). Consumers are now regularly engaging in branded communication with each other (Bloom, 2005). Research suggests that positive and negative word-of-mouth can have a large impact on consumer decisions (East, Hammond, & Lomax, 2008), indicating that user-generated content presents significant opportunities and threats for

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brands. With the influence of peers being a persuasive influence on behavior (Burnkrant & Cousineau, 1975), content that expresses a positive brand attitude provides opportunities for improvements in brand image. In contrast, brand image can be damaged from negatively branded content (Riegner, 2008). Consequently, marketers are looking to proactively influence user-generated content (Christodoulides, 2008; Garfield, 2005; Neiderhoffer et al., 2007). For example in 2006, Frito-Lay offered consumers the chance to win one of five US\$10,000 cash prizes by creating a 30-second Doritos ad to be aired during the 2007 Super Bowl (SuperBowlAds, 2007). The winning ad, as voted by the public, became the best-liked spot in the Super Bowl 2007 (AdAge, 2007). In 2010, Doritos welcomed their fourth annual 'Crash the SuperBowl' campaign (Doritos, 2010). However, researchers are yet to provide empirical insights into this behavior (Burmam, 2010). The influential power of consumer-to-consumer communication is widely recognized in the literature (Bickart & Schindler, 2001; Brown & Reingen, 1987; Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991), emphasizing the need to research this phenomenon.

The purpose of this research is to provide an understanding of the motivations underlying the creation of user-generated branded video content. Next, we outline the conceptual framework and hypotheses.

Conceptual framework and hypotheses

User-generated content

Marketing messages have evolved from traditional methods following recent advances in technology (Muñiz & Schau, 2007). Paid messages generated by the brand no longer represent the entirety of branded communication, with consumers now involved in creating branded content (Muñiz & Schau, 2007). User-generated content now occupies a significant position within a brand's communication strategies and is considered to be the fastest growing media (Niederhoffer et al., 2007). User-generated content is currently broadly defined as 'media content created or produced by the general public rather than by paid professionals' (Daugherty et al., 2008). In addition to the general lack of literature in this area (Burmam, 2010), there is a lack of literature offering a more specific definition. Researchers acknowledge that the current definition of user-generated content is very broad (Daugherty et al., 2008). This indicates the potential for unreliability of data due to the over-generalization of the term. The need of a defined concept is highlighted when considering the differences between branded and unbranded user generated content and the implications for marketers. The current definition does not distinguish between these two forms.

The branded nature of content determines the relevance of the content to marketers and researchers. Branded content shared among users is likely to have an influence on a brand's image, whereas unbranded content is not relevant in this context. Further, consumer-to-consumer behavior surrounding goods and services are often recognized in research, and branded content provides a far clearer insight into understanding this behavior than unbranded content. This research focuses explicitly on branded content to overcome the limitations of the current definition. The need for a narrow definition of user-generated content is emphasized when considering the variety of content and channels available to users online.

Information channels available to consumers to distribute content are increasing following rapid changes in technology. The Internet has altered information exchange between consumers through the development of tools designed to publish, share, and search content (Niederhoffer et al., 2007). Channels include, but are certainly not limited

to, digital video, blogging, mobile phone photography, wikis, and user-forum posts (Daugherty et al., 2008). Video sharing technology in particular has given rise to increased content creation and greater opportunities for creativity. The accessibility of video creating technology is supported by websites such as YouTube (Niederhoffer et al., 2007), a portal for users to upload and view videos online. Following the emergence of Web 2.0 technologies, the Internet offers an array of other websites designed to host various forms of user-generated content. Wikipedia, Blogger, and Facebook are all examples of websites that make consumer-to-consumer conversation possible (Daugherty et al., 2008). Given the range of channels available, this research again adopts a specific focus. This research investigates content created using digital video.

The advances in technology have reduced the perceived risk associated with generating content as content creation now requires little time and expense (Muñiz & Schau, 2007). Software enabling the creation of audio, video, and animation content is now easily and cheaply accessible to regular desktop users (Muñiz & Schau, 2007). As a result, the market of user-generated content has broadened. The continuous and rapid changes evident in technology are likely to continue driving this trend among consumers. The growth of content created by consumers is expected to persist in the future (Jaffe, 2005).

The growth in content creation suggests that marketers should identify this trend when developing strategies. However, few studies have been designed to empirically understand user-generated content despite the relevance to marketers. To utilize the trend, marketers must first understand why consumers engage in this behavior so consumers can be encouraged to participate in positive content creation. Next we examine the word-of-mouth literature which is relevant to user-generated content.

Word-of-mouth

Literature defines word-of-mouth as communication that is informal (Anderson, 1998; Anderson & Salisbury, 2003; East et al., 2008), interpersonal (Anderson & Salisbury, 2003; Bone, 1995), between consumers (Anderson & Salisbury, 2003), lacking marketer participation or commercial bias (Anderson, 1998; Bone, 1995), and relating to the evaluation of goods and services (Anderson, 1998). The definition indicates a distinct link with user-generated content which is also informal, interpersonal, between consumers, and lacks marketer participation. While marketers may encourage content creation, they are not involved in the creation, making it consumer generated. The focus on branded content in this study strengthens this link as both types of communication relate to the evaluation of goods and services.

Word-of-mouth has been found to influence brand purchase probability (East et al., 2008), the consideration of a new product and adoption of innovation (Arndt, 1967; Engel, Kegerreis, & Blackwell, 1969), shaping consumers' attitudes and behaviors (Brown & Reingen 1987), generating product category interest (Bickart & Schindler, 2001), and product judgments (Bone, 1995; Herr et al., 1991). Research has also indicated that word-of-mouth has a greater influence on consumers' decisions than marketer-generated sources. (Bickart & Schindler, 2001; Villanueva, Yoo, & Hanssens, 2008).

The substantial support for the influential power of consumer-to-consumer communications can be applied in the context of user-generated content based on the justification provided. User-generated content is expected to influence the same factors supported in word-of-mouth literature. Further, it is expected that this communication has greater influential power than marketer-generated sources. This highlights the need for marketers to recognize, manage, and utilize this growing trend.

In establishing a theoretical platform to investigate the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations underlying user-generated content, word-of-mouth literature was again relied upon. Key studies focused on motivation and word-of-mouth were identified and are summarized in Table 1.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 54) defined motivation as ‘being moved to do something’. They acknowledged the complexities involved with studying motivation, having noted the importance of recognizing not only differences in amounts of motivation, but also different kinds (Ryan & Deci, 2000). These classifications refer to the level and orientation of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Recognition of these complexities has guided the selection of a motivation framework that offers simplicity and ease of measurability. This study focuses on the orientation of motivation which concerns the attitudes and goals that drive behavior (Ryan & Deci, 2000). There are two orientations of motivation; intrinsic and extrinsic.

When an activity is intrinsically motivated, it is performed receiving no apparent reward (Deci, 1971). Engagement in the activity provides the person with enjoyment from the activity; thus, they are doing it ‘for their own sake’ rather than for receipt of a reward (Deci, 1975, p. 23). This definition is accepted as an operational definition of intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975). Examples include enjoyment, fun, and altruism (Deci, 1975). Extrinsic motivation is focussed on the attainment of a separable outcome (Deci, 1972; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Here, extrinsic motivation can be compared with intrinsic motivation as this outcome is not sought when engaging in an intrinsically motivated activity. Extrinsic motivation considers the instrumental value of the activity while intrinsic motivation focuses only on the activity itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, extrinsic motivation refers to goals beyond those innate to the activity. Examples include positive feedback (Koestner, Zuckerman, & Koestner, 1987) and economic incentives (Deci, 1971; Pritchard, Campbell, & Campbell, 1977). Table 2 summarizes the motivations underlying word-of-mouth identified in Table 1, classifying them according to the motivational framework.

Table 1. Motivations underlying word-of-mouth behavior identified in literature.

Author(s)	Motivation
Anderson (1998) Sundaram et al. (1998)	Satisfaction/dissatisfaction Altruism (helping others) Altruism (helping the company) Product involvement Vengeance Self-enhancement Anxiety reduction Advice seeking
Bowman and Narayandas (2001)	Customer loyalty Satisfaction/dissatisfaction
Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004)	Concern for others (altruism) Social benefits Self-enhancement Economic incentives
Ho and Dempsey (2010)	Altruism Individuation

Table 2. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations underlying word-of-mouth.

Intrinsic	Extrinsic
Product dis/satisfaction	Self-enhancement
Altruism	Anxiety reduction
Product involvement	Advice seeking
Vengeance	Social benefits
Customer loyalty	Economic incentives

Hypothesis development

The motivations found in literature to drive word-of-mouth behavior guided the hypotheses development. This research focuses on altruism, economic incentives, and social benefits.

Altruism

One intrinsic motivation, the trait of altruism, was selected as it has received substantial support as a motivator of word-of-mouth (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004; Ho & Dempsey, 2010; Sundaram, Mitra, & Webster, 1998). Research has supported altruism as a trait of an individual (Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981). Altruists are defined as individuals who place greater emphasis on the effects on others than on oneself when making decisions (Crawford, Smith, & Krebs, 1987; Liebrand, 1986).

In word-of-mouth, altruism refers to consumers sharing their positive or negative experiences to assist other consumers in making buying decisions (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). This can involve assisting a consumer to achieve a satisfying experience or warning others about negative experiences (Sundaram et al., 1998). As found in word-of-mouth research, it is expected that high altruism will increase the likelihood of creating user-generated branded content. Thus, it is hypothesized:

H1: High altruism consumers will be more likely to create positively and negatively branded user-generated video content than low altruism consumers.

Economic incentives and social benefits

The two extrinsic motivations included in this research, *economic incentives* and *social benefits*, have been selected based on the managerial implications of this research. First, marketers are beginning to offer extrinsic reward to encourage the creation and sharing of positive content, often by offering a cash prize such as in Doritos' 'Crash the SuperBowl' campaign. This research seeks to provide empirical evidence of the effectiveness of this marketing trend.

Social benefits in this study refer to positive feedback and verbal reinforcement. Social benefits are relevant to this study in light of developments in video sharing technology. Video sharing sites such as YouTube allow users to publish comments about other users' content. This demonstrates a high likelihood of content creators receiving positive feedback and reinforcement. Further, campaigns like Doritos' may utilize public voting in determining the prize winner of such competitions. This means of peer feedback refers to social benefits available to participating users.

This research aims to provide marketers with recommendations to encourage the creation of positively branded user-generated content. Economic incentives and social

benefits represent two extrinsic motivations that can be controlled by marketers, indicating that this research will assist marketers in utilizing the trend. It is hypothesized that:

H2: When offered extrinsic reward (economic incentives; social benefits), consumers will be more likely to create positively and negatively branded user-generated video content than prior to being offered the reward.

Consistent with word-of-mouth research, it is expected that extrinsic reward (economic incentives; social benefits) will increase the likelihood of engaging in user-generated branded video content. As found in previous research, it is predicted that economic incentives will have a greater effect than social benefits on the likelihood of creating content (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004):

H3: Economic incentives will have a greater effect than social benefits on the likelihood of creating positively and negatively branded user-generated video content.

Method

Survey development

This research adopted an experimental design with a web-survey used for data collection. The design was a 2 (time: pre-test, post-test) \times 2 (altruism: high, low) \times 2 (extrinsic motivation: economic incentives, social benefits) mixed factorial design with pre- and post-tests. The web-survey included the pre-test, treatment, and post-test. Pre- and post-test measures of respondents within the same data collection has been used in research (Dallimore, Sparks, & Butcher, 2007). The lack of time between the pre- and post-test eliminated history effects and maturation effects that can contaminate the internal validity of the research (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001). Participants read one of the scenarios representing economic incentives and social benefits (see Appendix).

Sample

In total, 101 postgraduate Australian students at the researchers' institution were sent an email containing a clickable URL to the survey. The demographic data of these respondents are contained in Table 3.

Stimuli development

A pre-test involving 28 participants verified the treatments as successful manipulations of economic incentives and social benefits. The pre-test replaced the manipulation check, consistent with other experimental research (Franz, Robey, & Koebnitz, 1986). This method was adopted to reduce respondent fatigue in the survey which was possible if additional manipulation questions were included.

An independent-groups *t*-test revealed a significant difference between the two treatments regarding economic incentives ($t(26) = -11.52, p < 0.001$). The economic incentives treatment was regarded as focusing on economic incentives significantly more than the treatment for social benefits ($M_{\text{economic}} = 6.21$ and $M_{\text{social}} = 2.00$). A significant difference was observed between the two treatments regarding social benefits ($t(26) = 7.36, p < 0.001$). The social benefits treatment was regarded as focusing on social benefits significantly more than the treatment for economic incentives

Table 3. Demographics of respondents.

Characteristic	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>	
Male	32.7
Female	67.3
<i>Ethnicity</i>	
Australian	52.5
European	27.7
Asian	12.9
North American	1.0
South American	0
African	0
Other	5.9
<i>Weekly Internet use (hours)</i>	
<5	5.0
6–10	13.9
11–20	31.7
More than 20	49.5

($M_{\text{social}} = 6.21$ and $M_{\text{economic}} = 2.71$). This verified the treatment used to manipulate economic incentives and social benefits.

Measurement

The survey included pre- and post-test measures of likelihood of engaging in positive and negative user-generated content and word-of-mouth. Word-of-mouth was included as an additional dependent variable given the reliance on this area of literature. Results from the additional variables were also used to demonstrate the link between word-of-mouth and user-generated content. The post-test measures nearly replicated those in the pre-test. However, the pre-test measures were not brand specific and measured pre-existing intention to engage in these behaviors, while the post-test measures specified the brand as introduced in the treatment.

Dependent variables

Positive word-of-mouth. Likelihood of engaging in positive word-of-mouth, was measured twice (i.e., pre-test, post-test) on three seven-point scaled items developed by Maxham (2001). Two different response formats were used, being 1 = very unlikely to 7 = very likely and 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. The questions surrounded a positive consumption experience and asked consumers whether they would engage in positive word-of-mouth as a result (e.g., 'If you had a positive experience with a brand how likely are you to spread positive word-of-mouth about the brand?'). The pre- and post-test measures were replicated; however, 'brand' was replaced with 'TopShots', the hypothetical brand introduced in the experimental treatment. The Cronbach's α coefficients were 0.79 for the pre-test measure and 0.85 for the post-test measure, showing that the scales were reliable.

Negative word-of-mouth. Three seven-point items measured negative word-of-mouth (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997; 1 = very unlikely to 7 = very likely and 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). An example of an item used in the pre-test is 'If you had a negative experience with a brand you would make it a point to tell your friends and

relatives not to use the brand?' The post-test measure replaced 'brand' with 'TopShots'. The Cronbach's α coefficients were 0.77 for the pre-test measure and 0.82 for the post-test measure, showing that the scales were reliable.

Positive user-generated branded video content. The likelihood of creating positive user-generated branded video content was measured using the first item from the validated measure of positive word-of-mouth (If you had a positive experience with a brand how likely are you to create a positively branded digital video featuring the brand and publish it online (e.g., YouTube)?). The post-test measure replaced 'brand' with 'TopShots'. The pre- and post-test items were measured on a seven-point scale (1 = very unlikely to 7 = very likely).

Negative user-generated branded video content. The likelihood of creating negative user-generated branded video content was measured using the first item from the measure of negative word-of-mouth (If you had a negative experience with a brand how likely are you to create a negatively branded digital video featuring the brand and publish it online (e.g., YouTube)?). The post-test measure replaced 'brand' with 'TopShots'. The pre- and post-test items were measured on a seven-point scale (1 = very unlikely to 7 = very likely).

Independent variables

Altruism. Altruism was measured using an adaption of the Self-Report Altruism Scale (Rushton et al., 1981). The 16 seven-point items measured the trait of altruism among respondents (e.g., 'You have given directions to a stranger'). The scale had a Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.89, demonstrating the scale's reliability.

Results

The hypotheses were tested using a 2 (time: pre-test, post-test) \times 2 (altruism: high, low) \times 2 (extrinsic motivation: economic incentives, social benefits) mixed ANOVA with time as a within-subjects factor, and altruism and extrinsic motivation as between-subjects factors.

H1 predicted that high altruism consumers would be more likely to create positively and negatively branded user-generated video content than low altruism consumers. The results revealed significant main effects of altruism on positive user-generated branded video content ($F(1,97) = 4.84, p < 0.05$). It was found that high altruism respondents were more likely to engage in positive user-generated branded video content than low altruism consumers ($M_{\text{low}} = 2.71$ and $M_{\text{high}} = 3.38$). This offered partial support to H1. No main effect of altruism on negative user-generated branded video content was observed ($F(1,97) = 0.46, \text{ns}$), which did not provide support to part of H1. Overall, H1 was partially supported.

Word-of-mouth

There was a significant main effect of altruism ($F(1,97) = 4.27, p < 0.05$), with high altruism respondents found to be more likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth than low altruism respondents ($M_{\text{low}} = 5.40$ and $M_{\text{high}} = 5.86$). This finding was consistent with word-of-mouth literature in motivation discussed which supported altruism as a key intrinsic motivation underlying word-of-mouth behavior (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Ho & Dempsey, 2010; Sundaram et al., 1998). However, inconsistent with this literature, there were no significant main effects of altruism on negative word-of-mouth ($F(1,97) = 0.73, \text{ns}$).

H2 examined whether offering an extrinsic reward (economic incentives, social benefits), would make consumers more likely to create positively and negatively user-generated content than prior to being offered the reward. The main effects of the ANOVA were analyzed to test H2. The results showed significant main effects of time on positive user-generated branded video content ($F(1,97) = 58.87, p < 0.001$). The likelihood of creating positive user-generated branded video content was significantly greater in the post-test, following the introduction of extrinsic reward ($M_{\text{pre-test}} = 1.79$ and $M_{\text{post-test}} = 3.15$). This provided partial support to H2.

Significant main effects of time on negative user-generated branded video content were identified ($F(1,97) = 29.55, p < 0.001$). The likelihood of creating negative user-generated branded video content was significantly greater in the post-test, following the introduction of extrinsic reward ($M_{\text{pre-test}} = 1.77$ and $M_{\text{post-test}} = 2.63$). This result provided partial support of H2, which resulted in the hypothesis being fully supported. The F value for positive content was greater than that of negative content. There was also a greater difference between the means of the pre- and post-test scores for positive content. Therefore, it is evident that the main effects of time were greater for positive content. There were significant main effects of time on positive word-of-mouth ($F(1,97) = 4.27, p < 0.05$). A marginal decrease in likelihood of engaging in positive word-of-mouth was observed following the introduction of extrinsic reward for the creation of user-generated branded video content ($M_{\text{pre-test}} = 5.89$ and $M_{\text{post-test}} = 5.70$). There were no significant main effects of time ($F(1,97) = 1.56, \text{ns}$) on the likelihood of engaging in negative word-of-mouth.

H3 predicted that economic incentives will have a greater effect than social benefits on the likelihood of creating positively and negatively branded user-generated content. H3 was investigated by analyzing the two-way interaction between time and type of extrinsic motivation. There was a significant time \times type of extrinsic motivation interaction for positive user-generated branded video content ($F(1,97) = 7.24, p < 0.01$). There was a greater increase in likelihood among respondents offered economic incentives ($M_{\text{pre-test}} = 1.82$ to $M_{\text{post-test}} = 3.73$) than those offered social benefits ($M_{\text{pre-test}} = 1.77$ to $M_{\text{post-test}} = 2.70$). That is, there was a significantly greater difference in the means of the pre- and post-test of likelihood of creating positive content for economic incentives than social benefits. [Figure 1](#) shows the interaction. These results provided partial support for H3. [Figure 1](#) provides a visual representation of the interactive relationship between the change in pre- and post-test responses according to the extrinsic motivation offered for content creation. The time \times type of extrinsic motivation interaction was not significant for negative user-generated branded video content ($F(1,97) = 0.78, \text{ns}$). Overall, H3 was partially supported.

Discussion

This study sought to identify the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations driving the creation of user-generated branded video content. Specifically, the effects of altruism, economic incentives, and social benefits were investigated. Overall, the results indicate that altruism has a significant positive effect on the likelihood of creating positive user-generated branded video content. Further, offering extrinsic reward for content creation has a significant positive effect on the likelihood of creating positive user-generated branded video content, with economic incentives having a greater effect than social benefits.

The study showed that consumers higher in altruism are more likely to engage in positively branded consumer-to-consumer communications, including both user-

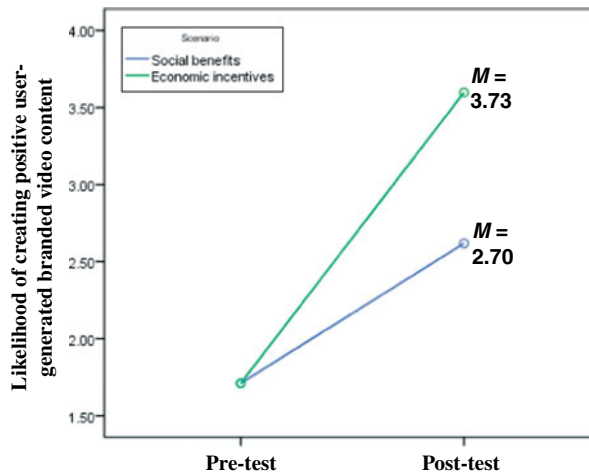


Figure 1. Time \times type of extrinsic motivation on positive user-generated content.

generated branded video content and word-of-mouth. This informs marketers in developing strategies to utilize the trend of user-generated content where high altruism consumers should be targeted. Strategies may be designed to appeal to consumers' desire to care for others.

The comparison of results from the pre- and post-test identified a change in the likelihood of creating positive and negative branded video content as a direct result of the experimental treatment. A significant increase was observed for respondents exposed to economic incentives and those exposed to social benefits. As the experimental treatments did not specify the nature of the content desired, there was an increase in likelihood of both positive and negative branded content creation. However, there was a greater positive effect on the likelihood of creating positive content. This is desirable for marketers as the influence of consumer-to-consumer communications has been supported substantially in literature (Bickart & Schindler, 2001; Brown & Reingen, 1987; Herr et al., 1991). Thus, positively branded content offers significant opportunities for a brand.

This research found that offering extrinsic reward also has a significant positive effect on the likelihood of creating negative user-generated branded video content. In using extrinsic reward to encourage the creation of user-generated content, marketers must emphasize the desire for positive content creation. This may be achieved by providing specific guidelines as to the nature of the content, such as was demonstrated in Frito-Lay's 'Crash the Super Bowl' campaign for Doritos. This campaign challenged consumers to create a television advertisement to *promote* Doritos (Doritos, 2010).

The increase in intention to create positive content observed is important as the study showed that without extrinsic reward, consumers have a low likelihood of creating user-generated branded content (average $M = 1.80$). This research also offers insight into effective ways to achieve a positive result for the brand.

This study found that economic incentives had a greater effect on influencing the likelihood of creating positive user-generated branded video content than social benefits. This is consistent with previous word-of-mouth literature which found that economic incentives had a greater effect on the likelihood of word-of-mouth than social benefits (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). This finding is relevant to marketers who utilize the trend by offering cash prizes. For example, Frito-Lay have offered consumers the chance to win a

cash prize by creating a 30-second Doritos ad to be aired during the Super Bowl (Doritos, 2010).

While the results showed that positive content creation is more likely when offering economic incentives than social benefits, the general increase from both economic incentives and social benefits was still significant. Overall, this research suggests that marketers should offer economic incentives and social benefits or economic incentives only to increase the likelihood. Offering social benefits alone does not result in a significant increase. This result leads to the recommendation that both economic incentives and social benefits may be offered simultaneously. The 'Crash the Super Bowl' campaign for Doritos involved both a cash prize and public voting (Doritos, 2010). This demonstrates that economic incentives were offered, as well as positive reinforcement, or social benefits, from public voting. This study suggests various ways in which marketers can be effective in utilizing user-generated content using economic incentives.

The strategies developed may also target highly altruistic consumers given the relationship identified between altruism and branded communications. This may involve appealing to these consumers' desire to help others, for example, by partnering with a charity or offering economic incentives that have a greater benefit aside from the recipient alone. For example, cash prizes to be shared among friends or a substantial donation to a recognized charity. The study guides marketers in targeting the consumers most likely to engage in positive user-generated content.

Other findings relate to word-of-mouth. Participants were less likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth about the brand after being offered extrinsic reward for content creation. This suggests that the creation of positive user-generated video content for a brand serves as an alternative channel in which consumers may distribute branded communication, rather than an addition to word-of-mouth. This may reflect the participants' intention to channel their branded communications into content creation rather than the word-of-mouth previously anticipated. Word-of-mouth literature has found that positive word-of-mouth is more common than negative word-of-mouth (East et al., 2008). This explains the greater significance of results for positive word-of-mouth than negative word-of-mouth relative to extrinsic motivation. This finding is relevant to marketers seeking to increase content creation as this may not increase the total amount of positively branded communication among consumers. Instead, this communication is distributed using different channels such as user-generated branded video content. This is an important area of future research where the influence of word-of-mouth could be compared with user-generated content to identify the communication offering the greatest benefit to a brand.

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Appendix. Experimental conditions

Economic incentives condition

Imagine you recently purchased a new digital camera called TopShots. The company are inviting people to 'make your own ad' by creating and publishing a digital video featuring the product on sites such as YouTube. Each creator will be rewarded with \$50.

Social benefits condition

Imagine you recently purchased a new digital camera called TopShots. It has become popular for people to create their own TopShots 'ads' and publish them on sites like YouTube. They have received many views and positive comments, including from your friends.